Public Awareness Campaigns

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Public Awareness Campaigns

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Military REACH, a project of the DoD-USDA Partnership for Military Families, utilizes a multi-disciplinary approach integrating both Research and Outreach to support those who work with and on behalf of military families. Through our three-fold approach, we provide empirical research that identifies and addresses key issues impacting military families and the programs that serve them, offer outreach and professional development through online resources, and host a Live Learning Lab for program staff seeking constructive professional development feedback for their programs.

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Public Awareness Campaigns

Executive Summary

Public awareness campaigns (PACs) can be an effective component of a comprehensive strategy to promote change at the level of the individual, organization, community, or society. This report provides an introduction to PACs and reviews awareness campaigns specific to child maltreatment and intimate partner violence. It concludes with an overview of campaign evaluation.

A high-level overview of the relevant literature defines public awareness campaigns and describes two types of campaigns, including campaigns aimed at (1) changing individual behavior, and (2) engaging people in a process to change policy or social norms. Both types of campaigns use a variety of modalities such as billboards, brochures, television (TV) advertisements (ads), and social media posts. The most effective campaigns design messages for particular target audiences by drawing on theories of behavior and social change. Implementing a PAC is difficult, and many do not succeed due to challenges such as limited time and funding.

The child maltreatment and intimate partner violence (IPV) PAC sections discuss theories, goals, and approaches specific to these topics. Numerous examples of campaigns as well as short descriptions of their methods and websites are provided. In addition, research on the effectiveness of child maltreatment and IPV campaigns is discussed. It is important to note that campaigns can have positive outcomes such as raising child maltreatment and IPV awareness and increasing the willingness of bystanders to intervene; however, they can also have unintended negative consequences such as desensitizing perpetrators to the severity of the topic or inducing negative feelings in victims.

Campaign evaluation is essential for understanding whether and how a campaign is associated with intended changes in behavior, policy, or norms. Evaluation results provide important information about possible unintended effects, ways to improve the implementation process, and strategies to maximize effective use of resources. This campaign evaluation section describes the stages of evaluation, provides specific examples of metrics, and discusses potential challenges inherent to campaign evaluation. Evaluation data may be gathered in a variety of manners, drawing upon quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies.

In sum, ten best practices for implementing an effective public awareness campaign emerged in this literature review, including:

- Implement a theory-driven process
- Identify partnerships
- Assess the target audience’s readiness to change
- Tailor the message to the target audience
- Ensure the campaign is unique and novel
- Employ multiple campaign messages
- Incorporate multiple communication modalities
- Anticipate and prevent potential negative outcomes
- Invest both time and resources in evaluation
- Minimize external factors that may influence outcomes

Engaging in these best practices may help an organization craft and evaluate a public awareness campaign that succeeds in changing individual behavior and social norms.
Public Awareness Campaigns

Promoting behavior change in a person, community, or society is difficult, but retail advertisers, advocacy groups, and policymakers dedicate tremendous resources to such initiatives. In the marketplace, business groups and retail marketers have long studied how to get consumers into their stores and buy more than they need (Bruce & Tiger, 2010). Advocacy groups and non-profits have used some of the principles found in the study of consumerism, along with independent research, to understand how to cultivate behavior change at all levels of society.

One tool commonly used to stimulate behavior change is public awareness campaigns (PACs), which are also known as public communications campaigns, public information campaigns, media campaigns, and public education campaigns. As identified by the United States Government Accountability Office (GAO, 2010), the Department of Defense (DoD) is dedicated to addressing the key issue of domestic violence in the military. Per the Deputy Secretary of Defense, the military will not tolerate domestic violence among its Service members and has implemented public awareness campaigns on the issue. Yet, the GAO found that the DoD is constrained in knowing the impact of its domestic violence PACs due to insufficient data collection methods and evaluation metrics.

A review of the scientific literature (primarily published between 2000 and 2015) regarding public awareness campaigns (with a focus on child maltreatment and intimate partner violence) was conducted, including a comprehensive search in PsycINFO, Google Scholar, Ovid Medline, and Sociological Abstracts. A variety of search terms were used, including public awareness campaign, marketing campaign, communications campaign, media campaign, planning, evaluation, effectiveness, efficacy, impact, implementation, metrics, measures, and barriers. Over 200 documents were critically reviewed for use within this report, including empirical articles, relevant literature reviews, technical reports, and policy briefs.

This report reviews the literature regarding PACs in general, and has a specific focus on PACs addressing child maltreatment and intimate partner violence. To begin, we define PACs, review the different types of campaigns, and consider diverse modalities and messaging. Relevant theories are described, followed by overarching, generic components of marketing campaigns and barriers to successful implementation. Next, PACs focused on child maltreatment and intimate partner violence are examined, including general approaches used and results of effectiveness research. The final section of this report reviews metrics for evaluating PACs, including what to assess, how to assess the outcomes, and measurement challenges.

**Definition**

A public awareness campaign has been defined as “a comprehensive effort that includes multiple components (messaging, grassroots outreach, media relations, government affairs, budget, etc.) to help reach a specific goal” (Bouder, 2013, Public Awareness Campaign section, para. 1). Usually, a campaign strives to raise awareness about a key issue and induce a desired positive behavioral change (Coffman, 2002). PACs span a wide range of topics from smoking cessation to environmental issues to domestic violence. The scale and scope of PACs are usually determined by the desired behavior change.
Types of Campaigns

In order for a PAC to result in measurable behavioral change, developers need to dedicate time and resources to substantial planning. A comprehensive plan assists organizations and agencies in understanding all aspects of a PAC. For instance, if multimedia strategies are going to be employed, the planning phase involves scaffolding them to meet desired outcomes (e.g., using specific media strategies at different times to maximize the impact). A well-developed plan also integrates information about metrics and evaluation; the importance of considering evaluation from the early planning stages cannot be understated and is examined in detail in the evaluation section of this report. Although planning is essential, a willingness to adapt to unanticipated changes that may arise is also important.

One important aspect that planners must identify is the type of PAC to be implemented. Coffman (2002) described two general types of PACs which have different goals—individual behavior change and public will. **Individual behavior change campaigns** strive to encourage people to modify a specific behavior, generally from a less socially desired behavior to a more socially desired one. The focus can vary widely, from promoting healthy eating to safe sex practices to seatbelt wearing. A specific example of an individual behavior change campaign is the *Adults and Children Together (ACT) Against Violence Campaign* (http://actagainstviolence.apa.org/). This campaign empowers parents and caregivers with information about how violent behavior can affect their children and aims to prevent violent behavior in families.

In contrast, **public will campaigns** (also known as public engagement campaigns) strive to promote policy change (Coffman, 2002). By providing people with an opportunity to respond to a call for policy change, these campaigns mobilize people to engage in processes that change broader organizations or systems (Coffman, 2002; Henry & Rivera, 1998). The use of public will campaigns has recently increased, but they are less researched and less understood than individual behavior change campaigns. An example of a public will campaign is *The Truth Campaign* (www.thetruth.com). This anti-smoking campaign seeks to inform the public about tobacco companies and the strategies they use to induce youth to smoke. *The Truth Campaign’s* desired outcome is to change social norms and eliminate smoking, thereby putting tobacco companies out of business. Via both TV and online content, the Campaign involves youth in a social movement to end smoking.

**Campaign Modalities**

PACs utilize many forms of media to promote their specific messages. Traditional modalities include TV, radio, magazines, newspapers, brochures, billboards, and posters (Wakefield & Hornik, 2010). Campaign organizers often use multiple modalities in attempting to reach as many people as possible. Beyond these traditional modalities, PACs are becoming more sophisticated and adding social media, such as Facebook and Twitter, as well as Internet sources such as pop-up ads and YouTube channels to their campaign efforts. Furthermore, groups such as *DoSomething.org* have found that to engage young people, a website paired with personalized text messaging can be effective in promoting awareness and calls to action (Boyd, 2014).
Public Awareness Campaigns

Messaging

When an organization, agency, or group decides to implement a PAC, it is important to consider not only the type of campaign (individual behavior change and/or public will campaign) and the modality, but also the kind of knowledge development necessary to induce behavior change. PACs are based on the conceptual idea that if people know more information about a specific issue, they will change their behavior (Bruce & Tiger, 2010). PACs disseminate new knowledge through their messaging. The selection of the kind of messaging is affected by the desired change.

Messaging is defined as “a series of words and phrases that are most persuasive to key audiences, based on specific research. Messaging is not utilizing words or phrases that sound good or that we think have been persuasive in the past” (Bouder, 2013, Messaging section, para. 1). Messaging presents facts about the key issue as a means of educating the individual, community, or society. Different types of knowledge and the way and order in which the information is presented can impact the success of a PAC (Bruce & Tiger, 2010).

PACs generally convey one or more of three types of knowledge, including impact, procedural, and normative knowledge. First, impact knowledge includes general information, facts, and figures about the topic (Bolderdijk, Gorsira, Keizer, & Steg, 2013; Bruce & Tiger, 2010). When a PAC disseminates impact knowledge, it is attempting to simply make people aware of the issue. For example, an advertisement campaign Safe Horizon conveys impact knowledge by stating that one in four women will experience domestic violence at some time in their lives (“Safe Horizon,” n.d.).

Second, PACs that pair the dissemination of information with a call to action foster procedural knowledge (Bruce & Tiger, 2010; Khan, Alghathbar, & Khan, 2011). By enhancing the message with a way to take action, the messaging is actively engaging the audience. An example of procedural knowledge in messaging is a website, A Billion Acts of Green (“Earth Day”, n.d.), that provides information about how to take care of the environment and includes specific suggested actions (e.g., composting, recycling) and ways to participate in campaigns. In this way, the program developers are pairing facts with specific action strategies they hope website readers will consider.

Third, normative knowledge focuses on the norms of groups rather than individuals, and some PACs target their information to this broader level (Bruce & Tiger, 2010; Edwards, Klein, Lee, Moss, & Philip, 2012). Using the domestic violence example previously described, rather than solely providing information about domestic violence in general, an ad targeting normative knowledge may include statistics about how many members of the target audience’s local community experience domestic violence; the ad could encourage viewers to volunteer in their communities for a local domestic violence shelter or nonprofit organization. In this way, the ad not only emphasizes the prevalence of domestic violence, but places the issue in the context of one’s local community and offers ways individuals can get involved to benefit others locally.

An example of a campaign that targets normative knowledge is the Got Consent? campaign. This PAC aims to change social norms around sexual behavior by making explicit consent a normal part of the process. It seeks to reframe consent as sexy. An example of a message conveyed via this campaign is “Don’t assume you know what they want. Ask … It’s sexy” (http://www.gotconsent.ca). By disseminating
this message, this campaign strives to change broad social norms about consent seeking in sexual behavior. Some military Sexual Assault Prevention and Response teams have disseminated this Got Consent? campaign message on their installations via t-shirts, banners, and informational brochures (e.g., Deichert, 2011).

The mechanism of action of normative knowledge is predicated on social norms research. This line of inquiry seeks to understand how the environment, or what other individuals are doing, can impact individual or societal behavior change (Cialdini & Griskevicius, 2010; Goldstein & Mortensen, 2011). Researchers have defined six general principles that can shape individual compliance with social norms (Cialdini & Griskevicius, 2010), including the tendency to return a gift, favor, or some other service; consistency with prior commitments; mimicking what similar peers do; granting requests by familiar or admired people; following the lead of authority figures; and seeking rare or unusual opportunities. Consideration of these principles can be helpful when developing and implementing awareness campaigns focused on group norms.

In sum, the planning stages of awareness campaigns require consideration of the goal, targeted knowledge, audience, and specific message. In some contexts, only one type of knowledge is targeted to achieve the desired outcome. However, usually messages target some combination of the impact, procedural, and normative knowledge.

Theoretical Background

Public awareness campaigns function to change individual behavior, societal norms, policies or some combination of these outcomes. Most effective PACs are grounded in a solid theoretical framework. The theory of planned behavior, social cognitive theory, and the transtheoretical model for behavior change all offer important insights that can inform the development of successful PACs.

Theory of Planned Behavior

The theory of planned behavior (formerly known as the theory of reasoned action) seeks to predict behavioral intention, or how likely a person would be to perform a particular behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Coffman, 2002; Madden, Ellen & Ajzen, 1992). Important conceptual contributions of the original theory of reasoned action were that behavioral intention was predicted by a combination of attitudes and perceived norms. In other words, a person is more likely to perform a specific behavior if the behavior is deemed important and if he/she believes others would approve of the behavior.

