

# **Social brands and social brand equity: definition, role and measurement**

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## **ABSTRACT**

Social marketing has a different objective to commercial marketing. Social marketing seeks to change behaviour for social good, whereas commercial marketing endeavours to maximise profit on the sale of goods and services.

Within social marketing, the tool of a brand is often deployed but there is little understanding of the similarities and differences between brands in social marketing campaigns and brands in commercial marketing campaigns. The research explored this, and proposed a new term 'social brand' to specifically distinguish a brand used in a social marketing campaign. Further, the research sought to define a 'social brand' and outline its specific and nuanced role, and means of measurement.

The research entailed conducting a literature review on both branding and social marketing, followed by in-depth discussions with expert participants. Following interrogation of the data, it was confirmed that social brands are indeed different from commercial brands in that their focus is on behaviour to achieve social good, and not to optimise profit. Following this finding, the role and measurement of social brands was explored, and it was found that social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviours and that this can be useful in bringing the community together to create broad societal change. In addition, the measurement of social brands borrowed from commercial brand equity constructs, but it was determined that the context of social brands affected the application of these constructs.

The research highlights that not all brands are the same, and this has led to the introduction of a new type of brand, the 'social brand'. By further defining this type of brand, there is increased awareness in the specific objectives and role of the social brand, which will lead to improved development and application of the social brand.

## **DECLARATION**

I, Claire Rademeyer, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management of Strategic Marketing in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

**CLAIRE LIESE RADEMEYER**

Signed at Johannesburg.

On the 21st day of July 2014.

# DEDICATION

*To Racs –*

*With gratitude and love.*

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# **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

## **1.1 Purpose of the study**

The purpose of this research is to determine what social brands are, their role and definition, and their measurement through social brand equity.

## **1.2 Context of the study**

Brands and branding are traditional marketing concepts, and are of the most valuable intangible assets a company can have. Brands are playing increasingly dominant roles in our lives as consumers and members of societies, assisting us in product differentiation, product choice, memories and loyalty (Rust, Zeithaml & Lemon, 2004).

The American Marketing Association (2013) defines a brand as: "Name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers." As Wood's (2000) research highlights, this definition combines the diverse views that brands can be defined in terms of their purposes or their characteristics, but that the definition still remains product-orientated and visually driven. This is problematic given that branding has extended beyond the traditional scope to inclusion in social marketing, political marketing and place marketing, amongst other.

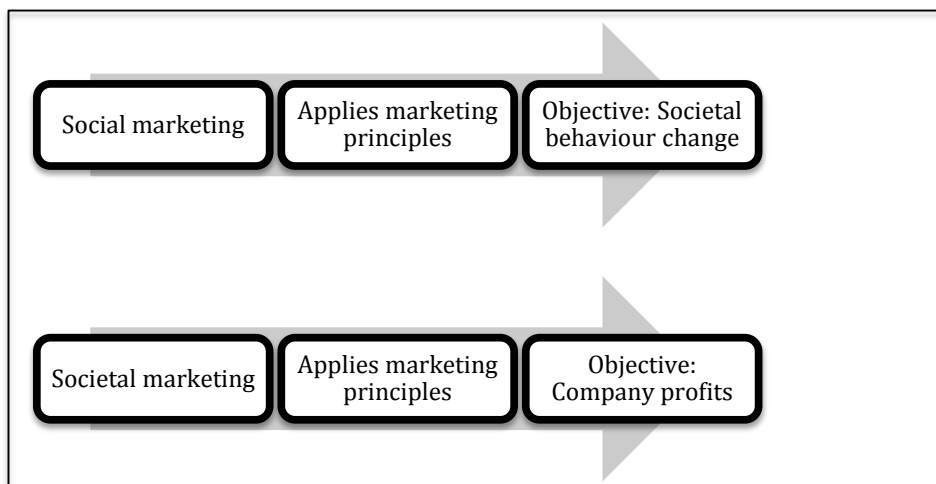
The value of a brand is represented by 'brand equity' which sits on a company's balance sheet under trademarks and goodwill, and can be traded (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998). The importance of brand equity is evident in the proliferation of models and arguments on the concept. Brands therefore bring opportunity and power, and optimising their use in social marketing campaigns for society's benefit, underpins the purpose of this study.

Social marketing is a concept proposed by Kotler and Zaltman (1971) that applies commercial marketing ideas and methods to social issues in order to achieve greater social change. Social marketing works to improve individuals'

wellbeing and social welfare by shaping markets of ideas and behaviours (Lefebvre, 2012), and thus it aims to change behaviour (Dann, 2010; Wymer, 2011). Social marketing is considered a sub-discipline of marketing.

Behaviour change projects are typically implemented by governments and donors who want to change a social behaviour, for example, reduce smoking, or increase condom usage. Social marketing is now being applied to a wider range of social issues, extending beyond its traditional use in the public health sector (Donovan, 2011; Lefebvre, 2011). The adoption of desired behaviour by multiple individuals leads to healthier societies with a wide range of benefits, including improved efficiency in public health spending, greater social cohesion and tolerance, improved safety and security, better education and higher standards of living.

Social marketing is not the same as societal marketing. The two sub-disciplines have different objectives as shown in Figure 1 below:



**Figure 1: Key objectives in marketing sub-disciplines**

As depicted, social marketing is principally interested in behaviour change (Dann, 2010; Grier & Bryant, 2005), while societal marketing, also an extension of the marketing concept (Abratt & Sacks, 1989; Kotler & Zaltman, 1971), is conducted by corporations whose primary motive is to make profit (Szykman, 2004; Abratt & Sacks, 1989; Bell & Emory, 1971). Societal marketing is also known as Corporate Societal Marketing (CSM).

Companies use societal marketing to show they are good social citizens (Bhattacharya, 2004; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). Customers expect that companies will engage with social causes (Szykman, 2004), and in most cases, brands are positively impacted (Hoeffler & Keller, 2002). Customers evaluate CSM campaigns according to the following: the company's industry (is it virtuous, sin or mixed?) (Szykman, 2004); the degree of fit between the cause and the company (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, & Hill, 2006); and the company's sincerity and motives (Green & Peloza, 2011; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). Customers accordingly and appropriately respond with judgements and feelings towards the company (Green & Peloza, 2011; Hoeffler & Keller, 2002).

Both societal marketing and social marketing use brands according to the objectives of the sub-discipline as shown in Figure 1: companies use brands in their CSM campaigns to increase profits; organisations use brands in social marketing campaigns to change behaviour on social issues.

There is an increased interest in the contribution that branding can bring to social marketing (Samad, Nwankwo, & Gbadamosi, 2010; Wood, 2012). Within the social marketing literature, brands are referred to as simply 'brands' (Samad et al., 2010), or in a number of other ways, such as aspirational brands (Blahut, Evans, Price, & Ulasevich, 2004; Price, Potter, Das, Wang, & Huhman, 2009), behavioural brands (Blahut et al., 2004), social sector brands (Kirby, 2001) and social brands (Wood, 2012; McDivitt, 2003). The differing terms used to describe the same concept suggest that a single term should be agreed upon so as to consolidate the concept and encourage further research. To this end, the research proposed the term 'social brands', and then explored the definition and the role of social brands.

To maximise the application of social brands, they need to be measured. According to Aaker (1996), the measurement of brand strength and brand value, guides and enhances efforts to build on brand objectives and brand programmes. This measurement is known as brand equity. Brand equity seeks to define the relationship between the brand and consumers, indicating a myriad of measures such as financial value, strength of consumer's attachment

to brand and description of associations that the consumer has about the brand (Wood, 2000). Prior research on brand equity for social marketing campaigns suggests that there is merit in conducting such research to determine campaign effectiveness and that further research should be done on the brand equity constructs (Blahut et al., 2004; Price et al., 2009).

## **1.3 Problem statement**

### ***1.3.1 Main problem***

This research aims to determine what social brands are, their role and definition, and their measurement through social brand equity.

The concept of brands has been carried over from traditional marketing to the social marketing field (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971). There are arguments that social marketing cannot simply adopt commercial or generic marketing approaches (Fourali, 2009; Wood, 2008), but should develop its own terms and concepts to drive the discipline forward. Although significant social marketing research has been conducted (Andreasen, 2002; Grier & Bryant, 2005; Lefebvre & Flora, 1988), the role and power of brands in social marketing has been relatively unexplored (Samad et al., 2010). This is evident from the lack of a single term that represents the specific and differing objective of a brand in a social marketing campaign compared to brands used in other marketing campaigns.

Branding played a pivotal role in three effective social marketing campaigns from the United States (US) that are referred to during this report, namely, *The Heart Truth* campaign that sought to raise heart disease awareness and prevention among women (Long, Taubenheim, Wayman, Temple, & Ruoff, 2008); the *VERB*<sup>TM</sup> campaign that was designed to increase physical activity among children aged 9 to 13 years (Price et al., 2009); and the *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> campaign that pitted itself against tobacco manufacturers as a non-smoking lifestyle brand for teenagers (Evans, Wasserman, Bertolotti, & Martino, 2002).

It is anticipated that the knowledge acquired from these campaigns and other literature on brands in social marketing will lead to the emergence of a single

term with a related definition and role, which will ultimately deepen knowledge on social marketing and the creation of effective campaigns.

The case for this is evident in reviewing some of the costs of social issues that are behaviour related. For example, in the US alone, the obesity epidemic affects more than a third of its citizens, with another third overweight, with an annual cost in excess of USD215 billion (Hammond & Levine, 2010). In Southern Africa, where the biggest HIV and AIDS burden sits, the costs extend beyond treatment, care and support, to affecting labour supply, labour productivity, direct and indirect costs to private sector, household and government expenditure, Gross Domestic Product, family relations and poverty, amongst others (Booyesen, Geldenhuys & Marinkov, 2003). Furthermore, USAID pledged USD291.9 million to South Africa in 2013 alone (USAID, 2014). A similarly dire situation is demonstrated with another behaviour-related public health issue, whereby health care costs associated with smokers at a given age are higher by 40% or more than those for non-smokers, with smokers experiencing a higher sensitivity to suffering from heart, lung and other cancers, COPD and strokes (Barendregt, Bonneux, & van der Maas, 1997).

Such behaviour-related costs are a global burden hindering development. Further research into social branding will enhance social marketing models, improving behaviour change results. This will result in superior spend of public and donor funds, ensuring greater and more effective programmatic reach, sustained behaviour change and improved socio-economic standards in targeted societies.

The role of social brands beyond the boundaries of social marketing and into the realms of traditional marketing must also be explored.

For-profit companies are increasingly applying CSM tactics. According to Kotler and Lee (2005), CSM is considered as the “best of breed” in CSR efforts. Research suggests that CSM campaigns must be tailored to the company’s target market (Bhattacharya, 2004; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001) and company’s must align themselves with social causes in different ways (Hoeffler & Keller, 2002). There is a lack of clear measurement of positive returns from CSM (Sen

& Bhattacharya, 2001). Accordingly, companies need a means of selecting which social causes offer them the greatest commercial benefit. A social brand equity framework could potentially provide a solution. There is a conceivable positive knock-on and measurable effect through a corporate brand being aligned with an appropriate and valuable social brand.

### **1.3.2 Sub-problems**

Branding may facilitate the exchange process in social marketing (Keller, 1998). Hence, defining a brand within the social marketing context is an important research problem.

According to Keller (1998), social brands may be an important means of communicating and reinforcing the benefits of behaviour change. Furthermore, social brands also create value through branding with corporate brands (Leitch & Davenport, 2007).

Many of the definitions of brands highlight their social nature (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Keller, 1998). However, these definitions are typically provided in the context of brands being used with a commercial objective. Social marketing clearly has a different objective to traditional marketing, which implies the existence of an important and necessary sub-category of brands. 'Social' is distinguished from other categories of brands as it concerns itself with 'what' and 'why' (Spotswood, French, Tapp, & Stead, 2012). It is suggested that the class of brands used in social marketing should simply be called 'social brands'.

A clear definition of social brands will indicate to social marketers what the social brand is required to do and achieve. This will provide a framework for the development of such brands and will lead to better overall performances of brands and branding in social marketing. Measurement in the form of social brand equity can then also take place, benefiting both social and societal marketers. The framework for the measurement of social brand equity forms the second research problem.

Brand equity has multiple definitions, (Yoo, Donthu, & Lee, 2000; Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993), which reflect the commercial intention of brands. Social brands, however, have social intentions (Grier & Bryant, 2005; Andreasen, 2002). It is currently unclear whether a social brand functions in the same way as a commercial brand in the mind of the individual. It is also unclear which social brand characteristics are deemed important by the individual. It is therefore plausible that determining the value of social brand equity may be different from determining the value of commercial brand equity. By creating a framework to measure social brand equity, social brands can acquire measurable value. This can partially serve as the evidence of success or failure of a social marketing campaign (Price et al., 2009).

Corporate brand equity is affected by societal marketing, yet the relationship is still not quantified (Hoeffler & Keller, 2002). There is also a lack of certainty, around how to measure the return of CSM (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). A framework to measure social brand equity will assist organisations in assessing how their social alignment has added value to their corporate brand.

If, as Kotler and Lee (2005) suggest, that corporates should be leading their CSI initiatives with CSM, increased interest falls on placing a value on social brands.

The study will provide recommendations for the application of social brand equity in both social marketing and societal marketing.

#### **1.4 Significance of the study**

The study fills a gap in that while social marketing has been broadly accepted as a separate and distinct field (Andreasen, 2002) much work needs to go into consolidating boundaries and principles (Andreasen, 2002; Fox & Kotler, 1980; Spotswood et al., 2012; Wood, 2012). Consistent and deep academic research needs to be conducted on the specifics of social marketing (Bloom & Novelli, 1981; Donovan, 2011; Spotswood et al., 2012) in order for it to overcome its barriers and attain its potential (Andreasen, 2002).

Over the past decades, there has been debate over the role of branding in social marketing campaigns with the recommendation that branding may be a useful tool in a social marketing programme (Keller, 1998). Currently, branding is being seen to label desired behaviour and that there should be the development of brand equity as it relates to desired behaviours (Lefebvre, 2013).

Inconsistency in the application of brands and branding to social marketing is evident from the lack of social campaigns that have a strong, identifiable and valued brand. Against the backdrop of corporate brands worth billions and societies that make decisions on the basis of brands, the lack of research into social branding is noticeable.

The current multiplicity of terms used for brands within social marketing campaigns is confusing and recognition of a single term, such as 'social brands', will help define the objective and role of brands in social marketing. Furthermore, by determining what social brands intend to achieve, it is more likely that social brands will be employed in a meaningful and effective way.

The study will provide guidance on valuing social brands, which may assist in obtaining renewed funding on social campaigns (Andreasen, 2002). It will create increased understanding as to the degree to which brand equity is co-created through other brands, plus in converse, how social brand equity can assist corporate brand equity (Hoeffler & Keller, 2002), deepening Leitch and Davenport's (2007) argument about the corporate value of a relationship between social brands and corporate brands.

Behaviour change is notoriously difficult to measure given it is typically witnessed as incremental change over a long period of time with a multitude of factors in varying degrees potentially affecting the individual (Bayerlein, 2005). In many instances, this lack of evidence and certainty is the reason for funders to stop or limit their financial support. Measuring social brand equity could assist in motivating for continued donor or public funding on a campaign. It is worth repeating that behaviour change is rooted in long-term interventions, and thus sustained commitment to a social marketing intervention through funders or

through corporates is necessary for behaviour change to occur (Andreasen, 2002). Furthermore, the creation of a strong and effective social brand, can lead to campaign implementation through a network of partners that allows the brand to be interpreted and owned by various communities with broad reaching impact. This has been seen in *The Heart Truth* campaign (Long et al., 2008) and in the application of branding for contraceptives in Pakistan (Samad et al., 2010), both of which are discussed later.

### **1.5 Delimitations of the study**

For the sake of ease and clarity, 'social brands' has been selected as the consolidating term to represent the current myriad of terms used. This may not necessarily be the final term used, however, the research is indicative of the need for a consolidating term in the field of social marketing.

The relationship of social brands to social marketing and societal marketing will determine the boundaries of research. Beyond the point of constructing an argument, there will be no exploration into or assessment of, the use of commercial or other brand types.

This study will only address the application of brand equity in terms of social brands, and will not address other forms of brands.

### **1.6 Definition of terms**

The following key terms are used in this research:

- a) Social marketing – The adaption and adoption of commercial marketing activities, institutions and processes, as a means to induce behavioural change in a target audience on a temporary or permanent basis to achieve a social goal (Dann, 2010).
- b) Corporate social responsibility (CSR) - A concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations

and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis (Prieto-Carrón, Lund-Thomsen, Chan, Muro & Bhushan, 2006).

- c) Corporate societal marketing (CSM) - Encompass marketing initiatives that have at least one non-economic objective related to social welfare and use the resources of the company and/or one of its partners (Hoeffler & Keller, 2002).
- d) Brand equity - The set of assets and liabilities linked to a brand's name and symbol that adds to or subtracts from the value provided by a product or service to a company and/or that company's customers (Aaker, 1996).

## **1.7 Assumptions**

The following assumptions have been made regarding the study:

- a. The sample will have the required information, and will be willing to share their responses towards social marketing, societal marketing, social brands and social brand equity.
- b. If a participant does not wish to disclose certain information in relation to social marketing, societal marketing, social brands and social brand equity, they will inform the interviewer that this is the case.
- c. Participants will reflect normal perspectives and experiences in relation to social marketing, societal marketing, social brands and social brand equity.
- d. When social change is referred to, it is assumed that this change is ethical and positive in a way that does no harm to others and does not disrespect others' rights or freedoms, nor impact on their way of living.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. INTRODUCTION**

This section contains a literature review on the key themes of relevance to the study. The literature review will commence with contextualising the study, by looking at the definitions of brands and branding, and exploring social and societal marketing. The links will be drawn between these areas of study. The second section will consider the role of brands for organisations and consumers, with increased attention on the role of brands in social and societal marketing. The final section will explore brand equity definitions and models, and constructs for measurement of social brand equity.

### **2.2 BRANDS IN SOCIAL AND SOCIETAL MARKETING**

Branding is one of the most discussed marketing principles in business (Kirby, 2001), extending to multiple applications such as services branding, place and country branding, political branding, employee branding and luxury branding. Brands also feature in societal marketing campaigns and likewise, have been effectively used in social marketing campaigns. The broad field of brands will be explored by reviewing firstly, existing literature on brands, including definitions and applications; secondly, the context specific to this study, social and societal marketing; and conclude with considering branding in relation to social and societal marketing.

#### **2.2.1 Brands and branding**

DeChernatony (2012) describes a brand as a cluster of functional and emotional values that enables organisations to make a promise about a unique and welcomed experience. This definition can be reduced to various levels, in that Balmer (2013) and Keller (1998) view a brand as essentially a label with system of meaning that is attached to a product, service, person, idea etc. rather than a tangible object. The inclusion of 'meaning', takes a brand beyond a simple logo to a means of integrating the company's functional and emotional

values with the consumer's requirements for performance and psychosocial values (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Keller, 2011). A brand is also seen to represent a portfolio of meaning (Montana, Guzman, & Moll, 2008). In doing so, brands become linked to a set of associations in the consumer's mind (Keller & Lehmann, 2006) that can form a covenant of expectations of functional and emotional characteristics (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Keller, 1998), that the consumer rewards with loyalty (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). Provided the covenant remains intact and the consumer is satisfied, the consumer feels less exposed to risk when using the brand (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Keller, 1998).

Brands often take on human features, such as a brand character or brand personality, and talk directly to consumers. This is known as anthropomorphism, and is generally seen to increase the brand's memorability and likeability (Aggarwal & McGill, 2012). In part, a consumer's expectations of a brand are linked to the brand's personality (Möller & Herm, 2011).

A brand takes a product beyond being a commodity through adding values, such that a product with a strong brand name is worth more than the sum of the component's parts (DeChernatony, 2012; Keller, 2011). Individual brands represent unique clusters of values (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998) that should be used in relation to the values of the target market. The target market finds value in brands that they can relate to and that reflects their character and personality (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Muniz Jr & O'guinn, 2001), and will accordingly select between competing brands (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Yoo et al., 2000). This 'value' is often emotionally driven and consumers find it difficult to express or quantify (DeChernatony, 2012).

When a brand brings a clear sustainable, competitive advantage, it is considered an asset to a company (DeChernatony, 2012). Creating this situation is worth the effort, given the value brands bring to business, both in terms of market capitalization (Keller & Lehmann, 2006) and as a determinant of a long-term relationship with the consumer (Low & Lamb Jr, 2000). While legal ownership of a brand may rest with a company, emotional ownership belongs to the consumer (Balmer, 2013; Keller, 2011). This ownership

expresses itself in consumers being less able to accept a substitute (DeChernatony, 2012).

Research suggests that consumers use brands for various reasons. For example, consumers use brands to differentiate themselves, to project their self identity and to communicate their preferences (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Keller, 1998).

In sufficient numbers, consumers selecting the same brand will form a brand community. This was predicated on the need to find a means of connection as a result of the eroding personalization of society through modern day living (Muniz Jr & O'guinn, 2001). This connection introduces not only real relationships but authenticity, where the brand is seen as a trusted friend (Aaker, 2012). A community reflects a shared consciousness by a number of people where there are shared rituals and traditions and an overall sense of moral responsibility, and where communities recognise what is considered right or wrong (Muniz Jr & O'guinn, 2001). Such a community brings scale to social marketing efforts (Lefebvre, 2012).

In particular, a brand community plays a role in building and maintaining strong brands (Matzler, Pichler, Füller, & Mooradian, 2011) such that the understanding of the brand extends from the connection that community members share and is beyond geographic boundaries (Muniz Jr & O'guinn, 2001). Marketing communications aid in providing consumers with experiences that will lead to a brand community, which through increased brand image and brand recall can benefit brand equity (Keller, 2009). Brand communities represent the opportunity for a two-way flow of information, providing feedback on the brand to the company and to other consumers (Matzler et al., 2011).

Given the value that brands offer, the concept has extended beyond the consumer goods sector to almost all organisations and institutions, including political parties, non-profit organisations, countries, regions and celebrities (Meyer, Brudler, & Blumelhuber, 2008).

## **2.2.2 Marketing sub-disciplines: social marketing and societal marketing**

The benefactors of social marketing campaigns are individuals and/or society as a whole (Andreasen, 2002), whereas the primary benefactors of societal marketing campaigns are the company and company brand, and the secondary benefactors are partner organisations, such as non-profits and the cause itself, with some behaviour change occurring at individual and/or societal level (Spotswood et al., 2012). It is proposed that the nature of the beneficence, pure profit, profit/behaviour change, behaviour change, determines the type of marketing that takes place (Rangun & Karim, 1991). While social marketing deals with society's fundamental beliefs and values, traditional marketing deals with society's more superficial preferences and opinions (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971). Societal marketing can be seen as the bridge between social and traditional marketing.

### **2.2.2.1 Social marketing**

Kotler and Zaltman's seminal article on social marketing (1971) laid the case for the use of traditional marketing techniques to be used to achieve positive change in social issues. Premised on that marketing is a link between knowledge possession and knowledge implementation, the authors suggest that the framework and tools, including the marketing mix, offered by marketers to achieve commercial goals could be applied to social issues to achieve social change goals. The proper application of social marketing is believed to be a potential solution to the many wide and complex issues that face society (Andreasen, 2002). Underpinning social change is behaviour change and this phrase has become synonymous with social marketing (Wood, 2012; Lefebvre, 2011; Dann, 2010), which is now firmly entrenched in broad studies and applications of the marketing discipline (Grier & Bryan, 2005; Andreasen, 2002). Programmes select priority target markets, rather than individuals, and aim to achieve broad change (Lefebvre, 2011).

Social marketing is seen as an iterative, long-term effort, with incremental, internal changes at the individual level for multiple people, where the suggested behaviours are relevant to their lives, ultimately resulting in society-wide behaviour change (Grier & Bryant, 2005; Lefebvre, 2011) where a large number of people think and act in the same way and share a sense of belonging. Social marketing is tasked with influencing voluntary behaviour and offering behaviour choices (Andreasen, 2002), by presenting advantages to behaviour change such as highlighting the individual's goals in relation to society, and offering environmental and behavioural consequences rather than sacrifices for the sake of society (Grier & Bryant, 2005).

Marketing is founded on the classical exchange theory where the results of a person's efforts have an appropriate and equitable relationship to one's inputs (Raab, Goddard, Ajami, & Unger, 2010). Commercially, this occurs when consumers seek value in goods and services that offer them the greatest benefits at the lowest cost, and where the exchange tends to be immediate and self-evident (Grier & Bryant, 2005). In social marketing, the exchange process occurs between the individual or society who (that) is to change, and the change agent (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971). According to Grier and Bryant (2005), the exchange tends to occur over the medium/long-term with the relationship between the two parties less explicit. It is noted though, that the principles of the exchange process, namely: benefits, values, costs and awareness of the exchange, exist.

Accordingly, in implementing a social marketing campaign, the fundamentals of marketing are still applied (Donovan, 2011). The campaign must be based on extensive market research to understand the market's needs, preferences and perceptions in relation to their current behaviour (Andreasen, 2002). The research informs the market segmentation process whereby groups of individuals/societies are clustered around selected variables, and selected for targeting (Kotler & Lee, 2008). Given budget constraints and issue prioritisation, one or more segments typically receive more attention with increased programme and strategy development than the other segments (Lefebvre, 2011).

A target-market orientated strategy, which ideally is pre-tested with the target market before implementation, is developed taking into account the existing knowledge, beliefs, needs, values and behaviours of the target market, and with an understanding of the motivators required for an individual to change (Andreasen, 2002; Grier & Bryant, 2005). It is cognisant of the competition, namely other behaviour choices the target market is indirectly or directly faced with as options (Andreasen, 2002). It also relies heavily on the 4P's of the marketing mix, namely product, place, price and promotion (Lefebvre, 2011; Grier & Bryan, 2005; Andreasen, 2002; Kotler & Zaltman, 1971), despite some researchers believing the usefulness of the traditional principles should be re-considered (Spotswood et al., 2012).

In social marketing, product is the desired behaviour, with the cause being marketed by the campaign, and linked to motivators of the required behaviour change (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971). Through social marketing, the core product is seen to offer a benefit that the target market values (exchange process) (Wood, 2008) and/or is an important solution to their problem (Grier & Bryant, 2005). There are three product levels: firstly, the core product, offering the benefits of the desired behaviour; secondly, the actual product, representing the actual desired behaviour; and finally, the augmented product, which consists of the tangible objects and services to support behaviour change (Kotler & Lee, 2008).

Place represents access (Lefebvre, 2011) where the desired behaviour should be demonstrated (Andreasen, 2002; Lefebvre, 2013), or may include physical locations or outlets offering services and products, and intermediaries who may assist with the change process (Grier & Bryant, 2005; Kotler & Zaltman, 1971). It includes, for example, the distribution of condoms for use during and after a social marketing campaign.

Price covers all costs or sacrifices that the individual (Grier & Bryant, 2005) or society must accept in gaining the product (desired behaviour), and may include money costs, opportunity costs, energy costs, and psychic costs (Grier & Bryant, 2005; Kotler & Zaltman, 1971). During the social marketing exchange process, an essential motivator is raising the benefits and values of the desired behaviour while lowering the costs. The individual thus needs to both

understand and measure these costs (Wood, 2008), plus must understand the actual value in changing their behaviour (Russell-Bennett, Wood, & Previte, 2013).

Promotion includes all forms of advertising and persuasive communication, including impersonal, that reach the target market and seek to promote and reinforce behaviour change goals (Grier & Bryant, 2005; Kotler & Zaltman, 1971; Kotler & Lee, 2008). While traditionally, the focus has fallen on sharing information, recent campaigns have been more aspirational in nature (Blahut et al., 2004; Long et al., 2008) using branding as their core strategy. This highlights the opportunity of creatively re-looking branding in applying the marketing mix (McDivitt, 2003).

Finally, as with all traditional marketing campaigns, the social marketing campaign applies monitoring and evaluation to determine its efficacy, need for revision, maximise resource allocation, and/or to serve as motivation for continuation of the campaign (Grier & Bryant, 2005; Kotler & Lee, 2008). Whereas with traditional marketing campaigns, one is able to assess campaign results through indicators such as growth in market share, measurement of behaviour change is an iterative and on-going process (Grier & Bryant, 2005). It is here that the notion of social brand equity can and has played a role (Blahut et al., 2004; Price et al., 2009).

As a key thinker in social marketing, Lefebvre (2012) argues that new thinking needs to be applied to the field of social marketing and social change, where behaviour change is not necessarily the only goal, but could also include the refinement or development of new products and services. The suggestion of products and services introduces the concept of a marketplace, where there is a market for ideas and behaviours, where consumers do not value the tangible product per se, but rather the service that the product offers. In this way the consumer co-produces the value. This research has been extended to suggest that the co-creation of value with service, skills and knowledge is the fundamental unit of exchange and should be the focus of social marketing (Russell-Bennett et al., 2013). Indeed, Lefebvre (2012) proposes that social marketers should let people determine for themselves what the value is of

changing their behaviour; where people co-produce new behaviour, rather than exchanging their behaviour.

