



University of Fort Hare  
*Together in Excellence*

An evaluation of the Government Communication and Information  
System's communication strategy: A case study of the 16 Days of  
Activism Campaign in Soshanguve

submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Social Sciences

in the subject Communication

by

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this dissertation to my late father, Mr. Tshiwela Piet Hadji, who believed in me and unfortunately could not see the results of his efforts.

## DECLARATION

I, Mutambuli James Hadji, do hereby declare that this dissertation is my original work and that all other people's work used has been fully acknowledged. I further declare that I have never before submitted this work for any award to any university. The dissertation is being submitted in fulfilment of the Master of Social Sciences (Communication) in the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities at the University of Fort Hare, South Africa.

Signed:

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Mutambuli James Hadji', enclosed within a circular scribble.

Date: December 2012

## **ABSTRACT**

United Nation's (UN) millennium development goal number three is aimed at eliminating gender inequality and empowering women. Gender-based violence is recognised as a global public health and human rights problem that leads to high rates of morbidity and mortality, including sexually transmitted infections, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, substance dependence and suicide. In responding to this international public health and human rights concern, the South African government has adopted numerous public health communication strategies to highlight the plight of women and children. One of the campaigns that are conducted in South Africa is the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children (16 Days of Activism Campaign).

This campaign was introduced in 1999 but the literature review reveals that to date, no studies have focused on its evaluation. As such, the purpose of this study is to evaluate the 16 Days of Activism Campaign with special reference to the Soshanguve community in Gauteng province.

This study builds on two theories, namely the excellence theory and the diffusion of innovation theory. Mixed research methods (also called triangulation) was used whereby in-depth interviews were conducted with representatives from the Government Communication and Information System and the Department of Women, Children and People with Disability to establish the promotion strategies used in the campaign and the methods used to assess the effectiveness of the campaign. Furthermore, a self-administered questionnaire survey was conducted within the Soshanguve community to evaluate the promotion strategies and assess the impact of the campaign.

This study revealed a high level of reliance on the television, radio and newspapers in the communication strategies. Both government departments acknowledged that they do not have a tool to evaluate the effectiveness of the campaign from the receivers' perspective. The Soshanguve community felt that in essence the campaign is relevant but not on time. The residents viewed the study as an important part of creating awareness about the campaign and they believed the campaign helped them to know what to do when faced with gender-based violence so that they can assist those who are affected by it.

This study recommend the following: the government and its social partners should develop a tool, for example a questionnaire, to assess the impact of the campaign; the campaign should be year-long and initiated from the local community level with the help of the national government; awareness of gender-based violence should be incorporated in the basic education curriculum; and the structures which deal with gender-based violence should be strengthened from the prevention stage to the post-presentation stage.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS

CBO	communication by objectives
CDC	Centre for Disease Control and Prevention
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CRM	customer relationship management
DIT	diffusion of innovation theory
DWCPD	Department of Women, Children and People with Disability
FBO	faith-based organisation
GBV	gender-based violence
GCIS	Government Communication and Information System
IMC	integrated marketing communication
IPV	intimate partner violence
MTSF	medium-term strategic framework
NCI	National Cancer Institute
NGO	non-governmental organisation
NPO	non-profit organisation
OSW	Office for the Status of Women
PRISA	Public Relations Institute of Southern Africa
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UNCRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Education Fund
UNISA	University of South Africa
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WHO	World Health Organisation



# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

### 1.1. INTRODUCTION

Gender-based violence (GBV) has been recognised as a global public health and human rights problem that leads to high rates of morbidity and mortality, including gynaecological problems, sexually transmitted infections, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, substance dependence and suicide (Taylor, Jinabhai, Dlamini, Sathiparsad, Meyer-Weitz, Eggers & De Vries 2011:354; Shannon, Kerr, Strathdee, Shoveller, Montaner & Tyndall 2009:1). It affects women irrespective of race, ethnicity, age, socio-economic status, sexual orientation and geographical boundaries (Bent-Goodley 2009:262). The UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) defines the term “gender-based violence” as “physical, sexual or psychological harm of suffering to women, including threats such as acts of coercion, or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life”. Renzetti (2005:1009) extends the term to include “childhood sexual abuse, prenatal sex selection in favour of boys, female infanticide, dowry deaths, honour killings, female genital mutilation, trafficking and forced prostitution, forced early marriage, sexual assault and intimate partner violence”.

It is estimated that one out of three women and girls across the world experience GBV (Bent-Goodley 2009:262). According to a World Health Organisation (WHO) study on women’s health and domestic violence in 10 countries, physical violence or sexual violence (or both) existed among 15 to 71% of the women (WHO 2005).

In another multinational study on domestic violence, between 21 and 58% of the women surveyed had experienced physical and sexual violence and between 17 and 48% of these women had experienced the same type of violence at the hands of an intimate partner (Kishor & Kiersten 2004:1).

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is the most common of these types of violence. According to the United Nation's Children's Education Fund (UNICEF 2000:1), women and children are often in greater danger in the place where they should be safest: within their families. In a review of 70 population-based studies, the rate of IPV among women was between 10 and 60% (Ellsberg 2006). In country after country, the statistics are staggering: nearly 50% of the women in Bangladesh have experienced IPV from a male partner; 80% of the women in Pakistan have experienced IPV from a male partner; and every 83 seconds a woman is raped in South Africa, with only 20% of these women reporting the case to the police annually (Family Violence Prevention Fund 2007; Pan American Health Organisation 2005). According to a South African Police Service report, crimes against children increased by 16% between 2008/9 and 2009/10, reaching 57 000 cases (UNICEF 2010:7).

In responding to this international public health and human rights concern, the South African government has adopted numerous health communication strategies to highlight the plight of violence against women and children. One of the health communication campaigns that are conducted in South Africa is the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign (hereafter referred to as the 16 Days of Activism Campaign). For the purpose of this study, an evaluation of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign will be approached from an interactive communication campaign model. This model seeks to align the campaign objectives with the communication objectives and takes into consideration the views of the stakeholders affected (in this case the main focus will be the Soshanguve community).

## **1.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

The 16 Days of Activism Campaign is an international campaign that originates from the first Women's Global Leadership Institute that was sponsored by the Center for Women's Global Leadership in 1991 Concept document, 16 Days of Activism Campaign 2008:1–8). The participants chose the dates, 25 November (International Day Against Violence Against Women) and 10 December (International Human Rights Day) in order to symbolically link violence against women and human rights and to emphasise that such violence is a violation of human

rights. This 16-day period also highlights other significant dates, including 1 December which is World AIDS Day and 6 December which marks the anniversary of the Montreal Massacre. In the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region, the campaign has gained significant momentum through the adoption of the Addendum on the Prevention and Eradication of Violence Against Women and Children by the SADC heads of state in 1998. Hence, the South African Deputy Minister of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs' vision is to establish good working relationships in the SADC region so that the SADC countries can jointly fight against the scourge of violence against women and children (Concept document, 16 Days of Activism Campaign 2008:1–8). In South Africa, the government tasked the Government Communication and Information System (GCIS) with developing communication plans for this campaign.

The GCIS is based in the Presidency and is mandated with the coordination of all government communication at the national, provincial and local levels. It is therefore the responsibility of the GCIS to provide a framework whereby government communication should take place at these levels and also to provide support. Among its many tasks, it is charged to develop a communication strategy and plans for the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, which predominately uses mass media.

Netshitomboni (2007:35) holds that since there are three levels of government (national, provincial and local government), it can be argued that special attention should be paid to the local government. This is due to the fact that people at the local level are more familiar with the circumstances at that level and therefore are able to ensure that communication is tailored to meet the needs of different communities. The 16 Days of Activism Campaign is aimed at changing the attitudes and behaviour of people and to reduce the abuse of and violence against women and children. It is therefore the basis of this study to evaluate the communication strategies that were used in this campaign in 2011 and also to determine the attitudes of the Soshanguve community regarding this campaign. This study therefore is important because it sets out to evaluate the 16 Days of Activism Campaign with a view to make recommendations.

### 1.3. RESEARCH PROBLEM

Although there have been many advances in the design and implementation of public health communication campaigns, there has been fewer developments in campaign evaluation (Noar 2009:1). Kazmi (2008:487) points out that the purpose of evaluation is to appraise the effectiveness of a strategy in achieving organisational objectives. Kazmi (2008:489) concludes that the absence of an evaluation mechanism will result in strategists being unable to find out whether or not the strategy is producing the desired effects. Zerfass, Van Ruler and Sriramesh (2008:183) recommend, firstly, that further research should seek (among other things) to *integrate* different disciplines and to adapt them to communication and, secondly, that the future development of evaluating communication efforts should seek to

- further develop scientific methods for evaluation on the level of impact as well as the level of process
- integrate the methods of evaluating with the aim of strategic communication
- integrate the level of evaluation in the concept of overall evaluation

According to the Nexus database (2011), no other research is currently being undertaken on this topic. However, the following dissertations relating to public health communication have been completed:

- A review of campaign evaluation and its role in communication for development (Kinghorn 2007)
- Discourses of gendered vulnerability in the context of HIV/AIDS: an analysis of the 16 Days of Activism Against Women Abuse Campaign 2007 in Khayelitsha, South Africa (Monte 2009)

While studies on public health communication have been conducted, the literature review revealed that none of the studies had focused on the evaluation of communication regarding the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. In order to help fill the paucity of research evidence in this area,

the study was therefore aimed at evaluating communication for the 16 Days of Activism Campaign with special reference to the Soshanguve community in Gauteng province. The reason for the choice of this township was that it is one of the areas where crime against women and children is prevalent. The other reason is that this area was accessible and convenient for the researcher to coordinate the data collection process since he is based in Pretoria.

#### **1.4. PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW**

The evaluation of communication campaigns plays a significant role in demonstrating accountability, effectiveness and organisational impact (Xavier, Johnston, Watson, Simmons & Patel 2005:417). The definitions of many experts emphasise effectiveness. For example, Wilcox, Ault, Agee and Cameron (2003:420) define it as a tool to measure the communication effectiveness of campaigns, while Cutlip, Centre and Broom (2006:364) argue that evaluation is a research-based activity, “the process of evaluating campaign planning, implementation, and impact”.

Centre and Jackson (2003:153) are of the view that increasing emphasis is being placed on measuring the impact the campaign has on stakeholders. However, Xavier et al (2005:418) have established that evaluation is often restricted to campaign output. These authors highlight that although most practitioners accept that research is an accepted part of communication planning, only 5% of the practitioners who were surveyed reported very occasionally on the evaluation of the impact of their campaigns. Half of the practitioners who were surveyed did not believe that they could precisely measure the effectiveness of communication campaigns.

Several existing popular models of evaluation have been proposed by communication scholars. Cutlip et al's (2000:414) evaluation model is known as PII (preparation, implementation and impact). In the first step (preparation) the adequacy of background information and the appropriateness and quality of the message are assessed. During implementation, the number of messages that was sent to the media and who received them are examined. Finally, in the impact step the changes in opinion, attitudes and behaviours are evaluated. Lindenmann's (2003:17)

yardstick evaluation model also follows a three-level approach, with objectives set beforehand. The first basic level measures outputs such as media placements, the second intermediate level judges the number of messages received by the target audience and the last level examines outcomes such as attitude changes.

Developed by Fourie in 1982, the communication by objectives (CBO) model comprises 21 steps which are combined to form four stages: planning (steps 1–15), encoding (steps 16 and 17), delivery (step 18) and feedback (steps 19–21) (Rensburg & Cant 2003:82). The interactive communication campaign model is a two-way process which is aimed at getting the views of the stakeholders through research in the planning and execution of the campaign. It comprises four phases, which are assessment, creation, implementation and evaluation (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:402–419). The interactive communication campaign model shall be the focus of this study.

Currently the print, online and broadcast media's evaluations dominate the field of communication campaign evaluation. According to Pinkleton, Austin and Dixon's (1999:94) distant measure fallacy, "practitioners claim to achieve a receiver-orientated outcome such as attitude change while measuring a source-related outcome such as favourable media coverage". Cutlip et al (2000:150) say that "the most common error in campaign evaluation is substituting measures from one level for those at another level". Tench and Yoemans (2009:227) conclude that measuring effects on and changes in the target public's knowledge, attitudes and behaviour in the form of outcomes are the ultimate goal of any campaign.

Zerfass et al (2008:185) agree with Cutlip et al (2000:364) by highlighting the fact that in the literature on campaign evaluation a differentiation is made between various foci of evaluation, depending on information needs and resources:

- Formative evaluation takes place before the campaign starts.
- In process evaluation the implementation of the campaign is examined.
- In outcome evaluation effects in the target population are measured.
- In impact evaluation a campaign's long-term outcomes are examined.

Considering the abovementioned issues that impact on communication campaign evaluation, it is important to establish whether existing communication campaign models are fulfilling an evaluation role or only assist in planning and implementation.

In this study process evaluation was used to assess the internal communication, which in this case concerned the employees within the GCIS in consultation with the lead department (which was the Department of Women, Children and People with Disability or DWCPD) when implementing the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. The outcome evaluation was conducted in the Soshanguve community (which was the external stakeholders) in order to assess their level of awareness and attitude and the impact the campaign had in the community.

As indicated above, to evaluate the communication/promotion strategies of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, the researcher drew from Rensburg and Angelopulo's (1996) interactive communication campaign model, which had been revised by Angelopulo (in Barker & Angelopulo 2006).

This revised version emphasises the interactive nature of interactive communication campaigns. This model highlights the significant interaction between the communicator and the target audience in the development and implementation of a communication campaign. The relevance of this model in this study is that it is based on two principles: stakeholder orientation and integration (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:397). Firstly, this implies that the needs and the predisposition of the stakeholders are considered to be fundamental in the development of the campaign structure and its message. Secondly, the communication generated through the campaign must be integrated externally with an overarching strategy and internally between individual communication vehicles that are used in the campaign.

This interactive communication campaign model differs from other campaign models where the communicator's own needs and abilities are the focus of the campaign, or emphasis is placed on forcing the communicator's ideas onto the stakeholders (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:398). This

model has four phases: assessment, creation, implementation and evaluation (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:402–419). Through these phases, the learning from each step in the model is incorporated and combined with the data previously gathered, and forms the basis for planning the next phase of communication. Thus the organisation is constantly learning from the target audience's experience, and continuously improves and enhances the knowledge of the target group.

Along these lines, Angelopulo's (Barker & Angelopulo 2006) interactive communication campaign model formed both the foundation and criteria for the researcher to evaluate the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. Below is the list of the specific research questions and objectives this study sought to address.

## **1.5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

In order to address the research problem, the following research questions had to be answered:

- How did the GCIS promote the 16 Days of Activism Campaign?
- How did the GCIS evaluate the effectiveness of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign?
- What were the participants' knowledge and understanding of the government programme to combat violence against women and children?
- What were the participants' views about the communication tools used to promote the 16 Days of Activism Campaign?
- What were the participants' views on the impact of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign?

