



Deliverable 3.2b

MANUAL FOR DESIGNING, IMPLEMENTING, AND EVALUATING ROAD SAFETY COMMUNICATION CAMPAIGNS: PART II

Final version

Public

CAMPAIGNS AND AWARENESS RAISING STRATEGIES IN TRAFFIC SAFETY

Contract No TREN-05-FP6TR-S07.59641-019520-CAST

Project Coordinator: Institut Belge pour la Sécurité Routière (IBSR)

Author(s): Patricia Delhomme, Werner De Dobbeleer, Sonja Forward,
Anabela Simões, *et al.*

Date: 13-02-2009

Version date: Final

Sixth framework programme
Priority sustdev-2004-3.4.1.4.5.
Sustainable surface transport priority

Title	Manual for Designing, Implementing, and Evaluating Road Safety Communication Campaigns – Part II
Author(s)	Patricia Delhomme (INRETS), Werner De Dobbeleer (BIVV), Sonja Forward (VTI), Anabela Simões (ISEC), Giannis Adamos (UTh), Alain Areal (PRP), Julien Chappé (INRETS), Chloe Eyssartier (INRETS), Peter Loukopoulos (VTI), Teti Nathanail (UTh), Suzanne Nordbakke (TOI), Heiko Peters (BAST), Ross Phillips (TOI), Maria Pinto (INRETS), Marie-Frédérique Ranucci (INRETS), Gian Marco Sardi (SiPSiVi), Jose Trigoso (PRP), Truls Vaa (TOI), Knut Veisten (TOI), Esther Walter (BFu)
Editors	Patricia Delhomme (INRETS), Werner De Dobbeleer (BIVV), Sonja Forward (VTI), Anabela Simões (ISEC)
Date	13.02.2009
Report Number	D-3.2b
Version status	Final version
Availability	Public
QA check	T. Hoekstra (SWOV, the Netherlands)

Campaigns and Awareness- Raising Strategies in Traffic Safety



Manual for Designing, Implementing, and Evaluating Road Safety Communication Campaigns

Part II

EDITORS

Patricia Delhomme, Werner De Dobbeleer,
Sonja Forward, Anabela Simões.



Project co-financed by the European Commission Directorate-General
Energy and Transport



Manual for Designing, Implementing, and Evaluating Road Safety Communication Campaigns

Part II

Step-by-Step Guide for Designing, Implementing, and Evaluating a Road Safety Communication Campaign

Manual for Designing, Implementing, and Evaluating Road Safety Communication Campaigns

Part II

Step-by-Step Guide for Designing, Implementing, and Evaluating a Road Safety Communication Campaign

Editors

Patricia Delhomme (Chief Editor), Werner De Dobbeleer, Sonja Forward, & Anabela Simões

Authors

Patricia Delhomme,	INRETS Institut National de Recherche sur les Transports et leur Sécurité, France
Werner De Dobbeleer,	BIVV/IBSR Belgian Road Safety Institute, Belgium
Sonja Forward,	VTI Swedish Road and Transport Research Institute, Sweden
Anabela Simões,	ISEC (Instituto Superior de Educação e Ciências) / UNIVERSITAS, Portugal
Giannis Adamos,	UTh University of Thessaly, Greece
Alain Areal,	PRP Prevenção Rodoviária Portuguesa, Portugal
Julien Chappé,	INRETS Institut National de REcherche sur les Transports et leur Sécurité, France
Chloe Eyssartier,	INRETS Institut National de REcherche sur les Transports et leur Sécurité, France
Peter Loukopoulos,	VTI Swedish Road and Transport Research Institute, Sweden
Teti Nathanail,	UTh University of Thessaly, Greece
Suzanne Nordbakke,	TØI Institute of Transport Economics, Norway
Heiko Peters,	BAST Bundesanstalt für Straßenwesen, Germany
Ross Phillips,	TØI Institute of Transport Economics, Norway
Maria Pinto,	INRETS Institut National de REcherche sur les Transports et leur Sécurité, France
Marie-Frédérique Ranucci,	INRETS Institut National de REcherche sur les Transports et leur Sécurité, France
Gian Marco Sardi,	SIPSiVi Road Safety Institute, Italy
Jose Trigoso,	PRP Prevenção Rodoviária Portuguesa, Portugal
Truls Vaa,	TØI Institute of Transport Economics, Norway
Knut Veisten,	TØI Institute of Transport Economics, Norway
Esther Walter,	BFU Swiss Council for Accident Prevention, Switzerland

Publisher:

Belgian Road Safety Institute (IBSR-BIVV)

1405 Chaussée de Haecht
B-1130 Brussels
Belgium

www.ibsr.be

Published January, 2009

D/2009/0779/10

© Copyright Belgian Road Safety Institute (IBSR-BIVV) 2009

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without the prior written permission of the publisher.

Acknowledgements

For their participation in the interviews:

Dr. Ken Agent, Transportation Research Engineer, Kentucky Transportation Center, University of Kentucky, USA
Doug Baird, Project Manager, Road Safety Community Education Campaigns, Government of Western Australia, Australia
Liz Barkwith, Road Safety Manager, LARSOA (National Road Safety Organisation), UK
Iain Cameron, Executive Director, Office of Road Safety, Government of West Australia, Australia
Dr. Maxwell Hugh Cameron, Principal Research Fellow, MUARC (Monash University Accident Research Center), Australia
Daniel Careau, Publicity Agency of Quebec, Amalgame, Canada
Dr. David W. Eby, Research Associate Professor and Head Social and Behavioural Analysis Division, UMTRI (University of Michigan Transportation Research Institute), USA
Dr. Barry Elliott, Consultant Psychologist, Australia
Simon Ettinghausen, Director, LARSOA (National Road Safety Organisation), UK
Sharon Glenn, Scottish Executive, Transport Research Branch, Scotland, UK
Dr. Charles Goldenbeld, SWOV (Institute for Road Safety Research), The Netherlands
Susan Gorcowski, Associate Administrator for Communications and Consumer Information, NHTSA, USA
Dr. Eric R. Green, Transportation Research Engineer, Kentucky Transportation Center, University of Kentucky, USA
Rebecca Harrison, UNION, Advertising Agency, Scotland, UK
Matti Järvinen, Director, Liikenneturva, Finnish Central Organization for Traffic Safety, Finland
Dr. Soames Job, General Manager, Road Safety Roads and Traffic Authority NSW, Haymarket, Australia
Janet Kirrage, Safety Education Manager, Transport for London, UK
Patrice Letendre, Communication-Strategy Consultant, SAAQ (Automobile Insurance Company of Quebec), Canada
Raynald Marchand, Canada Safety Council, Canada
Mr Michael McDonnell, Director, Road Safety Scotland, Scotland, UK
Dr. Jeff Michael, Director of the Office of Impaired Driving and Occupant Protection, USA
Dr. Dagfinn Moe, Senior Scientist, SINTEF (Independent Research Organisation), Norway
Matt Overd, Humanitarian Action Strategy Development Manager, Red Cross, UK
Julie Paulli-Budtz, Project Leader, Sikkertrafik (Safe Traffic), Denmark
Dr. David Preusser, President of PRG (Preusser Research Group, Inc.), USA
Anne Readett, Communications Manager, National Road Safety Foundation, USA
Pietro Semifero, Mobilization Coordinator, Michigan State Police, Office of Highway Safety Planning, USA
Fiona Seymour, Head of Publicity, THINK!, Department for Transport, UK
Steve Sibonis, Coordinator, Marketing and Communications, Government of South Australia, Australia
Walter Snoei, Communication Advisor, Ministry of Transport, Public Works and Water Managements, the Netherlands
Jesper Sølund, Head of Documentation, Sikkertrafik (Safe Traffic), Denmark
Koos Tamis, Policy Advisor, Ministry of Transport, Public, the Netherlands
John Thompson, Marketing Manager, Transport Accident Commission (TAC) Victoria, Australia
Dr. Trine Marie Stene, Research Scientist, SINTEF (Independent Research Organisation), Norway
Wim van der Noort, Senior Research Consultant, Public Information and Communication Office, the Netherlands
Jonathon Vivoda, Research Associate II, Social and Behavioural Analysis Division, UMTRI (University of Michigan Transportation Research Institute), USA
Cecilie Waterloo Lindheim, Norwegian Public Roads Administration, Norway
Dr. Jeremy Woolley, Senior Research Fellow, Center for Automotive Safety Research, University of Adelaide, Australia

For their evaluation of the manual:

Dr. Heinz Bonfadelli, IPMZ, Institute of Mass Communication and Media Research, Switzerland
Eamonn Brown, Road Safety Officer, Donegal County Council, Ireland
Axel Druart, Main Coordinator, RYD (Responsible Young Drivers), Belgium
Dr. Charles Goldenbeld, SWOV, (Institute for Road Safety Research), the Netherlands
Tamara Hoekstra, SWOV, (Institute for Road Safety Research), the Netherlands
Dr. Guy Paquette, Head of the Road Safety Research Group, University of Laval, Canada
Anna Petridou, Corporate Communication Manager, Attikes Diadromes SA, Greece
Peter Van Vendeloo, Director of Corporate Communication, Ministry of Transport, Public Works and Water Management, the Netherlands
Justyna Wacowska-Slezak, Deputy Head of Road Traffic Safety Centre, Poland
Nathalie Wirtner Julmi, Responsible for Campaigns, Swiss Council for Accident Prevention (BPA), Switzerland

For the editing of the manual by an English-speaking professional: Vivian Waltz

For the layout of the manual: Nicole Valentin

Table of Contents

PREFACE: THE CAST PROJECT	15
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	16
INTRODUCTION	21
1. GETTING STARTED	25
1.1. IDENTIFYING AND DEFINING THE PROBLEM	27
1.1.1. ROAD CRASHES: STATISTICS AND DATABASES	27
1.1.1.1. <i>Level of specificity</i>	28
1.1.1.2. <i>Databases should cover at least five years</i>	28
1.1.1.3. <i>Local, regional, national, and international databases</i>	28
1.1.2. OFFENCES AND BEHAVIOURS (OBSERVED AND SELF-REPORTED)	29
1.1.3. EMERGING ISSUES: NEW LEGISLATION OR MEDIA COVERAGE	29
1.2. ANALYSING THE CONTEXT	31
1.2.1. ORGANISATIONAL ASPECTS	31
1.2.2. SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONTEXT	31
1.2.2.1. <i>General aspects</i>	31
1.2.2.2. <i>Specific aspects</i>	32
1.3. LOCATING PARTNERS AND STAKEHOLDERS AND GETTING THEM INVOLVED	34
1.3.1. WHO ARE THE POTENTIAL STAKEHOLDERS AND PARTNERS?	35
1.3.2. GETTING STAKEHOLDERS INVOLVED AS PARTNERS IN THE CAMPAIGN	36
1.4. DRAFTING THE BUDGET	38
1.4.1. TYPE OF BUDGET	38
1.4.2. INCORPORATING THE COST OF RESEARCH AND EVALUATION	38
1.5. GATHERING CAMPAIGN PARTNERS AT A KICK-OFF MEETING	40
1.5.1. DEFINING THE ESSENTIALS OF THE CAMPAIGN AND DISCUSSING THE STRATEGY	40
1.5.2. CREATIVE BRIEF	41
1.6. CALLING FOR BIDS AND SETTING UP THE CAMPAIGN TEAM	42
1.6.1. ADVERTISING AGENCIES	42
1.6.2. PRODUCTION AGENCIES AND VENDORS	43
1.6.3. MEDIA-BUYING AGENCIES	43
1.6.4. PUBLIC-RELATIONS AGENCIES	44
1.6.5. RESEARCHERS	44
CONCLUDING RECOMMENDATIONS	46
2. ANALYSING THE SITUATION	47
2.1 THOROUGHLY ANALYSING THE PROBLEM AND POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS	48
2.1.1. LOOK FOR EXISTING INFORMATION	48
2.1.1.1. <i>Qualitative and quantitative studies</i>	48
2.1.1.2. <i>Research proposing theoretical models</i>	49
2.1.1.3. <i>Past campaigns and other actions</i>	50
2.1.1.4. <i>Marketing studies on the target audience</i>	50
2.1.2. SYNTHESIS OF AVAILABLE DATA	50

2.2. DECIDING WHETHER TO SEGMENT THE AUDIENCE	52
2.3. DETERMINING HOW TO ACT ON MAIN MOTIVATIONS AND REACH THE AUDIENCE	54
2.3.1. WHICH MOTIVATIONS TO FOCUS ON	54
2.3.1.1. <i>Knowing whether the behaviour is intentional or unintentional</i>	54
2.3.1.2. <i>Defining the motivational factor(s)</i>	54
2.3.2. HOW TO REACH THE AUDIENCE	57
2.4. DEFINING THE CAMPAIGN'S SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	58
2.4.1. PRIMARY OBJECTIVES	58
2.4.2. SECONDARY OBJECTIVES	58
2.5. GATHERING INFORMATION FROM EVALUATIONS OF PAST CAMPAIGNS AND OTHER ACTIONS OR PROGRAMMES	61
CONCLUDING RECOMMENDATIONS	62
3. DESIGNING THE CAMPAIGN AND THE EVALUATION	64
3.1. DEVELOPING THE CAMPAIGN STRATEGY	65
3.1.1. DEFINING THE STRATEGY	66
3.1.2. DEVELOPING THE MESSAGE	67
3.1.2.1. <i>Developing the content of the message</i>	68
3.1.2.2. <i>Devising the structure and style of the message</i>	69
3.1.2.3. <i>Choosing the campaign identifiers</i>	71
3.1.2.4. <i>Pre-testing the message</i>	73
3.1.3. SELECTING THE MEDIA AND DEFINING THE MEDIA PLAN	74
3.1.3.1. <i>Choice of media and possible mediators</i>	75
3.1.3.2. <i>Media planning</i>	77
3.1.4. DEVELOPING AND PRE-TESTING THE MESSAGE AND SLOGANS IN THEIR FULL CONTEXT (PRE-PRODUCTION)	79
3.1.4.1. <i>Developing the message and slogans in their full context</i>	79
3.1.4.2. <i>Pre-testing the message and slogans in their full context</i>	80
3.2. DESIGNING THE CAMPAIGN EVALUATION	82
3.2.1. DEFINING THE OBJECTIVES OF THE EVALUATION AND DEVELOPING EVALUATION MEASURES	82
3.2.1.1. <i>Process evaluation – measures for evaluating the implementation of the campaign</i>	82
3.2.1.2. <i>Outcome evaluation – measures for evaluating the effects of the campaign</i>	84
3.2.1.3. <i>Economic evaluation – measures for evaluating the cost-effectiveness and efficiency of the campaign</i>	86
3.2.2. CHOOSING THE EVALUATION DESIGN AND SAMPLE	87
3.2.2.1. <i>Using quasi-experimental designs: control or comparison groups</i>	87
3.2.2.2. <i>Sampling technique</i>	88
3.2.3. DEFINING METHODS AND TOOLS FOR COLLECTING DATA	90
3.2.3.1. <i>Methods for gathering data</i>	90
3.2.3.2. <i>Tools for gathering data</i>	93
3.2.3.3. <i>Pre-testing the evaluation, hiring and training investigators</i>	93
3.2.4. PLANNING THE EVALUATION	95
3.2.4.1. <i>Before period</i>	95
3.2.4.2. <i>During period(s)</i>	95
3.2.4.3. <i>After period(s)</i>	96
CONCLUDING RECOMMENDATIONS	97

4. CONDUCTING THE BEFORE-PERIOD EVALUATION AND IMPLEMENTING THE CAMPAIGN	99
4.1. CONDUCTING THE BEFORE-PERIOD EVALUATION	100
4.1.1. PRACTICAL PREPARATIONS FOR THE EVALUATION	100
4.1.2. LAUNCHING AND CARRYING OUT THE EVALUATION	100
4.1.3. QUALITY CONTROL OF THE BEFORE-PERIOD EVALUATION	100
4.2. PRODUCING THE CAMPAIGN MATERIALS	102
4.2.1. PRODUCTION OF THE MATERIALS	102
4.2.1.1. <i>Who handles the production of materials</i>	102
4.2.1.2. <i>Steps in the production of materials</i>	102
4.2.2. MEDIA BOOKING	103
4.3. IMPLEMENTING THE CAMPAIGN	104
4.3.1. LAUNCHING THE CAMPAIGN	104
4.3.1.1. <i>Earned media and free publicity</i>	104
4.3.1.2. <i>Building a long-term relationship with the media</i>	104
4.3.1.3. <i>Establishing media lists</i>	105
4.3.1.4. <i>Choosing press channels</i>	105
4.3.1.5. <i>How to contact/inform the media</i>	105
4.3.1.6. <i>When to announce the campaign (timing)</i>	108
4.3.1.7. <i>Evaluation of press coverage</i>	108
4.3.2. RELEASE OF CAMPAIGN MATERIALS	108
4.4. CONTROLLING THE RELEASE OF CAMPAIGN MATERIALS AND POSSIBLE FEEDBACK ON PREVIOUS STEPS	110
CONCLUDING RECOMMENDATIONS	111
5. COMPLETING THE EVALUATION AND DRAWING CONCLUSIONS	112
5.1. IMPLEMENTING THE CHOSEN METHOD FOR THE DURING- AND/OR AFTER-PERIOD EVALUATIONS	113
5.1.1. CONTINUING WITH THE EVALUATION	113
5.1.1.1. <i>During-period evaluation</i>	113
5.1.1.2. <i>After-period evaluation</i>	113
5.2.2. CONTROLLING EVALUATION QUALITY	113
5.2. PROCESSING AND ANALYSING THE EVALUATION DATA	115
5.2.1. PROCESS EVALUATION	115
5.2.2. OUTCOME EVALUATION	116
5.2.3. ISOLATING THE EFFECTS OF THE CAMPAIGN	117
5.3. GATHERING COST AND COST-EFFECTIVENESS INFORMATION	119
5.3.1. EVALUATING THE TOTAL COST OF THE CAMPAIGN	119
5.3.2. ECONOMIC EVALUATION	119
5.4. DRAWING CLEAR CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE CAMPAIGN	121
CONCLUDING RECOMMENDATIONS	122
6. WRITING THE FINAL REPORT	123
6.1. STARTING POINT: WHY WRITE A REPORT?	125

6.2. CONTENT AND STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT	126
6.2.1. BACKGROUND	127
6.2.2. CAMPAIGN STRATEGY	127
6.2.3. EVALUATION	129
6.2.3.1 <i>Process evaluation</i>	129
6.2.3.2 <i>Outcome evaluation</i>	130
6.2.3.3 <i>Economic evaluation</i>	131
6.2.3.4 <i>Discussion</i>	132
6.2.4. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	132
6.2.5. REFERENCES	133
6.2.6. APPENDIX	133
6.2.7. AUTHORS' NOTE	133
CONCLUDING RECOMMENDATIONS	135
PART II: SUMMARY	136
<hr/>	
CONCLUSION	140
<hr/>	
REFERENCES	145
<hr/>	

Preface: the CAST project

In 2001, 50,000 people were killed on roads in the countries that today make up the European Union. In order to maintain sustainable development within the EU, the European transportation system must be more reliable, safer, and more efficient. In a White Paper¹ on European transport policy published in 2001, the European Commission adopted an ambitious middle-term strategic objective: to reduce the number of EU road fatalities by half before the year 2010. This target means supporting many projects and placing a much higher priority on implementing the most effective measures at the European, national, and local levels.

The White Paper stresses the critical role played by road safety campaigns in attaining this objective. Public-awareness media campaigns are aimed at changing behaviour, either directly, or by providing information that will influence people's knowledge, attitudes, and/or beliefs and in turn, change their behaviour. The European Commission's goal is to provide powerful and innovative guidelines for designing, implementing, and evaluating better road safety campaigns.

Campaigns and Awareness-Raising Strategies in Traffic Safety (CAST) is a targeted research project supported by the European Commission. It was set up to meet the Commission's need to enhance traffic safety by means of effective road safety campaigns. The CAST project covered the period from 2006 to 2009, and was geared to fulfil the need for tools among campaign practitioners. CAST has developed two such tools to help practitioners design and evaluate road safety campaigns. The design tool (i.e., the present manual) contains detailed guidelines for designing and implementing a campaign, based on both existing research and new results produced by the CAST project. The evaluation tool is aimed at helping users conduct the best evaluations, ones that are tailored to the specific characteristics of each road safety campaign and are well-suited to assessing the campaign's effectiveness. With these two tools, practitioners can accurately evaluate their campaigns and also ensure that new campaigns will be planned and executed in a way that will have the optimal impact.

The CAST project was carried out by a consortium of 19 partners and coordinated by the Belgian Road Safety Institute (IBSR-BIVV). It included all of the major European organisations with skills and experience in the area of road safety campaigns, bringing together expertise from throughout the EU.

More information on the CAST project can be found on the CAST website, www.cast-eu.org.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The aim of this manual is to provide a detailed and practical tool that can be used to design, implement and evaluate road safety communication campaigns. It contains both a theoretical background and a practical guideline how to carry out campaigns on a national and international level. It is aimed at both researchers and practitioners involved in designing and implementing road safety communication campaigns all over Europe.

Road safety communication campaigns can be defined as purposeful attempts to inform, persuade, or motivate people in view of changing their beliefs and/or behaviour in order to improve road safety as a whole or in a specific, well-defined large audience, typically within a given time period by means of organised communication activities involving specific media channels often combined with interpersonal support and/or other supportive actions such as enforcement, education, legislation, enhancing personal commitment, rewards, etc.^{2,3,4}

Communication campaigns about road safety have as many as five main goals:

- 1) To provide information about new or modified laws.
- 2) To improve knowledge and/or awareness of new in-vehicle systems, risks, etc., and the appropriate preventive behaviours.
- 3) To change underlying factors known to influence road-user behaviour.
- 4) To modify problem behaviours or maintain safety-conscious behaviours.
- 5) To decrease the frequency and severity of accidents.

From a pragmatic point of view, an additional explicit or implicit goal can be to inform road users of risky behaviours identified by authorities. In this case, the road safety campaign can serve as a support for road-safety policy making.

This manual is designed to give the reader access to a comprehensive body of information about road safety communication campaigns. It is divided into two parts. The first part, which is the theoretical one provides a background on road safety and communication campaigns; the second, which is more practical presents a step-by-step guide for designing, implementing, and evaluating a road safety communication campaign. If your main interest lies in practical issues, you may want to skip directly to the second part of the manual. Conversely, those who are looking for a theoretical background will see that the first part offers important discussions about human behaviour and how to influence it, which can in turn increase the chances of developing a successful campaign.

Part I: Background on Road Safety and Communication Campaigns

Part I consist of two chapters: Chapter 1 starts with a presentation of road safety statistics on fatalities in Europe. The current statistics show that there are large differences between member states but also that especially age and gender play an important part. This provides a background of a problem that is very often the starting point of any road safety campaign. After this initial overview, the question of why accidents occur is raised. Studies have shown that several factors contribute to road crashes although most of them are caused by human factors. In this manual these human factors are explained in some detail by looking at task performance in general and unsafe acts in particular. An unsafe act that results in a road crash can be described as unintended or intended. An unintended act might be a failure to see an oncoming car and an intended one might be speeding or drink driving. The intentional versus unintentional nature of an act has important implications for the development of campaigns.

The manual presents various models explaining the driving task, risk perception, and unsafe acts, both intended and unintended. Road-user behaviour can be subject to both internal

variability and external variability. The manual outlines several factors that can account for these variations, some more permanent (e.g., personality) or stable (e.g., attitudes) than others (e.g., distraction).

In order to change behaviour the campaign needs to identify the unsafe behaviour (and sometimes the safe behaviour) and its precursors. First, we present the main determinants of behaviour along with some important theoretical models likely to account for what motivates road users to adopt a safe or unsafe behaviour. Next, we describe how to act on these determinants to eliminate the unsafe behaviour, by examining models of persuasion and the process of change. By outlining the various models the manual helps to identify some critical factors that a practitioner should not ignore.

A communication campaign is not the only intervention that can reduce the number of road crashes. Other supportive activities such as enforcement, education and legislation are often used in combination with communication campaigns. Chapter 2 therefore starts with a discussion of combined actions and integrated programmes. Then, the manual outlines how campaigns try to influence and change social behaviour in order to reduce the number of road crashes which in turn is of benefit for the society in general. The term used in this context is “Social Marketing”, which is based on a number of concepts and strategies that are also found in standard product marketing. The manual outlines the differences between standard product marketing and social marketing and presents a scheme for using the social marketing strategy.

To increase the likelihood of success, you can learn what elements make a campaign effective by looking at successful past campaigns or programmes reported in qualitative or quantitative research. Any campaign that does not take the advantage of lessons learnt from the past could pay a high price. In the manual it is stressed that the primary goal should be to draw from accumulated knowledge, regardless of whether previous campaigns had positive effects or not. Two methods used in this context, meta-analysis and descriptive studies, are presented and their advantages and disadvantages are discussed.

A critical factor in effective road safety campaigns is identifying the target audience (primary and secondary audiences), since knowing the audience is a key to running a fruitful campaign. One common approach discussed in the manual is to divide the target group into different segments, i.e., groups of people who share some key characteristics.

Concerning the campaign’s messages, the objective is to develop messages likely to play an important role in behavioural change, by capturing the attention of the targeted individuals and leading them to adopt the safe behaviour. This is obviously not easy and needs careful planning. To start with, the manual presents a detailed overview of what will be said in the message (content strategy) and how and by whom it will be said (execution strategy). For the content strategy, a rational or emotional approach can be used. The use of fear appeals has generated a great deal of interest, but its effects are far from clear and unequivocal. The manual presents some evidence both for and against this technique, and concludes that fear appeals can be effective but only in specific situations. The manual also lists a number of important factors that need to be considered before using fear appeals. Then, the message should be pre-tested in order to validate or perhaps modify it. Pre-testing various message combinations allows the campaign planner to assess the feasibility of using the message and its effectiveness in leading the target group to a behaviour change. Several techniques for pre-testing messages are given.

Road safety communication campaigns can rely on various means of communication (selective, interpersonal, and mass media). Each means has its own communicative power, which can be utilized according to how well it aligns with the type of message and the aim of the communication. To choose the most appropriate media, the manual presents a number

of factors to consider such as communication types, target audience, media characteristics and costs.

Every road safety campaign should be properly evaluated in order to determine whether it has achieved its objectives and to draw clear conclusions about its effectiveness. The manual describes the three different types of evaluations: process, outcome and economic. A process evaluation takes place during the campaign and is aimed at determining whether the campaign has been properly implemented and is working as it should. An outcome evaluation measures the effects of the campaign ideally by comparing the target group with a comparison group not exposed to the campaign itself. An economic evaluation helps in determining whether the campaign justifies its cost.

Part II: Step-by-step Guide for Designing, Implementing and Evaluating a Road Safety Communication Campaign

Part II gives practical recommendations on how to design, implement, and evaluate a road safety communication campaign. The recommendations are based not only on interviews with practitioners, advertising agencies, and researchers in Europe and elsewhere, but also on a review of the literature and our own experience. This part outlines the six steps needed to complete the entire campaign process:

- Getting started.
- Analysing the situation.
- Designing the campaign and the evaluation.
- Conducting the before-period evaluation and implementing the campaign.
- Completing the evaluation and drawing conclusions.
- Writing the final report.

Getting started

Before designing the campaign, it is important to determine the nature of the problem and decide if it should be used on its own or in combination with other supportive activities. Hence, the first step consists of identifying the problem based on statistics and database reports. In addition to this, the organisational, socioeconomic, legal, and political contexts in which the problem occurs should be analysed. The second step is to locate and engage potential partners and stakeholders in the campaign, determine how they will interact, and bring them together at a kick-off meeting. Some possible partners and stakeholders are public authorities and private organisations. After this step the campaign budget needs to be decided upon, which must include the cost of the evaluation. Then the creative brief presenting a general overview of the situation should be formulated. The creative brief acts as a link between the partners throughout the various stages of the campaign. Finally, any collaborating outside agencies should be carefully selected.

Analysing the situation

The previous step presented only a general overview of the situation. This next step is more detailed. It starts with an in-depth assessment of the problem and its possible solutions based on synthesized information from four sources: qualitative and quantitative studies, research on theoretical models, previous campaigns and other actions, and marketing studies on the target audience. It is not uncommon to find that the available data are incomplete at least to fit with the target audience, so it might be necessary to conduct additional research. The data obtained will be useful in deciding on what segments of the population to target and in determining the main predictors of the problem behaviour. At the end of this step and before examining the evaluation methodology (design and variables), the general aim defined at the onset should be converted into specific objectives.

Designing the campaign and the evaluation

After the situation has been analysed, the campaign strategy should be defined. This includes deciding upon the type of campaign (media-based only, combined with other action(s), integrated campaign) and its scale (national, regional, local). The strategy should be based on an overall social-marketing approach and theoretical models of change. When this has been achieved it is time to decide upon the style of the message (i.e., content and execution strategy), as stated in the creative brief. This is followed by the preparation of a media plan, which includes choosing media types, media vehicles (e.g., TV, radio and advertisements), mediators, possible supportive activities, and campaign identifiers (e.g., logo).

When formulating the plan, the campaign budget, its timing and length, advertising costs for each medium, demographic statistics of coverage, media-placement openings, and so on need to be considered. Once the campaign's message and slogans have been designed, the messages should be pre-tested. Moreover, it is also necessary to pre-test the procedures, activities, and other materials before actually implementing the campaign.

After designing the campaign, attention needs to be turned to how the evaluation should be conducted, whether by an in-house or outside organisation. In this manual three forms of evaluations are suggested: process, outcome and economic. To be able to draw clear conclusions about the outcome of the campaign, an evaluation design should be carried out with at least two measurement periods (before and after), and if possible using a comparison group. The tool used to evaluate the campaign could be a survey or observations, which should also be pre-tested to make sure they measure the right thing.

Conducting the before-period evaluation and implementing the campaign

Once the campaign has been designed and the methods used to evaluate it have been decided upon, it is time for implementing the before-period evaluation. However, before this can be done, some practical aspects of the evaluation need to be considered, including checking the material against the evaluation design and constraints in the field. At the same time, the campaign material should be produced and media time and space should be booked, either in-house or through an outside agency. Producing the material requires several sub-steps: technical briefing, the pre-production and production phases, approval of the produced material by the campaign initiator, and the post-production phase. When this is done the campaign itself can be launched. The campaign's progress should be carefully monitored and quality-controlled so that any problem arising either during the campaign or the evaluation can be handled promptly.

Completing the evaluation and drawing conclusions

In this step, the evaluation measurements scheduled for during and/or after the campaign should be made, including data processing and data analysis. The results of the before-period measurement should be compared to those taken during and/or after the campaign, in order to find out whether the campaign worked and on which dimensions it did or did not have effects. When possible, making at least two after-period evaluations is recommended, shortly after the campaign ends and then after several months to assess any long-term effects. The overall results of the evaluation provide clear conclusions about the strengths and weaknesses of the campaign, as well as about its cost-effectiveness.

Writing the final report

The final report ends the campaign process. It justifies the work and money spent on the campaign by the financiers, policymakers, authorities, partners, stakeholders, and the

campaign team. The final report should provide an overview of each step carried out in preparing and conducting the campaign and its supportive activities, including essential elements such as the rationale of the campaign, the qualifications of the staff involved in the campaign and evaluation, and the campaign's basic design, including campaign strategy, how the messages and slogans were developed and the frequency and intensity at which they were presented. It should also state the methods used to evaluate the campaign (according to the process, the outcome and the economic evaluations) and its results. The report should end with a discussion and a final conclusion about the effectiveness and strengths/weaknesses of the campaign. Whatever the effects of the campaign, evaluation reports must be made available in a library and indexed in a valid database of facts and knowledge. An international on-line database that indexes the campaign reports and the quantitative results is useful for communication practitioners and safety researchers hoping to design, implement and evaluate effective and efficient road safety communication campaigns in the future.

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this manual is to provide a detailed and practical tool for designing, implementing, and evaluating road safety communication campaigns. It contains both a statistical and theoretical background on road safety and communication campaigns, and a wealth of practical recommendations for conducting campaigns at the local, regional, national, and international scales. It is aimed at decision-makers, practitioners, researchers, students, and any organisation involved in designing and implementing road safety communication campaigns in Europe and abroad.

Why write a manual? To our knowledge, there are very few manuals on road safety communication campaigns^{5,6,7,8}. Thus, only limited information is available on how road safety communication campaigns are designed, implemented, and evaluated, and on the best practices to do so. Yet it is important to have a manual specifically focusing on this topic, because such a manual can help individuals involved in road safety campaigns to improve the effectiveness of any future campaigns they conduct.

Governments and authorities at different levels invest a great deal of money and effort in changing the behaviour of road users. Road safety communication campaigns are one of the most important means of persuading road users to adopt safe behaviours. Together with enforcement and road engineering, they constitute a crucial resource. However, how much do we really know about such campaigns, beyond specific national characteristics? Do we really know if the many current efforts are successful? In our minds, the answer is no. Without rigorous evaluation and reporting, it is very difficult to know whether a campaign is successful or not. Evaluations also tell us whether the investment was worthwhile, a fact which in turn may affect future funding.

Our stance in this manual is an optimistic one, for we believe that future road safety communication campaigns can benefit from lessons learned from previous research. Descriptive studies and meta-analyses have shown that campaigns are more likely to succeed if they tackle only one, well-defined theme and select a specific target audience. Moreover, it is essential that the campaign is based on extensive research and relevant theoretical models, which help not only in identifying the main predictors of the problem behaviour but also in designing the campaign message. A social marketing framework should be used to integrate these elements into a broader strategy for influencing road users' behaviour. A major requirement is that practitioners, researchers, and decision-makers will work closely together to make the campaign a success. Each of these actors must be able to step into the shoes of the others.

Whether or not the campaign has positive effects, the results should be published and presented to a large audience by means of a final report. Systematic reporting on past campaigns can provide valuable input for future initiatives. Furthermore, the use of descriptive reviews and meta-analyses, which provide information about several related studies, can help in identifying key elements likely to lay the foundation for future success.

Definition of road safety communication campaigns

Building on existing descriptions of road safety campaigns^{2,3}, the CAST consortium adopted a new, general definition:

Purposeful attempts to inform, persuade, and motivate a population (or sub-group of a population) to change its attitudes and/or behaviours to improve road safety, using organised communications involving specific media channels within a given time period, often

supplemented by other safety-promoting activities (enforcement, education, legislation, enhancing personal commitment, rewards, etc.)⁴.

In this manual, we focus on campaigns that involve more than mass communication. In fact, communication campaigns about road safety can have as many as five main goals:

- 1) Provide information about new or modified laws.
- 2) Improve knowledge and/or awareness of new in-vehicle systems, risks, etc. and of appropriate preventive behaviours.
- 3) Change underlying factors known to influence behaviour.
- 4) Modify unsafe behaviour or maintain safety-conscious behaviour.
- 5) Decrease the frequency and severity of accidents.

From a pragmatic point of view, an additional implicit or explicit goal can be to inform road users that authorities have identified risky road behaviours and have placed a priority on decreasing them. In this case, the road safety campaign might serve to support the authorities' road-safety policy.

How to use this manual

This manual was designed to offer readers easy access to information about road safety communication campaigns. It is divided into two main parts. The first part is theoretical: it provides a background on road safety and communication campaigns. The second part is more practical: it presents a step-by-step guide for designing, implementing, and evaluating a road safety communication campaign.

Even for those who are more interested in the practical issues covered in the second part of the manual, the first part may be valuable since it presents some important theoretical discussions about human behaviour and how to influence it; gaining these insights may increase the chances of developing a successful campaign.

At the end of each chapter in Parts I and II, the essential elements are summarized. Each section of Part II ends with a set of recommendations to guide you in planning, implementing, and evaluating your campaign. Note that the manual has been written so that readers can go directly to the second part, depending on their needs and knowledge.

Part I presents an in-depth overview of background information that can help you in developing a more effective campaign. It consists of two chapters. Chapter 1 deals with road safety and road-user behaviour in general. After presenting statistics on road accidents in Europe, it discusses the human factors that play an important role in accidents, providing information about task performance and highlighting the distinction between unintentional and intentional behaviour, both of which can be influenced by a road safety communication campaign. This is followed by a presentation of the main theoretical models describing the precursors of road behaviour. Finally, models of persuasion and the process of change are outlined. Chapter 2 discusses road safety communication campaigns in greater detail. It starts by presenting relevant communication types and marketing strategy factors for road safety campaigns and then describes some key elements likely to increase the impact of a campaign. It also discusses the target audience and the most important features of a road safety communication campaign. The chapter ends with an overview of the evaluation process and recommendations for isolating the effects of the campaign itself in cases where it was combined with other programs or initiatives.

Part II outlines six different steps for designing, implementing, and evaluating a road safety communication campaign. The information provided herein comes from interviews carried

out with practitioners, advertising agencies, and researchersⁱ in different countries, and from a review of the literature and our own experience.