To drive the sub-discipline beyond its current thinking, Lefebvre (2012) suggests a transformative social marketing model, which is represented by a three-dimensional cube and is designed to create patterns of change in society. The deep axis represents firstly the scope of social marketing where social marketers focus on exchange, and specifically on value co-creation, this being key to exchange. Other levels of the scope dimension are creating conversations, working in the context of communities and focusing on changing the marketplace. These levels will help social marketers approach markets with tools that ignite consumer participation and demand.

The horizontal axis focuses on the design of social marketing programmes. Here, Lefebvre (2012) suggests firstly there is an emphasis on honouring people. Next he builds on the co-creation of value concept by suggesting programmes radiate value. The third element engages service where exchange is central, and finally on the design axis, which seeks to enhance experiences such that people become engaged and connected.

The vertical axis is for value, which suggests critical values for a social marketing programme, namely giving dignity, providing hope, displaying trust and offering love. Through the powerful emotion of love, the social marketer is seeking a greater connection that extends beyond a product, service or even behaviour, but to something that may possibly be encapsulated by a brand.

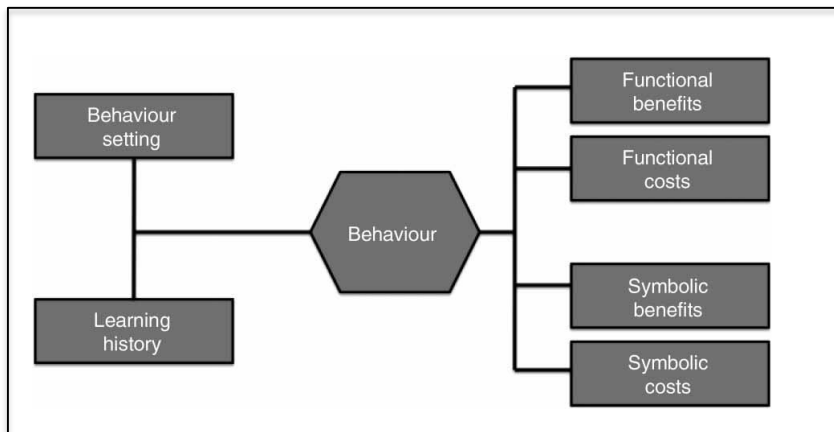
Irrespective of approach to social marketing, the objective remains consistent, that of changing the behaviour of society for the better. It is worth identifying the two groups in relation to behaviour change. The first is the influencer, the person or entity that persuades or provides leadership to others, indirectly affecting behaviour change, and the second is the enactor, the person or entity that is directly involved with the behaviour change (Russell-Bennett et al., 2013). These dynamics are suggestive of similarities with those of brand communities, referred to in Chapter 2.2.1.

### 2.2.2.2 Behaviour and behaviour change models

Surprisingly, much social marketing takes place without direct links or references to psychology and the drivers of behaviour change (Nicholson & Xiao, 2011). At its simplest levels, social marketing is trying to:

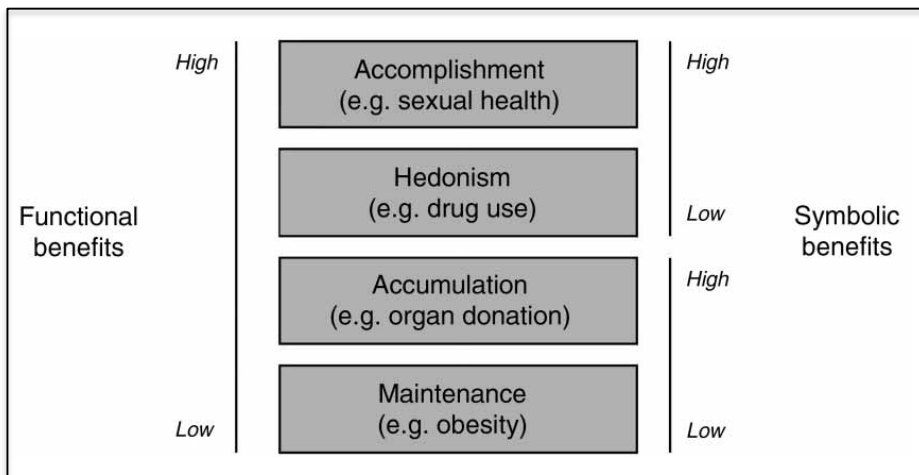
- 1) increase or decrease performance of a target behaviour, and
- 2) manipulate its associated benefits/costs.

To determine how social marketing interventions can be most effectively applied, it is necessary to investigate some of the models on behaviour. One model, the Behaviour Perspective Model (BPM), developed by Skinner (1953, 1974), was tweaked by researchers, Nicholson and Xiao (2011), specifically for the purpose of investigating each element in social marketing. An adaptation of the BPM for use in social marketing is shown in Figure 2 below:



**Figure 2: A social marketing version of the Behaviour Perspective Model (Nicholson & Xiao, 2011)**

As shown, behaviour is central to the model and Foxall (1993) identified four behaviour classes. These four classes were expanded by Nicholson and Xiao (2011) according to the social marketing BPM and are shown in Figure 3:



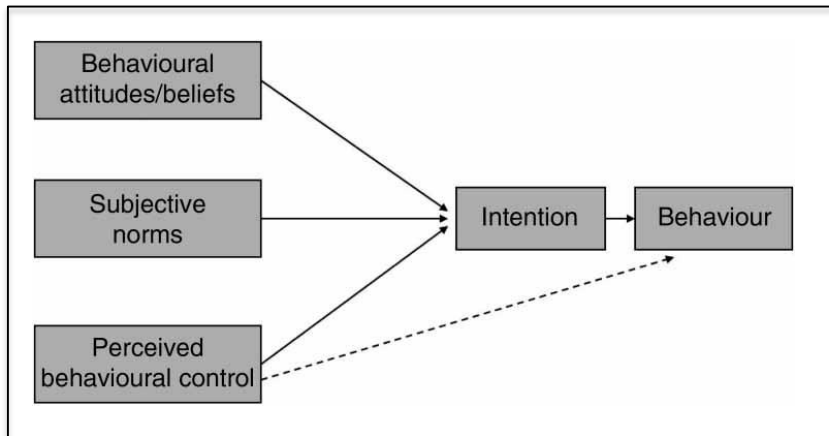
**Figure 3: Principle classes of behavioural intervention in social marketing (Nicolson & Xiao, 2011)**

As per the figure above, the four behaviours should be specifically addressed in the social marketing programme in terms of the dominant and appropriate functional and/or symbolic benefits. In other words, social marketing should either highlight (or not) the functional benefits associated with a specific behaviour, and/or highlight (or not) the symbolic benefits associated with a specific behaviour.

It is worth highlighting that brands would be seen primarily as a symbolic tool to be used, as required by the behaviour, in a social marketing intervention.

To refer again to Figure 2 above, behaviour setting is shown on the left side of the model. Foxall (1993) identified that in behaviour setting, there are four classes of stimuli, namely physical, social, temporal and regulatory, and all can be manipulated to affect behaviour. While creating the right environment for change to take place is important (behaviour setting), it is also important that a parallel intervention highlighting the benefits and costs of a behaviour should also be deployed (Nicolson & Xiao, 2011). In this way, the stimuli can also fulfil another role and act as the benefits and/or costs associated with each of the four behaviour types.

Another of the key theories around human behaviour is known as the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TpB) (Ajzen, 1991) as shown in Figure 4:



**Figure 4: Theory of Planned Behaviour (TpB) (Ajzen, 1991)**

As shown in the Theory of Planned Behaviour, the intention to behave a certain way is as a result of the relative strengths and weaknesses of the behavioural attitudes and beliefs, subjective norms and degree of perceived behavioural control. These aspects combined are the learning history of an individual, and should be taken into consideration in a social marketing intervention. The intervention must look more broadly than at just the benefits and costs of the learning history of the behaviour itself, but rather see how the benefits and costs of the learning history in other dimensions, such as social dimensions, can be highlighted to change the intention to behave (Nicolson & Xiao, 2011).

It is necessary to highlight that humans want to belong, form and maintain interpersonal relationships. When behaviour satisfies a need to belong, the behaviour is more socially motivated and so, social motivation has a direct effect on this type of behaviour (Manning, 2011). Belonging to a brand community can therefore be considered a mediator for behaviour. Another motivator is the future (and past identity), whereby the goals of the future can motivate one to take action today, particularly if that future is imminent (Peetz, Wilson, & Strahan, 2009).

However, not all behaviour fits such models, in that not all behaviour is logical and rational (Gibbons, Gerrard, Blanton, & Russell, 1998). Sometimes behaviour is reactive or impulsive, as a result of a risk-conducive environment. Therefore, despite the proven efficacy of theories such as the Theory of Planned Behaviour, it is worth noting that many theories can still be considered. It is beyond the scope of this report to delve into all theories, nonetheless some

highlights of other research as it relates to behaviour and possible social marketing interventions are included.

A key phrase in behaviour is that of motivation. Hence, it is worth reflecting on how individuals determine when a reason becomes a motivator. According to Dietrich and List (2013), there are three main considerations in determining when a reason becomes a motivator. Firstly the individual must be able to abstractly conceptualize the reason in terms of what it is, and what it is not. Secondly, the person must be able to quantify its meaning in both philosophical and psychological ways, and in doing so understand what the reason fully means. Finally, the individual must deem the reason to be salient and a criterion for forming preferences.

Understanding that not everything acts as a motivator for someone (despite a seemingly good reason) is important as people engage in different behaviour, with different motivations. The Self-determination Theory is a meta-theory that emerged out of four theories looking at the basic psychological needs of competence, relatedness and autonomy, which feed directly into motivation, performance and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Here, motivation occurs at different points along a continuum. As Keatley, Clarke and Hagger (2013) outline, on one extreme, there is intrinsic motivation, which impacts on behaviour that is self-determined and more spontaneous. This is when people engage in activities at their own free will because they either enjoy the activity, or they derive some benefit in the form of self-truth from it. The individual's decision to engage in the activity is made voluntarily without pressure or conflict. At the opposite extreme, behaviour is more controlled with deliberative decision-making. This is when people engage in activities to gain another external outcome, such as a reward or praise, or to avoid pain, pressure or conflict. There is an obligation or expectation to conduct the activity and the activity is not truly aligned with their sense of self. Accordingly, social marketing campaigns should determine what type of behaviour is typically being undertaken (for example, spontaneous or deliberative), and accordingly incorporate intrinsic or extrinsic motivation stimuli.

Other stimulus on behaviour is social influence, rather than rational thought (Gibbons et al., 1998). In the prototype/willingness model, behaviour is the result of behaviour willingness and behaviour intention. This model specifically notes that behaviour is sometimes as a result of a social setting, rather than something intended or planned. Social settings imply communities and cultures. In collectivistic cultures, the group or community achievement is exalted, whereas in individualistic cultures, personal achievement is exalted. Research has shown in such individualistic cultures, it is behaviour intention, where the individual drives decision making, that determines final behaviour, whereas in collectivistic cultures, it is behaviour willingness that plays a dominant role (Ohtomo, Hirose, & Midden, 2011). Social marketing campaigns should therefore be aware of the various cultural dynamics that could affect the behavioural response and accommodate this in the intervention.

By outlining some of the complexities of behaviour and motivation, the difficulty of implementing behaviour change, specifically at a broad, community-wide level, has been framed. The complexity of behaviour change requires several models, which may be applied in an integrated fashion or at different, specific stages (Prochaska, Redding, & Evers, 1997). The following section highlights three, of many more, key behaviour models.

The frequently used Health Belief Model (HBM) is used to explain change and continued health behaviours, as well as to guide health behaviour interventions (Champion & Skinner, 2008). The HBM has six constructs to explain why people take action with respect to their health. The constructs of perceived susceptibility, perceived severity, perceived benefits, perceived barriers, and self efficacy, along with cues to action, such as promotional messaging, are modified by other variables such as age, gender, ethnicity, personality, socioeconomics and knowledge, and describe why an individual behaves the way he or she does. By prioritising the key constructs in relation to a specific health behaviour and addressing them accordingly, behaviour change has been reported in relation to breast cancer screening and AIDS-related behaviours (Champion & Skinner, 2008).

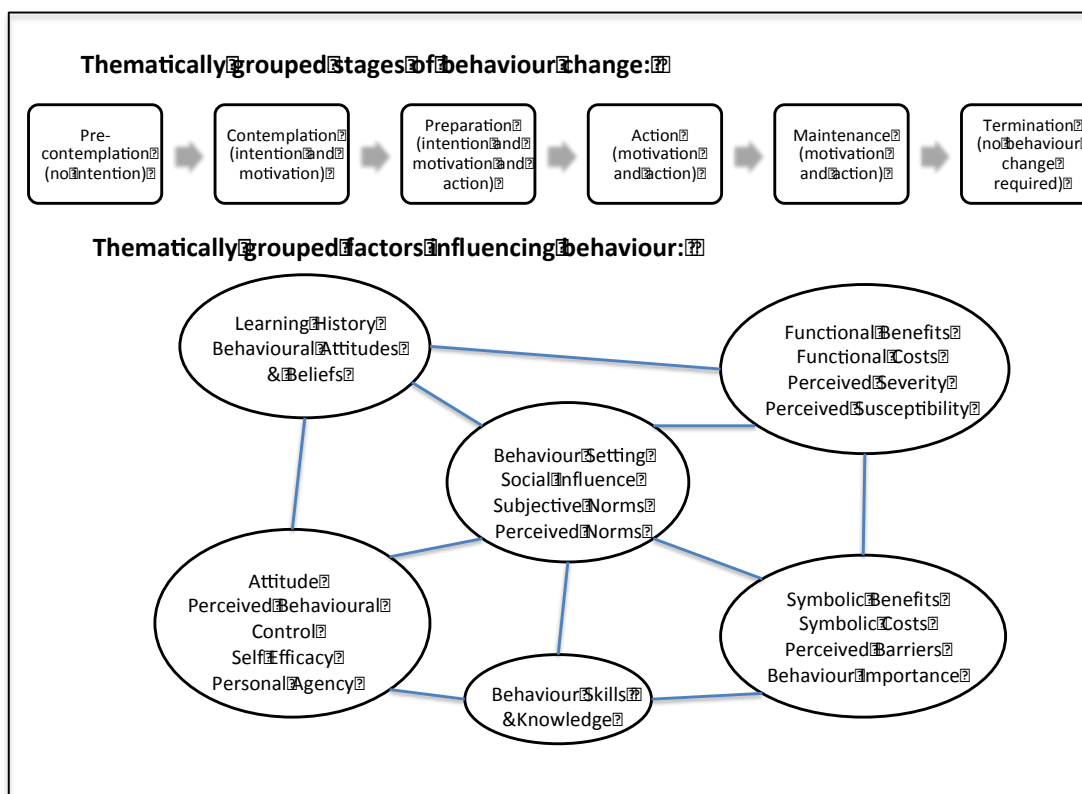
The Integrated Behaviour Model (IBM) represents the consolidation of two previous models, the Theory of Reasoned Action, and the Theory of Planned Behaviour, which argues that the most important determinant of behaviour is intention (Montano & Kasprzyk, 2008). Intention is governed by a person's attitude, perceived norms and personal agency. Other important determinants are having the skills and knowledge to perform the behaviour, having an environment that allows for the behaviour to take place, and that the behaviour has some importance to the person. When these factors are repeatedly in place and the behaviour becomes habitual, the intention becomes less important. To reach this point of changed behaviour, interventions need to be planned that take into account the local realities and drivers of the above mentioned determinants. IBM has been applied to HIV prevention in Zimbabwe in conjunction with a communication model known as Community Popular Opinion Leader (C-POL) (NIMH collaborative Prevention Trial Group, 2007), which seeks to design and deliver appropriate and persuasive messages in accordance with behavioural theory. The C-POL model reinforces positive behaviour beliefs, counters negative beliefs, reinforces behavioural support, and suggests strategies to overcome behavioural barriers (Montano & Kasprzyk, 2008).

This relationship highlights that implementation of behaviour models needs to happen in conjunction with an appropriate and supportive plan that is able to target people in the right way.

The Transtheoretical Model (TTM) has been used extensively to address a broad range of health and mental health behaviours (Prochaska et al., 1997). TTM posits that there are six stages of change that unfold over time, and not necessarily in a linear fashion. The stages move from pre-contemplation, where people do not intend taking action in the next six months or so, through to contemplation where people are stuck between the costs and benefits of the change but still have the intention to change. The next stage is preparation, where people have taken a step towards changing their behaviour, followed by action, which is taken to be total commitment to change. The maintenance phase is where people are less likely to relapse and lasts from six months to

five years. The termination phase is when people have complete self-efficacy and zero temptation to return to the original behaviour. Within these stages there are activities that take place, known as processes of change, which occur alongside decisional balance (the pros and cons of changing behaviour) and self-efficacy (the confidence of changing, or the lure of temptation). Similar to IBM and C-POL, researchers Prochaska et al. (1997) highlight that tailored communications are required to apply TTM.

By overlaying the various behaviour and behaviour change models, several key themes emerge which are graphically represented as in Figure 5 below:



**Figure 5: Stages of behaviour change with thematic factors influencing behaviour**

### 2.2.2.3 Societal marketing

The corporate societal marketing (CSM) concept was developed from the need to revisit the original marketing concept. This was due to the conflict between a

company optimising profit and a company taking responsibility for the consumer's welfare (Bell & Emory, 1971). The original marketing concept addressed the three elements of customer-orientation, integrated marketing and customer satisfaction, resulting in profit, which led to the inevitable rise of consumerism (Kotler, 1971). A chief consequence of consumerism, however, was an increase in social issues that in turn, affected the wellbeing of consumers (Wood, 2012). Kotler (1971) proposed that the marketing concept expand to the societal marketing concept: namely, that it should remain customer orientated and use integrated marketing to generate customer satisfaction and profit, all the while taking care of the consumer's long-term welfare. The seller should be incentivised to take care of the consumer's long-term welfare through social and ecological considerations given that failure to do this, may affect the long-term success of the business (Kotler, 1971). This seminal article on societal marketing, concluded with the now famous line of doing business, "what is good in the long run for consumers, is good for business" (Kotler, 1971).

For corporates focusing on attaining profits (Donovan, 2011), there are several opportunities. As Kotler (1971) argued, firstly, companies can innovate products to be socially responsible, which would be classified according to the immediacy of consumer satisfaction matched against the consumer's long-term interests. Secondly, companies can reflect a caring and concerned image that encompasses activities such as employee programmes and social initiatives. These activities would differentiate the company enabling a competitive advantage to be attained. This argument has been generally accepted in business practice, with the inclusion of CSM in company activities, through philanthropy, cause-related marketing, environmental sustainability, employee management and socially responsible manufacturing practices (Bhattacharya, 2004; Ellen, Webb, & Mohr, 2006) with the intention of portraying a company as responsive to the needs of the society it services (Ellen et al., 2006). The triple identities of a company (the actual identity, perceived identity and intended identity) are seen to be both determined and influenced by the company's CSR (Hildebrand, Sen, & Bhattacharya, 2011).

Beyond the umbrella term of CSM, and focusing on its CSR component, CSR in business can be traced back to 1332. The evolution of CSR from those early commercial days to current business practices, shows that CSR had definitive and strategic intentions. Over the decades, CSR has encompassed activities such as training potential employees to secure business inputs, improving working structures and the commercial environment to improve governance of the competitive environment, looking after the greater environment that would secure supply conditions and increase demand potential, and accumulating funds to leverage capabilities (Caulfield, 2013). In such diverse ways, CSR benefited the company in its commercialisation.

CSM, encompassing CSR, has become increasingly common and popular (Anghel, Grigore, & Roşca, 2011; Hildebrand et al., 2011; Hinson & Kodua, 2012), particularly given that 93% of consumers expect companies to support social causes (Cone/Echo, 2013; Keller, 2011) and view such companies favourably, albeit without the financial performance to back this up (Chen, 2011). In addition, governance models such as the King's Report III (King, 2009) refer to a company's triple bottom line, whereby companies are evaluated against their influence (positive or negative) on society, economics and their environment. In short, private sector companies may consider societal marketing but only so long as it directly, or indirectly, maintains or increases investment for shareholders (Wood, 2012). Expected results include raising funds for the social cause, increase in consumers and sales, and improved brand image (Anghel et al., 2011).

Apart from creating a competitive differential (Chen, 2011), companies use CSR to create and maintain mutually rewarding relationships with a variety of stakeholders (Hinson & Kodua, 2012). Consumers however, do not necessarily see the impact of CSR actions creating a question mark around brand credibility and brand affinity (Cone/Echo, 2013). Appropriate and targeted communication on CSR is key. In response, consumers are becoming more likely to switch brands to one that is associated with a good cause, given similar price and quality, with 88% of consumers seeing themselves as being responsible in purchasing socially and environmentally sound products (Cone/Echo, 2013).

Companies with distinctive and innovative CSR efforts will generate more positive attributions and attitudes from consumers (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001) with CSR being a potential game changer for companies with undifferentiated products. In other words, for competitive companies engaged in similar CSR activities with similar causes and / or similar commitment, consumers will not necessarily feel greater loyalty or interest towards one company (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). It is complex, with different consumer segments having varied expectations and responses in terms of awareness, attributes and attitudes towards CSR efforts (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). The complexity of the consumer response includes an assessment of corporate motives with consumers responding more positively to CSR efforts seen as values-driven and strategic while responding more negatively to CSR efforts seen as stakeholder-driven and egotistic (Ellen et al., 2006). In general though, consumers forgive socially responsible companies more easily when negative and unexpected events occur (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001).

Companies should however, seek to optimise their social spend, and in this regard, CSM is deemed to deliver greater marketing benefits to a company and create positive social issue change (Kotler & Lee, 2005). A fit between society's needs and a company's needs will breed the optimal CSM campaign (Kotler & Lee, 2005). Selection of the social cause is of great importance given that firstly, consumers respond more positively to CSM if they are supportive of the selected cause (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001), and secondly, the consumers' perceptions of fit, motivation and timing affect consumer behaviour (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006).

It is deemed that there are two types of fit, namely functional fit which compares the product's features and the social cause, and image fit which looks at characteristics of the brand in relation to the social causes' image and positioning (Alcañiz, Cáceres, & Pérez, 2010; Bigné, Currás-Pérez, & Aldás-Manzano, 2012).

Research on fit and impact on consumer's attitude and intention to purchase varies. For Forehand and Grier (2003), a low fit produces diminished attitudes towards the company and its initiatives with consumers less likely to be aware

of low-fit initiatives, and deem the efforts far-fetched (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). However, when the fit is seen as close, consumers see this as appropriate and genuine with an enhanced attitude to the company/brands (Keller & Aaker, 1992). Consumers consider the company to be involved because of a genuine desire to help the cause and build relationships, rather than excessive profiteering (Ellen et al., 2006). In addition, in cases of low fit alignments with positive initiatives, and high-fit initiatives that are seen as reactive and not proactive, consumers view the CSM efforts negatively (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). This is contrasted with Lafferty's (2007) work, which suggests that fit has no impact on the consumers' attitudes and intention to purchase.

One reason could be that consumers interrogate the company's motives of engaging in a cause. Interestingly, consumers do not necessarily perceive a self-serving motive to be negative, provided this motive is consistent with the company's overall motive and stated objectives (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Forehand & Grier, 2003). However, if consumers see some inconsistency, consumers perceive the company with the self-serving motive negatively, and in this instance the company with the public-serving motive will create a better impression with the consumer (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006).

### **2.2.3 Brands in social marketing: towards a definition**

In social marketing, branding involves an actual behaviour rather than a product or service, that can be supported through sub-brands (Keller, 1998; Lefebvre, 2013). This core difference suggests that brands in social marketing campaigns act within a sub-category of brands, and accordingly require their own term. It seems both logical and legitimate to extend social marketing to create the terminology of social branding with the outcome of a social brand.

Apart from being an identifier, Keller (1998) suggests that brands in social marketing should promote positive (negative) behaviour and the resulting benefits (costs). In this way, branding is the vehicle to deliver on the promise of the positioning statement (Lefebvre, 2013) and the resultant positive

behavioural change (Samad et al., 2010). To achieve this, a brand must represent a relationship with individuals and engender an emotional response (McDivitt, 2003).

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values.***

In recognition of the power of brands, many social marketers have rigorously applied the 4P's in social marketing programmes, advocating for the use of brands alongside distribution strategies, particularly for products and services (Lefebvre, 2011, 2013). As Samad et al. (2010) relate, branding contraceptives in Pakistan was key to communicating product quality, increasing confidence in the product, assist with product diffusion and ultimately, increasing acceptance and usage thereof.

In recent years though, some highly successful campaigns have applied branding to the promotion of behaviour change, as demonstrated in the brief summaries of three campaigns:

1. The *VERB*<sup>TM</sup> campaign sought to design an aspirational brand that would increase physical activity amongst children and tweens. Following formative research, the brand *VERB*<sup>TM</sup> was created as the link between emotional desires and idealised social images, and physical activity, and the brand was positioned as a fun, cool and accessible lifestyle brand (Price et al., 2009).
2. The *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> campaign wanted to promote a brand that would appeal to teenagers in the same way that major commercial brands did. Chiefly, the brand would be an identifier of an individual who has chosen not to smoke – and is rebelling against the (lies of the) tobacco industry - rather than communicate messaging on public health and reasons not to smoke (Evans et al., 2002).

3. *The Heart Truth* campaign tackled the issue of heart disease in women through a brand-driven social marketing campaign. Extensive formative research was conducted, the audience was analysed and the concept, message and materials were developed and tested prior to launch. The campaign symbol was the 'Red Dress' which emotionally connected with women and raised awareness of heart disease as a women's disease (Long et al., 2008).

In each of these three campaigns, the brand was developed following research and market segmentation. The chief objective of each brand in relation to the campaign was different, such that *VERB*<sup>TM</sup> is aspirational, *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> is an identifier, and *The Heart Truth* and *Red Dress* are symbolic. However, the overall objective was getting sufficient individuals to respond to the brand so as to create societal wide behaviour change; in other words, these brand-driven campaigns sought to create a community around a brand with an identified social purpose.

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P2: A social brand is a brand with an identified social purpose.***

The success of these social marketing campaigns is evident in the establishment of brand communities around *VERB*<sup>TM</sup>, *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup>, or *The Heart Truth*, who exhibit relatively strong commitment to the brand and the group (Muniz Jr & O'guinn, 2001), and stand firm against the common enemy (Muniz Jr & O'guinn, 2001), whether it be inactivity, deception, or lack of awareness, thereby creating a means for sustained behaviour change. It cannot be said that the brand itself created social change, however, the brand clearly was central to the entire campaign. When well executed on all fronts, the campaign was successful.

The main objective then of such brands tallies with the main objective of social marketing, namely, to change behaviour, which is distinctly different from corporate brands seeking to make money.

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P3: A social brand is a portfolio of meaning attached to a desired social behaviour.***

#### **2.2.4 Brands in societal marketing**

By comparison, Leitch and Davenport (2007) introduce the concept of a 'social brand' and argue that issues can be reframed as a class of brands, which may result in both positive and negative impact on the organisation and its public representation, namely the corporate brand. Their research goes on to evaluate the effect of issues, or social brands according to their definition, on corporate brands and this type of 'co-branding'. This argument essentially puts forward a case for organisations to incorporate social issues into their organisational activities so as to benefit their corporate brand. This adds to research on CSM.

Co-branding is a brand alliance strategy between two brands, who pair to share brand values and attributes to their mutual benefit (Sénéchal, Georges, & Pernin, 2013; Sood & Zang, 2008). Some companies may view co-branding as part of re-branding (Smith, 2001). Co-branding happens between corporate brands and, between corporate brands and brands linked to social issues. It has been shown that through this co-operation, a message is sent to consumers about trust, quality and increased value, resulting in increased purchase intentions for the corporate brand (Sénéchal et al., 2013). The cause itself, tends to get some exposure and money to continue their efforts, with little expectation that it will actually market the branded product (Smith, 2001). One demonstration of co-branding is through cause-marketing, where through sales of a product, money is donated to a NGO (Kotler & Lee, 2008).

#### ***SUMMARY OF RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS IN SECTION 2.2***

***P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values.***

***P2: A social brand is a brand with an identified social purpose.***

***P3: A social brand is a portfolio of meaning attached to a desired social behaviour.***

## **2.3 ROLE OF BRANDS**

This second section of the literature review examines the role of brands, firstly in relation to organisations and their consumers, and secondly in both social and societal marketing.

### **2.3.1 The role of brands for organisations and consumers**

Brands satisfy the consumer's functional and emotional needs; functionally a brand's initial role is to stand out from its competitors (DeChernatony, 2009) so that consumers can make purchase choices (Keller, 2009; Meyer et al., 2008) with an evaluation of the associated risk (Kotler & Keller, 2009) and emotionally it serves to form a relationship with its consumers (DeChernatony, 2012).