## **1.6. RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES**

The following objectives were relevant in addressing the primary research problem:

- to determine the promotion strategies used by the GCIS to raise awareness about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign
- to determine how the GCIS measured or evaluated the effectiveness of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign
- to determine the participants' knowledge and understanding of the government programme to combat violence against women and children
- to determine the participants' views about the communication tools used to promote the 16 Days of Activism Campaign
- to determine the participants' views on the impact of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign

## **1.7. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

Various theories can be used to evaluate an interactive communication campaign. However, for the purposes of this study, excellence theory and the diffusion of innovation theory (DIT) were used as the theoretical framework in order to fully realise the ideals of two-way symmetrical communication.

### **1.7.1. Excellence theory**

There are four models which form the excellence theory as identified by Grunig, Grunig and Dozier (2002:231). These models are press agency, public information, two-way asymmetric communication and two-way symmetric communication (Botha, Chaka, Du Plessis, Krause, Rawjee, Porthen, Veerasamy & Wright 2009:67). This theory is based on the belief that excellent organisations are better listeners (Grunig et al 2002:231). It is premised on having a dialogue between the organisation and its stakeholders. This dialogue helps to identify and resolve problems in the stakeholder–organisation relationship (Coombs & Holladay 2007:54). Gruning

et al (2002:231) and Tench and Yoemans (2009:150) categorise the elements of these models as follows:

- Press agency is one-way communication; no dialogue with the intended audience is required and the main objective is to put forward one particular view of the world through the media and other channels.
- Public information is related to press agency in that its purpose is one-way dissemination of information, but it differs from press agency in that truth is fundamental to its purpose.
- Two-way asymmetrical communication is rooted in persuasive communication and is aimed at generating agreement between the organisation and its publics by bringing them around to the organisation's way of thinking.
- Two-way symmetrical communication is aimed at bringing about mutual understanding; the communication process should lead to changes in both the stakeholders' and the organisation's position on an issue.

In this study the researcher held the view that in order for an organisation to successfully implement any communication evaluation, there should be access to top management so that the ideals of two-way symmetrical communication becomes one of the organisations' objectives. In order for an interactive communication campaign to be evaluated, it is important to take into cognisance all the feedback received from the stakeholders in planning a campaign. Hence, in this study two-way symmetrical communication was used as a means to fully realise interactive communication in evaluating the 16 Days of Activism Campaign.

### **1.7.2. Diffusion of innovation theory**

The DIT was first introduced in 1962 by Everett Rogers. This theory is not specific to health innovations but pertains to all innovations. Rogers (2003) defines diffusion as "the process through which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system". Dearing (2009:507) illustrates that diffusion occurs through a combination of (a) the need of individuals to reduce personal uncertainty when presented with

new information, (b) the need of individuals to respond to their perceptions of what specific credible others are thinking and doing, and (c) the need of individuals to comply with general felt social pressure to do as others have done. Dearing (2009:507) argues that uncertainty in response to an innovation typically leads to a search for information and if the potential adopter believes the innovation is interesting and has potential benefits, he or she will search out evaluative judgments of trusted and respected others (informal opinion leaders).

According to Civita and Dasgupta (2007:264), some authors have expanded on the DIT by suggesting that the focus should be equally on the environment (e.g. organisation) that supports providers and on the patients. This requires paying particular attention to process factors that have more to do with (a) the structure of the multidisciplinary team approach as it relates to contextual influences and (b) the level and extent of programme integration across existing healthcare structures. Using the actual reported experiences of a specific diabetes management pilot project, they endeavoured to describe and underscore the utility of DIT in identifying and targeting possible challenges to the successful adoption and sustainability of an innovative diabetes management strategy. This theory has been used in numerous health promotion campaigns, for example in Mali in 1999 a study was conducted among 500 Malian youth to evaluate their information-seeking behaviour and perceptions of source credibility on reproductive health. Lack of accurate knowledge among youth was attributed to their most trusted sources of information (friends and siblings); the youth did not consider credible information sources, including health agents and teachers, to be accessible enough or trustworthy (Dearing 2009:506).

The 16 Days of Activism Campaign is aimed at changing the attitudes and behaviour of people and reducing the abuse of and violence against women and children. While the DIT includes three fairly distinct processes (presentation of the new culture element or elements to the society, acceptance by the society, and the integration of the accepted element or elements into the pre-existing culture), this theory was relevant to this study because the main purpose of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign is to change the attitudes of communities in the hope of changing their behaviours regarding women and children abuse. Hence it was felt that this would be achieved

by evaluating the communication strategies used in this campaign and determining the attitudes of the Soshanguve community regarding this campaign. While noting the relevance of DIT in this study, it was used with emphasis placed on the integrated marketing and communication campaign literatures.

## **1.8. RESEARCH METHOD**

The methods and procedures of collecting data for this research were mixed. A combination of in-depth interviews and a survey were used. Mixed methods research is defined as research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study (Bryman & Bell 2007:642). Creswell and Plano Clack (2007:59) explain that there are four major types of mixed methods design: the triangulation design, the embedded design, the explanatory design and the exploratory design.

An exploratory design that began with exploring the topic by means of qualitative research methods was used for this study and was continued into a second quantitative phase where the initial results were tested or generalised (Bergman 2008:68). A major advantage of mixed methods research is that it enables the researcher to simultaneously answer confirmatory and exploratory questions, and therefore to verify and generate theory in the same study (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2003:15). The purpose of using this design is to bring together the different strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses of the quantitative method (large sample size, trends and generalisation) and those of the qualitative method (small *N*, details and in-depth) in order to corroborate the results (Parasuraman, Grewal & Krishnan 2007:69).

### **1.8.1. Data collection**

Du Plooy (1995:49) holds the view that a researcher ought to define the constitution of the population, such as the group, subject or units that are used. The target population of this study was, firstly, GCIS employees and, secondly, residents of Soshanguve. Within the GCIS, the

Directorate of Project Management Services was used purposefully because this directorate deals with the communication planning and implementation of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. Representatives from the DWCPD's Directorate Communication were also interviewed.

Soshanguve is a township situated about 45 km north of Pretoria in the Gauteng province of South Africa. In terms of socio-economic composition, Soshanguve mainly comprises low-income and middle-income households. According to Statistics South Africa's 2007 Community Survey (Statistics South Africa 2008), the Tshwane metropole was estimated to have 713 407 households, with a population of 2,5 million. Soshanguve was estimated to have a population of 112 000 people.

Various *sampling* methods are used to select sampling units from the population. These include simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, systematic sampling, clustering and convenience sampling. Hence, convenience sampling was used given its advantages of as alluded to by Bluman (2004:11–13).

During the first phase of data collection for this study, two participants from the GCIS and the DWCPD respectively were interviewed in in-depth interviews. The reason for purposive sampling was based on the researcher's knowledge of the selected GCIS and DWCPD employees who were working on the 16 Days of Activism Campaign and the fact that these employees had the best knowledge about the campaign.

In the second phase, the sampling unit was the individual, who could be a man, a woman, a boy or a girl of 17 years and older. 17 year old individuals were selected because they could read and write, and it would be easier to get data from them. The minimum sample size for this study was 400, which was above the minimum sample of 384 as prescribed by Krejcie and Morgan's (1970:3) sample size table. While Soshanguve has many sections, this study focused on 12 sections and the survey was conducted in all these sections. The reason for selecting these 12 sections or blocks was because it would be convenient and cost effective to do the research in these sections than all the sections, which are more than 30.

### **1.8.2. Interpretation of the data**

In order to analyse data from the focus group discussions, the researcher used content analysis as a method of reporting the findings. Content analysis is defined as a research method which “examines words or phrases within a text such as books and essays, as well as interviews and speeches, headlines and informal conversations” (Babbie & Mouton 2001:490). The researcher analysed all the data collected during the in-depth interviews by looking for common comments, phrases and observations the participants made. Various analytical methods ranging from descriptive to inferential statistics were used to analyse the data obtained from the survey. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used to analyse the responses to the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics (such as frequency distributions and box and scatter plots) was used to give an overall picture of the data. The descriptive statistics was complemented by inferential statistics in order to answer the research questions of the study.

### **1.9. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

As indicated previously, the purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign and to determine its impact in Soshanguve. Therefore, it is hoped that this study produced recommendations which will help to improve the effectiveness of the campaign.

### **1.10. ENVISAGED ETHICAL ISSUES**

This was an objective study which focused purely on the information to be found by the researcher. All the stakeholders were represented objectively and all the information was reported as such. It is important to note that the researcher observed the ethical rules and regulations governing research conduct at the university in seeking to achieve the best results.

## **1.11. ENVISAGED STRUCTURE OF THIS DISSERTATION**

This dissertation will be structured as follows:

- Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study. This chapter contains an overview of or background to the study and sets out the research problem, the research objectives, the research design, the limitations of the study, and the contribution and value of the study.
- Chapter 2: Overview of international, regional and local GBV. The purpose of this chapter is, as the title indicates, to give an overview of GBV as it occurs internationally, in the SADC region and locally in South Africa.
- Chapter 3: Public health communication models. In this chapter relevant perspectives on public health communication models internationally and locally are presented.
- Chapter 4: Research methodology. In this chapter the research design, study area, definition of the population and sampling unit, and the sampling methods are discussed, and an overview of the data collection and entry process is given.
- Chapter 5: Research results and analysis. In this chapter the findings of the research are presented and discussed in detail.
- Chapter 6: Conclusion and recommendations. This is the concluding chapter in which the whole research process is evaluated in terms of whether the research objectives were met and the research questions answered. The recommendations are based on the findings of the study.

## **1.12. CONCLUSION**

In this chapter an overview of or background to the study and sets out the research problem, the research objectives, the research design, the limitations of the study, and the contribution, value of the study and the structure of the study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **OVERVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL, REGIONAL AND LOCAL GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE**

#### **2.1. INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is to conduct a literature review on international, regional and local GBV. The World Report on Violence and Health recommends several measures for decreasing the incidence of violence, many of which focus on the establishment of national policies and plans as well as improved data collection and monitoring systems (Quinn, Bell-Ellison, Loomis & Tucci 2007:358). One of the recommendations is the need to “promote primary prevention responses by media campaigns to change attitudes, behaviour and social norms”.

Against this background, international, regional and local perspectives on the key agreements on the planning, implementation and monitoring of GBV are highlighted with special reference to the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. Taking cognisance of the fact that many stakeholders/departments are involved in this campaign, the legislative framework for the enforcement of measures against GBV is reviewed. As pointed out in chapter 1, the GCIS is responsible for developing the communication strategy for the 16 Days of Activism Campaign in consultation with the lead department, which is the DWCPD. The GICS’s role and mandate will be contextualised for the purpose of this study and aligned to the Directorate of Project Management which deals with campaigns such as this one.

#### **2.2. OVERVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE**

Early scholarship in the area of violence against women in the 1970s tended to be rooted in a criminal justice perspective (Tjaden & Thoenes 2000). Acts of violence were conceptualised in terms of criminal justice and legal responses to offenders and victims were given. In the 1990s, violence against women began to be viewed as a public health problem and was identified as a leading cause of injury and death to women. Public health agencies, including the WHO, became

active in violence prevention and public awareness campaigns, and surveillance and monitoring was broadened through women's health clinics. In 1993, the Global Campaign for Women's Human Rights in Vienna concluded among other things that violence against women is a human rights issue.

Similarly, UN agencies have declared in many documents and forums that violence against women is an obstacle to the achievement of the objectives of equality, development and peace (Hoff 2010:18–20). The Council of Europe (2006:33) echoed these sentiments by stating that violence against women also severely constrains development, obstructing women's participation in political, social and economic life. As a result, its impacts include escalating costs in healthcare, social services and policing, and increased strain on the justice system.

While GBV has been defined in chapter 1, it is important for the purpose of this study to firstly define the concepts which are relevant when conducting a study on violence against women and children. These concepts include “violence”, “violence against women” and “child abuse” as described by the UN. The 1993 UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women was first to arrive at an internationally agreed upon definition of violence as it pertains to women's experiences. Violence is defined as “any act that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, occurring in public or private life” (Johnson, Ollus & Nevala 2008:1). The 1995 Beijing Platform for Action expanded on this definition, specifying that violence against women includes violations of the rights of women in situations of armed conflict, including systematic rape, sexual slavery, forced pregnancy, forced sterilisation, forced abortion, coerced or forced use of contraceptives, and prenatal sex selection for female infanticide (Brownridge & Halli 2001:6).

A child is defined by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) as anyone younger than 18 years of age. In this convention a child's fundamental rights include the right to survival, the right to development, the right to protection and the right to participation (Devaney, Nakray & Lazenbatt 2012). The WHO (2007) defines child abuse as “all forms of

physical and/or emotional ill-treatment, sexual abuse, neglect, or negligent treatment or commercial or other exploitation, resulting in actual or potential harm to the child's health, survival, development of a relationship responsibility, trust or power”

As signatories to the 1979 CEDAW and UNCRC, several governments have made a strong commitment to address violence against women and children.

In 2006 the UN Secretary General released an in-depth study on all forms of violence against women which highlighted that “violence against women persists in every country in the world as a pervasive violation of human rights and a major impediment to achieving gender equality” (Secretariat of the Pacific Community 2009). The World Bank estimates that globally violence causes more ill-health for women than malaria and traffic accidents combined and that it is equally serious in causing death and incapacity among women of reproductive age as cancer (in Hillyand, Rolston & Tomlinson 2005). Ellsberg and Heise (2005:2) confirm the World Bank Report by noting that in their survey of 50 countries, they found that between 10 and 60% of women who had ever been married or had a partner had experienced at least one incident of physical violence by an intimate partner. The most common violence experienced by women globally is IPV, which is most often perpetrated by the male partner. In fact, in over 95% of domestic assaults reported in the Pacific region, the husband was the perpetrator (Jalal 2008:2).

OXFAM (2004) highlights that there are 50 million fewer women in South Asia today than there should be due to sex-selective abortions, violence and neglect. They further assert that girls and women are often denied an education, are forced into dowry marriages, and have little or no access to proper healthcare.

The above clearly indicates that individual acts of violence are supported overtly or tacitly by cultural, social or religious norms and economic inequalities which can serve to undermine legal prohibitions against such acts. Globally, the rates of IPV in a single year range from 3% or less in the USA, Australia and Canada; 27% in Nicaragua; 38% in Korea; and 52% in the West Bank and Gaza Strip (Malley-Morrison 2004). Krug and WHO (2002:2) report that women are more

likely to be murdered by an intimate partner than by anyone else. They further report that one-half of the women in some countries have experienced sexual violence by an intimate partner. In addition, up to one-half of adolescent girls report their first sexual encounters were coerced. Turning from the international arena to regional issues, the efforts which Africa as a continent has made to combat GBV is discussed in the next section.