Generally, the starting point of any intervention is a road safety problem that has been identified, usually by looking at statistics (e.g., road crashes, offences). The problem should then be studied to see if it can be solved by a road safety communication campaign alone, or whether the campaign needs to be combined with other supportive activities. Moreover, the campaign may be integrated into a planned programme with other campaigns and/or road-safety actions. This is an important point, because a road safety communication campaign is not always the most straightforward way to change a problem behaviour.

Even if you conclude that a road safety communication campaign will help in solving the problem, or at least in providing part of the solution, you might still be unsure as to how to proceed. Maybe you fear that the task will be too difficult -- but rest assured, you probably have more knowledge and know-how than you think. Perhaps you are working with colleagues and partners who can be of some assistance or even make up part of the campaign team.

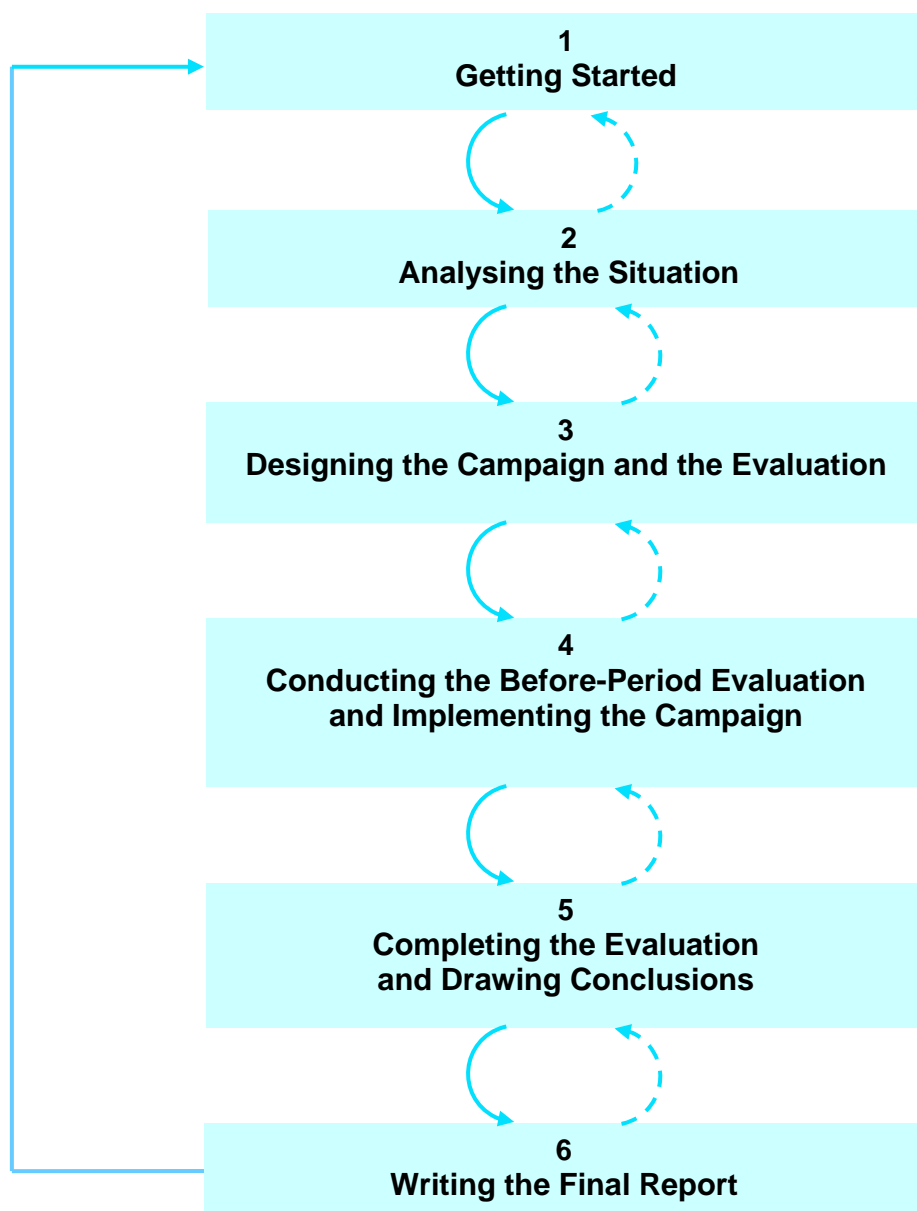
To update your knowledge, save time and money, and be well organised, you can follow **six basic steps** (see Diagram 1) that will guide you through the process of designing, implementing, and evaluating your road safety communication campaign. For the sake of clarity, the steps are presented as a sequence. However, be aware that they are interdependent and cannot necessarily be accomplished in a strictly sequential way. Indeed, a road safety communication campaign is guided by key decisions on everything from the overall goal to specific objectives, strategy and launch of the campaign, and even its evaluation. Sometimes, effective decisions and optimal work at one stage depend on feedback from a previous stage. This means that a given step may be revisited and further developed if necessary.

Once the six steps have been carried out, the cycle is complete. The conclusions that you have drawn from the campaign and its evaluation will give you the necessary input for the next campaign cycle.

In the following presentation, each step will be broken down into sub-steps that will be covered in some detail.

ⁱ Academics included.

Diagram 1. Steps in designing, implementing, and evaluating a road safety communication campaign

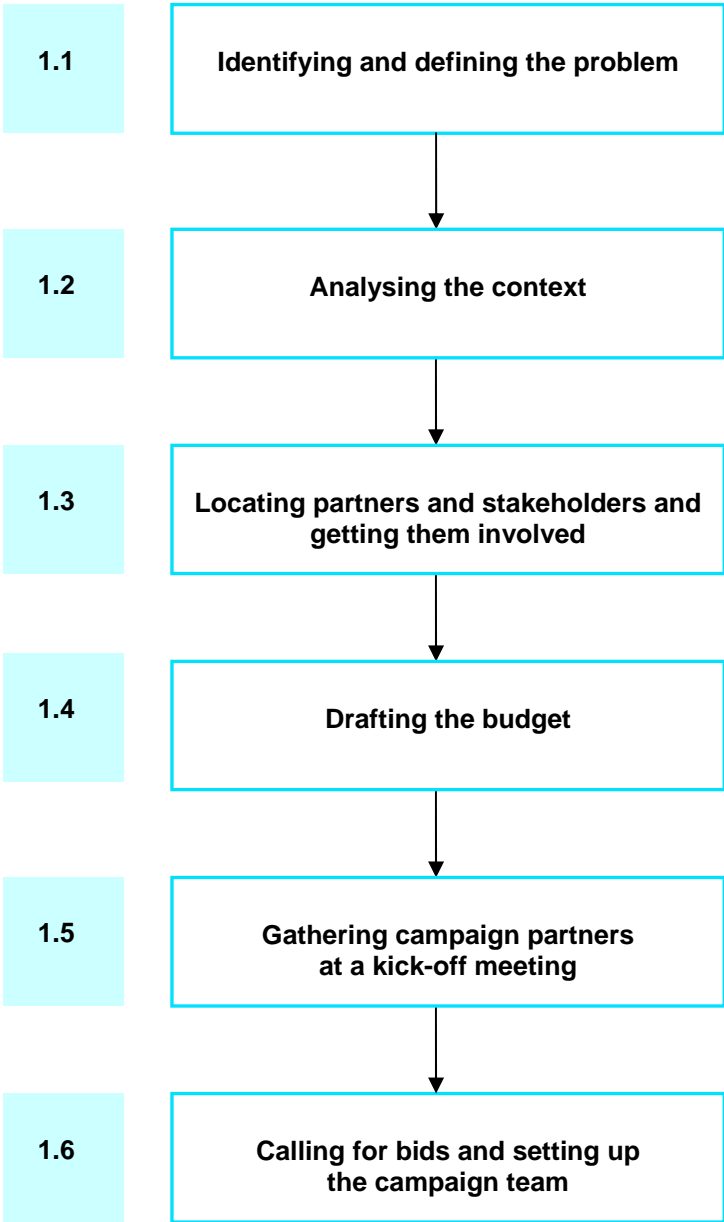


1. Getting Started

You are going to carry out a road safety communication campaign in view of reducing the number of road casualties. Depending on the actual problem, its context, and the target audience, the decision will be to run a media campaign on its own or to combine it with other actions.

Before designing the campaign, you will need to gather background information on the problem. It will be necessary to collect data about possible contributing factors, the types of road users who are involved, and the context in which the problem occurs. You will then need to look for campaign partners and stakeholders who will be able to support your campaign and/or be part of the campaign team. To get started, you can follow the sub-steps outlined in Diagram 2.

Diagram 2. Sub-steps for getting started



1.1. Identifying and defining the problem

Generally, the road-safety problem is identified by the initiator of the campaign. The initiator is the person or organisation that decides to run the campaign. In most cases, the initiator coordinates and organises the campaign from A to Z, including supervision of the campaign team.

Identifying and defining the problem is a prerequisite for taking action. It is important to base the problem definition on objective data whenever possible. Ideally, the definition will be grounded on statistics that shed light on the magnitude and severity of the problem. These can be road-crash statistics (an expression of actual risk), data on traffic offences, measures of problem behaviour (observed or self-reported), and new phenomena or re-emerging problems that have received increased media attention.

At this point, it is important to obtain and catalogue all readily available data. For example, you should draw up an inventory of existing published research about the problem in order to be well informed on the issueⁱ. Your review of the literature should include data on any campaign that has been done before. This step allows you not only avoid missing out on information, but also to make sure your work is based on the state of the art in the field.

1.1.1. Road crashes: statistics and databases

When collecting information about road crashes, it is advisable to rely on more than one database (e.g., police reports, hospital admission reports, official crash reports, insurance reports, road-safety indicators, traffic-engineering reports). This helps you get a more realistic picture of the problem, including its scope (local, regional, national), characteristics (type of road, type and severity of accidents, type of road users involved), changes over time (whether it is increasing or decreasing), and possible causes.

For crashes where there are no injuries but only property damage, the police are not automatically called to the scene of the accident; their presence on site depends on the extent of the damage. Therefore, it might be preferable to use accident statistics gathered by insurance companies. The same goes for crashes with vulnerable road users, since many crashes of this type fail to get reported to the police, even if there are injuries. In the latter case, hospital statistics can be especially useful to obtain a more correct picture of the problem. It is important to consult several databases, which should be as complete and reliable as possible.

The higher the quality of the data gathered, the more accurately the problem can be described, and the more appropriate the measures and programmes can be. Using different types of databases allows you to identify the most likely causes of road accidents according to the type of road users involved in the crash, the type of highway, etc.

The road-crash databases you use should (a) present sufficiently specific information, such as the time and place of each accident, as well as its severity, road users involved (type and number), and direct causes and consequences; (b) cover a long enough period of time; and (c) provide information at the local, regional, national, and even international levels.

ⁱⁱ For further information, visit the EU website that amply describes both past and future campaigns: http://ec.europa.eu/transport/roadsafety/publications/projectfiles/supreme_en.htm

1.1.1.1. Level of specificity

The databases consulted should contain specific information concerning the probable factors related to the problem.

- Severity of accidents: knowing how serious accidents are makes it possible to classify them as fatal accidents, personal injury accidents, or property-damage-only accidents. A classification according to severity is an indicator of the importance and urgency of a given road-safety problem, and permits a better problem definition.
- Type of road user(s) involved: this lets you know which types of road users are affected most by the problem.
- Vehicles involved in the accident: information about the type and number of vehicles in an accident tells you whether or not the accident concerns a particular type of vehicle (bicycles, powered two-wheeled vehicles, cars, vans, etc.).

1.1.1.2. Databases should cover at least five years

It is important to analyse the accident statistics over a sufficiently long time frame in order to determine whether the accident rate remained stable, increased, or decreased. The time frame should be at least five years.

1.1.1.3. Local, regional, national, and international databases

The analysis of crash data will establish whether the problem is general or specific. Other regions may have developed best practices to tackle the problem effectively; these can provide valuable information.

Moreover, you can also compare the situation in your country with that of other countries. For instance, you can use annual international databases to compare accidents occurring in European countries and abroad (international comparison) (see Box 1). However, one must be careful in interpreting the data, because international databases do not always define their terms in the same way (road accidents, traffic laws, etc.).

Box 1. International database examples

Several international databases on road safety can be used to obtain road accident statistics from around the world.

- **The European Road Safety Observatory (ERSO)**⁹ is an essential website for all European road-safety professionals. ERSO is the gateway into a central resource of European road-safety data, knowledge, and links. It helps policymakers, researchers, and road-safety advisors to link up with the European road-safety world. The ERSO knowledge base, particularly the **section on accident data**, offers in-depth information about alcohol and driving, novice drivers, older drivers, cost-benefit analysis, post-impact care, road-safety management, road-safety ratings, speeding, speed enforcement, pedestrians and cyclists, vehicle safety, work-related road safety, and quantitative road-safety targets.
- **RoadSafetyWeb**¹⁰ is a website that gathers and centralises data from awareness-raising campaigns in the field of road safety. Its goal is to create a platform to promote various campaigns and facilitate information sharing via a forum for exchanging knowledge and experience about campaigns among participating organisations. Participants can use the campaigns in the database as a source of inspiration for new campaigns. RoadSafetyWeb centralises campaign data using a common structure and facilitates data searches and browsing.
- **The CARE**¹¹ **database** (Community Road Accident Database) of the European Union's Directorate-General for Energy and Transport (DG-TREN) is a database on road accidents resulting in death or injury (no statistics on property damage – only accidents). CARE includes detailed data on individual accidents as collected by Europe's member states.
- The **International Road Federation (IRF)**¹² is a non-governmental, non-profit organisation with the mission of encouraging and promoting development and maintenance of better, safer, and

- more sustainable roads and road networks. The IRF World Road Statistics is a global compilation of road and vehicle statistics from 1958 onwards, for more than 185 countries.
- **The International Road Traffic and Accident Database (IRTAD)**¹³ provides an aggregated database of about 500 data items from 30 countries, for which international accident, victim, and risk data are collected on a continuous basis.
 - Other specific databases containing data for specific road users or specific locations can be used: CHILD (children), ECBOS (coach and bus occupants), ETAC (truck accidents), MAIDS (motorcyclists), RISER (highways accidents), etc.

Road-crash statistics can also be included in a *road-safety barometer* system, which allows one to monitor the evolution of crashes on a regular basis (monthly, quarterly, etc.), along with other variables such as observed or self-reported behaviour, beliefs, and knowledge (see next paragraph)

1.1.2. Offences and behaviours (observed and self-reported)

Information on offences and road-user behaviours can be found in databases containing information from road-safety indicators or surveys. The road-safety barometer system used in several European countries compiles various types of data that are monitored at regular intervals, including risk-behaviour statistics (observed or self-reported), offence statistics provided by the police (number of tickets issued by the police, number of police reports), sanction statistics provided by the justice department (number of fines, other sanctions, vehicles confiscated). For example, to monitor driving under the influence, random roadside testing may be carried out, with drivers being stopped regularly at a fixed frequency (e.g., one driver out of five for random breath testing). Data on speeding or seatbelt use may be garnered by looking at numbers of traffic citations or by observation.

To supplement collected statistics on observed behaviour, regular surveys can be used to obtain self-reported measures of knowledge, beliefs, and behaviours concerning various road risks (e.g., SARTRE - Social Attitude to Road Traffic Risk in Europe, long-term tracking studies, etc.).

1.1.3. Emerging issues: new legislation or media coverage

A road safety communication campaign may also be initiated on the occasion of a new traffic law being passed or an existing law being modified. Usually, this is based on a problem reflected in road-crash statistics (fines, rules concerning right-of-way, driving under the influence, use of in-vehicle technologies, etc.). Moreover, when a new problem appears, databases and road-safety barometers may provide information about newly observed behaviours and/or self-reported data related to the problem.

A problem given prominent coverage in the media can be used as a campaign theme even when it is difficult (or impossible) to measure the consequences of that behaviour in terms of road accidents. For example, there is ample clinical evidence for the negative effects of cannabis use on driving, but so far, very few statistics have been published on the number of road accidents caused by drivers under the influence of cannabis (the DRUID project will provide more information by 2010ⁱⁱⁱ). In some countries, a great deal of media attention has also been focused on the risks of fatigue while driving. Numerous reports have appeared in

ⁱⁱⁱ The objective of DRUID, Driving under the Influence of Drugs, Alcohol and Medicines, is "to give scientific support to the EU transport policy to reach the 2010 road safety target by establishing guidelines and measures to combat impaired driving".

the media on the importance of taking rest breaks during long drives on a motorway. Up until a few years ago, the public and the media have not been highly aware of these issues.

A road safety communication campaign may also be used to educate the public, who might be misinformed on a particular topic, or completely unaware of it. Other starting points might be, for example, distraction caused by the use of mobile phones or a GPS.

1.2. Analysing the context

At this stage, you should get an overview of the broader organisational and economic context surrounding the problem. The context is an important element to take into account if you want to design a campaign that is relevant and effective. The context analysis will indicate if the campaign can or should be combined with other actions or programmes.

1.2.1. Organisational aspects

Organisational aspects are linked to the question “Who is responsible for road safety in the country?” (i.e., responsibility for roads and highways, traffic laws, campaigns, education, vehicle-related and technical aspects). A single organisation may be responsible for several facets, ranging from road infrastructures to awareness-raising and education.

In other cases, these responsibilities are shared by several organisations: the ministry of public works for roads, the ministry of the interior for police enforcement, the ministry of education for road-safety education programmes taught in schools, etc. For example, in France, the United Kingdom, Germany, and The Netherlands, there are separate, unrelated organisations to handle road-safety research, road-safety programmes, and road-safety administration. In other countries, these three domains are handled by a single governmental organisation. In general, governmental agencies are always responsible for road-safety policy, whereas awareness-raising and public education may be tasks shared by governmental entities and/or private charities or non-profit organisations.

1.2.2. Socio-economic context

The context in which the campaign and possible supportive activities are prepared has two levels: a general context, which can relate to the broader socio-economic, legal, and political situation, and a more specific societal context.

1.2.2.1. General aspects

Socio-economic, legal, and even political factors can have an influence on the driver and his/her behaviour, on the road and traffic environment, on the vehicle and its equipment, and thus on road safety. It is therefore necessary to look at these contexts in which a road-safety problem occurs.

General contextual aspects including legal issues, driver education, transportation and infrastructures, and geographic and economic factors, are presented here.

Legal issues

- Current traffic laws (what kind of behaviour is allowed or prohibited), e.g., legal alcohol limit, speed limits.
- Quality of traffic legislation (Are the rules clear and unequivocal?).
- Enforcement level of traffic laws (objective and subjective risk of getting caught when committing an offence), e.g., number of police controls for drinking and driving, speeding.
- Possible sanctions for offenders (Are the sanctions severe or not? Are they proportional to the danger caused by the offence?).

- Follow-up on traffic offences (What is the risk of appearing before court if the person refuses to pay the fine decided by the police? What is the real risk of being sanctioned?).
- Driver's license legislation (merit point system or conventional driver's license, price of obtaining a driver's license).

Driver education

- Level and quality of driver education.
- Driver improvement programmes.
- Probationary license and learner's permits for young drivers.
- Follow-up on risk groups (i.e., young drivers, elderly drivers).

Transportation and infrastructures in the country or region, including mass transit

- Quality of road infrastructures and equipment (roadside information, variable message signs, automatic tolls, etc.).
- Investments in improving the road environment.

Geographic and economic factors

- Factors that lead to high traffic volume (e.g., the presence of ports, airports, industry, etc.); these may influence the type and density of road traffic, which in turn will affect road safety.

1.2.2.2. Specific aspects

Once the general context is taken into account, a more specific context should be defined. Attention should be paid to the elements that could have an impact on the campaign. Four main types are listed below.

Communication context

Defining the communication context will require identifying the following aspects.

- The presence of:
 - Campaigns or actions that might conflict (for instance, car advertisements that focus on power and high speeds can have an impact on drivers' behaviour, mainly on speeding).
 - Other road-safety campaigns or programmes on the same theme that are planned to run at the same time but on another scale (for example, a non-profit organisation might be conducting a local campaign while a governmental agency is running a national road safety communication campaign; this might lead to conflicts in timing, profiling needs, etc.); even if the launch date of your campaign is not yet known, you will usually have a general idea about the timing.
- The existence of any other campaigns addressing the problem or similar problems that have been conducted recently (within the past five years). In this case, it might be useful to adopt the same theme, which is already familiar to the target audience (see Part I: *Some key elements for increasing the effectiveness of campaigns: learning from the past*, pp. 85-100).
- The prominence of road-safety coverage in the media. It is important to know how much play is given to road safety in the media (Are there road accidents that had big media coverage?) and more specifically, what themes were treated and in what way (How did the media treat this subject?).

It is essential to know to what extent public awareness of the problem was generated by campaigns and/or by other factors. This can be learned from existing data or by conducting additional studies.

Events and seasonal topics

The time of the year when campaigns are carried out may be crucial, as these times may involve an increase in traffic or in partying and festive behaviours. For example, running a campaign around the time of special events such as Christmas, New Year's Eve, or the World Cup in football might be more effective because special events can generate greater involvement. However, some caution is needed here, since certain seasonal events may attract such huge media attention that the road-safety campaign gets lost in the shuffle.

Level of societal attention paid to road safety as a problem

The way in which road safety is treated within a society is also an important contextual factor, for example, whether or not road safety has become highly visible in the political debate. To illustrate this concept, we can cite the case of France in 2001, when road safety was declared a "major national cause" to fight for, and other cases like the European Road Safety Charter project initiated by the European Union in 2002 and the Road Safety Week of the United Nations.

Specific road-safety measures

Measures related to legislation (changes in traffic laws, fines, etc.), enforcement (increased enforcement, higher fines, etc.), infrastructures (roundabouts, speed bumps, etc.), and vehicle technology are all part of the context in which road safety problems occur. For instance, the introduction of new speed limits has proven effective in reducing the number of fatal crashes on the roads¹⁴. In some areas of the United States, raising the speed limit on motorways resulted in a 15% increase in the number of fatalities¹⁵.

1.3. Locating partners and stakeholders and getting them involved

After defining the problem and its context, it is time to list all possible stakeholders who are connected with the issue and who could potentially be brought into the campaign as collaborators. As an initiator, you should therefore seek to contact any potential partners who have a direct or indirect interest in the campaign's objective.

Campaign **stakeholders** are those who have an interest in running the campaign and possible supportive activities. For example, road authorities have a commitment to reduce crashes, which is a principle of good governance; the police have an interest because guaranteeing public safety is one of their main tasks. In addition, there are insurance companies, who strive to reduce the financial risks associated with payments to traffic-accident victims. Other examples of stakeholders include road-user associations and special-interest groups (i.e., automobile associations, federations of cyclists, road victims' associations).

Campaign **partners** are those stakeholders who play an active role in the campaign; they include financial partners (sponsors) and organisations whose logistical support is needed to run the campaign. Examples of potential campaign partners are commercial advertisers (petrol brands, car manufacturers), trade associations (beverage industry, bar and restaurant owners), and private companies who wish to invest in public welfare (see Box 2).

Both stakeholders and partners can play a role in the choice of supportive activities or promotional actions, and/or participate in these activities.

Box 2. Some examples of partners or stakeholders who might be involved in a road safety communication campaign

Many kinds of partners and stakeholders can be involved in a road safety communication campaign.

- When carrying out a road safety communication campaign on railroad crossings, the railroad management could be involved.
- In Canada, MADD (Mothers Against Drunk Driving), a road victims' advocacy organisation with chapters in Canada and the United States, is involved in road safety communication campaigns (e.g., the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, an agency of the United States government, has a partnership with MADD).
- In Australia, an anti-speeding campaign was run in partnership with a football team to encourage student drivers to drive more slowly. Another action was conducted with a football team, which joined with a road-safety organisation in urging young drivers to get at least 120 hours of driving practice before going on to their probationary license.

Developing strategic partnerships is useful for¹⁶:

- Reducing duplication of effort.
- Sharing knowledge and expertise.
- Ensuring better allocation of resources.
- Getting social support and public involvement.
- Overcoming potential obstacles created by opposing parties.
- Getting synergistic effects and added value.

1.3.1. Who are the potential stakeholders and partners?

Public authorities

Public authorities in the areas of transportation (Ministry of Transport, road-management agencies), legal affairs (i.e., Ministry of Justice), or enforcement (i.e., national police board, local police) can operate at the national, regional, or local level. They can provide financing and/or logistical assistance in the campaign. Local campaigns are generally financed by local authorities without regional or national financial support (and likewise for the regional and national levels). However, regional or national authorities might provide campaign materials (e.g., posters) to local authorities, who in turn can conduct supportive activities in cooperation with the higher levels.

Unfortunately, public authorities are not necessarily willing to collaborate with some potential partners (such as non-governmental organisations, NGO) in every country. Although it is not impossible for an NGO to involve public authorities in a campaign, setting up such partnerships requires a great deal of motivation and effort^{iv}. A prerequisite is to see if the public authorities can assist at the national, regional, or local level.

Non-profit organisations and special-interest groups

Non-profit or special-interest groups can initiate campaigns (see Box 3) or link up to campaigns run by other organisations. Some of these organisations focus on specific themes or road-user groups. For instance, there may be road-safety organisations that work specifically on promoting pedestrian safety (e.g., International Federation of Pedestrians, European Association of Pedestrians), on reducing highway fatalities (e.g., Parents of Road Victims, European Federation of Road Victims), or on educating young children about road dangers. Non-profit associations or special-interest groups may be funded by commercial sponsors on a long-term basis and/or they may receive financial support from the government.

Box 3. Illustration of a campaign initiated by a non-profit association: “European Night Without Accident” launched by Responsible Young Drivers (RYD) with the support of the European Commission (DG-TREN)¹⁷

Responsible Young Drivers is a non-profit organisation whose mission is to promote road safety by urging young drivers to practice responsible driving. RYD’s main goal is to stop fatalities among young drivers, not only during the weekends but also on weekdays.

European Night Without Accident is an awareness campaign that is conducted every year on a Saturday night in October, in as many nightclubs as possible. The goal is to get the road-safety message across. With the support of the European Commission, nightclub owners, and hundreds of volunteers, the European Night Without Accident has been running since 2003 in over 100 nightclubs all over Europe.

This night provides a unique opportunity for volunteers to interact with thousands of young people. In each nightclub, an RYD team welcomes drivers at the entrance and encourages them to take a responsible attitude behind the wheel. Each young driver is told about the dangers and risks on the road. Drivers who want to participate can make a sobriety pledge with the RYD team: they commit to staying sober all night so as to be able to drive back home safely.

^{iv} e.g., for volunteer organisations working with and/or for young drivers it might be useful – in getting public authorities involved as stakeholders or partners in a campaign – to mention the European Road Safety Charter (www.erscharter.eu) and the Declaration of the World Youth Ambassadors for Road Safety (www.who.int/roadsafety/en), both of which are a good means of influencing authorities.

Later in the evening, as the young reveller is leaving the club, an RYD volunteer suggests that he/she give proof of having kept the promise by taking a breathalyser test. Those young people who did indeed follow through are then rewarded with gifts from the campaign partners and sponsors. Those who did not are encouraged by the RYD team to leave their car in the parking lot or entrust the drive home to a friend who is sober.

Businesses and trade associations

Businesses (banks, insurance companies, vehicle manufacturers, vehicle equipment manufacturers, safety equipment manufacturers, transportation companies, private motorway companies, etc.) as well as trade associations and unions may be willing to provide funds or to actually participate in running or evaluating the campaign.

They can also give practical assistance as campaign facilitators or mediators. In this role, they will deliver the campaign messages and information to the target audience by functioning as a communication channel, e.g., via their website and/or publicity network. For instance, an insurance company serving as a campaign sponsor could disseminate the campaign message and materials via its network of insurance agents.

Private organisations might be chosen either because of their close association with the target audience (e.g., youth organisations could target young drivers; car dealers could target drivers in general; cycling organisations could target cyclists, etc.), or because they can provide logistical support or have a personal or corporate commitment.

Researchers

Researchers, whether independent or part of a research body (university department, research agency, etc.), can be brought into the campaign when the campaign theme is related to one of their specific research topics. In this case, researchers can provide the campaign initiator with valuable input. Moreover, they can be in charge of the evaluation (design, implementation, etc.) as stakeholders, or merely as participants in the actual evaluation process.

1.3.2. Getting stakeholders involved as partners in the campaign

As a campaign initiator, you should be aware of the importance of public-relations networks that can reinforce your campaign. It is recommended that you do a survey of the relationships with identified stakeholders and that you create and maintain good relationships, especially with organisations that are potential allies (see Box 4). Some stakeholders have an obvious interest in participating in a campaign (e.g., non-profit road-safety organisations); for others, the reasons for participating may be less obvious. In all cases, involving stakeholders as partners is time-consuming.

Box 4. List of possible partners

Many kinds of partners can be involved in road safety campaigns and/or supportive activities:

- Police
- Schools
- Festival and event organisers
- Volunteer networks (e.g., La Prévention Routière, Veilig Verkeer Nederland, Deutsche Verkehrswacht, Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents)
- Road-safety organisations
- Organisations that can provide logistical support such as lending special equipment for public-awareness events (driving simulators, equipment for testing reaction times, etc.)

- Professional organisations (e.g., insurance industry associations, trade associations for the auto-repair industry, express delivery companies, corporate fleet managers)
- Activist groups (e.g., for cyclists, motorcyclists, truck drivers)
- Alcohol-beverage makers (for a drinking-and-driving campaign)
- Associations of restaurant owners, nightclub owners, etc.
- Doctors, other medical personnel, and hospitals
- Health services and clinics
- Supermarkets and retail stores (e.g., bike shops, car-accessory stores)
- The telecommunications industry (e.g., mobile phone makers, telecommunications providers)
- Service stations, petrol companies, etc.
- Automakers, manufacturers of safety equipment, etc.
- Researchers, academics, universities, etc.

Certain potential partners may be perceived as being incompatible with the campaign, for example, beer producers for a drinking-and-driving campaign. In reality, this might not be the case, and they might, on the contrary, be able to make an important contribution (see Box 5). It is important to keep an open mind and to see such organisations as potential allies rather than adversaries.

Box 5. Involving perceived opponent organisations as campaign partners

It can be useful to involve organisations that might seem opposed to the campaign theme.

In relation to speeding, some automakers work on speed limiters or cruise controls, which they may include in their marketing policy (safety is an important selling point). Consequently, they are potential allies in road safety communication campaigns, although some road safety “hardliners” may be sceptical about involving automakers. This illustrates how possible opponents might get involved in a campaign.

For a drinking-and-driving campaign, involving the beverage industry has possibilities. At first, this idea may appear far-fetched, because being involved in what is essentially an anti-alcohol campaign would seem to go against the industry’s interests. However, many people in the beverage industry see this differently, since promoting responsible use of their products can have a positive impact on their corporate image (and consequently on their sales).

1.4. Drafting the budget

The budget is a highly critical element. Of course, it has a direct impact on all aspects of the campaign.

1.4.1. Type of budget

Most of the time, the total budget allocated to campaigns (including the evaluation) is fixed annually and is therefore not very flexible.

If the campaign initiator is a public authority, the annual budget may be negotiated in the political arena and may be part of the government's total budget for road-safety initiatives, based on the government's agenda in this area. If the initiator is a private organisation, the annual budget may be negotiated with the board of directors and be based on the organisation's strategic goals.

There are exceptions, however. Some organisations define and negotiate the budget for each campaign separately, although such flexibility is rare.

If the campaign is conducted by a non-governmental organisation, chances are that the total budget will be rather limited, since NGOs do not generally benefit from a high level of funding.

Ways to increase funds for your campaign include lobbying for government funding (including, for example, proceeds from the national lottery), ensuring that you have an advocate at budget-planning meetings, organising fundraising actions (e.g., benefit events), and applying for private sponsorship.

1.4.2. Incorporating the cost of research and evaluation

When calculating the campaign budget, the cost of research – which of course includes evaluation – must be figured into the total. Indeed, research activities should not be made to suffer for the sake of saving money. Although the cost of research may seem high, it is an essential part of all campaign processes, including gaining a deeper understanding of the problem behaviour and the target audience(s).

A well-planned and well-executed campaign pays for itself, not only because it has a better chance of success, but also because the lessons learned from it will help improve the effectiveness and cost-efficiency of future campaigns. At the onset, stakeholders, partners and private non-profit organisations may be more interested in financing the actual campaign rather than research. However, they might increase their interest in raising money for research if they realised that the campaign results may not only give them good publicity but also provide them with more detailed information about money spent on the project. Using this argument, it may be easier to convince them to finance some or all of the research.

If the necessary experience and means are invested in the campaign and its evaluation, standard procedures regarding the type of data to be collected can be established (i.e., self-reported data, observed data, and/or road crash data). The evaluation procedures developed in the CAST project can be used as a basis for this¹⁸. When partners meet for the first time,

they may already know whether control or comparison group(s) will be used^v, and on which dimension the evaluation will be based (e.g., observed or self-reported behaviour depending on the theme). Consequently, they will already have an idea of the evaluation cost. For example, to determine the budget to be allotted for the evaluation, the department in charge of managing the evaluation can rely on its own experience and past evaluations in other regions or countries. In Europe, when a quasi-experimental design with control or comparison group(s) is used, including before and after measurements, the percentage of the budget devoted to evaluation ranges between 5% and 20% of the total campaign budget.

However, in cases where the budget is so limited that there is very little left for research and evaluation, it will be necessary to make compromises (e.g. between the number and type of variables, the size of the sample, and the cost) while still maintaining an evaluation design that will allow for clear conclusions.

^v It is advisable to have at least one before and one after measurement with control or comparison group(s).

1.5. Gathering campaign partners at a kick-off meeting

All partners involved in the campaign should meet, at the initiator's request, to talk about the campaign. During this meeting, the assignment of tasks should be discussed. For example, tasks such as designing, implementing, and evaluating the campaign (message design, production of materials, evaluation stages) can be performed either by in-house departments or outside agencies. When the initiator decides to work with outside agencies, these agencies can be present at the meeting if they have already been contracted^{vi}.

After this meeting, the campaign initiator will prepare the first draft of the communication brief.

1.5.1. Defining the essentials of the campaign and discussing the strategy

The essentials of the campaign will be discussed during the kick-off meeting: What is the problem? Who is targeted? What type of campaign might be needed to reach this target audience? Then some preliminary ideas about the general strategy for achieving the goal can be brought up.

In doing so, it's imperative to consider each step of the campaign process: doing preliminary research (in-depth situation analysis), defining the campaign concept, designing the campaign including its messages, choosing the media that will be used in the campaign, producing the campaign materials, launching the campaign with an announcement to the press, implementing the campaign and the evaluation, and producing the final report.

Depending on the nature of these tasks, it is important to know:

- What skills are necessary.
- Whether the initiator or one of the partners has the know-how needed to perform these tasks, or if an outside agency should be contracted.

For example, the campaign material might be produced internally or externally. Depending on the type of campaign and the media used, this may involve photography, graphic design, illustration, layout, printing, recording and production of audiovisual materials, digital media production (websites, internet advertisements, etc.), manufacture of campaign giveaways, etc.

Another important issue concerns the campaign evaluation. To produce an unbiased evaluation and draw clear conclusions, the evaluator should be independent, impartial, competent, and reliable. The choice of evaluator will mostly be a pragmatic one. In some cases, it may be more practical to work with a combination of in-house and outside evaluators, depending on the type of evaluation needed:

- Internal evaluators can be staff members who are experienced with the required type of evaluation.
- External evaluators or auditors can be consultants or specialized companies that are commissioned to perform the evaluation.

^{vi} This can happen if they are hired for several years on a fixed-contract basis (see *Advertising agencies*, p. 42-43).

The evaluation itself should be closely monitored by an evaluation committee (regarding quality control, see Part I: *Evaluating campaigns*, pp. 131-147, and *Conducting the before-period evaluation and implementing the campaign*, pp. 99-111). This committee may be composed of the campaign initiator, campaign partners, researchers, and other stakeholders.

1.5.2. Creative brief

After the kick-off meeting, the first creative brief or communication brief will be produced. The creative brief is developed by the campaign initiator in collaboration with campaign partners. It must be updated by the campaign initiator at each step of the campaign, and also whenever any new and important information comes up. The creative brief can be considered as the logbook of the campaign, laying out the guiding principles for designing the campaign and its evaluation. The more detailed it is, the better the campaign will be able to reach its objectives.

At this point in the development phase of the campaign, the information provided in the creative brief will be based on existing knowledge about the campaign theme and target audience (from statistics, road-safety barometer systems, etc.). Moreover, if past campaigns have taken place on this theme and for this target audience, information from them can also be used as input (see Box 6).