Brands are a form of intellectual property that can be offered legal protection and be a means to organise accounting records. It can act as a barrier of entry for other companies wanting to enter the market (Kotler & Keller, 2009). Branding is an important investment (Sexton, 2008) and a successful brand is a major contributor to a company's profitability (DeChernatony, 2012) being one of, if not the, single most valuable asset (Sexton, 2008). This is achieved through enhanced competitiveness where the brand delivers on the consumer's needs. The brand can also drive the company's competitiveness by demonstrating brand relevance through creating new sub-categories and brand barriers in the form of brand personality, social programmes, community benefits, organisational values, or self-expressive benefits, which competitors are unable to emulate (Aaker, 2012). The brand is able to carry the organisation into additional areas of profitability through exploring new opportunities, such as product variants, service improvements and geographic expansion (DeChernatony, 2012). Although there is debate about which serves to influence the other, it is evident that brand strategy and business strategy are closely intertwined (Esch, 2008).

Brands also play a role in affecting behaviour in a consumer. While consumers are more likely to take notice of, absorb and recall the marketing communications for strong brands (Keller, 2009), research conducted by Aggarwal, Pankaj and McGill (2012) found that as consumers like (or dislike) an anthropomorphised brand, they will be motivated by the behaviour suggested by the brand. While further research is required this study suggests that the role of corporate brands may have an impact on social behaviour.

### **2.3.2 The role of brands in social marketing**

In social marketing, brands help individuals to indicate to themselves and others that they identify with a specific behaviour (Kirby, 2001) and in doing so, may speed up the exchange process, with more immediate benefits and positive reinforcement (Lefebvre, 2013). Brands also serve to build relationships (Wood, 2008), and create emotional connections between the issue and the individual (McDivitt, 2003). Brands are not simply a logo or tagline, but represent what a behaviour, programme and sponsor mean to people (Lefebvre, 2011). Brands also act as reminders and catalysts to perform specific actions, engage in a social movement or change behaviours, and help campaigns gain visibility and raise awareness of issues (McDivitt, 2003). Possibly most importantly, a branded world is the world that modern individuals relate to and know (Wood, 2008), and while there may be ethical concerns about the consumerist nature of brands there is also an opportunity to convert this familiarity into positive behaviour change (McDivitt, 2003).

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.***

Further, given Wymer's (2011) argument that social marketers must move beyond the limitations offered by the individual and look more broadly, the social brand may serve to create the community that moves the focus of social marketing campaigns from the individual to the general.

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P5: Social brands represent community-wide positive behaviour actions.***

There have been several successful social marketing campaigns, where brands have been core to the campaign. In the following social marketing campaigns, brands have served to create active participants rather than passive target markets (Lefebvre, 2012). For example, the roles of the 'The Heart Truth' and 'Red Dress' brands were to connect with the target market, create relevance of the issues, increase awareness of the campaign and begin to motivate for behaviour change (Wayman, Long, Ruoff, Temple, & Taubenheim, 2008). The brands served to give the issue of women's heart disease a unique identity, create a strong emotional connection with women, and help create momentum for the social marketing process.

The role of brands was also central to the youth anti-smoking *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> campaign where the *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> brand represented aspirational, idealised social images that could compete with the tobacco industry brands (Evans et al., 2002). The brand was associated with the concept of rebelling and self-identity, which was key in encouraging youths to adopt a non-smoking lifestyle.

Beyond these roles, there is a more strategic role for a brand in a social marketing campaign. Branding represents an investment (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Yoo et al., 2000) and when the brand carries sufficient value it can be regarded as a determinant of success (Samad et al., 2010) and be used to motivate for continued donor funding or co-branding in societal campaigns. On a practical level, brands transcend the constraints of literacy (Lefebvre, 2011), a real factor to consider for many social marketing programmes.

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P6: Social brands represent positive behaviour investments.***

### **2.3.3 The role of brands in societal marketing**

Through effective societal marketing, a number of brand objectives can be realised, including brand awareness, positive brand image, enhanced brand credibility, evoking of brand feelings, creation of brand community and engagement with the brand (Keller, 2011). As CSR becomes more integrated into business operations, it is becoming an expected brand attribute (Cone/Echo, 2013), and provides a general context for the evaluation of a company (Brown & Dacin, 1997). Indeed, CSR is deemed a positioning strategy for companies, one that companies are using to give their brand a distinctive edge, enhancing its symbolic value and retaining its signalling capacity (Alcañiz et al., 2010). This helps to protect the brand promise and meaning to consumers, over the long-term (Keller, 2011). Further, as value can be added to a brand in a number of ways, the benefits that the value of a brand brings, can be manifested in a number of ways (Keller, 2009). For one, as a result of CSR, brand value has been shown to improve, albeit with less impact than market-based performance and corporation size (Melo & Galan, 2011).

It is noted that co-branding and brand alliances between corporates and social brands have become increasingly common (Keller & Lehmann, 2006) with an influence from one brand to the other occurring. In such relationships, companies need to tread lightly. Consumers are suspicious of relationships that may be dishonest or may manipulate them; or that may exploit the cause and benefit the company (Alcañiz et al., 2010).

Companies are turning to CSM to help build and sometimes even repair their brand images (Szykman, 2004) but the degree to which this is effective is not entirely clear (Szykman, 2004).

#### ***SUMMARY OF RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS FOR SECTION 2.3***

***P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.***

***P5: Social brands represent community-wide positive behaviour actions.***

***P6: Social brands represent positive behaviour investments.***

## **2.4 BRAND EQUITY**

This section of the literature review will examine several definitions and models of brand equity, including its application in social marketing campaigns, following by discussion on a measurement framework for social brands.

### **2.4.1 Brand Equity definitions and models**

There is good reason to measure and evaluate brand equity: it serves as a means of benchmarking, provides guidance into building a brand and what attributes are required, assists with on-going management of the brand (Aaker, 1996), can be used for accounting purposes, for merger, acquisition or divestiture purposes, and for improved marketing productivity (Keller, 1993). The saying, attributed to Peter Drucker, stands true: “if you want to manage something, you need to measure it”, and the same is true for brands.

The brand equity concept therefore allows for a generalised method of assessing the value of brands and related marketing strategies (Keller, 2009), but as Wood (2012) outlines, there are several perspectives on brand equity. The first, the brand value or financial-based perspective, sees a brand as a separate asset included on the balance sheet. This perspective is supported by Aaker (1996) who sees brand equity as “the set of assets and liabilities linked to a brand’s name and symbol that adds to or subtracts from the value provided by a product or service to a company and/or that company’s customers”, as well as Kotler and Keller (2009) who reduce this to simply “it is the added value endowed on products and services”. The second is the consumer-orientated perspective, measures the relationship between the consumer and the brand. This is also known as customer-based brand equity, which Keller (1993) posits is the difference that the brand has on the customer (Keller, 1993). The final perspective, the company-orientated perspective, describes associations and beliefs the consumer has when viewing the brand’s intangible qualities, positive or negative (Rust et al., 2004).

Despite differences in these perspectives, there is general consensus that brand equity should measure the results of marketing that stem directly and uniquely from a brand (Keller, 2009), and that all stakeholders play a role in creating brand equity (Meyer et al., 2008). Measurement of brand equity is important given that it has a predictable and meaningful impact on customer acquisition, retention and ultimately profitability (Stahl, Heitmann, Lehmann, & Neslin, 2012).

In determining the measurement of brand equity, Aaker (1996) suggests that firstly, the measures must be indicative of that which is actually being measured; secondly, should determine where the value lies, in creating brand equity; and thirdly that the measures must drive the market. In other words, if a change in tactic is employed on one of the measures, it will change the face of the financial results. Finally, to achieve such outcomes from a tactical change, the measures must also be sensitive. Finally, Aaker (1996) suggests that the measures must be applied across brands, product categories and markets.

By comparison, Neal and Strauss (2008) say that to determine brand equity, measures must be buyer-focused, valid, reliable and actionable, with a focus on tangible and intangible attributes.

Representing these varying views are several brand equity models, which are discussed at a high level in the following paragraphs:

### **Young and Rubicam (Y&R) Brand Asset™ Valuator**

The Young and Rubicam (Y&R) Brand Asset™ Valuator (BAV) represents research on more than 700,000 people in 49 countries covering 44,000 brands (Young & Rubicam, 2014). This customer-based brand equity model (Johansson, Dimofte, & Mazvancheryl, 2012) is based on four pillars of brand equity which together feed into two essential streams (Neal & Strauss, 2008). The first stream, the Brand Strength, represents the future of the brand (Kotler & Keller, 2009) and comprises of the two pillars: Differentiation, which measures the degree to which a brand is deemed different to others; and Relevance, which measures the relevance of the brand to the consumer's needs (Stahl et al., 2012). The second stream, Brand Stature, looks at the past performance of

the brand (Kotler & Keller, 2009), and comprises of the two pillars: Esteem, which measures how the brand is regarded and respected in terms of leadership, reliability and quality; and Knowledge, which measures how familiar and intimate consumers are with the brand (Stahl et al., 2012). Together these streams form a Power Grid to depict brand equity.

### **InterBrand Model**

Another well-known commercial model is the InterBrand Model which relies on a financial-perspective and converts the brand’s future income into current value by calculating the weighted average brand product revenue before taxes, for the previous three years, discounted for the earnings attributed to the brand (Jia & Zhang, 2013). This value results from combining a financial analysis, which looks at the financial value of a brand less taxes and capital expenditure to create the brand, a market analysis, which creates industry context for the financial analysis result, and a brand strength analysis which looks at ten specific characteristics (Larson, 2011), outlined briefly below in Table 1:

**Table 1: InterBrand Model: Brand Strength Analysis Drivers**

<b>Brand Strength Analysis Drivers</b>	
<b>Internally driven</b>	<b>Externally drive</b>
<b>Clarity:</b> a sense of what the brand stands for and its values, positioning, and proposition’ and well as understanding target audiences, customer insights, and brand drivers.	<b>Authenticity:</b> the brand’s internal truth and capability, based on a well-defined heritage and value set.
<b>Commitment:</b> organisational commitment to brand and belief in its important. Brand is supported over	<b>Relevance:</b> fit with consumer needs, desires, and decision criteria across all relevant demographics and

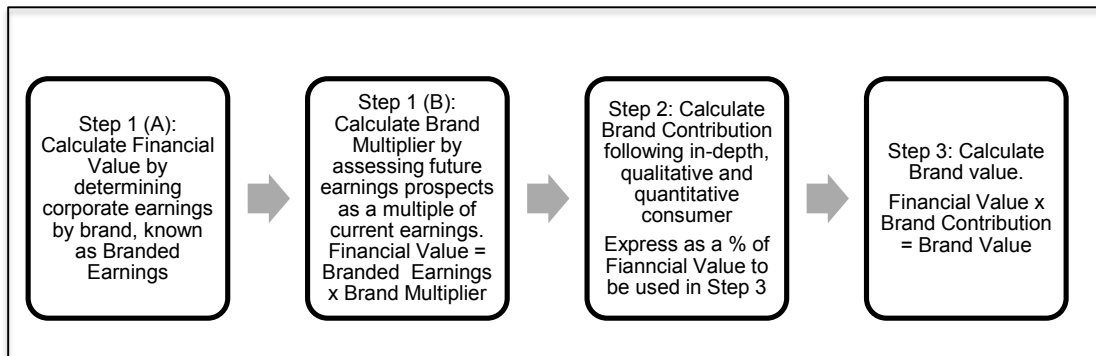
time, with investment and influence.	geographies.
<b>Protection:</b> brand's security across legal protection, proprietary ingredients or design, scale, or geographical spread.	<b>Differentiation:</b> the degree to which customers/ consumers perceive the brand to have a differentiated positioning distinctive from the competition.
<b>Responsiveness:</b> ability to respond to market changes, challenges, and opportunities, should be a leader and desire evolution.	<b>Consistency:</b> the degree to which a brand is experienced without fail across all touch points or formats.
	<b>Presence:</b> the brand's omnipresence; being talked about positively by consumers and opinion formers across media.
	<b>Understanding:</b> beyond recognition; brand's intrinsic qualities is truly known and understood.

**Source: InterBrand Best Global Brands Report (2013)**

The Brand Strength Analysis Drivers, outlined above, are each rated to produce a brand multiplier, which is applied to the results of the other analyses, and ultimately a value for the brand is determined (Rendón & Morales, 2013).

**Brandz Model**

Developed by marketing consultants, Millward Brown and WPP, the Brandz Model determines brand equity by assessing stages of brand building (Kotler & Keller, 2009) as depicted in Figure 6:



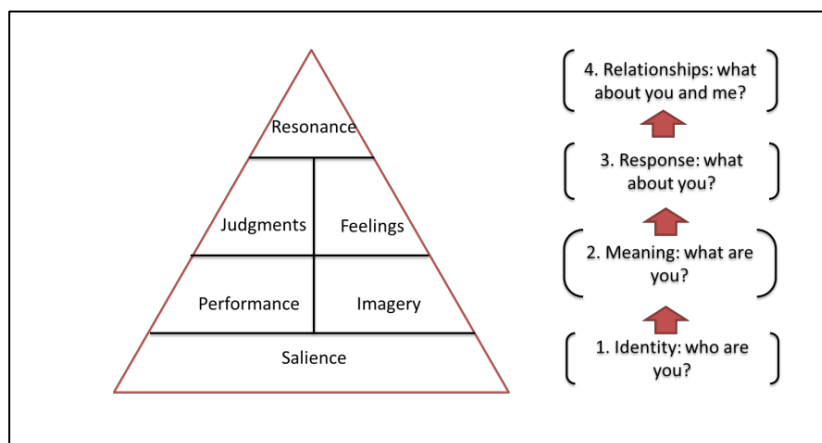
**Figure 6: The Brandz Valuation Process**

**Source: Millward Brown (2013)**

The outcome as shown above is a financial valuation for a brand. Their annual report of the Top 100 Global Brands is based on research with more than 2 million consumers in over 30 countries on more than 10 000 brands (Millward Brown, 2014).

**Brand Resonance Model**

The Brand Resonance Model was developed by Keller (2001) to reflect his concept of Customer-based Brand Equity (with the name for the model itself suggested by Ben Arno). This is shown in Figure 7 below:



**Figure 7: Brand Resonance Pyramid**

As shown, this model reflects four steps to develop a strong brand, and when successful, six brand building blocks result. These building blocks are salience, imagery, performance, feelings, judgements, and finally, the most valuable, resonance (Keller, 2001). The interrelationship is depicted in a pyramid ultimately resulting the penultimate goal of resonance.

### **Aaker Model (Brand Equity Ten)**

Aaker (1996) created The Brand Equity Ten shown in Table 2:

**Table 2: The Brand Equity Ten**

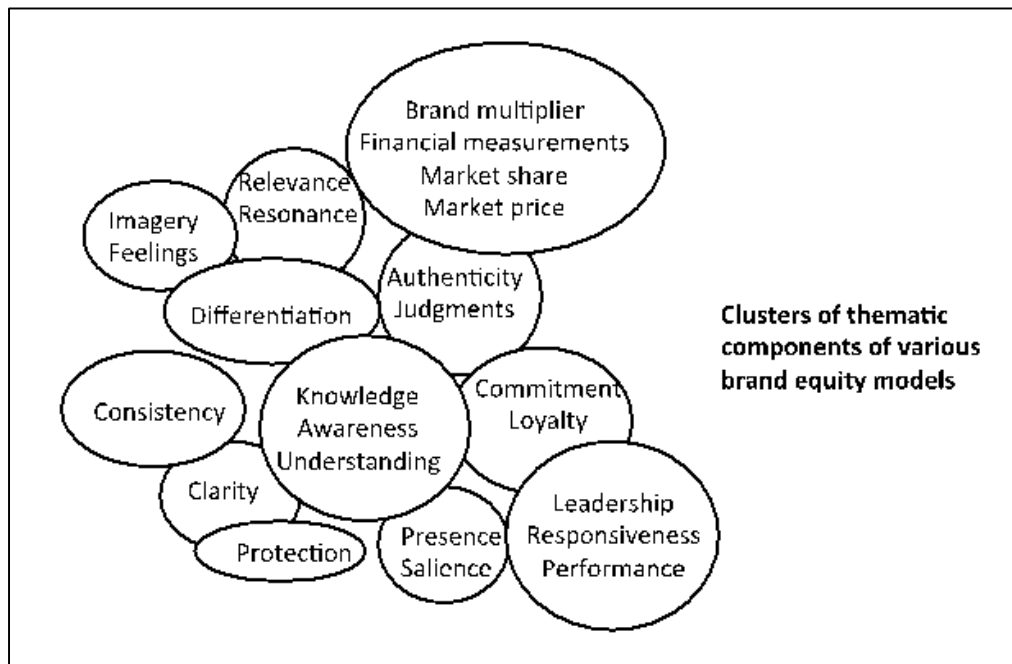
<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Attributes</b>
Loyalty	1. Price premium 2. Satisfaction and loyalty
Perceived quality / Leadership measures	3. Perceived quality 4. Leadership/popularity
Associations / Differentiation measures	5. Perceived values 6. Brand personality 7. Organisational associations
Awareness Measures	8. Brand awareness
Market Behaviour Measures	9. Market share 10. Market price and distribution coverage

**Source: Aaker (1996)**

As shown in Table 2, the Brand Equity Ten consists of 10 criteria, which have a strong corporate and commercial bias.

By comparing the different brand equity models, it is possible to discern several overlaps in wording, description or intent. For example, InterBrand's (2013) Brand Strength Analysis Driver 'Commitment' is very similar to Aaker's (1996) Brand Equity Ten 'Loyalty'. By working through the various models and

identifying similarities, thematic clusters can be determined as shown in Figure 8:



**Figure 8: Clusters of brand equity components across models**

As shown, thematic clusters represent constructs of the various brand equity models.

#### **2.4.1 Application of brand equity in social marketing campaigns**

In some instances where brands have been central to a social marketing campaign, such as *TRUTH<sup>sm</sup>*, the success of the campaign was determined through assessing the brand equity of the desired behaviour. According to Lefebvre (2009), this included attributes such as high awareness, fostering of loyalty and having a unique appealing identity and personality. Further, people must have had an experience with the value of the desired behaviour in relation to the current behaviour, which was deemed the competition.

The measurement of brand equity on the *TRUTH<sup>sm</sup>* social marketing campaign was seen as a central measure of the campaign strategy (Evans et al., 2002). In the absence of a robustly researched social brand equity model, the

researchers developed a variant of Aaker's (1996) model, shown in Table 3 below:

**Table 3: Aaker's (1996) Brand Equity Ten applied to social marketing campaigns**

<b>Aaker Dimension</b>	<b>Relevance to <i>TRUTH</i><sup>SM</sup></b>
Price premium	Assess individual's investment of time and effort associated with the promoted lifestyle
Satisfaction and loyalty	Assess individual's willingness to commit to, and recommend brand
Perceived quality	Assess individual's comparison to competitors
Leadership and popularity	Assess brand's innovativeness and popularity
Perceived value	Not applicable and not selected
Brand personality	Assess associations and appeal of brand
Organisational associations	Assess relationship between campaign and its cause/social issue
Brand awareness	Assess presence of brand in individual's mind
Market share	Assessed using analysis of gross rating points data
Market price	Not applicable and not selected

**Source: Evans et al. (2002)**

The initial research was confirmed using factor analysis on the same social marketing campaign indicating that the brand equity scale items previously selected represent a well-defined, reliable higher order construct (Blahut et al.,

2004). By applying these scales to a sample, it was determined that strong brand equity existed and thus behaviour had been affected.

To extend the above study and determine applicability to other social marketing campaigns, brand equity was also ascertained in the *VERB*<sup>TM</sup> campaign (Price et al., 2009), using the above selected constructs of The Brand Equity Ten, namely Brand loyalty and satisfaction, Brand leadership and popularity, Brand personality, and Brand awareness. Again confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) declared these constructs appropriate to the study. The purpose of assessing brand equity was to see if the brand had in fact mediated positive attitudes towards physical activity (Lefebvre, 2013), and the researchers found that youth in the high brand equity group were more likely to hold positive attitudes and engage in more physical activity (Price et al., 2009). The campaign was deemed successful.

These results suggest that Aaker's (1996) model may be an effective departure point for the creation of a social brand equity model. However, this model is not definitive and further research into the key characteristics for social brands must take place. Blahut et al. (2004) note that the application of Aaker's equity model is not commonly used for lifestyle; rather it is applied to a product, and Lefebvre (2013) suggests the development of brand equity for desired behaviours (i.e. branding).

The questions must be asked: has there been sufficient analysis of the social brand equity constructs? In other words, have all aspects of social brand equity been considered? Do these social brand equity constructs represent behaviour change? And finally, should, and how do, the social brand equity constructs translate into a financial value that is representative of both investment and earnings (results)?

A discussion on these questions provokes several considerations:

*Have all aspects of brand equity been considered?*

Earlier in this literature review, five popular brand equity models were reviewed. Each model presented a different approach and emphasis, which suggested

that there may be additional elements to the four Aaker constructs considered previously in measuring brands in social marketing campaigns.

For example, the InterBrand and Y&R models, discussed on page 38 and 39, had both selected Brand Differentiation and Brand Relevance as core constructs, which are not represented in the modified social brand equity constructs. It is posited that for one, relevance of brand could be important to measure in brand equity, given that as per the Transtheoretical Model, discussed on page 24, the individual must see the desired behaviour as personally relevant if they are going to contemplate change.

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P7: Brand Relevance is a social brand equity construct.***

*Do these brand equity constructs represent behaviour change?*

The success of a brand must be aligned with the purpose of the brand. Neal & Strauss (2008) suggest that the optimal way of determining brand equity is by evaluating the price premium that consumers are willing to pay for a branded product or service, compared to an equivalent unbranded product or service. This speaks to the profit purpose of corporate brands.

By contrast in social marketing, brand equity must have a relationship with behaviour change (change representing a 'before' and an 'after'). Thus the value of the 'before' or existing behaviour must be measured in relation to the value of the 'after' or desired behaviour, to determine the strength of brand equity. In some cases, the 'after' behaviour has not yet been sustained, and simply an awareness of the behaviour would be a mark of progress. Similarly, if a brand drives the intention of behaviour change, as discussed in the Integrated Behaviour Model on page 23, this should be measured as part of brand equity.

*This suggests the following propositions:*

***P8: Brand Awareness is a social brand equity construct.***

***P9: Intention towards Brand is a social brand equity construct.***

It stands to reason that when behaviour change has been achieved, the campaign has been optimally successful and brand equity should be maximised.

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P10: Brand Loyalty is a social brand equity construct.***

According to the Transtheoretical Model, discussed on page 24, when behaviour change has been sustained over a length of time this would be represented by the termination phase and theoretically, brand equity should be at its maximum. And yet, at this point the individual would not consider the 'before' behaviour, and the brand would no longer be deemed relevant to the individual. None of the existing brand equity models take this into account. It suggests that an affinity towards the behaviour and thus the brand should be considered for those individual exhibiting the desired behaviour. Affinity encompasses the brand personality, and similarly intangible characteristics that capture the essence of a brand.

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P11: Brand Resonance is a social brand equity construct.***

It would, however, be necessary to evaluate all aspects of brand equity that have been deemed important during the assessment of the *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> and *VERB*<sup>TM</sup> campaigns. The only attribute not yet covered is that of Brand Leadership. This attribute has also been dominant in several traditional brand equity models.

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P12: Brand Leadership is a social brand equity construct.***

*How do, and should, social brand equity constructs translate into a financial value that is representative of both investment and earnings (results)?*

Corporate brands are easier to monetise given that profitability is a measureable result of business and branding activities. This is acknowledged in both the InterBrand and Brandz models, discussed on page 39 and 40, which have a strong financial bias. This element was not included in the constructs selected for the *TRUTH*<sup>TM</sup> and *VERB*<sup>SM</sup> campaigns. Further, the benefits of determining a financial figure for brand equity would assist in co-branding in CSM efforts as it would create a system of measurement, whereby corporates could more correctly assess the value of aligning their corporate brand with the social brand.

However, the difficulty of measurement should not necessarily preclude it as an important construct in social brand equity. Firstly, a cost benefit analysis, where the costs of the campaign are weighed against the benefits that result, could be considered as a financial measurement. For example, the health costs associated with a society of smokers are considered in relation to the costs of implementing an anti-smoking programme. This would be done specifically to monetise efforts, rather than using a cost effectiveness analysis which produces a ratio of comparison on the effectiveness of two efforts (for example, the effect on society of conducting an anti-smoking campaign compared to not conducting an anti-smoking campaign).

*This suggests the following proposition:*

***P13: A cost benefit analysis would produce a financial multiplier for social brand equity.***

A summary of the research propositions to be explored follows:

***SUMMARY OF RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS FOR SECTION 2.4***

***P7: Brand Relevance is a social brand equity construct.***

***P8: Brand Awareness is a social brand equity construct.***

***P9: Intention towards Brand is a social brand equity construct.***

***P10: Brand Loyalty is a social brand equity construct.***

***P11: Brand Resonance is a social brand equity construct.***

***P12: Brand Leadership is a social brand equity construct.***

***P13: A cost benefit analysis would produce a financial multiplier for social brand equity.***

## **2.5 CONCLUSIONS**

The emergence of the term social brands is both evolutionary and necessary, given the varied and multiple roles brands play in the consumer's life. Furthermore, it is necessary to define the term so that social brands can perform better within the social marketing field. Identification of the attributes of social brand equity allows social brands to be better conceived of, developed and implemented. In addition, a framework for measurement produces a means for organisations to better utilise scarce resources and determine campaign efficacy.

### **SUMMARY RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS**

***P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values.***

***P2: A social brand is a brand with an identified social purpose.***

***P3: A social brand is a portfolio of meaning attached to a desired social behaviour.***

***P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.***

***P5: Social brands represent community-wide positive behaviour actions.***

***P6: Social brands represent positive behaviour investments.***

***P7: Brand Relevance is a social brand equity construct.***

***P8: Brand Awareness is a social brand equity construct.***

***P9: Intention towards Brand is a social brand equity construct.***

***P10: Brand Loyalty is a social brand equity construct.***

***P11: Brand Resonance is a social brand equity construct.***

***P12: Brand Leadership is a social brand equity construct.***

***P13: A cost benefit analysis would produce a financial multiplier for social brand equity.***

## **CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Chapter 3 explains the research methodology used to explore the research propositions of the definition, role and measurement of social brands. The chapter will commence by outlining the framework for the research, and discussing the research paradigm and reasons for selecting a qualitative approach. This will feed into the research design. The chapter will also identify the population and sample for the research, and explain the sampling method that was used. The research instrument that was used for data collection and data analysis will be discussed. In concluding the chapter, any limitations of the methodology will be highlighted, along with a discussion on the validity and reliability of the methodology.

### **3.1 Research methodology / paradigm**

The research propositions explore the definition and role of social brands, and the constructs to measure social brand equity. To adequately explore these propositions (Cresswell, 2013), a qualitative approach was used, which facilitates the study of issues in-depth and detail (Patton, 2002). According to Hanson and Grimmer (2007), qualitative research suits phenomena that are in motion, and uses techniques that facilitate understanding in that context. It is constructionist in perspective, and is concerned with how individuals understand and interpret their worlds (Bryman, 2012). Given the subjective nature of qualitative research, meaning is important, because the information collected cannot be analysed using mathematical and statistical techniques (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004). Instead, the way in which meaning is ascribed and conveyed will be important during analysis of the data, and this will ultimately produce a theory (Cresswell, 2013). The theory will be inductive in nature, and can be used in further research (Bryman, 2012).

This approach was appropriate given the paucity of research conducted in this area, and suited the objectives of formulating a definition for a 'social brand' and determining its relationship with and role in social marketing campaigns. Further, through drawing an assumption from the literature review that there is

value in measuring social brands, a study of how individuals see social brand equity required an in-depth discussion. This was facilitated through a qualitative approach.

In conducting the interviews, it was assumed that the participants would be truthful in their responses, and given their careful screening prior to contact being made, would be sufficiently knowledgeable to answer the questions appropriately. In this way, the theory that resulted from the research is deemed to be academically sound and meaningful for future research.

The next section will outline the research design that was selected to address the research propositions.

### **3.2 Research Design**

The research design was chosen as a result of the research problem and the research gap (Bryman, 2012). The intention of the research design process was to categorise and analyse data, identify relationships between categories and ultimately develop a substantive theory with specific conditions for use, that is underpinned by rigor and scientific credibility (Creswell, 2013).

To conduct the research, two of the three types of qualitative data collection (Patton, 2002) were used, namely: literature review and in-depth open-ended interviews. This two-pronged approach allowed for multiple views to be evaluated and collated into a new body of evidence around social brands with consideration of practical applications of social brands. Further, it allowed for academic research and on-the-ground campaign implementation to be categorised and analysed, so that maximum understanding of social brands could be achieved.

The literature review was an essential base step in the qualitative process. Firstly, through the analysis of existing texts discussing social brands, social marketing, societal marketing, and branding and brand equity in general, the study's background was established (Patton, 2002). Themes relating to the application of branding in social marketing campaigns were noted, along with

any gaps or areas of conflict, which created a focus for the study (Patton, 2002). This process determined a context for the research, which placed the research within other studies, rather than it standing distinct and isolated (Yin, 2011). Further, the review identified specific research areas so that as a result of the research, a more holistic and substantial theory (Yin, 2011) could be created.