### **2.3. REGIONAL EFFORTS TO CURB GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE**

While progress has been made in tackling violence against women and providing support to victims in many African countries, more needs to be done. GBV has also been the focus of attention of agreements at a regional level. For example: In 1998 SADC adopted an addendum regarding the prevention and eradication of violence against women and children to SADC's 1997 declaration on violence against women as a violation of women's human rights and an impediment to sustainable development. In 2003 the African Union adopted a Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights. The protocol obliges African states, among other issues, to take measures to eliminate all forms of discrimination and violence against women (SADC Protocol on Gender and Development 2008:2-4).

It should be noted, however, that not all the 15 SADC countries have comprehensive legislation in place to combat GBV. According to Gender Link (2008:4) only Botswana, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa and Zimbabwe have domestic violence laws. Only five countries (that is Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania and Zimbabwe) have sexual offences legislation in place. In Botswana, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe sexual harassment is covered by labour laws and in Tanzania by the Penal Code and Sexual Offences Act. Among the milestones each member state needs to accomplish is ensuring that the key targets in the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development are mainstreamed into national action plans or strategies to end GBV. Nine out of the 15 SADC countries have put in place multi-sector national action plans which extend the 16 days of activism for no violence against

women and children to year-long, 365 days, strategies to end GBV. Below is a brief discussion on the legislative steps which South Africa has taken to eradicate any form of GBV.

#### **2.4. SOUTH AFRICAN LEGISLATION DEALING WITH GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE**

South Africa has been hailed for its progressive constitution which enshrines gender equality. The number of women in parliament has risen substantially since 1994, creating a formidable force for legislative change. But while changing laws can be a rapid process, changing the mindsets that suppress these impressive gains is another issue altogether (Ngoma 2005:8). A culture of violence, born from years of political struggle against apartheid, has been blamed for the gloomy statistics.

The government has already delivered in part on its commitment to prevent and eradicate violence against women and children by reviewing the criminal justice system in South Africa, which led to the development and adoption of the Service Charter for Victims (Jewkes, Levin & Penn-Kekana 2002:1604). This legislation has been enacted to give women reproductive rights (notably the Choice in Termination of Pregnancy Act 92 of 1996) and to protect women against domestic violence (in the form of the Domestic Violence Act 55 of 1998). Other Acts include, but are not limited to, the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995; the Commission on Gender Equality Act 39 of 1996; the Witness Protection Act 112 of 1998; the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998; the Promotion of Administrative Justice Act 3 of 2000 the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000; the Code of Good Practice on the Handling of Sexual Harassment of 1998 (updated in 2004); and the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Act 32 of 2007. These pieces of legislation are viewed internationally as among the most empowering for women than anywhere else in the world (Jewkes et al 2002:1605).

The legislative framework was created in consultation between several government departments, including the South African Police Service, the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, the National Prosecuting Authority, the Department of Health, the Department of Provincial and Local Government, the Department of Correctional Services and the Department of Social Development. In pursuit of mainstreaming the gender-based issues in 2009, the

government created the new Ministry of Women, Youth, Children and People with Disabilities. Its focus is to drive the government's equity, equality and empowerment agenda for women, children and people with disabilities through an integrated approach to accelerate the realisation of their human rights. In view of the above, the South African government began making an effort to eradicate violence against women and children by committing itself to international, regional and national legal instruments for the protection of women against violence. One of the initiatives is the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, which is discussed in the next section.

## **2.5. 16 DAYS OF ACTIVISM FOR NO VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND CHILDREN**

As indicated in chapter 1, the 16 Days of Activism Campaign is aimed at contributing to the government's primary developmental objective of restoring to individuals their human dignity within the context of safer and more secure families and communities. While the campaign is currently championed by the DWCPD, it was also championed in 1999 by the Department of Justice and the Department of Provincial and Local Government, and Traditional Affairs. At provincial level, the Office for the Status of Women (OSW), located in the provincial offices of the premier, was responsible for implementing the campaign in the provinces in partnership with strategic partners. Former President Thabo Mbeki rightly stated during the 2004 campaign that action against GBV should be extended to 365 days. This 365 days of activism concept was developed and adopted to extend the 16 Days of Activism Campaign to a co-ordinated and comprehensive year-long response through the development of a national action plan to end GBV. The plan serves as an important tool to strengthen efforts to end GBV by holding government, civil society and other stakeholders responsible for the commitment they make. As a result, the then deputy minister of provincial and local government, as the national convener, developed an implementation plan for the 16 Days of Activism Campaign to be extended to 365 days of the year in an attempt to promote advocacy and awareness of the importance of ending violence against women and children.

It should be noted that this is not the government's responsibility on its own but include non-governmental organisations (NGOs), faith-based organisations (FBOs), community-based

organisations, and other businesses for the sole purpose of increasing awareness on the issue of women and child abuse. As indicated in chapter 1, this campaign starts on 25 November and ends on 10 December; it has been in place since 1999. While this campaign has multi-stakeholders as indicated above, its communication responsibility from a government perspective is based within the GCIS. A brief discussion on the role of the GCIS follows below.

Since its inception in 1999, this campaign has grown in scope. For example, according to the campaign's Exit Report (2007:7), the 2006 campaign had a special focus on people at grassroots level and beyond the borders of South Africa. This was in line with the vision of the then deputy minister of provincial and local government which entailed to make sure that the campaign involves men and boys in the fight against GBV in schools, homes, communities and the workplace. Of critical importance was that the 2006 campaign focused strongly on behavioural change, while continuing and encouraging women to speak out.

The 2007 campaign was characterised by the continuation of the previous year's campaign but emphasised the implementation of the national action plan for eradicating GBV throughout the year. According to the 2007 Exit Report (2008:9), because men are the most likely perpetrators of GBV, the campaign had to focus on actively involving men and boys in an effort to bring about behavioural change and to eradicate GBV.

In an effort to make sure that the campaign is reaching the grassroots level, in 2008 several awareness programmes took place. For example, Youth Month's road shows were geared towards raising awareness of child and women abuse among youth in school and those who have left school or were unemployed. During these road shows, topics ranging from HIV/AIDS to child abuse and disability were discussed in farming communities and rural areas. The 2008 campaign was enhanced through a strong partnership with strategic media partners, including the SABC, GCIS and Serongwanyane Technology (a community radio development agency). Furthermore, over the years until 2011, the campaign was characterised by many elements such as media launches, an SMS campaign, cyber dialogue, print media, donations, website support,

and media activities around the opening and closing ceremonies which were coordinated by the GCIS (as indicated below).

## **2.6. ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT COMMUNICATION AND INFORMATION SYSTEM**

The purpose of this section is to place the role of the GCIS in a particular historical context to provide an understanding of its mandate in managing government communication. In 1998 the South African Communication Service was dissolved and the GCIS was established by the Cabinet, largely on the basis of recommendations contained in the report of the Task Group on Government Communications (Comtask 1996:58).

The GCIS was established in terms of Section 7 (Subsections 2 and 3) of the Public Service Act 103 of 1994 as amended, and officially launched on 18 May 1998. The GCIS is located in the Presidency and is responsible for setting up the government communication system and continuously working with the rest of government to communicate and inform the public about the policies and programmes of the government which are aimed at improving their lives (Government Communicators' Handbook 2010:1). The chief executive officer (CEO) of the GCIS attends Cabinet meetings and is the official government spokesperson.

The mandate of the GCIS is to develop infrastructure to ensure that there is co-ordination between the three tiers of government (national, provincial and local government), government bodies and parastatals. The GCIS is also mandated to ensure that there is interaction between government and the people and to increase people's access to government information, which will ultimately help them to make informed decisions about their lives (Netshitomboni 2007:102).

As indicated above, the GCIS is the custodian of government communication; its communication activities are in line with the government's broader communication objectives. The GCIS's medium-term strategic framework (MTSF) of 2010/2014 includes among its main objectives to

“[l]earn and explore communication methods and practices to enhance communication”. This includes the following:

- Conduct communication research and surveys to explore new communication needs and understand the communication landscape.
- Effective use of research to improve communication focus and understand the communication needs of the public.
- Explore new platforms for communication and the impact of communication products and services in terms of access and reach.

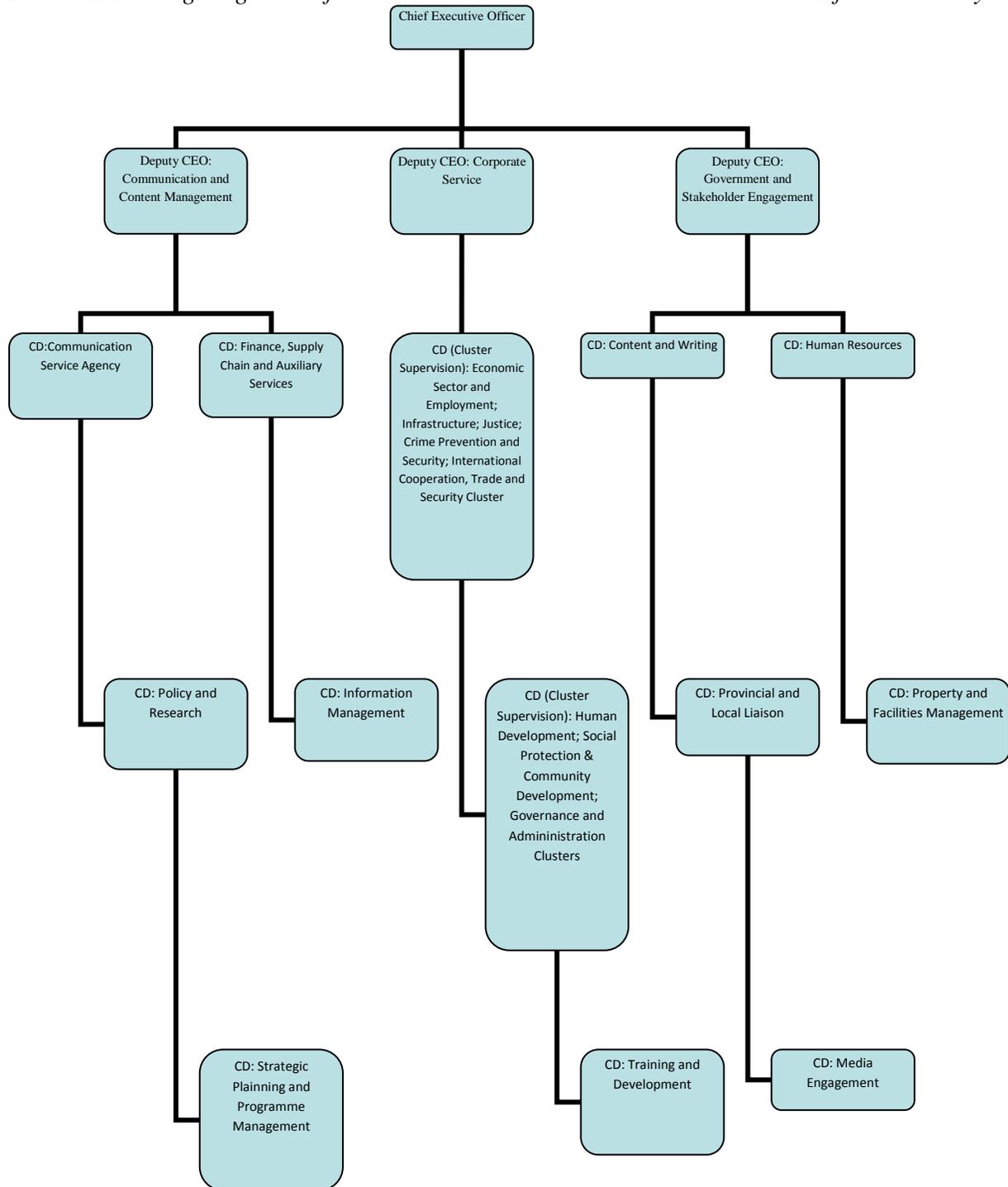
From the above objective and activities, it can be argued that an evaluation of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign should not be limited to campaign specifics but should also be in line with the broad government mandate.

It should also be indicated that violence against women and children has multi-stakeholders. For example, the performance agreement of the Justice Crime Prevention and Security Cluster’s (2010:1) objective is to make sure that “[a]ll people in South Africa are and feel safe”. Emphasis is placed on the nature of the criminal activities, which according to the agreement is that the violent nature of crime affects everyone but especially vulnerable groups such as women, children, the elderly and people with disabilities, hence currently the lead department is the DWCPD. The communication aspect is planned, implemented and monitored through the GCIS in the Project Management Office discussed below.

## **2.7. PROJECT MANAGEMENT AT THE GOVERNMENT COMMUNICATION AND INFORMATION SYSTEM**

The organogram of the GCIS in figure 2.1 shows how it is structured to enable it to manage government communication. It should be noted that the structure of an organisation determines the flow of communication and the role each member on the organogram plays in organisational communication.

Table 2.1: Organogram of the Government Communication and Information System



The GCIS has adopted the project management approach in its management of government communication. The Directorate of Strategic Planning and Programme Management is tasked to

provide a professional project management service to enhance performance in the delivery of the GCIS's mandate, and to coordinate and implement effective strategic planning and performance monitoring in line with relevant legislation. Its responsibilities include, among other things, the co-ordination and establishment of project teams and the provision of support on behalf of other departments in the clusters (Netshitomboni 2007:106). These clusters include the Infrastructure Development Cluster; Economic Sectors and Employment Cluster; Human Development Cluster; Social Protection and Community Development Cluster; International Cooperation, Trade and Security Cluster; Governance and Administration Cluster; and the Justice, Crime Prevention and Security Cluster.

Within this directorate, the Project Management Office is entrusted with ensuring the efficiency of the delivery mechanisms of the GCIS's portfolio of projects, through the provision of professional project management and coordination services to ensure on time and on budget project delivery. Kerzner (2009:4) and (Gido & Clements 2009:12) define project management as the planning, organising, directing and controlling of company resources for a relatively short-term objective that has been established to complete specific goals and objectives. Hence this directorate is also expected to manage cross-cutting requests for assistance with project management in other departments. Due to its nature, the 16 Days of Activism Campaign's communication planning is done in the Project Management Office in consultation with different clusters.

## **2.8. CONCLUSION**

The purpose of this study was to conduct an evaluation of the 16 days of Activism Campaign and to determine the Soshanguve community's perceptions on the impact of the campaign. The main aim of this chapter was to provide an overview of the international, regional and local milestones and coverage of GBV. This was achieved through UN conventions, African charters, and South African legislation on GBV. It should be noted, however, that more needs to be done in SADC regarding the cultural and religious practices which directly or indirectly contribute to GBV. The literature reveals that in South Africa, solid legislation is in place to deal with GBV but from a

government perspective, the communication planning, implementation and monitoring is done by the GCIS through the Directorate of Strategic Planning and Project Management. This, however, is implemented with interaction between among others government clusters, NGOs, community-based organisations, FBOs and local communities.