Box 6. Creative brief for a campaign on speeding

- **Problem description:** statistics on accidents due to speeding, data on speeding offences and behaviour (observed and self-reported), types of roads where speeding problems are most often seen, types of road users involved, etc.
- **Context of the problem:** speed management and enforcement system, speed limits, fines for speeding, enforcement level, previous measures to counter the problem, possible societal trends that encourage speeding
- **Target audience(s):** audience(s) most involved in the problem behaviour, for example, male drivers ages 20-25
- **General goal of the campaign:** to reduce speeding-related accidents by influencing speeding behaviour of target audiences
- **Campaign stakeholders and partners:** national and local police forces, road victims' associations, local governments, insurance companies (sponsor), etc.
- **Possible media and distribution channels:** network of road billboards, network of insurance brokers, etc.
- **Total available budget** including the budget for evaluation
- **General time frame for the campaign:** for example, October-November

In any case, the initial creative brief will be a general overview of the situation, in relation to the population most involved in the problem. Additional elements needed for developing the campaign strategy will be investigated during the situation analysis.

1.6. Calling for bids and setting up the campaign team

After having determined what know-how is needed and is available, it is time to assemble the campaign team. Typically, the campaign team will consist of people from the initiator's organisation, the campaign partners, and any third parties that will be hired as subcontractors. If you do not have the appropriate knowledge and facilities in-house, you should not hesitate to consult and/or hire a professional or an expert. Such a solution often saves time and improves the quality of the final product. Thus, part of the work involved in the design, production, and implementation phases can be subcontracted to specialized companies such as communication and advertising agencies, printers, etc. However, it is important to stress that all work should remain under the supervision and responsibility of the campaign initiator. If your budget does not actually allow you to hire outside vendors, you may choose to perform all tasks internally. However, you should be aware that this might cost more in the long run, since having experts permanently on staff is not always cost-effective.

For hiring outside agencies, you should put out a call for bids or a request for proposals (RFP). The creative brief should be attached to the call for bids.

The choice of vendors is made according to the following selection criteria:

- The first criterion concerns general competencies, such as background in the field of social marketing and/or safety campaigns (e.g., road safety or public-awareness campaigns, specific target groups).
- The second criterion concerns more specific skills related to the particular task to be performed, such as expertise in statistical analysis, experimental design, and theoretical models explaining behaviour.

These competencies should be mentioned in the call for bids or RFP (see Box 7).

Box 7. Stages of the bidding process

The bidding process should involve at least the following stages:

1. Preparing a short list of possible vendors.
2. Defining, drawing up, and issuing a request for proposals, including available budget and deadlines.
3. Defining specific competencies to be used as selection criteria.
4. Evaluating the bid documents according to the cost/quality trade-off.
5. Discussing bids with candidates (experienced people are needed for proper negotiation).
6. Making the right choice and drawing up the contract agreement.

1.6.1. Advertising agencies

Generally, the initiator works with one or more agencies to design the campaign. Some agencies are hired to work on a single campaign; others are hired for several years to work on various campaigns with different themes or geographic scales or to participate in an entire campaign programme. For instance, some countries have multi-part campaign programmes with a number of recurrent themes (e.g., driving under the influence, speeding, use of safety equipment) that are addressed every year for 4 or 5 years.

In this last case, the length of time covered by the contract with the advertising agency may correspond to the length of the programme, so it may encompass more than one campaign

or more than one year. Insofar as the advertising agency will be contracted for a longer period, making the right choice is important. It is one of the keys to success.

The advertising agency (see Box 8) usually takes care of campaign logistics and also plays a consulting role. However, the possible roles of the advertising agency depend on its background and can vary quite a bit from one agency to the next. The agency should preferably have a good strategic marketing background that goes beyond just being able to design an attractive campaign.

With some advertising agencies, the risk is that they focus mainly on creative aspects and lose sight of strategic thinking. If possible, you should hire an agency that specialises in public-service/social-marketing campaigns.

Box 8. The advertising agency team

The advertising agency provides a multi-disciplinary team managed by the “creative director” or “art director” in collaboration with the account manager or project manager.

The team typically consists of:

- A project manager
- A strategic planner or consultant
- A creative team
- A media-planning team
- Multimedia producers and directors

However, the media-planning team is not always an in-house department of the advertising agency. Campaign designers often work with a media-buying agency that puts together the media plan.

To increase the chances for campaign success, the advertising agency must base its work on the objective data presented in the creative brief. This is the essential link between the initiator and the agency throughout the entire campaign-development process. For practical reasons, it may be possible to work from a concise version of the creative brief.

1.6.2. Production agencies and vendors

Production agencies and vendors are mostly dedicated to producing campaign materials for specific media. They include:

- Web design agencies for websites, banner advertisements, and viral marketing via the internet.
- Printers for leaflets, brochures, and billboard advertisements.
- Audiovisual production agencies for TV and radio spots.
- Other production vendors for giveaways and gifts (T-shirts, key rings, stickers, etc.).

There are two possible ways of handling production of campaign materials:

- Either the initiator him/herself will hire the outside agency to produce the material.
- Or the advertising agency will subcontract the production of the material out to a production house. In this case, the advertising agency will coordinate production and act as the liaison to the initiator.

1.6.3. Media-buying agencies

These agencies specialize in buying time or space for the delivery of advertising messages in mainstream media (radio, TV, newspapers, etc.). Some media-buying agencies also offer media-planning services based on extensive media research. Media planning can be done

internally, but in most cases, both media planning and buying are subcontracted to a media-buying agency, either by the initiator or by the advertising agency.

1.6.4. Public-relations agencies

The announcement of the campaign to the press (also called the launching of the campaign) can be handled internally or subcontracted to a vendor, usually a public-relations agency (PR agency). PR agencies can also be consulted to help increase the volume of free publicity (free coverage in the press) for the campaign, using PR-industry techniques.

1.6.5. Researchers

Researchers from institutes or universities can be hired to perform all or part of the preliminary research for the campaign and its evaluation. The participation of outside researchers may or may not be needed, depending on whether an in-house research department is available at the initiator's organisation. When the campaign organisation has its own evaluation specialists, their role may consist of making sure the evaluation is designed and carried out exactly as planned. However, because maintaining objectivity during evaluation is essential for drawing valid conclusions, we recommend you use external resources to evaluate the campaign – this is your guarantee of impartiality. Often, researchers design the evaluation while the actual field observations and/or administration of questionnaires can be subcontracted to a survey firm or pollster.

In collaboration with the campaign initiator, the selected researchers will design and implement the entire evaluation process. They will design the evaluation according to the specific objectives of the campaign, choose the evaluation method(s) and data-collection technique(s), define the sample, design and pre-test the tool(s) for collecting data, carry out the implementation of the evaluation, process the data, interpret the results, and write a report.

To conclude on setting up the campaign team, all or some of the tasks involved in creating the campaign and its evaluation may be subcontracted to one or more outside agencies whenever these tasks cannot be performed in-house. For example:

- The design and creative concept for the campaign may be subcontracted to an advertising agency.
- The production of the campaign materials may be subcontracted to a production vendor.
- The launching of the campaign with an announcement to the press may be subcontracted to a PR agency.
- The design and implementation of the campaign evaluation may be subcontracted to an outside researcher or research organisation.

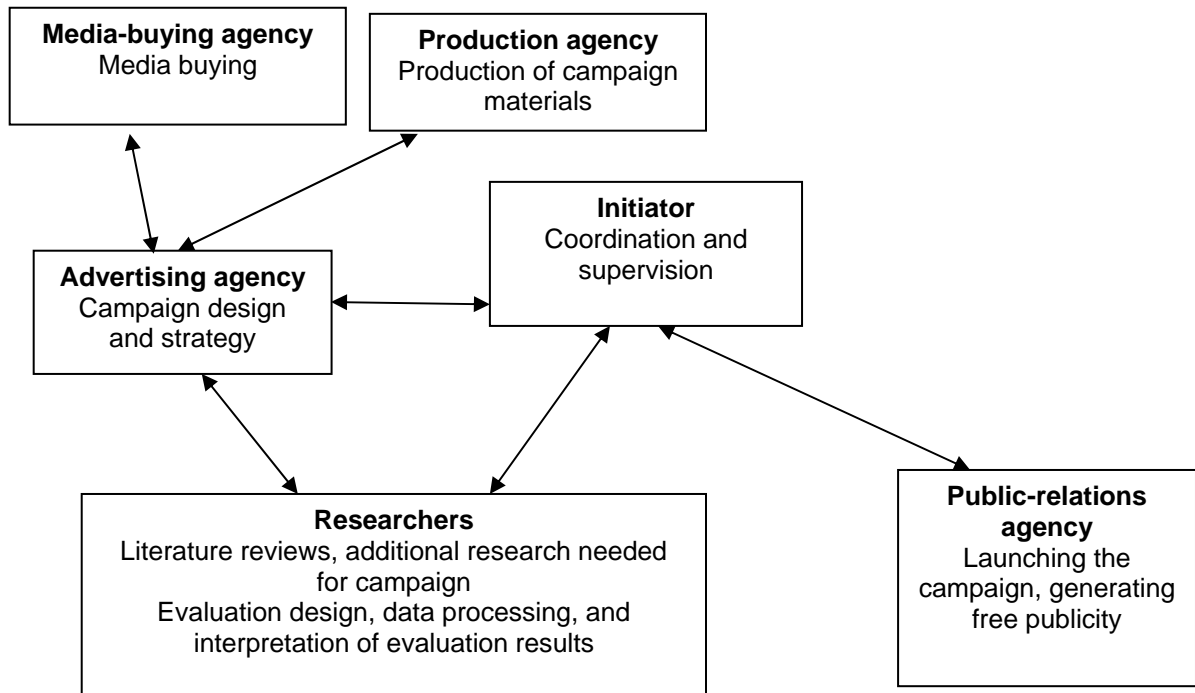
Although subcontracting specialized agencies can be cost-effective, certain organisations simply do not have the budget to hire outside vendors such as advertising agencies or media-buying agencies; they must therefore use in-house resources to perform these tasks.

Once the requests for proposals have been issued and the successful bidders have been chosen (see *Stages of bidding process*, Box 7, p. 42), the team is nearly complete, although additional resources may sometimes be needed at a later stage.

The campaign initiator coordinates, leads, and manages partners and subcontractors. Each organisation interacts with the others and must understand the others' points of view in order to improve the campaign – each one must be able to put him/herself in the place of the others (see Figure 1). Moreover, if differing points of view or conflicts arise, it is up to the

campaign initiator to resolve them and ensure effective work relationships between partners, stakeholders, and outside agencies.

Figure 1. Interaction between different members of the campaign team



Concluding recommendations

To get started, you should take the following steps:

– **Identifying and defining the problem**

In order to identify the problem, you should rely on data concerning accidents, offences, observed behaviours, and current issues.

– **Analysing the context**

An analysis of the general and specific contexts will indicate if the campaign can or should be combined with other actions or programmes.

– **Locating partners and stakeholders and getting them involved**

These can be public authorities and/or private organisations. Their participation in the campaign may be financial, logistical, or otherwise.

– **Drafting the budget**

You should define the potential or actual budget of the campaign, including the cost of research and evaluation.

– **Gathering the campaign partners at a kick-off meeting**

At this first meeting, you should define the general objective of the campaign, as well as discuss the campaign strategy in order to know what your needs are. Based on these needs, you should get together with the campaign partners to identify the resources you already have and the ones you will have to find elsewhere. You should draft the first version of the creative brief; this will be updated throughout the campaign process.

– **Calling for bids and setting up the campaign team**

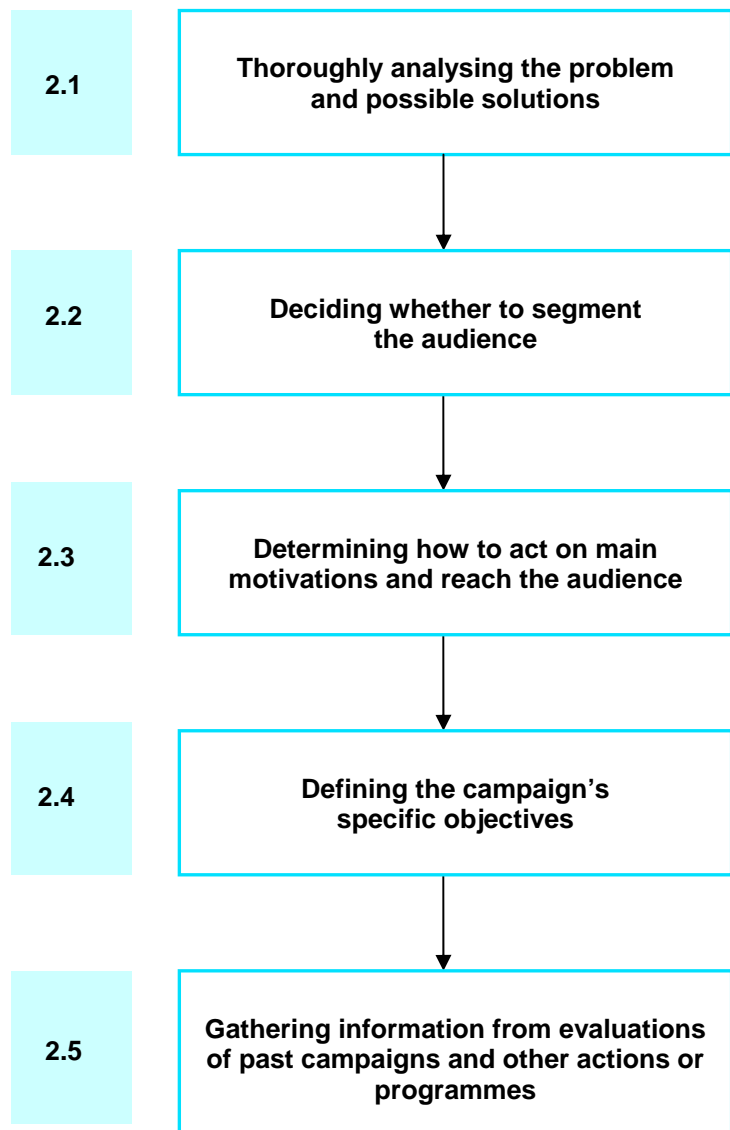
The campaign team should include people from the initiator's organisation, the campaign partners, and any outside agencies and vendors hired following a call for bids. The bidders may include advertising, production, and media-buying agencies, public-relations agencies, and researchers. The same advertising agency might be subcontracted for several years or several campaigns. Even though it is an expensive option, having the evaluation done by an outside party is the best solution, provided independence is respected.

2. Analysing the Situation

Once you have identified the problem and partners for your campaign, you can start to analyse the situation in greater detail. At this stage, you should conduct an in-depth analysis of the problem, its possible solutions, and the target audience. This will enable you to define the specific objectives of the campaign, design the message, and prepare the campaign evaluation.

The situation analysis consists of the sub-steps shown below (see Diagram 3).

Diagram 3. Sub-steps of the situation analysis



2.1 Thoroughly analysing the problem and possible solutions

2.1.1. Look for existing information

Now that you have identified the problem, it is time to examine the situation in some depth in order to get more precise information about the origins of the problem and its possible solutions. This is done by looking for available data and synthesising them. The data can be obtained from four sources:

- (a) Qualitative and quantitative studies on the problem behaviour.
- (b) Research proposing theoretical models that explain the motivational factors underlying this behaviour.
- (c) Past campaigns and other actions with thorough evaluations of outcomes (i.e., of the measures that were taken to solve the problem).
- (d) Marketing studies on the target audience(s).

For this purpose, you should search for databases using relevant keywords in order to obtain exhaustive bibliographical references on the theme under consideration. This work may be done by researchers. Although such an in-depth analysis may seem like a lot of work and investment for a single campaign, it will provide you with invaluable information that can be used as the basis for a long-term strategy. For instance, with the ageing of the population, questions concerning elderly people's mobility and fitness to drive are arising more and more often. The necessary research should be performed at the outset in order to have solutions available in the near future that can also be integrated into a long-term programme.

2.1.1.1. Qualitative and quantitative studies

As a complement to data on road crashes, offences, and road-user behaviour gathered in the first step, it is advisable to do a literature review of all available data on the problem behaviour. This will allow you to analyse the behaviour in depth, understand it better, and know more about its origins. Researchers can do this type of literature review.

It is particularly relevant to look for conclusions from qualitative and quantitative research on the problem behaviour, including studies based on observed and self-reported behaviours, beliefs, and knowledge. Such studies will enable you to learn more about the frequency and causes of the problem.

In order to conduct a more detailed analysis, the following questions need to be answered: *who* (characteristics of road users involved in the problem), *where* (place where the problem most often occurs), *when* (times when the problem occurs), *how often* (frequency of the problem), and *why* (contributing factors).

Who?

This question concerns the type of road users involved in the problem and their characteristics (e.g., mode of transportation, age, gender, socio-cultural level, education, occupation, driver's license, years of driving experience, number of kilometres driven per year). This will let you know whether or not the identified problem concerns a specific group of road users, which in turn will allow you to determine if the campaign should address a large general audience or a narrower one.

Where?

This question concerns the driving situation and area in which the problem occurs (e.g., intersections, straight roads, city, motorways, curves, or other difficult situations). Such information helps to define the scale and place of the campaign (e.g., national, regional, and/or local scale, concentrated in urban areas or on highways).

When?

Databases that specify when road accidents occur allow you to follow the change in crash statistics day by day. It is strategically relevant to get accurate indications on exactly when the accidents happened – including time of the day or night, day of the week (weekends vs. during the week), and time of the year (e.g., most road crashes occur in peak traffic).

How often?

Another consideration is the frequency of the problem (e.g., the problem of not wearing a seatbelt can occur routinely, intermittently, or rarely for a given road user).

Why?

Crash and offence data provided by the police can help you identify some of the road crash causes. For example, causes can be uncovered by breath or blood tests for alcohol-related accidents, observations and technical tests for seatbelt wearing by drivers and passengers, tire tracks on the pavement combined with other indications for speeding, etc. Moreover, data from surveys and observations may provide additional information on underlying road-crash factors, for example:

- Road-user characteristics, whether temporary or more stable (e.g., age, fitness to drive, distraction, fatigue, driving experience, sensation-seeking, aggression).
- Road-user behaviour, whether intentional or unintentional (errors, violations) or linked to driving or riding behaviour (e.g., speeding, use of seatbelts).
- Vehicle-related factors (e.g., worn tires, mechanical defects).
- Environmental factors: weather conditions (e.g., rain, fog, ice), road conditions (e.g., potholes), road-engineering factors (e.g., road layout, traffic signals), etc.

Factors that are related to road-user behaviour are of course the most important as far as campaigns are concerned. If the problem has more to do with technical or environmental factors, it might be necessary to look for other ways to deal with the problem (see Part I: *Road safety and human behaviour*, pp. 25-71).

2.1.1.2. Research proposing theoretical models

Research on behaviour enables you to explain what motivates the road user to adopt the problem behaviour so that you can attempt to influence those motivations in a subsequent step. This task can be done by a researcher.

To investigate the motivations underlying the unsafe and safe behaviours you are interested in, you can do the following:

- Conduct a literature review on the problem behaviour, looking for theoretical models that predict and explain the behaviour in the target audience. Information sources to search for include articles published in scientific journals, conference proceedings, chapters of books, and published or unpublished reports.
- Identify the main predictors of the behaviour or behavioural change, that is to say, the factors that determine it.
- Among the main predictors, make sure the constructs have been measured at the same level of compatibility (i.e., general or specific level). For example, if you examine predictors on speeding in towns among young drivers, the measures concerning beliefs, norms, and behaviour should apply to the same situation and the same road-user group.

- Check to see if the main predictors that you have identified concern the target audience(s) you are dealing with, and how recent the findings are.

If you are unable to find any information concerning the problem behaviour in question, then you should look for research that predicts and explains a closely related behaviour. The conclusions of this research may shed some light on the problem and its causes.

2.1.1.3. Past campaigns and other actions

It is important to gather information from past campaigns and other actions conducted on the same theme or on the same target audience within the last 20 years^{vii}. This step can be performed by researchers. It will allow you to build on solutions that have already been used, adapt a past campaign conducted in another area (city, region, country), take advantage of good programmes, learn from past mistakes, and so on.

To conduct a literature review, it is necessary to list all campaigns and other interventions at the national and/or international levels that have been carried out on the theme and/or target audience(s), and to select information relevant to your own campaign (e.g., evaluation results, advantages and limitations of a given theoretical framework, etc.). International databases (see Box 1, pp. 28-29) and meta-analyses (see Part I: pp. 88-95) can be a good starting point for this review.

If you cannot find campaigns or other actions on the theme or target audience within the recommended 20 years, then you might consider either lengthening the time period or looking for information that concerns a closely related behaviour.

2.1.1.4. Marketing studies on the target audience

Marketing research will offer you a better understanding of the target audience(s). For example, it may include general studies on the audience's lifestyle, travel behaviour, or leisure activities. It may also include studies focused on the problem behaviour and its explanatory factors, and possibly on stages of behavioural change, perhaps based on a theoretical model, e.g., the *Transtheoretical Model of Change*¹⁹ (see Part I: pp. 64-66).

Long-term tracking studies often provide this kind of information. These studies are monthly or weekly polls on a representative sample of the general population or a selected part of it. The questions are almost identical from one phase to another, so they offer information on the targets, their motivations, characteristics, and behaviours and how they evolve over time. For example, if you want to carry out a drinking-and-driving campaign aimed at 18-24 year-old drivers, you might look for information on their habits, not necessarily only those related to driving but also their usual leisure activities, whether they go out alone or with friends, at what time they go out and come back home, and their drinking habits, etc. Long-term tracking studies will usually be conducted by road-safety researchers. Advertising agencies or marketing-research agencies will be able to provide more general studies on the target audience.

2.1.2. Synthesis of available data

At this stage, you should synthesise all available data on the problem behaviour and attempted solutions that you gathered from the four sources mentioned above.

^{vii} For further information, visit the EU website that amply describes both past and future campaigns: http://ec.europa.eu/transport/roadsafety/publications/projectfiles/supreme_en.htm

Synthesising is a complex and somewhat creative task. You may find contradictory information, or quantitative and qualitative data that are not easily compared. Moreover, scientific data and practical experiences may not overlap. Therefore, this task should be performed by a multidisciplinary team consisting of researchers, marketing specialists, and practitioners.

In summing up what you have learned from the available data, you should give a detailed description of the problem you are seeking to modify and/or the safe behaviour you are hoping to initiate. You can put together a table to outline the areas covered, i.e., the elements that you have been able to gather from the four sources of information (see Table 1).

Table 1. Elements gathered from the previous studies

Data source	<u>Goal of research</u>	<i>Questions to be answered</i>
Qualitative and quantitative studies (databases, statistics, observations, and surveys)	<u>Analyse the problem behaviour in depth</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>Which behaviour causes road accidents or constitutes a problem?</i> – <i>Is the behaviour intentional or unintentional?</i>
Research on theoretical models	<u>Explain the motivations underlying behaviour</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>What are the main predictors and main motivations underlying the problem behaviour (and if possible, the safe behaviour)?</i>
Past campaigns and other actions	<u>Benefit from experience of past initiatives</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>How can you use elements from other successful road safety campaigns as a basis for your campaign?</i> – <i>How were the campaigns evaluated?</i>
Marketing studies on the target audience(s)	<u>Getting to know better the target audience</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>What are the target audience's characteristics?</i> – <i>How can the target audience be reached and influenced?</i> – <i>At which stage is the behaviour currently situated?</i>

At this point, it is very likely that not all the necessary data is available. For this reason, it is important to identify what information is still missing in order to determine what research should be conducted in the next two sub-steps:

- In the first sub-step (see *Deciding whether to segment the audience*, pp. 52-53) you will need to know whether you must segment the audience, and if so, according to what variables. If there is not enough available information for segmenting the audience (e.g., if some information on the behaviour is missing), you should conduct additional studies.
- In the second sub-step (see *Determining how to act on main motivations and reach the audience*, pp. 54-57), it is often necessary to do some research on the target audience just defined in order to know how to reach and influence it, i.e., on which factor(s) to act (main motivations).

2.2. Deciding whether to segment the audience

The synthesis of available data from the four sources helped you to determine who will be your target audience. Now you'll need to see if segmentation techniques can help you define it further. To decide whether you need to segment the audience, you should examine the theme of the campaign and the details of the audience (social profile, lifestyle, media habits, etc.). Sometimes, the objective of the campaign is to inform drivers about a new law concerning all road users; in this case you should target the whole population. Most often, though, the problem concerns a more specific group of road users. If this is the case and if the group is heterogeneous, segmentation will help you to reach it more easily and thus increase your campaign's chances of success.

To segment the audience, it is necessary to rely on the information collected from the four sources used earlier to analyse the problem, and also on additional research if you judge that the available information is not sufficient to segment the audience (see Table 1). For instance, you may need to gain better knowledge of:

- The target audience's lifestyle and other characteristics (cultural, demographic, geographic, and socio-economic aspects).
- The stage of change¹⁹ at which the target audience and/or its segments are situated.

Once you have defined the different segments, you will evaluate and select one or more of them. This process will allow you to reach the audience as effectively as possible by adapting your communication strategies to each segment, according to its specific characteristics.

As opposed to the mass-marketing approach, which treats target audiences as large aggregates and focuses on common needs instead of differences, the segmentation approach treats target audiences as consisting of subgroups each with different needs, and focuses on one or more of these subgroups (see Box 9). Target segmentation should be carried out by specialists at the advertising agency.

Box 9. In-depth analysis of the target's lifestyle and characteristics, aimed at segmenting the target audience in a campaign directed at teenage pedestrians²⁰

In a British mass-media campaign targeting teenage pedestrians in 2005, the target group was identified through road-crash statistics.

Road-accident statistics in 2004 revealed that fatalities and injuries among teenage pedestrians were a major problem in Great Britain for teenagers between 11 and 16 years of age. The statistics also revealed that most of the road accidents occurred between 3 p.m. and 8 p.m., with road crashes peaking after school during the week, and on routes teens take most often. Information on when these road accidents occurred was important for the development of the message content.

In order to improve communications with teenagers and to develop strategic statements and key messages, campaign officials agreed they needed more information about the following topics:

- Why these road crashes occur.
- Teenagers' attitudes towards road safety and risk taking.
- How gender, age, attitudes, and lifestyle affect their road-safety behaviour.
- The roles peers play in their road-safety behaviour.
- Teenage interaction and friendship.
- Why they take risks on the roads (and engage in conscious or unconscious risk-taking).
- How they might address the fact that other distractions (e.g., sex, exams, drugs, alcohol) take priority and push road safety lower on the agenda.
- The most appropriate tone to use when talking about road safety.
- How to make teenagers reconsider their behaviour related to road safety.

- Teenagers' feelings about advertising in general.

To acquire this knowledge, campaign officials collected existing studies on these topics and commissioned new, strategic/qualitative research (focus groups) and quantitative research on each topic. They then segmented the target audience and used the research to develop communication strategies and key messages.

2.3. Determining how to act on main motivations and reach the audience

2.3.1. Which motivations to focus on

The first question is whether the behaviour is intentional or unintentional. Next, it is important to understand the motives behind the action.

2.3.1.1. Knowing whether the behaviour is intentional or unintentional

First of all, you need to know whether the behaviour is intentional or unintentional. Perhaps you have already obtained this information from the literature review. If not, you will have to conduct a survey to find out, in which case the Driver Behaviour Questionnaire (DBQ) could be used. This questionnaire is based on Reason's (1990) classification of human factors (i.e. error, lapses and violations, see Part I: *Unsafe acts: unintended and intended*, pp. 37-39)²¹.

For instance, concerning headrests in vehicles, you have to take into account the possibility that people are simply not aware of the risks related to not securely adjusting the headrest, and therefore do not perform the safe behaviour. If adjusting the headrest is the campaign issue, then a necessary step in determining whether the behaviour is intentional or not is to ask people how often they adjust their headrest and if they know that not adjusting it is risky.

2.3.1.2. Defining the motivational factor(s)

In many cases, the literature review will provide some information on the main predictors of the problem behaviour (or behavioural change). However, it might be necessary to conduct further research to update this information or better relate it to the target audience. In this case, you must look into the motivational factors that underlie the problem behaviour. You can do this by means of a questionnaire (see Box 10) that you will need to draw up and administer to a sample of the target audience.

To build such a questionnaire, it is recommended that you rely on a theoretical model. Depending on what information you have already found in the literature, there are three possibilities:

- You have a lot of information on the main predictors, in which case you can start building the questionnaire right away.
- You have some information on the main predictors, but you know that certain elements are missing; in this case, you need to do additional research before devising the questionnaire.
- You have no information at all; here, you should first select a theoretical model and then do a pilot study to determine the most frequently occurring factors that influence the concerned behaviour.

Below is a brief description of the steps to follow in each of these three cases.

- *You have a lot of information on the main predictors, based on the literature review, but you want to know which one carries the most weight in the target group*

In this case, you can start to design the questionnaire, without doing a pilot study. If the behaviour is unintentional, information on the risk caused by the problem behaviour should be placed at the beginning of the questionnaire. If the behaviour is intentional, you can base the questionnaire on the theoretical model used the most in previous research; or you can introduce the main predictors of the problem behaviour (or of the behavioural change) in an existing model like TPB, which allows supplementary factors to be added. For example, the regular TPB model does not include the “habit” factor, which may be a relevant variable for you. In this case, you can take habit (with its measures) from the *Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour* (see Part I: *Theories that predict behaviour*, pp. 52-60) and add it to the TPB model.

- *You have some information on the main predictors in the literature, but you know that certain elements are missing*

If some information is missing from the literature, you can obtain it with additional research. For example, if you have information about attitudes towards the behaviour but there is no information on perceived risk, then it might be necessary to carry out a pilot study (see Box 10).

- *You have no information on the main predictors or the information you have is not up to date*

In this case, you should first select a theoretical model on which to base your research. You can select this model from the various ones discussed in Part I and let your choice be guided by the models you found in the literature review. For example, if the campaign is not combined with another action and you see that subjective norms can have a great influence on road users, you can use the TPB model. If the campaign is combined with enforcement, you can use the Health Belief Model since it takes perceived threat into account. Once you have chosen a model, you need to gather information on each factor in the model by conducting structured interviews on a small sample of road users belonging to the target audience (usually 10 to 20 people). After that, you should select the most frequently occurring responses from the interviews (see Box 10).

Box 10. Steps for building a questionnaire based on TPB

To build a questionnaire based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), you should follow the steps recommended by Ajzen (2002)^{22,23}.

If the problem behaviour is unintentional, you should give information on the risk caused by the behaviour at the beginning of the interview.

1. Carry out a pilot study by interviewing a number of people who are part of the target audience, to identify people's beliefs on the problem behaviour

The interview should be open and should focus on collecting three kinds of beliefs:

- Behavioural beliefs contributing to attitude (pros and cons of adopting the target behaviour).
- Normative beliefs contributing to subjective norms (individuals or groups most significant for participants, who might approve or disapprove that these participants adopt the target behaviour).
- Control beliefs contributing to perceived behavioural control (personal reasons, circumstances, and driving situations that would prompt them or prevent them from adopting the target behaviour).

2. Select the most frequently occurring beliefs

The number of beliefs will vary according to the interviewee's familiarity with the behaviour (5 to 7 beliefs are generally enough).

3. Design the questionnaire

- Develop a scenario that fits with the target, the context, and the time.

Example of a scenario:

*Imagine that you are driving on a highway during the day.
The speed limit is posted at 110 km/hr but you are driving at 130 km/hr.*

Formulate the questions and scales to answer.

Example. A questionnaire dealing with speeding on a highway could read as follows:

Attitudes

Behavioural beliefs

Driving 20 km/hr over the speed limit on a highway would make driving more pleasant.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly disagree

Outcome evaluations

As a driver, arriving quickly at your destination is:

Very negative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very positive

Subjective injunctive norms

Normative beliefs

My partner thinks I should drive 20 km/hr over the speed limit on highways.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

Motivation to conform

When it comes to driving 20 km/hr over the speed limit, how much do you want to do what your partner thinks you should do?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

Subjective descriptive norms

My partner usually drives 20 km/hr over the speed limit on highways.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

Perceived behavioural control

Control beliefs

For me to drive 20 km/hr over the speed limit on a highway in the next two weeks would be:

Very difficult 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very easy

It is mostly up to me whether or not I drive 20 km/hr over the speed limit on a highway.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

Intentions

I intend to drive 20 km/hr over the speed limit on a highway within the next two weeks.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

Self-reported behaviour

If you consider your own behaviour as a driver, how often do you drive 20 km/hr over the speed limit on a highway?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very often

2.3.2. How to reach the audience

Whether the target audience is segmented or not, it is very often necessary, during the campaign planning process, to conduct research to analyse how to reach and influence the target audience. Research on the target audience is important for knowing who your target audience is and how best to communicate with it (for example, knowing this group's use of time and media habits, knowing the specific places and times or “openings” where the audience can be reached). The advertising agency can perform this task with the assistance of researchers.

Research may show that, in order to reach the target audience, it might be useful to address the message not only to the core target audience (also called primary audience or main target) but to peer groups too (a secondary audience). The idea here is that the latter will see the campaign and prompt the core target audience to adopt the safe behaviour^{viii}. Note that the term “secondary target” is sometimes used to denote a second audience, less important than the primary audience, but not necessarily chosen for influencing the primary audience.

Besides looking for the time and place to reach the target audience, it is important to search for the factors that will get the audience's attention. In many cases, there is already a great deal of information in the in-depth analysis. If no marketing study on the audience is available, however, it will be necessary to conduct pilot studies on effective communication tools and strategies to reach the selected segments. For instance, pilot studies may be done using focus groups composed of 10-12 participants, individual interviews, or questionnaires conducted among participants who are representative of the selected segments.

When all the information have been collected, it's time to update the creative brief (see Box 11) with the new information you have obtained.

Box 11. Updated creative brief for a speeding campaign (added elements are shown in italics)

- **Problem description:** statistics on accidents due to speeding, data on speeding offences and behaviour (observed and self-reported), types of roads where speeding problems are most often seen, types of road users involved, etc., *background and probable causes of speeding behaviour (intentional or unintentional etc.), elements that predict and explain speeding behaviour (based on theoretical models), main predictors of safe behaviour*
- **Context of the problem:** speed management and enforcement system, speed limits, fines for speeding, enforcement level, previous measures to counter the problem, possible societal trends that encourage speeding
- **Information from past (evaluated) anti-speeding campaigns:** *objectives, target audience(s), theoretical framework used, evaluation results, etc.*
- **Target audience(s):** audience(s) most involved in the problem behaviour, for example male drivers ages 20-25, *typical motivations, characteristics and behaviours of the target audience, its awareness of the problem, habits, beliefs, perceived risk, etc.*
- **General goal of the campaign:** to reduce speeding-related accidents by influencing speeding behaviour of target audience(s)
- **Campaign stakeholders and partners:** for example, national and local police forces, road victims' associations, local governments, insurance companies (sponsor), etc.
- **Possible media and distribution channels:** network of road billboards, network of insurance brokers, etc.
- **Total available budget:** including the budget for evaluation
- **General time frame for the campaign:** for example, October-November

^{viii} For example, in 2006 LARSOA (www.larsoa.org.uk), a British organisation that carries out local campaigns, and the Bexley Road Safety Action Group launched a speeding campaign aimed at young people. They addressed a message to young passengers to prompt them to encourage the driver to slow down: one of the slogans was “Speak before it's too late”.

2.4. Defining the campaign's specific objectives

This stage consists of translating the general goal of the campaign (see *Identifying and defining the problem*, pp. 27-30) into specific objectives, that is to say, setting forth hypotheses on the campaign's expected effects. This will be done by the initiator in collaboration with the researchers and/or advertising agency, on the basis of available data and research as well as studies carried out during the in-depth analysis.

The specific objectives will be defined in accordance with the target audience and its behaviour and beliefs. They should be contextualised, i.e., linked to the place and time where the problem behaviour occurs and was observed. Specific objectives can be subdivided into primary and secondary objectives.

2.4.1. Primary objectives

The primary objectives define which behaviour needs to be changed in order to achieve the general goal of the campaign^{ix}. While the overall goal may be to decrease the number of road accidents, the number of offences, and/or the frequency of the problem behaviour, it is necessary to set more specific objectives, mostly in terms of behaviour change, adoption of a new behaviour, or strengthening of a safe behaviour.

The primary objectives will guide the formulation of hypotheses for evaluating the campaign. For example, the campaign should achieve one or more of the following objectives:

- Decrease the number or severity of road crashes.
- Decrease the number of offences.
- Decrease the frequency of adoption of the unsafe behaviour and/or increase the frequency of adoption of the safe behaviour, measured with observed data (current behaviour).

The overt behavioural objective should be the primary objective of the campaign, and ideally it should also be the most important objective to consider when evaluating the success of the campaign. In some cases, however, overt behavioural change might not be within the scope of just one campaign; in that case, behavioural intentions can be used as a primary objective.

Depending on the type of behaviour, it might also be very difficult or even impossible to measure observed behaviour (e.g., in case of driver fatigue). If so, self-reported behaviour may be used as an alternative.

2.4.2. Secondary objectives

The secondary objectives are related to the factors that can contribute to achieving the primary behavioural objective (i.e., make the target audience adopt the safe behaviour). They can be defined in terms of knowledge, beliefs, or other elements that have an influence on the target audience's behaviour (see Box 12).