Early research on this model supported these ideas and found it to be helpful for inducing consumer behavior change in the business world (Sheppard, Hardwick & Warsaw, 1988). However, researchers later determined that other predictors were also helpful for understanding individual behavior (Madden, Ellen & Ajzen, 1992). Specifically, for a behavior to occur, a person needs to have: (1) the intention to do the behavior; (2) a favorable attitude towards the behavior; (3) the belief that others approve of the behavior; and (4) a confidence or feeling of control over the behavior. In light of this theory, effective PACs may promote the idea that the behavior change is positive and will be seen as such by others. They may also empower people to believe they can make the actual behavior change by building confidence and offering specific steps.
Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory is rooted in the understanding that behavior is influenced by observing other people’s behavior as well as by subsequent rewards or punishments (Bandura, 1986; Coffman, 2002). Behavior is not learned in an isolated setting, but rather is shaped by imitating other models. Self-efficacy, the belief that one can perform a task or overcome a challenge (Bandura, 1993), was later added as a key component of this theory, and is similar to the fourth element of the theory of planned behavior (above). Social cognitive theory is important in the development of PACs because media can be used to demonstrate desired behaviors and shape thinking (Bandura 2002, 2004). For example, in the arena of health promotion, social cognitive theory can help explain how to motivate individuals to pursue desired behavior outcomes such as by building confidence in losing weight or providing role models for quitting smoking. Campaigns can include testimonials of people who have successfully completed the behavior (e.g., quit smoking), and can emphasize the health benefits of the behavior change (e.g., being nicotine free).

Transtheoretical Model

Another important theoretical framework to consider when designing PACs is the transtheoretical model for behavior change (Prochaska, DiClemente, & Norcross, 1992). This theory seeks to explain the process that individuals go through in making enduring behavior change. It describes five stages of behavior change (precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance), and offers interventions for behavior change corresponding with each stage. The highest chances for successful behavior change are when an intervention is matched to the proper level of a person’s readiness. PACs may be most effective when they target their message with the audience’s level of readiness to change. Different kinds of knowledge (impact, normative, procedural) and distinct modes of transmission may be most effective for campaigns aiming to move people to the desired end goal.

Components of Public Awareness Campaigns

Although every public awareness campaign is unique, each campaign includes some general components. These core components include the following:

- **Target audience(s).** It is important for campaign organizers to consider their target audience(s) from the onset of development. An enhanced understanding of the audience helps organizers tailor the PAC to appeal to their views, needs, and opinions. The audience determines the types of media used and the message delivery approach (Weiss & Tschirhart, 1994).

- **Messaging.** Once PAC organizers carefully define their target audience, it is important to utilize principles of commercial advertising to craft their message. In today’s world where consumers are bombarded by advertising, PACs are competing for limited space with other ads; they are also trying to capture an audience that has a smaller attention span than in the past. For these reasons, PACs are most effective when their messaging is creative, catchy, and interesting (Weiss & Tschirhart, 1994).
When crafting a message, the following six general principles that make messages more “sticky” or more likely to be remembered can be helpful, including: (1) simplicity; (2) unexpectedness; (3) concreteness; (4) credibility; (5) emotions; and (6) stories (Heath & Heath, 2007). Simple, clear messages involving a basic slogan or idea tend to have more impact. Similarly, pairing new information (or old information delivered in an unexpected way) with concrete messages from credible sources can increase a message’s stickiness. By appealing to the audience’s emotions with easily remembered stories, the message is more likely to impact audience members.

• **Planning.** As described in the preceding section, PAC organizers generally develop an overall design plan to guide the campaign (Bouder, 2013). This plan includes information relevant to the message, but also allows organizers to consider how to scaffold media types (e.g., radio, TV, twitter, Facebook) for lasting impact. For example, a particular PAC may be best delivered by having multiple media channels, so social media blasts may be coordinated with radio and TV ads. Also, PAC organizers need to consider the duration of the campaign with respect to achieving the desired outcome. As discussed in the evaluation section of this report, duration is a key variable in measuring a PAC’s impact (Coffman, 2002; Weiss & Tschirhart, 1994).

• **Network/partnership development.** During the development and implementation phases, organizers may wish to examine whether their PAC relates to other active initiatives at the local, regional, state, or national level; organizers may strive to complement and collaborate with those initiatives (Bouder, 2013). This may include partnering with other agencies that have related campaigns or initiatives to collectively reach a broader audience. Such partnerships may also to maximize resources for PACs with smaller budgets or fewer resources.

• **Complementary materials.** In addition to the PAC itself, organizers often create four types of additional materials (Bouder, 2013), including talking points, fact sheets, brochures, and training materials. For example, *The Seven Campaign* (The Seven Campaign, 2012) includes message points, logos, and petition forms with their informational videos and posters in raising awareness about child maltreatment. Sometimes a well-developed PAC will attract unexpected attention (e.g., from the mass media) and become larger than originally intended, which can have positive outcomes. PAC organizers want to be prepared with these materials if their campaign attracts interest from larger networks.

• **Evaluation.** PAC organizers design and implement an evaluation plan. As discussed in detail in the evaluation section of this report, evaluation is broad, complex, and multifaceted. Administrative evaluation includes tasks such as ensuring compliance with the original plan and timeline, managing the budget and staffing, and dealing with problems that arise. Campaign evaluation consists of a set of measures or metrics to determine if the PAC is meeting its desired outcomes. This information is important for understanding the impact of the PAC.
Barriers to Successful Campaign Implementation

Implementing effective PACs is difficult, and many do not succeed. Organizers can fail to meet their goals, outcomes, or objectives for a variety of reasons. The design and implementation phases of PACs need to strive to anticipate and mitigate barriers.

This section reviews common implementation barriers including time, saturation, stickiness, finances, and cultural sensitivity. Challenges can also arise in the evaluation stage of campaign implementation; these are addressed in detail in a later section of this report.

- **Time.** During both the planning and implementation stages of a PAC, time can be a constraining factor (Bruce & Tiger, 2010). The planning stage consists of many time-intensive activities, including but not limited to conducting primary and secondary research, using focus groups to fine-tune messaging, identifying partners, and scaffolding media ads. Regarding PAC implementation, failing to allow adequate time, encountering unanticipated delays, and experiencing technical challenges with message dissemination can create problems. The campaign’s duration or the length of time allocated for the active messaging can vary, and at times needs to be extended. Although some PACs are brief, research has found that sufficient duration is a key factor in reaching desired outcomes (Thrasher et al., 2011). It is important that sufficient time be allotted in the project timeline for both the planning and the implementation stages.

- **Saturation.** Another major barrier to effective PACs is the sheer popularity of the strategy (Wakefield, Loken & Hornik, 2010). Numerous campaigns are simultaneously communicated to consumers on a wide variety of topics and issues. The sheer popularity of PACs means that each campaign has to work harder to be recognized amongst its competitors. In other words, the marketplace can reach saturation quickly, so standing out in the crowd can be difficult.

- **Stickiness.** Heath and Heath (2007) borrowed the term “stickiness” from Malcolm Gladwell’s book, *The Tipping Point* (2000). As summarized above, messages that are not memorable are unlikely to be successful. Delivering the message in an effective manner is a vital component to successful PACs.

- **Finances.** Inadequate financial resources can be a barrier to PAC implementation. If organizers do not have sufficient funds to purchase ad spaces or make commercials, the effectiveness of the PAC may be diminished. Regular review of budgets and fiscal resources is important throughout the process so as to avoid this implementation challenge (Bouder, 2013).

- **Cultural sensitivity.** Campaign messages that are not culturally-tailored to the target audience may be misinterpreted or seen as offensive by viewers, impeding successful campaign implementation. Campaign messaging and branding need to be sensitive to relevant cultural attitudes and viewpoints (Chao & So, 2011; Reeler et al., 2009). By providing culturally relevant information that is illustrated with culturally appropriate messages, a meaningful connection is established with the target audience, increasing the likelihood of effective communication.
(Manchaiah & Zhao, 2012). What may be considered as normal or acceptable in one culture could be considered rude or derogatory in another culture (Manchaiah & Zhao, 2012). Effective cultural tailoring requires a deep understanding of the target audience as well as buy-in from diverse stakeholders (Chao & So, 2011). One example of effective cultural tailoring is a health campaign targeting individuals from Asian cultures using messages delivered by a person of authority (e.g., a doctor or health care professional), as Asian culture tends to value hierarchy and authority (Chao & So, 2011).

In this section, the numerous types of public awareness campaigns, their diverse modalities, and various messaging strategies were defined. Three theoretical models that underpin PACs were described, as well as general components and barriers to success. The following section will specifically address PACs related to child maltreatment and intimate partner violence.

**Prevention of Child Maltreatment**

Child maltreatment is a critical issue that requires comprehensive assessment and intervention. It encompasses four distinct categories: sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, and neglect (Norman et al., 2012). During 2010, child protective service agencies determined 695,000 children were victims of maltreatment in the United States alone (Widom, Czaja, & Dutton, 2014). Of these children, approximately 1,560 died as a result of the abuse or neglect. Although the prevalence of child maltreatment is uncertain due to underreporting, it is estimated that 10% of children in high-income countries experience neglect and emotional abuse and 4 to 16% experience physical abuse.

Moreover, child maltreatment has been associated with a range of adverse health consequences in adulthood, including psychological and behavioral problems, such as depression, suicidal behavior, alcohol abuse, and risky sexual behavior (Norman et al., 2012). In addition, children may experience physical injuries or death due to maltreatment. While parents and caregivers perpetrate the majority of child maltreatment, acquaintances, teachers, and other relatives can also be perpetrators (Gilbert et al., 2009).

The following section provides information on PACs that address various forms of child maltreatment. The section begins with an overview of the goals, approaches, and target audiences of child maltreatment PACs. Then, examples of child maltreatment PACs are given. Finally, the available effectiveness research is summarized.

**General Goals**

Since the 1970s, public awareness campaigns (PACs) have served as an effective tool for increasing the general public’s knowledge about child maltreatment. A majority of child maltreatment PACs are multimodal and include diverse media components such as print, TV, radio, social media, websites, and helplines. For example, a PAC addressing child sexual abuse in an Israeli community used newspaper and TV ads, direct

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communication (e.g., personal sale), and public relations through partnerships with religious institutions (Boehm & Itzhaky, 2004). Similarly, The Period of PURPLE Crying campaign which targets shaken baby syndrome was originally marketed through only a brochure and DVD, but was later expanded to include print and radio ads, a website, and social media initiatives (Hennink-Kaminski & Dougall, 2009). On the other hand, some child maltreatment PACs only utilize one mode of communication. The Stop It Now! Minnesota campaign which targets potential child sexual abuse perpetrators broadcasted its message solely through billboards and transit posters, and the Don’t Shake the Baby campaign only used an informational packet (Pollard, 2006; Showers, 1992).

PACs targeting child maltreatment have two primary goals: (1) motivating individuals to change their behavior, and (2) motivating the general public to take action (Wrisley, 2005). Campaigns that address these two distinct goals are known as individual behavior change and public will campaigns, respectively. While many PACs attempt to stop child maltreatment by increasing reporting of maltreatment cases and increasing awareness of treatment options for both victims and perpetrators, PACs also focus on prevention of child maltreatment through education efforts.

Examples of individual behavior change campaigns include the Period of PURPLE Crying campaign and the Triple P Positive Parenting Program (Hennink-Kaminski & Dougall, 2009; Prinz, Sanders, Shapiro, Whitaker, & Lutzker, 2009). Both campaigns address potentially problematic parenting behaviors and encourage parents to modify their behavior to prevent future abuse and/or discontinue current abusive parenting practices. The Period of PURPLE Crying campaign addresses Shaken Baby Syndrome (SBS) by providing education on infant development and crying patterns (Hennink-Kaminski & Dougall, 2009). Through the dissemination of educational brochures and DVDs to new parents and childcare workers in hospitals and public health organizations, this campaign encourages adults to cease abusive behaviors.

Similarly, the Triple P Positive Parenting Program utilizes a multilevel approach to alter and prevent inappropriate parenting practices (Prinz et al., 2009). The Triple P Positive Parenting Program includes universal components that address the target population as a whole, such as radio and newspaper ads, along with more specific, intensive program components, such as consultations and parenting seminars, for families exhibiting risk factors.

A community-based campaign in Israel and the Face It campaign are examples of public will campaigns aimed at increasing reporting of child abuse cases (Boehm & Itzhaky, 2004; Face It, 2015). In an Israeli community, a professional team sought to reduce the stigma and dishonor associated with child sexual abuse through a public will campaign designed to raise levels of child sexual abuse reporting and treatment (Boehm & Itzhaky, 2004). This multidisciplinary team partnered with religious leaders and local youth organizations to teach community members about the harmful effects of child sexual abuse and provide sex education to students through informal community workshops and discussions. In contrast, the Face It campaign targeted the community level by publicizing child protection hotlines via their webpage and infographics (Face It, 2015). By pairing telephone numbers with slogans, such as “Our children can’t wait!” this campaign aimed to increase child abuse reporting as one component of their larger initiative to end child maltreatment.