In the next chapter the focus is on the role of communication campaign models in assisting in planning campaigns of this magnitude, including the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. This shall be achieved by analysing these models with the view to establish the benefits and problems associated with these models.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **PUBLIC HEALTH COMMUNICATION MODELS**

#### **3.1. INTRODUCTION**

The goal of this study was mainly to evaluate the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. The literature review for this chapter was undertaken to present relevant perspectives on public health communication models. It was approached from the background of communication, which at its simplest level requires a sender, a message, a receiver and a channel of communication. However, any communicative event is enormously complex; senders are often receivers, and multiple and contradictory messages may be sent via different channels. The historical development, definition and the advent of social marketing and integrated marketing communication (IMC) in public health communication will be covered in this chapter. Moreover, this section will also deal with the media mix that is useful in these campaigns.

Although health communication can mainly be considered an individual matter, a considerable amount of it takes place at a wider public health or mass communication level. It has been argued that the most significant determinant of health is social and economic circumstances, and the least important is individual health behaviour (Lam, Fielding, McDowell, Johnston, Chan, Leung & Lam 2012:777; Jung, Nitzsche, Ansmann, Ernstmann, Ommen, Stieler-Lorenz; Wasem & Pfaff 2011:382). Thus it has been recommended that one should focus more on broader public health campaigns than on trying to influence behaviour at an individual level. The difference between public health communication and health communication will be dealt with in this chapter, with the emphasis on the role of the communication process in public health communication. The integration of different disciplines in pursuit of strengthening the field of public health communication will also be discussed, followed by an outline of the international communication campaign models which are generally applicable in public health campaigns and a detailed presentation of the models that are mainly used in South Africa. Finally, each model will be critiqued in order to ascertain its relevance for the 16 Days of Activism Campaign.

### 3.2. PUBLIC HEALTH COMMUNICATION IN CONTEXT

The use of communication to achieve health behaviour change is now a staple of public health intervention methods, and will continue to be influential in the twenty-first century (Tulchinsky & Varavikora 2009:1 & 2). Barker and Angelopulo (2006:460) are of the view that communication may be studied empirically and critically at different levels of interaction. These levels – often described on a micro-to-micro continuum – are intrapersonal (how individuals process information), interpersonal (how two individuals interact to influence one another), group (how communication dynamics occur among many individuals), formal and informal organisations (how communication occurs and functions in the context of organisations such as hospitals, schools or public health agencies), and community and society (how communication builds or changes the agenda of important issues).

Accordingly, there are two types of studies which can be associated with this study: empirical studies and applied studies. Berry (2007:32) defines empirical studies as a means of applying scientific methods to the study of communication. This study is an empirical one because it assesses behaviour change resulting from exposure to a communication campaign. In contrast, for the field of public health, the use of applied communication perspectives involves how communication activity positively or negatively contributes to health behaviour, and how the planned use of communication influences health behaviour within the context of health communication (O’Hair & Kreps 1990:271). The above necessitates a discussion within which public health communication is contextualised.

In the *Dictionary of public health promotion and education* “public health” is defined as “the science and art of preventing disease, prolonging life, and promoting health and efficiency through organized community effort for the sanitation of the environment, control of communicable infections, education in personal hygiene, organisation of medical and nursing services, and the development of the social machinery to ensure everyone a standard of living adequate for the maintenance of health” (Modeste 1996:95). The Centre for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) defines “health communication” as “the crafting and delivering of messages

and strategies, based on consumer research, to promote the health of individuals and communities” (in Roper 1993:179).

Public health communication involves the study and use of communication plans and strategies to inform and influence individual and community decisions in ways that improve health (Tomaselli & Chasi 2011:77). It links the domains of communication and health, and is increasingly recognised as a necessary part of efforts to improve personal and public health.

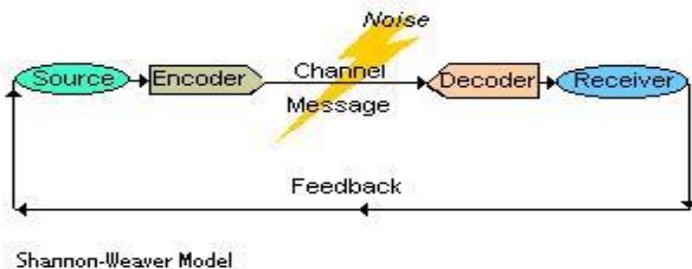
Furthermore, according to Healthy People (2010), public health communication is “the art and technique of informing, influencing, and motivating individual, institutional, and public audiences about important health issues”. The scope of public health communication includes disease prevention, health promotion, health care policy and the business of healthcare as well as enhancement of the quality of life and health of individuals within the community. While it must be noted that the two concepts “health communication” and “public health communication” are sometimes used interchangeably, for the purpose of this study, “public health communication” is used due to its ability to reach beyond medical response to social illnesses.

It can be concluded from the above definitions that in public health communication, messages are created through an ongoing transactional process between communication partners where the one influences the other in order to attain mutual understanding. If it is assumed that public health communication has a transactional character; it will become clear that the communication process in public health communication should be a negotiated one. This therefore necessitates reflection on the definition of communication, which according to Hybels and Weaver (2001:6), is any process in which people share information, ideas and feelings.

### **3.3. COMMUNICATION PROCESS AND ITS COMPONENTS IN PUBLIC HEALTH COMMUNICATION**

From Hybels and Weaver’s (2001:6) communication model, it is clear that communication involves not only the spoken and written word, but also body language, personal mannerisms, and style – anything that adds meaning to the message. It could be concluded from the above

definitions that communication is mainly a process-driven approach (that is, in the traditional paradigm of communication there is a sender, a message and a receiver). In this view, senders in public health communication are healthcare agencies and/or health organisations (Young 2009:16 & 17). This includes not only doctors, nurses or any other people who work in the health industry, but also media professionals and government agencies that produce materials in health promotion media campaigns. These senders provide the ideas or content.

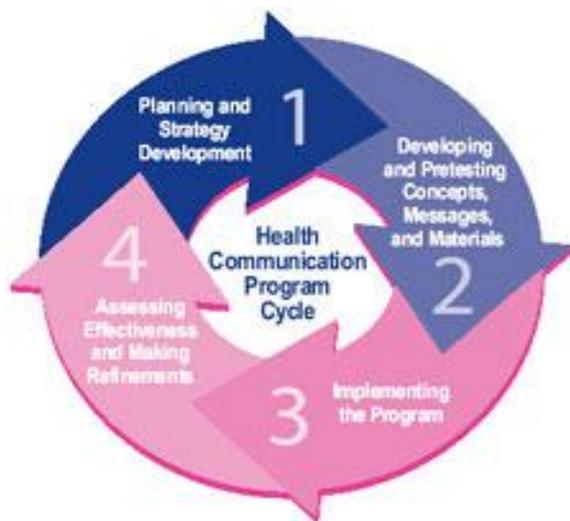


*Figure 3.1: Shannon-Weaver communication model*

The next component is the message, which provides a forum for the ideas or content (Lubbe & Puth 2002:61–65). This can be a message about a health-related issue such as heart disease prevention or the promotion of fitness. The last element is the receiver, which may include individual, community and public audiences as the receivers of public health communication. In public health communication campaigns the receiver is perceived in terms of target groups or an audience. The receivers could be patients if the communication takes place in a hospital.

Linked to the communication process described above, is the prerogative to make sure that public health communication is effective. The public health communicator must consider who must be informed or persuaded, how to reach them, and what information to convey or arguments to make. These issues are, in turn, affected by assessments of the strongest motivations for the described behaviour and the obstacles to its adoption, as well as the perceived characteristics of the “behaviour” to be promoted (Lengeler, Cattani & De Savingy 1996:112 & 113). The audience, channels and messages must all be considered in relation to each other and to the promotional objective. These elements are then translated into a sequence which depicts

how the public health communication planning, execution and evaluation ought to be undertaken. While this process has been adopted from a health communication perspective, it can also be useful in public health communication planning as illustrated by Arkin (2002:11) in figure 3.2. This process is portrayed as a circle to emphasise the ongoing nature of programme improvement.



*Figure 3.2: Health communication planning cycle*  
(Source: National Cancer Institute)

To help with planning and developing a public health communication programme, the above process is divided into four stages:(1) planning and strategy development; (2) developing and pre-testing concepts, messages and materials; (3) implementing the programme; and (4) assessing effectiveness and making refinements (Parvanata, Nelson, Parvanta & Harne 2011:23–30). As indicated above, the stages constitute a circular process in which the last stage feeds back into the first as they work through a continuous loop of planning, implementation and improvement. The above discussion focused mainly on the link between public health communication and one of its founding pillars, which is communication. This was achieved through the use of the communication process and the role of each component. Below is a brief summary of the historical development of public health communication and how it has evolved over time.

### **3.4. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC HEALTH COMMUNICATION**

If one seeks to trace the origin of public health communication, one needs firstly to trace the development of health communication as it was referred to in earlier sources. Public health communication is not a new phenomenon and the field has developed in its own right over the last 30 years or so (Tomaselli & Chasi 2011:38). While this discipline evolved and grew mainly in the United States, it can be argued that similar developments were taking place in other developed and developing countries. Kreps, Bonagura and Querytrace trace its origins back to the “humanistic psychology movement” which began in the 1950s and was associated with the work of Carl Rogers, Jurgen Ruesch and Gregory Bateson (in Parvanata et al 2011:7). This resulted in events in the 1960s and 1970s which saw a convergence in the fields of psychology, medical sociology and medicine that produced two distinct traits in “proto-health communication”: healthcare delivery and health promotion.

In contrast, health promotion (also called health communication) grew out of the communication field’s long-time focus on media in communication and was concerned with “the development, implementation and evaluation of persuasive health communication campaigns to prevent major health risks and promote public health” (Parvanata et al 2011:7). In the 1980s the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) funded programmes to bring this new, strategic approach to what were globally information, education and communication. The late 1980s saw several publications (books and journals) on health communication (Bent-Goodley 2009).

In the 1990s the CDC’s definition of health communication was “the crafting and delivery of messages and strategies, based on consumer research to promote the health of individuals and communities” (Parvanata et al 2011:8). In South Africa, 2002 saw the establishment of the first graduate programme in Public Health Promotion via Entertainment Education at the University of Natal in conjunction with Johns Hopkins’s Center for Communication Programmes and Bloemberg School for Public Health (Parvanata et al 2011:8).

On the international front in 2007, the first dedicated PhD programme in Health and Strategic Communication was offered by the George Mason University's Department of Communication.

From the above selection of the main milestones and events in health communication, it can be argued that this field has grown to embrace professional fields such as education, management, law and marketing. Due to a multidisciplinary approach to public health communication, it has grown and has adopted social marketing strategies in its planning and execution. Below is a discussion of how social marketing can be used in public health communication.

### **3.5. SOCIAL MARKETING MIX**

Over the last few decades, social marketing campaigns using mass media have been found to be successful in reducing negative health behaviours in a number of countries (Mullin, Prasad, Kaur, Turk 2011:50). Although a variety of definitions have been proposed by social marketers, they came to conclusion that social marketing can be defined as “a program-planning process that applies commercial marketing concepts and techniques to promote voluntary behaviour change” (Hasting 2007:42 & 43). Furthermore, social marketing facilitates the acceptance, rejection, modification, abandonment or maintenance of particular behaviours by groups of individuals, often referred to as the target audience (Grier & Bryant 2005:321). According to Quinn et al (2007:358), social marketing is the application of traditional marketing principles towards the promotion of health behaviour change. It is based on the traditional marketing exchange theory, which states that consumers will adopt behaviour change when barriers are reduced and benefits highlighted, according to their specific needs. The motive behind promoting this particular behaviour is driven less by the scope of monetary gain than by the need to initiate and sustain health behaviour that is deemed to benefit the target population (Basu & Wang 2009:77).

Plant, Montoya, Rowboat, Kernot, Mall, Pappas, Kent and Klausner (2011:23) hold the view that the principles of marketing (also called marketing mix, adapted from commercial marketing) include the product, price, place and promotion (four Ps). In addition, other key elements of

social marketing include market research, audience segmentation and branding. In public health communication, social marketing can be integrated into multi-level environmental approaches by using multiple “P” intervention strategies to support changing the environment around the audience, fostering change in community norms by delivering health messages and encouraging individual behaviour change (Evans, Christoffel, Necheles & Becker 2010:24; Kotler, Tobeo & Lee 2002:12–16). This kind of marketing has been increasingly used by governments and public sector organisations not only for the promotion of particular services (e.g. the provision of a free flu vaccine or the promotion of public transport), but also for the promotion of voluntary behaviour change (e.g. campaigns against racism or gun crime).

As indicated above, the use of marketing tools and techniques by governments is seen as a natural development of the general adoption of private-sector-based approaches in the organisation of public services (Raftopoulou & Hogg 2010:1208; Walsh, Hassan, Shiu, Andrews and Gerard 2010:1143). The traditional marketing mix has developed to include the outside-in approach, which is called integrated marketing communication (IMC). A discussion of IMC is relevant to this study because it addresses the communication strategies used in the 16 Days of Activism Campaign.

### **3.6. INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION**

The overflow of social marketing into public health communication has grown from only using the four Ps to also incorporate some of the developments in the field of marketing. One of these developments is IMC. In order to realise one of the objectives of this study which covers the communication strategies, tools or channels used in the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, it is important to briefly discuss the IMC elements in context.

There is consensus among communication scholars that many public health communication campaigns are biased towards one-way, top-down promotion; relies on standard communication tools; and lacks tactical excellence and effectiveness (Basu & Wang 2009:85). However, this is due to the fact that campaign planners rely on the traditional marketing communication mix to

get the message across to the public. Some of the characteristics of traditional marketing communication as identified by Rensburg and Cant (2003:13) are its focus on creating sales (i.e. transactional); attention is given to customers and shareholders only; brand messages are created independently; and it is a one-way mass media monopoly.

However, many organisations are moving away from traditional marketing communication and are embracing IMC as a survival tool in the highly competitive environment. Accordingly to scholars such as Duncan and Moriarty (1997), Koekemoer (2004), and Barker and Angelopulo (2006), organisations must be encouraged to adopt IMC for among other things message consistency and maximum communication impact. IMC as defined by Duncan (2001:18) is a “cross-functional process for creating and nourishing profitable relationships with customers and other stakeholders by strategically controlling or influencing all messages sent to these groups and encouraging data-driven, purposeful dialogue with them”. From this definition, it can be deduced that rather than reliance on single promotional tools (e.g. advertising) to achieve desired outcomes, IMC offers a more coordinated and strategic approach which ties into the overall function and future direction of the organisation (Hawkins, Bulmer & Eagle 2011:228 & 229; Bearden, Ingram and LaForge 1998:401). It can therefore be argued that IMC has the following advantages over traditional marketing communication: it creates and nourishes relationships rather than just make transactions; it focuses on stakeholders rather than only customers and/or shareholders; and it maintains strategic consistency rather than independent brand messages. Table 3.1 shows the differences between traditional marketing communication and IMC as depicted by Rensburg and Cant (2003:13).