As a result of the review, a discussion document was created for use in the in-depth interviews. The process of interviewing was equally essential because researchers cannot observe how people interpret their world, nor can they replicate past events of interest (Merriam, 2009). The interviews were held with industry experts and their responses recorded. The participants discussed all the research propositions, including their definition of social brands, their beliefs on the role of social brands in social marketing campaigns and their opinions on how value can be attributed to social brands. Typically, this meant answers were detailed, lengthy, and varied in wording in an effort to get the researcher to see the world from the participant's viewpoint (Patton, 2002). Responses were frequently probed because the participant had not fully answered the question or did not provide the complete information required (Bryman, 2012). In some instances, the answer opened a different line of thought, which provided greater context and understanding to the response.

An advantage of using interviews is that global perspectives can be considered and discussion on meaning can take place. This is particularly advantageous for exploratory research where cross-sectional insight will enrich the theory.

A disadvantage of this approach is that given the unfamiliarity, in general, or lack of definition to date, of the term 'social brand', the resultant responses ranged considerably. The discussion was therefore broad and philosophical which made pinning down nuances trickier than would have been with quantitative responses.

The application of these research designs will be outlined in Section 3.6 and Section 3.7.

### 3.3 Population and sample

All people who have knowledge of social marketing were considered as the population for this research. The population represents the universe of units from which a sample will be drawn (Bryman, 2012).

The sample was drawn on a purposive basis, which means participants were selected from the population on the basis that they could purposely inform the study (Cresswell, 2013). This is considered not only the main sampling method when developing a grounded theory (Marshall, 1996) but also the most effective approach for studying a certain cultural domain (Tongco, 2007). As such, only experts were considered for the sample. People were considered experts if they are academics in the social marketing field, donors, social marketing practitioners, CSR professionals, or psychologists who can offer insight to the behaviour change process. There was no geographical limitation of the sample.

An overview of the sample is shown in Table 4 below:

**Table 4: Profile of sample**

Description of sample type	Number interviewed
Social marketing academics	8
Social marketing practitioners	3
Donors	2
CSR professionals	1
Psychologists	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>15</b>

Selection of the sample shown above, was sequential in nature and continued until there was the full development of a theory, and saturation occurred.

Given that participants were required to be experts in relevant fields, the sample frame was constructed to include as many participants as possible. Names were also included in the sample frame through snowball sampling, whereby participants are recruited by means of referral (Bryman, 2012). This is a non-

probability, convenience sampling that assists when participants can be hard to find given the level of expertise required.

It was important that the sample size was large enough to reflect the varying views of the participants, while weighing up the time and costs of conducting the research. Sampling error had to be borne in mind, in that there may be differences between the responses from the sample and population; in other words it was necessary to be confident that the research could be generalized (Yin, 2011). As such any initial sampling error, provided it was small, was accepted (Bryman, 2012), while further, in-depth research was conducted to ensure saturation was achieved.

Individuals were contacted, primarily by email, and provided with background on the research and the purpose of the research. Their involvement in the research was requested and thereafter the discussion document and consent form, shown as Appendix A, were provided for their perusal. Interviews continued until saturation was achieved (Cresswell, 2013).

### **3.4 The research instrument**

Given the selected research strategy and design, data was sourced through two main means, namely a literature review and interviews, to explore the propositions.

The literature review was conducted first. A broad range of existing literature, including academic articles from reputable academic journals, was used to reflect the rich variety of prior research in the field (Patton, 2002). These documents provided much learning while also exposing areas for research and discussion, and informed the construction of the discussion document (Patton, 2002).

The research instrument was specifically called a discussion document, rather than questionnaire, as the purpose of the instrument was to discuss the research propositions, explore meaning on existing content and guide discussion on emerging trends in industries. It allowed for laddering to take

place during the interview, and so that the ultimate motive or reason for a thought or action could be immediately identified and noted. It also allowed for interaction across themes to take place with key themes hierarchically recorded.

The open-ended nature of this kind of interaction allows one to see the world through someone's eyes without being confined by pre-determined questionnaire categories (Patton, 2002). The participant was encouraged to answer the questions in his/her own words (Yin, 2011). The discussion document listed issues to be explored during the interview, and provided a point of reference to ensure that all participants were interviewed along the same lines. It also ensured maximum discussion on all research propositions, despite the limited time. It also ensured that there were no research gaps in the discussion even while remaining conversational and open (Patton, 2002).

The discussion document served to focus the discussion, even as it provided flexibility, and allowed the discussion to be shaped by the participant and their personal experiences. Although the discussion document elicited great insight, it resulted in a large amount of data that had to be captured and analysed.

The following section describes the use of the research instruments that were used in the current study.

### **3.5 Procedure for data collection**

Data collection generically represents any piece of information retrieved from the field that the interviewer deems fit for either quantitative or qualitative research purposes (Merriam, 2009). For the purposes of qualitative research, data collected represents research data obtained in the field through words to capture detailed descriptions about opinions, experiences, quotations, activity or behaviours (Merriam, 2009, 2002).

During the literature review, data was collected from academic sources, journal articles, industry reports and conference papers. Literature was selected on the basis of its relevance to the research, and the themes were noted. A research journal was maintained to record key phrases, words, contexts and situations to

ensure consistent application of thought and note any potential bias. It serves to provide detail and context during the analysis process.

In addition to thematic findings from the literature review, the literature reviews also provided information that was included in the open-ended question format of the discussion document.

To conduct interviews, industry experts were identified and approached for their involvement in the research. As grounded theory was being developed, it was necessary to achieve data saturation. Thus, the number of interviews was not capped, and interviewing continued until saturation occurred. This was ultimately reached at 15 interviews. In general, there was a highly positive response from experts, with 15 of the 20 experts contacted, willing to be part of the research. Interviews were scheduled on an on-going basis so that momentum was maintained even while there was time to capture the data. The form of interview depended on the location and availability of the participant and in most instances, this meant interviews took place through an internet service (mainly Skype).

Prior to conducting any interviews, the interview protocol was developed to ensure that standard procedures would be applied when recording and conducting the interviews (Cresswell, 2013). This served to create an environment of trust and comfort so that the participant was willing to share data (du Plooy, 2001). The interview was audiotaped and transcribed as soon as possible, after the interview. Notes were also taken during the interview. Together, this ensured that the meaning of the data was not forgotten and lost. As Schreier (2012) notes, data must have meaning, otherwise its value is lost. The electronic version has been saved for future reference.

Patton (2002) highlights that distorted responses may result from personal bias, politics, anxiety, anger, a simple lack of awareness and the emotional state of the interviewee. There may also be recall error and self-serving responses. To mitigate against this risk of bias, any possible distortions were noted on the recording of data.

By using multiple sources of data, the strengths of each data collection approach were maximised even while minimising the collection approach's weaknesses thereby enriching the process and forming a complete picture (Patton, 2002). This in-depth approach appeals to the dynamic and broad nature of phenomena (Schreier, 2012) and thus qualitative research. It has resulted in the data collection process being cyclical with codes for the data and concepts being added during the research process (Schreier, 2012).

### **3.6 Data analysis and interpretation**

During analysis of the data, all perspectives and findings needed to be acknowledged and explored. To achieve this, the vast amount of data collected had to be reduced into a meaningful and manageable format. Firstly, a coding frame was prepared, consisting of categories and sub-categories. This served as a means of structuring data so that different meanings could be captured. The frame was constructed to capture the nuances of meaning, such that dimensions thereof are uni-dimensional, mutually exclusive, and exhaustive, while achieving saturation (Schreier, 2012).

As noted in Section 3.5, the qualitative process is often an iterative one so that the holistic and in-depth elements relating to the research question are understood. The coding frame was therefore based on concepts that had emerged from prior knowledge and also included those concepts that emerged from the current research (Cresswell, 2013).

Decision rules were included in the coding frame. This assisted the researcher in determining to what category the content should belong, specifically when it appeared that the content overlapped categories (Schreier, 2012).

The open-ended questions could only be coded post the interview. A transcriber first transcribed the interview prior to coding. The first researcher coded the interview using the transcription and interview notes. Content was reduced into smaller units so that it clearly fitted into one category on the coding frame. The units of analysis were physical units, syntactic units, thematic unit and/or propositional units (du Plooy, 2001) and could be categorised on a nominal

scale. The procedure for analysis was systematically applied, with the researcher mindful of validity and reliability concepts. A tally sheet was compiled so that data or units were allocated to specific categories in a logical and consistent manner. This was done manually.

The process was then completed independently by a second researcher. Where discrepancies or concerns were noted, the two researchers discussed the meaning of the data, while referring to the interview notes. This was done to achieve consensus and served to ensure that coding was done reliably.

Cresswell (2013) discussed at length the emergence of the central phenomenon from the data collected and once identified, the other categories are explored in relation to this phenomenon. By exploring this phenomenon and the other categories, the two researchers were able to achieve consensus. Using axial coding, key themes were grouped hierarchically, and evaluated for inter-relationships and importance (Bryman 2012) to the central phenomenon. The categories were further refined and integrated using selective coding (Yin, 2011) and are represented in Chapter 4.

Following this process of interrogating the data and its meaning, theory was built. The findings have been written below in a narrative format in Chapters 5 and 6, addressing themes, interconnecting themes, applications and recommendations. A realist narrative has been written to ensure the narrative is both impersonal and neutral. As such my thoughts, feelings and experiences as one of the researchers and beyond what is relevant to the findings, will not be conveyed. Instead the full focus of the narrative falls on interpreting and reporting conclusions according to the data collected. It is necessary to ensure that the findings speak to the propositions and the analysis is relevant.

### **3.7 Limitations of the study**

It is acknowledged that not all participants were equally articulate nor receptive to the researcher, resulting in variable data being collected.

The researcher was responsible for filtering the information shared by the participant, potentially introducing bias.

The research crossed different fields, and while most experts participated in the research on the basis of their knowledge in the area, it is possible that some experts had limited familiarity with the terms used. This limits the generalization of the research.

### **3.8 Validity and reliability**

While all variables have some error, the measurement source of error in the form of validity and reliability can distort observed relationships and impact on research results. Researchers must therefore take care to address these important characteristics of measurement error.

Reliability is a measure of consistency or stability (Bryman, 2012; Du Plooy, 2002) and measures of reliability are used by researchers to ensure results can be used in the study (Arli & Lasmono, 2010; Ellen, Webb & Mohr, 2006) and/or to answer research propositions.

Validity tests ensure that the measurement measures that which it intends to measure (Bryman, 2012; Du Plooy, 2002) and that data has been collected fairly and completely, and accurate and representative meaning thereof has been reached (Yin, 2011). Validity therefore has an internal dimension and an external dimension, and both are addressed below (Schreier, 2012).

One of the strengths of qualitative research is validity in that researchers are able to crosscheck the findings from multiple stakeholders' perspectives (Cresswell, 2013).

In qualitative content analysis, validity checks and reliability checks are equally necessary (Schreier, 2012). The steps to ensure reliability and validity for this research are outlined in the following paragraphs.

### ***External validity***

External validity seeks to ensure the overall quality of the study (Schreier, 2012). To achieve this in this research, several methods were deployed. The triangulation of content analysis and interviews allowed the research to be cross-referenced and crosschecked (Creswell, 2013) and has been successfully applied by Aaker (1996). The input of multiple, independent sources served to build a credible and justifiable research result.

The research context, coupled with the depth and detail of the findings, leads to enhanced appreciation and understanding of the findings. The researcher has therefore taken note of such factors, such as background, setting, and included these in the final research document. Any comparison noted between settings and feedback was highlighted, as has any discrepant evidence, to ensure robustness of investigation, application of the intellect and resultant findings.

The accuracy of the findings has been determined through sharing major findings with those interviewed and gathering feedback.

It is also noted that while long-term research and involvement with the field adds validity to the findings, it is unlikely that this will take place due to time constraints on the research report. This is acknowledged as a weakness in the validity strategy.

### ***Internal validity***

Applying principles of internal validity assists in ensuring the research design has captured and recorded that which it intended doing (Schreier, 2012). While qualitative research, by nature, involves interpretation by the researcher, bias may be introduced into the findings (Cresswell, 2013). Acknowledging this allows readers to recognise that the individual involved in the research has been key to shaping the findings. The researcher bore this in mind during the research process and acknowledged potential bias in the final research document. The researcher was also aware that the use of certain adjectives may be deemed subjective (Yin, 2011) and thus, where possible, definitive

numbers and actualities have been included in the research report. In addition and as a counter-balance to the subjectivity of the researcher, a peer debriefer has been involved in reviewing and questioning the findings (Cresswell, 2013). In the case of this research, this individual is the research supervisor, who has added validity to the process.

Finally, the entire research has been submitted to a review committee who will interrogate the findings and ensure that the relationships and results posited are valid.

### ***Reliability***

To ensure that the qualitative approach was consistent, employing reliability measures was both necessary and important. Data had to be obtained that was free from error and would consistently be the output if the research were to be conducted repeatedly (Schreier, 2012). Cresswell (2013) suggests several practical measures, including ensuring that transcription errors have not been made and that codes are consistently applied during the coding process.

The researcher has crosschecked transcripts against transcribed material, and compared data with the codes to ensure definitions have not been loosely applied. Double coding has also been deployed to ensure consistency.

The researcher has also maintained a diary of activities conducted for reliability purposes. This will provide the reader with an understanding of exactly how the conclusions were reached (Schreier, 2012).

## CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

### 4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results obtained from the interviews. The results are presented using direct quotations from participants, graphs and tables. A total of 15 interviews were conducted covering various categories of participants, as shown in Table 5 below:

**Table 5: Participant profile**

Description of participant	Number interviewed
Social marketing academics	8
Social marketing practitioners	3
Donors	2
CSR professionals	1
Psychologists	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>15</b>

The research was truly global as it covered interviews in four English-speaking countries, as depicted in Table 6 below:

**Table 6: Participants per country**

Country	Number
Australia	4
Namibia	1
South Africa	4
United Kingdom	1

United States of America	5
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>15</b>

The relationship between the category of participant and the country from where he or she hailed is outlined in the following paragraphs.

### **Participant category: Academics**

The largest category of participants is that of ‘academics’ with a total of 8 participants of the total 15 interviews. The academic participants were spread across the United States of America, Australia and the United Kingdom, as shown in Table 7 below:

**Table 7: Academic participants by region and interview form**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Number</b>
United States of America	3
Australia	4
United Kingdom	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>8</b>

The academics interviewed are considered world leaders in the field of social marketing, each with a large number of published academic articles in leading journals, books or book chapters. Several academics also run social marketing agencies or act as consultants advising leading donor funders on key social issues, however, such participants were classified first and solely as academics. Of the 8 participants, 6 are professors, 1 is a doctor and 1 is a principle lecturer, with the average number of years in social marketing and related work sitting at over 26 years.

### **Participant category: Social marketers**

The next category of participants was that of the social marketers, specifically those who are in the field of practical development and implementation of social marketing strategy. As noted above several individuals classified as academics also act as consultants or run their own agency, however, they were not recorded in this group. This category consisted of 3 participants of the total 15 participants. It should also be noted that in one case, 2 participants from a particular agency chose to conduct the interview together, with this interview counting as a single (1) participant. The spread by region for the category is shown in Table 8 below:

**Table 8: Social marketer participants by region and interview form**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Number</b>
United States of America	2
South Africa	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>3</b>

In each case the participant has been responsible for running nationwide and best practice social marketing campaigns, including campaigns that have been discussed in the literature review such as *'The Heart Truth'* and *'Scrutinize'* campaigns. Participants also include regular contributors to and/or editors of social marketing communication platforms and journals.

### **Participant category: Funder**

The category of Funder also consisted of 3 participants. Participants were from massive international donor funder agencies or international corporates committed extensively to corporate social responsibility projects in multiple countries across the globe. Each participant had also previously acted in other roles within the greater social marketing and development context, ensuring that

as funders they are well acquainted with practical issues and financial realities. The geographic breakdown of such participants is shown in Table 9 below:

**Table 9: Funder participant by region and interview form**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Number</b>
Namibia	1
South Africa	2
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>3</b>

### **Participant category: Psychologists**

The smallest category included in the sample was that of psychologists with a total of 1 participant. The participant was selected given the extensive and senior clinical work she is responsible for at a significant behaviour change clinic in South Africa. A breakdown is shown in Table 10:

**Table 10: Psychologist participant by region and interview form**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Number</b>
South Africa	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>1</b>

## **4.2 Results pertaining to the propositions**

The discussion document used as represented in Appendix A addressed the three broad areas of the research, namely definition, role and measurement of social brands. Given the lack of research in this specific field, several exploratory questions relate to each broad area, with hypotheses existing for

each area of research. The results of each proposition are depicted in this section. Upon reviewing the transcribed discussions and interview notes, there are particular trends that are apparent and discussed in Chapter 5.

### **4.3 Results pertaining to the definition of a social brand: Proposition 1, 2 and 3**

The first 3 propositions relate to the definition of a social brand and this correlates with Question 1 to 4 from the discussion document. Question 1 located the question within the field of social marketing by asking if a term for a brand used in a social marketing campaign had a name. This was followed with Question 2 about there being any recognition for the term 'social brand'. This was necessary to locate the answer within any existing knowledge. The questions then became more specific seeking to understand if there was a perceived difference between different types of brands and for what intention a social brand could be deemed to exist. All four questions were necessary to answer the following propositions:

***P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values.***

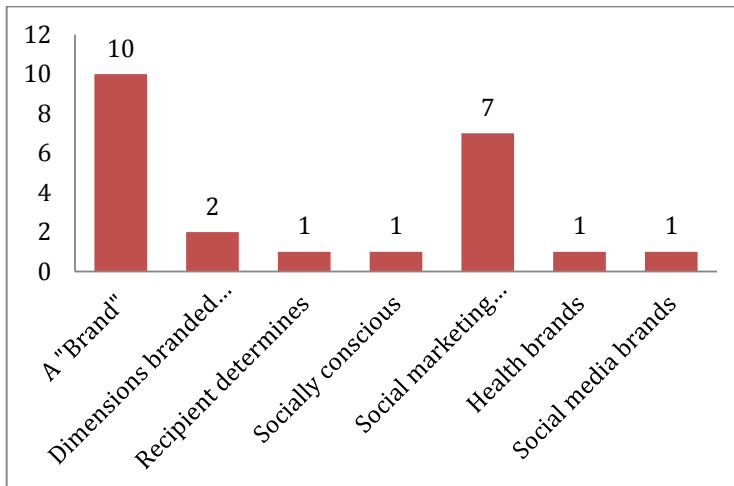
***P2: A social brand is a brand with an identified social purpose.***

***P3: A social brand is a portfolio of meaning attached to a desired social behaviour.***

### **Discussion document: Question 1**

***Q1. What would you call a brand that is used in social marketing campaigns?***

The key themes elicited around the term for a brand that is used in social marketing campaigns are represented in Figure 9 below:



**Figure 9: Term for a brand in social marketing campaigns**

The figure indicates that there was an overwhelming response that participants *“would just be considering it to be a brand”* (Participant 6) and that *“typically we don’t use a specific term to refer to these brands”* (Participant 12).

Participants noted that such brands displayed typical commercial brand characteristics, whereby it is *“a mark or name to distinguish the campaign from competition”* (Participant 10), *“a campaign identifier”* and *“has a consistent style, visual appearance etc. as does a commercial or corporate brand”* (Participant 5), yet participants also highlighted that *“in social marketing with the social brand you are not looking technically to make money”* (Participant 1); it is about *“creating awareness in society and trying to change certain choices either within society or actually maintain higher adherence levels within the society”* (Participant 4), and it is *“a brand that focuses on socially positive, socially relevant behaviours, products or services”* (Participant 7) and is *“positively pro social behaviour”* (Participant 14).

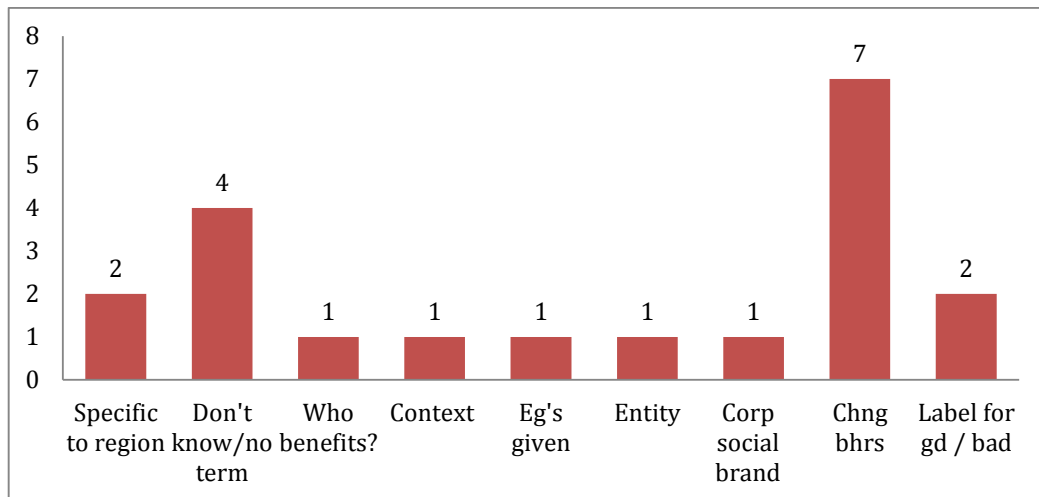
Several participants noted the need to contextualise the term ‘brand’ in the eyes of the recipient, such that *“if this was for one of my federal clients...I would call it (the brand) the positioning”* (Participant 2), given that the term ‘brand’ *assumes a very commercial way of thinking”* (Participant 13) despite it being *“fundamentally social”* (Participant 9).

## Discussion document: Question 2

Q2. What do you understand by the term 'social brand'?

The second question sought to determine any existing understanding of the term 'social brand' and to further contextualise the definition of a social brand.

The results are shown in Figure 10 below:



**Figure 10: Existing understanding of 'social brand'**

As shown, most participants felt that a social brand was about “a *pro social behaviour*” (Participant 14) where the objective was to “*exchange one behaviour for another behaviour*” (Participant 1) and “*help people to lead a healthier life or just improve their quality of life in general*” (Participant 12) and “*create awareness for society and trying to change certain choices*” (Participant 4). Including ‘social’ before brand created “*a label attached in social marketing to attempt to draw a line between the “good” world of social change and the “bad” world of commerce*” (Participant 6).

Context was an important consideration, given that “*branding...assumes a very commercial way of thinking about things, whereas the social part...talks to...what you want to do within a particular context or society within a social context*” (Participant 13). For some this meant determining if “*you were talking about the kind of brand I was talking about, not Facebook, LinkedIn or Twitter*” (Participant 2).

Doubt about the need to have a term specific to brands used in social marketing campaigns was also expressed, whereby Participant 5 said he was “*not sure that we need to call it a ‘social brand’ – we don’t label other parts of the social marketing mix in social marketing campaigns with the prefix ‘social’.*”

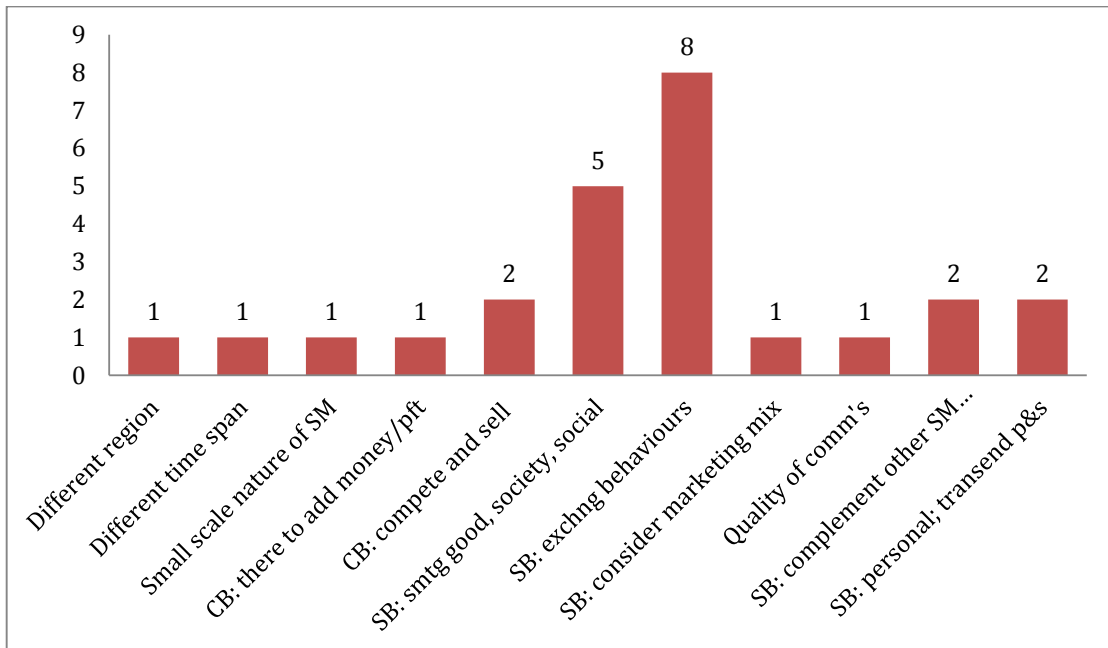
### **Discussion document: Question 3**

*Q3a. Do you think a ‘social brand’ is different from other types of brands?  
Yes/No*

*IF YES*

*Q3b. How is it different?*

Having established a general sense of branding in social marketing, the discussion delved into specifics. To do this, it was noted that for discussion purposes, a social brand would be deemed to be something such as ‘*Scrutinize*’, ‘*The Heart Truth*’ or similar. The discussion accordingly moved to Question 3, and understanding if participants indeed saw social brands as different to other brands. There was an overwhelming acknowledgement that social brands differ from other types of brands with 14 of the participants saying yes, and 1 participant saying no. For those 14 who said there was a difference, the majority acknowledged that the difference emerged from an acknowledgement that social brands were in some way intending to benefit society, through doing good or changing behaviours, as outlined in the Figure 11 below:



**Figure 11: How social brands differ from other brands?**

As shown, the majority of participants feel that “a social brand has relevance to a public” (Participant 9) in that “social brands target behaviour perceptions, behaviour change, whereas a commercial brand you are targeting the purchase of a product that an individual may use or desire” (Participant 4), and that “a social brand’s purpose is to ultimately influence behaviours that will benefit society as well as the individual as opposed to a commercial brand which benefits primarily the corporation and its shareholders” (Participant 11).

Participant 12 focused on a social brand being “used to promote behaviour change around issues...it’s more about a call to action than advertisements for a traditional product” whereas Participant 2 highlighted that “for commercial brands there usually is some (one) kind of product or service behind them...for (social brands) more around a constellation of behaviour(s) ...a series of behaviours.”

The distinction of competition between brands and categories was also mentioned whereby social brands are “seeking to change a behaviour (for example, from one category to another) while a brand is seeking to promote an alternative in the same category (and category swapping is more rare)” (Participant 10).

Apart from the intention of changing behaviour and doing good in society, Participant 1 saw that social brands are “*very often, very specific to a particular area, location, specific region*” which introduced the theme of funding in social marketing. This theme appeared several times during the course of the research.

#### **Discussion document: Question 4**

*Q4. Do you think a social brand is about...(more than one answer accepted):*

*\* a social issue*

*\* a social purpose*

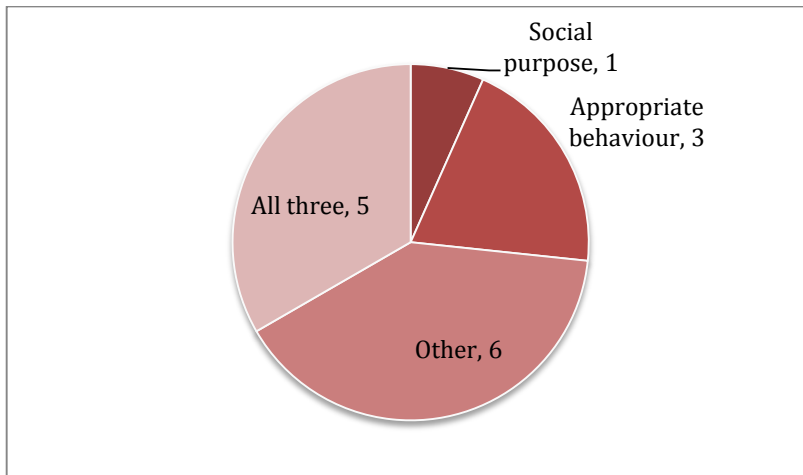
*\* an appropriate behaviour*

*\* other*

*Ask participant:* “*Please elaborate*”

The final question to define social brands addressed the specific focus of social brands and offered the suggestions of being about a social issue, social purpose, appropriate behaviour or other.