Some researchers have recommended that PACs approach child maltreatment prevention more comprehensively, via education on child development, parenting skills, and existing community resources.
development, parenting skills, and existing community resources; it is hoped that this approach would more effectively change damaging individual behavior to prevent future child abuse and increase utilization of existing resources (Kirkpatrick, 2004; Poole, Seal, & Taylor, 2014; Wrisley, 2005). A recent analysis of 15 universal child abuse and neglect PACs found that a majority of the PACs assessed took this approach and addressed three major topics, including positive parenting techniques, child development, and the stigma of asking for help (Poole et al., 2014). By increasing parental knowledge of developmentally appropriate expectations of children and non-physical positive parenting techniques, these campaigns targeted parental risk factors for child physical abuse, such as inappropriate punishments and parental stress.

**Theoretical Approaches and Models**

In considering child maltreatment PACs, it is important to review not only their general approaches, but also their theoretical approaches and models. Two overarching models emerged in the literature, including the social marketing approach and strategic reframing (Wrisley, 2005). The social marketing approach draws upon commercial marketing techniques to promote healthy individual and societal behaviors; strategic reframing campaigns target current public beliefs and opinions.

**Social marketing approach.** With respect to the social marketing approach, campaigns can identify and target groups that exhibit specific beliefs and behaviors. For example, a campaign designed to stop child sexual abuse and increase reporting tailored campaign materials for three distinct groups, including individuals opposed to reporting (e.g., perpetrators and some religious authorities), individuals who favored reporting, and undecided individuals (Boehm & Itzhaky, 2004). The campaign team approached each subgroup with the specific campaign information that would hopefully be most persuasive to their perspectives. The team also incorporated people in favor of reporting (e.g., youth workers and some religious authorities) into community-based efforts to convince individuals who were undecided that reporting abuse was an important step towards appropriate treatment.

Similarly, two other campaigns, namely the *Stop It Now! Minnesota* campaign (targeting potential child sexual abuse perpetrators) and *The Period of PURPLE Crying* campaign (targeting new parents and childcare workers) adapted general marketing materials to specific groups. Program developers conducted focus groups with the target populations during the development phase, and used that information in developing their print ads and informational brochures (Hennink-Kaminski & Dougall, 2009; Pollard, 2006).

**Strategic reframing.** Strategic reframing tailors campaign efforts to target current public beliefs and opinions. The likelihood of community engagement and behavior change can increase when campaigns alter inaccurate beliefs (Aubrun & Grady, 2003). Some have suggested that child maltreatment PACs should address commonly held, incorrect beliefs about child development, teach appropriate discipline for children, and refute the idea that child rearing is a family-only issue. By framing child rearing as a community issue, PACs are more likely to garner support from the general public for policy initiatives addressing...
child development (Auburn & Grady, 2003). PACs emphasizing the importance of child development and increasing awareness of available community resources can broaden the discussion surrounding child maltreatment, emphasizing the essential role of all community members (FrameWorks Institute, 2009).

Target Audience

Child maltreatment PACs either take a universal approach or address a specific sub-population, such as parents, childcare workers, or potential perpetrators (Poole et al., 2014). Although most child maltreatment campaigns target specific groups, universal campaigns have distinct benefits in attempting to address the root causes of the problem and creating an environment where desired (respectful) behavior is supported (Klevens & Whitaker, 2007; Poole et al., 2014). An example of a child maltreatment PAC with a universal audience is The Seven Campaign (The Seven Campaign, 2012). This global campaign distributes marketing materials, such as informational videos, flyers, posters, and petition forms, and encourages individuals to become advocates to end child maltreatment. Similarly, New Zealand's Campaign for Action on Family Violence seeks to decrease societal tolerance of family violence and actual violence within families, including child abuse (McLaren, 2010). This campaign uses a multimodal, universal approach, including national TV ads, media training, and community-level funding.

Many PACs target their campaigns to specific subgroups. This approach can address concerns unique to subgroups and can target high-risk individuals. Child maltreatment PACs often target parents and caregivers. Campaigns focusing on shaken baby syndrome distribute informational brochures to parents of newborns (Hennink-Kaminski & Dougall, 2009; Showers, 1992). Another campaign targeting a specific subgroup is the Stop It Now! Minnesota campaign (Pollard, 2006), which seeks to prevent child maltreatment via billboards that inform potential perpetrators about helplines and psychological resources.

In sum, PACs can disseminate information on child maltreatment to the general public and encourage changes in individual and group behavior. Although the modes of transmission vary greatly across campaigns, most child maltreatment campaigns are multimodal and use combinations of print media, broadcast media, and electronic resources. Some PACs seek to increase the reporting of child abuse and empower victims to seek treatment, while others focus on prevention-related efforts. Universal education campaigns distributing information about child development and community resources show promise for preventing future abuse and neglect. Campaigns targeting specific at-risk populations, such as parents and caregivers, are also important in stopping child maltreatment.
# Examples of Child Maltreatment Campaigns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Campaign</th>
<th>URL</th>
<th>Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CAN Council Great Lakes Bay Region</td>
<td><a href="http://cancouncil.org/public-awareness">http://cancouncil.org/public-awareness</a></td>
<td>Colorful van for education program, radio PSAs, open houses, events during April</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Darkness to Light</td>
<td><a href="http://www.d2l.org/site/c.4dlCUIOkGciSE/b.6035035/k.8258/Prevent_Child_Sexual_Abuse.html#.VTpevyFVikp">http://www.d2l.org/site/c.4dlCUIOkGciSE/b.6035035/k.8258/Prevent_Child_Sexual_Abuse.html#.VTpevyFVikp</a></td>
<td>Billboard, videos, training programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face it Campaign</td>
<td><a href="http://faceitabuse.org/">http://faceitabuse.org/</a></td>
<td>Posters, events, education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Advocacy Program Child Abuse Prevention</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LpZIkUJ43-M">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LpZIkUJ43-M</a></td>
<td>Video</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I Stop Abuse</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cFJyCTncL2w">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cFJyCTncL2w</a></td>
<td>Video, posters, social media community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It Only Takes a Minute</td>
<td><a href="http://itonlytakesaminute.org/">http://itonlytakesaminute.org/</a></td>
<td>Pledge cards, pins, magnets, posters, all for public education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Alliance of Children’s Trust and Prevention Funds</td>
<td><a href="http://www.ctfalliance.org/">http://www.ctfalliance.org/</a></td>
<td>Training, technical, and peer consulting to groups, website resources</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Recent years have witnessed an increased interest in evidence-based campaign approaches and in accurately assessing the effectiveness of PACs for child maltreatment (Evans, Falconer, Khan, & Ferris, 2012). As outlined below, research on the effectiveness of child abuse campaigns has included several outcomes including child abuse knowledge, attitude changes, rates of child abuse reports, rates of substantiated child maltreatment, and rates of out-of-home placement and child injury. The majority of studies in this area have addressed the strengths and limitations of specific media and campaign modes (e.g., newspapers, TV commercials, radio, billboards) regarding campaign effectiveness. This section will review the current research on PACs for child maltreatment and examine campaigns based on both multifaceted approaches and alternative campaign strategies.

**Multifaceted Campaign Approaches**

The most effective approach for child maltreatment prevention and education campaigns is the use of a multifaceted strategy. For more than thirty years, public health policy has emphasized the importance of multifaceted campaigns incorporating approaches that can include media efforts, commercials,
Public Awareness Campaigns

The most effective approach for child maltreatment prevention and education campaigns uses a multifaceted strategy.

newspaper ads, billboards, and celebrity advocacy (Barth, 2009; Horsfall, Bromfield, & McDonald, 2010). Using multiple campaign modes has led to an increase in overall awareness and willingness to take action with regards to child maltreatment. Media-based marketing campaigns can enhance public awareness, provide education, and promote prosocial behaviors within communities and families.

A report by the National Child Protection Clearinghouse (2010) examined the effectiveness of social marketing PACs in preventing child maltreatment. Of the 12 campaigns reviewed, five demonstrated increased awareness of child abuse and neglect, three showed increased knowledge about child abuse, and four reported positive attitudinal changes. The most common goal in the campaigns was educating parents and families about child abuse. For example, the U.S. Triple-P Parenting Population Trial involved a mass media campaign to promote positive parenting, destigmatize help-seeking behaviors, and recruit parents to participate in a parenting program (Prinz et al., 2009). The program had multiple levels and engaged parents in relation to the severity of their child maltreatment issues. Evaluation of this campaign addressed the broader population level; specifically, there was a significant decrease in the rates of substantiated child maltreatment as well as out-of-home placement and child injury requiring hospital care in the targeted community.

Another example is a multimedia campaign conducted in South Carolina to enhance public understanding of the relationship between parental addiction and child maltreatment (Andrews, McLeese & Curran, 1995). The campaign’s key message was “Alcohol abuse. Drug abuse. Child abuse. One thing leads to another.” Researchers conducted a random household survey asking individuals if they had seen or heard of the campaign billboards, newspaper ads, TV commercials, or posters. Results showed an increase in average number of monthly callers to a telephone hotline requesting skills to assist maltreated children in the ten months after the campaign began. Similarly, the average number of monthly calls to the child maltreatment information services regarding alcohol or other drug abuse behaviors tripled.

Finally, Schober, Fawcett and Bernier (2012) examined the Enough Abuse Campaign, a multidisciplinary, statewide effort to prevent child sexual abuse in Massachusetts. The campaign developed a curriculum that taught learners how to educate other community residents about child sexual abuse prevention. The trainers who participated in the two-day training course led many community presentations and workshops across Massachusetts, which led to approximately 2,000 local parents and professionals being trained to prevent child maltreatment. Trainers also disseminated information to residents across the state through TV public service announcements (PSAs), radio, and print outlets. Although this campaign did not assess outcomes, it provided an interesting, successful train-the-trainer model for disseminating information about child abuse prevention to community members.

Other Campaign Strategies

While most PACs draw upon several modalities to convey their messages, some single-element campaigns are also used, including elements such as public service announcements (PSAs) on YouTube or educational flyers. A small but growing body of research is considering the effectiveness of YouTube PSAs and TV commercials. For example, a 2011 study examined YouTube PSA effectiveness with 486 college students (Paek, Hove, Kim, & Jeong, 2011). Participants completed self-report measures before and immediately after watching three child abuse prevention YouTube videos. Participants who had an
increased emotional response to the video found the message to be more persuasive. Further, the more students indicated that child maltreatment was important, serious, and personally relevant, the more likely they were to report cases of abuse.

Non-media campaign strategies (e.g., educational materials, billboards) also reveal preliminary positive findings for child maltreatment PACs. For example, Mandell (2010) evaluated a campaign that inserted educational flyers regarding child maltreatment (“Stop, Look, and Listen”) with children’s report cards in mailings to parents (Mandell, 2010). Opening report cards and viewing grades can be possible triggers where parents might act in a hostile manner towards their children. Researchers found a consistent increase in calls to various hotlines each time the educational flyer was distributed; agencies reported that families saved the card and used the resource number at other times during the year. The study also found increases in parents calling for help and seeking assistance with the Parents Anonymous program (e.g., support program for parents).

Finally, a recent review of universal campaigns targeting child physical abuse recommended that, at minimum, child maltreatment campaigns address the most important risk factors in their campaign messages. Possible strategies for addressing key risk factors include reducing irrational and hasty parenting decisions, eliminating stigma associated with asking for parenting help, promoting an increase in social support for parents, improving awareness and use of positive parenting techniques, and increasing knowledge of appropriate developmental expectations for children (Poole, 2014).

In sum, child maltreatment campaigns use an array of approaches. The success of these campaigns is affected by several key factors, including target audience, campaign modes, and multifaceted versus single campaign approach. Due to the high economic- and health-related costs associated with child maltreatment, attention to public awareness campaigns and prevention programming is important.

**Prevention of Intimate Partner Violence**

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is associated with a range of possible adverse consequences for abused women and men, including physical injury and death, emotional and social problems, substance abuse, and reproductive problems (Wagman et al., 2012). Although both men and women perpetrate and are victims of IPV, 85% of domestic violence victims are women (Durose et al., 2005). IPV is the most common form of violence against women.

Sexual assault of women has been described as the most violent crime committed on college campuses today (Potter, Moynihan, & Stapleton, 2011). Not surprisingly, the population most commonly targeted in IPV campaigns is 16-24 year-old women. However, intimate partner violence occurs across ages, socioeconomic status, race, sexual orientation, and gender.

This section begins with an overview of common modalities of IPV awareness campaigns, and discusses theoretical frameworks, common approaches, and target audiences of these campaigns. Next, examples of IPV campaigns are provided. Finally, research on the effectiveness of IPV campaigns is summarized, highlighting the current knowledge base and the challenges in assessing the impact of such efforts.
Public Awareness Campaigns

Awareness Campaign Modalities

Public awareness campaigns targeting IPV employ various approaches (Casey & Smith, 2010; Cismaru & Lavack, 2011; Crooks et al., 2007; Keller & Otjen, 2007; Oliver, 2000; Potter et al., 2011; Potter & Stapleton, 2011; Wagman et al., 2012; Whitaker et al., 2006; Yoshihama, Ramakrishnan, Hammock, & Khaliq, 2012). Similar to child maltreatment campaigns, some IPV prevention campaigns use a single method for disseminating their message, such as posters, telephone campaigns, or TV ads (Casey & Smith, 2010; Mbilinyi et al., 2008; Potter et al., 2011; Potter & Stapleton, 2011), while others incorporate multiple approaches, including radio, YouTube videos, online blogs, and websites (Keller & Otjen, 2007; Wagman et al., 2012; Whitaker et al., 2006). Preliminary research suggests that IPV campaigns presented through traditional media (e.g., TV, newspaper, posters) tend to have a greater impact on women than men in increasing awareness of the severity of domestic violence (Keller, Wilkinson, & Otjen, 2010); however, more research is needed in this area.