^{ix} The primary objectives refer to the outcome evaluation, which is discussed in Part I: *Evaluating campaigns*, pp.131-147.

Box 12. Translation of general objectives into specific objectives in the Scottish “Foolspeed” campaign (1999-2001) to reduce speeding²⁴

The primary objective of the Scottish “Foolspeed” campaign (1999-2001) was to reduce speeding on Scotland’s roads.

The target group of this road safety communication campaign was the general driving population in Scotland, although a key target subgroup was drivers with a known tendency to speed, particularly males ages 25 to 44 with a professional, white collar, or clerical job.

A basic assumption for the campaign was that if the psychological mechanisms that motivate drivers to speed are identified, there is a potential to develop interventions that could influence those mechanisms and thereby lead to changes in speeding behaviour.

Insofar as the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) is concerned with predicting specific behaviours, it was regarded as a useful tool for identifying and understanding psychological influences on speeding.

The main TPB predictors used to explain behaviour are behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs.

The primary objective – to reduce speeding – was thus translated into the following specific objectives:

- Influence behavioural beliefs (attitudes) about the consequences of speeding, particularly the likelihood of being caught by the police, putting pedestrian lives at risk, or causing an accident.
- Influence normative beliefs (subjective norms) about how significant others such as family and friends perceive speeding.
- Influence control beliefs (perceived behavioural control, PBC) by reminding drivers that they are responsible for their own driving decisions and have a choice about their speed.

The evaluation showed that the campaign was effective in triggering the desired knowledge, belief, and behavioural outcomes, and had a significant effect on attitudes and affective beliefs.

Just like the primary objectives, the secondary objectives will also guide you in formulating hypotheses for evaluating the campaign. For example, the campaign should achieve one or more of the following objectives:

- Change beliefs, attitudes, norms, and perceived control in the target audience. If the campaign is combined with police enforcement, then the goal might be to increase perceived threat, e.g., subjective risk of being caught by the police.
- Increase knowledge in the target audience. More knowledge might be required in the targeted individuals before they will perform the safe behaviour (e.g., drivers should know that speeding increases risk, a knowledge objective). However, it is important to stress that increased knowledge does not necessarily lead to changed behaviour.

For example, if based on the TPB model you have identified subjective norms as one of the main predictors of behaviour, you may want to gather additional information about which other people have the greatest impact on their behaviour and which people’s norms are referred to by the target audience (for example, norms of friends, parents, society in general, etc). Among these different types of referees, you can try to identify the one that is most influential, i.e., the one that carries the most weight in explaining the problem behaviour (as in the “Speak Out!” campaign in Norway, see Box 14, pp. 65).

The secondary objectives will also help explain why the behaviour did or did not change.

To better understand primary and secondary objectives, let us imagine the following example:

- From road-crash statistics, you have learned that there is an increase in night accidents on two-way roads, in which mainly young male drivers are involved; you have also learned that speeding is the main problem in this type of accident.

- As a result, you decide to conduct a campaign to modify the problem behaviour (speeding) of this population (young male drivers) in the given circumstances (two-way roads at night).
- During the situation analysis, you find survey results indicating that some young drivers are not aware of the accident risk related to speeding. Furthermore, research based on the *Deterrence Theory* (see Part I: p. 59) tells you that the main predictor of this behaviour is the subjective risk of being caught by the police.
- Based on this information, you decide that your campaign should combine information on the risk of speeding with information on increased enforcement. The primary objective of your campaign will be to reduce the number and severity of road crashes due to speeding, by getting young drivers to respect the speed limits on two-way roads. The secondary objective might be to influence this behaviour by increasing their subjective risk of being caught.

In many cases, the same campaign may be able to meet the primary and secondary objectives. However, even if the primary objectives have not been reached, some or all of the secondary objectives might be achieved. In that case, the campaign will have had a positive effect.

The campaign's specific objectives will serve as guidelines in developing the campaign strategy in the next step (see *Designing the campaign and the evaluation*, pp. 64-98).

2.5. Gathering information from evaluations of past campaigns and other actions or programmes

Evaluation is an essential part of any road-safety campaign since it helps improve not only the current campaign but also future ones (see Box 13).

Box 13. Main reasons for evaluating a road safety communication campaign

It is of particular importance to evaluate road safety communication campaigns. Information gained from evaluations will help you to:

- Supervise the implementation of the campaign and take corrective action if needed
- Know if the campaign is meeting its objectives (i.e., if it is working or not)
- Learn whether the campaign has any unexpected benefits or problems
- Know if the effects of the campaign justify its cost (the evaluation can provide accountability to funding sources, stakeholders, partners, and policymakers, which should facilitate future fundraising)
- Know what works and doesn't work so that in future campaigns, you can avoid past mistakes and benefit from successful features
- Provide information for reaching similar targets in the future
- Provide information for improving implementation of future campaigns and avoid the risk of implementing ineffective ones

In this step, the evaluator will determine what is required (evaluation variables, methods, tools, etc.) for each of the specific objectives defined. To do so, he/she will use the information from evaluations of past campaigns and other actions that were gathered during the situation analysis. To test the primary objectives, the evaluations will rely on surveys, observations, and statistics on road crashes and offences; to test the secondary objectives, they will look at knowledge, beliefs, or subjective risk.

In many cases, this step will provide information on evaluations of past campaigns and other actions aimed at the same problem behaviour or a closely related one. When evaluations of past campaigns and other actions provide clear conclusions, they mainly:

- Give examples of suitable designs, evaluation variables, and tools for the type of evaluation that you are planning.
- Allow you to compare the results of your campaign with those of past ones and assess if your campaign was more effective or not.
- Give information on the length of evaluation periods.

Concluding recommendations

To perform the situation analysis, you should take the following steps:

– **Thoroughly analysing the problem and possible solutions**

You should complete the analysis of the problem, seeking available information from four sources:

- Qualitative and quantitative studies to analyse the problem behaviour in depth
- Research on theoretical models to explain motivations underlying the behaviour
- Past campaigns and other actions or programmes
- Marketing studies on the target audience

Then you should synthesise available information on the problem behaviour and its solutions. It is very likely that existing data are insufficient, at least with regard to the target audience.

– **Deciding whether to segment the audience**

You should determine whether the target audience needs to be segmented or not. In many cases, it is advisable to segment the audience in order to approach each subgroup according to its different needs and characteristics (lifestyle, culture, etc.). Market segmentation should be conducted by the advertising agency. Once you have defined the different segments, you should evaluate them and select one or more to be targeted, in order to reach them as effectively as possible by gearing your communication strategies to each one. Then, you should determine how to reach the target audience and its segments based on the synthesis done on the previous sub-step. You should also update the creative brief (or communication brief) at this time.

– **Determining how to act on main motivations and reaching the audience**

First of all, you have to find out whether the behaviour is intentional or unintentional, in order to know which motivational factors to act upon and conduct additional studies to get this information if necessary. After synthesising the information already gathered, which is probably incomplete (data is missing or out-of-date), there are three possibilities for conducting additional research: (1) you have ample information on the main predictors for the problem and/or safe behaviour but you want to know which carries the most weight in the target group, (2) you have found only some information and you are aware that certain elements are missing, or (3) you have no information on the main predictors. Depending on which of these cases applies to you, you may decide to use a pre-existing model as such, you may adapt a model that is in line with the main predictors related to the problem behaviour (e.g., the Theory of Planned Behaviour), or you may need to round out your information with additional research. For example, research may show that in order to reach the target audience, it might be useful to address the message not only to the core target audience (also called primary audience or main target) but also to peer groups (secondary audience).

– **Defining the campaign's specific objectives**

- Primary objectives: you should define which behaviour is to be adopted by the target audience in order to achieve the general goal of the campaign.
- Secondary objectives: you should identify other factors that can contribute to achievement of the primary objectives such as knowledge, attitudes and norms.

– Gathering information from evaluations of past campaigns and other actions or programmes

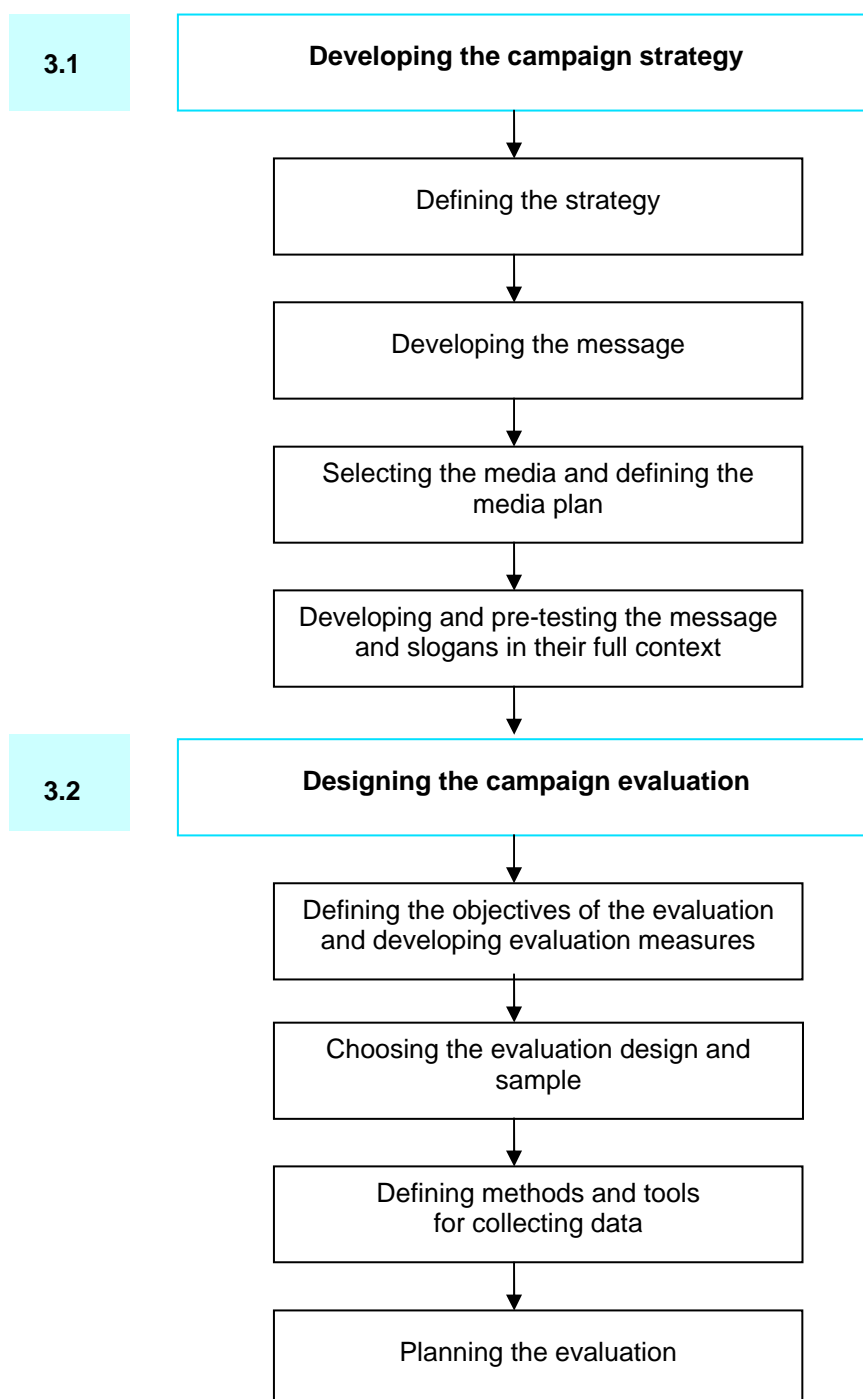
In this step, you need to examine the design, evaluation variables, methods, and tools used for each of the specific objectives defined, based on evaluations of past campaigns and other actions or programmes compiled during the situation analysis.

3. Designing the Campaign and the Evaluation

During the previous two steps, data were gathered and analysed to better define the problem behaviour and target audience; the specific objectives of the campaign were determined, and the campaign-evaluation method was devised. Now it is time to start designing the campaign itself – perhaps combined with other actions or programmes – and planning how to evaluate it. In this step, you will need to answer the following questions: “What should we do?”, “How should we do it?”, and “How will we know if the campaign is working or not?”

To do so, you should perform the following sub-steps (see Diagram 4)

Diagram 4. Sub-steps in designing the campaign and the evaluation



3.1. Developing the campaign strategy

The campaign strategy will be developed on the basis of specific objectives defining how you will meet the campaign's general goal. That is to say, the strategy will establish how you will influence the targeted individuals in order to get them to stop the problem behaviour and adopt the safe behaviour. Devising the campaign strategy will allow you to define the campaign's objectives in operational fashion. A useful guiding principle here is known as "SMART", whereby the operational objectives should be Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, and Time-bound^{25,26}. The specific objectives, when operationalised in this way, will serve as a road map for designing the campaign and its evaluation.

The campaign strategy should be embedded in a broader, overall social-marketing strategy directed at changing behaviour (see Box 14). Moreover, the strategy should be based on the theoretical model that you have chosen for predicting and explaining the problem behaviour, i.e., the model you used to define the campaign's specific objectives in the previous step (see *Analysing the situation*, pp. 47-63). Once the campaign strategy is defined, an outline of it should be added to the creative brief.

Box 14. The campaign strategy of the "Speak Out!" campaign in the Norwegian county of Sogn and Fjordane: reduce injuries and fatalities among young people, especially 16 to 19 year olds (adapted from Ulleberg & Christensen, 2007)²⁷

The "Speak Out!" campaign was begun in 1993 and has been run every year since then. Its objective is to reduce injuries and fatalities among young people, especially those 16 to 19 years old.

The point of departure for the campaign was that only a minority of young people engage in careless, risky driving and that most young people are aware of the dangers related to reckless driving. However, the latter group, called the "positive" youth, needed support in handling group pressure and in making a stand for the safe behaviour they adopt.

The focus of the "Speak Out" campaign was to support and encourage the "positive" youth to take responsibility in a way that would influence the social norms and behaviour of the group.

The campaign strategy was based on sales and marketing principles for tapping into an already existing need and a desire for social acceptance. Through information and enforcement, the positive youth were supported and encouraged both to tell other young drivers to drive more carefully and to avoid riding with reckless drivers.

Since the positive youth had already acknowledged the problem and knew what constituted safe driving behaviour, it was important that the campaign:

- Avoid adopting a superior, instructive or educational tone that uses the "pointing finger" (for example, "If you don't do what we tell you to do, you'll have an accident"), and avoid using fear.
- Show by the tone that you trust and respect these young people.
- Take young people seriously by talking with them, not at them.

Since implementation in Sogn and Fjordane in 1993, the "Speak Out!" strategy has been used in several other counties in Norway in view of reducing injury accidents among young people.

If the campaign is aimed at having young drivers reduce their driving speed on two-way roads, the next step is to design a strategy to reach this specific objective.

You might have learnt that key elements for influencing the target's behaviour are the subjective risk of being caught by the police, subjective norms, and knowledge about the

dangers of speeding. Consequently, you have chosen to conduct a campaign combined with increased enforcement.

To reach the specific objectives, your strategy will consist of increasing the number of police patrols on two-way roads, combined with informing young drivers about the danger of speeding on this type of road and about the increase in speed-limit enforcement that will be implemented on this type of road. This kind of information could, for instance, be displayed on variable message signs (VMS) along these roads.

Your next step will be to operationalise the specific objective. As far as the communication is concerned, for example, your objective will be to involve young drivers as much as possible and lead them to change their problem behaviour. This will be done via the message and slogan designs and their dissemination, including the media (e.g., VMS) and the media plan. The operational objectives related to enforcement will include the number of patrols, a mapping-out of the areas with the dates and hours of patrols, etc.

In collaboration with the initiator and any researchers involved, the advertising agency will discuss and define the campaign strategy (including strategic media choice). The agency will develop creative approaches that will be tested and validated. It will develop the campaign on the basis of the creative brief provided by the initiator. To make sure that the campaign strategy will be tailored to the problem behaviour and the target audience, the creative brief should be as detailed and clear as possible.

3.1.1. Defining the strategy

In this stage, you will focus on defining the possible types of campaigns, the scale of your own campaign, and possible accompanying actions that will make up your strategy. The strategy can take place at different scales: locally, regionally or nationally, depending on the problem behaviour and the target audience. The strategy will be developed based on the areas where the problem occurs, how the target audience can be reached, and how it can be influenced.

To get an idea of the possible strategies you might use, you can rely on information from previous campaigns that you gathered during the situation analysis, for example, combining a national campaign with local actions, enforcement, etc. You can also focus your strategy on the time and place where the target audience adopts the unsafe behaviour. For example, in case of a drinking-and-driving campaign, you might intervene at the moment when people make the choice to drink or not to drink alcohol, using leaflets and a small gift (key ring or placemat) to target the concerned drivers (see Box 15).

Box 15. Campaign strategy for the "Bob" campaign against drinking and driving²⁸

"Bob" is a road safety communication campaign against drinking and driving conducted initially in Belgium, and then adopted by more than 15 EU member states. The campaign has been organised in partnership with associations of brewers, which opens up direct access to thousands of pubs and restaurants through the brewers' distribution channels.

Such a partnership facilitates the combination of a mass-media campaign (billboards, radio and TV spots) with direct marketing in nearly every pub, café, or restaurant in the country: a free "Bob" key ring is offered to those who don't drink alcohol and agree to drive their friends home, a free non-alcoholic drink is offered to the designated drivers, etc.

For added support, the media campaign has been combined with enhanced enforcement by the police, especially at times and places where there is an increased risk of driving under the influence (such as on weekend nights and small country roads often used to avoid areas where police are likely to be stationed).

If you decide to combine a national road safety communication campaign with local actions, supportive activities might be conducted by local authorities, such as the city police or city council, volunteer associations, schools, specialised firms (e.g., hostess agency), or local media partners. For instance, marketing in the street could be done in collaboration with local radio stations to reward pedestrians for safe behaviour when crossing the street. At a regional or national level, combined actions can be carried out by the national or regional police forces (e.g., enforcement, see Box 16).

Box 16. Combined actions in the STEP programme (North Carolina, U.S.A., 1993-1994): increasing seatbelt use

The Special Traffic Enforcement Program (STEP), which involves periodic waves of highly publicized enforcement of short duration, is a good example of how to execute combined actions²⁹.

The model was first demonstrated in Canada in the 1970s, but has since been implemented in several European countries and in the United States, where it is currently used in nearly every state to improve seatbelt usage rates. Some STEP programmes have also focused on enforcement of other violations as well, such as speeding or driving while impaired.

A STEP programme usually includes:

- 1) Data collection: before, during, and immediately after media and enforcement phases.
- 2) Earned and paid publicity announcing strict enforcement.
- 3) Highly visible enforcement each day of the enforcement period.
- 4) A media event announcing programme results.

North Carolina used the STEP model in its long-term programme to increase the seatbelt usage rate³⁰. The programme called “click it or ticket” was implemented in 1993 and was the first statewide occupant-protection STEP attempted in the United States.

- The first programme included two weeks of public information on the importance of seatbelt use and the upcoming enforcement, followed by 3 weeks of enforcement, 2 weeks without, and a fourth week with enforcement. Paid media advertisements emphasizing enforcement activities ran throughout the programme.
- The second programme, intended as a “booster shot”, replicated the fall 1993 programme, but it was shortened to 3 weeks instead of 4, and less media advertising was purchased (1 week).

If you came across a campaign that used the same theme for the same audience, was well-designed and rigorously evaluated, and generated positive outcomes, you may want to adapt it rather than develop a completely new campaign. In that case, the temptation might be great to simply replicate the campaign in its original form, without any kind of adaptation – it is better, however, not to skip the adaptation step.

Indeed, many factors can vary from one place to another. These include the target’s characteristics (lifestyle, culture, etc.), the extent of the problem behaviour and elements likely to influence it (knowledge, beliefs), infrastructures (e.g., whether taking place in flat areas where there are more straight roads vs. in mountainous regions, whether in highly populated countries with a denser road network and more traffic, etc.), and local traffic laws (e.g., speed limits, specific fines and penalties for the violation).

3.1.2. Developing the message

When communicating with large groups of people, whether a specific target group or the whole population, the message needs to be believed by the audience (credible), honest and possible to comply with (trustworthy), used repeatedly (consistent), easy to understand (clear), able to generate change (persuasive), relevant to the person (relevance), and appealing (attractive) (see Part I: *Message-execution strategy*, pp. 110-118).

When developing the message, there are two aspects to consider: one is the actual content of the message – what will be said – and the other has to do with the structure and style of the message – how and by whom it will be said. Most of the knowledge needed to develop the message has already been collected (during the in-depth analysis). Not only the content, but also the structure and style of the message that will be directed at the target audience, should be considered very carefully. The creative staff of the advertising agency will rely on the brief provided by the campaign initiator when devising the various communication concepts (see *Creative brief*, p. 41).

If message development is outsourced, the campaign initiator should supervise the work with great care: a clear procedure concerning the various sub-tasks must be established between the creative team and the campaign initiator. This procedure must then be systematically validated by the campaign initiator on a step-by-step basis. This implies substantial interaction between the two parties in order to maximize the chances of developing a message that follows the creative brief.

As to how to influence the target audience with the campaign message, the strategy involves knowing how to use the factor(s) that you identified from the literature review, along with any additional research conducted on the target audience (see Part I: *Gathering more information about the target audience*, pp. 107-108).

It is important to realise that there is a clear distinction between “campaign message” and “campaign slogan”. The *message* is the central idea that the campaign will convey, which is why it is sometimes called the “core message”, e.g., “If you go out to have a drink with friends, always designate a driver ahead of time.” The *slogan* is how this message is translated in the actual campaign, e.g., “It’s time to party when Bob drives.”

3.1.2.1. Developing the content of the message

In line with the principles of social marketing, you need to consider the following elements when developing the message content (see Box 17, p. 70-71):

- The specific objectives of the campaign (based on the main predictors of behavioural change).
- The characteristics of the problem behaviour and/or safe behaviour (e.g., frequency, place of adoption).
- The perceived benefits of adopting the safe behaviour.
- The perceived cost of adopting the safe behaviour.
- The place and time where the safe behaviour should be adopted.

Normally, these pieces of information are already available, since they were gathered during the situation analysis (see *Analysing the situation*, pp. 47-63). For example, if your campaign is associated with enforcement, this fact should be taken into account when developing the content of the message.

The message should be able to challenge people’s preconceived ideas. Let’s say you have conducted research among young male drivers to identify the reason why they do not respect speed limits. The results from this research, based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour, might indicate that the main predictor of the problem behaviour is a subjective norm (that is, these drivers believe that others accept their behaviour). In this case, the content of the message could be “Do not let yourself be influenced by other drivers’ opinions”; or the content might focus on showing that other drivers actually disapprove rather than approve of the behaviour.

As a next step, you will decide on the structure and style of the message.

3.1.2.2. Devising the structure and style of the message

Once the content of the message is defined, it is time to decide upon the structure and style of the message. In order to achieve the campaign's specific objectives, the message has to capture the target audience's attention, raise their awareness, and get them to accept it.

The actual structure and style of the message are created by the advertising agency, in line with the creative brief and the campaign objectives, provided your budget allows you to outsource the development of the message. Should you be developing your message in-house, you can apply the following ideas:

The message structure can be either one-sided or two-sided (see Part I: *Structure of the message*, pp. 111-112), which essentially means that you have to choose whether or not you will present counterarguments to your core message. The choice will depend on the target audience and on the campaign's goal.

When deciding upon the style of the message you should look to the research findings from the four sources noted in the situation analysis (i.e., qualitative and quantitative studies on the problem behaviour, research on theoretical models that explain the motivations underlying the problem behaviour, past campaigns and other actions, and marketing studies on the target audience). These findings might, for instance, give you an idea of the effectiveness of positive vs. negative framing in leading your target audience and its segments to adopt the desired safe behaviour. Different styles may also be selected according to the characteristics of the target audience: informative, call-to-action, positive emotional (e.g., empathy, warmth, love, humour, affection), negative emotional (e.g., retroactive, fear appeal), etc.

When crafting the message, it is also useful to investigate what has been most effective in past campaigns and other programmes. For instance, some practitioners refuse to use negative messages because they have noticed from other campaigns that the safe behaviour is more likely to be achieved when a positive approach is used rather than showing accidents. A negative message might make use of a fear appeal to address a topic, although this technique has generated considerable debate about the pros and cons. Some authors claim that fear appeals are effective in changing behaviour; others claim that such appeals do not have proven advantages over other message styles^x.

We recommend pre-testing the message to find out if the chosen approach (negative vs. positive framing) is suitable for the type of problem behaviour and audience addressed in the campaign. For example, if your message communicates a fear appeal, you can pre-test it using Witte's Risk Behaviour Diagnosis (RBD) Scale³¹.

The RBD is grounded in the *Extended Parallel Process Model* (see Part I: p. 114), and is a very useful tool for identifying the dominant type of control process (i.e., danger control or fear control). More specifically, the RBD is a 12-item scale (see Table 2) that assesses the target's perceived efficacy (i.e., response efficacy and self-efficacy) and perceived threat (i.e., severity of the threat and susceptibility to the threat). Ratings are made on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). To calculate the results, you should sum the threat score and efficacy score separately, and then subtract the threat score from the efficacy score. This yields the critical value, which can be interpreted as follows:

- A positive value indicates that efficacy is stronger than threat (i.e., danger control). Messages can focus on increasing perceptions of severity and susceptibility (with appropriate efficacy messages) in order to trigger more behavioural change.

^x For more details about fear appeals, see Part I: pp. 113-115 and the following website: http://www.swov.nl/rapport/Factsheets/UK/FS_Fear_appeals.pdf

- A negative value indicates that threat is stronger than efficacy (i.e., fear control). Messages in this case must focus on efficacy only (because people are already too frightened).

Before using this scale, you must clearly define the threat and the recommended response in order to incorporate them into the scale.

Table 2. Risk Behaviour Diagnosis Scale

	Strongly Disagree->Agree						
1. [Recommended response] is effective in preventing [threat]:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. [Recommended response] works in preventing [threat]:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. If I [do recommended response], I am less likely to get [threat]:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I am able to [do recommended response] to prevent getting [threat]:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I have the [skills/time/money] to [do recommended response] to prevent [threat]:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I can easily [do recommended response] to prevent [threat]:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EFFICACY =							
7. I believe that [threat] is severe:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I believe that [threat] has serious negative consequences:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I believe that [threat] is extremely harmful:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. It is likely that I will get [threat]:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I am at risk for getting [threat]:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. It is possible that I will get [threat]:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
THREAT =							

To generate ideas for developing the message style (see Box 17), you may use one or more of several possible tools, including:

- Individual interviews with a representative sample of the target audience.
- Focus groups with a representative sample of the target audience. This is a form of qualitative research in which a group of people is asked about their attitudes (and other relevant variables) towards a product, concept, advertisement, idea, etc. Questions are asked in an interactive group setting where participants are free to talk with other group members.
- Creative brainstorming sessions (brainstorming is a creative, group technique designed to generate a large number of ideas to solve a problem).

Box 17. Content and style of the message in the Scottish “Foolspeed” campaign: reduce speeding²⁴

The general objective of the Scottish “Foolspeed” campaign (1999-2001) was to reduce speeding on Scotland’s roads. The specific objectives were to influence behavioural beliefs (attitudes), normative beliefs (subjective norms), and control beliefs (perceived behavioural control). In order to identify the component beliefs likely to be the most important in the formation of attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC regarding speeding, research was conducted via a two-step process:

- 1) A literature review of previous TPB studies on driving violations.
- 2) Focus-group forums (8 focus groups with male and female drivers ages 18-44).

The focus-group forums also provided insight into drivers’ feelings about road safety advertising. Participants’ comments suggested that key elements of the campaigns are credibility – i.e., the depiction of realistic, non-extreme driving events – and sympathy for daily pressures experienced by drivers, such as congestion and “hassle”. This generated the hypothesis that a low-key style depicting everyday driving scenarios would be equally, if not more, effective in engaging audiences than a hard-hitting approach. In line with the credible and realistic style that was chosen, it was also decided that the advertising would feature recognizable locations such as well-known Glasgow streets.

As for the content of the message, it was decided to develop three television/cinema ads addressing the three main predictors included in TPB: attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, respectively. The outline of each ad was based on findings in the research:

- The ad designed to address attitude (“Mirror”) sought to challenge the beliefs that speeding in town saves time, that a speeding driver is fully in control of the car, that he/she is able to stop quickly in an emergency if necessary, and that speeding cannot cause road accidents.
- The ad targeting subjective norms (“Friends and Family”) sought to highlight the mismatch between a driver’s favourable view of his/her own driving and the irritation or anxiety it may arouse in passengers, and also to increase the driver’s motivation to drive more safely to please others around him/her.
- The ad addressing perceived behavioural control (“Simon Says”) sought to increase drivers’ control over their speeding and to challenge drivers with the sense of “being responsible for the way they drive”, even when there are internal and external pressures that might encourage drivers to speed.

3.1.2.3. Choosing the campaign identifiers

Campaign identifiers are visual or audio elements that bring consistency to a campaign or a set of campaigns; they give identity to a campaign and/or indicate the organisations involved in it. Spokespersons, logos, mascots, and brands can all be used as campaign identifiers.

The task of choosing the campaign identifiers is not always assigned to an outside agency. Indeed, many organisations (such as NGOs) will not have the opportunity to become a full-time “customer” of an advertising agency. Thus, time and money are sometimes saved on certain message-development tasks (such as creation of logos, posters, etc.) by doing the work in-house. This can be more cost-effective than working with an agency.

Spokespersons

In order to enhance identification and acceptance of the campaign, it is often appropriate to use one or more spokespersons to deliver the message. Credibility is the key issue here. The very same message tends to be judged more favourably when presented by a communicator of high credibility than by one of low credibility. Clearly, people’s reactions to a message are significantly affected by cues to the communicator’s intentions, expertise, trustworthiness, attractiveness, motives, source-target similarity, and message origin.

Moreover, the credibility of a message can be affected by both the media vehicle itself, i.e., the newspaper, magazine, or TV channel where the message is run, and the communicator’s relationship to the message’s content.

Spokespersons may be well-known personalities, athletes, show-business celebrities, witnesses, and so on. The spokesperson chosen should be one who inspires trust in the target audience, and who is a likeable, sympathetic character, etc. Spokespersons who are very well known, popular, and trusted by the target audience can tremendously increase acceptance of the campaign message.

However, this approach also has its limitations because it relies on a person whose actions outside the context of the campaign are not always controllable. Indeed, if the spokesperson’s personal actions, opinions, etc. go against the campaign message, this will cause a loss of credibility (for instance, when a spokesperson chosen for an anti-speeding campaign is caught speeding).

Logos

A campaign may also be identified by a logo, which serves as a kind of trademark for the campaign and increases campaign recognition by the public. Logos can be used in several ways. Generally, the initiator’s logo is used as a signature on each campaign sponsored by

that same organisation. This allows easy identification of the campaign initiator as the sender of the message.

In addition, a separate logo specific to the campaign itself may be used, in accordance with the campaign theme. This increases recognition for the campaign, e.g., the Bob logo for the European drinking-and-driving campaign.

Apart from the logo that serves to identify the campaign initiator or the campaign itself, several other logos may be used to identify:

- Other organisations involved in the campaign: there might be a combination of logos from sponsors, partners, and/or stakeholders of the campaign; these logos are used as a signature but are generally separated from the initiator's logo, e.g., the European Commission (EC) logo would be seen on EC-supported campaigns.
- The general campaign or an element of the specific campaign: e.g., the logo of the EC's "25,000 Lives to Save" or the logo of the United Nations' "Global Road Safety Week".

More generally, several combinations of logos can be considered. For instance, you might use one logo for a particular campaign, associated with the logo used for every other campaign by the same initiator. However, too many logos may blur the image and recognition of the campaign partners. Commercial sponsors may be particularly concerned about obtaining sufficient visibility as a return for the money they have invested in the campaign.

Mascots

A mascot can be a powerful campaign identifier (see Box 18). Typically, a mascot is a human or animal figure that stands as a symbol for the entire campaign. If a mascot is embraced by the target audience, this may greatly contribute to the "likeability" of the campaign or its ability to produce a positive emotional experience in the target audience. This in turn facilitates the acceptance of the message. However, likeability does not necessarily mean that the target audience will accept the message and adopt the desired safe behaviour – people can enjoy a mascot and remember it without having it influence their behaviour. Sometimes, it is even better if the audience doesn't really like the campaign, especially if you use a fear appeal (see Part I: *The message*, pp. 109-120).

Box 18. Mascots: example from the Euchires project³²

Mascots can be incorporated into merchandising items to support a media campaign.

In this context, the 2005 "Euchires" campaign, a European public-awareness campaign on the use of seatbelts and restraint systems for children, was centred on the "Armadillo" gadget ("Goochem" or "Gordeldier" in Dutch, or "Tatouceinture" or "Zou le Tatou" in French, etc.), a toy designed to make wearing a seatbelt more pleasant for 4- to 12-year-old children.



Brands

Another technique often used to create a campaign identity is “branding”. A brand is a name, term, sign, symbol, design, or combination of these, intended to identify the product³³. The brand name must be easy to pronounce, recognize, and remember; it should capture or define the product’s benefits, highlight the product’s qualities or appeal, and be distinctive (see Box 19). As with mascots, brand names should not resemble or allude to other existing products or trademarks. They should be thoroughly pre-tested and trademark-protected.

Box 19. Brands: the Bob campaign example³⁴

In 1995, to combat drinking and driving, Belgium launched its first awareness-raising campaign on the "Bob" theme, the Pan-European Designated Driver Campaign, in order to encourage people travelling by car to always designate somebody who will refrain from drinking and make sure that the others get home safely.

Since then, with the support of the European Commission, the Bob concept has been implemented in the other EU member states, under the name "Lince" in Spain, "Designated Dessie" in Ireland, "Capitaine de soirée" or "Capitaine Sam" in France, "Stooder med Stil" in Denmark, "Bob" in the Netherlands and Greece, and "Joker" in Portugal.

The designated driver concept has been marketed as a brand name with high recognition and popularity scores in those countries where it has been introduced.



Logos, mascots, and brands should be developed and chosen carefully, since they can have adverse effects if (part of) the target audience dislikes the mascot, brands, logos, or any aspect of them.

Logos, mascots, and brands can be created entirely by the advertising agency and approved by the campaign initiator, or they can be designed jointly by the agency and the initiator. Usually, this is the advertising agency’s job, since it is also responsible for performing the other creative design work.

3.1.2.4. Pre-testing the message

Once you have decided on the content and style of the message (for example, different levels of fear appeal, negative or positive framing, etc.), you should validate your choices by pre-testing its content and style. This can be done by the advertising agency or another outside agency. Pre-testing enables you to improve and optimise the message before the actual implementation of the campaign. It provides more information about the strengths and weaknesses of the message, and helps to ensure that the message will reach the target, be understood, and influence the target’s knowledge, beliefs, and/or behaviour, etc. We recommend pre-testing several messages on the target audience to which you are gearing the campaign.

When pre-testing a message, keep the following objectives in mind:

- First, you should test for clarity, appropriateness, and attractiveness of the different types of messages for the target audience. The messages that are most easily understood, appropriate, and attractive should be selected.
- Secondly, you should decide which of several messages should be selected. For instance, you may have three versions of the same message (high, medium, low fear appeal), or a positively vs. negatively framed message, etc. It is advisable to use the thought-listing task³⁵ to investigate how receivers in the target audience process the message (see Part I: *Thought listing task*, pp. 119-120). It is possible to predict the message's potential to induce³⁵ lasting attitude change, according to the way the message is elaborated^{36,37}. If the thought-listing task shows that people recall more arguments linked to the message, you can assume that they are processing the information on a deeper level, which will lead to longer-lasting effects. If they do not recall many arguments, you can conclude that they are engaging in a heuristic or peripheral type of information processing, leading to more superficial effects (see Part I: *Elaboration-Likelihood Model*, pp. 61-63, and Part I: *Thought listing task*, pp. 119-120)

After having carried out these steps, you will select the message that stimulates the most favourable thoughts and that has the highest potential to influence the target group's behaviour, either directly or indirectly.

To gather the pre-test data, you can rely on quantitative studies. Depending on the circumstances, you can also introduce a qualitative phase, with focus groups whose participants are representative of the target audience (20 to 30 participants).

Responses should be compared with the objectives recorded in the creative brief.

On the basis of the pre-test results, the message content and style can be adapted to align more closely with the campaign strategy and operational objectives.

The final stage involves having the ad agency (or another external agency) present its work to the initiator for approval. However, the customer (campaign initiator) should continue to take an active part throughout the development process.

After developing the message and pre-testing it, you will choose the media and draft the media plan.

3.1.3. Selecting the media and defining the media plan

By choosing the media and developing a media plan, you will define where and when your messages will appear (see Box 20). This step includes:

- Choosing from a variety of media types.
- Selecting specific media vehicles (e.g., magazine titles, radio programmes) and possible mediators who can join the campaign and potentially influence the target audience (e.g., police, educational workers, well-known personalities, spokespersons or advocates, etc.).
- Determining the timing for launch and implementation of campaign elements, which involves planning and scheduling the distribution of the campaign materials and supportive activities.