Here participants indicated that social brands had one or more intentions as depicted in Figure 12 below:



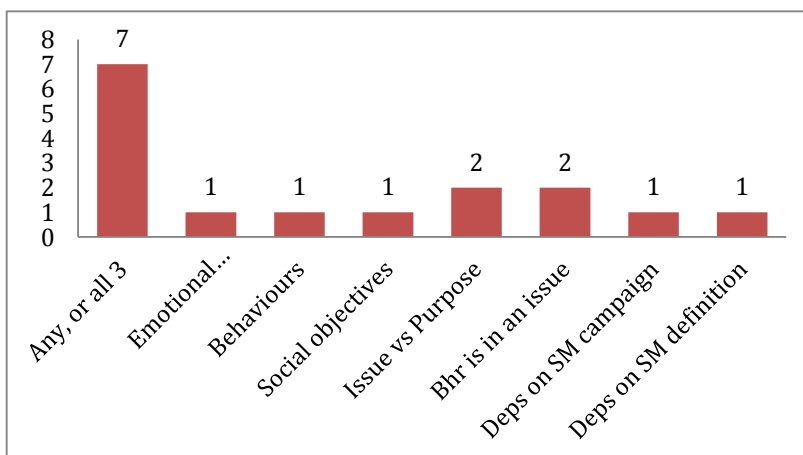
Scale	
1	Social purpose
2	Appropriate behaviour
3	Other
4	All Three

(Note: 'social issue' received zero responses so is not depicted above.)

**Figure 12: The focus of social brands**

The figure shows that only one participant felt a social brand was about a social purpose, with the balance opting for an appropriate behaviour (3), all three categories depending on how the social brand was used (5), or some other combination of the three options (6).

The participants were probed as to their answer on the focus area of a social brand, with the resultant bar graph in Figure 13:



**Figure 13: Detail on the focus area of a social brand**

As displayed, the majority of participants said “any of 1-3” (Participant 10) options could define a social brand given that “each element listed here – issue, purpose, and behaviour – can be branded” (Participant 6). For Participant 7, “brands are kind of the emotional connection that people have with any of these things, a social issue, a social purpose or behaviour” and that a “social brand can touch on any of this, and...these are all in some way attached to each other” (Participant 12).

Other participants played on the nuances between the definitions, ranking and evaluating the relationship between some, or all, of the options:

*“I think it’s there for the public good. It’s really number 2 which is a social purpose although I do feel strongly that a social purpose is defined by an issue in society and number 1 the social purpose in the long run is to have some kind of behaviour modification towards what is supposed to be the public good”* (Participant 9).

There was a feeling that “the more appropriate question is how one defines ‘social marketing’” (Participant 5) and that “social marketing is about a social change (and) we have to deal with big issues” (Participant 1).

#### **4.4 Results pertaining to the role of a social brand:**

##### **Proposition 4, 5 and 6**

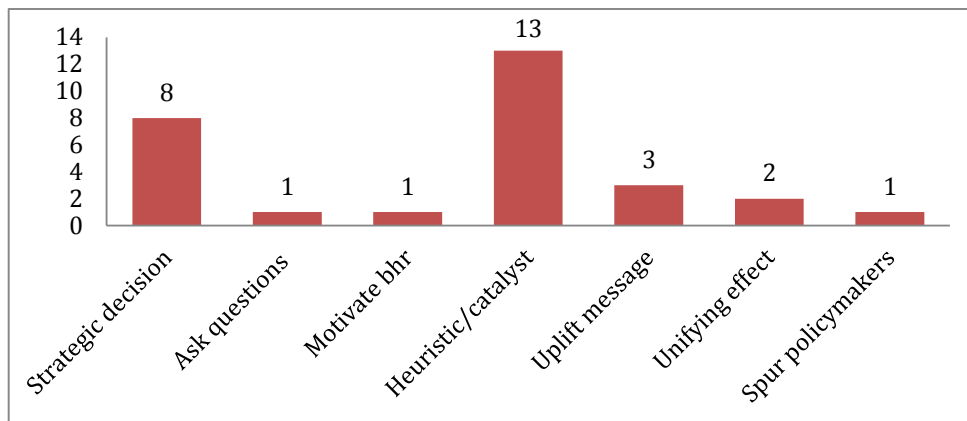
With the first section complete, the discussion moved to the role of a social brand and how it brings value to a social marketing campaign. It also sought to understand how this role is similar to and/or different from traditional brands. The following proposition was proposed and discussed in the question below:

***P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.***

## Discussion document: Question 5

*Q5. How do you think a social brand can impact a social marketing campaign?*

The question explored how a social brand could impact a social marketing campaign and determine if there is a difference in including such a brand in a campaign, and if so, why. In short, what effect did the social brand have on the efficacy of the campaign? The results are reflected below in Figure 14:



**Figure 14: Impact of a social brand on social marketing campaigns**

The graph shows that there are two main areas of consensus from participants; firstly, that of a social brand performing the strategic role of a traditional brand, and, secondly, that a social brand is a heuristic or shorthand for the campaign that can remind people of desired behaviours and serve as a catalyst for behaviour adoption.

On the first key area, there was recognition that the brand serves to determine *“the strategic focus and drive all the tactical choices”* (Participant 2) and *“brings all of the markets together in one recognisable identity”* (Participant 9).

Through *“branding that is easily identifiable and clearly communicates the essentials of the campaign message or topic (there is) more attention...for relevant target audiences”* (Participant 6), such that *“the brand becomes an actor in their lives”* (Participant 2). *“A brand also makes it ‘easy’ for people to talk about the campaign and campaign messages”* (Participant 6) and provides *“immediate recognition”* (Participant 9) such that *“people understood this, want*

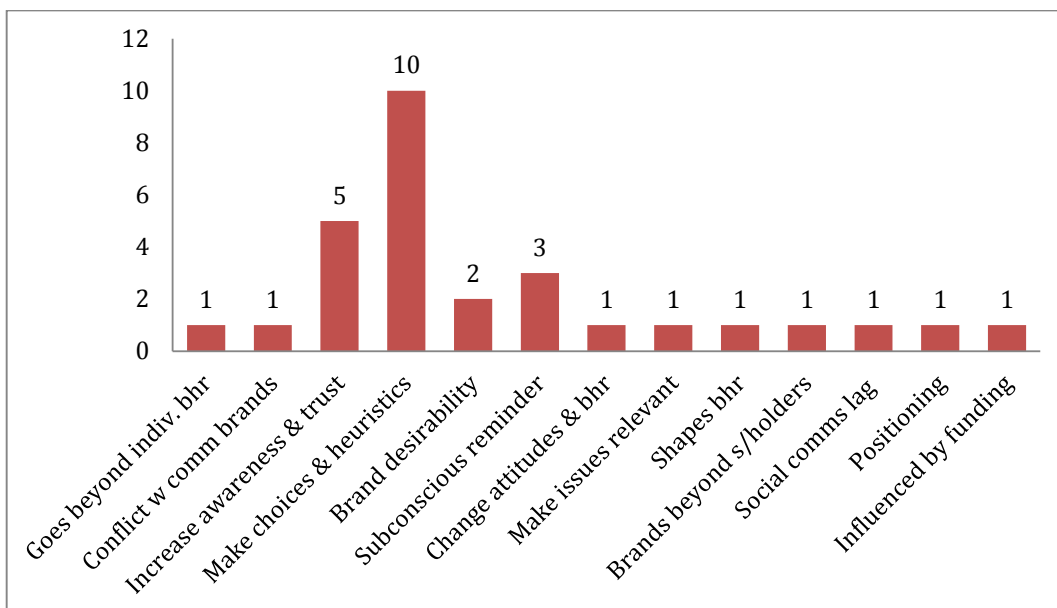
*to know it and the more people know something, the more likely they are to follow a particular trend or thought so the branding is absolutely fundamental” (Participant 13).*

In the second area of consensus and beyond the more traditionally accepted role of a brand, participants saw a key role of social brands as *“heuristics short cuts” (Participant 6) “to decision making” (Participant 14) whereby they “prompt awareness, remind and reinforce to better achieve the desired outcome” (Participant 10). “A brand is...shown to have an independent effect on behaviour change” (Participant 7) whereby it “makes you aware that actually this is real, it can happen to you” (Participant 4) and “it’s going to position that behaviour distinctly from the other kinds of behavioural choices” (Participant 7). In short, a social brand “take(s) a complex, complicated and nuanced set of thoughts, ideas and behaviours and add(s) on a quick macro-style thought process over the top” (Participant 6).*

## **Discussion document: Question 6**

<p><i>Q6. How do you think social brands can influence behaviour?</i></p>
---

Given the importance of behaviour in social marketing campaigns, the discussion moved to discuss the relationship between social brands and behaviour as shown in Figure 15 below:



**Figure 15: The influence of social brands on behaviour**

As shown, the responses here largely mirrored those of Question 5, in that there is recognition of the functional role brands play in forming an emotional relationship with the market, plus that brands help the market make choices.

Participants saw that the emotional function played by social brands “*has the potential to very hugely and very fundamentally influence behaviour and shape it*” (Participant 13) because people “*see the symbol and it automatically reminds them (of) the strong connection*” (Participant 12) and this “*provide(s) a rally point for people’s thinking*” (Participant 6).

Brands also help “*humans (who) are lazy creatures mentally...make some decisions, choices*” (Participant 2) through “*influenc(ing) you in terms of making it real*” (Participant 4). There is an “*action-trigger response where the desired behaviour is embedded in the brand (Slip. Slop. Slap.) or, the quick trigger that exists to get from contemplation to action*” (Participant 6). Brands help “*people get right to the behaviour a lot quicker*” (Participant 11) and “*prompt awareness, remind and reinforce*” (Participant 10).

## Discussion document: Question 7a and 7b

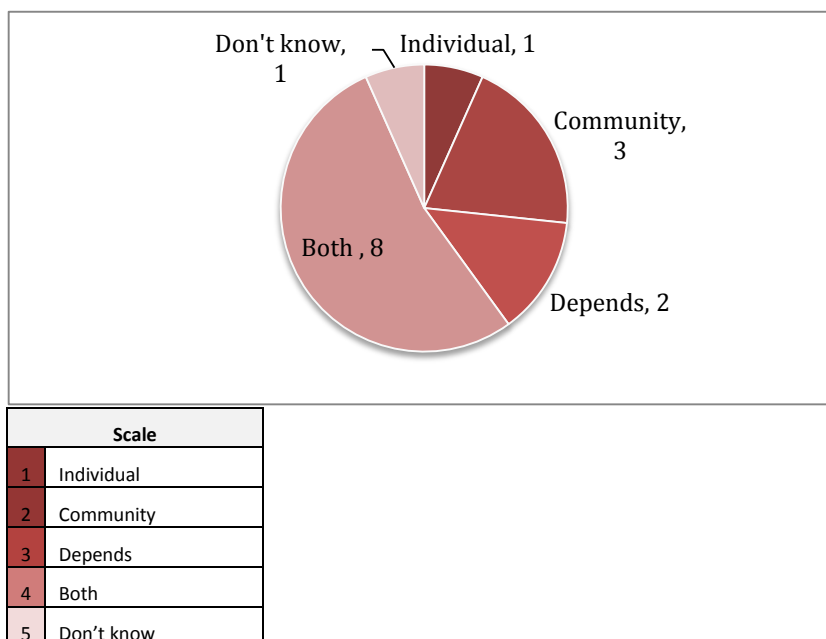
Q7a. Do you think a social brand is for the individual or for the community?

*Q7b. Please elaborate*

In understanding the role of a social brand, the discussion also sought to understand the social brand's target audience. Given that social marketing is aimed at changing society's behaviour the focus of the role of a social brand fell on the community at large, as shown in the following proposition:

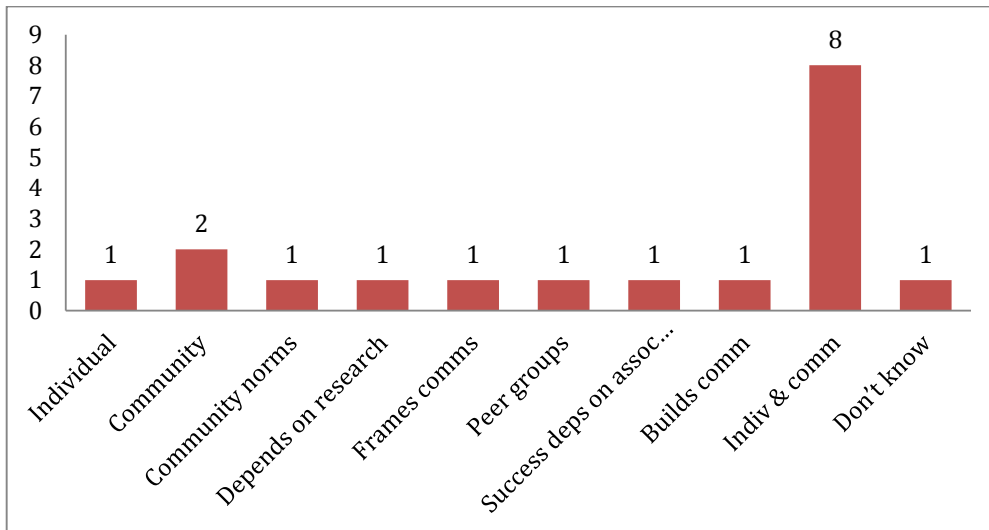
***P5: Social brands represent community-wide positive behaviour actions.***

The results of Question 6a are represented in Figure 16 that follows:



**Figure 16: Target audience of a social brand**

As shown above, 8 of the 15 participants felt that a social brand was targeting both the individual and the community. The responses following a probing of responses is shown in Figure 17 below:



**Figure 17: Detail on social brand's target audience**

As shown above, it was clear on analysis that most participants felt the individual was interwoven into the community, and “*could be both*” (Participant 10) because “*I don't think you should isolate between the two*” (Participant 9). There was recognition that “*it needs to start with one person*” (Participant 9) and that “*one individual can influence that peer group*” (Participant 4).

For 3 participants “*behaviour change is more of a community change*” (Participant 1) while 1 participant felt that “*first processing is individually mediated*” (Participant 6). Another two participants felt that understanding the “*the level that you want your brand to be associated*” (Participant 7) and asking “*how you think change will occur*” (Participant 2) would be important to determine the target audience.

### **Discussion document: Question 8a and 8b**

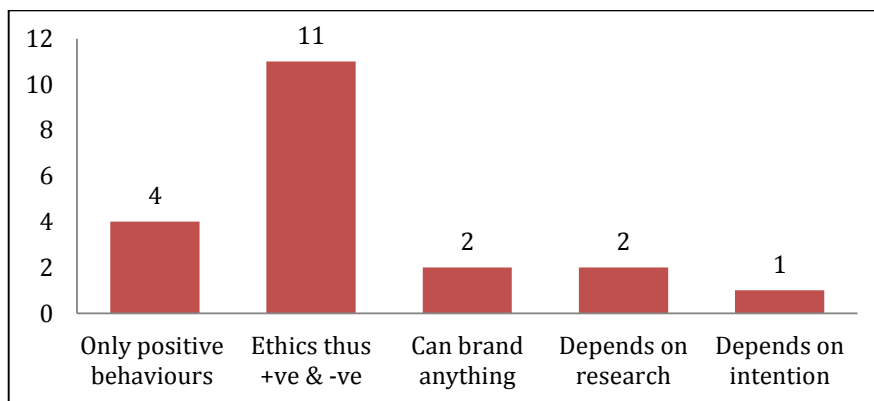
*Q8a. Does a social brand stand for positive behaviour only? (I.e. not negative behaviour) Yes/No*

*A8b. Please elaborate.*

In terms of the role, the relationship between positive and negative behaviours and social brands was explored. The objective of social marketing to create socially desirable behaviours led to the following proposition:

**P6: Social brands represent positive behaviour investments.**

The discussions typically explored firstly, whether a social brand could represent seemingly negative social behaviours, and secondly, whether a social brand should highlight negative consequences of adopting a desired behaviour. The results of a social brand being positive and/or negative are reflected below in Figure 18:



**Figure 18: Social brands and positive/negative behaviours**

As shown, clearly the majority of participants believe *“anything can be branded – the good and the bad”* (Participant 6) and that while *“we like to believe social branding stands only for positive behaviour but it can certainly do both”* (Participant 13).

While there was a sense that *“it could go either way”* (Participant 4), the question was asked *“who decides what’s positive and what’s negative and who are we?”* (Participant 1). Examples were discussed: *“Unrestricted gun ownership...is that pro social or anti social?”* (Participant 14) and *“political systems often use social brands to promote something that we would view as negative”* (Participant 3). And there was acknowledgement that *“how influential the branding is, (is dependent on) enough money”* further stating *“this distinction about social branding and the power that comes with the marketing of it and the funding that is required to market it...it can have quite negative consequences”* (Participant 13).

Four participants were adamant that *“a social brand stands for positive behaviour only”* (Participant 12) and that *“marketers should focus on delivering an offering that has value for the target market”* (Participant 10).

There was also discussion about what approach would be effective in reaching the target audience, and *“there’s times when you want to focus on what not to do, and there are times to focus on what to do”* (Participant 11). It was suggested that *“this will depend on what the research suggests is most/more appropriate”* (Participant 5) given that *“it can have the opposite effect or sometimes you ruin the perception (and) it’s a very fine line finding that balance of showing possibly what reality is”* (Participant 4).

A social brand has *“got to be responsible”* (Participant 7), *“especially if you are aiming to do something for the public good then you should be open and honest about all things”* (Participant 9). And whereas *“commercial marketers don’t tell you everything...there’s probably more of a need for social marketers to be honest with people”* (Participant 15).

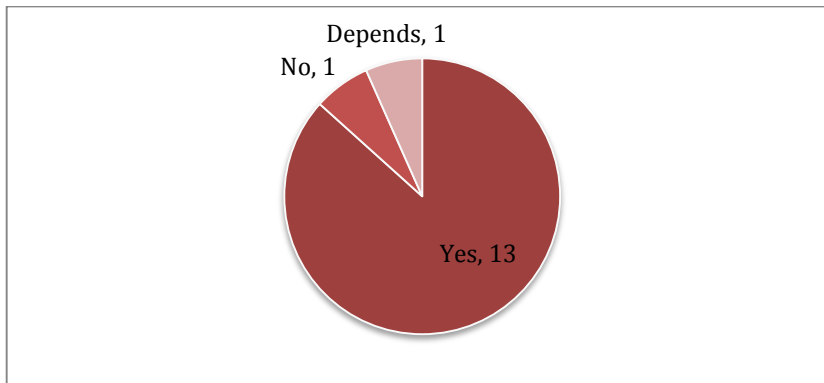
The point is driven home with the example: *“If you look at folic acid which is added to a lot of US foods because it helps birth defects, you have to be careful with older people because it can (cause) pernicious anaemia. So there we have a situation where you want to promote increased consumption to some groups, (but) the same increase (in) consumption can be dangerous to another person”* (Participant 2).

### **Discussion document: Question 9a and 9b**

*Q9a. Do you think social brands can unite the community? Yes/No*

*Q9b. Please elaborate.*

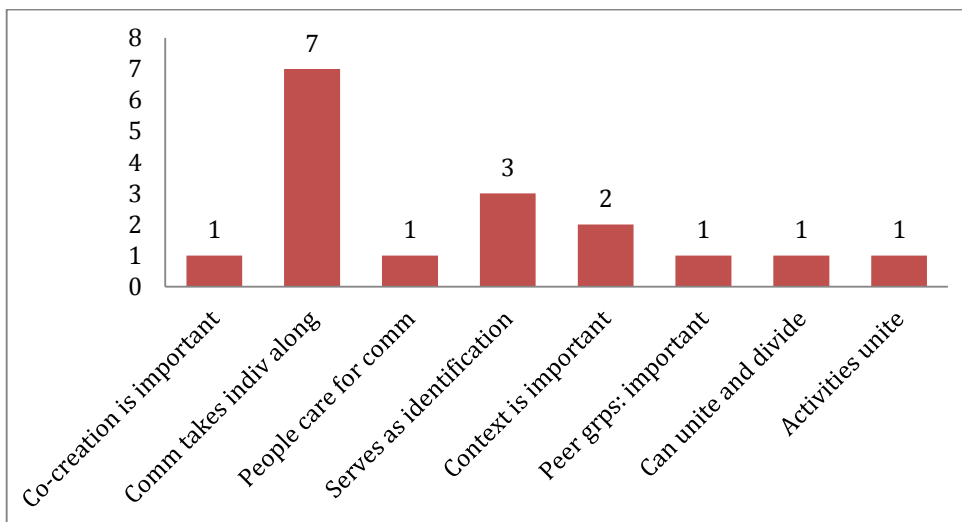
The final discussion area on the role of social brands looks at the ability of a social brand to unite a community. The results are reflected below in Figure 19:



Rating scale	
1	Yes
2	No
3	Depends

**Figure 19: Can social brand unite the community?**

As shown, the overwhelming majority (13 participants) felt that social brands could achieve this. The responses were further interrogated, and are shown in Figure 20 below:



**Figure 20: Detail on social brands uniting communities**

The figure shows that there is general acceptance that a social brand is “a way to unify a population” (Participant 12) given that it can “personalise a vision, a course of action and then hopefully leveraging that” (Participant 7). With a social brand “individuals will be carried along” (Participant 1) “because it’s done within the community, in an environment that this audience feels comfortable (with)” (Participant 12). “A lot of brands rely on community” (Participant 9) and “unite

*communities through identification*” (Participant 4). There *“can be powerful community building”* (Participant 14), *“giving people something to get behind”* (Participant 15).

Furthermore, there was recognition that *“it can unite as much as it can divide”* (Participant 13) but that *“it is the activities undertaken...not the brand per se”* (Participant 5) that actually holds the power.

#### **4.5 Results pertaining to the measurement of a social brand: Proposition 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 13**

The final section of the discussion revolved around the measuring of social brand equity. Potential constructs gleaned from the literature review were suggested with participants asked to rate its importance on a scale, and then discuss their answer. The purpose of the scale was not to enter a mixed-methods approach, but rather to gather a sense of relative importance in the mind of the participant. As a result of this approach, each construct formed a proposition.

#### **Discussion document: Question 10a**

The first proposition on social brand equity explored brand relevance:

***P7: Brand Relevance is a social brand equity construct.***

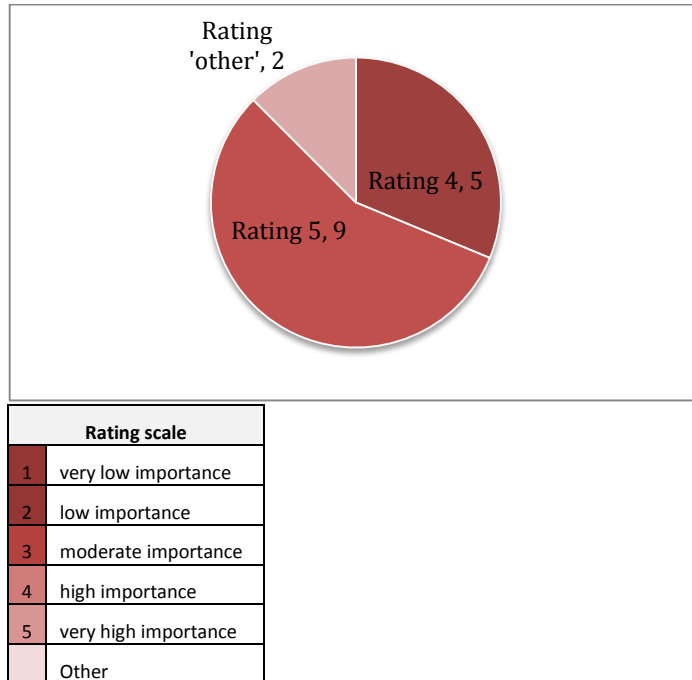
The question in the discussion document asked:

*Q10a. How important do you think brand relevance is for an individual being targeted by a social brand? In other words, how does it affect brand equity?*

*Use a scale of “5” down to “1” where “5” is “most important”, and “1” is least important to reflect the importance from your perspective.*

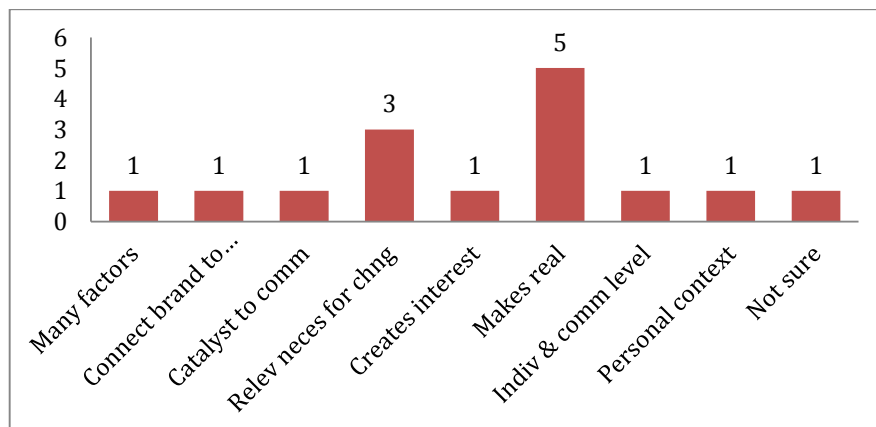
*Please elaborate.*

The overall rating for this potential construct showed that for most participants, the construct was deemed very important, with ratings mostly at 4 or 5. This is shown in Figure 21 below:



**Figure 21: Brand relevance on social brand equity**

Further analysis into the responses represented above, yielded results reflected in Figure 22 below:



**Figure 22: Detail on responses on brand relevance**

The results above show two main areas of how brand relevance are important to social brand equity. The first states that *“if it’s not relevant to me, I think then*

*its got no value at all* (Participant 15) and that *“we were successful in finding a relevant brand...and that’s one of the reasons why it has had so much success”* (Participant 12). The second area highlights that relevance increases *“the severity, the impact...the probability of this happening in my life”* (Participant 4) and without this recognition *“they feel it’s not impacting their lives personally”* (Participant 4) so *“they are not going to be interested in it”* (Participant 2).

Participants mentioned that *“a brand can exist without relevance but...it’s pointless”* (Participant 3) and *“certainly not going to be seen as very credible or very meaningful”* (Participant 7). A social brand needs to *“speak to from where I come...what my view of the world is”* (Participant 13).

### **Discussion document: Question 10b**

The second proposed construct was brand awareness:

***P8: Brand Awareness is a social brand equity construct.***

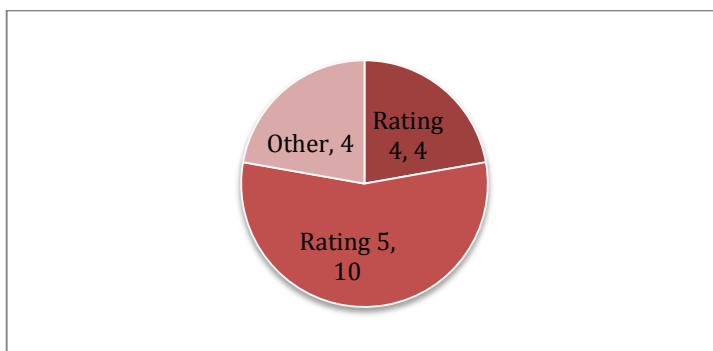
The question in the discussion document asked:

*Q10b. How important do you think brand awareness is for an individual being targeted by a social brand? In other words, how does it affect brand equity?*

*Use a scale of “5” down to “1” where “5” is “most important”, and “1” is least important to reflect the importance from your perspective.*

*Please elaborate.*

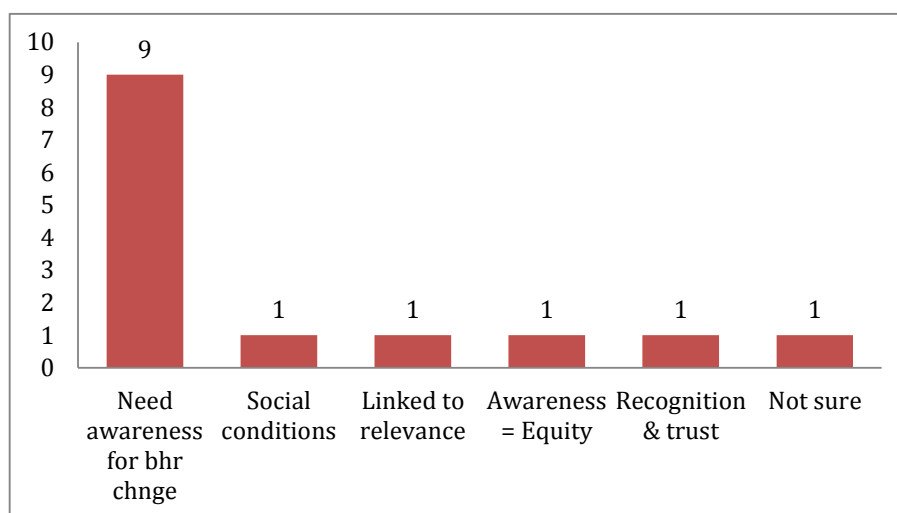
Again there was a strong leaning towards this being an important construct to consider, with the majority of responses favouring a rating of 4 or 5 as shown below in Figure 23:



Rating scale	
1	very low importance
2	low importance
3	moderate importance
4	high importance
5	very high importance
	Other

**Figure 23: Brand awareness of social brand equity**

The rating shown above was probed, and responses showed strong emphasis on awareness being necessary for behaviour change to take place. This is shown in Figure 24 below:



**Figure 24: Detail on responses on brand awareness**

As shown above, the majority of participants felt *“awareness is paramount”* (Participant 3) and *“very important”* (Participant 9) in relation to social brand equity as it is directly related to its ability to change behaviour and that *“you*

*need to be aware of what's going on before you make a decision*" (Participant 4).