The ability to evaluate IPV campaign effectiveness is influenced by several factors, including the modalities used, the targeted outcome variable (e.g., prosocial bystander behavior), and the specific population (e.g., perpetrator, victim, or bystander). The theoretical frameworks, approaches, and targeted populations vary across IPV campaigns, and the options available are important to consider when planning a successful campaign.

Theoretical Frameworks

An important component shaping the development and implementation of an IPV campaign is its underlying theoretical framework. Although some of these theories were described generally in this report’s introduction, this section describes how five theories have been used specifically in designing and implementing IPV campaigns, including: (1) the transtheoretical model (Casey & Smith, 2010; Cismaru & Lavack, 2011; Wagman et al., 2012); (2) cognitive behavioral theory (Casey & Smith, 2010); (3) protection motivation theory (Cismaru & Lavack, 2011); (4) feminist theory (Whitaker et al., 2006; Yoshihama et al., 2012); and (5) social learning theory (Crooks et al., 2007; Whitaker et al., 2006).

**Transtheoretical model.** The transtheoretical model (Wagman et al., 2012) has traditionally focused on promoting change in individuals and is based in the stages of change model (Prochaska et al., 1992). According to this theory, people progress through five specific stages when making a change, including precontemplation, contemplation, preparation for action, action, and maintenance. The transtheoretical model is generally used in PACs by applying the five stages of change as core strategies to addressing violence prevention and individual readiness to engage in behavior change over time (Casey & Smith, 2010). In addition, the transtheoretical model is helpful in assessing how the intervention strategy could be matched to an individual’s current readiness to prevent IPV, ranging from denial of the problem to active involvement in prevention activities (Casey & Smith, 2010).

For example, a campaign targeting IPV perpetrators in the pre-contemplation stage would strive to increase awareness of the negative facets of the problem, including the consequences of the perpetrator’s behavior. This goal can be achieved by disseminating campaign messages that: (1) encourage IPV perpetrators to recognize signs of an abusive relationship and take ownership of
the problem; (2) help perpetrators understand the consequences of engaging in IPV; and (3) empower perpetrators to avoid punishment by refraining from engaging in intimate partner violence.

An example of a public health IPV prevention intervention rooted in the transtheoretical model is the Safe Homes and Respect for Everyone (SHARE) Project (Wagman et al., 2012). In designing the SHARE Project, the five transtheoretical model individual stages of change were applied and transformed into community-level phases of change, including: (1) community assessment; (2) raising awareness; (3) building networks; (4) integrating action; and (5) consolidating efforts. In addition to these phases of change, the SHARE Project also incorporated five violence prevention strategies, including: (1) advocacy; (2) capacity building; (3) community activism; (4) learning materials; and (5) special events. The intervention focused on reducing IPV related to HIV disclosure in women seeking HIV testing; supportive counseling was provided through community-based providers. These theory-based phases and strategies were integrated throughout the development of the project to engage the community in discussion and activities to increase understanding of domestic violence, human rights, and women’s rights.

**Cognitive behavioral theory.** Cognitive behavioral theory is rooted in the belief that people’s cognitions play a significant role in their emotional and behavioral responses to life situations (Casey & Smith, 2010). Cognitive behavioral theory is generally used in PACs for addressing barriers to identifying and shaping an individual’s core beliefs about an issue. Specifically, this theory is helpful in identifying specific beliefs that support a desired behavior and creating opportunities to practice new behaviors, such as addressing common barriers for why bystanders do not get involved in violent incidents.

Casey and Smith (2010) applied both the transtheoretical model and cognitive behavioral theory to increasing awareness of sexual or domestic violence. They interviewed 27 male participants, all of whom were active in campus-based antiviolence events or presentations. Interview questions were rooted in the transtheoretical model and cognitive behavioral theory by addressing a range of important topics including the nature of their involvement, reasons for their antiviolence work, perceptions of effective strategies for engaging other men, perceptions of how to sustain men’s antiviolence efforts, and the impact of antiviolence activities on their thoughts, feelings, and behavior. Participants successfully facilitated ally development by engaging male peers in raising awareness of antiviolence work; these activities were based on addressing beliefs about the problem (a core component of cognitive behavioral theory), increasing motivation to make a difference, and providing opportunities to get involved in the cause.

**Protective motivation theory.** Protective motivation theory proposes five variables that influence an individual’s decision to adopt a particular recommended behavior, including: (1) vulnerability to the risk of negative consequences; (2) severity of the negative consequences; (3) response efficacy or the belief that the recommended behaviors will be effective in reducing or eliminating the danger; (4) self-efficacy or the belief that an individual has the
Public Awareness Campaigns

ability to abstain from violence; and (5) costs of all barriers to engaging in the recommended behavior (Cismaru & Lavack, 2011). The incentive to abstain from violence arises from the individual’s desire to avoid or minimize negative consequences. The protection motivation theory is beneficial to IPV PACs in fostering behavioral change by persuading domestic violence perpetrators to consider and curtail the consequences of their behavior, both for themselves and for others.

A review of 16 IPV campaigns found that many targeted IPV potential or actual perpetrators and drew upon both the transtheoretical model and protection motivation theory (Cismaru & Lavack, 2011). Together, campaigns based on these theories emphasized the benefits of change and strove to increase perpetrators’ confidence that they can abstain from violence and engage in respectful interpersonal behavior.

**Feminist theory.** Feminist theory aims to understand gender inequality, and has been applied to IPV PACs by defining abuse, dispelling myths about abuse, and disseminating information and techniques to reduce the prevalence of IPV (Whitaker et al., 2006). Yoshihama and colleagues (2012) drew upon feminist theory in their communications campaign, conceptualizing and describing IPV as a manifestation of unequal power relationships between men and women that are created and sustained through social institutions, laws, and interpersonal practices.

**Social learning theory.** While the focus of feminist theory is gender inequality, social learning theory emphasizes reinforcement and its role in shaping behavior (Crooks et al., 2007). This theory has been applied to IPV PACs as a means of effectively engaging men and boys in violence prevention by providing positive feedback for desired nonviolent behavior. Consistent with social learning theory, men and boys can be positively reinforced for treating women respectfully, which could enhance self-efficacy to abstain from violence (Crooks et al., 2007).

**Campaign Approaches**

While many theoretical models lay the foundation for IPV campaigns, there have also been a variety of approaches, including the cognitive behavioral therapy approach (Crooks et al., 2007), educational approaches (Whitaker et al., 2006), community-based approaches (Keller & Otjen, 2007), and celebrity-driven approaches (Joyful Heart Foundation, 2015; No More PSA Campaign, 2015; Purple Peace Foundation, 2015; Why Not You Foundation, 2015).

**Cognitive behavioral therapy approach.** The fundamental components of the cognitive behavioral therapy approach are goal setting, addressing core beliefs, and providing strategies for change (Crooks et al., 2007). Goal setting is a core part of any cognitive behavioral therapy approach; effective change requires envisioning a desired end state and identifying smaller steps and mini-goals that will lead to the desired outcome (in this case, reducing or eliminating IPV). Cognitive behavioral therapy also targets core beliefs, namely operating principles that individuals hold that influence their interpretations, emotional reactions, and responses to daily events. IPV prevention activities target core beliefs about respectful treatment of intimate partners, the roles of men and women, and the inappropriateness of using violence in close relationships. In addition to setting goals and targeting core beliefs, PACs based on cognitive
behavioral therapy also provide concrete strategies for change, offering opportunities for rehearsal of new skills, reinforcement, and strengthened self-efficacy. The cognitive behavioral therapy approach also incorporates social learning theory as a critical element of shaping behavior, as people are more likely to repeat behaviors that are positively reinforced. Regarding IPV, men and boys can provide each other with models and reinforcement for healthy ways of interacting with women.

**Educational and community-based approaches.** Educational approaches targeting IPV span a wide range of activities, such as school-based activities, classroom curriculum, theater productions, poster contests, community-based activities, services for adolescents in violent relationships, and community service provider trainings (Whitaker et al., 2006). Similarly, community-based approaches address IPV in a holistic manner by involving the community in designing and implementing IPV PACs. This involvement may include dialogue and collaboration with community stakeholders (Keller & Otjen, 2007).

**Celebrity-driven approaches.** Finally, celebrity-driven campaigns engage well-respected or popular public figures in sharing the campaign’s message, often drawing upon their fame for garnering greater attention to the cause (Tench & Yeomans, 2009). Many celebrity-driven campaigns address domestic violence and sexual assault by attempting to increase awareness of the issues and involve bystanders in the prevention of IPV. Examples include the Joyful Heart Foundation, No More PSA Campaign, Purple Peace Foundation, and the Why Not You Foundation. Each campaign provides information, tools, and resources to victims and bystanders to partner in the fight against domestic violence, using tools such as websites, TV ads, and educational programs or events.

**Target Audience**

The design of IPV campaigns varies based on the campaign’s target audience. Some campaigns use a universal approach and target all individuals in school or community-based settings, such as middle- or high-school aged students or college students (Keller & Otjen, 2007; Wagman et al., 2012; Whitaker et al., 2006). Other campaigns focus on specific populations, such as potential victims, perpetrators, and/or family members and friends.

While many IPV PACs have targeted women, others focus on men (Casey & Smith, 2010; Cismaru & Lavack, 2011; Crooks et al., 2007; Oliver, 2000). As the majority of IPV perpetrators are male, focusing on male-specific issues is important (Cismaru & Lavack, 2011). Crooks and colleagues (2007) emphasized the importance of educating men about violence against women especially at a young age, as children are socialized and enact specific behaviors that reflect their upbringing. Encouraging IPV perpetrators to change their behavior can play an important role in ending violence, and awareness campaigns can be one mode of helping to achieve this goal (Cismaru & Lavack, 2011).
## Examples of IPV Campaigns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Campaign</th>
<th>URL</th>
<th>Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Americans Overseas Domestic</td>
<td><a href="http://www.866uswomen.org/Global-Outreach.aspx">http://www.866uswomen.org/Global-Outreach.aspx</a></td>
<td>Education/training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violence Crisis Center</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cell Phones for Survivors</td>
<td><a href="https://www.dosomething.org/campaigns/cell-phones-survivors">https://www.dosomething.org/campaigns/cell-phones-survivors</a></td>
<td>Collected old cellphones and used the money to give safe housing to abuse survivors. They have multiple campaigns going on at once</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut it Out</td>
<td><a href="https://probeauty.org/cutitout/">https://probeauty.org/cutitout/</a></td>
<td>Posters, flyers, education/training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Let Yourself</td>
<td><a href="http://www.dontletyourself.org/">http://www.dontletyourself.org/</a></td>
<td>Videos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eNOugh</td>
<td><a href="http://www.enoughviolence.com/images/uploads/pages/eNOugh_Outcomes__Q3_2013.pdf">http://www.enoughviolence.com/images/uploads/pages/eNOugh_Outcomes__Q3_2013.pdf</a></td>
<td>Posters, flyers, TV, radio, online, print ads, billboards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jana’s Campaign</td>
<td><a href="http://www.janascampaign.org/">http://www.janascampaign.org/</a></td>
<td>Social media, presentations, posters, education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joyful Heart Foundation</td>
<td><a href="http://www.joyfulheartfoundation.org/programs/education-awareness/no-more/psa-campaign/nfl-players-say-no-more">http://www.joyfulheartfoundation.org/programs/education-awareness/no-more/psa-campaign/nfl-players-say-no-more</a></td>
<td>Posters, TV ads, YouTube videos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live Free Without Violence</td>
<td><a href="http://www.mcbw.org/#!/livelifeflag/c4sa">http://www.mcbw.org/#!/livelifeflag/c4sa</a></td>
<td>Flags, banners, yard signs, email alerts, social media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live Your Dream</td>
<td><a href="http://www.liveyourdream.org/volunteeropportunities/workplacecampaign/domesticviolence.html">http://www.liveyourdream.org/volunteeropportunities/workplacecampaign/domesticviolence.html</a></td>
<td>Hotline cards, Facebook, lectures, events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Domestic Violence</td>
<td><a href="http://www.thehotline.org/military/index.html">http://www.thehotline.org/military/index.html</a></td>
<td>Posters, brochures, stickers, radio and TV ads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotline</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO MORE</td>
<td><a href="http://nomore.org/psas/">http://nomore.org/psas/</a></td>
<td>YouTube videos, celebrity endorsements, TV commercials, posters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campaign</td>
<td>URL</td>
<td>Method</td>
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<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass the Peace</td>
<td><a href="http://whynotyoufoundation.com/">http://whynotyoufoundation.com/</a></td>
<td>Videos, celebrity endorsement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purple Purse</td>
<td><a href="http://purplepurse.com/the-inside/">http://purplepurse.com/the-inside/</a></td>
<td>Celebrity endorsements, fundraising, online ads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red Flag</td>
<td><a href="http://www.theredflagcampaign.org/index.php/">http://www.theredflagcampaign.org/index.php/</a></td>
<td>Posters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#Relationshipsfeel</td>
<td><a href="http://www.cpedv.org/tdvapm">http://www.cpedv.org/tdvapm</a></td>
<td>Social media (twitter, Instagram, Facebook), posters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ring the Bell</td>
<td><a href="http://www.bellbajao.org/">http://www.bellbajao.org/</a></td>
<td>Videos, social media, blog, education, men pledge to “ring the bell” online</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shine the Light on Domestic Violence</td>
<td><a href="http://www.opdv.ny.gov/public_awareness/campaigns/shinethelight/shinethe-light-current.html">http://www.opdv.ny.gov/public_awareness/campaigns/shinethelight/shinethe-light-current.html</a></td>
<td>Companies “turn the state purple” using purple lights to illuminate buildings, and bridges as well as purple clothing, ribbons, brochures, posters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silent Witness</td>
<td><a href="http://www.silentwitness.net/exhibit.html">http://www.silentwitness.net/exhibit.html</a></td>
<td>Exhibits with visual representation of life sized cut outs of women, men and children killed from domestic violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Slap Her”</td>
<td><a href="https://youtu.be/b2OcKQ_mbiQ">https://youtu.be/b2OcKQ_mbiQ</a></td>
<td>Viral YouTube video</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speak Out</td>
<td><a href="http://www.avonfoundation.org/causes/domestic-violence/">http://www.avonfoundation.org/causes/domestic-violence/</a></td>
<td>Education, conferences, funding organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spot Abuse</td>
<td><a href="http://www.spotabuse.org/">http://www.spotabuse.org/</a></td>
<td>Video, posters, social media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stop the Violence</td>
<td><a href="http://www.stoptheviolencecampaign.com/en/learnmore/aboutthecampaign">http://www.stoptheviolencecampaign.com/en/learnmore/aboutthecampaign</a></td>
<td>Video, education, social media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support a Friend</td>
<td><a href="http://www.refuge.org.uk/what-we-do/campaigns/support-a-friend/">http://www.refuge.org.uk/what-we-do/campaigns/support-a-friend/</a></td>
<td>Video, Facebook, Twitter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNiTE</td>
<td><a href="http://endviolence.un.org/">http://endviolence.un.org/</a></td>
<td>Orange day, online videos, posters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walk a Mile in Her Shoes</td>
<td><a href="http://www.walkamileinhershoes.org/">http://www.walkamileinhershoes.org/</a></td>
<td>Men literally walk one mile in women’s high heeled shoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Ribbon</td>
<td><a href="http://www.whiteribbon.org.au/what-is-white-ribbon">http://www.whiteribbon.org.au/what-is-white-ribbon</a></td>
<td>Social media, community events, videos</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Effectiveness Research about IPV Campaigns