Box 20. Media plan, and choice of media and possible mediators: the State of Connecticut's 2003 impaired-driving high-visibility enforcement campaign³⁸

The aim of the 2003 impaired-driving high-visibility enforcement campaign conducted by the State of Connecticut (U.S.) was to reduce impaired driving and ultimately alcohol-related injuries and fatal crashes, particularly among young people ages 21 to 34.

The campaign consisted of both media advertising and enforcement, and ran for 11 months. The media component was concentrated in the two holiday periods during 2003 (the 4th of July and the November-December holidays) and was designed to create the perception of sustained enforcement between these two holiday periods.

To make the message reach the target audience, the following media mix and different value-added initiatives were used in the campaign:

- TV ads were placed on TV programmes often viewed by the main target audience on several broadcast and cable stations. One of the stations hosted a UCONN (University of Connecticut) men's basketball ticket giveaway that involved answering a series of DWI (Driving While Impaired) questions on the TV station's website. Contestants were referred to the campaign website to find the answers.
- 60-second radio spots were placed on seven different stations, aiming to reach both the potential offenders and their sphere of influence: friends, girlfriends, and families. The schedule was concentrated on Thursdays, Fridays, and Saturdays, using the day-parts of each station most likely to influence the target's decision about DWI.
- *Outdoor* publicity in the form of two billboards was chosen since billboards are seen by the audience while in their most relevant environment – their vehicles.
- *Public relations* included a coordinated and executed kick-off press conference (in relation to the 4th of July campaign), creation of press kits, setting up interviews, and news coverage.
- *In-bar events* were aimed at educating the target audience (men ages 21 to 34) on the dangers of drunk driving, in a fun, interactive way in their environment : the bar. Bar events were hosted by radio stations broadcasting live on location (at bars and nightclubs).
- *The website* for the campaign was developed to serve as the primary destination for individuals seeking information, insight, and knowledge about the issues involved in DWI enforcement, prevention, and education in Connecticut. The banner for the website appeared on the websites of television channels and radio stations.
- In cooperation with radio stations, *e-mail blasts* were sent out to their listener databases. The newsletters included a message about DWI. During the winter campaign, a ski weekend getaway was offered as an incentive to encourage website visitors to click-through the DWI message and get more information. The e-mail blasts occurred during peak holiday times when the target offender was most likely to be DWI.

An additional component of the campaign was the Safe Rides programme that consisted of free taxi rides for the public, between Thanksgiving and New Year's Eve every Friday and Saturday night (6 weeks). The public was encouraged to use Safe Rides via radio and in-bar events.

3.1.3.1. Choice of media and possible mediators

It is important to be creative in the choice of media. The first element to take into account when making this choice is the campaign budget. Indeed, each medium has its own advertising rates, which vary according to the medium itself, the media channel, and the time and place of insertion.

The media plan is usually put together by the media-buying agency in collaboration with the advertising agency. Media planning should be based on media research data (cost and efficiency of each type of media and media channel).

While the main criterion is the campaign budget, other sources of information should be considered when choosing the media and developing the media plan. These include the

target audience, the media strategy, and the campaign designer's experience. More specifically, the choice of media depends on the target audience's media habits, the geographic extent of the problem, and the advantages and disadvantages of different media types.

Target audience

The choice of media may be made according to the target audience's media habits, as ascertained by various methods such as marketing studies or audience studies (see Box 21). Since the time factor also plays a role in this choice, it is important to take into account any changes in media usage over time, as well as trends and preferences which evolve very rapidly. Indeed, many media concepts that are "hot" one year may be outdated by the next year. It might be particularly worthwhile to investigate the latest trends in electronic media, such as social networking sites (e.g., Facebook), sms, internet applications, etc.

Media research agencies specialise in analysing the number of viewers, readers, or listeners for each media vehicle, and defining the characteristics of each vehicle's audience. Media research data provide very important guidelines for buying media space and time.

Box 21. A tool for collecting information on the target audience's media habits: the Print Measurement Bureau (PMB) poll³⁹

The PMB is Canada's leading syndicated study for single-source data on print readership, non-print media exposure, product usage, and lifestyles.

The PMB has developed a valuable tool for print media measurement and related marketing data: the PMB poll, which surveys a large sample of respondents to characterize people's newspaper- and magazine-reading habits.

For instance, English-speaking Canadians don't watch much Canadian TV, but mainly watch American TV instead. It is therefore easier to reach them via radio.

The media should be chosen according to "openings", i.e., the times, places, and situations where the audience will pay most attention and be able to react to the message, that is⁴⁰:

- The time when the target is the most receptive, e.g., in a nightclub.
- The time when the target is most likely to adopt the problem behaviour. For example, concerning drinking and driving, in addition to the usual campaign media, it may be a good idea, as mentioned above, to communicate the message in bars when people are drinking, face-to-face, or with posters or placemats.
- The place where the target can be reached. It is often important to communicate in places where people expect it, i.e., to address people in a place where your message is relevant. For instance, for a bicycle education campaign geared to children, it is better to put posters at school or to communicate face-to-face than using the media.
- On the other hand, for certain campaigns it may be useful to communicate in places where it is NOT expected! The surprise element, the originality and creativity, can be important in making people aware of the campaign. For example, in a Belgian campaign promoting courtesy on the road, where the central campaign message was "Traffic is not a jungle", dummy monkeys were hung up on traffic lights at a number of crossroads in Brussels.

Geographic extent of the problem

The geographic area(s) where the problem occurs can determine the scale of the campaign: national, regional, and/or local (see Part I: *Road safety communication campaign*, pp. 73-152). This will be a big factor in media choice. Accordingly, if road-crash and unsafe-behaviour data show that a problem is predominant in a certain region, it is logical to

concentrate the campaign on that particular region and to use those media vehicles that provide particularly good coverage there. In other words: the geographic scope of the problem will influence or define the geographic scope of the campaign, which in turn will influence the media choice.

Advantages and disadvantages of various media types

Each media type has its own features. The choice of media will depend on these features and on the type of message. It is essential to communicate in a way that will appeal to the target audience. For instance, radio and outdoor billboards can reach people in their cars; this may be useful because it addresses drivers at the place and time when they actually make the choice between the safe or unsafe behaviour. Internet websites are not always adequate for reaching people because those who visit road-safety websites are perhaps already aware of the problem and therefore do not belong to the target audience. However, much depends on how you design and present the website, and how you get people to visit it (e.g., a road-safety message may be presented in an online quiz game).

If during the situation analysis, you found past campaigns and other actions on the same theme and target audience, you may rely on past experience with the chosen media in the present campaign. If the past campaign included some types of supportive activities, you will know which ones worked and which ones didn't. However, what works well in one situation does not necessarily work well in another. This means you cannot simply "cut-and-paste" solutions from past campaigns to a new campaign: you have to adapt them (see Part I: *How to adapt a campaign*, pp. 97-100). It is recommended that you test several concepts in order to know the best way to integrate supportive activities and promotional actions into the campaign (see Part I: *The message: importance of a pre-testing procedure*, pp. 118-120, and *Pre-testing the message*, pp. 73-74).

3.1.3.2. Media planning

The media planning task consists of scheduling the distribution of campaign materials (spots, billboards, website, etc.) and supportive activities. The media-buying agency will take care of setting up the media plan, recommending the use of specific media vehicles (TV or radio channels, magazine or newspaper titles, etc.), at different times.

For example, if you run a road safety communication campaign with young males as the primary target, you will conduct surveys to learn more about their TV-watching habits. If surveys show that young males watch football matches on TV, you can design the media plan to include a high frequency of TV spots during the championship period, as well as during specific matches.

The media plan will be developed on the basis of certain criteria:

- Timing and length of the campaign.
- Advertising rates of each media and channel, demographic statistics of coverage, etc. in order to know where to buy effective space (data usually provided by the media-buying agency).
- Campaign budget.
- Openings, i.e., where and when the audience can be reached.

In some cases, it might be possible to borrow from media plans of past campaigns (without being too restrictive as to how many campaigns you examine).

Duration and frequency

We can distinguish two types of campaigns:

- Single-phase campaigns.
- Multi-phase campaigns.

If you have a modest budget, it is best to concentrate the campaign in one or two media with optimum frequency, over a limited time period. In this case, single-phase campaigns can be an option. Two weeks is the minimum duration, especially for radio and TV advertising. Campaigns that run less than two weeks barely get noticed by the public and consequently will lead to poor results. On the other end of the spectrum, there are “permanent” campaigns that run for perhaps an entire year or even longer (“permanent awareness-raising”). In this case, the frequency at which the target audience is exposed to the message should not drop below a certain minimum. Otherwise the campaign will not get noticed, because if media exposure is “spread out” too much, the effects will also be poor (for more details, see Part I: *Frequency*, pp. 127-128).

If your budget is larger, you have the choice between a single-phase campaign and a multi-phase campaign. The latter is recommended for longer campaigns. These are often split up into several “waves” with peak exposures at certain times, and can be combined with supportive activities, also in waves. Multi-phase campaigns have at least two distinct phases or waves of high media exposure alternating with off periods between the phases.

Whatever the phasing of your campaign (single-phase or multi-phase), using events or activities and attention-getters concentrated at a single point in time (one day to a few days) can be useful for attracting the audience’s attention and increasing the prominence of the campaign message. Such activities rarely occur on a stand-alone basis. They usually fit into a longer campaign, for example, to introduce or wind up a campaign (e.g., the start of a bicycle campaign may be announced with a special event in which employees are asked to ride their bikes to work instead of taking their car; this event can potentially involve the participation of large companies who support the measure).

Time of campaign implementation

The timing of the campaign’s implementation may depend on the following factors (see Box 22).

Weather conditions and seasonal characteristics:

- In autumn/winter, days get shorter, so this may be a good time to launch a campaign promoting lights on bicycles.

Particular events:

- On Christmas Eve and New Year’s Eve people drink a lot, so this is a good time to run a campaign on drinking and driving.
- In summer when people leave on vacation, it might be a good time to run a campaign on driver distraction or fatigue.

Box 22. Reach of a campaign, interference with other campaigns or actions, and consequences for evaluation

Certain contextual and structural aspects of the campaign initiator’s organisation, such as the area it covers or its relationships with other organisations, can affect the *reach* of the campaign (see *Getting started*, pp. 25-46).

For instance, a campaign could be run at the national level by a national road-safety organisation, while supportive actions could be organised locally by municipal governments and city police. In this

case, the local actions can prove helpful in supporting the national campaign; they can help in reaching the right audience at the most opportune places and times.

Of course, the fact that the campaign is being combined with other actions at different scales must be taken into account in the evaluation.

3.1.4. Developing and pre-testing the message and slogans in their full context (pre-production)

3.1.4.1. Developing the message and slogans in their full context

Once the message (content, structure, and style) has been developed, it can be translated into one or more textual and/or visual elements that communicate the message and enable you to set up the campaign according to the chosen media vehicles and media plan. Developing messages and slogans in a way that will convey the core message involves determining the best media and combinations of media such as text, images, sounds, etc. (see Box 23).

Box 23. Developing the message in its full context: campaign to reduce teenage pedestrian injuries and fatalities²⁰

A British mass-media campaign in 2005 was developed in order to reduce injuries and fatalities among teenage pedestrians between the ages of 11 and 16 (for more on this campaign, see Box 9, pp. 52-53). When developing the message in its full context, the practitioners made use of existing research as well as newly commissioned studies on the target audience.

This research provided insights into the basic causes of teenage road accidents and into teenagers' attitudes toward risk and toward different communications. It also helped in figuring out how to get them involved. Once these insights were pulled together, four issues were identified as important for developing the message:

- Use the powerful influence of friendship groups.
- Tap into the after-school social atmosphere.
- Give teens more insight into what they can do to stay safe on the roads.
- Focus primarily on the dangers of being distracted, since this is a major cause of accidents.

Furthermore, the research suggested that one should not talk to teenagers with the voice of government, and lecturing should be avoided. Accordingly, it was decided to let the teenagers talk to each other, and to use actual teenagers in creating the ad. This would make the ad realistic and engaging, and ensure that the tone was on target for teenagers.

Moreover, it was decided to film the TV spot using mobile phone cameras, since this type of camera is:

- A crucial teenage accessory.
- A highly popular teenage trend.
- A common source of teenage distraction.

Fourteen groups of teenagers were given camera phones and asked to film their everyday interactions. The group chosen to be featured in the ad was the one that came across as the most natural, a group that other teens could relate to. In fact, this group was an actual group of friends filmed on the street in the Stoke Newington area of London, where they walk every day. None of them had previous acting experience. Actors and expert stunts were used to film the crash featured in the ad.

The scenario of the commercial was as follows:

A group of teenagers is enjoying a typical day as they banter and tease one another. They are so distracted that they fail to see a vehicle approaching. One teen walks into the road without looking carefully and is hit by a car. The road crash is seen through the camera phone, together with sights

and sounds of shock as the group realizes what has happened. The spot closes with the text: “55 teenagers a week wish they’d given the road their full attention.”

A campaign message can be rendered via one or more slogans. Slogans and other text elements must convey the message in the form and style that is most appealing to the target audience. To render a given message, it is recommended that you use a tagline, i.e., a general campaign slogan that will serve as a signature throughout the campaign. Other recommended strategies are to use short and catchy sentences, write body text to create a context for the slogan and/or tagline, and develop scripts for radio and TV spots, etc.

Of course, the way the printed word is used is often defined and limited by the chosen media. For example, an outdoor billboard can only accommodate a slogan and a tagline, whereas there is room in a newspaper ad for body text. As for messages on variable message signs (VMS), they can only reach the target audience if they are readable by drivers going by, so they should be short and easy to understand.

Message style includes a number of important non-verbal elements that will depend on the type of media used to convey the message:

- Visual elements (typography, use of colour, etc.): in practice, when a campaign relies on a visual medium such as posters, the advertising agency develops a visual concept to convey the message. This concept usually consists of one or more images (drawings, photos, illustrations, logos, graphics, animations, etc.) that best express and support the message.
- Soundscapes: music, tone of voice, etc. (for audiovisual messages).

For this step, the advertising agency designs the actual campaign materials that will deliver the message. The agency will supervise the pre-production and production of the campaign materials, and if necessary, subcontract tasks out to specialized companies.

3.1.4.2. Pre-testing the message and slogans in their full context

Before actually launching the campaign, it is useful to find out if its strategy works well with the target audience - to see if the campaign material is suited to the target audience or if it needs to be changed or improved. This is achieved by pre-testing the message and slogans in their full context. This type of pre-test is different from pre-testing the message *per se*, since it includes testing all of the campaign’s procedures, activities, and materials as they will be implemented in the real campaign.

Pre-testing usually consists of showing one or more sample images (drawings, photos, illustrations, logos, graphics, animations, etc.) that best express and support the message, followed by questions to determine whether the message achieves its purpose (see Box 24).

Box 24. Typical pre-test topics concerning the message in its full context

Typical questions when pre-testing the message include the following:

- What is the main message of the ad?
- What additional messages does the ad convey?
- What do you think they want you to know/ believe/ do?
- What works well/ doesn’t work well in the ad?

Finally, you can pre-test the message and audiovisual material using the fully produced advertisements, but this is a very expensive way to proceed. In practice, the material is mostly tested on storyboards (see Box 25).

Box 25. Pre-testing of the message on storyboards in the Scottish “Foolspeed” campaign: reduce speeding²⁴

The general objective of the Scottish “Foolspeed” campaign (1999-2001) was to reduce speeding on Scotland’s roads^{xi}. In this campaign, an advertising agency developed creative concepts for the three ads based on the research findings. In order to evaluate the communication potential and obtain guidance on aspects of execution, each ad went through several successive stages of consumer research. At each stage, a series of eight same-sex focus group sessions were conducted.

The focus groups consisted of drivers ages 25-44. Given that the main target group was male drivers in this age group with professional, white-collar, or clerical jobs, drivers with these characteristics were slightly over-represented in the samples. In order to maximise its value, consumer research was carried out at the pre-production stage. The creative concepts, in storyboard form with narration on audiotape, were presented in the focus groups. The ads were further refined before final production on the basis of the findings from this research

At the end of this step, the creative brief should be updated (see Box 26).

Box 26. Updated creative brief for a speeding campaign (second update) -- updated elements are shown in italics

- **Problem description:** statistics on accidents due to speeding, data on speeding offences and behaviour (observed and self-reported), types of roads where speeding problems are often seen, types of road users involved, etc., background and probable causes of speeding behaviour (intentional or unintentional, etc.), elements that predict and explain speeding behaviour (based on theoretical models), main predictors of safe behaviour
- **Context of the problem:** speed management and enforcement system, speed limits, fines for speeding, enforcement level, previous measures to counter the problem, possible societal trends that encourage speeding
- **Information from past (evaluated) anti-speeding campaigns:** objectives, target audience(s), theoretical framework used, evaluation results, etc.
- **Target audience(s):** audience(s) most involved in the problem behaviour, for example male drivers ages 20-25, typical motivations, characteristics and behaviours of the target audience, its awareness of the problem, habits, beliefs, perceived risk, etc.
- **General goal of the campaign:** to reduce speeding-related accidents by influencing speeding behaviour of target audience(s)
- **Specific objectives of the campaign:** *primary and secondary objectives. For example, to decrease the number of speeding offences in developed areas (primary objective), to increase awareness of the consequences of speeding for vulnerable road users, to change normative beliefs regarding speeding, to increase subjective risk of getting caught (secondary objectives)*
- **Campaign stakeholders and partners:** for example, national and local police forces, road victims’ associations, local governments, insurance companies (sponsor), etc.
- **Campaign strategy:** *use peer groups to influence young male drivers’ risk awareness and normative beliefs regarding speeding, combine the media campaign with greater enforcement to increase the objective and subjective risk of getting caught*
- **Campaign message and style:** *“Cool drivers do not speed”, positive emotional reinforcement of drivers who adhere to speed limits*
- **Media, distribution channels, and media plan:** *230 outdoor billboards along main roads in developed areas (4 weeks), radio spots (2 waves in 4 weeks, on 6 radio stations aimed at young people), flyer distributed through network of insurance brokers to their clients in the 20- to 25-year-old age range*
- **Total available budget:** including the budget for evaluation
- **General time frame for the campaign:** for example, October 15 – November 15

^{xi} For more information on this campaign, see Boxes 12 (p. 59) and 17 (pp.70-71), and see also Stead, A., MacKintosh, A. M., Tagg, S., & Eadie, D. (2002). *Changing Speeding Behaviour in Scotland: An Evaluation of the “FOOLSPEED” Campaign*. Centre for Social Marketing, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, Écosse, Scottish Executive Social Research. Retrieved January 5, 2009, from <http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/46997/0026925.pdf>

3.2. Designing the campaign evaluation

Development of the evaluation design can be done either in-house by a department working with or for the initiator, or by an outside agency (e.g., research institute or university). The evaluation design should receive no less effort and attention than the design of the campaign itself.

As part of the CAST project, an evaluation tool was developed that can help you determine what measures, methods, and tools to use, depending on the objectives of your campaign. We recommend using this tool to design your evaluation⁴¹.

Furthermore, there are several websites that provide guidance for doing evaluations (see Box 27).

Box 27. Useful links that provide guidance for doing evaluations

If you need help in conducting the evaluation, you might want to consult the following websites:

- The **European Evaluation Society (EES)** lists the standards and guiding principles of national and regional evaluation societies in Europe and abroad.
www.europeanevaluation.org
- The **UK Evaluation Society (UKES)** lists a number of online evaluation resources, plus links to other national and regional evaluation societies.
www.evaluation.org.uk
- The **European Commission's** Financial Programming and Budget website publishes practical guides for organising, planning, and carrying out evaluation activities at different stages of programmes, activities, and policies on a European scale. This may be of particular interest if your campaign has a European scope.
ec.europa.eu/budget

3.2.1. Defining the objectives of the evaluation and developing evaluation measures

At the very least, your campaign evaluation should tell you whether the campaign works or not, and whether it is cost-effective. More specifically, it should tell you which elements work or do not work, and why or why not. Answering each of these questions involves a different type of evaluation, namely a process evaluation, an outcome evaluation, or an economic evaluation (see Part I: *Evaluating campaigns*, pp. 131-147).

In this step, you will define the variables for the evaluations that will take place before and after the campaign, and sometimes also for an evaluation that will be conducted during the campaign. This will involve qualitative and quantitative measures related to the campaign's specific operational objectives.

3.2.1.1. Process evaluation – measures for evaluating the implementation of the campaign

You should make sure that your campaign has been implemented as planned. This is done via the process evaluation, which involves measuring the implementation of the campaign based on its operational objectives. The process evaluation enables you to monitor what is happening during the campaign itself, and if possible, to make necessary adjustments to your plans. It is also a useful aid when analysing and interpreting the results of your other evaluations. This kind of evaluation can provide explanations in cases where the campaign

does not have the expected effects. For example, if the campaign was unsuccessful in achieving its goals, the process evaluation might show that the timing of the message was wrong since it failed to reach its target audience. Of course, there may be other factors that explain why a campaign doesn't work, such as factors related to message content.

Possible variables to use in the process evaluation include objective and subjective exposure, as detailed below.

- Objective exposure (see Box 28):
 - Types of activities carried out.
 - Total exposure – the total number of people being exposed to the campaign (i.e., number of people listening to the radio programme, number of readers).
 - Number of messages that have been disseminated (number of TV spots, number of advertisements, number of posters displayed, number of leaflets, etc.).
 - Frequency, duration, and timing of messages distributed (for how long was the message displayed or on the air, how long was the poster up, how long was the radio programme, how many times was it broadcasted, etc.).
 - If the campaign is combined with another action, the process evaluation should also focus on that action. For example, if the campaign is combined with enforcement, the process evaluation could specify the number of drivers checked by the police and when and how often the checking was done.

Box 28. Example of objective exposure measures: the British seatbelt campaign (1998): increase seatbelt wearing in the back seat, particularly among 15 to 30 year olds⁴²

Over the years, THINK! has run a number of campaigns to promote a key message: always wear a seatbelt. Recent campaigns have targeted young men aged between the ages of 17 and 24 and back-seat passengers, who, research has shown, are more likely to avoid wearing a seatbelt. The campaigns use a mixture of TV, radio, and promotional materials such as posters and leaflets. A key feature over the years has been powerful, graphic TV advertising showing the effects of not wearing a seatbelt in a crash.

For the back-seat seatbelt campaign in the UK, the public relations operation was organised through several third parties. Many of these provided support in the form of donated advertising space or time. The airing of the commercial itself also attracted additional PR coverage.

In addition to the number of paid advertisements, the campaign practitioners tallied up the media coverage, noting which TV channels, radio channels, and newspapers covered the commercial as a news item in itself.

- Subjective exposure (see Box 29):
 - Reach: percentage of road users in the target audience who have noticed some part of the campaign, i.e., who have come in contact with the message.
 - Awareness: percentage of road users in the target audience who are aware of the campaign theme and message, i.e., the seriousness of the problem addressed by the campaign.
 - Recognition and recall: degree to which the target audience remembers the campaign (cued and uncued recall of specific campaign elements, the campaign message, and slogans).
 - Appreciation: likeability of the campaign, opinion/approval of the campaign by the target audience.
 - Message takeaway: people's perception of the gist of the message, in order to verify whether the message is being understood.

Box 29. Example of subjective exposure measures: Scottish Drink Drive Festive Campaign: reduce drinking and driving during the holiday period

The aim of the 2003/2004 Drink Drive Festive Campaign was to reduce drinking and driving among the general driver population in Scotland during the holiday period. One part of the campaign was however specifically designed to target young male drivers between ages 17 and 29. A variety of media were used in the campaign, including the press, posters, radio, and television⁴³.

The campaign was part of a broader campaign, the “Don’t Risk It” drinking-and-driving campaign, which was launched in December 2001 to reduce drunk driving in Scotland.

The goals of the evaluation of the 2003/2004 Drink Drive Festive Campaign were to test awareness and understanding of the campaign by drivers.

The evaluation was done in the form of 1,000 in-home interviews with drivers. The sample was structured to be representative of the Scottish population, but was weighted in favour of male drivers between the ages of 17 and 29.

The survey for the process evaluation covered the following topics:

- Cued and uncued recall of the communication (media formats and the specific content).
- Aided recognition of visuals, i.e., the logos.
- Perceived message(s) associated with the communication.
- Perceived impact of the communication on attitudes and driving behaviour.

The findings from this survey were used to draft recommendations for future campaign development.

Moreover, teamwork should be assessed using a qualitative evaluation. This includes examining the level of cooperation within the campaign team, which can obviously have an impact on the results (e.g., disruptions caused by people leaving), as well as cooperation among partners. The outcome of a campaign is also affected by external factors not related to the campaign, such as media coverage, political changes, other campaigns, etc.

3.2.1.2. Outcome evaluation – measures for evaluating the effects of the campaign

The effects of the campaign should be evaluated by means of an outcome evaluation. This involves measuring whether or not the campaign’s specific objectives have been reached. The variables used to measure the campaign’s effects should be directly related to its specific objectives:

- **Primary objectives:** the number or severity of road crashes, the number of offences, the frequency of adopting the unsafe and/or safe behaviour.
- **Secondary objectives:** knowledge about the safe behaviour, beliefs favouring the safe behaviour, self-reported behaviour, and behavioural intentions. These variables should be directly related to the theoretical model used to define the objectives. This means they should be directly related to the predictors that have the highest probability of influencing the targeted individuals’ knowledge and beliefs, and thus of predicting their behaviour.

These variables tell you if, and to what extent, the campaign reduced or did not reduce the number of road crashes due to the problem behaviour, or led to a decrease in the problem behaviour and/or an increase in the safe behaviour. They also let you measure the effect of the campaign based on self-reported data (knowledge, beliefs, or behaviours), and to explain any changes in overt behaviour or road crashes as a result of the campaign.

When accident reduction is used as a primary objective, the causal relationship between the problem behaviour addressed by the campaign and the type of accident used as a measure should be clearly and unambiguously established on the basis of data gathered in the situation analysis (see *Thoroughly analysing the problem and possible solution*, pp. 48-51).

By using different types of variables (accidents, observed behaviour, and self-reported data), it is possible to establish the link between accidents and the problem behaviour. Although this has rarely been done in the past (Delhomme et al., 1999, p.58)⁴⁴ it is definitely recommended. For example, if a campaign addresses driving under the influence, the accident tally should focus on accidents caused by driving under the influence.

The observed behaviours utilised in an outcome evaluation should be directly linked to the campaign's specific objectives (based on the reference model, and on the main predictors of the unsafe behaviour, behavioural change, and/or adoption of the safe behaviour). This means that they should relate directly to the problem behaviour addressed by the campaign relative to the target audience (see Box 30). Typical variables will include:

- The places where road crashes occur.
- The types of road users involved in road accidents.
- The frequency of accidents.
- The dates and times of road crashes (times of the day when accidents occur).
- The types of road accidents and severity of consequences (all road crashes, property damage only, accidents involving personal injury, fatal accidents)⁴⁴.

If the campaign is combined with another action, the observed behavioural measures should take this activity into account as well.

Box 30. Evaluation of road accidents and observed behaviour in the “Speak Out!” campaign: reduce injuries and fatalities among young people⁴⁵

The campaign appeals to automobile passengers to “Speak Out!” by asking drivers to be more careful at the wheel (for more information on this campaign, see Box 14, p. 65). The effect of the campaign on the number of people killed or injured in road accidents was evaluated by conducting three types of studies:

- a) A before-and-after study with a matched comparison group: The matched comparison groups were from the county of Møre og Romsdal and the neighbouring county of Sogn og Fjordane. The two counties are similar in regard to young peoples' car usage. In addition, both counties conducted attitude campaigns built on principles other than those used in “Speak Out!”.
- b) A before-and-after study with a general comparison group: The general comparison group consisted of all other counties in Norway -- 18 in all. The advantage of using this as a comparison group was that the number of injuries was great, making random variations small.
- c) A multivariate analysis (Poisson regression analysis), which measured the effects of factors that influence the number of people injured in road accidents.

It can be difficult to establish that a change in behaviour is due to a campaign or its supportive activities, and not to other factors. Other factors should therefore be acknowledged, for example: other road safety communication campaigns and actions run nationally and/or locally, road-engineering projects, enforcement measures, etc., all of which might influence the outcomes. Obtaining several outcome measures will help increase the reliability of the results and should allow you to overcome this difficulty⁴⁶.

Regarding secondary objectives, the measures (variables) should be chosen according to the reference model and, obviously, the campaign's specific objectives, including the main predictors of the problem behaviour and/or the safe behaviour (see Box 31). The main predictors can be factors from the reference model (e.g., the *Theory of Planned Behaviour*), the *Transtheoretical Model of Change*, etc. Others might be supplementary factors.

Important factors could include the following:

- Knowledge.
- Beliefs.
- Norms.
- Perceived risk.

- Self-reported behaviour and/or behavioural intentions.

Box 31. Measures of beliefs as outcome variables in the 2003-2004 Festive Drink Drive campaign evaluation

Scottish Executive Social Research carried out the evaluation of the Scottish Festive Drink Drive Campaign in 2004⁴³ (for more information see Box 29, p.84). Variables such as attitudes, perceived consequences of drinking and driving, and appropriateness of penalties were measured for the outcome evaluation of this campaign.

Attitudes:

- It is acceptable to drink alcohol when you are driving as long as it is within the legal limits.
- Drinking alcohol and driving depends on the individual. Some people shouldn't drink at all if they are driving. Other people are able to drink more without it affecting them.
- I would still be able to drive competently after a small amount of alcohol within the acceptable legal limit.
- It would be better not to have anything to drink at all if you are going to drive.
- It is acceptable to drink and drive if you are only going a short distance.

Perceived consequences of drinking and driving, and appropriateness of penalties:

- Being barred from driving.
- Losing your licence.
- Fines.
- Damage to the car.
- Increase in insurance premiums.
- Imprisonment.
- Injure/kill someone.
- Get killed or injured in a crash.

3.2.1.3. Economic evaluation – measures for evaluating the cost-effectiveness and efficiency of the campaign

Finally, an economic evaluation is conducted to assess the cost-effectiveness and efficiency (cost-benefit analysis) of the campaign, combined (or not) with supportive activities. It allows you to find out whether the campaign results are in keeping with the monetary investment. The economic evaluation involves specifying all resources used, even if the campaign initiator receives these as gifts or voluntary contributions.

To do the cost-effectiveness and cost-benefit analyses of a campaign, you need to gather information on its total cost (development, media placement, supportive activities, evaluation), and on its effects in monetary and non-monetary terms.

The economic evaluation should answer the following questions:

- How much did the whole campaign cost? This involves calculating the total costs incurred by the campaign, i.e., concept development, production of materials, media, implementation, evaluation, and labour costs (see Box 32).
- Was the campaign cost-effective? This involves comparing what was spent to the effects of the campaign in non-monetary terms.
- Was it efficient (cost-benefit analysis)? This involves comparing what was spent to what was gained, in monetary terms.

Box 32. Evaluation of the total cost of a campaign: “Speak Out!” campaign⁴⁷

The “Speak Out!” campaign has been running every year since 1993 (for more information see Box 14, p. 65, and Box 30, p. 85). For this campaign, the estimate of total cost was based on direct costs related to the informational part of the campaign (T-shirts and other informational material, production and distribution of the “Speak Out!” film and DVDs), and labour costs (financial investment for developing and organising the campaign).

The benefits of a campaign, that is, the monetary value of positive effects on road crashes (and/or degree of injury), may be calculated on the basis of changes in behaviour or on the basis of road-accident statistics. For example, for an observed reduction in speeding, the effect on road crashes or injuries can be estimated by using the Power Model (see Part I: *Main characteristics and evolution of traffic fatalities in the European Union*, pp. 26-33).

Estimates of the effects of behavioural changes on the (risk of) accidents or injuries can be found in *The Handbook of Road Safety Measures*⁴⁸ and other sources. By transforming these estimates into the cost of expected road crashes or injuries using the national or European recommended monetary valuations of avoiding a fatality, severe injury, slight injury, or no-injury accident, you will be able to calculate the benefits of your road safety campaign.

3.2.2. Choosing the evaluation design and sample

In this step, you will choose an evaluation design and define the sample according to the budget, the sample size, and the type and theme of the campaign and its supportive activities. Since this is field research, this choice will require a compromise. For example, if your budget is low, you will not be able to use observed behaviour as a variable, but you might replace it by self-reported behaviour or road-crash data. In all cases, though, you will need to have at least one measurement before and one measurement after the campaign, with control or comparison group(s); otherwise the evaluation will have no validity at all. Moreover, pre-testing the evaluation tools is highly recommended. It is better to have a smaller sample rather than to skip the pre-test, since pre-testing is essential for knowing whether the chosen variables and tools work for the evaluation you plan to do (see Part I: *Evaluation designs: different designs and their use in isolating campaign effects*, pp. 140-144).

For more information on how to choose the evaluation design and define the groups (experimental and control or comparison), you can refer to the evaluation tool developed in the CAST project⁴¹. Moreover, there are some recommended manuals that should help you define the evaluation design and the sample (see Box 33).

Box 33. Recommended methodology manuals

- Boulanger A., Daniels S., Delhomme P., Deugnier M., Divjak M., Eyssartier C., Hels T., Synnøve Moan, I., Nathanail T., Orozova-Bekkevold I., Ranucci M.-F., Schepers P., Van den Bossche F., Zabukovec V. (2007). Campaigns and awareness-raising strategies in traffic safety. Deliverable 2.2: Comparison of research designs, Belgian Road Safety Institute (IBSR-BIVV), Brussels, Belgium.
- Reis, H., & Judd, C. (eds) (2000). Handbook of research methods in social and personality psychology. New York, Cambridge University Press.
- Robson, C. (1993). Real world research. A resource for social scientists and practitioners-researchers. Oxford UK and Cambridge USA, Blackwell.
- Shadish, W.R., Cook, T.D. In: Campbell, D.T. (2002), Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Leviton, L. C. (1991). Foundations of program evaluation: theories of practice. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Delhomme, P., & Meyer, T (2002). La recherche en psychologie sociale. Projets, méthodes et techniques. Cursus, Armand Colin, Paris.

3.2.2.1. Using quasi-experimental designs: control or comparison groups

In practice, a true experimental design is seldom used to evaluate a road safety communication campaign because the subjects cannot be randomly assigned to the experimental group (i.e., the group that was exposed to the treatment) or to the control group (i.e., the group that was not exposed). In many cases, then, it is more suitable to compare

subjects who were exposed to the campaign with subjects from a presumably similar population that was not exposed, but without having people randomly assigned to either group. In such cases, the term *comparison group* is used to designate the group that is not specifically targeted by a campaign but exposed to it. Take the example of a national campaign in which the target audience is young drivers ages 17 to 19; this is the experimental group, and drivers between the ages of 20 and 26 could serve as a specific comparison group.

To increase the likelihood that it is the effects of the campaign that are being tested, it is possible to use more than one comparison group, as long as all groups, including the experimental group, are as similar to each other as possible (see Box 34). For example, a campaign might be implemented in one city and the results could be compared to two other cities that are similar to the first one (in terms of population, infrastructure, etc.).

Box 34. Control or comparison group(s) and campaign scale⁴⁴

The choice of design, including the selection of control or comparison group(s), is related to the campaign's scale. Concerning the geographic extent of a campaign, a national campaign might be crossed or combined with local actions, regional actions, etc. Local campaigns might be implemented either on a stand-alone basis or as a supplement to bigger campaigns (national, regional, etc.). If the design used in these campaigns is the same as in the national campaigns, it will be easier to evaluate the larger-scale campaign. In any case, consultation is needed between local agencies and government agencies in charge of the campaign on the national level.

Evaluators should try to find the best compromise between the definition of the target audience and the campaign scale. Of course, the choice of a specific target audience will depend on road-crash statistics, road-safety indicators, etc. However, the conclusions of the evaluation will be more reliable when the campaign addresses a specific target audience.

If the campaign targets a specific audience, a comparison group can be created even if the campaign is nationwide (e.g., if a nationwide campaign targets male drivers ages 50 to 60, the comparison group could be drivers between 30 and 40). However, when a nationwide campaign targets the entire population, it is not possible to have a comparison group, which limits the possibilities for evaluating the campaign's effectiveness.

Another possibility is to use substitutive designs involving repeated measures, such as a time-series analysis (See Part I: *How to isolate the effects of a campaign*, pp. 143-144).

3.2.2.2. Sampling technique

The sample that will be used in the evaluation must be representative of the target audience. Therefore, the sampling technique is an important consideration, because you want to be able to generalise the results obtained from the sample, to the whole population. Consequently, the sample should be located in the same area where the campaign was implemented.