*Table: 3.1 Differences between traditional marketing communication and integrated marketing communication*

<b>The focus of traditional marketing communication</b>	<b>The focus of integrated marketing communication</b>
Transaction	Relationships
Customers	Stakeholders
Mix of marketing communication tools	Strategic consistency in brand messages
Mass media (monologue)	Interactivity (dialogue)
Cause marketing	Mission marketing
Adjust prior year plan	Zero-based planning
Specialisations	Core competencies
Functional organisation	Cross-functional organisation
Mass marketing	Data-driven marketing
Stable of agencies	Communication management agencies

IMC considers a combination of communication vehicles which include advertising, public relations, sales promotion, direct marketing, sponsorship, word-of-mouth, personal communication, exhibitions and new media (Kotler, 2000; Bearden et al 1998; Brassington & Pettit, 1997). It is also important to locate these elements within the 16 Days of Activism Campaign to ascertain whether the right element is used for the relevant community. In public health communication, IMC forces the campaign planners to think about every way in which the targeted communities come into contact with the organisation, how the organisation communicates its positioning, the relative importance of each vehicle and timing issues. Ultimately it should improve the organisation's ability to reach the right customers with the right messages at the right time in the right place (Kotler, Shalowitz & Stevens 2008; Maibach, Abrams & Marosits 2007:5).

Subsequently, it should be clear that not all the elements of IMC are useful in public health communication as compared to profit-driven selling of products and services. In line with the above, this section will deal with public relations, advertising, sponsorship, word-of-mouth, personal communication, exhibitions and new media as some of the elements of IMC which are relevant to this study.

### **3.6.1. Advertising**

Advertising was the dominant force in marketing until media fragmentation, electronic technology and database management made it possible to target customers more precisely and with greater cost efficiency, which led to greater expenditure on below-the-line elements of the marketing mix (Kitchen & De Pelsmacker 2004:33). In fact, these changes in communication technologies and segmentation techniques threatened advertising agencies' dependence on the use of mass media advertising.

Advertising is non-personal; paid for by an identified sponsor; and disseminated through mass channels of communication to promote the adoption of goods, services, persons or ideas. It is one of the most visible manifestations of the marketer's communications efforts and few would claim that it is possible to be immune to the constant barrage of advertisements aimed at consumers (Koekemoer 2004:11 & 12). Advertising messages are delivered in a wide variety of formats using many different media, including print, television and radio, outdoor and, most recently, the Internet. Koekemoer (2004:12) says that the distinguishing feature of advertising is that it is a one-way form of communication with targeted consumers (referred to collectively as the target audience). Advertising has four main purposes: (1) to attract attention, (2) to inform, (3) to persuade and (4) to remind. Its ability to reach a mass audience makes it an efficient method for communicating with a large target market. Clow and Baack (2004:65) opine that traditionally advertising has been the most recognised form of marketing communications due to its high visibility.

When dealing with advertising, one has to develop a media plan. Media planning has two sub-components, namely (1) selecting channels and a media mix, and (2) deciding on the reach, frequency and time (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:405). There are many reasons for using one medium over another. Certain media such as broadcast media are highly appropriate for short, relatively low information density repetitive messages. Print media on the other hand do not have the powerful reach into the audience's homes that broadcast media do, but rather are capable of handling a much higher information density which can be controlled at the reader's own pace.

As part of media planning, public health communication campaigns ought to use what is called a media mix. A media mix is a combination of media used to augment one another. According to Solomon and Cardillo (1985:65), it is hypothesised that use of a variety of media such as television, radio, booklets, newspaper columns, posters and billboards creates an overall synergistic effect and provides a much greater impact than the individual media elements taken alone.

Thornson et al (1996:61) emphasise that it is important to distinguish between the effects of simple repetition and the idea that the processing of a message from one medium is somehow transformed by the fact that messages from other media have been or will be processed. It is in light of this that Thornson et al (1996:162) note that encountering a message via two media creates a greater impact than simply encountering the same message twice in a medium. Classic research on memory shows that repetition is key to learning and memory. It has been generally agreed that the more repetition of information, the greater the likelihood that an individual will be able to recognise or recall the information (Cassell, Jackson & Chevront 1998:75–79). Thus learning from two messages in two media may carry a greater impact than learning from two messages repeated in a single medium.

As indicated above in the discussion on IMC, media mix can also be characterised as “the whole is greater than the sum of its parts”. In other words, what an individual derives from a particular medium is enhanced by the fact that a second medium was also used. Studies on advertising campaigns show that cognitive and attitudinal responses to advertisements improve when people are exposed to a conjunction of media rather than a single medium (Thornson et al 1996:163). Below is a list of most of the common media mixes used in public health communication campaigns in South Africa. The list include the local mass media, face-to-face contact, brochures, media advisories, annual reports, backgrounders, actualities, interviews, position papers, direct mail, advertisements, public service announcements (PSAs), faxes, email, pitches, instant messaging, video news releases, news releases and social media (Newsom & Haynes 2011:91; Guth & Marsh 2012:266–274). It should be noted that it is the public health

communication campaign planner's discretion to select an appropriate media mix for a relevant community at a given time (Narasimba Reddi 2009:139).

### **3.6.2. Personal selling/communication**

This involves interpersonal communication between a seller and a buyer to satisfy buyer needs to the mutual benefit of both parties. What differentiates it from other non-personal forms of marketing communication is the personal nature of the methods used. As established by empirical research, this element dominates the marketing communication mix (in terms of money spent) in almost all situations for reasons that are not hard to find (Koekemoer 2004:13). It would probably be true to say that virtually all organisations start off by selling to a relatively small number of customers, and this is best accomplished by personal selling. In many instances the nature of the product offering is such that it is absolutely essential to present it in a personal way. Personal selling has several advantages, not the least of which is that each customer can be approached in a unique way. But personal selling is expensive! It is therefore necessary to establish whether or not it can be justified before simplistically assuming that it will be part of the organisation's marketing communication mix. In the context of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, it is important to use this kind of element since it creates an opportunity for immediate response and direct interaction through personal communication.

### **3.6.3. Public relations**

Public relations is the management through communication of the perceptions and strategic relationships between an organisation and its internal and external stakeholders (Botha, Chaka, Du Plessis, Krause, Rawjee; Veerasamy & Wright 2007:27). According to Blakeman (2007:127 & 128), public relations comes into the IMC process with experience in creating opportunities for two-way communication between the company, product or service and the target, making it a vital player in determining and managing the relationship between the buyer and the seller. This dissemination of information gives symmetrical information to all interested parties, bridging the communication gap between word-of-mouth gossip and factual information. Blakeman (2007:128) is of the view that "ideally, public relations practitioners will find themselves in an

offensive position when introducing or maintaining an image, but if any kind of negative publicity does arise, they will need to take defensive position”. This action can play a huge role in creating and maintaining brand equity. In addition, public relations representatives may act as go-betweens for the organisation and the media, setting up interviews, writing speeches and arranging sponsorships in order to arouse public interest or attract attention (Blakeman 2007:128). Through government’s community engagement meetings (*izimbizo*), government officials can take advantage of these platforms by emphasising the wide variety of government programmes and being able answer issues which could be tackled using other communication strategies.

#### **3.6.4. New media**

New media that are now included in the promotions mix include the internet, e-mail and mobile technology (Koekemoer 2004:15). E-marketing is defined by Smith and Tylor (2004:620) as “identifying, anticipating and satisfying customer needs online”. This has the benefit of offering customers a platform for feedback and enhances the opportunities for customer relationship management (CRM). Belch and Belch (2004:490) point out that the role of websites has changed significantly since the inception of the internet. Websites are no longer just online catalogues but now promote brand images, offer promotions, and sell products and services online.

Importantly, the internet has the ability to bring together all the elements of the IMC plan, making it more effective (Belch & Belch 2004:485). In addition, it can be used with other communication tools. These include advertising such as banners and sponsorships; sales promotion, which is usually implemented online via websites; e-mail; cyber-dialogs; blogs SMSs; public relations via online news media and press offices; and direct marketing by means of mass e-mails. In this study it is important to note that public health communication is not exempted from this movement to new media, hence its relevance regarding the 16 Days of Activism Campaign should be tested.

### **3.6.5. Exhibitions**

Exhibitions give marketers the opportunity for face to face contact with their target audience and, in most instances, the chance to demonstrate their products. It is a unique marketing communication element in that it brings the whole market together under one roof, including buyers, sellers and competitors (Smith & Tylor 2004:501). In the IMC plan, an exhibition does not only allow for face to face interaction but also provides the opportunity to bring the product or service to the market (in this case the single message of the organisation). This further strengthens the relationship.

It can be concluded from the above discussion on IMC that public health communication campaigns ought to consider the use of IMC in their planning and implementation. For example, the “Take a second, make a difference” (TASMAD) campaign involves the dissemination of messages that encourage adults to adopt certain behaviours and attitudes related to youth and youth development by using IMC (Beaudoin & Thorson 2006).

Again, the use of IMC to build trust and boost education and awareness among the target audience was successfully implemented in dLife, an integrated media network dedicated to empowering Americans living with diabetes (Stokes 2009). Other centres like the CDC also embraced the use of IMC (Nowak, Cole, Kirby, Freimuth & Caywood 1998).

The above discussion on IMC covered the elements deemed relevant to the public health communication campaign in terms of this study. While the emphasis was on the elements, in the next section an overview of the international model of communication campaigns which may be applied in public health communication will be given. Then the models which have been consistently applicable to the South African context will be discussed.

### **3.7. INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION CAMPAIGN MODELS IN PUBLIC HEALTH COMMUNICATION**

As indicated in section 1.3, international public health communication planning models tend to adapt generic planning tools to specific development issues, such as reproductive health, nutrition, and HIV or other infectious diseases. Some variation in how communication planning is approached is based on whether the organisation is at the macro stage, developing a communication strategy, or managing the programme implementation. For the purpose of this study, these models will not be discussed but will be briefly described to show the link between local and international practice as prescribed by Parvanata et al (2011). Firstly, the United Nations Children’s Fund’s (UNICEF) triple A cycle consists of “assess-analyse-act” and was developed for any form of planning, not only communication. Secondly, SCOPE was created by the Centre for Communication Programmes at the John Hopkins University. Thirdly, CDCynergy was developed by the CDC and the six-stage planning model by the National Cancer Institute (NCI) in the United States.

### **3.8. REVIEW OF COMMUNICATION CAMPAIGN MODELS: THE SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE**

Turning from international to local practice, there are several communication models which are used for communication campaign planning and evaluation in South Africa. Notably, most of these models are derived from the international models but are contextualised to suite the local settings and demands. In this study, the discussion of the models will be limited to the phases, steps or stages of each model and this will be followed by criticism of particular models with specific reference to its use and application in the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. Firstly, the communication by objectives models will be discussed, followed by the Public Relations Institute of Southern Africa’s (PRISA) model and lastly the interactive communication campaign model.

### **3.8.1. Communication by Objectives model**

As indicated earlier in chapter 1 of this dissertation, Fourie (1982) developed a model to plan and manage a communication campaign. Rensburg and Cant (2009:208) argue that Fourie's model is derived from "management by objective" and in this case, communication by objectives (communication actions are planned and purposive). This model consists of 21 steps which are combined to form four stages: planning (steps 1–15), encoding (steps 16 and 17), delivery (step 18) and feedback (steps 19–21). Rensburg and Cant (2003:82) observe that CBO model refers to the target stakeholders as the destination and to the communicator as the initiator of communication action. This model is summarised below.

#### **3.8.1.1. Stage 1: Planning**

- *Step 1: Identify the communication needs of both the communicator and the destination.* These could include general or specific communication needs which the communicator identifies after researching/assessing the needs of the stakeholders affected.
- *Step 2: Formulate the message.* More than one message can be communicated in a single campaign. Some messages may be explicit (overt messages) and others may be implicit (covert messages).
- *Step 3: Formulate the objectives.* The objectives of the communication set down are directly related to the needs and messages, as already determined.
- *Step 4: Determine the profitability.* Campaigns can be costly. The communicator should clearly determine the communication expenditure and profit received as a result of the communication campaign. Resources, cost of equipment, time and effort should be considered.
- *Step 5: Gather the communication elements.* The step is usually known as "gather the data", "find the information" or "get the facts". It means gathering all possible information about the campaign topic at hand.
- *Step 6: Analyse the destination.* One of the most important steps in the planning of any communication campaign is the analysis of the destination (target publics and audience).

Four main areas of information can be identified when analysing the destination: their demographic characteristics (including gender; age; living area; and social, political and religious affiliation); their comprehension capacity (their level of understanding, education and knowledge of the topic); their communication disposition (their beliefs, attitudes and stereotypes, and their opinions of the communicator and communication campaign); and their communication habits (their code preferences, media preferences and the time they have available).

- *Step 7: Analyse the communicator.* The communicator should determine his or her own capabilities to communicate the campaign. Own attitudes and credibility should therefore be taken into consideration.
- *Step 8: Determine the circumstances.* Since the circumstances in which the destination receives the communication are of pivotal importance, the communicator should try to gain as much control as possible over the delivery of the campaign.
- *Step 9: Time the communication.* Determining the ideal time to deliver the communication is important. The right time is where the destination is most receptive to the campaign.
- *Step 10: Determine the approach.* The communicator should study the destination carefully to determine the approach best suited to the particular communication campaign envisaged. A choice can be made out of a serious, humorous, rational, or emotional approach. There are few communication situations in which only one approach is relied on. Usually a combination approach is used, with the emphasis on one or more of the four basic approaches as the campaign develops.
- *Step 11: Choose the format.* There is a large variety of communication formats from which to choose; selecting the correct format for a particular format communication topic is a matter of careful consideration. Some of the formats for the message are pictorial, vocal, article, narrative, three-dimensional and musical formats. Communication campaign messages usually also make use of a combination of formats.
- *Step 12: Determine the tempo.* The communicator may vary the tempo of the messages of the communication campaign, either by changing the rate of presentation or by changing the structural composition of the campaign. The tempo at which the campaign messages

are delivered will rely on the topic of the campaign and the comprehension capacity of the destination.

- *Step 13: Structure the communication.* Structuring the communication campaign may be effected in various ways. There are different structures a communicator can use: the problem solution (where the emphasis is on the development of a problem and possible solution); the climax (where the communicator places the most important arguments or communication elements at the end of the communication); and the anti-climax (where the communicator places the most important arguments or communication elements at the beginning of the communication). There are many more structures to choose from.
- *Step 14: Select the codes.* There are various codes the communicator can select. In this step a distinction is made between linguistic codes (written and spoken words) and non-verbal or semiological codes (signs).
- *Step 15: Select the media.* In this step the ideal is to combine mass media, group and interpersonal communication. The media selection is determined by the type of communication campaign, the accessibility to the media of the destination and the available budget for the campaign.