Effectiveness research evaluating IPV PACs has measured multiple variables. Outcomes have included awareness of the severity of domestic violence, bystander behavior (i.e., likelihood of someone witnessing a domestic violence dispute to get involved and help), and community-level prevention (i.e., how community members play an active role in preventing sexual violence) (Gadomski et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2012; Moynihan et al., 2014; Potter et al., 2009).

Evaluators employ a range of measurement approaches in IPV PACs, including self-report data (e.g., asking participants to describe their reactions to the campaign) or reports of violent behavior to domestic violence hotlines. Regarding the timelines used in evaluations, some studies use pre- and post-surveys, evaluating participants’ awareness of domestic violence and beliefs regarding the importance of increasing such awareness before and after the campaign. Further, while most research focuses on a single time point (Potter, Moynihan, Stapleton, & Banyard, 2009), a few studies have measured participant behavior at more than one time point, between 3 to 12 months after exposure to the IPV PAC (Gadomski et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2012; Moynihan et al., 2014).

In the following, we review studies that examined the impact of IPV campaigns on bystander behavior, perpetrators/potential perpetrators, and victims.

**Bystander behavior.** With respect to bystander behavior, research has found that college student participants who were exposed to PACs about IPV had greater awareness of several types of violence, including IPV, and were more willing to report the violence to college faculty, staff, or the National Domestic Violence hotline (Potter, 2012). For example, researchers in one study created four IPV campaign posters that offered specific advice about what to do in a situation involving violence and emphasized how all college campus community members have a role in preventing sexual violence (Potter et al., 2009). The posters’ slogans included “Know your power,” “Step in, speak up” and “Support a friend. Your support encourages victims of violence to seek help.” Participants who reported seeing these posters exhibited greater awareness of sexual violence and greater willingness to participate in actions aimed at reducing sexual violence (e.g., readiness to help a victim in a domestic violence dispute or reporting IPV to a hotline) compared to students who had not seen the posters.

Miller and colleagues (2012) attempted to increase the willingness of bystanders to intervene in an IPV situation by targeting coaches and high school male athletes. This cluster-randomized trial examined the effectiveness of a domestic violence prevention program/campaign. The goals of the campaign were to increase bystander behavior and the recognition of abuse. Stated intent to intervene when observing IPV significantly increased among student athletes after implementation of the campaign.

Similarly, a randomized clinical trial examined how bystanders perceived the severity of sexual and relationship violence (Moynihan et al., 2014). Half of the participants were exposed to the *Know Your Power* bystander social marketing campaign, which included images portraying “typical” college scenes explicitly modeling prosocial bystander behavior in the prevention of
sexual and relationship violence. A series of posters were hung throughout each college campus including residence halls, student centers, athletic venues, dining areas, and academic buildings. In addition, images appeared on table tents in the dining halls, bookmarks distributed in libraries and bookstores, the sides of buses, and splash pages on campus computers. Participants who were exposed to the campaign reported higher levels of willingness to help strangers during a sexual violence incident one year after the campaign. Further, participants with greater awareness of the severity of sexual and relationship violence and more familiarity with prosocial bystander behavior reported greater willingness to assist strangers during a sexual or IPV incident.

Finally, Gadomski and colleagues (2008) designed a public health campaign using radio and printed ads focusing on domestic violence, including the effects of domestic violence on physical health and reporting procedures for bystanders, family members, and friends. As part of the effectiveness evaluation, participants read a vignette and were asked what they would do if their next door neighbor was abusing a partner. Researchers found statistically significant increases in slogan and advertising recognition and self-reported intent to intervene in a dangerous situation, particularly among men. Bystander behavior in this study was broader, and included talking to the victim, consulting with friends, and talking to a doctor. Further, domestic violence agency hotline calls doubled three months following the campaign.

In sum, these studies highlight the potential for IPV campaigns to modify people’s stated intent to intervene as a bystander in a dangerous situation and to affect change in people’s reporting of violence. PACs encouraging bystanders to intervene in situations of IPV can have a positive effect by increasing both the awareness of IPV and the likelihood of intervention (Cismaru, Jensen, & Lavack, 2010; Gadomski et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2012; Moynihan et al., 2014; Potter et al., 2009; Potter, 2012).

**Perpetrators or potential perpetrators.** While some research has demonstrated promising outcomes of IPV awareness campaigns with respect to bystander behavior, research about the impact on perpetrators or potential perpetrators is mixed. Some campaigns report success in connecting with IPV perpetrators and offering treatment referrals, including the Freedom from Fear Campaign and the Men’s Domestic Abuse Check-Up. Both of these campaigns advertise a helpline for perpetrators to contact after they have perpetrated violence against others. The Freedom from Fear helpline received over 2,500 calls two years after its launch, with more than half of callers accepting referrals to domestic violence perpetrator treatment programs (Mbilinyi et al., 2008).

A PAC using radio and newspaper ads informed potential participants of the Men’s Domestic Abuse Check-Up, a brief phone-based motivational interviewing program that encourages callers to participate in domestic violence treatment. The media advertised a helpline which recruited domestic abuse perpetrators to the Check-Up. The helpline received an average of eight calls per week and enrolled three participants (i.e., perpetrators) per week in the program, reaching the program enrollment target earlier than expected. The nature of the callers’ experiences and the eagerness that many voiced to end violence in their relationships suggested that using media ads may be an effective way to recruit perpetrators to domestic violence treatment and that a brief telephone intervention may be a promising, innovative approach to addressing relationship violence (Mbilinyi et al., 2008).
Other awareness campaigns targeting potential perpetrators have attempted to provide information about sexual assault and encourage empathy for victims. For example, a pretest-posttest study examined male Army soldiers who participated in The Men’s Program (Foubert & Masin, 2012). The Men’s Program showed videos and facilitated discussions intended to break down male defensiveness about perpetration and build empathy for sexual assault survivors. The Men’s Program also involved role plays of bystander intervention behaviors. At posttest, male participants reported an increase in bystander willingness to help and efficacy in knowing what to do, and decrease in their likelihood of committing sexual assault.

While some IPV PACs have yielded positive outcomes in targeting perpetrators, other studies have found some mixed or negative outcomes associated with the campaigns, such as men seeing domestic violence as less serious after seeing the campaign (Keller et al., 2010). Campbell, Neil, Jaffe, and Kelly (2010) investigated a community program for male batterers called Changing Ways. The study involved a post-program questionnaire regarding perpetrators’ help-seeking behaviors and a focus group discussion on IPV. Surprisingly, 63% of the participants reported they had sought help regarding the problems in their intimate relationship; however, only 38% actually went through the process of receiving help and support for their violent behaviors (Campbell et al., 2010). Furthermore, of those participants who received help, only 27% found the help to be useful or effective.

Similarly, a college campus-wide evaluation of the Know Your Power bystander-oriented campaign revealed both minimal positive and some adverse outcomes (Potter, 2012). Students were invited to participate in an awareness survey before and after the six-week campaign. The pretests and posttests examined the extent of individuals’ campaign exposure and whether or not it changed their attitudes toward IPV. Exposure to the social marketing campaign did not change the attitudes of the majority of the exposed college students. In addition, students reported that they did not make reports to the university or police when a friend was a victim of sexual and physical violence or stalking. Potter (2012) emphasized the importance of informing students of their significant responsibility as friends in supporting victims of stalking and violence.

Victims. Limited research exists on the impacts of IPV PACs on victims (Foubert & Masin, 2012; Mbilinyi et al., 2008). However, the small literature that exists raises an important concern. West (2013) found that some participants experienced negative reactions to health communication campaigns surrounding IPV, including fear, anger, shame, and hopelessness. Furthermore, 97% of the female participants described at least one negative emotional reaction from viewing an IPV campaign. Thus, the potential negative impacts of PACs on victims are important to consider during campaign development and evaluation.

Summary of IPV Campaign Effectiveness

In sum, evaluating the effectiveness of IPV PACs is important in light of the possibility of both desired and unintended outcomes. However, further research is needed to examine the positive and potential
negative impacts of such campaigns on victims and perpetrators, and to examine if and how these campaigns change awareness, attitudes, and actual behavior regarding intimate partner violence. Future PACs may also broaden their target populations to include both male and female victims and perpetrators (Tsui, Cheung, & Leung, 2010) and to recognize the complex, considerable issue of mutual (bidirectional) violence (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Selwyn, & Rohling, 2012).

**Evaluating Public Awareness Campaigns**

Public awareness campaign evaluation is critical to understanding the extent to which the campaign met its objectives. Campaign evaluation is defined as “the systematic collection and analysis of information about the outputs (activities), outcomes, and impacts of a campaign” (Bruce & Tiger, 2010, p. 1). Dedication of resources to the evaluation of PACs can yield numerous positive outcomes. First, strong evaluation can reveal the impacts of PACs and improve future campaign efforts (Bruce & Tiger, 2010; Patton, 1982; Valente, 2001). Second, evaluating PACs provides stakeholders and funding entities with information about the impacts of their resources, ultimately improving the campaign’s credibility (McDermott, 2015).

This section of the report reviews the chronological stages of developing and evaluating campaigns, addresses how and what to assess at each stage, and concludes with a summary of common challenges and caveats in evaluating public awareness campaigns.

**Stages of Campaign Evaluation**

Campaign evaluation typically includes four chronological stages including (Bauman, Smith, Maibach, & Reger-Nash, 2006):

1. Formative evaluation (before the campaign)
2. Process evaluation (during the campaign)
3. Outcome evaluation (examination of short-term effects)
4. Impact evaluation (examination of long-term effects)

**Formative Evaluation**

Formative evaluation (also known as pre-campaign planning, pre-planning, and consumer research) occurs before the campaign’s launch. Running effective PACs requires detailed, strategic planning during these early stages. Experts in campaign evaluation strongly and repeatedly emphasize this stage as being vital to the success of PACs (Bauman et al., 2006; Coffman, 2002).