The sampling technique depends on the type of data to be collected and should take different elements into account:

- The size of the sample (see Box 35): the number of observations needed to have a representative image, which depends on finding the right balance between the cost and its degree of representativeness, the statistical power, and the size of the actual target.
- Times, places, and prevalence of the problem behaviour, according to the campaign's specific objectives.

Box 35. Defining the sample size: an example⁴⁹

Sample size can vary enormously. In deciding on the sample size, you need to take into account a number of factors:

- The size of the "population of interest", i.e., the target audience.
- The number of subgroups that you want to analyse.
- The way the information will be used, considering the level of "error" that can be tolerated and the level of accuracy required for drawing clear conclusions.
- Whether or not the information will be used "in public".

The margin of error on survey statistics is calculated to reflect the desired level of confidence, which is set at 95% confidence in most cases. An indication of the statistical margin of error applied to various samples is shown below, at confidence levels of 95% and 90%, respectively.

Maximum Statistical Margin of Error

Sample Size	At 95% confidence	At 90% confidence
60	+12.7%	+10.6%
100	+9.8%	+8.2%
200	+6.9%	+5.8%
300	+5.7%	+4.7%
400	+4.9%	+4.1%
500	+4.4%	+3.7%
600	+3.7%	+3.3%
700	+3.5%	+3.1%
800	+3.5%	+2.9%
900	+3.3%	+2.7%
1000	+3.1%	+2.6%

Let's assume the chosen level of uncertainty is .05. (i.e., the sample represents the entire population being studied, with a confidence interval of 95%) and the population's opinion is divided into two halves. Then, the size of the sample studied varies according to the uncertainty scale.

The formula for calculating the size of a sample is as follows:

$$n = \frac{(1.96^2)N}{(1.96^2) + I^2(N - 1)}$$

where:

n = size of the sample

N = size of the population to be studied

I = margin of error (the maximum margin of error for any percentage is the radius of the confidence interval when p = .05)

Example. Let's use this formula to calculate the size of a sample representative of an actual target of 5,000 individuals. In order to obtain a 6% margin of error (3% error above the value, 3% below), you have to study a sample of 878 individuals.

• Sampling techniques for self-reported data

Random sampling, in which each unit has a known and non-zero probability of being chosen at random, allows you to generalise the results to the entire population. In order to have a representative sample, the selection should be based on a full, up-to-date sampling base (e.g., an address list obtained from the authorities, such as a list of driver's licence holders between the ages of 18 and 20). The sample will then be drawn from the list in random fashion^{xii}. When no base for random drawing is available, you should use empirical sampling. With this type of sampling, the units in the sample are not chosen at random. In this case, the probability that the units in the population belong to the sample is not known; a standard

^{xii} Random sampling techniques include simple random sampling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling.

error is possible. Conclusions drawn from an empirical sampling are less generalisable to the entire population than conclusions drawn from a random sampling^{xiii}.

- **Sampling techniques for observed behaviour**

To make up the observed-behaviour sample, it is possible to choose the sampling base using the road infrastructure, for example, as a point of reference (e.g., intersections), which must always be connected to the time and place where the problem behaviour is most frequent. From this sampling base, a random set of individuals will be taken from the whole population (empirical sampling). When collecting observations, the areas and periods of observation should be defined very carefully. The evaluator should use sampling techniques whenever it is impossible to collect continuous data on all behaviours. This is especially true for observations of several people at the same time⁵⁰. Several sampling techniques exist for this situation⁵¹.

- **Sampling techniques for road-accident data**

As mentioned earlier, in the case of road-accident data, the data selected should be as specific and detailed as possible. The data should permit geographic segmentation (to take into account the area where the campaign was implemented), time segmentation (the times that road crashes occurred), the type of road users involved, the accident circumstances, and any contributing factors. But be careful – road-crash statistics must be handled with caution.

3.2.3. Defining methods and tools for collecting data

The data-collection conditions and tools must be the same for every phase of the evaluation. Data is usually collected by an outside agency or by a department of the initiator's organisation or one of its partners.

Depending on the type of evaluation and data needed, the appropriate methods and tools will be selected to perform the data collection. The chosen methods should balance what is most desirable with what is feasible within the timescale and resources available. The scale of the evaluation should also be proportionate to the size of the campaign.

3.2.3.1. Methods for gathering data

The typical techniques for gathering qualitative data include interviews (structured, semi-structured or unstructured), focus groups (in-person or online), participant observation, questionnaires with open-ended questions, and document analysis (for example, articles in newspapers). Typical techniques for gathering quantitative data are questionnaires, interviews (telephone or face-to face), observations, and counting systems.

- **Qualitative data**

When using qualitative data, you will need to perform a content analysis. This kind of analysis is much more expensive than quantitative data analysis (see Table 3).

^{xiii} Empirical sampling techniques include quota sampling, using a random selection of individuals from the whole population according to quotas that match the structure of the population in terms of age, sex, etc.

Table 3. Advantages and disadvantages of the most widely used qualitative techniques (compiled from Sentinella, 2004⁴⁶ and Thompson & McClintock, 2000⁵²)

Typical techniques for gathering mainly qualitative data		Advantages	Disadvantages and precautions
Structured interviews		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Structured interviews which uses standardised questions can easily be used by several interviewers. - Can be used for process evaluation as well as outcome evaluation. - Can be paper-based, computer-based, or administered by telephone or in person. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can also be seen as a quantitative method, if open-ended questions are tied to a coding system for answers, and a relatively large number of responses are collected (see Table 4).
Semi-structured or unstructured interviews		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Semi-structured interviews: standardised questions, but the interviewer can vary the order and phrasing of the questions and probe for more information. - Unstructured interviews: the goal is to conduct a relatively natural conversation. Questions and follow-up probes are generated during the interview itself. - Interviews may be performed face-to-face or via telephone. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Require specific interviewing techniques, using open-ended questions and a topic guide to steer the discussion and ensure that major topics are covered without being too restrictive. - Should always be recorded and transcribed verbatim. This makes it easier to analyse the information obtained in the interview. - Interviews are rather time-consuming and as a consequence, the size of the sample is usually small.
Focus groups	Focus-group interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Questions are asked to groups instead of individuals. Ideally the group comprises 4 to 8 people who are likely to regard each other as equals, as this stimulates the free expression of opinions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A group moderator or facilitator encourages all members of the group to take part in the discussion and maintains the focus of the group. As with semi-structured interviews, a topic guide should be used to ensure that the major topics are covered. - As with personal interviews, focus-group interviews should always be recorded and transcribed verbatim. - People taking part in the discussion might influence each other. In some instances, one or two people might dominate the others.
	Online focus-group interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Online focus groups use an internet chat room as the venue for the discussion. This enables people in different locations to take part in the same discussion without travelling to a central location. - Online discussion conceals the personal characteristics of the interviewer, thus removing potential interviewer bias. - Provides respondents with anonymity, which can be useful when discussing a sensitive topic. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participants can hide details about themselves and present an inaccurate image.

<p>Participant observation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participant observation involves having a member of the evaluation team participate in the activity. This enables viewing the activity from a participant's perspective. It also provides an opportunity to gather informal opinions of the campaign from other participants. The observer keeps a note of his/her experiences and observations of how participants interact with each other. - Observation of campaign activities is often used to assess the delivery of the campaign, and is also particularly valuable to the study of behaviour. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participant observers should be unobtrusive and should not affect the running of the campaign.
---------------------------------------	--	--

○ **Quantitative data**

Table 4 sums up techniques for collecting quantitative data, which can be either self-reported or observed.

Table 4. Advantages and disadvantages of quantitative techniques (compiled from Sentinella, 2004⁴⁶ and Thompson & McClintock, 2000⁵²)

<p>Typical techniques for gathering mainly quantitative data</p>	<p>Advantages</p>	<p>Disadvantages</p>
<p>Questionnaires</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Less selection bias since it can be randomized. - Highest level of anonymity: therefore, least bias toward socially acceptable responses. - Paper-and-pencil or (more and more often) online. - Cost per respondent varies with response rate: the higher the response rate, the lower the cost per respondent. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mailed instruments have lowest response rate. The response rate can be increased if reminders are sent out. - Dependent on respondent's reading level. - Studies using mailed instruments take the most time because such instruments require extra time for mailing back and forth and for completing. - Least control over quality of data (so questions that check for inconsistent answers should be included).
<p>Structured Interviews</p>	<p>Telephone interviews – Computer Assisted Personal Interview (CAPI)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Highest potential to control the quality of the interview: interviewers remain in one place, so supervisors can oversee their work. - Easy to select telephone numbers at random. - Less expensive than personal interviews. - Better response rate than for mailed surveys. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Not always easy to get hold of people. - More complicated than mailed surveys. - Highest level of selection bias: omits homeless people and people without telephones. - Less anonymity for respondents than for those completing surveys by themselves. - As with personal interviews, requires a trained interviewer. - Shorter questions, fewer questions and fewer points

			on the ranking scale.
	Personal interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lowest level of selection bias: can interview people without telephones, even homeless people. - Highest response rate: people are more likely to agree to be surveyed when asked face-to-face. - Visual materials may be used. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Most costly: requires trained interviewers and travel time/cost. - Lowest level of anonymity, so responses might not reveal true beliefs; responders may answer according to what they believe is socially acceptable.
	Observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Useful for gathering information on behaviour, i.e., seatbelt- or helmet-wearing rate, objective measure of vehicle speed. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Not suitable for measuring all types of behaviour (e.g., seatbelt wearing in back seat and aggressive driving, are more difficult to observe)
	Counting systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Useful in process evaluation to measure objective exposure to the campaign. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Involves keeping written records of all events that are pertinent to the campaign, e.g., number of requests from the public, number of press contacts, etc.

3.2.3.2. Tools for gathering data

As we have already seen, the effects of the campaign should be tested against its objectives.

Whatever dependent variables you measure when testing the effects of the campaign, the best way is to adapt tools used to evaluate past campaigns on the same theme (e.g., observation grid, interview grid, questionnaire), as long as they have been validated. In most cases, these tools have to be adapted to the specific context of the problem behaviour, the target audience, and the chosen strategy (stand-alone campaign or campaign combined with other actions).

If you collect self-reported data, interview grids or questionnaires allow you to test for changes in the variables chosen on the basis of your hypotheses. To develop data-collection tools, you should refer to the reference model and main predictors of the behaviour that you identified in the situation analysis. You may also refer to the persuasion model used in designing the message.

If there are no available tools, you will need to create your own tools, always based on the same reference model (including the main predictors) identified via the situation analysis.

To increase the validity of the evaluation's conclusion, it is advisable to use more than one type of variable, for example, by combining self-reported data with observed behaviour and/or road-accident data. For instance, if the evaluation concerns a problem behaviour that occurs most frequently at night, possible explanations for the campaign's effect could be found by combining several types of variables (such as speeding tickets issued at night and road crashes occurring at night).

3.2.3.3. Pre-testing the evaluation, hiring and training investigators

Pre-testing the evaluation allows you to refine the interview guide or questionnaire, the observation grids, and the instructions. The pre-test should be done in the same way as the actual evaluation (including the experimental and comparison conditions). During this step, an initial processing of the data collected (pre-test data and crash data) is done to determine how to analyse the data during the next steps in the actual evaluation.

The results of the pre-tests will enable you to improve the evaluation tools, instructions, type of data analysis to use, etc. They will allow you to check whether you will have enough data to draw clear conclusions.

Utmost care should be taken with pre-testing, because once the evaluation tools have been developed, the same tools must be used for the before-, during-, and after-period measurements, for both the experimental and comparison conditions. These tools cannot be modified after the launch of the actual evaluation, that is, once the before-campaign period has begun.

The procedures for collecting data based on the specific objectives of the campaign are key elements of the evaluation design. Failing to follow these procedures will have a serious impact on the results. Therefore, you should carefully train any observers, investigators, and/or experimenters. Training should cover how to use the materials and tools (e.g., chart or grid to observe behaviours) and how to follow the data-collection procedures, including recruiting participants according to the type of population studied (target audience), the sampling technique (e.g., meeting the quotas set for the target audience), the observation sites (place, time, etc.), and so on.

To improve the training, you should provide trainees with detailed written instructions. Detailed instructions are especially important when there is more than one investigator, to ensure that the evaluation is carried out in the same rigorous way by all parties.

Moreover, if for some reason you decide not to hire the same investigators as those used for pre-testing the message, you must train the new ones for data collection.

The length of the training period will depend on the staff's level of familiarity with the tasks they have to perform, the use of the materials, and the quality of the evaluation tools. The training period may be longer when the tools are complex (driving simulator, camera, tape recorder, "mobile surveying" on a Personal Digital Assistant, etc.) (see Box 36).

Box 36. Training the investigators: procedure and materials for collecting data^{xiv}

Every investigator is given a procedure manual that explains how data should be collected. The procedure is fixed and very strict, and involves:

- Defining the number of observation sites where data will be collected, usually sites that are geographically close together.
- Defining the total number of investigators and how many investigators will be at each site (investigators are spread out across the different sites).
- Defining the observation scale, keeping in mind that data should be comparable.
- Handing out the reference manual to the investigators and explaining how to collect the data.
- Supplying a personal digital assistant (PDA) to the investigators and training them in how to use it⁵³. PDAs are electronic tools (small personal computers designed to collect data) that have been validated via a validation study. They offer several advantages over paper and pencil, namely:
 - Investigators can carry them in their bags.
 - They can communicate with evaluators (researchers, outside agencies).
 - They can send data directly by e-mail so the data need not be hand-keyed into a computer from paper questionnaires.
 - They can access the evaluators' website and transfer data to the website.
 - PDAs are not damaged in wet weather.

^{xiv} Adapted from the interview of David W. Eby and Jonathon M. Vivoda from the Social and Behavioural Analysis Division of the University of Michigan Transportation Research Institute, USA, February 15, 2007

3.2.4. Planning the evaluation

Planning the evaluation consists of defining the times and durations of the different evaluation periods, according to the type of data to be collected. The question is: When is the best time to evaluate the campaign?

The effect of a campaign should always be measured in reference to a *baseline* (the pre-campaign or before-period evaluation). The baseline represents the existing level of knowledge, beliefs, behaviours (unsafe behaviour and/or safe behaviour) prior to campaign implementation. The amount of change after the campaign (after-period evaluation) is the difference between the before- and after-period measurements.

3.2.4.1. Before period

The length of the before-period phase of the evaluation, as well as the time between the before period and the campaign's launch, will depend on the type of data to be collected.

Gathering data on observed behaviours takes more time than gathering self-reported data. It is thus important to plan for an optimum interval of time between the beginning of the campaign and the end of the evaluation's first phase. This time interval should not be so short as to cause data contamination, nor so long that there is interference from other factors not related to the campaign itself (in such cases, the campaign would not be the only causal factor in variable changes).

When relying on self-reported data, it is advisable to begin the before period a few weeks before the campaign is launched, that is to say, anywhere from two or three weeks up to three months ahead of the launch, in order to ensure that the targeted population has not heard about the campaign in the media. On the other hand, when using observations as a data collection method, more time will be needed to ensure observation stability. Thus, in certain cases, the before period will begin as early as six months before the campaign launch, in order to build in sufficient time for carrying out the observations (at least two months). Finally, when relying on crash data, the data should be compiled for a period of at least five years before the campaign to ensure reliability and stability.

3.2.4.2. During period(s)

The length of the evaluation phase that takes place during the campaign depends on the length of the campaign itself and the type of data to be collected.

For self-reported data, the during period of the evaluation can start a few days to a few weeks after the launching of the campaign, to ensure that the target audience has been exposed to the campaign in the media. The during-period evaluation generally begins after the peak period of the campaign, i.e., after the period when the campaign frequency is at its highest. It can also begin before the peak if several during-campaign evaluations are to be conducted. It is essential not to limit yourself to evaluating only awareness or likeability (which are measured in the process evaluation). The data from the during-period evaluation(s) will always be compared to the data collected in the before period. Consequently, you should determine the measurement periods with great care.

By nature, a during-period evaluation has a number of limitations. For example, it is difficult to draw conclusions from road-accident data collected for the during period, since road crashes are rare events; indeed, the lower the numbers, the lesser the statistical significance. Moreover, it might be particularly difficult to test the campaign's effect over a short period.

3.2.4.3. After period(s)

The starting date and length of the after-period evaluation(s) must be carefully defined. The effect(s) induced by the campaign (e.g., reducing the number of road crashes, adopting a safe behaviour) usually start decreasing as soon as the campaign has ended. Thus, the after-period evaluation can start as early as the day after the campaign is over, which is the point at which the campaign is supposed to have reached its full effect.

The length of the after period also depends on the type of data to be collected (self-reported data, behavioural observations, road-accident data). For observational data, the data collection will take more time because, to be stable, observations must be made over a fairly long period (a few weeks, for example). It is also important that the observations be carried out under the same conditions as the before-period study. For self-reported data, the after-period evaluation will last a few days at the most.

When possible, it is a good idea to plan several after-period evaluations, because this allows you to evaluate the effect of the campaign over the middle and long terms, that is to say, immediately after, several weeks/months after, and more than one year after the end of the campaign. However, since the effect(s) usually decline when the campaign is over, results from a long-term evaluation might show that the long-term effect of the campaign is negligible.

To review the length of the evaluation periods according to the type of data to collect, you can refer to the table below (see Table 5).

Table 5. Timing of before-, during-, and after-period evaluations on experimental and control or comparison groups

Type of data	BEFORE campaign							DURING campaign	AFTER campaign				
	Years	Months							Months				
		-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
Self-reported data													
Observed behaviour													
Road-crash data	5 years or more												

Note: Durations are expressed with respect to the campaign period. Shaded areas represent periods when that type of data can be used.

Concluding recommendations

To design the campaign and the evaluation, you should take the following steps.

Developing the campaign strategy

The campaign strategy should be developed based on the specific objectives specifying how to achieve the campaign's general goal defined in a more operational way. The campaign strategy will determine how you will influence the target audience in order to change or instil knowledge, beliefs and/or behaviour, and will be based on theoretical models.

- *Define the strategy.* This includes the type of campaign (communication campaign, combined campaign, integrated campaign) and its scale (local, regional and/or national), depending on the areas where the problem occurs, the target audience, and how it can be reached. You should also study past campaigns and actions to obtain guidelines for developing the strategy. Once the campaign strategy is defined, the creative brief should be updated by adding new components.
- *Develop the content of the message.* This includes the context, structure and style of the message as outlined in the creative brief. This involves establishing a clear procedure and discussions with the advertising agency and the campaign initiator. The message should be as concrete and understandable as possible. You should rely on a social-marketing strategy and consider the specific objectives of the campaign, the characteristics of the problem and/or safe behaviour and its main predictors for the target audience (frequency and place), the perceived benefits and costs of adopting the safe behaviour, the place and time where the safe behaviour should be adopted, the target audience's characteristics, environmental factors, and the sender's characteristics. To develop the message's content and execution strategy, qualitative studies such as individual interviews, focus groups, or creative brainstorm sessions can be used.
- *Choose campaign identifiers* (mascots, brands, logos, and spokespersons).
- *Select the media and define the media plan.* The media plan should be set up according to the campaign budget, timing and length of the campaign, advertising rates of each media and vehicle, demographic statistics of coverage, and openings (times and places where the target audience can be reached most easily).
- *Develop and pre-test the messages and slogans in their full context.* The testing of the message tells you more about the strengths and weaknesses of the message. And about whether it is able to target the selected audience. Tools may exist (e.g., the Risk Behaviour Diagnosis Scale) that can aid you in improving and optimising the message before actual campaign implementation.

Designing the campaign evaluation

The evaluation should be designed with as much care as the campaign itself. To do so, you should:

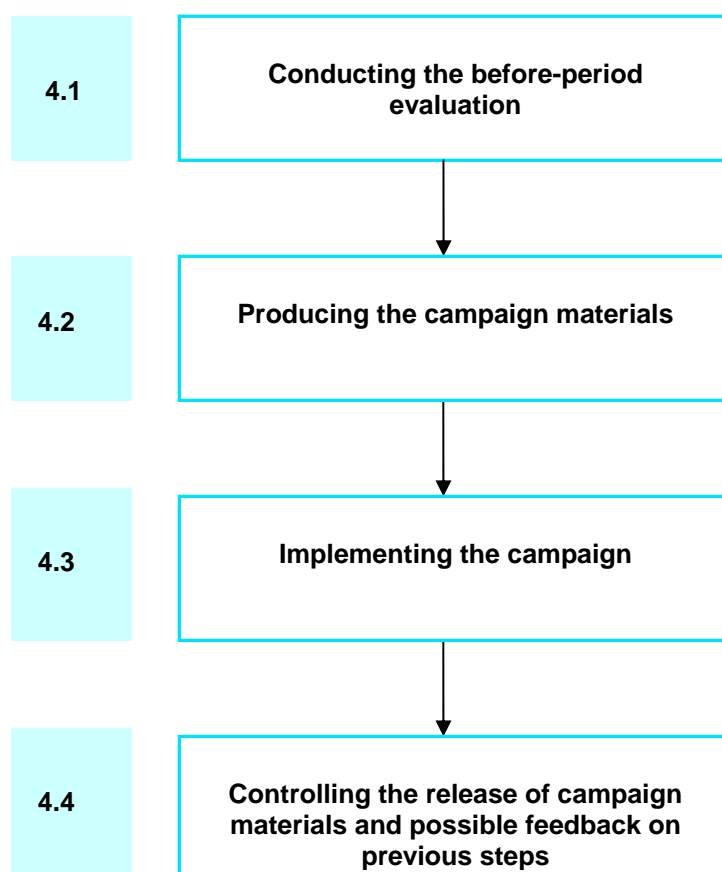
- *Define the objectives of the evaluation.* Your campaign evaluation should, at minimum, allow you to determine if it works or not, and whether or not it is cost-effective. More specifically, it should also tell you what aspects of the campaign work or don't work, and why or why not. Each of these objectives corresponds to a different type of evaluation – a process, outcome, or economic evaluation.
- *Choose the evaluation design and sample.* You should choose an appropriate evaluation design with at least a before-period and an after-period measurement and a control or comparison group. Choose the sample to fit the time schedule, budget, target-audience size, type and theme of the campaign, and any supportive activities.

- *Develop evaluation measures* (road-accident data, observed behaviours, self-reported data, and cost data).
- *Define methods and tools for collecting data.* Select the methods (qualitative or quantitative) and tools needed for the evaluation, considering their feasibility, time required, and available resources. Moreover, pre-testing of the evaluation tools is highly recommended. Data collection should be carried out in the same way for every phase.
- *Plan the evaluation.* Set up your evaluation according to the type of data to be collected.

4. Conducting the Before-Period Evaluation and Implementing the Campaign

It is now time to carry out the before-period evaluation, prior to launching of the campaign (which may or not be combined with other supportive activities). The before period should be used as a baseline measurement for the other phases of the evaluation. You also need to produce the actual campaign materials and launch the campaign. Of course, the campaign's progress should be monitored carefully in order to deal with any problems that may arise during the campaign. These sub-steps are presented and illustrated with a diagram (see Diagram 5).

Diagram 5. Sub-steps for conducting the before- period evaluation and implementing the campaign



4.1. Conducting the before-period evaluation

The evaluation may be conducted by a department of the initiator's organisation, or by a campaign partner. Generally, it is done by an outside party, a research institute, or a university. A participating university may subcontract with a polling institute for the actual data collection. Working with an outside agency can be advantageous in the sense that the evaluator is more detached from the campaign itself and therefore less likely to be biased or vulnerable to charges of bias. After the evaluation is prepared, it will be launched and then carried out.

4.1.1. Practical preparations for the evaluation

At this stage, you have designed the evaluation, pre-tested the necessary tools, and refined them in accordance with the results of the pre-test. You have hired and trained the investigators and observers during the pre-test. Now it is time to carry out the actual evaluation: this means checking the evaluation material and hiring other investigators if needed. In the latter case, whether the evaluation is to involve observed or self-reported data, you must train the investigators for data collection, which includes learning how to use the materials and tools and how to follow the procedures.

The materials should be prepared and checked against the chosen evaluation design and the variables used to test the effect of the campaign. You should anticipate any problems that could conceivably occur, and build in a margin of error concerning the time and budget set aside for the evaluation. For example, it is better to order more materials than necessary, depending on the budget, to make up for any unexpected events.

4.1.2. Launching and carrying out the evaluation

The evaluation procedure must be identical for every condition evaluated (e.g., media only, supportive activities only, media and supportive activities combined, no campaign). In other words, it must be identical for each group of participants, i.e., for both the experimental and control or comparison groups. Whenever observations are used there is a risk of bias because after the campaign, the investigator might be more attentive to behaviours that conform to his/her expectations. A good strategy to adopt, if possible, is the simple- or double-blind test, which consists of not letting the experimenter or investigator know where the campaign was and was not implemented.

The polling agency will select the participants and make the necessary appointments. These tasks should be done carefully, particularly if the evaluation requires complex testing procedures such as the use of a driving simulator, or if it includes a qualitative section involving interviews or the like.

The before-period evaluation must, in any case, be completed before the campaign itself is launched. So, the time needed to carry out this phase should be figured into the schedule.

4.1.3. Quality control of the before-period evaluation

The actual evaluation process should be monitored and quality-controlled. This means that you should check to see whether the evaluation is being conducted as planned. This will enable you to make a rigorous analysis of the results and to draw relevant conclusions.

Spending money on quality control is worthwhile because it increases the validity of the conclusions.

Quality control can be performed by the campaign initiator or by the evaluator. When done by an outside organisation, you should request a quality-control report, including, for example, the original questionnaire forms that were filled out during the evaluation. If you do not have the requisite knowledge in-house to perform the quality control, it is advisable to cooperate with a campaign partner or a researcher for this task.

4.2. Producing the campaign materials

4.2.1. Production of the materials

As mentioned in Section 1, production agencies are hired based on their responses to the call for bids or request for proposals, either for a single campaign or a set of campaigns.

4.2.1.1. Who handles the production of materials

In general, the material will be produced by one or more outside vendors, or occasionally by the campaign initiator and/or one of the campaign partners. As mentioned in Step 1 (pp. 25-46), the outside production agencies may be subcontractors to the advertising agency, or the campaign initiator may contract with such agencies directly.

4.2.1.2. Steps in the production of materials

The actual production of campaign materials will involve the following steps:

Specifications for campaign materials

The material specifications must include the number of copies of each kind of material to be produced (number of billboards or flyers, etc.). It should state the quality of the medium (type of paper stock for printed materials, quality of audiovisual recording/editing, etc.), finished size of printed materials, length of broadcast advertisements (TV or radio spots), any other technical specs, and deadlines for completion (usually corresponding to those included in the call for bids or RFP). These elements should be specified in an appendix to the purchase order or contract, which is signed to finalize a detailed agreement.

Pre-production phase

The production agency should handle the steps needed to produce a sample of the material (e.g., printed proofs for a brochure, test pages for a website). The proof or sample will be submitted to the advertising agency and/or the campaign initiator for final approval before final production of the material in the required quantities is started.

Production phase

Production is carried out by the production agency and consists of printing and producing audiovisual material and/or digital materials. Quality control is necessary here and includes supervising production, ensuring that the task is performed correctly as per the initiator's request, and making sure that deadlines are met. An initial quality-control check should be performed by the production agency, followed by a second check by the campaign initiator and/or the advertising agency (in those instances where production is subcontracted).

Post-production phase

To improve campaign materials, feedback should be provided on what was actually done. If quality-control checks reveal that the material is not in full compliance with your requirements, errors should be reported and the material should be corrected if possible. However, in some cases, making corrections at this stage involves substantial added costs. If so, you should negotiate with the production agency to see if they will absorb the cost of making changes, depending on their responsibility in the matter. In any case, it is not possible for the initiator to go over the predetermined budget, since supplementary funding can rarely be obtained. Another difficulty that can arise is a timing problem – sometimes the materials are not ready at the time the campaign was planned to be launched.

Approval of the produced materials by the client (campaign initiator)

Once the materials have been produced, proofs and samples are submitted to the campaign initiator for final inspection and approval. In many cases, this step involves signing a final approval document. The campaign initiator should inform all campaign partners, especially those concerned with the production of materials (such as mediators), on the progress of production and on the availability of materials as soon as production is complete.

4.2.2. Media booking

For media booking, the campaign initiator usually relies on a media-buying agency. Most of the time, the media-buying agency is not contracted directly by the initiator but by the advertising agency. The latter acts as an intermediary between the media agency and the campaign initiator.

Advertising space should be bought in newspapers, TV, radio, websites, etc. The media buying is done according to the media plan developed when the campaign was designed.

Some media space/time must be booked well in advance; timing varies according to the country, the media type, and the media vehicle.

4.3. Implementing the campaign

4.3.1. Launching the campaign

The moment when the campaign is launched is probably the most important point in the entire campaign, since it creates major, unique opportunities to bring the campaign to the attention of the target audience.

Generally, the launching of a campaign takes place on a single day, even though the campaign may last for several months. Announcing the campaign on its very first day is effective because it attracts media attention and thus indirectly gets the audience to notice the campaign. However, there is no single ideal length for the launching period, and some campaign practitioners prefer to plan for a longer period, for example, a few days.

As a rule, all campaign partners should be involved in the launch. If the authorities responsible for road safety are not involved, either as an initiator or a partner of the campaign, they should at least be informed about the launch.

The launch must be carefully prepared in advance and in great detail. The money used to launch the campaign will depend on its scale (i.e., local, regional, national, etc.) and should be included in the overall budget.

You may contract with a public-relations agency (chosen from among the bidders who responded to the RFP) to be in charge of the launch and enhance media coverage of the campaign.

4.3.1.1. Earned media and free publicity

Free publicity contributes to the success of a campaign; it magnifies the effect of the paid-media portion of the campaign because it increases audience awareness. Utilizing earned media can be very helpful, especially when working with a small budget. Media coverage in newspaper articles, on TV, and/or on radio broadcasts and interviews creates the necessary “rumour around the brand”, which raises people’s awareness. Then, when the target audience is exposed to actual campaign elements, they will already have a first impression of the campaign in mind and will be more likely to take in the message. However, the fact of being free also means that the content of the coverage cannot be controlled by the campaign team; there is always a risk that free media coverage might lessen the desired effect rather than strengthen it. A way to avoid this problem is discussed below.

4.3.1.2. Building a long-term relationship with the media

Having a good relationship with the media is a prerequisite (though not a guarantee) of obtaining positive media coverage.

This rapport must be carefully built over the long term and should operate as an exchange, or dialogue, between the media and your organisation. In other words, you should structure your interactions with the media so that they come to you to get information on initiatives that are scheduled or in progress.

4.3.1.3. Establishing media lists

Contacting the press requires having up-to-date fact sheets on all media entities. A media list should be created that categorises them by type of media, the area they cover, the kind of news they provide, their scale, and their target audience, etc. (e.g., regional media, TV channel dedicated to youngsters).

The media list should specify addresses and contact persons, including their e-mail addresses (the most common and easiest way of contacting the press). Contact details can be found in specialized media directories. Some media have appointed editors or journalists specifically for road-safety issues; these should be your prime contact persons.

4.3.1.4. Choosing press channels

The general press should be informed about the launching of your campaign in order to ensure widespread publicity. In addition, you should involve media that are explicitly geared towards your target audience.

4.3.1.5. How to contact/inform the media

Messages from a known, reliable source are read with more attention by journalists and editors; this increases their chances of being publicized. That is why journalists and editors should know what your organisation stands for and what its activities are. To this end, you should establish the profile of your organisation as an active and reliable source of information (see above).

Communicating in an organised way

Communicating in an organised fashion with the press enhances the likelihood of getting your news publicized. This involves:

- Being timely (informing the press at the proper time when there is news, neither too early nor too late).
- Being very accurate (giving clear, truthful, and correct information).
- Being complete (including all available information, not partial information).
- Using the appropriate communication method (using e-mail rather than fax or letter).
- Addressing the right people (e.g., general news desks, journalists specialising in road safety).

Choosing a means of communication

Choosing the means to use for communicating with the media should depend on the:

- Quantity of news.
- Nature of the news.
- Importance of the news.
- Urgency of the news.
- Budget allocated for press relations.
- Available time to be spent on press relations.

Whatever the means chosen to address the media, the deadlines of journalists and media should be taken into account.

The three main ways of informing the press are press releases, press conferences, and media events.

Press releases

The beginning of each campaign should be announced with a press release. This serves to catch people's attention and alert them to the campaign theme. Announcing the campaign on its starting date is highly important for enforcement, for example, because such an announcement increases the subjective risk of getting caught, which can affect behavioural change. This technique is known as "announced enforcement" or "publicized enforcement".

Press releases are very effective for providing quick information on new developments and for immediate news that must get into the media as promptly as possible. Moreover, they are easy and economical to prepare.

A press release should contain enough facts to build a story. However, it should still be concise (one or two pages maximum), which does not permit large quantities of information.

For guidelines on how to write a press release, you can check out general manuals on public relations or search for special publications on the topic (see Box 37).

Box 37. Writing a press release: some manuals on public relations

General manuals on public relations and other special publications can give you guidelines on preparing a press release.

- Bartram, P. (2006). *How to write the perfect press release: real-life advice from editors on getting your story in the media*. Brighton: New Venture Publishing
- Fletcher, P. (2004). *An editor's guide to perfect press releases: the key to free publicity for your organisation or business*. S.I.: BookSurge Publishing
- Loeffler, R.H. (1993). *A Guide to preparing cost-effective press releases*. Binghamton: Haworth Press
- McIntyre, C.V. (1992). *Writing effective news releases: how to get free publicity for yourself, your business, or your organisation*. Colorado Springs: Piccadilly Books

Press conferences

Press conferences are a good way to announce news that can be planned in advance. They can provide large quantities of information, they allow more direct contact with journalists, and they are interactive, allowing you to answer the journalists' questions.

However, press conferences are costly to stage and time-consuming for journalists. Consequently, the news value must be sufficient to motivate journalists to attend.

You can organise a press conference jointly with other campaign partners (e.g., road or transportation authorities, police, sponsors) and/or incorporate contributions from other participants (e.g., crash victims who tell of their own experience and give advice).

Spokesperson(s) may also be chosen according to their celebrity. When a government representative or other well-known person announces the campaign, this will increase media attention. The spokesperson(s) will be more effective if they create higher awareness of the campaign theme. For example, a race-car driver might be asked to announce an anti-speeding campaign with a message such as "If you want to speed, go to a racetrack, don't speed on the road!" However, using celebrities as spokespersons also involves some risks (see *Spokespersons*, p. 71).

If enforcement is a key element of the campaign, or if the campaign is aimed at informing people about a new law, the police should be involved in the campaign launch, including in any press conferences.

Preparing for a press conference takes time and careful attention (see Box 38). The organisation of the press conference can be carried out in-house by experienced people, or by an external public-relations agency or consultant hired to do all or part of the work.

The first and most important step is to determine the date, place, content, and programme for the conference (time, speakers, and topics), while being aware that a press conference should not run too long (one hour is the absolute maximum). Moreover, you should choose only relevant speakers, allow time for questions, and provide background material in a complete press kit.

Box 38. Some guidelines for organising a press conference

- There are essential guidelines that should be followed when putting on a press conference:
- The press conference should be scheduled at the most opportune time, taking into account the news deadlines. In most countries, mid- or late morning on weekdays is the best time, although this can vary from country to country.
 - Choose a suitable place: central, accessible, with sufficient space, in pleasant surroundings, and if possible, with some connection to the topic.
 - Send invitations to the press well enough in advance (one week ahead of time is ideal), using your media list. Make sure the invitation is clear (mention the topic, time, place, etc.) and attractive (style and graphics).
 - Carefully plan the logistics with a team of collaborators (reservation of the conference room, technical equipment, production of press kits, contacting speakers, catering).
 - Evaluate the press conference. You can do this in a debriefing meeting with all participants, during which all positive and negative points should be discussed. This will provide valuable information for future reference.

Press conferences are usually supported by press kits. A press kit is ideal for giving background information on a topic and/or for situating the topic in its broader context. It may contain fact sheets, statistics, abstracts or overviews, history, pictures, etc. It must be put together with great care: preparing a good press kit requires time and logistical support.

Press conferences can be supplemented with interviews, which enable campaign representatives to express an opinion, a view, or a core message in a short time. Interviews should take place in a suitable location and should be thoroughly prepared.

For more information on organising press conferences and handling press contacts, you can refer to general manuals on public relations, or search for special publications on the subject (e.g., Byrne, 2002)⁵⁴.

Media events

Media events (e.g., happenings, stunts) can focus the media's attention on the campaign and stimulate broad media coverage. Media events are usually big attention-getters. They provide a venue to communicate the issue of the campaign and contribute to propagating a better understanding of the problem.

For instance, for a drinking-and-driving campaign, you might put journalists in a simulated drinking-and-driving situation to help them appreciate the problem. For this purpose, you could use a special driving simulator^{xv} to mimic the visual perception of a drunken person. For a seatbelt campaign, you could organise a live crash test for journalists so that they can witness the difference between what happens to crash-test dummies with and without a seatbelt.

^{xv} For example, visit www.top-25.eu, an NGO that organises driving simulator events at no cost.