### **3.8.1.2. Stage 2: Encoding**

- *Step 16: Encode the communication.* The communication campaign is shaped during this step and comes to life.
- *Step 17: Test the communication.* Before the communication campaign is presented, it should be tested. Testing the campaign (sample testing by experts, researchers or the communicator) is essential to ensure that the encoding is correct.

### **3.8.1.3. Stage 3: Delivery**

*Step 18: Deliver the communication.* This is the last stage of the campaign the communicator can control before the destination receives the communication and starts the decoding process. It is important therefore that communicators know as much as possible about the different

presentation techniques and are able to make use of them as and when they are needed. These techniques may include speech or personal presentation, written communication through printed media, or audiovisual and electronic communication (or a combination of all these).

#### **3.8.1.4. Stage 4: Feedback**

- *Step 19: Arrange for feedback.* Feedback is the information that the communicator acquires from the destination once they have received the communication campaign, and from which the communicator can determine the measure of success (the eventual attitudinal or behavioural change of the destination) that has been achieved in terms of the objectives set. There are a number of ways to receive feedback: by means of direct observation; through research – for example the use of questionnaires; through marked changes in attitude and behaviour; through voluntary comments; through support for campaign; and through expert evaluation.
- *Step 20: Evaluate effectiveness.* After receiving feedback from the destination, the communicator is now in position to evaluate his or her campaign.
- *Step 21: Stop or repeat.* After evaluating the success (or lack thereof) of the campaign, the communicator must decide on future action (that is, whether to stop or repeat the campaign).

#### **3.8.2. Critique of the communications by objectives model**

While the four stages are reasonably aligned to steps, it can however be argued that there is more emphasis on stage 1 which covers steps 1 to 15. This model is detailed and some of the steps may not be relevant depending on the type and nature of the organisation implementing the public health communication campaign. The main criticism against this model is the fact that it paints a picture that evaluation is only relevant at the end of the campaign. This can lead to wastage of effort and resources if evaluation does not yield the expectations which were set in the initial stage. Step 6 is usually properly placed when it is in an introductory step of the communication campaign. In essence, it must give an overview of the state of affairs either at the

internal or the external environment. By so doing, some of the pitfalls and challenges can be identified beforehand. Below is a discussion of the PRISA model.

### **3.8.3. Public Relations Institute of Southern Africa model**

This section concentrates on the presentation of the PRISA model (as cited by Rensburg 1996 and echoed by Botha et al 2009) as consisting of various steps. This model claims to focus on the needs of the target audience and it is aimed at solving a problem. It is based on what is called the RAISE formula: research, adaption, implementation of strategy and evaluation (Cutlip, et al 2000:29). However, in the PRISA model, the following steps are covered: situation analysis; setting objectives; determining the stakeholders or target publics; activities – strategies and action plans; drawing up the budget; and review and evaluation. Below is a brief discussion of each step.

#### ***3.8.3.1. Defining the situation (situation analysis)***

The motivation for the planning and implementation of the communication plan will determine the nature of the situation analysis and the techniques used in the plan (Rensburg 1996:66). The (SWOT) analysis involves determining the strengths (S), weaknesses (W), opportunities (O) and threats (T) of the situation. The situation analysis evaluates the organisation's internal and external communication needs, policies, practices and capabilities, and uncovers data to allow top management to make informed decisions about the future objectives of the organisation's communication (Cutlip et al 2000:327).

The situation analysis should determine what the communication problems are and how they might be solved (Cutlip et al 2000:332 & 323; Rensburg 1996:66). However, this model focuses only on identifying both the communication and organisation problems (Steyn & Puth 2000). Hence, research plays a critical part in this process (Cutlip et al 2000:319) by reducing uncertainty in the decision-making process.

### ***3.8.3.2. Setting objectives***

Goals (statements that spell out the overall outcomes of a plan) and objectives (specific outcomes, or key results, to be achieved for each identified target public) should be formally identified and employees should be involved in a meaningful way before an organisation initiates any plan (Cutlip et al 2000:353). The objectives should be specific and measurable, and it should be derived from the overall mission statement of the organisation (Rensburg 1996:66). This process is not built into the PRISA model.

The identification of specific, short-term goals will assist in informing, motivating and educating specific target publics. According to Rensburg (1996:66), it is important to distinguish between motivational objectives (to achieve action) and informational objectives (to spread information). The success of the corporate communication plan will be evaluated in terms of these objectives.

### ***3.8.3.3. Determining the stakeholders or target publics***

An organisation communicates with many different stakeholders (Seitel 1995:9), each having their own needs and requiring different types of communication and communication mediums. Communication content should be communicated through the communication plan (Rensburg 1996:68). An overall theme is designed to convey a message (Skinner & Von Essen 1995:129). The medium should be considered when developing the message.

### ***3.8.3.4. Activities: Strategies and action plans***

This stage involves the broad range of communication operational strategies and techniques implemented to communicate a specific message to the target public in order to meet specific objectives. Each of these strategies must be properly researched, cost and prioritised (Rensburg 1996:66). The overall communication activities must be related to the problem, the objectives, the target public and the message (Skinner & Von Essen 1995:130).

### ***3.8.3.5. Drawing up the budget***

The administrative budget (Rensburg 1996:68) comprises the running cost of a department and can include salaries, office equipment, postage et cetera. The plan budget includes those costs related to the execution of the plan or the costs related to the techniques involved in the action plans (exhibitions, conferences, seminars, publicity, et cetera) (Rensburg 1996:68).

### ***3.8.3.6. Review and evaluation***

Communication must be made more measurable and should contribute to the bottom line. Measurement implies a process of applying a precise value or metric to some action and involves precision, hard numbers, validity and reliability. Outcomes or results are compared to a pre-established set of standards before follow-up actions are planned (Rensburg 1996:66). This can be done through informal research like interviews, focus groups and questionnaires.

## **3.8.4. Critique of the Public Relations Institute of Southern Africa model**

Noar (2011:1) holds the view that evaluation should not be thought of as a separate activity but rather should be infused and integrated throughout the campaign design and implementation process, including the formative, process and outcome evaluation activities. This is contradictory to Solomon and Cardillo (1985:65 & 66), who saw the purpose of evaluation as to provide some kind of feedback on the impact of the campaign for future planning. It can therefore be deduced from the above model that it puts more emphasis on evaluation as a last step which is helpful for the envisaged planning. The PRISA model thus does not recognise evaluation as an inherent part of every step in the campaign but as a concluding one. For example, most of the negative outcomes of a public health communication campaign can be due to a lack of funds/resources or manpower and if there is evaluation after activities, the campaign could refocus or be downsized.

### **3.8.5. Interactive model of communication campaign**

As indicated in chapter 1 (section 1.4), the interactive nature of the interactive communication campaign model highlights the significant interaction between the communicator and the target audience in the development and implementation of a communication campaign. The relevance of this model to this study is that it is based on two principles: stakeholder orientation and integration (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:397). Firstly, this implies that the needs and predisposition of the stakeholders are considered fundamental in the development of the campaign structure and its message. Secondly, the communication generated through the campaign must be integrated externally with the overarching strategy and internally between the individual communication vehicles that are used in the campaign.

Furthermore, this model involves four phases: assessment, creation, implementation and evaluation (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:402–419). Through these phases, the learning from each step in the model is incorporated and combined with the data previously gathered and forms the basis for planning the next phase of communication. Thus the organisation is constantly learning from the target audience's experience, and continuously improves and enhances the knowledge of the target group. Each phase of the model is discussed below.

#### ***3.8.5.1. Phase 1: Assessment***

This is the phase in which all the relevant information is gathered and the conditions of the communication campaign are identified. The assessment phase begins with extensive research into every aspect of the campaign's background (Barker & Angelopulo 2006). Rensburg and Cant (2003:82) add that in this phase the knowledge, opinions, attitudes and behaviours of those concerned with and affected by the acts and policies of the organisation are probed and monitored. It is therefore important that the campaign should always enlighten its stakeholders, telling them something they did not know or giving them a different perspective or way of looking at something they already knew or thought they knew (Newson et al 2004:303). As indicated earlier, the conditions assessed and noted in this phase are the source from which the campaign's concrete plan of action will be created in the second phase.

The following aspects must be covered when dealing with the assessment phase: the communication problem or opportunity the communicator has identified; the audience; the communicator's broader operations and objectives; environmental conditions; important historical and future considerations; and the details, perceptions, status and communication of the idea that is the focus of the campaign. In the assessment phase the communication problem or opportunity, communicator, communication planner and target audience should be described. This phase should include a thorough situation analysis, which is described briefly below.

#### *3.8.5.1.1. Identify the communication problem or opportunity*

According to Barker and Angelopulo (2006), this is the part where the communication problem or opportunity is stated. The provisional topic of the communication campaign as it is conceived at this stage is specified. The communicator states what is to be achieved by the communication campaign and the reasons for its implementation.

The objective of the communication campaign should be specified at this point *only* if the communicator is completely certain of it. If, however, there is a measure of uncertainty about the communication objective, it should be stated as the communication problem or opportunity. The statement of the communication problem or opportunity of the campaign will be refined and adapted into measurable communication objectives during the second phase. It is stated at the outset to indicate the foundation and reason for the campaign, and to guide the quest for the best possible solution to the identified problem.

#### *3.8.5.1.2. Identify the communicator*

The communicator is the entity on whose behalf the campaign is implemented. The communicator initiates the communication campaign and may or may not implement it. The communicator may be an individual, institution, organisation, business, club, NGO, or any other formal or informal group. Identification is important because the identity of the communicator

may not be clear to everyone who deals with the assessment document (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:416).

#### *3.8.5.1.3. Identify the communication planner*

Rensburg and Angelopulo (1996) assert that the communication planner is the individual, group or organisation that is responsible for planning the communication campaign and controlling its implementation and evaluation. The communication planner could be responsible only for planning the campaign or also for other functions such as the actual implementation or assessment.

#### *3.8.5.1.4. Identify the target audience*

The target audience is the group with whom the communicator wishes to interact and communicate through the campaign (Skinner, Von Essen, Mersham & Motau 2010:108). This is the group with which the communication planner must align the objectives and contents of the campaign, and which will determine whether or not the campaign is successful. Because the campaign communication is prepared for the target audience, that group's needs, problems, predisposition and preferences are crucial criteria in the development of the campaign, guiding the plan and content of the campaign. According to Botha et al (2009:278) the target audience must be defined. It may be homogenous (where everyone within the audience is similar in terms of one or more characteristics) or heterogeneous (where the audience members differ in terms of specified characteristics). Information about the target audience must be as complete as possible and could include its location; physical, social or psychological attributes; predominant beliefs; or product and service usage as described below (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:399).

*Demographic* definitions are literally a “description of the people” and include their vital physical statistics such as their age, sex, marital status, family size, level of education, employment status, occupation, income, residential size and location. Audiences can also be described *psychographically* in terms of their personality (degree of aggression, extroversion, ambition, passivity, et cetera) or lifestyle (values, beliefs, time usage, et cetera). Psychographic

descriptions tend to describe attitudes, interests and opinions. Audiences may be *sociographically* described in terms of their group and political and social affiliations. They may also be defined by their *behaviour, product usage* or *needs*. Any of these audience definitions may be used alone but where greater accuracy is required in identifying the audience, a combination may be used. Important secondary audiences are also identified. These may be the communicator's important stakeholders (or those of the product, service or idea). The secondary audiences could include the broader public, legislators, competitors, detractors and supporters. Secondary audiences that require consideration in almost every campaign include personnel within the communicator's organisation. These may be all the personnel, only members of relevant units, the people required for the implementation of the campaign or those who interact with audiences as part (or as a result) of the campaign.

#### *3.8.5.1.5. Do the situation analysis*

The situation analysis is the evaluation of the situation in which the communication campaign is taking place (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:405). Rensburg and Cant (2003:86) are of the opinion that the situation analysis and techniques that are used in a campaign are determined by the motivation for the planning and implementing of the campaign. Broom (2009:293) highlights the fact that in the process of analysing the situation, one is able to clearly and specifically define and refine the problem statement. In so doing, one is able to give a historical review which describes the evolution of the campaign, explains the reasons for its present status, and state why there are problems and opportunities that should be dealt with (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:406).

#### *a) Central idea of the communication campaign*

Barker and Angelopulo (2006:401) are of the view that the role that the central idea plays in the lives of the target audience must be described at this stage. A description must be given of how and why it is used. Its constituent parts, its make-up and what it does must be noted and described. Its costs must be specified in terms of finance, time, effort and manpower. These

values are not normally held by all audiences and may be more prevalent among certain audience segments than others.

*b) Social, political and economic environment*

Full information is given on the social, political and economic environment of the communication idea.

*c) Competitors*

If the competition consists of individuals or organisations, these should be described in as much detail as possible. Demographic and psychographic descriptions can be used to better understand the competitors (Rensburg & Angelopulo 1996:57). If the competition is in the form of concepts or ideas, these must be fully described and explained in the form of strengths and weaknesses and levels of adherence (dispersion and intensity).

*d) Organisation*

A situation analysis of the organisation that initiates the campaign and the relationship of the communication aims within it must be given. It is possible that there are varying levels of support for or knowledge of the campaign. The organisation's ability to implement the communication campaign must be analysed. The use of outside agencies (market research institutions, public relations practitioners and advertising agencies) to assist in the planning and implementation of the campaign must also be noted (Rensburg & Angelopulo 1996:57).

*e) Relationship infrastructure*

Rensburg and Angelopulo (1996:57) contend that the infrastructure include customer or audience databases; ongoing processes for the interpretation and use of database information; digital and

social media platforms; client acquisition, retention and growth programmes; customer service; and the points of contact between the audience and the communicator.

*f) Critical information*

This information includes the campaign's timing, budget constraints, obligations, conditions and directives for integration. In general, the integration directives relate to conditions that must be adhered to in relation to external integration – aspects such as standardised identity, the inclusion of common themes, symbols, tone and manner, and expected contributions to brand development (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:407)

*3.8.5.1.6. Checklist for phase 1: Assess*

The items on the checklist are as follows:

- Has the provisional topic of the campaign been determined?
- Who is the communicator?
- Who is the communication planner?
- Who is the target audience?
- Has a situation analysis been completed?
- Has all the related communication, existing and planned, been considered?
- Has the target audience been considered in the above matters?

*3.8.5.2. Phase 2: Creation*

As indicated earlier in chapter 1 of this dissertation, this is the phase in which the communication campaign is created. In many ways it is the most important phase, because everything that will later be implemented is conceived and formulated during this time. The communication planner is identified during the assessment and takes control of the campaign at the beginning of this phase. The information gathered during the assessment is used to form the concrete campaign plan.

#### 3.8.5.2.1. *Stipulate the communication problem or opportunity*

Rensberg and Angelopulo (199640) hold the view that it is important to state the communication problem or opportunity from the outset as given in the assessment document. The statement is given from the communicator's point of view. In other words, the communication planner addresses the questions “Why is the action necessary?” and “What will it eventually achieve?”