There was recognition that brand awareness is *"very rooted in other social conditions"* (Participant 13) and media spend and this relates directly to funding constraints and *"where the brand is seen"* (Participant 13)

Because *"awareness is the first step to anything"* (Participant 3) it may be *"one of the strategies that you have...that you raise awareness around that brand"* (Participant 12), but even so, *"the more awareness, the more equity"* (Participant 3).

### **Discussion document: Question 10c**

The third construct, intention to (towards) brand, was directly derived from behaviour change models and was included to represent those people who intend acting on the brand message, although this is yet to happen. The potential construct 'intention towards brand' was proposed in the following proposition:

***P9: Intention towards Brand is a social brand equity construct.***

The question in the discussion document asked:

*Q10c. How important do you think intention towards brand is for an individual being targeted by a social brand? In other words, how does it affect brand equity?*

*Use a scale of "5" down to "1" where "5" is "most important", and "1" is least important to reflect the importance from your perspective.*

*Please elaborate.*

The construct was problematic for participants and a mixed response on rating was noted as displayed below in Figure 25:

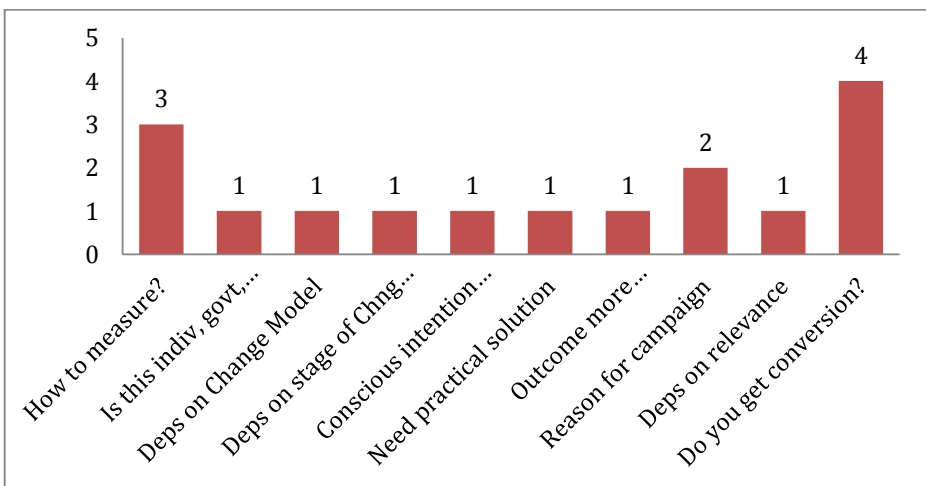


Rating scale	
1	very low importance
2	low importance
3	moderate importance
4	high importance
5	very high importance
	Other

**Figure 25: Intention towards brand on social brand equity**

As shown above, there were those who rated ‘other’. There was a strong feeling that this is a construct impossible to rate and participants said *“I’m gonna have to pass on that one”* (Participant 11) and that they *“would rate that as non-applicable”* (Participant 14).

For those who did respond, probing yielded the following responses, depicted in Figure 26:



**Figure 26: Detail on responses to 'intention towards brand'**

The figure shows varied responses. This revealed two main areas of concern. The first was although *"I think it's very important...I don't know how you would do (measure) it"* (Participant 13) and the second that *"intentions do not predict anything"* (Participant 15). So while *"the intention must be very important"* (Participant 12) there is still reality that *"if every time you are confronted with that decision you make the wrong decision then it's not all that important"* (Participant 2).

And despite its importance, the degree of change driven by the social brand was questioned given that *"sometimes people just change behaviour because it's convenient"* (Participant 7) and that *"people can change behaviour in a sub-conscious fashion as well"* (Participant 3). Intention towards brand was also seen as *"a function of whether the participant views the campaign topic as relevant to them"* (Participant 5) and could be *"one outcome"* of the campaign itself (Participant 14).

### **Discussion document: Question 10d**

The construct of brand loyalty was also posed in terms of its importance to measuring social brand equity and the following proposition was suggested:

***P10: Brand Loyalty is a social brand equity construct.***

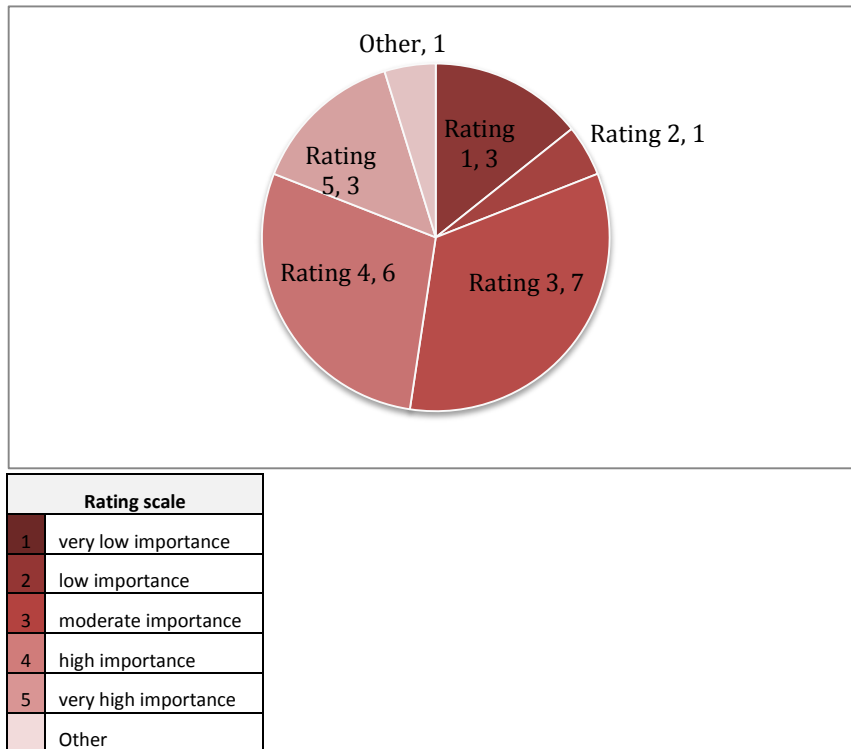
The question in the discussion document asked:

*Q10d. How important do you think brand loyalty is for an individual being targeted by a social brand? In other words, how does it affect brand equity?*

*Use a scale of "5" down to "1" where "5" is "most important", and "1" is least important to reflect the importance from your perspective.*

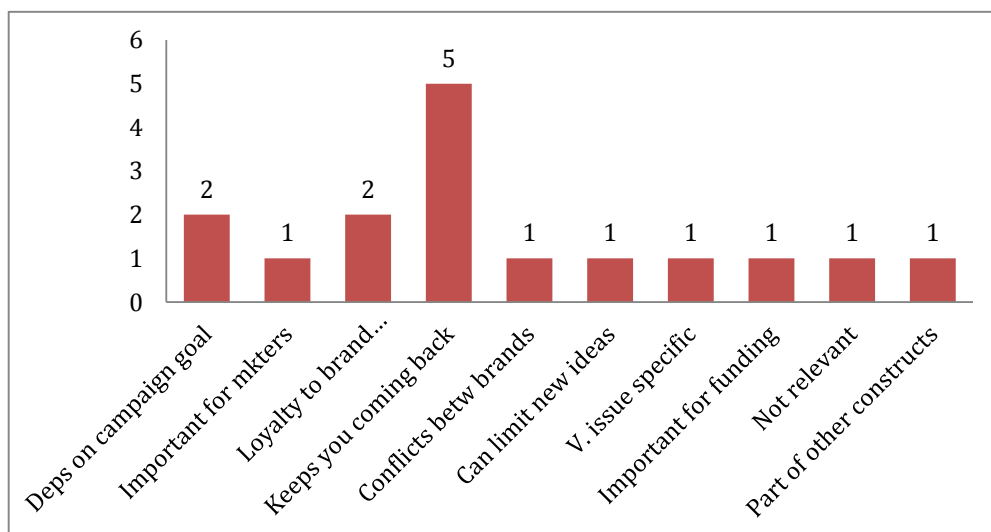
*Please elaborate.*

This construct yielded mixed responses, although most participants placed it as moderately important, between 3 and 4, as shown below in Figure 27:



**Figure 27: Brand loyalty and social brand equity**

The mixed ratings shown above were probed, and the detailed responses are shown in Figure 28 below:



**Figure 28: Detail on responses on brand loyalty**

The majority of participants felt *“as far as equity is concerned, brand loyalty is very, very important”* (Participant 9) given *“it can keep you doing something or keep you coming back”* (Participant 2). If *“people...go back to their previous behaviour...it will be a waste of time and money”* (Participant 1), but this should be dependent campaign objectives and *“on whether or not you go this long-term perspective on it or short-term perspectives on social behaviours”* (Participant 7).

There was concern about conflict within a category where from *“monopolising the market...you stagnate any new thinking or you limit any new ideas”* (Participant 4) whereas *“at the end of the day the social brand is about promoting positive behaviour, (and) as long as at the end of the day they are taking those steps”* (Participant 12) you have been deemed to be successful.

The question is, who is the competition and how do you want the loyalty to manifest? *“I need them to be loyal to my brand against its direct competitors so if my brand is responsible drinking and your brand is Heineken then I’m brand loyal. But if my brand is responsible drinking and if your brand is exercise then I don’t mind”* (Participant 15).

## **Discussion document: Question 10e**

The next construct posited for discussion was brand resonance:

***P11: Brand Resonance is a social brand equity construct.***

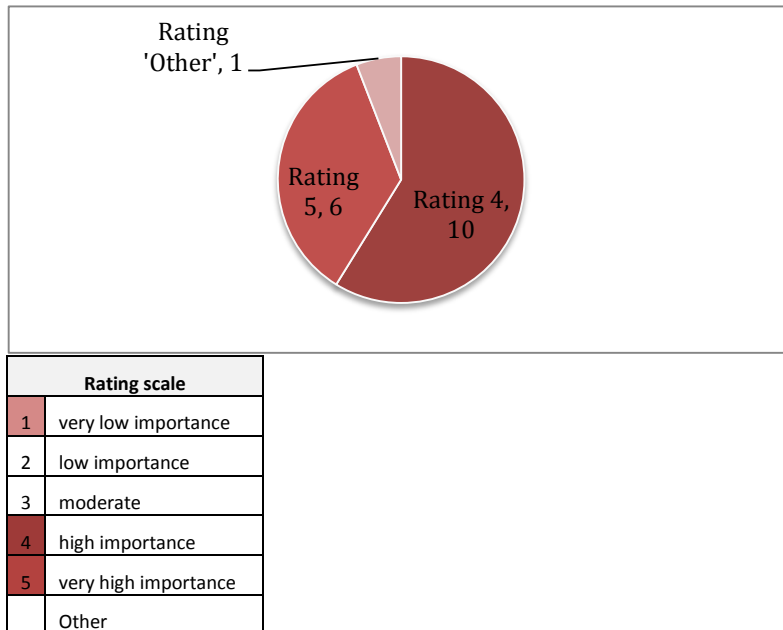
The question in the discussion document asked:

*Q10e. How important do you think brand resonance is for an individual being targeted by a social brand? In other words, how does it affect brand equity?*

*Use a scale of “5” down to “1” where “5” is “most important”, and “1” is least important to reflect the importance from your perspective.*

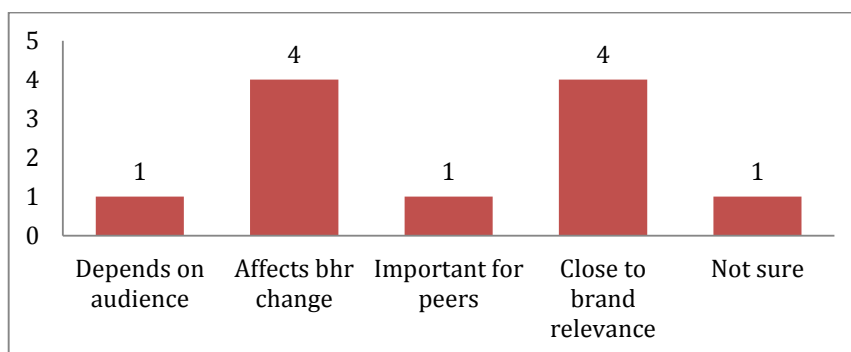
*Please elaborate.*

Overall there was strong feeling of the high importance of brand resonance in social brand equity as depicted in Figure 29 below:



**Figure 29: Brand resonance and social brand equity**

Clearly, the majority of participants rated brand resonance as highly important, but for some participants this construct was similar to brand relevance and a brief discussion was oftentimes held discussing the subtleties between relevance and resonance. It was set down that relevance would reflect tangible issues, such that the issue would be of importance (of relevance) to the individual. Resonance was seen to be more intangible, where the essence or personality appealed to an individual. Nonetheless, probing on the rating on brand resonance yielded the following feedback, shown in Figure 30:



**Figure 30: Detail on responses to brand resonance**

As shown brand resonance is seen as *“important (but) it’s closely related for me to relevance”* (Participant 9) and *“easing the difference between relevance and resonance on the top of my head is difficult”* (Participant 7). In some responses the words were used interchangeably such that *“same as brand relevance...the way the audience sees the brand and how relevant it is to them and how much it resonates with them”* (Participant 12).

When resonance was seen as something *“that relates to people’s value systems”* (Participant 1) and *“more of the emotional component of how people respond to a brand as opposed to relevance to be a little bit more objective”* (Participant 7), it was seen as something that *“going to motivate you to go according to those lines”* (Participant 4).

Resonance also depends on *“whether or not I am in that same space”* (Participant 13) and if it’s *“something you identify with”* (Participant 2).

### **Discussion document: Question 10f**

The final construct explored was brand leadership and its importance in the measuring of social brand equity.

<b><i>P12: Brand Leadership is a social brand equity construct.</i></b>
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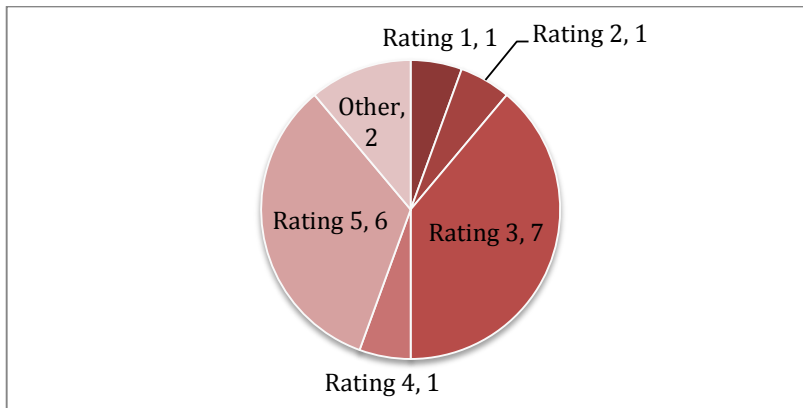
The question in the discussion document asked:

<i>Q10e. How important do you think <u>brand leadership</u> is for an individual being targeted by a social brand? In other words, how does it affect brand equity?</i>
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<i>Use a scale of “5” down to “1” where “5” is “most important”, and “1” is least important to reflect the importance from your perspective.</i>
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<i>Please elaborate.</i>
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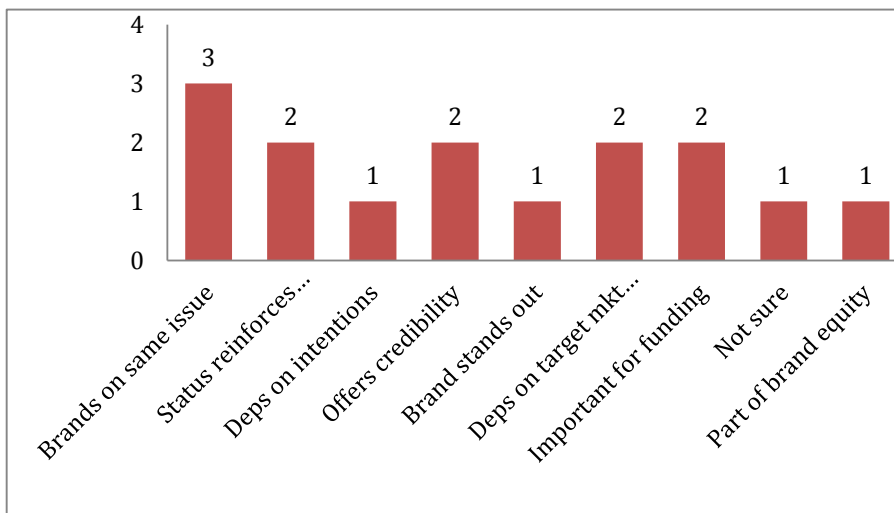
The rating of this construct is shown in Figure 31 below:



Rating scale	
1	very low importance
2	low importance
3	moderate importance
4	high importance
5	very high importance
	Other

**Figure 31: Brand leadership and social brand equity**

As shown there were mixed responses as to its importance with the majority of responses spread between rating 3 and rating 5, with the balance spread into the other rating categories. When the participants were probed on their rating the following themes were elicited, shown in Figure 32:



**Figure 32: Detail on responses on brand leadership**

As shown, there was no single theme that dominated the responses, with the question posed: *“Can you have brand leadership with social brands?”*

(Participant 1). There was a sense that it *“really depends...brand leadership will become more important to me if there’s lots of competing behaviours”* (Participant 7) and this *“depends on whether you are competing with commercial brands for behaviours or not”* (Participant 1). With a commercial brand, *“brand leadership is really important, because people can choose from 100 different chocolate bars. But if I’m marketing “Don’t beat up your wife” then there’s not too many other things that I will be competing against”* (Participant 15).

And despite the logic that *“the more popular, the more successful...suggesting you (are) impacting more people”* (Participant 4), there is the financial (and social) cost of becoming the brand leader that poses the question *“is it worth investing the resources to become the brand leader versus getting something else done?”* (Participant 7). There is also recognition that brand leadership is important given its ability to *“translate into sustainability and funding”* (Participant 9) and that there is *“the need for funding to become a brand leader”* (Participant 13).

Brand leadership is a way though to fight noise: *“they (brands) all asking you to do the same thing so it’s very difficult to keep one in mind”* (Participant 2).

### **Discussion document: Question 11a and 11b**

*Q11a. Are there any other brand constructs that you think could be of value for a social brand? Yes/No*

*Q11b. Please elaborate.*

Participants were then asked if they felt other constructs should be considered when looking at measuring social brand equity. There was no obvious omission in the constructs proposed except for *“Brand personality – how does the brand come across as a person?”* (Participant 6) which two participants felt should be listed separately to Brand Resonance:

Other suggestions were varied and far-reaching:

*“look at the things like physical, emotional, active well-being...at both individual and the community, society level...”* (Participant 1)

*“the notion of sustainability or staying power”* (Participant 2)

*“keeping it real”* (Participant 4)

*“willingness to advocate or talk about the campaign message. Credibility in the topic area”* (Participant 5)

*“brand image – what does the brand mean in the mind of the consumer/target audience”* (Participant 10)

*“stickiness factor...it may be your resonance category...how does it resonate with you”*

(Participant 11)

*“I think you need to consider the kind of funding...availability is an important construct because it really underpins many of the other constructs you’ve put there”* (Participant 13)

### **Discussion document: Questions 12, 13 and 14a and 14b**

The final section on the measuring of social brand equity asked if there should be a financial value to social brand equity, and if so, how this could be done. The proposition was put forward:

***P13: A cost benefit analysis would produce a financial multiplier for social brand equity.***

The questions in the discussion document asked:

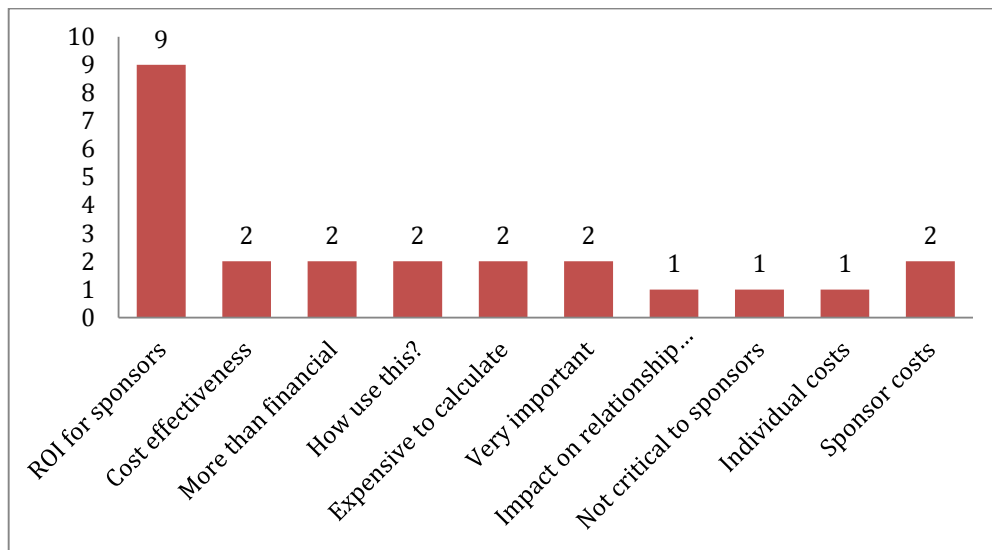
*Q12. How important do you think it is to put a financial figure to brand equity?*

*Q13. How do you think you could do this?*

Q14a. Do you think a cost benefit analysis figure applied to a social brand equity figure (multiplier, other) would help put a financial value to brand equity?  
Yes/No

Q14b. Please elaborate.

The importance of a financial value for social brand equity was expressed by participants, depicted in the following Figure 33:



**Figure 33: Importance of financial value to social brand equity**

As shown, participants felt that the main benefit of such quantification would be useful *“to show outcomes achieved”* (Participant 10) and that this is *“very, very, very important”* (Participant 1). Contextualising *“efficiency of various campaigns”* (Participant 5) *“would assist where “people determining the support for good tends towards amorality with an interest in ROI as their moral compass”* (Participant 6).

And for *“those working with a lot of federal government accounts...it’s important...to put a financial figure... to attract partners and organisations to contribute to their cause”* (Participant 12).

There was recognition that *“it would be pretty complicated”* (Participant 14) and *“enormously expensive”* (Participant 13) but a few suggestions for approaches were made:

*“Quantify the collective time, effort, other non-monetary costs...and essentially come up with a matrix for the investment for people who have been exposed to the brand, made as a function of their brand equity” (Participant 14);*

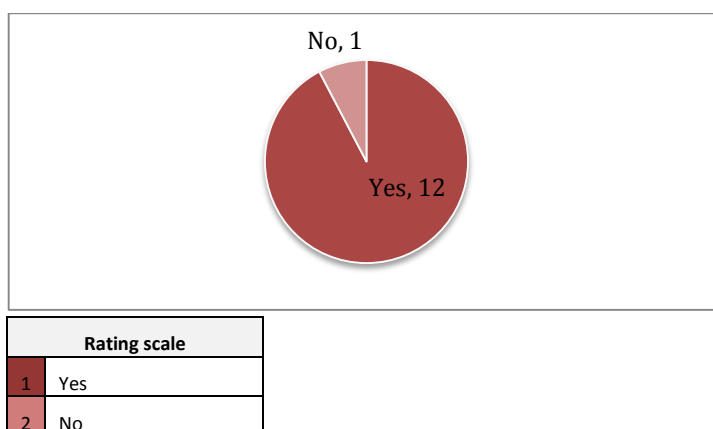
*“if you have influenced 2000 women you can put that in monetary terms...you can say the medical expenses of so many women being diagnosed potentially with breast cancer has saved the state, private health care sector ‘x’ amount” (Participant 9);*

*“we got to set up some matrix...you’d be asking yourself what did it cost us to change your behaviour based on what we can see the brand contributed to that change of behaviour versus with no brand” (Participant 11).*

In addition, there was a view that the measure should not be limited to one perspective and social brand equity figures should be determined for each stakeholder, for example, target audience, government, sponsor, and in terms of what is important for each stakeholder:

*“social branding want(s) to make people healthier, happier...so in terms of measurement your brand equity...bring in some other broader (measurements), what we use for impact and outcome measures is at societal, community level as well as the financial level” (Participant 1).*

However, on prompting, the cost benefit analysis approach appealed to the majority of participants, shown in Figure 34:



**Figure 34: Use of cost benefit analysis for social brand equity**

Clearly, on probing participants felt that *“the cost benefit analysis becomes a moral yardstick for convincing the neutral to your side”* (Participant 6) and it would provide *“data to determine on-going investment in programmes”* (Participant 10). There would be the *“age-old problem between how you quantify and use qualitative indicators...(but) certainly a cost benefit would do that”* (Participant 13). The outcome would be the argument *“it will cost more not to act”* (Participant 6).

## **4.6 Summary of the results**

This chapter presented the results from the discussions in graphical format with quotes provided.

The first section laid the foundation for the discussion, seeking to explore a definition for social brands. To do this, it was necessary to see if there is an existing term for brands used in social marketing campaigns and what the current understanding is of the term ‘social brand’.

It was soon evident that not much research has gone into this area of social marketing with varying terms used for brands, if not just simply a ‘brand’. Despite this, participants were largely united in their understanding of what a social brand would be and how it would be used. This led to further discussion on the intention of a social brand, and again, participants were largely in agreement that social brands are aligned with desirable behaviours.

The second section explored the role of social brands. The discussion started with how social brands can impact social marketing campaigns and specifically behaviour. Here, the functional and emotional roles were discussed, along with how social brands impacted on awareness and decision-making. It was evident that social brands perform a number of roles.

The section also explored how social brands interacted with individuals and communities, and the majority of participants felt that social brands interacted with both groups, and that social brands could unite a community and in this way drive change. Finally, there was discussion about whether social brands

stood for positive or negative behaviour, and there was agreement from the majority of participants that it could stand for both.

The final section, explored the measurement of social brands, in the form of social brand equity. Each potential construct was rated by participants before being discussed. In this way, the important and most meaningful constructs were identified. The section closed on the discussion of financial measurement of social brand equity; whether this was important and how it could be done.

## CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

### 5.1 Introduction

The questions raised in Chapter 2 are discussed within this chapter by comparing the interview findings shown in Chapter 4, with the theory raised in Chapter 2. According to Patton (2002), qualitative research creates findings taken from real world environments where the phenomenon of interest unfolds naturally. The purpose of this research is to define social brands, determine their role and measurement in the form of social brand equity. This purpose is considered against the information provided by participants, and together evaluated against theory presented.

For referencing purposes the propositions from Chapter 2 are repeated:

***P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values.***

***P2: A social brand is a brand with an identified social purpose.***

***P3: A social brand is a portfolio of meaning attached to a desired social behaviour.***

***P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.***

***P5: Social brands represent community-wide positive behaviour actions.***

***P6: Social brands represent positive behaviour investments.***

***P7: Brand Relevance is a social brand equity construct.***

***P8: Brand Awareness is a social brand equity construct.***

***P9: Intention towards Brand is a social brand equity construct.***

***P10: Brand Loyalty is a social brand equity construct.***

***P11: Brand Resonance is a social brand equity construct.***

***P12: Brand Leadership is a social brand equity construct.***

***P13: A cost benefit analysis would produce a financial multiplier for social brand equity.***

### **5.3 Discussion pertaining to the definition of a social brand: Proposition 1, 2 and 3**

The first section of the research was intended to determine a definition for social brands, with several propositions suggested, namely:

***P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values.***

***P2: A social brand is a brand with an identified social purpose.***

***P3: A social brand is a portfolio of meaning attached to a desired social behaviour.***

As outlined, branding is a broad field and one of the most discussed marketing principles in business (Kirby, 2001), and in recognition of this, no single definition for branding exists. With regard to social brands, it was necessary to explore the existing knowledge and understanding of this term. As per Figure 9, there is no term specifically used for brands in social marketing campaigns and most participants are unfamiliar with the term 'social brands'. It is therefore a new term to define. It was necessary to explore potential definitions of social brands using the main ideas in the various definitions of brands. The three propositions (P1, P2, and P3) represent this and were explored in the first section of the discussion document.