Media events can be combined with a press release or press conference in order to provide all the necessary background information.

As with a press conference, preparing and setting up a media event is usually time-consuming and expensive. It requires great care, professional planning, and attention to logistics. Therefore, it is advantageous to contract with a specialised PR agency for this task.

4.3.1.6. When to announce the campaign

The announcement of the campaign must be carefully planned, taking into account other major news events that are scheduled to come out beforehand. Indeed, the chances of getting published is smaller when other important news events occur. Obviously, however, urgent news interfering with the campaign cannot be foreseen.

It is generally preferable not to announce events on Fridays, Saturdays, or a few days before a public holiday, unless the campaign theme is linked to that particular period (e.g., prompting people to be careful on holiday trips), because the likelihood of getting news published on those days is smaller. However, this may vary from country to country; journalist associations can inform you of the most opportune times to communicate with the media.

Press conferences and press releases usually take place on, or within a few days of, the campaign's starting date.

Generally, the end of a campaign is not announced, so when a campaign is effective, its positive effect(s) can outlast the campaign itself. However, a press release could be issued to announce that the campaign will be back next year, or to provide information to the media on the campaign's outcome.

4.3.1.7. Evaluation of press coverage

Evaluating media coverage is useful for improving your internal and external communication and your future press contacts, and also for providing positive feedback to sponsors and campaign partners. All media stories about the campaign should be carefully collected and inventoried, not only for future reference but also for the process evaluation.

4.3.2. Release of campaign materials

Generally, the advertising agency takes care of coordinating the release of campaign materials. The campaign initiator should keep an eye on this task.

To implement the campaign, you should closely follow the schedule set up at the time of campaign design. All mediators and partners should be informed about the exact timing of the campaign and any potential supportive activities.

In cases where the campaign is combined with other actions or programmes, it is essential to coordinate all the activities carefully, while making sure that each component is implemented as scheduled and that deadlines are respected. This requires very strict organisation and good communication on the part of the initiator to the campaign partners and mediators.

The campaign materials should be sent to the media well in advance to allow for insertion in the chosen distribution network(s) (e.g., outdoor advertising networks for billboard posters, TV and radio networks for TV and radio spots, various mediators for brochures).

Not all campaign materials are necessarily implemented simultaneously. Some materials and activities may be implemented later than others and at different times, according to the campaign strategy and media schedule (e.g., the distribution of giveaways may start two weeks after billboard posting).

4.4. Controlling the release of campaign materials and possible feedback on previous steps

The advertising agency takes care of controlling the release of the campaign materials when it is directly in touch with the media-buying agency. In cases where the campaign is combined with other actions, controlling implementation will require more involvement from the initiator and/or the campaign partners (e.g., the police when the campaign is combined with enforcement).

Launching the campaign and releasing the campaign materials marks the beginning of the process evaluation, which is the verification tool that will assess whether the campaign has been implemented as planned, whether the target audience has been reached, and to what extent. Its purpose is to shed light on the results of the outcome evaluation.

However, if initial feedback from the process evaluation shows that the campaign has not been implemented as planned – if they indicate that subjective exposure rates are below the expected ones – you can use these preliminary results to solve the problem while the campaign is still running (for example, by increasing the frequency of TV spots).

If there are problems with the campaign's implementation, you can negotiate corrective measures with the advertising agency and/or the media-buying agency. A good agency will follow the campaign on a day-to-day basis and will proactively propose emergency measures if needed. Sometimes extra advertising can be negotiated at very little or no cost if it is clear that the initial targets of the media planners were not met. However, the probability that problems will occur with the implementation of the campaign is lower when the pre-test was done carefully before the campaign was launched, even if technical, timing, or logistical problems were not avoided.

Concluding recommendations

To implement the before-period evaluation and the campaign itself, you should take the following steps:

– **Conducting the before-period evaluation**

The before-period evaluation should be conducted according to its objectives and the chosen evaluation method. This involves checking the evaluation tools and materials, and hiring and training the investigators. The evaluation procedure must be identical for every condition implemented, i.e., you should implement the same procedure for each group of participants (experimental, control, or comparison groups).

– **Producing the campaign materials**

The outside agencies you have hired should produce the campaign materials and book the media space in order to be ready when the campaign is launched.

– **Implementing the campaign**

The timing of the launch is very important since it creates unique opportunities to get free publicity for the campaign. In cases where the campaign is combined with other actions, careful coordination of all activities is important to make sure that each component is implemented as scheduled. This requires very strict organisation and good communication between the initiator and the campaign partners and mediators.

– **Controlling the release of campaign materials and possible feedback on previous steps**

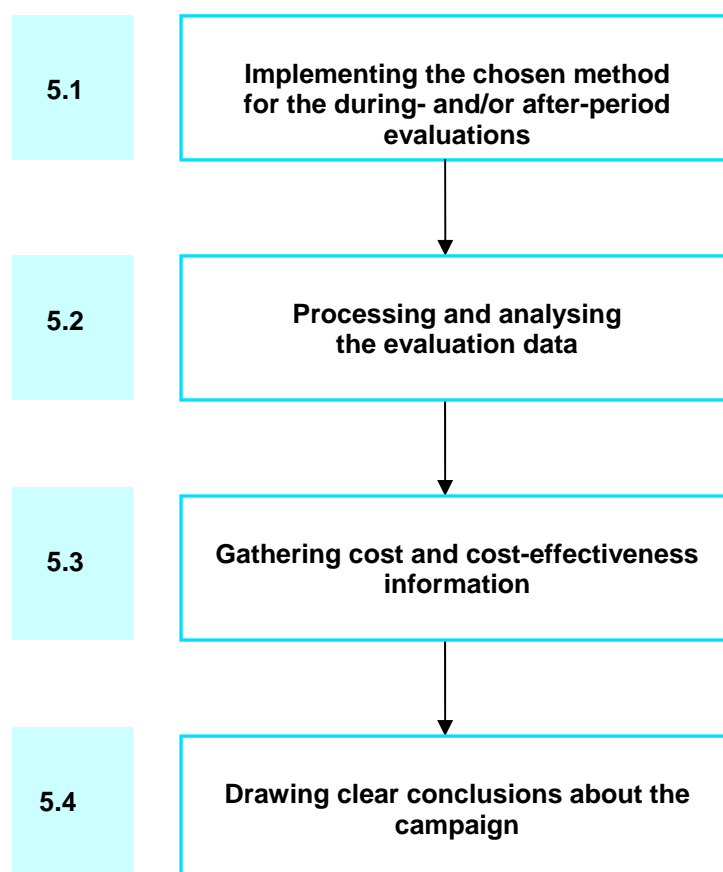
You should use the initial feedback from the process evaluation to determine whether the campaign has been implemented as planned, and whether and to what extent the target audience is being reached. This requires strict coordination and follow-up. If the preliminary feedback indicates problems with the implementation of the campaign, it may be possible to correct the problem while the campaign is still running. Moreover, you might be able to negotiate corrective measures with the advertising agency and/or the media-buying agency. In cases where the campaign is supplemented by other actions, controlling the implementation will require more involvement on the part of the initiator and/or the campaign partners.

5. Completing the Evaluation and Drawing Conclusions

In order to determine whether the campaign you have launched was effective, you need to complete the campaign evaluation with a comparison of measurements taken before and after the campaign. We also recommend doing a measurement during the running of the campaign. Your analysis of the data collected at these times will tell you if the campaign had any effect(s), and on what dimension(s). Regardless of whether there were any effects, the results must be reported. The evaluation must be done independently and it should not be subject to any type of bias or influence. The evaluation committee should safeguard the objectivity of the evaluation, although impartiality can never be absolutely guaranteed.

These sub-steps are depicted in the diagram below (see Diagram 6).

Diagram 6. Sub-steps in evaluating a campaign and drawing conclusions



5.1. Implementing the chosen method for the during- and/or after-period evaluations

At this moment, the method and time schedule for the evaluation have already been defined. Therefore, you should know if you have decided on a during- and/or after-period evaluation in the short term, mid term, and/or long term. Moreover, the research design and the sampling method have already been defined and pre-tested.

You should be aware that once the budget is set, it is difficult if not impossible to add an additional evaluation phase, such as a during-campaign phase or another after-campaign phase.

If possible, while the evaluation is being conducted, you should check for possible sources of interference that could influence the results. This task includes checking whether any other road safety communication campaigns or actions (e.g., a new law) have taken place, or any event (e.g., a major road accident) has attracted media attention during your campaign or in the area where control and/or comparison group(s) were selected. However, there is no such thing as an “influence-free” period – there will always be events that might have a bearing on the outcome.

When you established the campaign evaluation plan, you defined the lengths of the during and after periods of the campaign. When the types of data to be collected are the same for the three evaluation periods, the conditions of data collection and the tools for collecting the data (e.g., questionnaire) should also be exactly the same in each phase.

5.1.1. Continuing with the evaluation

Before launching the evaluation, you must check that it will be performed in an identical way (same instructions, same tools, etc.) in all experimental and comparison condition(s), and that it covers the same experimental or control areas, as defined in advance.

5.1.1.1. During-period evaluation

If the campaign was well prepared and pre-tested, the majority of the target audience should be aware that the campaign is in progress and know its theme and message.

If initial feedback from the process evaluation shows that only a small proportion of the target audience is aware of the campaign, it's advisable to wait a few days so that the target audience will have more exposure to the campaign.

5.1.1.2. After-period evaluation

You should keep to the schedule, scope, and scale previously defined for the after period. Moreover, you must use the same tools as the ones employed for the other periods.

5.2.2. Controlling evaluation quality

Just as with the before period, you should ensure that the evaluation is implemented as planned for the during- and after-campaign periods. The quality of the evaluation can be

monitored by an outside evaluating committee (see *Conducting the before-period evaluation and implementing the campaign*, pp. 99-111).

5.2. Processing and analysing the evaluation data

The data processing and analysis for the outcome evaluation may be performed by researchers. For the process evaluation, this task can be done by the polling institute or advertising agency. In all cases, the campaign initiator's role is to supervise all aspects and phases of the evaluation.

At this stage, you should try to isolate the effects of the campaign according to the hypotheses you formulated regarding its primary and/or secondary objectives, and according to the chosen evaluation variables. In other words, you should test to see if the campaign -- with or without additional supportive activities -- has reached the predefined primary and secondary objectives regarding:

- The number or severity of road crashes, number of offences, the frequency of the unsafe and/or safe behaviour (primary objectives).
- Knowledge and beliefs about the problem behaviour and the safe behaviour, subjective risk of getting caught, self-reported behaviour (secondary objectives).

To isolate the effects, you should compare the results from the before period with those from the during and/or after periods, in each of the experimental and control or comparison conditions.

5.2.1. Process evaluation

As previously discussed (see Part I: *Process evaluation*, pp. 134-136 and pp. 82-84), the process evaluation measures whether the campaign is working as planned. It measures the campaign's dissemination and its perception by the target audience, namely, its objective exposure (see Box 28, pp. 83, and Box 39) and subjective exposure (see Box 29, p. 84). The process evaluation includes an assessment of the effectiveness of teamwork among the members of the campaign initiator's staff, the stakeholders, and the partners. This measure is purely qualitative.

Data from the process evaluation will shed light on the results of the other types of evaluation.

Box 39. Process evaluation: assessment of objective exposure

Example 1. The Rear Seatbelt Campaign⁴²

With the Rear Seatbelt Campaign in the UK in 1998 (for more information see Box 28, p. 83), the campaign practitioners looked at media coverage to find out where (on which TV/radio channels and in which newspapers) the seatbelt advertisement had been a news item in itself.

With regard to newspapers, they counted the articles in the national press (5 articles) and regional press (300 articles). They also looked at coverage in other countries to determine where the campaign had been advertised in the news. It was calculated that third-party coverage and public-relations exposure, if they had been paid for, would have matched the actual advertising expenditures of £750,000.

Example 2. The State of Connecticut's Impaired-Driving High-Visibility Campaign³⁸

Another example of how to conduct a process evaluation using objective measures can be found in the (U.S.) State of Connecticut's 2003 Impaired-Driving High-Visibility Campaign (for more information see Box 20, p. 75); the volume of website visits was one of the objective measures used.

The media component was concentrated in the two holiday periods of 2003 (the 4th of July and the November/December holidays), and was designed to create the perception of sustained enforcement between the summer and winter holiday periods.

The campaign had its own website; in the process evaluation, the website visits that occurred during the media campaign were counted. Website hits amounted to 12,318 from October 1, 2003 to January 11, 2004.

The evaluation showed that website hits increased during heavier media scheduling and also as the campaign progressed: there were 1,911 hits in October; 3,086 hits in November; 5,434 hits in December; and 1,887 hits between January 1 and 11, 2004.

5.2.2. Outcome evaluation

A social scientist with strong skills in statistical analysis should be involved in processing and analysing outcome data.

You should compare the data obtained in the before period, to that obtained in the during and/or after period(s) (see Boxes 40 and 41). This comparison allows you to determine whether the campaign achieved the predefined primary objective(s) in terms of number and severity of road crashes, number of offences, and frequencies of overt problem behaviour and/or overt safe behaviour. You should also test to see if the campaign achieved its predefined secondary objective(s) in terms of the target audience's knowledge and beliefs about the problem behaviour and the safe behaviour, or self-reported behaviour.

Box 40. Evaluation of road accidents and behaviour: the “Speak out!” campaign aimed at reducing injuries and fatalities among young people⁴⁷

The campaign appeals to automobile passengers to “Speak out!” about dangerous driving by telling the driver to be more careful (for more information on this campaign, see Box 14, pp. 65). It has two main components: information and enforcement.

The effect of the campaign on the number of people killed or injured in road accidents was evaluated by conducting three types of studies (for more information on the evaluation design of this campaign, see Box 30, p. 85):

- a) A before-and-after study with a matched comparison group.
- b) A before-and-after study with a general comparison group. The advantage of using this comparison group was that the number of injuries was great and thus random variations were small.
- c) A multivariate analysis (Poisson regression analysis) in which the effects of factors that influence the number of people injured in road accidents, including the “Speak out” campaign, were estimated statistically. The analysis was controlled for the effects of changes in traffic volume, traffic density, percentage of teenagers in the population, and long-term trends in the number of injuries among road users.

The results of the different evaluation studies were very similar. The number of teenagers 16 to 19 years old who were killed or injured in road accidents was reduced by about 10%; the number of occupants in this age group who were killed or injured was reduced by about 15%; and the number of car passengers who were killed or injured was reduced by about 30%. The number of killed or injured drivers ages 16 to 19 did not change. Only the reduction among passengers was statistically significant at the 10% level. It was nevertheless concluded that the “Speak out!” campaign had probably been effective in reducing the number of teenagers killed or injured in Sogn or Fjordane (Norway).

Box 41. Evaluation of observed behaviour and self-reported data: the British back-seat seatbelt campaign^{42,55}

In the UK in 1991, it became compulsory for adults riding in the back seat to wear a seatbelt, and there was an immediate increase from 10% to 40% in observed rear-seatbelt wearing. However, by 1998 there had been little further improvement in back-seat passengers' seatbelt rate since the law was passed in 1991.

A one-week publicity campaign was launched in July 1998 to increase awareness of the dangers of not wearing a seatbelt in the back seat of the car, and to encourage back-seat passengers to do so. In addition to the paid media, there had been, in advance of the campaign, solid preparation of road-safety officers and police officers to stimulate activity and media coverage at the local level. National, regional, and local media were also given briefings and background material before the launch (for more information see Box 28, pp. 83, and Box 39, pp. 116-117).

The 15- to 30-year-old age group was identified as the primary target group (the target group was defined on the basis of accident statistics and observational data: this age group accounted for the highest number of deaths and serious injuries in fatal accidents and it was the group least likely to wear a seatbelt in the back seat; the target group was also defined by the fact that this was the group less likely than others to be influenced by a driving adult).

Behavioural change was measured via a bi-annual observational study carried out by an independent research institute. In addition, an extra survey was commissioned by the campaign initiators immediately following the launch. The survey sites were selected to be as representative of the nation as possible in terms of road type. Moreover, observers were stationed at intersections with stoplights to ensure sufficient time for gathering accurate information about the car and occupants. Observations were carried out in eight half-hour sessions spread throughout the day from 8:30 to 17:30.

The surveys showed an increase in rear-passenger seatbelt wearing rates from 44% before the one-week campaign (July 1-5) to 51% immediately after (July 17-21). In October 1998, the rear-passenger seatbelt-wearing rate was 54%. Analysis of behaviour change in rear-passenger seatbelt wearing over a year (April 1998 to April 1999) showed that the effects had been greater among the key target group (14-29 year olds) than among the general population (40% and 23% increases, respectively). Even among children, where the seatbelt-wearing rate was already high, significant gains had been made during the year (from 79% to 90%).

An independently commissioned survey was carried out to evaluate attitudinal and self-reported behavioural changes. A set of questions was placed (before and after the campaign) on RSGB^{xvii}'s general monthly omnibus survey for a representative sample of 2,000 people (16 years and older).

This survey showed an increase in seatbelt-wearing rates over time (February to July 1998). Due to over-claiming, the self-reported rates were higher than found in the observational surveys, but the results indicated an increase in motivation to wear a seatbelt in the back seat. This higher motivation was also confirmed by a later survey in which 42% claimed that they were more likely to buckle up in the back as a direct result of seeing the commercial (37% saying they already wore a rear seatbelt anyway).

In addition, the surveys indicated significant attitudinal change. For example, there was a substantial rise in the numbers recognising that, in a crash, a rear-seat passenger not wearing a belt could injure or kill the driver or front-seat passenger. Recognition that an unbelted rear-seat passenger in the event of a crash might kill the driver rose from 33% to 53% among 16-24 year olds (the increase was significant).

5.2.3. Isolating the effects of the campaign

The factors influencing the campaign's outcome may be difficult to isolate. If your campaign is combined with other actions such as enforcement, a change in the number of road crashes could be the result of the campaign itself or of the supportive activities. In this case, it is

^{xvii} Research Surveys of Great Britain.

difficult to determine the actual effect of the campaign: you will simply be able to conclude that your campaign has contributed to reducing the number of road crashes.

To isolate effects brought about by different elements of a campaign, one solution would be to compare the effect(s) of the campaign in several different areas at the same time, with each area having a different set of conditions: enforcement in one area, the media campaign in another, media plus enforcement in a third area, plus a control area with no intervention at all. In order to conduct a rigorous evaluation of this type, the areas must be equivalent to each other. This involves a large financial investment.

5.3. Gathering cost and cost-effectiveness information

5.3.1. Evaluating the total cost of the campaign

The total economic cost of the campaign is relatively easy to measure because all of this information is already known (see Box 42). It includes the net cost (paid resources), cost of earned media coverage, and fixed costs.

- The net cost (financial cost) or paid resources include the expenses for media placement (advertising agency, media, etc.), development (studies and research, paid staff, materials, supportive activities, etc.), and evaluation (evaluation agency, researchers, etc.).
- The earned portion of the cost is made up of the free resources. This includes the labour cost of partner staff not paid by the campaign initiator, the value of supportive activities and mediator assistance (staff count, number of hours worked), plus any materials donated by sponsors. Some free elements may be difficult to translate into a monetary value; however, you can do research on wage rates and cost of materials to come up with reasonably accurate cost estimates.

Because the value of free elements is only an estimate, the total cost figure will be off by some percentage. However, this inaccuracy is less serious than errors such as neglecting to include free resources and fixed costs. Indeed, the actual cost figures are generally greater than any error in estimating the value of free resources.

Box 42. Evaluation of total costs of the “Speak out!” campaign: reducing injury and fatalities among young people^{45,56,57}

The “Speak Out!” campaign began in 1993 and has been running every year since then in the Norwegian county of Sogn and Fjordane (for more information on this campaign, see Box 14, p. 65).

In 2007, an evaluation of the “Speak out!” campaign was conducted for the years 2000-2005. The direct costs related to the information portion of the campaign amounted to 7.5 million Norwegian Kroners (NOK) (about 0.95 million euros). These costs included:

- T-shirts and other informative materials (3 million NOK)
- A new production of the “Speak out!” film and production of DVDs (0.5 million NOK)
- Showings of the film at cinemas/on TV, and other information means (4 million NOK)

In addition, the Norwegian Public Roads Administration had incurred labour costs (developing and organising the campaign). The monetary value of this work was not known because the work was covered under regular budgets. Moreover, there was considerable support from the police that was also covered under regular budgets. A rough estimate of the costs related to police enforcement and work of staff at the Norwegian Public Roads Administration amounted to 10 million NOK.

Total costs, including both direct costs and labour costs, were thus calculated to be 17.5 million NOK (about 2.2 million euros). The costs incurred by the evaluation of this five-year period were not included.

5.3.2. Economic evaluation

Generally, economic audits are carried out on a single campaign, or in case of an integrated campaign, on a series of campaigns conducted during the year.

A Cost-Effectiveness Analysis (CEA) compares the total cost of the campaign to its performance in terms of non-monetary outcomes. A Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA) measures the efficiency of the campaign by placing a monetary value on the safety outcome and comparing benefits to costs in order to find out what maximizes a campaign's net benefits.

Methods of attaining a specific objective on the basis of lowest cost or greatest effectiveness (quantified outcome or impact) can be compared to each other for a given cost level. This provides a basis for estimating the cost of each life saved. Looking at the total cost of the campaign as against the total number of road crashes, injuries, and fatalities prevented allows you to calculate the cost per prevented road accident, injury or fatality. This is a calculation of the cost-effectiveness level. If the prevented fatalities/injuries have a monetary value, the benefit/cost level can also be calculated. If the cost of the campaign is less than the monetary gain obtained by the number of prevented road crashes, then the campaign can be considered cost-effective (for more information, see Part I: *Economic evaluation*, pp. 137-140).

5.4. Drawing clear conclusions about the campaign

The process, outcome, and economic evaluations allow you to draw many conclusions about the campaign: whether or not it was successful (effectiveness), to what extent it was successful and for what reasons, and whether its cost was justified (efficiency).

The analysis of the outcome-evaluation data tells you if the campaign did or did not achieve its predefined primary and secondary objectives in relation to its target audience and the unsafe and/or safe behaviour. Data obtained from the process evaluation (objective and subjective exposure to the campaign), as well as information gained from discussions with campaign partners, may shed even more light on your analysis.

A long-term outcome evaluation based on a change in road-crash and injury statistics, within several periods and over several years, is an important part of any analysis. Such a long-term analysis gives you a measure of the stability and longevity of the campaign's effects. However, long-term effects may be difficult to obtain with only one, stand-alone campaign. In fact, it may be more appropriate to measure long-term effects once several campaigns have been run.

In any case, it is very important to draw clear-cut, unambiguous conclusions on the campaign's effect, not only to accurately identify which elements of the campaign had a proven effect in terms of outcome variables, but also to know what target audience was influenced and under what circumstances. These conclusions will establish the campaign's limitations. It is equally important to find out what elements *did not* work, since this information will permit campaigners to avoid similar mistakes in future campaigns.

Concluding Recommendations

To evaluate the campaign and draw clear conclusions about its effectiveness, you should take the following steps:

– **Implementing the chosen evaluation method for the during- and/or after-campaign periods**

Depending on the length of the campaign and the type of data to be collected, you have already defined:

- (a) The during-campaign period, including the time interval between the launching of the campaign and the start of the evaluation.
- (b) The after-campaign period(s), including the time interval between the end of the campaign and the start of the first after period, and if applicable, between the two after periods.

When the types of data to be collected are the same during the three evaluation periods, the conditions of data collection and the tools should also be identical across phases.

– **Processing and analysing the evaluation data**

You should compare the data obtained in the before period, to that obtained in the during and/or after period(s). This comparison allows you to determine whether the campaign achieved the predefined primary and secondary objective(s).

– **Gathering cost and cost-effectiveness information**

Now that all the evaluations have been completed, cost and cost-effectiveness information should be collected and analysed.

– **Drawing clear conclusions about the campaign**

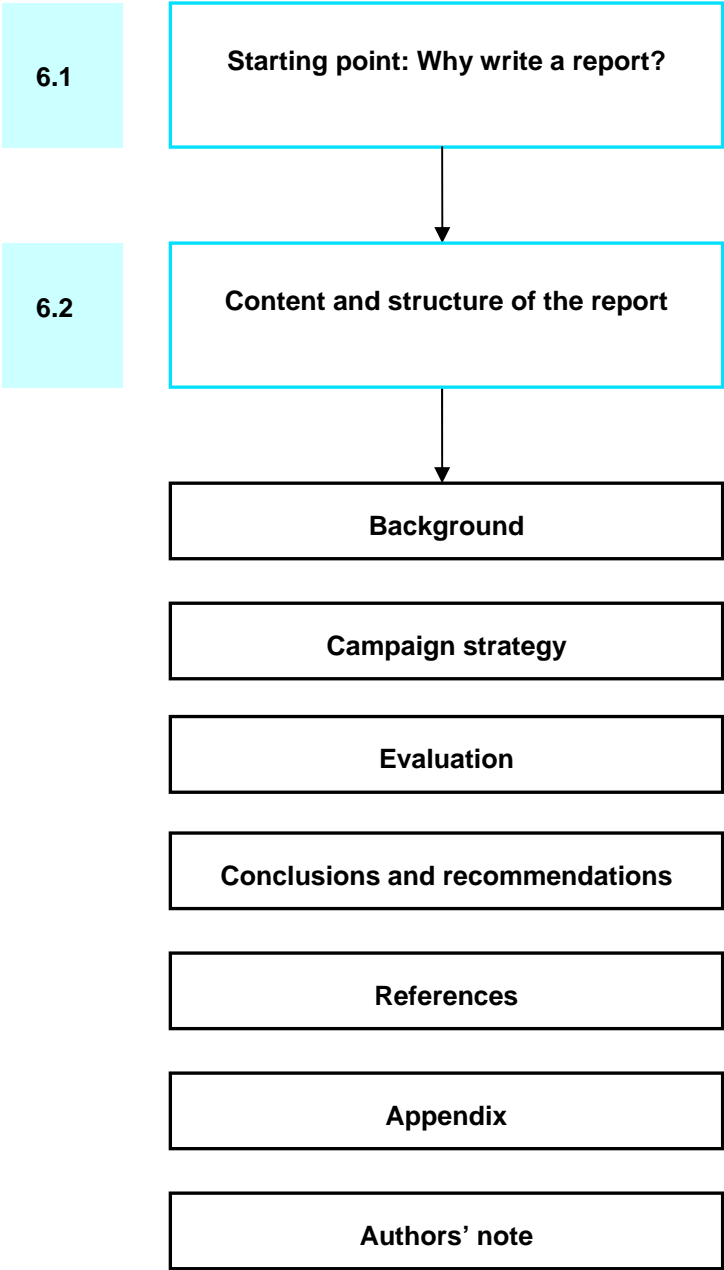
In all cases, it is very important to clearly establish which elements of the campaign had a proven effect in terms of outcome variables, and for which target audience under what circumstances (i.e., the campaign's strengths). It is equally important to indicate which elements *did not* work (i.e., the campaign's limitations), since this information will enable you to avoid similar mistakes in the future and improve new campaigns.

6. Writing the Final Report

The final report closes the campaign cycle, at least temporarily. One of the main goals of writing a report is to provide important information and feedback not only to the partners involved in the campaign, but also to stakeholders, researchers, and the general public. It is crucial to disseminate the results of the campaign, ensuring that the information is widely distributed and easily accessible. Indeed, any improvement in future campaigns depends on the availability of thorough and rigorous evaluation reports⁴⁴.

The final report should present a clear and concise overview of all the steps carried out in the campaign, including identifying, defining, and/or developing the background, target audience, objectives, strategy, evaluation, and main conclusions. The content and structure of this report is laid out in the diagram below (see Diagram 7).

Diagram 7. Sub-steps for writing the final report



6.1. Starting point: Why write a report?

The main purpose of the final report is to objectively and critically present the campaign background, strategy, and results, including lessons learned for the future.

The report should be readily available, regardless of whether the campaign was a success⁴⁴. To be useful to others, the final report should be available on the internet, usually on the campaign initiator's website or in an international database. Databases of this type provide indexes of reports and quantitative results, thus providing direct access to a large body of research and practitioner knowledge. Moreover, the campaign results and findings included in the final report may be further disseminated by publication in scientific journals, conference proceedings, etc.

The information found in the report is also valuable for conducting meta-analyses in an attempt to identify effective criteria or develop new methodologies (theoretical model, design and variables used to measure the effect(s) of the campaign, etc.).

6.2. Content and structure of the report

To be useful to its readers and facilitate the use of its main content and data, the final report should have a standard structure that includes the following sections (see Box 43), which we will describe in this chapter.

Box 43: Elements and general structure of a campaign report

Title page (title, authors, etc.)

Acknowledgements

Abstract and keywords

Table of contents

Executive summary

Main body of the report:

- Background
- Campaign strategy
- Evaluation
- Conclusions and main recommendations

References

Appendix

Authors' note

Title page, acknowledgements, abstract and keywords, table of contents, and executive summary

- The **title page** will display the title of the campaign, the name and logo of the campaign initiator, the date of publication, and the author(s) of the report^{xvii}.
- The second page is devoted to **acknowledgements** to thank funding sources, stakeholders, and other organisations and persons involved in the campaign.
- The **abstract** should be no longer than fifteen lines (about 300 words). If the report itself is not in English, an English translation of the abstract should be provided. The abstract should give the main goals and objectives of the campaign, the length of the campaign running period, its results, and the conclusions. It should be followed by the **keywords** (three to six keywords).
- The **table of contents** should be detailed enough to make it easy to find sections of interest to the reader.
- The **executive summary** should be no longer than three or four pages. If the report itself is not in English, an English translation of the executive summary should be provided. The executive summary should briefly describe the following:
 - Background
 - Overall goal
 - Specific objectives
 - Campaign strategy
 - Evaluation methods used, including participants and procedure
 - Main results
 - Conclusions and recommendations

^{xvii} A detailed authors' note must present and describe the campaign team at the end of the report.

Main body of the report

The **main body of the report** (about 30 to 50 pages) should present a detailed overview of the campaign background and context, the problem behaviour and possible solutions, the target audience(s), the campaign strategy including the theoretical framework, message content, and media plan, the evaluation design and results, and the conclusions drawn. To facilitate reading, this information should be structured in four, clearly labelled sections: background, campaign strategy, evaluation, conclusions and main recommendations.

6.2.1. Background

The background section discusses why the problem addressed by the campaign is important. It should include a review of relevant literature and additional research (if any^{xviii}), enabling the reader to understand the background of the problem, the concerned target audience(s), and how the campaign fits in with earlier interventions. For instance, if the campaign theme is speeding and the target group is young drivers, then this section should include a description of research on that topic along with a discussion of earlier attempts to change this problem behaviour. If the campaign is based on a theoretical model, then this should be described in some detail; if that model was used in previous campaigns, the main results of those campaigns should also be presented.

The background information should provide a review of the following issues:

- Problem definition and situation analysis.
- Target audience(s).
- Overall goal of the campaign.
- Theoretical model(s) used (if any).
- Specific objectives in terms of (a) desired communication or behavioural effect (awareness, knowledge, attitudes and/or behaviour), (b) target audience, and (c) expected level of attainment or accomplishment (e.g., 20% increase in awareness).

The background section should end with a description of how the campaign strategy chosen might help in addressing the problem.

6.2.2. Campaign strategy

To better understand the effects of the campaign, it is necessary to supply information about the way it was developed and implemented. In this section, the campaign strategy should be described, including detailed information about the various components of the campaign. This can include information on how the message was designed, types of media and the media plan, and a presentation of supportive activities, if used. You should also state how the campaign was launched.

Message

The design of the message (core idea to be conveyed) and slogans (execution of the message in the actual campaign) should be presented here. You will need to detail the content of the message (developed based on the overall goal and specific objectives of the campaign, the behaviour at stake, the target audience, the chosen theoretical model, etc.), its structure (one-sided or two-sided, negative or positive framing), and its execution strategy; in other words its style (appropriate wording and terminology for the target audience, visual and audio elements).

^{xviii} Tables describing available data and any additional studies should be given in the Appendix.

The procedure used to pre-test the message should be described. This part should answer the following questions:

- Who did the pre-tests (pre-testing done in-house or by an outside agency, and by what department or organisation)?
- What was evaluated (what materials)?
- How many pre-tests were performed?
- On what population was the pre-test done?
- What was the size of the sample?
- What theoretical model was used for the pre-test (the same model as the one used to design the message)?
- How was the pre-test conducted, i.e., using what methods and techniques (focus groups, in-person interviews, questionnaires)?
- To what extent did the results of the pre-test alter the final message design?

Type of media and media plan

You should present the media types and media plan used for the campaign, and justify your choice. This section will include:

- Scale of the campaign (i.e., national, regional, or local).
- Scope of each chosen medium.
- Duration and frequency of media exposure.
- Number of messages to be distributed by each media vehicle (number of TV spots, radio spots, leaflets, newspaper ads, billboards, etc.).
- Time schedule for message distribution for each media vehicle.

You might want to add a diagram of the media plan to make it easier to understand^{xix}.

Supportive activities

You should state and explain the choice of supportive activities, in reference to the campaign's overall goal and specific objectives, target audience, budget, chosen theoretical framework, your experience, etc. The following elements should be mentioned:

- Type of supportive activities (e.g., enforcement, reinforcement, etc.).
- Scale (local, regional, national), and location/area of each activity.
- Time schedule for each activity: duration (starting and ending date), number of interventions, times of the day, days of the week, etc.

Campaign launch

You should detail the tools and procedures used to launch the campaign (press releases, press conference, events, press kits, interviews, etc.^{xx}) and the media coverage received (earned media such as number of articles in newspapers and magazines, number of radio and TV broadcasts mentioning the campaign, etc.). The partners involved in the campaign launch should be mentioned in the authors' note.

^{xix} Detailed campaign materials (brochures, scenario of each TV spot, etc.) should be given in the Appendix.

^{xx} All of these documents should be included in the Appendix.

6.2.3. Evaluation

The section on evaluation should provide information on the evaluation methods, procedures, and results for each type of evaluation^{xxi}, i.e., the process, outcome and economic evaluations. It should end with a critical discussion of the results.

6.2.3.1 Process evaluation

Method

You should state the types of data collected during the process evaluation (objective and subjective exposure data). For example:

- Objective exposure – number of messages distributed, frequency and duration of the messages, etc.
- Subjective exposure – reach, awareness, recognition, recall, etc.

You should also describe the method(s), procedure(s) and tool(s) used to collect the data, e.g., counting systems for objective exposure, questionnaire(s) for subjective exposure, etc.

Results

You should present the results of the process evaluation, which may concern either objective or subjective exposure.

Objective exposure

- What types of activities were conducted?
- Total exposure – total number of people exposed to the campaign (e.g., number of people who listened to the radio programme, number of readers).
- Number of messages distributed (number of TV spots, number of advertisements, number of posters displayed, number of leaflets distributed, etc.).
- Frequency, duration, and timing of messages distributed (i.e., how long was the poster displayed, how long did the radio programme last, how many times was the spot broadcast, etc.).
- If the campaign was combined with another activity, the process evaluation should focus on this activity too. For example, if the campaign was combined with enforcement, the process evaluation could include the number of drivers stopped and/or ticketed by the police and the frequency and timing of patrols.

Subjective exposure

- Reach: percentage of road users in the target audience who noticed some element of the campaign, i.e., who came in contact with the message.
- Awareness: percentage of road users in the target audience who were aware of the campaign theme and message and of the seriousness of the problem addressed by the campaign.
- Recognition and recall: degree to which the target audience remembered things about the campaign (cued and uncued recall of specific campaign elements, the campaign message, and the slogans).
- Appreciation: likeability of the campaign, opinion and approval of the campaign by the target audience.
- Message takeaway: people's perceptions of the main thrust of the message; this is to check whether the message was understood.

^{xxi} Tools for evaluating the campaign (questionnaires, observation grids, etc.) must be included in the Appendix.

6.2.3.2 Outcome evaluation

Method

You should clearly describe what types of data were collected for the outcome evaluation (e.g., self-reported behaviour, observed behaviour) and how the evaluation was conducted, thus enabling others to replicate it. Usually this part is divided into three sections: Participants, Materials, and Procedure.

Participants

The population sample used to evaluate the campaign's effect should be described, along with the segmentation process. The description of the participants should include the following information:

- Total number of participants drawn from the sample.
- Total number of participants who completed the survey.
- Number of participants in each of the different groups (i.e., experimental groups, control/comparison groups).
- Representativeness of the segments selected in each group.
- Age and gender makeup of the groups tested, along with other information that might be relevant for interpreting the results (i.e., road-user type, passengers, profile or occupation).

You should also describe any possible sources of bias regarding the sample. This could be a selection bias or non-response bias.

Materials

You should briefly describe the materials used^{xxii}. If a survey was conducted, the following information is suggested for inclusion in this subsection.

- Procedure chosen for designing the survey: if the questions included in the questionnaires were formulated on the basis of interviews (a pilot study), then the pilot study should be described.
- Questions included in the final questionnaire or a copy of the interview guide: if applicable, the connection to the theoretical model used should also be made clear here, and the scales used to measure it should be described.