#### 3.8.5.2.2. *Define problems, strengths, weaknesses and opportunities*

The information supplied in the assessment is used as the raw material in this process, although the campaign planner may acquire more information if necessary. To identify the needs that will be addressed through the campaign, the communication planner isolates the *relevant* components of the relationship between the audiences and the idea around which the communication campaign is centred. The communication planner will specifically describe the audience; the position and needs of the target audience in relation to the product, service or idea; and the competition and environmental conditions. Very often, but not in all cases, the assessment of problems, strengths, weaknesses and opportunities is done in the form of a SWOT analysis – a structured analysis of internal conditions (strengths and weaknesses) and external conditions (opportunities and threats) that relate to the product, service or idea.

#### 3.8.5.2.3. *Establish the campaign topic*

The focus of the communication campaign is now described and the focus (the *core communication reason* for the campaign) is expressed unambiguously as the *campaign topic*. The campaign topic may be the same as that formulated by the communicator in the assessment document or it may be revised and adapted.

The campaign topic should be stated in one sentence and should indicate the perception that is to be embraced by the audience at the conclusion of the campaign. The campaign topic will

generally involve persuasion, awareness, information dissemination, education, image management or a change in behavioural predisposition.

#### 3.8.5.2.4. *Set strategic communication objectives*

The specific objectives of the communication campaign are quantified at this stage. It is important that the objectives are attainable by the elements of the communication mix and the communication campaign as a whole (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:411). Objectives that lie in the realm of other organisational processes should not be considered for communication campaigns, except where they are integrated with communication and planned in conjunction with the relevant organisational units. The strategic objectives should include the measurable specifications of

- what the communication campaign is to achieve
- the audiences among whom the objectives are to be attained
- the degree to which it is to be achieved among the target audiences
- the physical actions or behaviour which are to result
- the time by which these are to be done

#### 3.8.5.2.5. *Create the communication message*

The message is created by establishing the *major idea* (*what* the message will communicate) and the *creative concept* (*how* the message will be communicated).

##### a) *The major idea*

The first step in the creation of the communication message is to determine *what* the message will communicate (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:411). The communication planner has to create the central idea or theme whereby the communication topic will best be established in the minds of the target audience. The major idea is the strongest single aspect of the communication topic.

The major idea can be generated in a number of ways. It can be derived by *positioning* the product, service or idea in the minds of the audience in a way that differentiates it strongly from competing concepts. “Positioning” is the ranking of a product or idea in the consumer's mind in relation to the competition. It can be generated by *identifying a benefit* that only the idea offers the audience. The major idea can also be created by associating the product, service or idea with some form of excitement or image that *appeals* to the audience. There may be requirements, conditions or restraints which govern the scope of the major idea that are specified to ensure integration.

b) *The creative concept*

After the communication planner has decided what the message will communicate, it is necessary to determine *how* the message will be communicated by devising the *message approach* and *execution*. As with the major idea, there may be requirements, conditions or restraints that govern the scope of the creative concept as a whole, or more specifically the message approach or the execution.

c) *The message approach*

The communication planner must select the message approach that will most effectively attract the attention of the audience. Most commonly these would be emotional or rational (or a combination of the two). If the audience's needs are functional, practical or informational, a rational approach is generally more effective.

d) *The execution*

The execution is the way in which the approach is presented to the audience; it is the final formulation of the message to the audience. It can be humorous, factual, a demonstration, a dramatisation, based on identity or image (as in sponsorship), a testimonial, a fantasy, based on a

personality or authority, a personal recommendation, or presented as evidence or as an offer. In preparing the most appropriate execution, the communication planner must consider the audience and the media that could be used. The execution must be appropriate to both the audience and the media, and the media must reach the audience effectively and efficiently.

#### *3.8.5.2.6. Allocate resources and tasks*

The individuals, groups, organisations or companies involved in the creation and execution of the communication campaign are identified, their tasks specified and the resources for the campaign's implementation allocated (Barker & Angelopulo 2006: 412).

##### *a) Budget*

During the assessment the budget parameters of the campaign were specified. The budget will again be noted at this stage. If, for any reason, this differs from the amount indicated in the assessment, approval for the revised budget must be obtained. It is not only necessary to specify the total budget, but also its allocation to specific aspects of the campaign (manpower, production, media time and space).

##### *b) Task allocation*

The people involved in the campaign are identified. These individuals may be communication specialists or part-time communicators who are in non-communication functions but who ensure the success of the campaign. Organisations, groups or companies that will provide services are also identified.

##### *c) Communication mix*

As indicated earlier under IMC, the communication mix may comprise advertising, interpersonal communication, public relations, direct mail, internal communication, the internet and social

media, group presentations, sales promotion, sponsorship, et cetera. When planning a communication campaign, the aim is not to choose *between* the components of the communication mix but rather to select the best *combination* of components that should be used. Coordination and integration of the total communication mix is necessary, as the elements may work less effectively or even against each other if approached in isolation. Media must not be limited to those that enable a one-way monologue, but should include those that enable interaction and feedback.

#### *3.8.5.2.7. Select the media*

As highlighted earlier under media mix, most communication campaigns require media for successful implementation (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:467–413). Media are channels of communication whereby the campaign's message are transmitted. Media are very often the greatest expense in communication campaigns. All media, and particularly mass media, must be selected with the target audience and communication objectives in mind. Media vary in their suitability for particular communication campaigns. The primary criteria for the selection of media are access to the target audience, the ability to convey the campaign's message effectively, the media's capacity to enable interaction with the company and cost. The communication planner must specifically identify the media that offer the greatest reach, frequency and impact on the target audience, and the cost of reaching them. Additional considerations are the ability of the media to deliver the message within the time frame of the campaign, their contribution to the relationship with the audience, and the media selection criteria that are specified for the purposes of integration.

#### *3.8.5.2.8. Produce the communication material*

Finally, the communication planner produces the material that is to be used during the implementation of the campaign (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:415). This could include visual material like outdoor posters, video advertisements, radio commercials or web pages. Specialised companies generally produce this material, particularly when mass media are used. It is important that the communicator agrees with the communication planner on all the aspects of the

campaign. Approval for every aspect of the campaign must be obtained. The best means of achieving this is through regular review as the campaign progresses, signing off each stage as it is approved.

#### *3.8.5.2.9. Checklist for phase 2: Create*

The items on this checklist are as follows:

- Have the strategic communication objectives been determined?
- Has the focus of the communication campaign been established?
- Has the budget been allocated?
- Have the resources and tasks been allocated?
- Has the relationship infrastructure been established?
- Has the message been created and produced?
- Has the communication planner selected the media?
- Has the campaign been created in conjunction with all related communications?
- Has the target audience been considered in this phase?

#### *3.8.5.3. Phase 3: Implementation*

Implementation follows the creation phase. This is the phase in which the communication campaign is *implemented*, in other words the campaign is delivered to the target audiences at the planned time through the media selected. Implementation may take many forms (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:416). A celebrity might be asked to support the campaign with a testimonial, it might be launched by staging a special event, it may comprise the television advertisements, monthly electricity bills may contain reduced cost offers for value-added services, the campaign may be supported on the company's website, or it could be offered together. The campaign should ideally run according to the plan decided on in the creation phase, but the communication planner should be prepared to adapt the plan during implementation if necessary. During

implementation the communication planner must pay particular attention to timing, media, budget control, supporting communication, behaviour and measurement.

#### *3.8.5.3.1. Timing*

Good planning will come to naught if it is not implemented at the correct time and for the necessary duration. *Timing* is of the utmost importance. The communication planner must deliver the communication campaign on time and maintain it for the period required, ensuring that the campaign's message reaches the target audience effectively (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:416 & 417).

The timing of the campaign may need to be adapted if the communication planner identifies problems in reaching the target audience. Subject to the available resources, the communication planner could repeat or extend parts of the campaign among the audience or sections within it. It is also possible that the campaign takes on a life of its own in a way that is beyond the scope of the communication planner.

#### *3.8.5.3.2. Media*

The media that have been selected in the creation phase must be monitored. Although major deviations from the communication plan should be avoided, it is possible that the media selection could be adapted during implementation. If a particular medium is not delivering the required results, resources could be shifted to media that are more effective. Digital media opportunities and threats could arise during the implementation phase.

Although changes in the use of media could be made during implementation, such changes should be kept to a minimum (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:417). The media alternatives should be thoroughly considered during the creation phase of the campaign, making major changes to the campaign unnecessary. Changes may affect the campaign budget and the synergy and integration of the campaign, and could have contractual implications with the media that carry

the message. The one exception is digital media, which may have swift and unexpected effects that should be monitored as they occur, with enough resources to respond appropriately.

#### *3.8.5.3.3. Budget control*

The communication planner must review costs throughout the implementation of the campaign. One of the primary functions of the communication planner is to ensure that the cost of the campaign remains within the set parameters (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:417). Budget control is easier where formal media are used because the costs are contractually stipulated. Where flexible and informal media are used, the control of costs is more difficult because the pricing of services can be variable and contingent on the situation at a particular moment.

#### *3.8.5.3.4. Supporting communication*

Depending on the extent and nature of the campaign, interest may be generated about the campaign itself and about the organisation or group that has launched and implemented it. The interest of the communicator's stakeholders may be generated, particularly among the members of the communicator's organisation and the communicator's supporters, competitors and detractors (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:417 & 418). The communication planner should be prepared to respond to this interest. A promotional or publicity project could be run prior to the campaign or concurrently with it to deal specifically with this aspect. The communication planner should attempt to anticipate all the positive and negative responses to the campaign and prepare responses to these. Despite good planning, however, the unexpected may occur and the communication planner should allocate some resources to dealing with these.

#### *3.8.5.3.5. Behaviour*

In cases where the campaign is intended to result in specific responses, behaviours or interactions with the communicator, the infrastructure for this interaction must be implemented and monitored. In many cases the campaign results in ongoing interaction with the communicator through the generation of business leads, requests for information, added audience

data, sales or the supply of services. It is generally the task of organisational units other than communication to supply most of these added services.

#### *3.8.5.3.6. Measurement*

*Effectiveness criteria* (such as believability and comprehensibility) and *objective attainment* (achievement of the communication objectives that have been set for the campaign, including integration specifications) are monitored in the implementation phase (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:418). The campaign may be adjusted to deal with problems and opportunities that become evident during such monitoring. The various stages of the campaign are monitored and reviewed so that where necessary, the stages that follow can be adjusted accordingly.

#### *3.8.5.3.7. Checklist for phase 3: Implement*

- Is it the right time to deliver the campaign?
- Has the communication planner checked the completed campaign against the criteria for effectiveness?
- Does the campaign attain the objectives and criteria of integration set during the creation phase?
- If the answers to the previous questions are negative, is it still possible to make adjustments?
- How is the campaign implemented? Has the communication planner determined the manner of delivery?
- Is the behavioural response to the campaign being properly managed?
- Has the target audience been considered in the implementation phase?

#### *3.8.5.4. Phase 4: Evaluation*

The evaluation phase occurs at the end of the campaign. It differs from the evaluation that occurs during the original assessment phase and the ongoing evaluation that takes place during implementation in that it evaluates the *specific* and *measurable* criteria that were set for the

campaign during phase 2 (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:418 & 419). During the evaluation phase the communication planner establishes whether the objectives have been attained, whether any corrective action is necessary, and the actions that need to be taken following the completion of the campaign.

#### *3.8.5.4.1. Objective attainment*

Attainment of the campaign's objectives must be assessed during this phase. Assessment criteria could include target audience reach, information transfer, behavioural change or altered interaction with the audience (Barker & Angelopulo 2006:419). Objective attainment for each of the elements of the communication mix (public relations, business-to-business, advertising, internet activity, publicity, et cetera) must also be assessed. The communication planner must further decide whether the campaign has reached the set budget, media and creative objectives, and criteria of integration. The most suitable research methods for the evaluation of the overall effectiveness of the campaign must be implemented during this phase. If the campaign is of long and ongoing duration, the above results can only be measured over time.

#### *3.8.5.4.2. Corrective action and follow up*

If the communication campaign achieves its objectives, the next step should be decided. For example, the salience of the campaign message may be retained by reminding the target audience of the message through a low-frequency follow-up campaign, or new product, service or idea developments may lead to separate campaign topics as these come about. If the campaign has failed either partially or completely, the actions that resulted in the failure should be identified and rectified if possible, and corrective action planned.

#### *3.8.5.4.3. Checklist for phase 4: Evaluate*

- Were the campaign objectives attained (total campaign, supporting campaign, budget, media, creative, integration and behavioural objectives)?
- How was the campaign evaluated? Were the research methods appropriate?

- Has the communication planner taken corrective and follow-up action?
- Has the communication planner involved the target audience in the evaluation?

### **3.8.6. Critique of the interactive model**

This model can be viewed as all encompassing because of its ability to expand to accommodate applicable issues on a specific campaign. As indicated in chapter 1, this study was aimed not only at determining the impact of the campaign as experienced by the Soshanguve community but also to cumulatively evaluate the planning and implementation of the campaign. This model was appropriate for this study because at the end of each phase, one has to stop and evaluate the progress and achievements against the objectives set in each phase. One of the shortcomings of this model is that if not studied thoroughly, one can end up with a lot of repetition of information which leads to a campaign document being unnecessarily long. To curb against this, there should be a careful selection of the relevant steps/items within phases, depending on the nature of the campaign.

## **3.9. CONCLUSION**

The aim of this chapter was to conduct a literature review to form the theoretical basis for an understanding of public health communication, in this instance the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. Although it was acknowledged that there is a relationship between public health communication and health communication, a clear distinction was made and it helped to contextualise this study. Like any other field of study, public health communication developed over time to embrace concepts from management which include social marketing, integrated communication and the media mix.

A review of international and local communication campaign models was presented and critiqued in order to make theoretical recommendations for the appropriate model of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign as implemented in South Africa.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1. INTRODUCTION**

In the preceding chapters the theoretical framework of this study was outlined. The main purpose of this study was to evaluate the 16 Days of Activism Campaign and to determine the attitude of Soshanguve residents towards this campaign. This chapter provides an outline of the methods that were used in gathering the data for the empirical part of this study. This was aimed at achieving the research objectives and answering the research problem outlined in chapter 1. For this reason, this study made use of the mixed methods approach which will be presented in a sequential process. This sequence means that the outcomes of the qualitative design were used to develop a quantitative design. This is explained in the form of phases, where phase 1 involved using in-depth interviews and phase 2 consisted of a questionnaire survey. Each phase had its own population, sample, data collection and analysis processes.