This section on formative evaluation includes detailed information about: (1) the importance of evaluation theory; (2) a general framework of campaign influence; (3) logic models; and (4) developing and pre-testing campaign messages and branding.

**Importance of evaluation theory.** Theory-based, thoughtfully planned campaigns and evaluations are essential for dealing with the complexity and difficulty of campaign evaluation (Banyard, 2014; Bruce & Tiger, 2010; Rice & Atkin, 2001). Evaluation frameworks (also referred
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to as evaluation models and evaluation theories) are powerful tools that provide the foundation for thorough evaluation, such as identifying the campaign’s theory of change and the target audience(s) (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003). Integrating multiple theoretical models or frameworks may be useful in guiding the selection of variables to effectively evaluate attitudes and behavior change (Banyard, 2014).

Inadequate or incomplete theorizing about the campaign’s purpose, messages, and evaluation may lead evaluators to inaccurate conclusions about the campaign’s effectiveness (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003). A lack of planning and theorizing may lead evaluators to examine the wrong outcomes, expect behavior changes too soon, use the incorrect units of analysis (i.e., the primary audience of focus in the evaluation, usually either the individual, the family, or the community), or make comparisons between inappropriate groups.

The planning stage consists of several steps, including identifying the scope of the problem and the need for the campaign, choosing short- and long-term outcomes, identifying possible campaign strategies, defining the target audience, and creating a message that resonates with the target audience (Bauman et al., 2006; Bruce & Tiger, 2010; Coffman, 2002). Of utmost importance is a clear justification for why the campaign would be beneficial in modifying awareness of, beliefs about, and attitudes regarding the campaign’s topical area. In addition, understanding the availability of support for the campaign over time is important during this stage.

Key stakeholders who have the capacity to commit resources to the campaign are identified during the formative evaluation stage. Potential community partners (e.g., local community centers, schools) are also identified. Community partners can be helpful in supporting the campaign’s efforts and reinforcing the campaign’s message to individuals who have been exposed to the campaign. Community partners can also be helpful in identifying samples with which to test campaign messages during the development and pre-testing stage. Partners can also help recruit larger samples with whom to evaluate the impacts of the campaign.

A general model of campaign influence. A general model, or a campaign’s theory of influence, can be helpful for both designing and evaluating the campaign. One public awareness campaign model proposed by Hornik and Yanovitzky (2003) focuses on answering the five questions detailed below. Thoughtful and thorough attention to these questions is also helpful during the later stages of PAC evaluation, including the process, outcome, and impact evaluation stages.

What are the campaign’s expected outcomes? Some campaigns have a clearly focused behavioral objective (e.g., increased minutes of weekly walking for 55-65 year olds in good health). In this example, the evaluator precisely defines the expected outcome and how assess it. On the other hand, sometimes the objective of a campaign is satisfied by any number of related behaviors (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003). For example, a campaign designed to lower birth rates may be successful regardless of which contraceptive approaches couples use. Having clear goals for the campaign is crucial for informing the selection of metrics appropriate for the outcome and impact evaluations, described below. Clearly defined behavioral goals or
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desired rates of a behavior in the population allow evaluators to identify and use appropriate measures.

**What are the campaign’s pathways of effect?** PACs can influence attitudes, beliefs, or behavior through three general pathways, including: (1) direct exposure to campaign messages; (2) institutional diffusion; and (3) social diffusion (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003).

**Direct exposure to campaign messages.** Most PACs expect individuals’ behaviors, attitudes, or beliefs to change due to direct exposure to the messages or outputs (e.g., TV ads, billboards, social media posts). Individuals may learn about the costs and benefits of doing a behavior, or form particular attitudes or beliefs about the behavior as a result of seeing the campaign. Individuals may also acquire skills to perform or avoid the behavior and may gain self-efficacy after seeing the message. As a result, individuals can develop positive or negative behavioral intentions that influence behavior. Typically, when an evaluation compares individuals with varying levels of exposure to the campaign, it is assuming this direct pathway of effects (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003).

**Institutional diffusion.** Individual behavior can also be influenced when campaign messages are transmitted to other social institutions, such as the mass media, justice and law enforcement systems, religious or spiritual organizations, or executive and legislative branches of government (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003). Many campaigns include a media advocacy component designed to attract mass media and policy attention to campaign goals (Wallack, 1990). Campaigns can also attract institutional attention by reaching out to community partners and discussing opportunities for collaboration in sharing the campaign’s messages with the intended target audience(s) (e.g., Rogers, Dearing, & Chang, 1991).

**Social diffusion.** Some PACs prompt individuals to transmit campaign messages to individuals who were not exposed or attentive to the messages, including family members, peers, and other community members. In this way, more people learn about the campaign’s message, including the costs and benefits of performing certain behaviors. This information subsequently helps shape behavioral attitudes, beliefs, and intentions in the population. This method of diffusion is affected by characteristics of individuals’ social networks, such as the size, degree of cohesiveness, strength or weakness of ties, and stability of the networks over time (Rice, 1993). When evaluating campaigns, evaluators consider whether individuals had direct exposure to the campaign or learned the messages from someone in their social network, or some combination thereof (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003).

**Who is the target audience(s)?** Another crucial step in formative evaluation is to specifically identify the campaign’s target audience. It is rare that everyone in a given population is included in the target population. Most campaigns identify their intended audience more specifically. It is also important to consider whether campaign effects could be expected to vary across subpopulations. Campaign objectives and messages tend to be relevant to individuals of a particular culture, age, gender, family situation, background, or life experience (e.g., young, single, African American mothers). It is important to consider the cultural background of the target audience(s) to ensure the campaign’s messages are culturally sensitive and appropriate.
How much exposure is needed before effects can be expected? Individuals may need to see a campaign message multiple times before attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors change (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003). PACs aiming to impart simple information may be able to depend upon a few exposures to a message through one communication modality. The assumption behind this type of campaign is that the audience is ready for new information, and the message solves a known, existing problem. However, particular messages may need to be conveyed repeatedly across multiple communication channels (e.g., TV, billboards, and social media) in order for the message to have an impact (Dumesnil & Verger, 2009). Other campaigns need to rely on support from existing institutions and social networks to maximize their effect. Campaigns involving such complex strategies have been termed “kitchen-sink” campaigns. Evaluating these campaigns is more complex because identifying a non-exposed control group and discerning how the individuals received the message can be challenging (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003).

Many PAC evaluations attempt to demonstrate an association between direct individual exposure to campaign messages and rapid change in individual cognitions and behavior (Lapinski & Witte, 1998). Oftentimes, this line of inquiry results in inconclusive or no evidence of campaign effects (Atkin & Wallack, 1990; Brown & Walsh-Childers, 1994; Hornik, 1997; McGuire, 1986). The failure to find effects can reflect poorly chosen behavioral objectives, poorly designed messages, insufficient exposure to campaign messages, or insufficient duration of the campaign (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003). In addition, the changes could be small and undetectable with the small samples that are commonly used. Further, the impact of public awareness campaigns may go beyond individual cognitions and behaviors to include effects on communities, institutions, organizations, and social networks (e.g., drunk-driving campaigns influencing policy rather than directly influencing individual behavior) (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003; Yanovitzky & Bennett, 1999).

What is the expected time interval between campaign launch and campaign effects? Some campaigns may anticipate immediate effects on individual behavior relatively soon after the campaign launch. Other campaigns may expect a longer time interval between campaign launch and measurable effects, such as when the campaign is dependent upon an institutional or social pathway of effect. These campaigns may take longer because they address behaviors with a deeper social or cultural anchoring, and repeated exposure may be needed before individuals are ready to change behavior.

Effects may also take longer to appear when opportunities to engage in the new behavior are naturally delayed (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003). For example, many anti-tobacco campaigns are delivered in elementary school settings. Evaluators of these campaigns may not see effects until the children are in middle or high school when opportunities to smoke tobacco arise more frequently. Anti-tobacco campaigns targeting elementary school children are designed to protect youth against initiation of tobacco use years later. Therefore, measuring outcomes too soon may lead evaluators to conclude that a campaign is not effective when, in fact, the desired outcome has yet to fully emerge.
Logic models. Logic models are one way to organize answers to these five questions. They are created at the beginning of a campaign and describe the campaign’s activities, outputs, timeline, and processes (Bauman et al., 2006; Bruce & Tiger, 2010). The logic model also shows how campaign activities are hypothesized to lead to short-, mid-, and long-term effects. Ultimately, a logic model explicitly describes the campaign’s underpinning theory and guides evaluators in choosing an evaluation design and appropriate measures.

Developing and pre-testing campaign messages or branding. During the formative evaluation stage, the campaign’s message(s) also need to be developed and pre-tested with the target audience(s) to determine if it conveys the intended meaning (Langford, Litts, & Pearson, 2013; Noar, 2006). The message design and campaign strategy build directly from the answers to the formative evaluation questions above.

Ideas and concepts for campaigns are usually developed by creative advertising professionals in combination with content experts. During the development phase, specific messages, general concepts or themes, and potential taglines (e.g., memorable slogan or catchphrase) may emerge. Testing draft concepts and messages (also known as pre-testing or concept testing) can be helpful in assessing their communication potential. Pre-testing is generally conducted with convenience samples of the target audience(s) using one or more qualitative research methods (e.g., focus groups, in-depth interviews). The feedback received can be used to refine the messages in ways that increase comprehension and relevance to the target audience. Ideas about the campaign’s brand may also be established; the brand can be conveyed in a variety of ways including words, symbols, colors, and sounds. Many campaign planners use quantitative methods (e.g., self-report surveys about attitudes towards the campaign’s message) to test messages and other campaign elements before finalizing their plans. Brief pilot testing with different messages or modes of delivery can help determine what is most effective and culturally relevant with the target population.

Methods for formative evaluation. A variety of research techniques can be used to answer these questions. Evaluators can review published literature and secondary data sets to help identify the target audience(s) or decide on the appropriate pathway of effect. Evaluators can also conduct interviews or focus groups with stakeholders to develop and pre-test campaign messages. This research could answer questions such as, “Are members of the target audience aware of the recommendation (e.g., 10,000 steps a day)?”, “Do they feel it applies to them?”, “How motivated are they to conform to the recommendations?” and “What emotions are associated with the recommended behavior that could enhance motivation to do the behavior?” Exploring these questions helps campaign planners make informed decisions regarding appropriate messages, campaign objectives, and potential emotions that could be invoked in the campaign.

Summary of formative evaluation. The PAC’s theory and intended goals inform the methodology of its evaluation. Based on the answers to the above questions, evaluators determine the appropriate unit of analysis (e.g., individual, family, social network, community) in which to examine expected effects and select the appropriate measures. Campaigns can work at more than one unit of analysis (e.g., both individuals and families). In the context of other factors that make individuals more or less vulnerable to campaign effects, evaluators need to decide who is included in the target audience, and which subpopulations should be the focus of the evaluation. It is also important to determine the appropriate lag time between exposure to
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the PAC and expected effects. Evaluators may need to decide whether they need to use a controlled experimental design with deliberate manipulation of exposure levels, or whether the evaluators can only rely on natural variation in exposure among the target audience(s) if exposure to the campaign cannot be controlled. Ultimately, an inability to be able to find effects could reflect inadequately theorized and thus inadequately realized evaluation design.

Process Evaluation

The process evaluation stage (also known as the implementation evaluation stage) begins when the campaign officially launches. During this stage, evaluators assess the campaign’s implementation and reach while the campaign is actively running (Bauman et al., 2006; Bruce & Tiger, 2010; Cunningham, Michielutte, Dignan, Sharp, & Boxley, 2000). This allows evaluators to determine whether the campaign is being implemented as planned (McDermott, 2015). Through this process, barriers and facilitators to the campaign’s implementation can be identified and changes made to how the campaign is implemented as needed. Specifically, implementation fidelity is assessed, which includes comparing planned campaign activities to actual campaign activities (Scheier, 1994). Ultimately, process evaluation focuses on the “internal dynamics and actual operations of a program in an attempt to understand its strengths and weaknesses” (Patton, 1997, page 206).

Questions asked at this stage include, “How many times were the campaign messages aired on TV or radio?”, “How many billboards were built?”, “How many pamphlets were distributed?”, and “How much media interest did the campaign generate (e.g., newspaper or online reports)?” (Bauman et al., 2006). Answering these questions provides an estimate of whether the campaign messages were communicated as intended, whether the campaign messages reached the target audience(s), and whether the community responded by attending or participating at events.

Many factors can influence the implementation of a public awareness campaign. For example, whether messages are paid or unpaid can influence the timing and placement of media messages (e.g., shown during or outside of prime time). For paid messages, other factors could reduce population exposure, such as the season, other competing major news stories or events, and even counter marketing (e.g., anti-tobacco messages and tobacco ads).

**How to assess process.** Process evaluation includes monitoring the campaign’s activities in order to assess the campaign’s reach (Bauman et al., 2006). There are several methods that can be used to assess process, including: (1) tracking; (2) website monitoring; (3) clipping services; (4) small-scale surveys; and (5) case studies.