Most participants saw that a brand used in social marketing campaigns was simply 'a brand', oftentimes linked to or the same as the campaign name or message, and served as a campaign identifier "*to distinguish the campaign from the competition*". It is seen as "*usually the campaign name or message/slogan*

*that is used as the campaign identifier. Has a consistent style, visual appearance, etc. like a commercial brand.”*

There was a strong recognition, as shown in Figure 10, that a brand in a social marketing campaign, would in some way be linked with the objectives of the social marketing campaign. It may be *“something that impacts on messaging on an issue”, “talks to the country’s priorities”, “is about social issues”, or “a problem for the target audience.”* This may include an increase in healthy and positive behaviours and/or *“creating awareness in society for change”*. This indicates an understanding that the brand serves not just a tangible function, but also an intangible function. It also echoes Kotler and Zaltman’s (1971) original thinking on social marketing, where they suggested that one could use traditional marketing techniques to achieve positive change in social issues.

For Balmer (2013) and Keller (1998), a brand is essentially a label with system of meaning that is attached to a product, service, person, idea etc. rather than a tangible object. This introduces the concept of layered meaning, where at its simplest level, a brand is a logo with a recognised visual appearance, moving to integrating the company’s functional and emotional values, to the upper most level of incorporating the consumer’s requirements for performance and psychosocial values. In the case of a brand in a social marketing campaign, *“it’s more than a logo or tagline and is more than behaviour. It’s about the whole package.”* The suggestion is that the brand would have a similar system of layered meaning, whereby the brand would move from its simplest level of being the campaign name or message, through to differentiating the campaign from other campaigns, and on to the uppermost level when the brand stands *“pro-social behaviours”, seeks “to drive(s) impact in any way”, and is “socially-conscious”*.

This suggests there is merit in two propositions. Firstly, ***P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values*** whereby there is an acknowledgement that social brands represent both varied meaning and desirable behaviour. Secondly, ***P3: A social brand is a portfolio of meaning attached to a desired social behaviour*** whereby the tangible and intangible aspects of a brand and this relationship with behaviours are depicted.

That brands in social marketing campaigns are linked to the broad term of 'social objectives' is both patently obvious and expected of the field. As per Figure 10, there was strong acknowledgement that the term 'social brands' has *not (been) regularly used as a term* or simply, *"I have never heard of this term"*. There was also doubt that the term should even exist given that, *"all brands are inherently social"*, and that *"we don't label the other parts of the marketing mix in social marketing campaigns with the prefix "social" for example,. social segmentation"*. Despite such comments, the overwhelming number of participants, as per Figure 11, felt that 'social brands' referred to *"a brand used in social marketing campaigns"* that was linked to *"creating healthier, happier, safer lives, and improving the quality of living"*, and *"focus(ed) on socially positive and related behaviours, products and services"*. There was also recognition that in serving society, social brands needed to be *"talking to people in a locally relevant way, not just looking at a province, country"* and is *"something specific to an area or region"*.

These differentiators indicate that for most participants social brands differ from commercial brands. They acknowledge that brands in social marketing campaigns fulfil certain traditional brand functions, but consider that social brands have other intentions to fulfil that render them different from traditional brands. As Figure 12 indicated, these intentions can be a social purpose, a social issue and/or an appropriate behaviour – it all depended on the specific marketing campaign underway and that *"brands are kind of the emotional connection that people have with any of these things, a social issue, a social purpose or behaviour...A brand is things that are in the mind of the consumer and I think to that extent everything has a brand..."* (Participant 7).

The emotional component echoes the literature that a brand must represent expectations of functional and emotional characteristics (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Keller, 1998) and engender an emotional response from the viewer (McDivitt, 2003). Only ***P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values*** explicitly mentions the value that emotion plays in the relationship between the brand and the viewer.

The extent to which the emotional connection is affected by a social purpose, a social issue or an appropriate behaviour more than another, begs *“the more appropriate question (of) how one defines social marketing”* (Participant 5).

The definition proposed by the International Social Marketing Association (2013) and further endorsed by the Boards of the European Social Marketing Association, and Australian Association of Social Marketing, emphasises behaviour over purpose and issue, although at all times it is clear that there is a need to conduct social change to achieve social good:

*“Social Marketing seeks to develop and integrate marketing concepts with other approaches to influence behaviours that benefit individuals and communities for the greater social good. Social Marketing practice is guided by ethical principles. It seeks to integrate research, best practice, theory, audience and partnership insight, to inform the delivery of competition sensitive and segmented social change programmes that are effective, efficient, equitable and sustainable (p.1).”*

*International Social Marketing Association (2013)*

The question is then posed, what is the difference between these elements, and how do these differences impact, if at all, on the definition of a social brand.

And as Participant 1 stated: *“Behaviour falls within an issue. It is hard to change behaviour without addressing an issue.”* and Participant 3 queried: *“The question is, how is an issue different to a purpose?”*

While the inter-relationships between these three elements may be questioned, the intention of this research is not to conduct an exercise in language studies, but rather to determine a workable and relevant definition for social brands. For this, we return to the literature on brands, where Keller (1998) suggests that branding in social marketing should promote positive (negative) behaviour and the resulting benefits (costs), and that in this way, branding is the vehicle to deliver on the promise of the positioning statement (Lefebvre, 2013) and the resultant positive behavioural change (Samad et al., 2010).

As a result of this combined research, it is proposed that in the definition of a social brand there should be continued emphasis on desired behaviour within the context of social issues. And thus that ***P2: A social brand is a brand with an identified social purpose*** should not be supported as a possible definition of a social brand.

Of the remaining propositions, the values identified earlier remain plus both definitions include a behavioural component. However, only ***P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values*** remains cognisant of the emotional pull of a brand, with ***P3: A social brand is a portfolio of meaning attached to a desired behaviour*** lacking support.

However, the remaining proposition does not mention the context of the desired behaviour, and that it must be linked specifically to a social purpose, social issue or social good. It is thus proposed that the definition of a social brand is as follows:

**P1(2): A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values that supports a social issue.**

#### **5.4 Discussion pertaining to the role of a social brand: Proposition 4, 5 and 6**

The second area of research was determining the role of a social brand, by exploring its purpose, function and reason for being. Given the lack of research specific to the social brand, it was necessary to explore the context of a social brand and expectations of its role. To this end, the following propositions were posited for exploration:

***P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.***

***P5: Social brands represent community-wide positive behaviour actions.***

***P6: Social brands represent positive behaviour investments.***

A brand's primary, functional role is to stand out from its competitors (DeChernatony, 2009) so that consumers can make purchase choices (Keller, 2009; Meyer et al., 2008). Similarly, social brands function in this way in that it *"position(s) that behaviour distinctly from the other kinds of behavioural choices that people have for the competition"*, and so brands help individuals to indicate to themselves and others that they identify with a specific behaviour (Kirby, 2001). This may speed up the exchange process, with more immediate benefits and positive reinforcement (Lefebvre, 2013).

The traditional functional roles of brands was further recognised by rigorously applying the 4P's in social marketing programmes, advocating for the use of brands alongside distribution strategies, particularly for products and services (Lefebvre, 2011, 2013). With consumers more likely to take notice of, absorb and recall the marketing communications for strong brands (Keller, 2009), social marketing campaigns could only benefit from their inclusion and *"bring(s) all of the markets in together in one recognisable identity"*.

There is however recognition that while *"branding is easily identifiable and clearly communicates the essentials of the campaign message or topic"*, brands are not simply a logo or tagline, but represent what a behaviour, programme and sponsor mean to people (Lefebvre, 2011). And as the brand *"captures the mood, the relevance, the purpose"*, brands build relationships (Wood, 2008), and create emotional connections between the issue and the individual (McDivitt, 2003). It is the emotional connection, that causes brands to act as *"reminders and catalysts"* to perform specific actions, engage in a social movement or change behaviours, and help campaigns gain visibility and raise awareness of issues (McDivitt, 2003). The *"brand becomes an actor in their lives"*, causing a *"quick-trigger mechanism"*. *"Brands are heuristic short cuts"* such that *"people will remember the call to action"*.

That the function of a social brand was directly related to achieving a desired behaviour was evident in the responses:

*"It has the potential to very hugely and very fundamentally influence behaviour and shape it", "prompt awareness, remind and reinforce to better achieve the*

*desired behaviour”, “people get right to the behaviour a lot quicker when they have a brand attached to it”.*

These responses coupled with the literature suggest that the proposition should stand as valid.

In summary:

***P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.***

In the next two propositions there is a bias towards positive behaviour:

***P5: Social brands represent community-wide positive behaviour actions.***

***P6: Social brands represent positive behaviour investments.***

Hence, the discussion that follows relates to this specific aspect, before moving to considering each individual proposition before a conclusion is reached.

The first discussion explores whether social brands represent positive and/or negative behaviours.

The bias towards positive behaviours is undoubtedly due to the perceived nature of social marketing whereby the literature and most programmes focus on positive behaviours being desirable. Consider the examples provided earlier whereby ‘*The Heart Truth*’ campaign sought to increase relevance of heart disease for women and motivate for increased awareness and monitoring (Wayman et al., 2008). The campaign served to give the issue of women’s heart disease a unique identity, create a strong emotional connection with women, and help create momentum for the social marketing process. Likewise, the youth anti-smoking *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> campaign had the *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> brand which represented aspirational, idealised social images that could compete with the tobacco industry brands (Evans et al., 2002). The brand was associated with the concept of rebelling and self-identity, which was key in encouraging youths to adopt a non-smoking lifestyle. Finally, the *VERB*<sup>TM</sup> campaign which sought to

design an aspirational brand that would increase physical activity amongst children and tweens. The *VERB*<sup>TM</sup> brand created a the link between emotional desires and idealised social images, and physical activity, and the brand was positioned as a fun, cool and accessible lifestyle brand (Price et al., 2009).

In each case, the very notion of positive behaviours is embedded into the campaign. It is hard to imagine a campaign where an undesirable social behaviour gathers much traction.

The literature underscores this expectation of desirable behaviour being “positive” social behaviours, with references such as that social marketing works to attain positive behaviour change (McDivitt, 2003), that branding is the vehicle to deliver the resultant positive behavioural change (Samad et al., 2010), and satisfy the consumer’s functional and emotional needs (DeChernatony, 2009).

This bias was supported by some participants: *“I think a social brand stands for positive behaviour only”*; and, *“marketers should focus on delivering an offering that has value for the target market.”*

Yet, this implicit understanding that branding in social marketing should promote positive (negative) behaviour and the resulting benefits (costs) Keller (1998), was questioned by participants who saw the philosophical argument behind the role of social brands. *“We like to believe social branding stands only for positive behaviour but it can certainly do both”, “Anything can be branded – the good and the bad. Particularly the bad.”* and *“I think it could go either way”*.

The key to the discussion is *“who decides what’s good and what’s bad?”*

There is recognition that campaign funding is a key determinant in whether an issue comes to the attention of society and *“how influential the branding is”* and that *“the funding that is required to market it...can have quite negative consequences.”*

So while the behaviour ought to be socially positive, there is recognition that the decision on whether something is positive or negative, might be inherently

flawed. Social marketers are also very aware of the consequences of their campaigns, and need to *“be open and honest about all things”* for *“brand integrity and for ethical purposes”*. There is acceptance of an *“ethical responsibility (that) you (do) no harm”*, *“if you are aiming to do something for the public good”*.

In summary, the word ‘positive’ should be removed from propositions **P5** and **P6**, to ensure the propositions are as broad as possible, and can encompass all possible meanings.

However, the remainder of the two propositions still needs discussion.

***P5: Social brands represent community-wide positive behaviour actions*** will be discussed first.

The proposition sought to explore the target audience of a social brand, given the suggestion that a brand community could be built using social brands, and that a brand community could act as a positive force to achieve the goals of a social marketing programme.

Participants were united on the individual being interwoven into the community, and that both the individual and community could be targeted because *“I don’t think you should isolate between the two”*.

However, the question remained: Could a social brand, whether it targeted the individual or the community as a whole, bring people together?

Given that people have an inherent social need to find a means of connection as a result of the eroding personalization of society through modern day living (Muniz Jr & O’guinn, 2001), a brand can be seen as a trusted friend (Aaker, 2012). Where a number of people share the brand rituals and traditions and an overall sense of moral responsibility, and where communities recognise what is considered right or wrong (Muniz Jr & O’guinn, 2001), a brand community exists, and such a community brings scale to social marketing efforts (Lefebvre, 2012).

In particular, a brand community plays a role in building and maintaining strong brands (Matzler et al., 2011) such that the understanding of the brand extends from the connection that community members share and beyond geographic boundaries (Muniz Jr & O'guinn, 2001). Marketing communications aid in providing consumers with experiences that will lead to a brand community, which through increased brand image and brand recall can benefit brand equity (Keller, 2009). Brand communities represent the opportunity for a two-way flow of information, providing feedback on the brand to the company and to other consumers (Matzler et al., 2011).

With the potential of a brand community evident in research on commercial brands, its influence in social marketing through social brands was explored. There was little doubt from participants that this was one potential role for a social brand: *"I think they can unite the community"*, *"A lot of brands rely on community"*, *"individuals will be carried along"*.

There was an understanding that brands help individuals to indicate to themselves and others that they identify with a specific behaviour (Kirby, 2001): and that *"brands can unite communities through identification"* and *"create a sense of community through branding, a sense of community identification"*.

This strong sense of community unity as a result of a social brand being effectively used in a community, gives credence to the remainder of P5, and thus there is support for the following revised proposition:

<b><i>P5(2): Social brands represent community-wide behaviour actions</i></b>
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Regarding proposition, ***P6: Social brands represent positive behaviour investments***, it has already been mentioned that as a result of the research, 'positive' should not form part of the proposition. It is widely recognised that branding represents an investment (DeChernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Yoo et al., 2000), and there seems little doubt that a social brand is financially driven: *"making the campaign successful...you need lots of money to that that"*, *"branding and marketing are impacted by money basically"*, *"look at the money invested in the programme, what was the return on that investment"*.

In this light, there is support for the following amended proposition:

***P6(2): Social brands represent behaviour investments.***

Another area that emerged on discussion, is that different types of social brands may exist.

*“I would always like to see it related to a behaviour but I would have to say it would need to be a social marketing brand instead of a social brand ...so social brand category could possibly need to have a sub-set of social marketing brands” and further “We have social brands and some of them are social marketing brands and some of them are some other kinds of brands: NGO brands” (Participant 11).*

The creation of an umbrella category of ‘social brands’ with sub-brands would allow for the inclusion of brands such as NGO brands and political brands, which meet the criteria of a social brand, and yet provide the ability to distinguish between varying objectives or fields of interest.

#### **5.4 Discussion pertaining to the measurement of a social brand: Propositions 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 13**

The third and final area of research was that of the measurement of a social brand, namely social brand equity. Brand equity represents the set of assets and liabilities linked to a brand’s name and symbol that adds to or subtracts from the value provided by a product or service to a company and/or that company’s customers (Aaker, 1996). It is an important benchmark that provides guidance into identifying attributes to build and manage a brand (Aaker, 1996).

With this context, it is both important and necessary to identify the constructs of social brand equity.

The first construct posited was:

***P7: Brand Relevance is a social brand equity construct.***

Brand relevance is one of the core constructs of both the Young & Rubicam Brand Asset™ Valuator (BAV) and the InterBrand model, discussed on pages 38 and 39, where it is viewed as a fit between the consumer's needs, desires and decision-making criteria across all relevant demographics and geographies. It is, however, not included in the modified social marketing campaign constructs, but the Transtheoretical Behaviour Change Model, discussed on page 24, is adamant that an individual will also contemplate change only if they see the desired behaviour as personally relevant.

Most participants agreed with this view that *"if it's not relevant to me, I think then its got no value at all"*, and gave brand relevance a very high rating. For participants, the relevance of the brand spoke to *"the severity, the impact...the probability of this happening in my life"*, and that the social brand must be *"relevant to the immediate needs, the immediate environment of the community"*. If a social brand is going *"to be seen as very credible or very meaningful"* it needs to start by being relevant.

The evidence therefore suggests that this proposition should stand:

<b><i>P7: Brand Relevance is a social brand equity construct.</i></b>
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The next construct under discussion is:

***P8: Brand Awareness is a social brand equity construct.***

This construct has appeared in different guises in a number of brand equity models. In the Young and Rubicam (Y&R) Brand Asset™ Valuator (BAV), discussed on page 38, it is called Knowledge, and is defined as measuring how familiar and intimate consumers are with the brand (Stahl et al., 2012). In the InterBrand model, depicted on Table 1 on page 39, it is referred to as Presence, defined as the brand's omnipresence; being talked about positively by consumers and opinion formers across media. Aaker's (1996) Brand Equity Ten on page 42 refers directly to Brand awareness, and it is also included in the modified Brand Equity Ten shown on page 44, in relation to social marketing campaigns.

The existing brand equity models are echoed by the participants who felt that: *“brand awareness is pretty important”, “awareness is the first step to anything”, “it’s one of the strongest direct correlations to (brand equity)”, “If they are not aware of it...then they don’t know what the heck it means”.*

While there was a sense that this could be *“one of the goals that you raise awareness around that brand”*, and that it is also linked to funding and *“where the brand is seen”* its importance in measuring social brands remained strong. In this light, the proposition has support:

***P8: Brand Awareness is a social brand equity construct.***

The third potential construct is reflected in the proposition:

***P9: Intention towards Brand is a social brand equity construct.***

This construct is reflective of the Integrated Behaviour Change Model discussed on page 24, in an attempt to bring behaviour change theories closer to social brand equity. The intention of behaviour change is a stage in the behaviour change process that represents a relationship with behaviour change (change representing a ‘before’ and an ‘after’). Thus, the value of the ‘before’ or existing behaviour must be measured in relation to the value of the ‘after’ or desired behaviour, to determine the strength of brand equity. In some cases, the ‘after’ behaviour has not yet been sustained, and simply an awareness of the behaviour would be a mark of progress, hence the proposed construct of intention towards brand.

The construct elicited mixed ratings and mixed feelings, with general concern about how something like this would be measured: *“I think it’s very important but I don’t know how you would do it”.*

There was also an acknowledgement that *“intention must be very important”, “I think that will be really important concept”*, but there was concern that an intention to change did not necessarily lead to change: *“Intentions do not predict anything”, “the brand is increasing the intention but whether people follow through on that intention is difficult”.*

There was also a sense that *“one outcome could be intention or brand equity itself”* from a campaign, and thus *“I would say it’s not relevant in the sense of being part of brand equity”*.

Without such variable feelings on this construct, plus uncertainty about its measurement, this proposition does not have support for the measurement of social brand equity.

The next construct for discussion is brand loyalty shown in proposition 10:

***P10: Brand Loyalty is a social brand equity construct.***

Brand loyalty is a strong construct in a number of brand equity models including Aaker’s (1996) Brand Equity Ten, shown on page 42, where Loyalty is one of the ten dimensions and has the attributes of ‘price premium’ and ‘satisfaction and loyalty’. The modified Brand Equity Ten on page 44, says ‘Brand Satisfaction and Loyalty’ is defined as the individual’s willingness to commit to, and recommend the brand. When used in assessing the *VERB*<sup>TM</sup> campaign, brand loyalty was shown to be an important construct (Price et al., 2009), as it did in assessing the *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> campaign (Evans et al., 2002). It also stands to reason that when behaviour change has been achieved, there should be maximum loyalty.

Against this backdrop, participants felt that brand loyalty was important in varying degrees: *“that’s the most essential thing”*, *“I think it can keep you doing something or keep you coming back”*, *“I think it’s very important”*.

However, there was recognition that the emphasis should always fall on the desired behaviour, rather than the social brand itself: *“I need them to be loyal to my brand against its direct competitors”*, *“end of the day the social brand is about promoting positive behaviour...as long as at the end of the day they are taking those steps”*. Competition should not exist within a category but rather between categories for, in the context of social marketing, that is where competitive behaviours exist.

In this light, brand loyalty should be considered a construct but in the formulation of actual brand equity, weighting should be considered with regards to issue loyalty rather than solely on brand loyalty. As the calculation of appropriate weighting is beyond the scope of this research, the proposition will be supported as is, with a recommendation for further research on the application of the construct.

***P10: Brand Loyalty is a social brand equity construct.***

The next proposition to consider is the construct of brand resonance in the measurement of social brand equity:

***P11: Brand Resonance is a social brand equity construct.***

Brand resonance appears in several brand equity models under different labels. For example, the InterBrand Model, shown on page 39, has a measurement called: 'Understanding' which takes the brand beyond ordinary recognition and looks at the knowledge and understanding of the brand's intrinsic qualities. Keller's (2001) Customer-based Brand Equity Model is called the Brand Resonance Model which was discussed on page 41, and looks at six brand building blocks, the most valuable being resonance.

Aaker's (1996) Brand Equity Ten discussed on page 42, refers to Brand personality, which is defined as the associations and appeal of the brand. This quality is retained in the modified brand equity on page 44 and used in evaluating the *VERB*<sup>SM</sup> (Price et al., 2009), and the *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> campaigns (Evans et al., 2002).

For each label, the intangible nature and appeal of the brand is highlighted which for the purposes of this research, came together under the construct of brand resonance.

That an affinity towards a brand could be driven by these intangible attributes, "*that relates to people's value systems*", "*it's something you identify with*", was matched by participants: "*If something resonates with you, it's going to motivate*

*you to go according to those lines”, “resonance could be more of the emotional component of how people respond to a brand”.*

The potential overlap with brand relevance is noted and it is clear that sharper differentiation for participants is required: *“Same as brand relevance”, “That’s linked very much to relevance”.*

Overall though, the construct was deemed important to very important and supports the literature that sees the construct as important in brand equity. The proposition is thus supported:

***P11: Brand Resonance is a social brand equity construct.***

The final proposition to explore relates to brand leadership:

***P12: Brand Leadership is a social brand equity construct.***

Brand leadership is a key feature in several brand equity models. The Young and Rubicam (Y&R) Brand Asset™ Valuator (BAV) discussed on page 38, terms this attribute, Esteem, which measures how the brand is regarded and respected in terms of leadership, reliability and quality (Stahl et al., 2012). As discussed page 39, InterBrand refers to the attribute under the term ‘Responsiveness’, which is broadly regarded as being a leader with the ability to respond to market changes, challenges, and opportunities. Finally, brand leadership appears in Aaker’s (1996) Brand Equity Ten in Table 2 on page 42, under the attribute heading, ‘Leadership and Popularity’ feature.

In assessing both the *TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> and *VERB*<sup>SM</sup> campaigns, the modified Brand Equity Ten shown on page 44, retained this quality, saying it represents the brand’s innovativeness and popularity. Confirmatory factor analysis proved it to be a valid component of a brand’s success.

Some participants seemed to agree: *“The more popular, the more successful...suggesting you impacting more people”, “so if one rose to the top and engaged you...we really saw that really engaged things and started to make things happen in a way we haven’t really seen social brand do before”.*

Which increases the ability to attract and retain funding: *“because it (brand leadership) does translate into sustainability and funding so brand leadership is very important”*, and that *“funding (is necessary) to become a brand leader”*.

However, there is also a sense that brand leadership is undesirable as it increases attention on only one brand, taking focus away from the overall objectives: *“Can you have brand leadership with social brands?...depends on whether you are competing with commercial brands for behaviours or not - brand leadership will become more important to me if there’s lots of competing behaviours”*.

In understanding that there is both a financial and social cost of becoming the brand leader the question is posed: *“is it worth investing the resources to become the brand leader versus getting something else done...”*

This construct therefore raises a philosophical and ethical argument around the use of resources. There can be increased awareness and resultant behaviour change as a result of being a brand leader seems clear, however, the need for funding to make this happen places the focus on the brand and not the issue, and this may not necessarily be the best use of resources.

The proposition is supported, however, the ethical grounds of this construct being used should be further explored:

***P12: Brand Leadership is a social brand equity construct.***

The final proposition explores the financial quantification of social brand equity and the use of cost benefit analysis to achieve this.

***P13: A cost benefit analysis would produce a financial multiplier for social brand equity.***

Existing brand equity models, such as InterBrand and Brandz discussed in Chapter 2, which determine financial values of brands, acknowledge that corporate brands are easier to monetise given that profitability is a measureable result of business and branding activities. This element has not previously been included in the measurement of social marketing campaigns, namely the

*TRUTH*<sup>SM</sup> and *VERB*<sup>SM</sup> campaigns. However, the benefits of determining a financial figure for social brand equity would assist in co-branding in CSM efforts as it would create a system of measurement, whereby corporates could more correctly assess the value of aligning their corporate brand with the social brand.

By and large, participants agree that it is *“very, very, very important”* to *“quantify “doing good” in financial terms”*, but that the process to do this would be *“pretty complicated”*.

Given the difficulty of measurement, a cost benefit analysis, was proposed which appealed to several participants with the sense that *“a cost benefit would do that”*, and *“become a moral yardstick for convincing the neutral to your side.”*

This area would clearly require more in-depth research to determine the specifics of the cost benefit analysis approach, and the ability *“to a generic tool because it would depend very much on the social issue”* (Participant 13). However, the proposition is supported:

***P13: A cost benefit analysis would produce a financial multiplier for social brand equity.***

## **5.5 Conclusion**

This chapter evaluated the results from the discussions in light of the literature on the subject. In this way, the propositions were explored and were either supported or not.

In the majority of cases, there was a clear theme or clear agreement from the participants on the matter under discussion, and this was represented both graphically and verbally in the previous chapter. The main outcome from each question was presented in this chapter alongside the key literature, and the propositions explored.

The propositions P1, P2, and P3 explored the definition of a social brand.

***P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values.***

***P2: A social brand is a brand with an identified social purpose.***

***P3: A social brand is a portfolio of meaning attached to a desired social behaviour.***

On evaluation P2 was found to be too limited in terms of 'social purpose' and P3 was too focused on the outcome of behaviour, and not sufficiently focused on the social brand itself. Both these propositions lacked support. P1 was balanced in terms of the multi-facets of a social brand but did not specifically link it to a social context. P1 was therefore amended to include this aspect and the proposed definition of a social brand is as follows:

***P1(2): A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values that supports a social issue.***

The propositions P4, P5, and P6 explored the role of a social brand.

***P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.***

***P5: Social brands represent community-wide positive behaviour actions.***

***P6: Social brands represent positive behaviour investments.***

P4 was supported given agreement from participants on the multi-layered roles played by social brands, specific to desired behaviours.

***P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.***

Deeper discussion ensued for P5 and P6, where for both propositions, the word 'positive' was eliminated given that participants felt strongly that social brands could represent both positive and negative behaviours.

For P5, participants felt strongly that while the social brand could target the individual and/or the community, there was undoubted potential for a social brand to unite the community. P5 was thus supported with modification:

***P5(2): Social brands represent community-wide behaviour actions.***

Likewise, given the literature that brands are investments and with the elimination of 'positive' for P6 the proposition was supported:

***P6(2): Social brands represent behaviour investments.***

The propositions P7, P8, P9, P10, P11, P12 and P13 explored the measurement of social brand equity. Based on the level of significance in the participants' views, which also aligned with literature, propositions were accordingly supported.

Both P7 and P8 were supported:

***P7: Brand Relevance is a social brand equity construct.***

***P8: Brand Awareness is a social brand equity construct.***

However, uneasiness about the degree of behaviour conversion from intention, and a perceived inability to measure intention towards brand, saw P9 lacking support:

***P9: Intention towards Brand is a social brand equity construct.***

P10 enjoyed strong support:

***P10: Brand Loyalty is a social brand equity construct.***

The construct of Brand Resonance was supported despite concerns that there was an overlap between Brand Resonance and Brand Relevance:

***P11: Brand Resonance is a social brand equity construct.***

The final construct of Brand Leadership was also supported, although, a caveat was added that ethical considerations of promoting a brand over promoting an issue were highlighted:

***P12: Brand Leadership is a social brand equity construct.***

Participants were also in agreement that social brand equity should have a financial figure and that a potential means of valuation could be a cost benefit analysis. The final proposition was therefore supported:

***P13: A cost benefit analysis would produce a financial multiplier for social brand equity.***

Therefore in summary, the following propositions were supported:

***P1(2): A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values that supports a social issue.***

***P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.***

***P5(2): Social brands represent community-wide behaviour actions.***

***P6(2): Social brands represent behaviour investments.***

***P7: Brand Relevance is a social brand equity construct.***

***P8: Brand Awareness is a social brand equity construct.***

***P9: Intention towards Brand is a social brand equity construct.***

***P10: Brand Loyalty is a social brand equity construct.***

***P11: Brand Resonance is a social brand equity construct.***

***P12: Brand Leadership is a social brand equity construct.***

***P13: A cost benefit analysis would produce a financial multiplier for social brand equity.***

## **CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.1 Introduction**

While there is much academic literature on social marketing, less attention has been given to the tool of brands in social marketing campaigns. Brands are frequently used in practice, but their application, function and role, and their means of being measured are largely unexplored areas.

It is broadly accepted that given the objective of social marketing campaigns, these brands must differ in certain ways compared to commercial brands. However, to date, no clear analysis of how they differ has been offered. Instead a brand used in a social marketing campaign has simply been called a brand, in the same way a brand used in a commercial marketing campaign would be.