Procedure

In this part, you should carefully describe the procedure followed to conduct the outcome evaluation. Indeed, any omission or inaccuracy in this section could interfere with the reader's understanding of the report, possibly giving the impression that the results are biased. The following information should be included:

- Tools used to collect quantitative and qualitative data (observations, questionnaires, interviews, etc.).
- If observations or in-person interviews were used, then the number of investigators should be stated, along with a reproduction of the instructions given to each investigator.
- Instructions given to participants (in a questionnaire, an interview, a focus group, etc.). The questionnaire and interview guides are usually included in the Appendix.
- If a survey was used, then include a description of how it was distributed (by mail, door-to-door).

^{xxii} A more detailed description should be included in the Appendix.

- The evaluation design chosen: Was it a (mostly) experimental or quasi-experimental design, a single-case study? Where there experimental groups, control groups or comparison groups?
- The duration of each phase (according to the type of data collected): starting and ending dates of each evaluation period, including the after periods and whether they were done over the short, middle, or long term.

Results

The results of the outcome evaluation are critical for determining whether or not the campaign's overall goal and specific objectives were met. You should describe the data (descriptive statistics) and tests of the specific and operational hypotheses and model (inferential statistics). By providing as much statistical detail as possible (counts, values, mean frequencies, standard deviations, dispersion, correlations, regressions, etc.)^{xxiii} you will enable the reader to repeat the statistical analyses if needed, or include your study in a meta-analysis⁵⁸.

6.2.3.3 Economic evaluation

In addition to describing the results of the process and outcome evaluations, the final report should also contain information on the cost-effectiveness and cost-benefit ratio of the campaign.

- CEA is used to compare the cost of the campaign in terms of its non-monetary outcomes, that is, the reduction in accidents, fatalities, and/or injuries brought about by the campaign (e.g., number of lives saved due to the campaign).
- CBA is used to analyse the costs of the campaign in terms of economic gains, that is, to estimate and total up the equivalent monetary value of the benefits of the campaign to the community, as against its actual cost.

You should present the two main components of cost:

- Direct cost of the campaign, including:
 - Cost of developing and producing the campaign.
 - Cost of media buying.
 - Cost of evaluation.
- Indirect costs: costs not directly related to the campaign (usually expressed as a percentage of direct costs).

The total budget amount should be broken down^{xxiv} and should include the budget and the actual costs, specifying the amount of the budget given by the funding agencies (see Table 6). This information identifies the weight of each funding organisation in the decision-making process and their respective degrees of involvement in the campaign. It also gives an idea of what part of the budget comes from public and/or private sources. However, publishing the funding amounts provided by each sponsoring organisation may be difficult, since this information is generally confidential and partners and sponsors may not agree to have it publicized. In this case, an approximate percentage of each partner's participation can be presented.

Table 6: Budget given by each partner involved

	Total	Initiator	Partner (etc.)	Partner (etc.)	Partner (etc.)

^{xxiii} Detailed evaluation tables and diagrams must be included in the Appendix.

^{xxiv} Tables breaking down the budget should be given in the Appendix.

You should also mention the costs and budget amounts allocated for the different campaign elements: design and production of campaign materials, evaluation, media buying, etc. If not confidential, these costs may be broken down by agency (see Table 7).

Table 7: Costs and budget allocated to each campaign element

Agency	Task description	Number of person days (a)	Cost per day (€) (b)	Other costs (in €) (c)	Total cost (a x b)+c	Budget
Total					€	

6.2.3.4 Discussion

The discussion is where you will revisit the overall goal and specific objectives outlined at the end of the background section, and present your conclusion as to whether or not the campaign met these goals, and why or why not. You should interpret and analyse the results, taking into account the baseline level of the measures made at the beginning. Moreover, the results of the process evaluation (what was done or not done) will help researchers interpret the results. The results of the during- and after-period evaluations done over the short, middle, and/or long term will allow you to determine whether the effect(s) of the campaign persist over time, as well as explain the presence or absence of effect stability.

You must talk about every factor that could explain the results of the evaluation, and discuss how these factors might have interfered with the campaign, considering the campaign objectives. You should also try to explain some possible unexpected effects, both positive and negative. The discussion of the results should be contrasted with results from previous studies, that is to say, you should state whether your results support or contradict previous findings.

6.2.4. Conclusions and recommendations

The conclusion is a synthesis of the campaign in light of its overall goal, specific objectives, and target audience: To what extent has the overall goal been attained? Did the campaign do what it was intended to do?

You should provide clear conclusions on the effectiveness, strengths, and limitations of the campaign, based on its goal, objectives, and target audience. You should also report conclusions drawn about the economic aspects of the campaign as determined by the cost-effectiveness and cost-benefit (efficiency) analyses. This is essential in providing accountability to campaign sponsors, funding partners, and policymakers. Finally, you should make recommendations that can serve as guidelines for future road safety communication campaigns conducted by your own or other organisations working in this field.

Regardless of the outcome of the campaign, evaluation reports should be available in a library and indexed in a valid database of facts and knowledge (e.g., www.erso.eu, or other international databases). Having the campaign report and its quantitative results included in an international online database will prove useful for communication practitioners and safety researchers desirous of designing, implementing, and evaluating an effective and cost-efficient road safety communication campaign in the future.

6.2.5. References

The **references** will include the bibliography, databases, websites, etc.

They must be formatted as stipulated in the academic standards of your domain (e.g., American Psychological Association standards), and should include the following elements:

- Bibliography (literature references, scientific and non-scientific journals).
- Databases (police reports, hospital-admission reports, crash reports for lawsuits, insurance reports, traffic-engineering reports, etc.).
- Road-safety monitoring indicators.
- Tracking studies.
- Websites.

6.2.6. Appendix

The **Appendix** will include a detailed description of some of the campaign materials, as well as tables and diagrams. While the temptation might be to include all of your materials, try to limit the appendix to information that might be useful for others if they want to replicate the campaign.

The attached documents included in the appendix will help provide complete information on the following elements (most of which will be mentioned in the main body of the report):

- Tables detailing the relevant available data and additional studies used for the situation analysis (e.g., statistics on offences and crashes linked to the problem behaviour).
- Campaign materials (the scenario of each TV and radio spot, pictures of billboards, brochures and leaflets, etc.).
- Tools used in evaluating the campaign (questionnaires, observation grids, etc.).
- Evaluation tables and diagrams detailing the results.
- Tables that give a breakdown of the budget

6.2.7. Authors' note

In the **authors' note**, the campaign team members should be listed and described. The team might consist, for example, of initiator(s), partners, and outside agencies.

Initiator

For each initiator, you should state whether it is a person or an organisation, and in the latter case whether it is public (e.g., government agency) or private (e.g., insurance company, special-interest group), national, local, or regional, etc. A brief overview of each organisation's aims and activities should also be given.

Campaign partners

These include financial partners (including sponsors), non-financial partners, and stakeholders.

- Who are they?
- What are their reasons for being involved in the campaign?
- Why did the financial partners decide to provide funding for the campaign?
- What is their role in the campaign (e.g., driver's training schools might distribute campaign brochures, the police might be involved in enforcement actions)?

Outside researchers and outside agencies

- Who are they (outside agencies could include an advertising agency, a media-buying agency, a public-relations agency, a press agency)?

- On what criteria were they chosen?
- What was their role in the campaign (preparation, design, evaluation, etc.)?

In cases where stakeholders are involved in designing or evaluating the campaign, it is important to make a clear distinction between different categories of stakeholders:

- Stakeholders involved in setting up and conducting the campaign.
- Stakeholders who invested in the initiative.
- Stakeholders who were impacted by the initiative (the target groups).
- Stakeholders willing to carry out similar campaigns in the future.
- Opponents of the initiative.
- Stakeholders involved in designing and conducting the campaign evaluation.
- Stakeholders who will use the results of the evaluation (government agencies, etc.).

Concluding Recommendations

Producing a final report on the campaign is useful for conducting future campaigns. It contains information on all the campaign elements; this information helps improve future campaigns and avoid past mistakes in future campaigns.

The final report should be written with the following recommendations in mind.

Report characteristics

- The report should be in a standard format so important information will not be left out.
- It should be available on the internet, usually on the campaign initiator's website or in an international database (for dissemination of the results).
- It should answer the following questions:
 - Were the effects (if any) due to the campaign?
 - What types of evaluations were conducted (process, impact, outcome, and/or economic)?
 - On what dimensions was the campaign evaluated?
 - Which elements of the campaign were particularly effective, and which were not?
 - Were the effect(s) measured over the short, middle, and/or long term?

Report content and structure

We encourage you to follow the outline given below for your final report:

- Title page (title, authors, etc.)
- Acknowledgements
- Abstract and keywords
- Table of contents
- Executive summary
- Main body of the report
 - Background
 - Campaign strategy
 - Evaluation
 - Conclusions and main recommendations
- References
- Appendix
- Authors' note

Part II: Summary

Step 1

The very first step in getting started with a road safety communication campaign consists of identifying the problem, based on information found in statistics and databases on road crashes, fatalities, injuries, offences, and observed behaviours, while taking into account new phenomena that generate media attention.

Once the problem is recognised, the organisational aspects of road safety should be considered and the socio-economic, legal, and political setting should be analysed, including the general and specific contexts.

Then it is necessary to seek out campaign partners and stakeholders who will be able to support your campaign and/or be part of the campaign team (financial and/or non-financial partners, public and/or private organisations).

After that, the budget of the campaign should be determined, which must include the cost of possible media, supportive activities, and campaign evaluation.

A kick-off meeting should be organised with the partners and stakeholders to define the overall goal of the campaign and discuss the strategy and tasks to perform, working within the defined campaign budget.

After this meeting, the first creative brief (or communication brief) should be drafted, in order to provide a general overview of the situation. The creative brief is a means of communication among all of the campaign partners; it should be updated throughout the different stages of campaign development.

Once the needs have been set forth in the creative brief, any outside agencies (advertising, production, media-buying, and public-relations agencies, as well as researchers) should be chosen following a call for bids or request for proposals.

Step 2

The next step consists of analysing the situation, starting with an in-depth analysis of the problem and possible solutions. For this, you can look to four different sources: databases and statistics, research on the main predictors of the problem behaviour (or behavioural change), previous campaigns and related actions or programmes, and market studies on the target audience(s).

You can use this information to select the target audience, segment it, and then choose the market segments to address in the campaign. Then you will need to analyse the main predictors of the unsafe behaviour or the desired behavioural change. For this purpose, it is advisable to rely on a theoretical model.

The next step consists of strategising on how to reach and address the chosen segment(s) based on persuasion model(s).

At this point, the overall campaign goal defined in the previous step should be translated into specific objectives – primary objectives that determine what exact behaviour is desired in the

target audience, and secondary objectives that identify other factors likely to contribute to achieving the primary behavioural objectives.

Finally, you should take a preliminary look at the methods used in the past to evaluate similar campaigns (design and variables). The utility of evaluations is different for current and future campaigns. For the current campaign, evaluation allows you to monitor the implementation of the campaign and intervene if needed; it helps determine campaign efficiency, i.e., knowing what works or does not work (with respect to your objectives, the target audience, etc.), find out if there are any unexpected benefits or problems (which is helpful for future campaigns), and determine whether the effects of the campaign justify its cost (to provide accountability to funding sources, stakeholders, partners, and policymakers, which should help with future fundraising). Later, campaign evaluations provide information that can help improve the implementation of future campaigns and avoid the risk that they will be ineffective.

Step 3

After analysing the situation, it is time to design the campaign strategy, message, media plan, and the various evaluations.

To develop the campaign strategy, you should take the campaign's specific objectives and define them in an operational fashion. The campaign strategy should be embedded in a broader, overall social-marketing strategy based on theoretical models and aimed at changing behaviour. Defining the strategy includes defining the type of campaign and its scale, in accordance with the areas where the problem occurs, the target audience, and how it can be reached. Moreover, past campaigns and actions can provide input to the strategy. Once the campaign strategy is defined, its key points should be added to the creative brief.

Next, you should define the content of the message and its execution strategy (style) according to the problem behaviour and its main predictors for the target audience, the general characteristics of the target audience, any environmental factors, and the sender's characteristics as well. For this, you can conduct qualitative studies (individual interviews, focus groups or creative brainstorming sessions, etc.).

After defining the message, you will need to choose the media types, media vehicles, mediators, and supportive activities to be used in the campaign. You should define the media plan and choose campaign identifiers (spokesperson, logo, mascots, brands) based on the campaign's budget, timing and length, the advertising rates of each media and media vehicle, demographic statistics of coverage, openings, and so on.

Once the media plan is defined, you will need to develop the message and slogans in their full context, which means producing the materials needed to convey the core message of the campaign and its supportive activities (using text, images, sounds, etc.). All campaign messages and slogans should be pre-tested by measuring their comprehension and likeability, and their effects and direction of impact on knowledge, beliefs, and/or behaviours. The procedures, activities, and materials should also be pre-tested before actual implementation of the campaign.

After designing the campaign, you should prepare the evaluation, whether it will be conducted in-house or by one or more outside agencies. Again, campaign evaluation is particularly important because it allows you to monitor the implementation of the campaign and intervene if necessary (i.e., find out if the campaign is working or not according to its specific objectives and target audience). It also lets you know if the campaign is cost-effective, and more specifically, on what dimensions it works the best (for use in future campaigns).

The effect(s) of the campaign should always be assessed in reference to a baseline measurement. Therefore, you should choose an appropriate evaluation design with, at minimum, a before- and an after-period measurement, with a control or comparison group. You should define the sample for the evaluation on the basis of the schedule, budget, target-audience size, type and theme of the campaign, and any supportive activities.

The process evaluation assesses whether or not the campaign is operating as planned and is reaching the target audience, which is measured in terms of objective and subjective exposure to the campaign. The outcome evaluation measures the effect(s) of the campaign on road crashes, observed behaviours, and self-reported knowledge, beliefs, and/or behaviours. The economic evaluation measures the campaign's cost-effectiveness and efficiency, so it tells you if the campaign results are proportionate to the monetary investment.

To choose the methods (qualitative or quantitative) and tools needed for the evaluations, you should take into account feasibility, timescale, and available resources. The data-collection conditions and materials must be the same for every evaluation period.

Step 4

Now that you have designed the campaign and the evaluation, it is time to implement the before-period measurement, finish the production of materials, and launch the campaign. The campaign's progress should be monitored carefully in order to deal with any problems that arise during execution.

Before launching the campaign, you should conduct the before-period study. This involves designing the study, checking the materials against the evaluation design and constraints of the field, and hiring and training investigators. The evaluation should be monitored and quality-controlled.

At the same time, the production of the campaign materials as well as media buying and scheduling should be carried out, either in-house or by an outside agency. These tasks include several phases: technical briefing, pre-production, production, approval of the produced materials by the campaign initiator, and post-production.

At this point, you should be able to implement the campaign, starting with the launch (first day of the campaign) and release of campaign materials, and then carrying out any supportive activities according to the planned schedule.

To increase awareness in the target audience, it is advisable to try to generate good earned-media coverage, which involves building a long-term relationship with the press. For this purpose, you should keep an updated list of all press contacts, and establish your organisation's reputation as an active and reliable source of information. Moreover, you can use methods such as press releases, press conferences, media events, press kits, interviews, and so on.

The implementation of the campaign should be monitored. Initial feedback from the process evaluation will reveal any implementation problems so you can deal with them while the campaign is still running.

Step 5

The during- and after-period evaluations are conducted while the campaign is running and after it has finished, respectively. This includes data processing and analysis, and drawing clear conclusions. You should compare the results of the before-period evaluation to those of the during- and/or after-period results. This requires maintaining the same conditions of data collection and the same evaluation materials as the ones used for the before-period evaluation. The length of each period depends on the type of data collected. The evaluation should be quality-controlled, to verify that it has been implemented properly.

Data on knowledge and beliefs will help you understand if the campaign has had an effect on road crashes and observed behaviour. The process evaluation (objective and subjective exposure) sheds further light on the outcome data and facilitates analysis.

Cost and cost-effectiveness information should be gathered for the economic evaluation. Information concerning the total cost of the campaign is already available. The cost-effectiveness of the campaign compares costs to benefits expressed as the monetary equivalent of prevented road crashes, injuries, and fatalities. The campaign is considered cost-effective when its cost is less than the amount of money saved due to the campaign.

Finally, you should draw clear conclusions about the strengths and limitations of the campaign, based on the various evaluations that indicated whether the campaign worked or not.

Step 6

The final report wraps up the whole campaign process. It justifies the effort and money invested in the campaign by the funding organisations, policymakers, authorities, partners, stakeholders, and the campaign team.

The report should provide an overview of each step taken to develop the campaign and any supportive activities, which means reviewing the background of the campaign, its target audience, objectives, strategy, evaluation, and main conclusions. It should also provide recommendations, that is to say, guidelines for future road safety communication campaigns.

The final report should have a standard structure. It should present essential elements such as the rationale of the campaign, the qualifications of the staff involved in both the campaign and the evaluation, and the design of the campaign, including the development of messages and the frequency and intensity of message or slogan dissemination. It should also describe the evaluation design and results, and present conclusions about the effectiveness, strengths, and limitations of the campaign based on its overall goal, specific objectives, and target audience. Finally, it should provide information on the economic aspects of the campaign obtained via the cost-effectiveness and cost-benefit analyses.

CONCLUSION

This manual was written in collaboration with practitioners and researchers. Our goal was to present a handbook that could be used by campaign practitioners, researchers, students, and any other organisation that might be involved in a road safety communication campaign, providing information and presenting a step-by-step guide for designing, implementing, and evaluating road safety communication campaigns.

Road safety campaigns should be based on thorough research in order to increase their chances of success. Research can help better identify a problem behaviour and its causes, and find out if the behaviour is due to a lack of information (in which case it is unintentional) or if, on the contrary, the individual chooses to commit the unsafe act despite having knowledge of the problem (in which case it is intentional). Research helps us understand the main motivations underlying a particular problem behaviour and also identify the target audience and its main characteristics. This in turn can help in designing an effective campaign message.

Moreover, it is essential to learn from the past, which here, means learning from research on past road safety communication campaigns. Past campaigns that were properly evaluated in order to draw valid conclusions, and whose results have been disseminated in databases, help in identifying key elements contributing to the success of road safety campaigns. If you find campaigns on the same theme that have produced positive effects, you can examine them for potential adaptation to a new situation and/or for getting information on the strategy and methodology used.

The manual is divided into two parts: the first part presents a theoretical background on road safety communication campaigns; the second part gives practical information for designing, implementing, and evaluating a campaign.

The first part begins with a presentation of some statistics on road accidents in Europe, their main causes, and explanations. The important role of human factors in accidents is then discussed. In view of providing insight into what motivates a road user to adopt unsafe behaviour, and how to modify these motivations, we have described the major theoretical models found in this field of research. Next, we have described some different types of campaigns and marketing strategies, as well as key elements for enhancing the chances of success in future road safety communication campaigns, further emphasising the importance of learning from the past. We have insisted on the importance of identifying the target audience and its characteristics, selecting a specific target audience, and segmenting that audience, if necessary, before designing the message. We have outlined the development of the message for different media and described how the content of the message is presented and processed. We have also detailed the features of road safety communication campaigns. Last but not least, we have presented the different designs, techniques, and tools available for evaluating campaigns, including reliable methods for testing the campaign's effect(s), recommendations for isolating these effects when the campaign is combined with other action(s), and methods for assessing cost-efficiency and cost-effectiveness.

The second part of the manual presents a wealth of practical information for designing, implementing, and evaluating road safety communication campaigns, information that was obtained in part from interviews with campaign practitioners and evaluators in Europe and abroad. We have detailed the six steps to take when developing a campaign:

- *Getting started*, which involves identifying the problem, analysing the organisational and socio-economic context of road safety, determining the budget including the cost for research and campaign evaluation, selecting partners and stakeholders who could be involved in the campaign process, developing the creative brief, and looking into possible contributions of outside agencies and their interactions with the initiator.

- *Analysing the situation*, which includes performing an in-depth analysis of the problem and its possible solutions based on research and past initiatives, identifying the target audience and conducting research on how to reach and influence it, and translating the overall goal of the campaign into specific objectives.
- *Designing the campaign and the evaluation*, which involves defining the campaign strategy, designing the message content and style, choosing the media vehicles and media plan, developing and pre-testing the message and slogans in their full context, and planning and pre-testing the campaign evaluation.
- *Conducting the before-period evaluation and implementing the campaign*, including outlining the before-phase of the evaluation, the production of campaign materials, and the actual launch of the campaign.
- *Completing the evaluation and drawing conclusions*, which involves implementing the chosen method for the during- and/or after-period evaluations, including quality control of each evaluation, data processing and analysis, and cost- and cost-effectiveness assessments; this allows practitioners to draw valid conclusions and assess the limitations of the campaign.
- *Writing the final report*, using a standard report outline and reviewing all information needed by the reader to arrive at a good understanding of the campaign and its results.

Based on the material presented in this manual, we would like to make the following general recommendations.

Base the campaign on statistics and research

We recommend that campaigns be based on a solid foundation: databases of road-accident statistics, offences, research (observations, surveys, market studies, models for predicting and explaining behaviour, models of behaviour change). Campaigns can also be based on emerging issues. Statistics are generally the first aid to defining the theme of a campaign because they provide initial information about the target audience. However, statistical information is not sufficient in and of itself. It is therefore useful to base the campaign on available studies, and/or to conduct additional studies designed around theoretical models whenever the necessary information is not available. Such custom-designed studies can provide in-depth information about the problem behaviour and factors that might predict it, while existing published research helps in identifying the target audience in detail and segmenting it into smaller groups.

Select a specific target audience

To reach the target audience and increase the likelihood of modifying its behaviour, campaign practitioners should carefully define their audience. Defining the target audience requires great attention to detail, and can be done by means of audience segmentation. Segmentation techniques can be based on demographic, geographic, psychographic, and/or behaviour variables, theoretical models, or the characteristics of the primary and secondary audiences. Crossing different segmentation criteria can be useful to achieve greater precision. The five elements of the marketing mix, and thus of the message, must be adapted to each segment. Selecting a specific target audience also enables practitioners to set up comparison groups for evaluating the campaign. In such evaluations, experimental subjects exposed to the campaign are compared with subjects from a supposedly similar population not exposed to the campaign (without random assignment between the two groups). Alternatively, a population not specifically targeted by the campaign but exposed to it may be compared to a population specifically targeted by the campaign.

Translate the overall goal into specific objectives

The overall goal of the campaign was defined on the basis of previous research, so it offers a preliminary idea about what the theme of the campaign should be, as well as a notion of who the possible target audience(s) might be. However, such general information usually does not provide the level of specificity required for developing a campaign strategy. That is why it is quite useful to define specific campaign objectives. The campaign's specific objectives must precisely identify the problem behaviour that needs to be changed into safe behaviour (the primary specific objective), as well as other factors (the secondary objectives) that might contribute to achieving this primary objective, i.e., to cause the target audience to adopt the safe behaviour. In addition to being the cornerstones of the campaign strategy, these elements will be the basis of the campaign evaluation, and the yardstick for measuring whether or not the campaign was successful (i.e., achieved its goal and objectives).

Devise the campaign strategy and plan the campaign

The campaign strategy refines the goal and the specific objectives in operational fashion. It is part of an overall social-marketing strategy aimed at changing behaviour. The campaign strategy is based on the theoretical models used to define the specific objectives, so it is critical in determining the type of campaign to run. Indeed, the campaign can be a purely media-based campaign or be combined with other actions. It can be conducted on different levels: locally, regionally, or nationally, depending on the problem behaviour, the target audience, and the areas where the problem occurs most. The campaign strategy also defines how the target audience can be reached and influenced. The campaign, the communication strategy, and any supportive activities must all be carefully planned. The message, choice of media, media plan, and supportive activities must serve the chosen strategy by getting the message to the selected target audience.

Formulate the message

A message is more likely to have an effect if the person receiving it feels motivated to process it. This in turn increases the chances of having the person process the message in depth, which implies actively thinking about it and elaborating upon its content. However, motivation alone is not enough. An individual also must have the cognitive ability to process a message, something that can only happen when the message is understandable. Accordingly, an effective message must be believable to the audience (credible), be honest and convey a behaviour that is possible to achieve (trustworthy), be heard repeatedly (consistent), easy to understand (clear), capable of generating change (persuasive), relevant to the person (relevant), and appealing (attractive). The message should therefore be based on general persuasion models and models of specific techniques such as framing. In testing a message, the thought-listing task is a valuable tool for determining which messages lead to greater changes in knowledge, beliefs, and/or behaviour.

Conduct a proper implementation of the campaign

The timing of the launch is very important since it creates unique opportunities to get free publicity for the campaign. In cases where the campaign is combined with other actions, careful coordination of all activities is important to make sure that each component is implemented as scheduled. This requires very strict organisation and good communication between the initiator and the campaign partners and mediators. To determine whether the campaign has been implemented as planned, and whether and to what extent the target audience is being reached, you should use the initial feedback from the process evaluation. This requires strict coordination and follow-up.

Ensure rigorous evaluation

The importance of evaluating road safety campaigns should not be underestimated. Evaluation may be costly, but it is the best way to find out if a campaign has been a success or not, and if the money was well spent. To draw valid conclusions about the campaign's effectiveness, cost-effectiveness, and efficiency, the campaign should be assessed against its specific objectives, while taking into account the baseline level of knowledge or the prevalence of the safe behaviour before the campaign. Moreover, if it is to abide by good principles of methodology, the evaluation should (a) refer to the theoretical model (or to the main predictors of the problem behaviour) on which the campaign was based, (b) use control or comparison group(s), and (c) use an appropriate design involving at least two measurements, taken before and after the campaign. As a supplement to these two measurement periods, during-campaign phases and/or additional post-campaign phases may be added to obtain more information on the stability of the campaign's effect(s).

Disseminate the results

The results should be presented in a final report. The report should include the rationale of the campaign as well as detailed results. It should be presented in a standard format and conclude with a discussion of the strengths and limitations of the campaign and how the results might be used to improve future campaigns. Such reports help practitioners build on past experiences when preparing, researching, and designing future campaigns. Whatever the effect(s) of the campaign, the final report should be made available in a library and indexed in a validated database of facts and knowledge. International online databases that index campaign reports and quantitative results are useful for communication practitioners and safety researchers desirous of designing, implementing and evaluating a road safety communication campaign in the future. They allow policymakers to develop effective road safety policies, and assist local, regional, and national authorities in making decisions regarding financial support for road safety campaigns.

REFERENCES

- ¹ European Commission. (2001). *White Paper – European transport policy for 2010: Time to decide*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. Retrieved 17 December 2008 from http://ec.europa.eu/transport/white_paper/documents/doc/lb_com_2001_0370_en.pdf
- ² Elliott, B. (1993). *Road safety mass media campaigns: A meta analysis*. Canberra: Federal Office of Road Safety.
- ³ Rice, R. E., & Atkin, C. K. (1994). Principles of successful communication campaigns. In J. Bryant & D. Zillmann (Eds.), *Media effects: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 365-388). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- ⁴ Vaa, T., Adamos, G., Areal, A., Ausserer, K., Delhomme, P., Divjak, M., de Dobbeleer, W., Forward, S., Krol, B., Meng, A., Synnøve Moan, I., Nathanail, T., Phillips, R., Pohlmeier, E., Sardi, G. M., Schepers, P., Sedá, E., Ulleberg, P., Walter, E. (2008). *Effects of Road Safety Campaigns* (Deliverable D-1.1). Brussels: Belgian Road Safety Institute.
- ⁵ Donovan, R. (1995). *Guidelines for creating effective road safety advertising*. Canberra: Federal Office of Road Safety.
- ⁶ Elliott, B. (1989). *Effective road safety campaigns: a practical handbook* (Report CR80). Canberra: Department of Transport and Communications.
- ⁷ OCDE. (1975). *Manual on road safety campaigns*. Paris: Author.
- ⁸ Wilde, G. J. S., L'Hoste, J., Sheppard, D., & Wind, G. (1971). *Road safety campaigns: Calculation and evaluation*. Paris: Author.
- ⁹ European Road Safety Observatory (2008). Traffic safety basic facts 2008. Main figures. Retrieved November 30, 2008 from <http://www.erso.eu>
- ¹⁰ Retrieved August 25, 2008, from <http://www.roadsafetyweb.net>
- ¹¹ Retrieved August 25, 2008, from http://ec.europa.eu/transport/roadsafety/road_safety_observatory/care_en.htm
- ¹² Retrieved August 25, 2008, from <http://www.irfnet.org/>
- ¹³ Retrieved August 25, 2008, <http://cemt.org/IRTAD/IRTADPUBLIC/about.htm>
- ¹⁴ Evans, L. (1991). *Traffic safety and the driver*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- ¹⁵ Insurance Institute for Highway Safety (IIHS). (1999). Deaths go up on interstate highways where higher speed limits are posted. Status Report, 34(1).
- ¹⁶ Department for Transport. (2005). *Making campaigning for smarter choices work. Guidelines for local authorities*. London: Author.
- ¹⁷ Retrieved October, 12, 2007 from <http://www.ryd.be>
- ¹⁸ Boulanger, A., Daniels, S., Divjak, M., Goncalves, I., Meng, A., Moan, I., Nathanail, E., Orozova-Bekkevold, I., Schepers, P., Tamis, K., Van den Bossche, F. & Zabukovec, V. (2009). Evaluation tool for road safety campaigns, CAST EU FP6 project, Brussels: BIVV.
- ¹⁹ Prochaska, J. O., & DiClemente, C. C. (1983). Stages and processes of self-change of smoking. Toward an integrative model of change. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 51, 390-395.
- ²⁰ Retrieved March 12, 2008, from <http://www.thinkroadsafety.gov.uk/campaigns/teenagers/teenagers.htm>
- ²¹ Parker, D., Reason, J. T., Manstead, A. S. R. Stradling, S. G (1995). Driving errors, driving violations and accident involvement. *Ergonomics*, 38, 1036-1048.
- ²² Ajzen, I. (2002). *Constructing a TPB questionnaire: Conceptual and methodological considerations*. Retrieved July 22, 2008 from <http://www-unix.oit.unmass.edu/~ajzen/>
- ²³ Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behaviour. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179-211
- ²⁴ Stead, M., Tagg, S., MacKintosh, A. M., & Eadie, D. (2004). Development and evaluation of a mass media Theory of Planned Behaviour intervention to reduce speeding. *Health Education Research*, 20, 36-50.
- ²⁵ MacDonald, G., Starr, G., Schooley, M., Yee, S. L., Klimowski, K., & Turner, K. (2001). *Introduction to program evaluation for comprehensive tobacco control programs*. Atlanta: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.
- ²⁶ National Social Marketing Centre for Excellence (2007). Logical framework for social marketing. London: National Consumer Council. Retrieved November 5, 2007 from <http://www.nsms.org.uk>
- ²⁷ Ulleberg, P. N., & Christensen, P. (2007). Virker "Sei ifrå!"- filosofien? Utvikling i antall skadde og drepte ungdommer i bil i Hordaland og Sogn og Fjordane (TØI rapport 881/2007). Oslo: Transportøkonomisk institutt.
- ²⁸ Retrieved August 22, 2008, from <http://www.ibsr.be/eurobob/index.shtml>
- ²⁹ Solomon, M., Gilbert, S.H., Nichols, J., Chaffe, R., Tison, J. & Chaudhary, N.K. (2007). *Evaluation of the May 2005 Click It or Ticket Mobilization to Increase Seatbelt Use* (Report No DOT HS 810 778). Washington: NHTSA.
- ³⁰ Williams, A.F., Reinfurt, D., & Wells, J.K. (1996). Increasing Seat Belt Use in North Carolina. *Journal of Safety Research*, 27 (1), 33-41.
- ³¹ Witte, K., Cameron, K., McKeon, J., & Berkowitz, J. (1996). Predicting risk behaviors: Development and validation of a diagnostic scale. *Journal of Health Communication*, 1, 317-341.
- ³² Retrieved March 8, 2007 from <http://www.tatouceinture.be> and from http://ec.europa.eu/transport/roadsafety/publications/projectfiles/euchires_2007_en.htm

- ³³ Kotler, P., Roberto, N., & Lee, N. (2002). *Social marketing: improving the quality of life*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.
- ³⁴ Retrieved March 8, 2008 from http://ec.europa.eu/transport/roadsafety/publications/projectfiles/euro-bob_2004-2005_en.htm
- ³⁵ Nienhuis, A. E., Manstead, A. S. R., & Spears, R. (2001). Multiple Motives and persuasive communication: Creative elaboration as a result of impression motivation and accuracy motivation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27(1), 118-132.
- ³⁶ D'Onghia, F., Dubois, N., & Delhomme, P. (2007). Effets du cadrage et de la présence d'une image dans les messages de prévention sur l'intention comportementale en faveur du respect des limitations de vitesse. *Les Cahiers Internationaux de Psychologie Sociale*, 75-76, 17-34.
- ³⁷ Cacioppo, J.T., Hoppel, W., & Ernst, M.J. (1997). Mapping cognitive structures and processes through verbal content the thought-listing technique. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 65(6), 928-940.
- ³⁸ Zwicker, T., Chaudary, N., Maloney, S. & Squelia, R. (2003). *Connecticut's 2003 impaired-driving high-visibility enforcement campaign*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Transportation.
- ³⁹ Retrieved September 4, 2007 from <http://www.pmb.ca>
- ⁴⁰ Siegel, M., & Doner, L. (1998). *Marketing public health: Strategies to promote social change*. Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers.
- ⁴¹ Boulanger, A., Daniels, S., Divjak, M., Goncalves, I., Meng, A., Moan, I., Nathanail, E., Orozova-Bekkevold, I., Schepers, P., Tamis, K., Van den Bossche, F. & Zabukovec, V. (2009). Evaluation tool for road safety campaigns, CAST EU FP6 project, Brussels: BIVV.
- ⁴² Barker, N., Scott, H., & Jackson, V. (2000). *Rear Seatbelts: Sudden Impacts, How Can We Measure the Cost of a Life*. Institute of Practitioners in Advertising. London, UK.
- ⁴³ Retrieved December 8, 2007 from <http://www.scotland.gov.uk/socialresearch>
- ⁴⁴ Delhomme, P., Vaa, T., Meyer, T., Harland, G., Goldenbeld, C., Järmark, S., Christie, N., & Rehnova, V. (1999). Evaluated road safety media campaigns: An overview of 265 evaluated campaigns and some meta-analysis on accidents (EC, Deliverable 4. Gadget project. Contract N°: RO-97-SC.2235). Arcueil: INRETS.
- ⁴⁵ Elvik, R. (2000). Evaluating the effectiveness of Norway's Speak Out! road safety campaign: The logic of causal inference in road safety evaluation studies. *Transportation Research Record*, 1717, 66-75.
- ⁴⁶ Sentinella, J. (2004). *Guidelines for evaluating road safety education interventions*. London: Department for Transport.
- ⁴⁷ Elvik, R. (2000). Evaluating the effectiveness of Norway's "Speak Out!" road safety campaign: The logic of causal inference in road safety evaluation studies. *Transportation Research Record*, 1717, 66-75.
- ⁴⁸ Elvik, R., & Vaa, T. (2004). *The handbook of road safety measures*. Oxford: Elsevier Science Ltd.
- ⁴⁹ Retrieved October 14, 2008, from http://www.researchsolutions.co.nz/sample_sizes.htm
- ⁵⁰ Delhomme, P., & Meyer, T. (2002). *La recherche en psychologie sociale. Projets, méthodes et techniques*. Paris: Cursus, Armand Colin.
- ⁵¹ Altman, J. (1974). Observational study of behaviour: Sampling methods. *Behaviour*, 49, 227-265.
- ⁵² Thompson, N. J., & McClintock, H. O. (2000). *Demonstrating your program's worth: A primer on evaluation for programs to prevent unintentional injury*. Atlanta: National Center for Injury Prevention and Control.
- ⁵³ Vivoda, J.M. & Eby, D.W, & Spradlin, H. (2003). Using personal digital assistants (PDAs) for the collection of safety belt use data in the field. The University of Michigan Transportation Research Institute. *Behaviour Research Methods*. 38(1), 158-164.
- ⁵⁴ Byrne, J. (2002). *Face the media: The complete guide to getting publicity and handling media opportunities*. Oxford: How to Books.
- ⁵⁵ Retrieved April 10, 2008, from <http://www.thinkroadsafety.gov.uk/campaigns/seatbelts/rear.htm>
- ⁵⁶ Ulleberg, P. & Christensen, P. (2007). *Does the "Speak Out!" philosophy work?*. Oslo: Transportøkonomisk institutt.
- ⁵⁷ Ulleberg, P., Elvik, R., & Christensen, P. (2004). *Evaluation of the "Speak Out!" road safety campaign in Telemark*. Oslo: Transportøkonomisk institutt.
- ⁵⁸ American Psychological Association (2002). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association*. Washington, DC: Author.