**Tracking.** Tracking involves collecting descriptive, quantitative information about the number of times a campaign’s message is broadcast through any medium (Bauman et al., 2006).

**Website monitoring.** Process evaluation can also include monitoring movements on websites and mobile applications (apps) (McDermott, 2015; Tian et al., 2009). Programs and software applications can collect data about how users reached a website (e.g., search engines, bookmark, link), how long users stayed on the page, where users clicked on the page, and where users are geographically located. Bounce rates, defined as the number of users who...
immediately left the page without exploring, can also be tracked (Paek, Hove, & Cole, 2013). Social media users’ actions can also be measured through social media monitoring. These include monitoring of trends (e.g., how many people are talking about a topic), mentions (how many people have explicitly mentioned a campaign or a user), and retweets (e.g., sharing the content of a tweet to a twitter user’s followers) can also be measured through social media monitoring.

**Clipping services.** Clipping services monitor the name, type, date, frequency, and geographic location of publications in which a campaign was mentioned (Berkowitz et al., 2008). These services comb through newspapers, other print media, and online media to find mentions of or references to the campaign. Clipping services can also track public opinion by assessing what is being said about the campaign.

**Small-scale surveys.** One form of process evaluation includes conducting small-scale surveys continuously over time. For example, campaign evaluators could survey a small sample (e.g., approximately 100 people) about exposure to the campaign and collect information about weekly rates of campaign awareness in the targeted community. Assessing awareness could be in relation to the dose of media distributed, and could explore the target audience(s) response to specific programmed events, enhanced media bursts, or other campaign elements that change over time (Bauman et al., 2006).

**Case studies.** Case studies are a form of data collection that involve an intensive analysis of a particular behavior over time in an individual, family, community, or social group. When used in campaign evaluation, case studies can offer valuable insight into what is working in a particular context, what is not working, and why. Case studies may be particularly beneficial when the campaign is very different from other campaigns (e.g., new approach or new target audience), when a unique outcome is being assessed, or when an environment is especially unpredictable (CDC, 2006). Case studies can also shed light on community characteristics and how they influence campaign implementation. Finally, case studies can allow for the identification of barriers and facilitators to campaign implementation.

**Metrics for process evaluation.** Examples of commonly used metrics for process evaluation are described below. These include measures of campaign outputs or activities, measures of campaign reach, and measures of implementation fidelity. Specific studies that drew upon particular metrics are noted. Additional examples and details are included if the metric is relatively new, more complex, or incorporated new technology (e.g., use of website tracking or social media monitoring).

**Measures of campaign outputs or activities** (campaign activities designed to disseminate the campaign’s message):

- Airtime of campaign messages (timing and length).
- Date and time of TV, radio, or social media broadcasts (e.g., Vives-cases et al., 2009).
- Duration of the campaign message (e.g., Vives-cases et al., 2009).
- Number of posts on social media.
- Where the ad was distributed or seen (TV, billboards, newspaper, or posters, etc.; e.g., Keller et al., 2010).
- Number of flyers or pamphlets distributed.
• When and where flyers or pamphlets were distributed.

**Measures of campaign reach** (who is viewing the campaign’s message):

- Gross rating points (GRPs) – a standard measure in the marketing and advertising industry of audience penetration (Palmgreen et al., 2007).
  - GRPs are calculated by multiplying the reach (defined as the proportion of the target audience that has had an opportunity to be exposed to the campaign’s message) by frequency (defined as the number of times an average target audience member is estimated to have an opportunity to view the ad in a given time period) (Wong et al., 2004).
  - As the GRP measure is dependent on the reach and frequency estimated, a GRP estimate reflects many different possible exposure patterns (e.g., a small proportion of the target audience viewed the message multiple times, or the majority of the target audience viewed the message once would have the same GRP rating) (Wong et al., 2004).
- Impressions – measures if the online viewer clicks on an ad or not.
- Retweets, shares, “likes,” or re-posts of social media messages.
- Range of the broadcast (national, regional, or local; e.g., Vives-cases et al., 2009)
- Amount of exposure to the target audience(s) (e.g., asking small samples of the target audience, “do you recall having seen any TV or print ads from the campaign to prevent domestic violence?”; e.g., Keller et al., 2010)
- Number of calls to a helpline or other service advertised in campaign message (e.g., Gadomski et al., 2008; Potter, 2012).
- Number of people who log on to a website advertised in campaign message.
  - For example, a web platform used in the Canada on the Move evaluation collected information (e.g., demographic characteristics, social-cognitive factors, physical activity behavior) from people who logged in to the website to record their steps following a national physical activity campaign (e.g., Plotnikoff et al., 2006).
- Timing of log-ins to a website (e.g., Plotnikoff et al., 2006).
  - Websites tracking software can collect information about when, from where, and how many times individuals log in to a website. This method can be inexpensive due to automatic tracking metrics on some websites (Leslie, Marshall, Owen, & Bauman, 2005).
- Attendance at community program or presentation advertised in campaign message.

**Measures of implementation fidelity** (the extent to which the campaign is carried out as planned):

- Comparisons of campaign activities with campaign implementation plan
  - Were campaign messages aired when they were intended to air?
  - Were campaign activities completed in the proposed order?
  - Did the PAC deliver the intended message to the target audience(s)?

**Outcome Evaluation**

Outcome evaluation measures the campaign’s short-term effects, which include awareness of the campaign message, knowledge and understanding about the topic, belief and attitude change, changed
norms, enhanced self-efficacy, changes in behavioral intentions, changes in behaviors, changes in skills, and reductions in environmental constraints (Bauman et al., 2006; Coffman; Bruce & Tiger, 2010). Most campaign evaluations focus on short-term campaign impacts (Cavill & Bauman, 2004).

How to assess outcomes. PAC outcomes can be assessed in several ways. Comprehensive, thorough evaluation of PACs requires the use of multiple data collection methods (Bauman, 2000). While quantitative methods are important for describing and quantifying campaign’s impacts, qualitative methods are also useful for developing an understanding of the way the target audience(s) understands the campaign message, and the impact of contextual factors related to the process and the campaign’s outcomes (Bauman et al., 2006).

Quantitative methods and designs can be used to assess outcomes, and include randomized controlled trials (involving random assignment to a treatment or control group), and quasi-experimental designs (e.g., designs in which groups may not be randomized, or in which exposure to the campaign’s message is naturally occurring and cannot or is not manipulated). Pre-post surveys can also be used, as well as cohort studies and observed audience action. Using appropriate experimental controls (e.g., comparing those exposed to the campaign to non-exposed counterparts) is important for drawing causal conclusions about the effectiveness of a campaign.

Qualitative methods are helpful for understanding the way individuals or groups understand the campaign’s message as well as the impact of contextual factors related to the campaign’s implementation. Qualitative data collection methods include in-depth interviews with individuals, focus groups, and direct observations (Bauman et al., 2006). The majority of campaign evaluations use quantitative methods to assess campaign outcomes. Quantitative methods typically include surveys or polling of the target audience(s), and may also include direct response tracking and rolling sample surveys (Coffman, 2002).

Surveys/polling of target audience(s). Surveys can be used to obtain information about individual attitudes, values, beliefs, and behavior. Surveys and polls can be administered in person, through the mail, over the phone, and through the Internet (e.g., online surveys). It is important to consider the reliability and validity of survey scales to ensure high quality data. Polls can also be used to obtain information or opinions, usually about a particular topic or person.

Direct response tracking. Ads used for campaigns can ask viewers to take a specific behavior (do a direct response), such as calling a phone number, mailing in an information card or coupon, sending a text message, or visiting a website. Direct responses are considered a weaker form of assessing campaign outcomes (Coffman, 2002), since it is difficult to determine the viewer’s motivation for taking action.

Rolling sample surveys. This method uses daily (or other frequency) surveys to obtain measures of target outcomes from an independent sample of individuals drawn from the target audience(s). This outcome evaluation method has been adapted from political polling methods (Coffman, 2002), and has proven to be useful for assessing public awareness campaign outcomes (Henry & Gordon, 2001). This approach allows for monitoring of day-to-day changes.
in public interest and behavior, enabling evaluators to understand how the target audience reacts to the campaign over time.

**Specific metrics for outcome evaluation.** Examples of commonly used metrics for outcome evaluation are described below. The first section provides examples of general metrics used in outcome evaluation, and the second section provides examples of metrics used in intimate partner violence and child maltreatment campaign evaluations. Specific studies that drew upon particular metrics are noted. Additional examples and details are included if the metric is relatively new, more complex, or incorporated new technology (e.g., use of website tracking or social media monitoring).

**General metrics:**
- Awareness of campaign message (McDermott, 2015).
  - Unaided awareness – general questions about the campaign topic (e.g., “What have you seen or heard lately about child abuse?”).
  - Aided awareness – questions specifically about the campaign (e.g., “What have you seen or heard lately about the domestic violence campaign called Open Your Eyes?”).
  - Proven awareness – questions about where the campaign was seen (e.g., “Where did you actually read or hear about the Open Your Eyes campaign?”).
- Target audience participation (e.g., rates of participation based on estimates of eligible individuals in the target audience).
- Changes in behavior in target audience(s).
  - Percentage change (e.g., the percentage of eligible individuals who did the behavior)
  - Percentage increase or decrease (e.g., the campaign yielded a 15% increase in phone calls to a domestic violence hot line).
- Changes in behavior in secondary audiences, or individuals who were not originally included in the target audience (e.g., behavior changes in doctors, physicians, teachers, social workers, therapists).
- Changes in behavioral intentions (e.g., desire to praise children or use appropriate discipline practices).
- Changes in knowledge.
  - Specific facts (e.g., how many children are affected by child abuse each year)
  - Awareness of specific recommendations (e.g., spanking is not recommended as a strategy for disciplining children).
- Changes in belief indicators.
  - Attitudes (e.g., getting help for mental health issues is a good thing).
  - Opinions.
  - Values.

**Measures specific to intimate partner violence and child maltreatment:**
- Recognition of abusive behavior (e.g., Miller et al., 2012).
  - Perceptions of the degree of abusiveness of specific relationship behaviors
- Gender-equitable attitudes (e.g., Miller et al., 2012).
- Intentions or willingness to intervene when witnessing abusive behaviors (e.g., Miller et al., 2012).
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• Attitudes towards domestic or sexual violence (e.g., Keller, Wilksinson, & Otjen, 2010; Moynhian et al., 2014).
• Awareness of services for domestic violence victims (e.g., Keller et al., 2010).
• Number of callers to a helpline accepting referrals to domestic violence perpetrator treatment programs (e.g., Mbilinyi et al., 2008).
• Feelings of empathy towards victims of violence or abuse (e.g., Foubert & Masin, 2012).
• Perpetrators’ help-seeking behaviors (Campbell et al., 2010).
• Number of people reporting abuse and neglect (e.g., Boehm & Itzhaky, 2004).
• Attitudes towards reporting abuse and neglect (e.g., Boehm & Itzhaky, 2004).

Measures of contextual factors. Outcome evaluation can also consider factors within the delivery environment and the wider context that assisted or hindered the campaign implementation. Possible contextual factors include:
• News stories related or unrelated to campaign topic that could interfere with or affect the reception of the campaign messages
• Community events
• Policy or law changes related to the campaign topic

Impact Evaluation

Impact evaluation focuses on the more distal, long-term impacts of the PAC, which may include policy and environmental changes associated with the campaign. Impact evaluation also includes community-level and systems-level outcomes that were influenced by the campaign (e.g., reduction in the prevalence of a problem). As discussed in the following section, the impact of a public awareness campaign can be difficult to ascertain due to the many potentially intervening factors (Bruce & Tiger, 2010). Ultimately, the impact evaluation answers the question of whether the campaign was effective. Since differences in population-level behavior change may take several years to detect, it can be challenging to show causal relationships between the campaign and the impact.

How to assess impact. Typically, quantitative methods are used in impact evaluation. A key goal for impact evaluation is to obtain representative samples of the target audience(s) and assess change using reliable and valid measures. Although evaluators tend to collect individual-level measures for impact evaluation, a campaign could also have contributed to policy change or to changes in the physical environment related to the campaign’s objective. Another possible impact is the formation and strengthening of community efforts to promote the campaign’s cause, such as coalitions among community organizations focused on the campaign’s cause (e.g., Reger-Nash et al., 2006).

Impact evaluation focuses on the more distal, long-term impacts of the PAC, which may include policy and environmental changes associated with the campaign.