The purpose of this study was to draw into sharp focus the brand used in a social marketing campaign. To highlight the uniqueness of this brand, a new term 'social brand' was proposed and explored during this study. The study therefore sought to understand what a social brand is, and in understanding its similarities and differences, how a social brand would be defined.

Given the social brand's use in social marketing campaigns, the study also sought to explore the role of a social brand, and how it adds value to a social marketing campaign, and how it can be used to achieve the objectives of a social marketing campaign.

Finally, the study looked at ways of measuring a social brand in the form of social brand equity, and whether this could be represented by a financial figure, as is the case with commercial brands.

To conduct this study, comparisons with commercial brands were drawn with the literature on social marketing guiding the exploration on a social brand. This was outlined in Chapter 2.

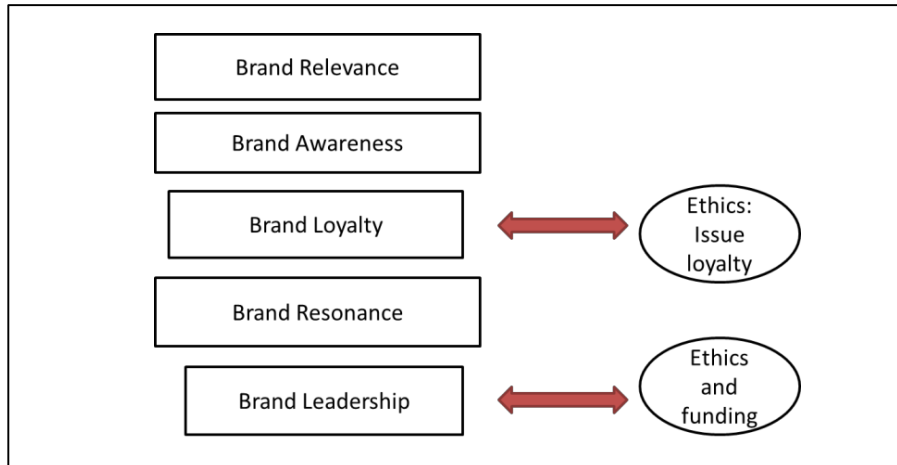
## **6.2 Conclusions of the study**

The study introduced a new term 'social brand' to the field of social marketing. The research concluded that a social brand is indeed different to a commercial brand, even while it falls under the greater banner of 'brands'. A social brand fulfils many of the same functions as other brands, but the distinguishing characteristic is that a social brand is geared towards desirable behaviours in society, compared with other brands seeking to achieve financial gain.

Given this salient difference, social brands diverge from commercial brands at key points in terms of definition, role and measurement. The literature on brands is able to guide much of the thinking on social brands, however, given the different context and use of social brands, there are unique differentiators of social brands.

A social brand may comprise of similar attributes to a commercial brand, but a social brand is always focused on a social issue or social good, rather than a product or service that is profit seeking. To achieve that social objective, specific behaviours are encouraged and it is here that a social brand plays its primary role: it must act as a reminder of, and catalyst for, those desired behaviours. In this way, a social brand is able to bring individuals together into a community, whereby a wave of change on a specific social issue is possible.

Given that a social brand is different from a commercial brand in key ways, the conventional means of determining brand equity needed to be evaluated for appropriateness. In general, constructs of brand equity were agreed upon as valid and useful in social brand equity, albeit in varying degrees and forms, as shown in Figure 35 below:



**Figure 35: Social brand equity constructs relative to importance and influencers**

As depicted though, the application of two constructs is tempered by ethical and funding issues. This is due to the context of measuring social brand equity. Given the objective of achieving social good on a particular social issue, resources must be geared towards that broad altruistic outcome, rather than tailored towards a specific social brand. This means that ethical considerations need to be placed before singular gain. In addition, it must be recognised that the application of constructs may be constrained, or boosted, given the availability of funding. Hence, while the constructs alone may be meaningful, there is an appreciation that due to context of social marketing, the weighting of constructs may be impacted.

Similarly, the study revealed that placing a financial measure on social brand equity was both useful and possible, but that the context of funding needed to be taken into account and will possibly modify the final value.

These considerations significantly increase the complexity of producing a final measurement for social brands, in formula form or other, and on-going research in this area would be required to produce such measurement. This study has however, determined a foundation for further in-depth study.

## **6.3 Recommendations for practitioners**

### **Social marketing**

It is recommended that those involved in social marketing campaigns are aware of the similarities and differences between social brands and other types of brands. Practitioners must understand that a social brand is not simply a logo or typeface, but rather that it offers a multi-layered approach to target behaviour change. Through raised awareness, there will be better application of the social brand with more thoughtful development of the social brand itself and its use in social marketing campaigns. Development of the social brand should focus on how to incorporate and highlight the constructs of social brand equity, knowing that this adds to the value of a social brand.

Social marketers should also be aware of the ethical constraints exposed by social brands, and that the objective at all times, must be on the social brand benefitting society and not the individual social brand. With funding under increased pressure, this is no small request, however, an appreciation for the true objective should be developed. Practitioners must understand that social brands seek to compete between categories, not within.

This raised awareness is but the first step of improving social marketing campaigns using branding. Social brands are but one arrow in the quiver of social marketing but given the proliferation of brands in modern society, it is one arrow that must be deployed with care and focus.

### **Government and funders**

The establishment of a strong social brand that takes cognisance of the social brand roles and social brand equity constructs provides government and funders with the opportunity to limit the proliferation of social brands, and rather create only a few strong social brands, which can act as the umbrella brands, under which multiple partners can implement the programme. This will assist in optimising funding, and limit fragmentation of the message. Further, it will create

a broader brand community. This will make the measurement of outcomes easier and impact on national priorities easier to gauge.

## **Societal marketing**

Corporates need to establish which social brand is optimal for them to co-brand. Through identification of the social brand equity constructs and measurement thereof, corporates will be better positioned to determine which brands have the potential to be strong partners. Further, an increased awareness of the definition and role of social brands will deepen the understanding that corporates have of their CSM activities and as a result, it is anticipated that better societal marketing will result.

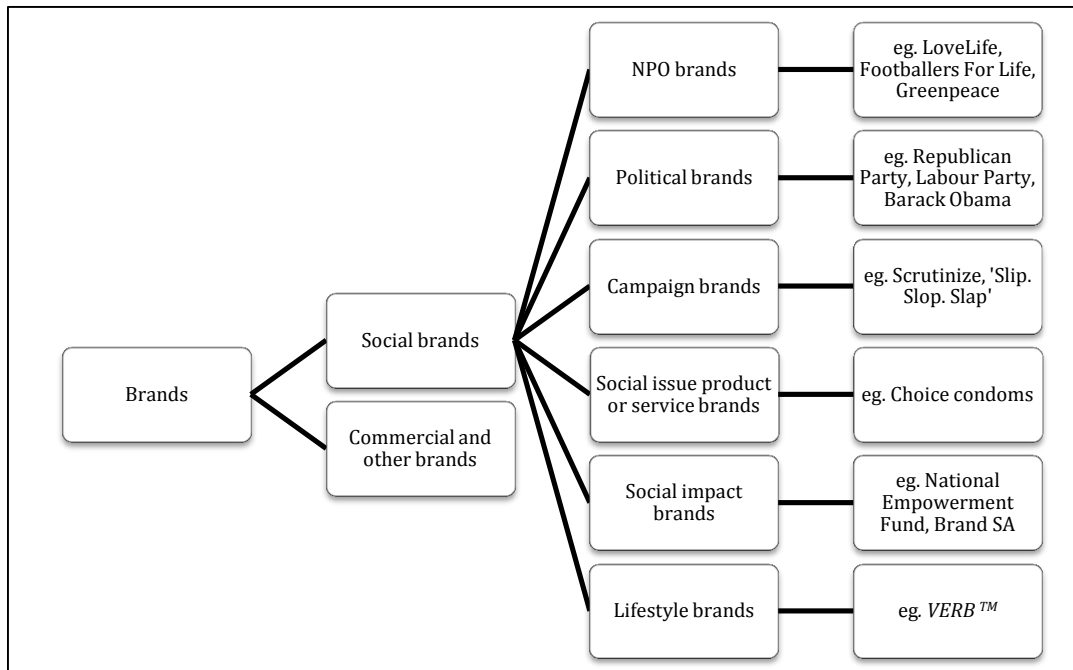
## **6.4 Recommendations for theory**

### **6.4.1. Definition**

It is proposed that the definition for a social brand is:

*A **social brand** represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values that supports a social issue.*

Further, the research recommends that the term 'social brand' is an umbrella term for brands in the social marketing field, and encompasses several types of social brands. These sub-brands represent varying objectives within the context of social marketing. This may be represented in Figure 36 below:

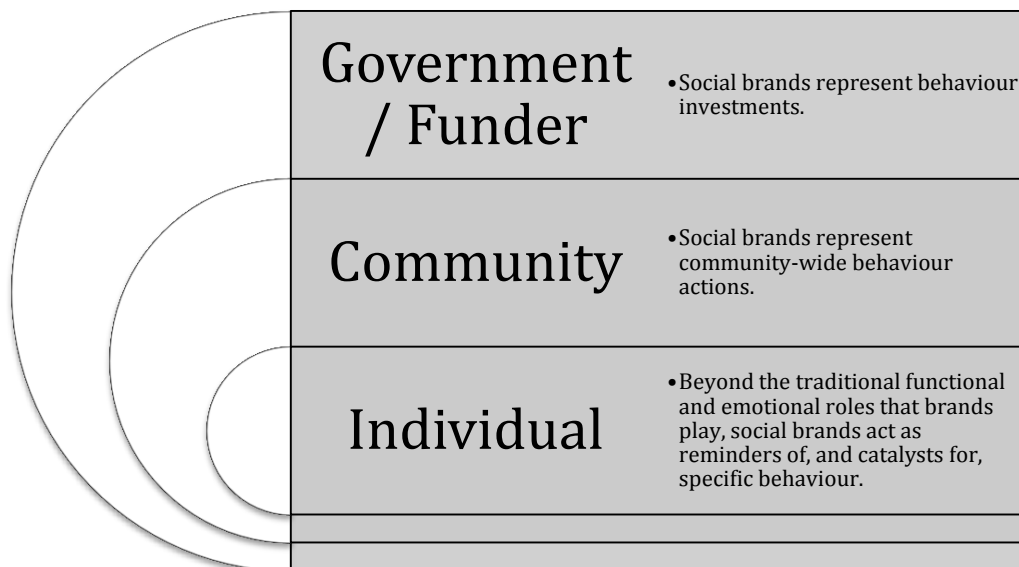


**Figure 36: The umbrella of 'social brands'**

This figure highlights the variety of social brands that occurs, and provides examples of each sub-brand. This depicts the range of work in the field of social marketing and beyond. It is clear then, that social brands may exist in a multiplicity of sectors with diverse sub-objectives, albeit their link being that of a social issue.

#### **6.4.2 The role of social brands**

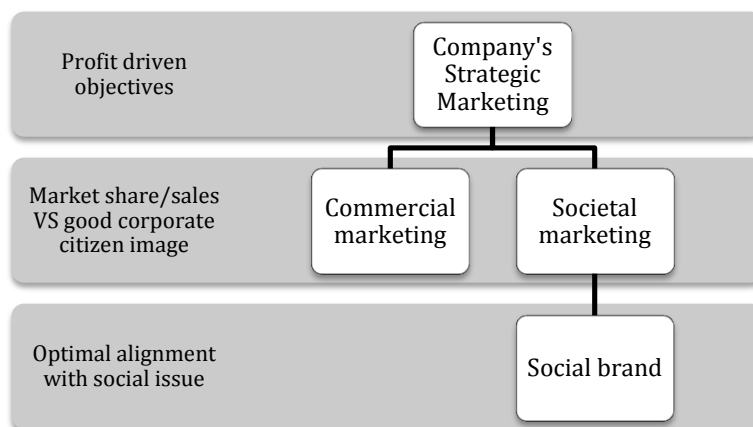
It is suggested that social brands have a number of roles that relate to the varying levels of stakeholders in social marketing campaigns, as explained in Figure 37 below:



**Figure 37: Roles of social brands in relation to stakeholders**

Linking roles to stakeholders assists in capturing the enormity of a social issue and the diversity of interests at play. Further, it assists with understanding how the role of a social brand varies according to perspective and thus, can improve the use of a social brand in a social marketing initiative.

In addition, there is an appreciation of the potential of a relationship between social brands and commercial brands. Figure 38 depicts the relationship:



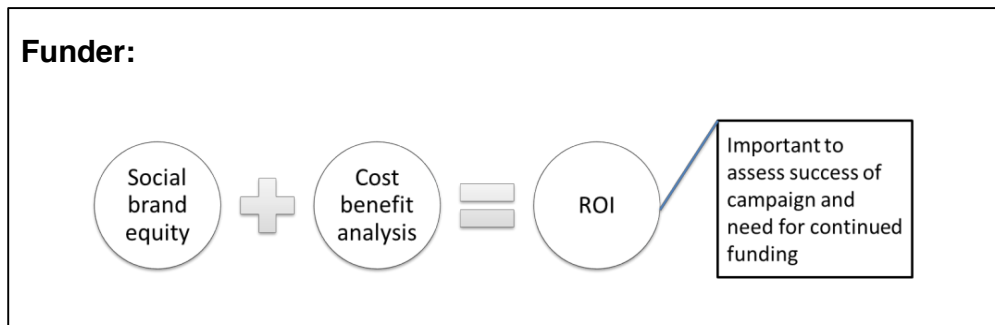
**Figure 38: Relationship between societal marketing and social brands**

As shown, a for-profit company may through deploying its strategic marketing plan, align itself with a social brand through co-branding. This may include the

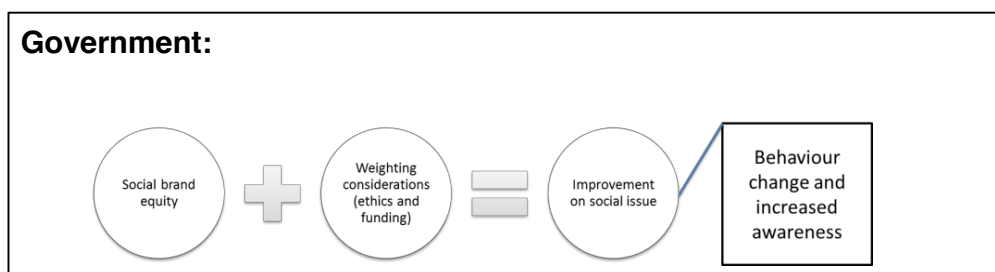
creation of social brand, for example, Levi's® Red For Life, which supports HIV and AIDS. Other companies may choose to select an existing social brand that adds to their overall goal, for example, "Follow the Frog", from Rainforest Alliance, is a social brand that companies put on their products to show their environmental friendly status and reinforce their corporate image. For-profit companies can thus also be considered as stakeholders, with their role varying between funder and community depending on their societal marketing objectives.

### 6.4.3 Measurement of social brand equity

In light of the relationship between various stakeholders and social brands, outlined in Figure 38 above, perspective is also important with regard to social brand equity. While the constructs of social brand equity provide a framework for measurement, it is necessary to evaluate the outcome of social brand equity in relation to what is important for each stakeholder. Figures 39, 40 and 41 provide a graphical depiction for each stakeholder:



**Figure 39: Social brand equity and funder**



**Figure 40: Social brand equity and government**



**Figure 41: Social brand equity and individual/community**

These figures highlight how measurement of a social brand commences with the social brand equity constructs, but that social brand equity has different meanings according to the stakeholder. What is important to a funder is not the same as to an individual, and recognition of this, makes the application of social brand equity more meaningful.

The funder must account for their spending and ensure that the return is optimised. Therefore, a financial figure to social brand equity has merit, and enables a funder to include the asset of a social brand on their balance sheet. This also assists in the motivation for programmatic continued funding.

Government must see an improvement on the social issue and so a figure for social brand equity helps government in determining whether there is increased awareness and uptake of the desired behaviour. Government is issue orientated, rather than brand orientated; thus, weighting of constructs to take into account ethical and funding considerations would be useful to provide a more equitable picture.

For the individual, improved wellbeing and happiness are goals. It is also not necessarily ethical for an individual to see a social brand in the context of a financial figure and so long as the social brand produces goal satisfaction, the weighting and source of funding matters less for the individual's measurement.

## **6.5 Suggestions for further research**

As a new term in social marketing, there are many areas for further research. The following section highlights some key areas:

1. The broad spectrum of various types of social brands opens up the opportunity to explore specific definitions, roles and constructs for measurement for sub-brands. This is useful to understand how the sub-brands are similar to or differ from each other. This could potentially expose the varying objectives of different types of social brands introducing a nuanced perspective on both brands and social good.
2. The context of social brands means that simply transferring commercial thinking to social brands cannot apply. A number of ethical considerations were raised, particularly with regard to the measurement of social brand equity, with the point raised that there could be an overarching bias towards motivating for funding to achieve social brand success as opposed to social issue success (for example, sustained behaviour change). Careful consideration should be given as to what is a social brand's mark of success, and to what degree that mark of success is aligned with success at a societal level. This poses deep questions about what is important in society and how donor funding decisions are made.

The trap of commercialising social marketing should be avoided at all costs, and research of this nature, serves to guard against the trend.

3. Finally, and perhaps most obviously, is the derivation of a formula to measure social brand equity. This is however, not without its own set of complexities and concerns. For one, it must be determined whether it is possible to create a generic formula to be used between social brands and social issues. While this would provide the most opportunity for application of the formula, the multitude of factors driving social benefits and social costs may be prohibitive. This introduces another challenge, that of actually quantifying social benefits and social costs.

A social brand equity valuation should also take into account the various stakeholders all of whom have different objectives. So while for the sponsor, there is an ability to measure return on investment, for society

at large, the value of a healthier and happier life is more difficult to quantify.

The spirit of social marketing speaks to the true value of social brand equity being the sum of the social brand equity for each stakeholder.

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## APPENDIX A

### RESEARCH INSTRUMENT: DISCUSSION DOCUMENT TO BE USED

Name:

---

Professional Title:

---

Years in position or similar: \_\_\_\_\_

Date of interview: \_\_\_\_\_ Location: \_\_\_\_\_

Type of interview: \_\_\_\_\_ (eg. Face-to-face, Skype, Telephonic)

Start time: \_\_\_\_\_ End time: \_\_\_\_\_ Duration: \_\_\_\_\_

#### **PREAMBLE:**

My name is Claire Rademeyer, a Masters student from the University of the Witwatersrand, in Johannesburg, South Africa. I am doing my Masters in the Management of Strategic Marketing, with my thesis focusing on the concept of branding as it relates to social marketing. I would like to talk to you today, about the concept of a social brand and furthermore, the derivation of social brand equity. You have been approached as an expert in your field, who could add insight into these concepts. The information collected will be analysed and written up in the form of a Masters dissertation.

The format of the interview is semi-structured. From time to time, I will probe to gain deeper understanding. At any point you would like to add more information, please feel free to do so. If any aspect of the question is not clear, please ask for more detail. You may also stop the interview at any time you wish.

During the interview I will jot down notes and will also record the interview using a recording device. Later, I will transcribe the interview and crosscheck with the written notes. I may contact you later to share findings and hear your further thoughts.

For your information, only researchers on the project will be privy to the recordings, which will be eventually destroyed after they are transcribed.

(If not already done so) Please sign the release form. Essentially, this document states that: (1) all information will be held confidential, (2) your participation is voluntary and you may stop at any time if you feel uncomfortable, and (3) we do not intend to inflict any harm.

I have planned this interview to last no longer than one hour. During this time, there are several questions to cover. If time begins to run short, it may be necessary to interrupt you in order to push ahead and complete this line of questioning.

I thank you for your willingness to participate in the research, and for the time you have taken to be available.

Please acknowledge receipt of this information and a willingness to participate in the research, including sharing information gathered from this interview.

---

Signature of participant

---

Date

**QUESTIONS and DISCUSSION**

*To start off I would like to get a better understanding from you on the definition of this term 'social brands'.*

Q1. What would you call a brand that is used in social marketing campaigns?


Q2. What do you understand by the term 'social brand'?


For here, on in the interview, I will use the term 'social brand' to describe brands used in social marketing campaigns, such as Scrutinize (youth HIV and AIDS awareness campaign), The Heart Truth (US-based heart disease for women campaign), and PhuzaWize (SA-based alcohol awareness campaign).

Q3a. Do you think a 'social brand' is different from other types of brands?

YES	1
NO	2

IF YES

Q3b. How is it different?


Q4. Do you think a social brand is about...

A social issue	1
A social purpose	2

An appropriate behaviour	3
Other	4

**Need to decide whether you can have one answer or more above.**

**Ask participant: "Please elaborate"**

**ROLE**

***I would now like to move to what role a social brand can play in a social marketing campaign.***

Q5. How do you think a social brand can impact a social marketing campaign?


Q6. How do you think social brands can influence behaviour?


Q7a. Do you think a social brand is for the individual or for the community?

Individual	1
Community	2

Q7b. Please elaborate


Q8a. Does a social brand stand for positive behaviour only? (i.e. not negative behaviour)

YES	1
NO	2

A8b. Please elaborate


Q9a. Do you think social brands can unite the community?

YES	1
NO	2

Q9b. Please elaborate


**MEASUREMENT**

*Now that we have discussed the definition and role of social brands, I would like to discuss how you think we can measure something like a social brand.*

*I am going to discuss various brand constructs that could be of value in measuring social brand equity. For each construct, I would like you to comment on how much value (if any) the construct could have for social brand equity. I would also like to ask how you think the construct actually effects social brand equity.*

Q10a. How important do you think brand relevance is for an individual being targeted by a social brand? In other words, how does it affect brand equity?

On a scale of “5” down to “1” where “5” is “most important”, and “1” is least important.

Most important..... less important				
5	4	3	2	1

Replace brand relevance with:

- Q10b. brand awareness

Most important..... less important				
5	4	3	2	1

- Q10c. intention to brand

Most important..... less important				
5	4	3	2	1

- Q10d. brand loyalty

Most important..... less important				
5	4	3	2	1

- Q10e. brand resonance

Most important..... less important				
5	4	3	2	1

- Q10f. brand leadership

Most important..... less important				
5	4	3	2	1

Q11a. Are there any other brand constructs that you think could be of value for a social brand?

YES	1
NO	2

Q11b. Please elaborate


Q12. How important do you think it is to put a financial figure to brand equity?


Q13. How do you think you could do this?


Q14a. Do you think a cost benefit analysis figure applied to a social brand equity figure (multiplier, other) would help put a financial value to brand equity?

YES	1
NO	2

Q14b. Please elaborate


***Thank you very much for your time. If you would like, I can share the findings with you on completing my research.***

***Also, is there anyone in your field that you can recommend I speak to, to get more information on this research topic? It would be of great assistance.***

***Thank-you once again,***

***Claire Rademeyer***

***[Claire@livemoya.com](mailto:Claire@livemoya.com)***

***083 289 1761***

## APPENDIX B

**Table 11: Consistency matrix**

<b>Main Research problem:</b> The intention of this research is to determine the definition and role of social brands, and measurement thereof.					
<b>Sub-problem</b>	<b>Literature Review</b>	<b>Research Propositions</b>	<b>Source of data</b>	<b>Type of data</b>	<b>Analysis</b>
<p>The first sub-problem is to define the term 'social brands'. Brands are social in nature, which is reflected in their definitions (DeChematomy &amp; Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Keller, 1998), however, these definitions are relevant to brands with a commercial intention. Social marketing clearly has a different intention to traditional marketing, which suggests the existence of an important and necessary sub-category of brands, namely social brands.</p>	<p>Andreasen, Alan. (2002). Marketing social marketing in the social change marketplace. <i>Journal of Public Policy &amp; Marketing</i>, 3-13.</p> <p>Dann, Stephen. (2010). Redefining social marketing with contemporary commercial marketing definitions. <i>Journal of Business Research</i>, 63(2), 147-153.</p> <p>Grier, Sonya, &amp; Bryant, Carol A. (2005). Social marketing in public health. <i>Annu. Rev. Public Health</i>, 26, 319-339.</p> <p>Kotler, Philip, &amp; Zaltman, Gerald. (1971). Social marketing: an approach to planned social change. <i>The Journal of Marketing</i>, 3-12.</p>	<p>P1: A social brand represents a cluster of functional, emotional and behavioural values.</p> <p>P2: A social brand is a brand with an identified social purpose.</p> <p>P3: A social brand is a portfolio of meaning attached to a desired social behaviour.</p>	<p>Literature review on broad range of existing literature, including academic articles, industry publications and agency and donor reports</p> <p>Interview schedule with open ended questions forming questionnaire</p>	Nominal	Descriptive analysis

**Main Research problem:** The intention of this research is to determine the definition and role of social brands, and measurement thereof.

Sub-problem	Literature Review	Research Propositions	Source of data	Type of data	Analysis
<p>The second sub-problem is to determine the role of a social brand. In social marketing, brands help individuals to indicate that they identify with a specific behaviour (Kirby, 2001). Brands also build relationships (Wood, 2008), and create emotional connections (McDivitt, 2003). They represent what a behaviour, programme and sponsor mean to people (Lefebvre, 2011). Brands also act as reminders and catalysts to perform specific actions, engage in a social movement or change behaviours (McDivitt, 2003).</p> <p>Branding represents an investment (DeChernatony &amp; Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Yoo et al., 2000) and it can be regarded as a determinant of success (Samad et al., 2010) to be used to motivate for continued donor funding.</p>	<p>DeChernatony, Leslie &amp; Dall'Olmo Riley, Francesca. (1998). Defining a "brand": Beyond the literature with experts' interpretations. <i>Journal of Marketing Management</i>, 14(5), 417-443.</p> <p>Kirby, Susan D. (2001). Focus on Branding: Introduction and Overview. <i>Social marketing quarterly</i>, 7(2), 4-7.</p> <p>Lefebvre, R Craig. (2011). An integrative model for social marketing. <i>Journal of Social Marketing</i>, 1(1), 54-72.</p> <p>McDivitt, Judith. (2003). Is There a Role for Branding in Social Marketing? <i>Social marketing quarterly</i>, 9(3), 11-17.</p> <p>Samad, Nayyer, Nwankwo, Sonny, &amp; Gbadamosi, Ayantunji. (2010). Branding in Contraceptive Social Marketing: The Pakistani Experience. <i>Social marketing quarterly</i>, 16(2), 50-68.</p> <p>Wood, Matthew. (2008). Applying Commercial Marketing Theory to Social Marketing: A Tale of 4Ps (and a B). <i>Social marketing quarterly</i>, 14(1), 76-85.</p> <p>Yoo, Boonghee, Donthu, Naveen, &amp; Lee, Sungcho. (2000). An examination of selected marketing mix elements and brand equity. <i>Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science</i>, 28(2), 195-211</p>	<p>P4: Beyond the traditional functional and emotional roles that brands play, social brands act as reminders of, and catalysts for, specific behaviour.</p> <p>P5: Social brands represent community-wide positive behaviour actions.</p> <p>P6: Social brands represent positive behaviour investments.</p>	<p>Literature review on broad range of existing literature, including academic articles, industry publications and agency and donor reports</p> <p>Interview schedule with open ended questions forming questionnaire</p>	<p>Nominal</p>	<p>Descriptive analysis</p>

<p>The third sub-problem is determining a means of measuring social brands.</p> <p>Brand equity allows for a generalised method of assessing the value of brands and related marketing strategies (Keller, 2009). It is a means of benchmarking, providing guidance into building a brand and what attributes are required, and assists with on-going management of the brand (Aaker, 1996).</p> <p>In the VERB™ campaign (Price et al., 2009), Brand loyalty and satisfaction, Brand leadership and popularity, Brand personality, and Brand awareness were used to measure the brand.</p> <p>Financial valuation may be useful. A cost benefit analysis, where the costs of the campaign are weighed against the benefits that result, could be considered as a financial measurement.</p>	<p>Aaker, David A. (1996). <i>Building strong brands</i>. The Free Press: New York.</p> <p>Keller, Kevin Lane. (2009). Building strong brands in a modern marketing communications environment. <i>Journal of marketing communications</i>, 15(2-3), 139-155.</p> <p>Price, Simani M., Potter, Lance D., Das, Barnali, Wang, Yu-Chung L., &amp; Huhman, Marian. (2009). Exploring the Influence of the VERB™ Brand Using a Brand Equity Framework. <i>Social marketing quarterly</i>, 15(4), 66-82.</p>	<p>P7: Brand Relevance is a social brand equity construct.</p> <p>P8: Brand Awareness is a social brand equity construct.</p> <p>P9: Intention towards Brand is a social brand equity construct.</p> <p>P10: Brand Loyalty is a social brand equity construct.</p> <p>P11: Brand Resonance is a social brand equity construct.</p> <p>P12: Brand Leadership is a social brand equity construct.</p> <p>P13: A cost benefit analysis would produce a financial multiplier for social brand equity.</p>	<p>Literature review on broad range of existing literature, including academic articles, industry publications and agency and donor reports</p> <p>Interview schedule with open ended questions forming questionnaire</p>	<p>Nominal</p>	<p>Descriptive analysis</p>
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