Metrics for impact evaluation. Metrics for impact evaluation are closely tied to the campaign’s goals and messages. Examples of commonly used metrics for impact evaluation are described below. Additional examples and details are included if the metric is relatively new, more complex, or incorporated new technology. Examples of metrics assessing impact can include:
• Long-term maintenance of desired behavior.
• Changes in rates or prevalence of a problem.
  o Rates of recidivism (e.g., relapse into doing previous negative behavior).
  o Changes in morbidity and mortality rates.
• Policy and environmental changes that support desired behavior (e.g., coalitions of organizations working together on similar cause, proposed legislation, allocation of community resources to a cause) (Reger-Nash et al., 2006)

Challenges and Caveats of Public Awareness Campaign Evaluation

Evaluating public awareness campaigns is difficult, time-intensive work. As PACs have grown in scope and level of sophistication (Lapinski & Witte, 1998), the task of evaluating campaigns has become increasingly complex (Hornik & Yanovitzky, 2003). Below is an overview of potential challenges in evaluating public awareness campaigns, including: (1) challenges in measurement; (2) inclusion of appropriate time lag needed for outcomes and impact to emerge; (3) presence of confounding variables; (4) difficulty in accessing appropriate comparison groups; (5) unpredictable or immeasurable exposure; and (6) potential unintended effects.

Challenges in measurement. The selection of appropriate measures is difficult when the campaign’s outcomes are unclear or poorly understood (Coffman, 2002). Formative evaluation and thinking through the measurement aspect of the evaluation are very important steps in the evaluation process. In addition, attitudes and behavior can be difficult to measure. Research shows that sometimes what individuals’ report that they will do is not necessarily the same as what they actually do (Thomas & Sheeran, 2006). In addition, some social desirability bias (i.e., the tendency for individuals to answer questions in a way deemed to be more socially acceptable than the “true” answer) may influence individuals’ self-report of attitudes, values, beliefs, and social norms.

It is also important to ensure that participants in the PAC research evaluation belong to the campaign's target population (Hornik et al., 2008). Although a public awareness campaign may reach large audiences, it may be expected to produce change only among a specific subgroup (e.g., condom use among single people with casual partners). Surveying the wrong group of participants might result in erroneous conclusions about the campaign’s effectiveness.

Clearly defining the PAC’s level of analysis (individual, social, or institutional level) is an important process in campaign evaluation (Hornik, Jacobs, & Coffman, 2007). Each pathway of effect requires distinct strategies and outcomes. Research has defined two levels of complexity with regards to PACs, namely horizontal and vertical complexity (Coffman, 2002). Public awareness campaigns often aim simultaneously for outcomes across a number of domains (social, physical, economic, and political) which is termed horizontal complexity. Campaigns may also include vertical complexity, aiming for outcomes at the cognitive, individual behavior, community, or systems levels (Coffman, 2002). Many campaigns aim simultaneously for environmental change (through public policy and agenda setting), community level change (by affecting norms, expectations, and public support), and individual behavior change (through skill teaching, positive reinforcement, and rewards; Coffman 2002). Defining how and when to assess the campaign’s influence at these varying, interdependent levels can be challenging.
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Campaigns are generally designed to create small changes (which can be difficult to detect) in many people (Hornik et al., 2007). Given the small effect sizes that emerge in some evaluations, careful measurement approaches and metrics are important. It is also important for the measures used in the campaign evaluation to be culturally sensitive or adapted to the target audience(s); individuals from different backgrounds may interpret survey items or interview questions in different ways (e.g., Ingersoll-Dayton, 2011).

Finally, it is also important to consider differences between discrete and continuous exposure to the campaign (Hornik et al., 2007). Some campaigns promote one message at one time to produce quick behavior change. These types of campaigns can be evaluated more easily, compared to campaigns that use a multi-modal approach, or repeatedly air campaign messages across time. In this case, it is important to measure campaign exposure over time and incorporate this factor into the campaign’s evaluation.

Accounting for time needed for outcomes and impact to emerge. It may take time before outcomes and impacts of the campaign can be detectable by an evaluation (Hornik et al., 2007). The expected timing of effects (e.g., whether effects are expected immediately or years later) affects the evaluation approach. It is important for campaign evaluators to consider the timing of effects and include time in campaign’s plan. Measuring outcomes too soon could cause evaluators to come to false conclusions about the campaign’s effects.

Presence of confounding variables (difficulty in linking campaign with outcome and impact). Many contextual factors and confounding influences can be at play during campaign evaluation (Coffman, 2002). Public awareness campaigns are designed to affect outcomes that are affected by a broad, complex set of factors, such as behaviors and attitudes. Most public awareness campaigns include the usual hierarchy of effects: awareness, knowledge, attitudes, intentions, reported behavior, behavior. The further down the list, the more other variables can affect the effect (Balch & Sutton, 1997). As a result, it is difficult to isolate the effects of information campaigns on outcomes when people are bombarded by many competing influences (Weiss & Tschirhart, 1994). Evaluators need to take into account other factors that likely limit or magnify the campaign’s effects (e.g., demographic characteristics, personality traits, characteristics of the social environment, and prior experience with the behavior that may influence the target behavior, behavioral expectations and intensions, as well as the propensity of being exposed to the campaign). In the evaluation, it is important to identify and control for confounding influences when estimating campaign effects. Some evaluators examine interaction effects, or the potential for different campaign effects for distinct subpopulations (e.g., different effects for males and females, or different effects for younger and older teens).

Difficulty in accessing appropriate comparison groups. Campaigns typically have a broad scope and are intended to reach entire communities or segments of the population. The most rigorous research designs require random assignment of individuals to treatment and
control groups. It can be difficult to create a control group of individuals who have not been reached in some way by the campaign. Quasi-experimental designs (which do not require random assignment but do require a comparison group or comparisons) face similar issues. While experimental or quasi-experimental designs are not essential, other measurement designs are less able to determine whether observed outcomes are the direct result of the campaign (Coffman, 2002).

**Unpredictable or immeasurable exposure.** Determining who has been exposed to the campaign, what aspects of the campaign they have seen (treatment) and the extent of exposure (dosage) can be difficult (Coffman, 2002). Measures are imperfect, and the campaign may be received or interpreted differently for each individual reached; these challenges make it difficult to understand what aspects of the intervention worked and for whom. Further, multiple components of campaigns interact in complex ways and evolve over time (Hornik et al., 2007). Evaluation designs need to adapt to the complexity, evolution, and unpredictable nature (Coffman, 2002) of campaign message dissemination over time (e.g., the evaluation plan developed during the planning stages may need to be adapted after the campaign’s launch due to unforeseen changes in the campaign’s implementation). Unpaid ads may not get the push that the paid advertisers get, and the process for the campaign rollout can be unpredictable and slow.

**Potential unintended effects.** Even the best planned PACs may have unintended consequences, either positive or negative. For example, a PAC may not only reach its intended audience but also be picked up by a national news agency or other popular media outlet. In this way, the PAC generates unintended positive consequences in greater exposure (Bouder, 2013). Alternatively, sometimes PACs experience unintended negative consequences. For example, men exposed to a domestic violence PAC reported viewing the issue as less severe after seeing the campaign than they did beforehand (Keller et al., 2010). Researchers concluded that a different PAC strategy would be needed to effectively reach and shape the perspectives of men. This risk of negative consequences underlines the importance of conducting evaluations at all phases of the PAC process rather than solely assessing outcomes at the end of the campaign.

Similarly, campaigns could cause individuals to accept certain social norms, or become desensitized to issues, assisting some individuals to continue doing the behavior. For example, members of the target population could become “burned out” about particular issues. One study found that a small but significant subset of respondents (15%) reported burnout about the issue of child abuse, and that those who reported feelings of burnout were likely to selectively avoid media content about the issue and less likely to discuss the issue with others (Kinnick, Krugman, & Cameron, 1996). This study showed an increase in desensitization about child abuse, as particular individuals had become so overexposed to multiple campaigns that it was an annoyance to some.
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Conclusion

Public awareness campaigns can be an effective strategy in promoting behavior change in individuals, communities, and society. This report described the various types of public awareness campaigns, summarized research on the effectiveness of child maltreatment and intimate partner violence public awareness campaigns, described the stages of evaluation, and provided specific examples of metrics that could be used during the process of evaluation. The report concluded with a discussion of the challenges of campaign evaluation.

Many types of public awareness campaigns exist. Campaigns vary in their modalities, messaging approaches, and theoretical backgrounds. Campaigns also differ in their target audience(s), approaches to planning, network development, complementary materials, and evaluation methods. Common barriers to successful campaign implementation include time commitments, saturation of messages, stickiness of the campaign’s message, and available finances and other resources.

Child maltreatment awareness campaigns are also diverse in their underlying theories, implementation strategies, and outcomes. Multifaceted campaign approaches are most effective in increasing awareness and willingness to take action regarding child maltreatment. Train-the-trainer models have been shown to be particularly effective at increasing awareness of child maltreatment issues and educating individuals about the importance of reporting child maltreatment. The effectiveness of campaigns is affected by the target audience, campaign modes, and approach.

Intimate partner violence (IPV) campaigns have had mixed results. With respect to increasing bystanders’ awareness of violence and their willingness to intervene in violent situations, IPV campaigns have been effective. Regarding the ability of campaigns to influence the attitudes and behaviors of perpetrators, the evidence is less clear. Some research shows campaigns can increase perpetrators’ help-seeking behaviors, while other campaigns may desensitize perpetrators to the severity of domestic violence. The small amount of literature about the influence of campaigns on victims of IPV has found that campaigns can induce negative feelings among victims, including anger, shame, and hopelessness.

In addition to examining child maltreatment and intimate partner violence campaigns, this report also described the stages of campaign evaluation, addressed how and what to assess at each stage, and provided an overview of challenges and caveats in evaluating campaigns. Several key questions need to be answered during the planning stages to guide the campaign’s implementation and inform the evaluation, such as anticipated time lag for measuring results and who is included in the target audience(s). Campaign evaluation is complex and time- and resource-intensive, but is extremely helpful for informing campaign efforts. Evaluation also provides stakeholders and funding entities feedback regarding how resources made a difference. Understanding the impact of the campaign involves evaluating the campaign’s implementation or process, its short-term outcomes, and its long-term impact. Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies can be used to evaluate campaigns.

In summary, we offer the following highlights of our findings regarding effective campaigns and successful evaluations. Effective campaigns generally adhere to best practices including the following:

- **Implement a theory-driven process.** Effective campaigns draw upon theories and principles related to the desired behavior. This allows campaign planners to consider the attitudes, values, and beliefs underlying current and desired behavior.
• **Identify partnerships.** During the formative evaluation stage, successful campaigns survey the existing landscape and consider potential partnerships with key stakeholders, agencies, and organizations. Partnering with stakeholders with shared goals can consolidate resources and create a synergistic, larger impact than either could do independently.

• **Assess the target audience’s readiness to change.** Successful campaigns assess a community’s readiness to change, and consider existing social norms that may counteract campaign messages and initiatives. It is important to set realistic goals during the planning stage, considering the target audience(s)’ readiness to change and the broader community’s capacity for supporting the campaign. A needs assessment may be helpful in assessing readiness to change and understanding the entire community system in which the campaign will operate.

• **Tailor the message to the target audience.** Campaign messaging is more effective when it is tailored to the target audience(s). Understanding the background, culture, preferences, and existing behaviors among individuals in the target audience(s) can guide the development of effective messaging and implementation strategies.

• **Ensure the campaign is unique and novel.** Individuals are continually exposed to ads, and multiple campaigns about a wide range of topics are simultaneously bombarding consumers. Therefore, it is important for campaign messaging and branding to be unique and stand out from other messages.

• **Employ multiple campaign messages.** Research evaluating public awareness campaigns shows that using multiple modalities to deliver several related campaign messages is associated with greater positive impacts than a single message delivered in one format. Individuals within the target audience(s) may need to see or hear the campaign’s message in multiple, diverse ways over time in order to gain knowledge, change attitudes, and adopt desired behaviors.

• **Incorporate multiple communication modalities.** Due to the many options available regarding communication modalities (e.g., TV, radio, billboards, online social media), different modalities can disseminate the campaign’s message at different times. For example, campaigns could first air TV ads, followed by ads on popular websites, followed by posts on online social media.

• **Anticipate and prevent potential negative outcomes.** Research shows that some campaigns can have unintended, negative effects on certain segments of the target audience(s) (e.g., burnout or negative feelings towards the cause due to hearing the same message repeatedly). Considering how particular subgroups of the population may view the campaign’s message or how the campaign’s message could be taken out of context can help campaigns avoid having a negative impact.

• **Invest time and resources in evaluation.** Thoroughly evaluating a campaign during its implementation provides feedback to stakeholders about how the campaign is going. This information can also be used when considering alternate strategies to overcome unforeseen obstacles and adapting the campaign’s strategy to have the most impact. Use of appropriate experimental controls can allow for causal conclusions about the effectiveness of a campaign. Evaluation also provides information to stakeholders about how funding was used, and whether the campaign made a positive impact.
• Minimize external factors that may influence outcomes. Environmental factors, such as news stories, other initiatives, budget changes, or leadership turnover can influence the campaign and its outcomes. Although these factors can be difficult to identify and measure, it is important to consider these possible confounding factors when assessing the true impact of the campaign.

Investing in planning and engaging in these best practices may help an organization craft an effective public awareness campaign and evaluation that succeeds in changing individual behavior and social norms.
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References