#### **4.2. TYPE OF STUDY**

There are three most common and useful purposes of social research: exploration, description and explanation. The latter is aimed at explaining phenomenon by indicating the causality between variables or events (Babbie & Mouton 2001:80). The purpose of exploratory research is to gain a broad understanding of a situation, phenomenon, community or person (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee 2006:47; Babbie 2001:91; Bless & Higson-Smith 2000:41). The reason for this kind of research is usually that there is a lack of basic information on the topic that is being researched (Wood & Kerr 2011:121). Descriptive research examines one or more characteristics of the population (Bless et al 2006:48) and often involves collecting structured statistical data that can be verified with statistical testing techniques (Hester 1996:37). It should be noted that in most descriptive studies, the researchers examine why the observed patterns exist and what these patterns imply, which was also the case in this study.

Considering the above purposes of social research, this study was both exploratory and descriptive. This is because it was aimed at exploring and describing public health communication with specific reference to the 16 Days of Activism Campaign in South Africa. The focus in this regard was on the City of Tshwane in the township of Soshanguve. Babbie (2007:307) points out that in-depth interviews are an excellent device to generate questionnaire items for a subsequent survey. Hence, in this study in-depth interviews were used to explore the promotion strategies and evaluation techniques used by the GCIS in the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. As a result, the outcome of the in-depth interviews helped to structure the items which were included in the questionnaire. In this case, a survey was used to conduct an assessment of the Soshanguve community's awareness of and attitudes to the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. To accomplish the above, this study made use of the mixed method research design (which is also called triangulation) as discussed below.

#### **4.3. RESEARCH DESIGN**

A research design is a plan of how the research will be conducted, indicating who is involved and where and when the study will take place (Du Plooy 2001:81; Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann & Hanson 2003:159). The research design thus directs the research activities to ensure that valid conclusions are drawn (Durrheim 2009:36). There are three main research designs in the social sciences, namely qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2003). With the research aim in mind, a mixed method research design was used to collect the data for this study. Mixed methods research is defined as “research where the researcher combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study” (Bryman & Bell 2007:642). The purpose of using this design is to take advantage of the different strengths and overcome shortcomings of the quantitative method (large sample size, trends and generalisation) and the qualitative method (small *N*, details and in-depth) in order to corroborate the results (Parasuraman et al 2007:69).

Data collection in mixed method research can either have parallel or sequential phases (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2003:11) in a single study or in series of studies with the aim of better

understanding research problems (Creswell & Creswell 2005:3; Onwuegbuzie, Jiao & Bostick 2004:144). In a parallel, also called side-by-side, phase two different data collection methods are used concurrently to solve a research problem. However, in a sequential phase one method can be a basis for the development of another data collection method (Spector, Merrill, Van Merriënboer & Driscoll 2008:751). Furthermore, Creswell and Plano Clack (2007:59) hold the view that mixed method design can further be divided into the following four major types: the triangulation, the embedded, the exploratory and the explanatory designs. As indicated above (in section 4.2), this study used an exploratory research design that began by exploring the topic by means of qualitative research methods. It continued with the second, quantitative phase by testing and generalising the initial results. Accordingly, using mixed method research allows the researcher to answer confirmatory and exploratory questions simultaneously while at the same time generating theory (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2003:15; Bergman 2008:68).

It is therefore important to discuss the data collection instruments in the section below. The next section will be divided into two phases: the first phase will focus on the qualitative design and the second phase on the quantitative design as required by sequential mixed method research. The following is a discussion of the two phases which this study covered.

#### **4.3.1. Phase 1: Qualitative research**

Gay, Geoffrey and Airasian (2006:399) contend that the objective of qualitative research is to propose an understanding of an occurrence, process or idea. Qualitative research describes life worlds from the participant's point of view (Flick, Von Kardorff & Steinke 2000:3; Babbie, Mouton, Vorster & Prozezky 2001:278). Durrheim (1999:42) point out that qualitative research allows researchers to study selected issues in depth, with openness and in detail as they identify and attempt to understand the categories of information that emerge from data. The purpose of this phase of the study was, firstly, to determine the promotion strategies used to create awareness of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign and, secondly, to determine how the GCIS and DWCPD evaluate the effectiveness of this campaign. Below is a discussion of the population wherein this phase was implemented.

#### ***4.3.1.1. Sampling***

Du Plooy (1995:49) is of the view that the researcher should define the constitution of the population, such as the group, subject or units that are used in a study. Nueman (1997:203) maintains that beyond the population, a study has to include a target population. The same author defines the target population as a specific pool of cases that need to be studied. In this phase of this study, the target population was the GCIS and DWCPD employees.

#### ***4.3.1.2. Types of samples***

According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:85), there are three types of sampling: probability, quasi-probability and non-probability sampling. The sample size in this phase was determined using a non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling must be viewed as abandoning certainty in favour of probability. One of the features of non-probability sampling is that the population is not completely known, individual probabilities cannot be known and the sampling method is based on factors such as common sense or ease, with an effort being to maintain representativeness and avoid bias (Gravetter & Forzano 2012:144).

#### ***4.3.1.3. Sample size***

In this study, two participants from the GCIS and DWCPD respectively were interviewed in in-depth interviews. The reason for a purposive sampling was based on the researcher's knowledge of the selected GCIS and DWCPD employees who worked on the 16 Days of Activism Campaign and the fact that they were thoroughly informed about the campaign.

#### ***4.3.1.4. Data collection***

Data collection can take the form of observation, in-depth interviews, using personal documents and focus groups (Ulin, Robinson & Tolley 2005:19). In-depth interviews were used for this study. In this context, interviews are usually structured and unstructured. De Vos et al

(2005:292) argue that “unstructured interviews are also known as in-depth interviews”. However, Neumann (2000:506) explains that an in-depth interview is a “joint venture between the researcher and the interviewee”. From the given definitions of in-depth interviews, the conclusion can be drawn that an in-depth interview is a dynamic interaction that takes place between the researcher and the interviewee with the purpose of gathering data relevant to the researched problem.

In order for an in-depth interview to be successful and to ensure that the interviewer did not lose track of the interview, an interview guide was developed for the purpose of this study. This guide contained an outline of the interview procedures and a general idea of the questions asked (Du Plooy 2001:179 & 180). Vaughn, Schumm and Sinagub (1996:124) advise that the questions developed for in-depth interviews should be specific enough to guide the moderator, but general enough to leave the interviewer with a great deal of latitude to further probe and elicit data. The interview guide questions for this study were designed in a way that the first two addressed the broad issues on the campaign and the rest were specific to the 2011 campaign. The total number of questions in the qualitative phase of this study’s interview guide was eight. These questions were linked to the two research objectives. The intention was for the researcher to firstly determine the promotion strategies used to create awareness of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign and secondly to determine how the GCIS evaluate the effectiveness of this campaign as indicated in table 4.1 below. This interview guide is attached to this dissertation as Appendix B. The first round of data collection in this phase took place on 10 September 2012 between 10:00 am and 11:10 am at the GCIS with a representative responsible for the communication strategy of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. For the DWCPD, the interview took place on Tuesday 11 September 2012 between 16:00 pm and 16:55 pm with a representative from DWCPW’s communication division. Both interviews were recorded using an audio recorder. The researcher acted as a scribe to note the deliberations during the interviews.

*Table 4.1: Research objectives as aligned to the research design, data collection technique and data collection instrument 1*

<b>Research design</b>	<b>Data collection technique</b>	<b>Data collection instrument</b>	<b>Research objectives</b>
Qualitative	In-depth interview	Interview guide	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To determine the promotion strategies the GCIS uses to raise awareness about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign.</li> <li>• To determine how the GCIS measures or evaluates the effectiveness of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign.</li> </ul>

#### **4.3.1.5. Data analysis**

In qualitative research data collection and data analysis are inseparable. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), the researcher must keep track of emerging themes, read through field notes transcripts, and develop concepts and propositions in order to make sense of the data. In this study, the data that was gathered from the in-depth interviews was of a qualitative nature and the emphasis of the qualitative research was on the stated experiences of the participants and the meanings they attached to themselves, to other people and to their environment (Eysenck 2004:2). The data was put into categories to enable the researcher to find similarities and differences between the phenomena under investigation.

This section mainly focussed on data collection and how the data was analysed in this phase. The next section deals with the quantitative phase of this study to translate the exploratory mixed method research into reality.

#### **4.3.2. Phase 2: Quantitative research**

As indicated in the research method section, phase 2 of this study involved quantitative research. Babbie (2001:25) is of the opinion that the quantification of data often provides better clarity on observations. Phenomena are thus measured by assigning numbers to the qualities of things (Babbie & Mouton 2001:49). It also simplifies data collection and data review (Babbie 2001:25).

With quantitative research, the emphasis is placed on the quantification of constructs (Babbie & Mouton 2001:49). For this phase, the population was the residents of Soshanguve.

#### ***4.3.2.1. Sample and context***

As indicated in the qualitative phase, a population is the theoretically specified aggregation of study elements (Babbie & Mouton 2001:174). In addition, Wimmer and Dominick (1991:64) emphasise that if a sample represents the population in quantitative research, the outcome of the study can be rightfully generalised to the population. In this study, the sampling unit was the human being, which could be a woman, a man, a girl or a boy aged 17 years and older in Soshanguve. Soshanguve is one of the townships in the Tshwane metropolitan. It is about 25 kilometres from Pretoria's central business district in Gauteng, South Africa. The Tshwane metropole comprises seven regions, namely: Soshanguve, Hammaskraal, the Inner City, Centurion, Culinan, Mamelodi and Metsweding. The region where Soshanguve is located includes Rosslyn, Orchards, Karen Park, Winterveld, Kopanong and Ga-rankuwa. According to Statistics South Africa's 2007 Community Survey (Statistics South Africa 2008), the Tshwane metropolitan was estimated to have 713 407 households, with a population of 2,5 million. Around 112 000 people were estimated to be in Soshanguve. This area mainly comprises low-income and middle-income households. It is therefore necessary to discuss how the sample in this phase was derived.

There are three types of sampling, namely probability, quasi-probability and non-probability sampling (Du Plooy 2002:106). In this phase of the study non-probability sampling was used because every unit of the population in Soshanguve did not have an equal and probable chance of being selected as part of the sample. As a result, the sample was not representative of the target population (Du Plooy 2002:113). While in non-probability sampling there are four labels for samples (namely convenience, purposive, volunteer and snowball samples) (Du Plooy 2002:114), in this study convenience sampling was used because data collection was dependent on the availability and accessibility and it was at the target population's convenience (Saunders et al 2007:594; Leedy & Ormrod 2005:206).

#### ***4.3.2.2. Sample size***

While Soshanguve has more than 35 sections, this study focused on 12 sections and data was collected in all these sections. The sample size was derived from the following 12 sections (called blocks): FF, GG, LL, DD, KK, SS, K, L, M, YY, ZZ and AA. The minimum sample size that was used in this study was 400 respondents. This sample size was based on Krejcie and Morgan's (1970:3) sample size table. After defining the sample, it is significant to illustrate how the data was collected (as discussed below).

#### ***4.3.2.3. Data collection***

Neuman (1997:30–32) point out that there are four techniques to collect quantitative data: experiments, surveys, content analysis and existing statistics. This study used a survey. A survey is a systematic method to gather information from entities (a sample) for the purpose of constructing quantitative descriptors of the attributes of a large population of which the entities are members (Groves, Fowler, Couper, Lepkowski, Singer & Tourangeau 2009:2). The quantitative descriptors are called “statistics”. Statistics are quantitative summaries of observations on the set of elements. Some are “descriptive statistics”, which describes the size and distributions of various attributes of the population.

For this study, a questionnaire was used to collect data from the respondents. Brace (2008:5) defines a questionnaire as the medium of communication between the researcher and the subject. In this study, questionnaires were distributed in the Soshanguve community by the researcher with the help of a trained field worker. The questionnaire comprised both close-ended and open-ended questions. The advantage of close-ended questions is that they bring forth a standardised set of responses from all the respondents, creating patterns and thus allowing for comparative data analysis (Babbie & Mouton 2001:233). The close-ended questions were used to ascertain the respondents' knowledge of GBV, the communication channels used and the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, and their attitudes towards the campaign as depicted in table 4.2 below. The open-ended questions focused on the view of the respondents regarding the government programme on GBV and the perceived impact of the campaign.

*Table 4.2: Research objectives as aligned to the research design, data collection technique and data collection instrument 2*

<b>Research design</b>	<b>Data collection technique</b>	<b>Data collection instrument</b>	<b>Research objectives</b>
Quantitative	Survey	Questionnaire	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To determine the participants' knowledge and understanding of government programmes to combat violence against women and children.</li> <li>2. To determine the participants' views on the communication tools used to promote the 16 Days of Activism Campaign.</li> <li>3. To determine the participants' views on the impact of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign.</li> </ol>

#### **4.3.2.4. Pilot study**

Prior to distributing the measuring instrument to the intended sample, a pilot study is recommended for the following purposes: a) to confirm that the respondents understand the items in the questionnaire, b) to give an indication of the validity of the items, and c) to signify the reliability of the data (Saunders et al 2007:386; Leedy & Ormrod 2005:92). The conditions of the pilot test should replicate the final study as closely as possible.

A pilot study was conducted with this questionnaire among 12 students and eight staff members of the Department of Communication Science at the University of South Africa (UNISA) on 28 August 2012. The participants of the pilot study made some changes which were consequently incorporated into questionnaire. (For the detailed sections, the actual questions of the questionnaire and the specific questions which were changed, refer in Appendix C of this dissertation.) The eight staff members occupied positions ranging from administration officers to senior lecturers. These respondents were chosen due to the fact that they are aware of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign and because they would be able to complete the questionnaire without any assistance from the researcher. Furthermore, the staff members were convenient to reach since they were the researcher's colleagues.

As indicated in the introduction to the data collection phase, the 400 questionnaires were distributed and administered by the researcher and a trained field worker in Soshanguve. Approximately 36 questionnaires were completed per day, which resulted in a total of 11 days (i.e. between 3 September and 14 September 2012).

#### **4.3.2.5. Data analysis**

In contrast to the qualitative research, quantitative research refers to the analysis of numerical data to clarify, forecast and/or control particular phenomena (Gay et al 2006:9). Non-interactive methods are therefore used as there is little or no interaction with the participants. As previously indicated, in general, data analysis refers to a search for patterns in data – recurrent behaviours, objects or a body of knowledge (Neuman 1997:426). In quantitative research, the information obtained from the respondents is expressed in numerical form. For example, the number of items that are recalled, reaction times or the number of aggressive acts (Welman & Kruger 1999:193).

In this study, the raw data collected with the questionnaires was coded and entered onto an Excel spreadsheet so that the researcher could identify and manage the data. Quantitative data analysis by means of the SPSS statistical program was used to obtain the following information. Firstly, the descriptive statistics included frequencies, measures of central tendencies and dispersion. Secondly, correlation analysis and a t-test were used.

#### **4.4. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE STUDY**

According to Bailey (1994:73), the *reliability* of a measure/instrument is simply “its consistency – a measure is reliable if the measurement does not change when the concept being measured remains constant in value”. Hosti (1969:135) adds that the coder’s expertise, acumen, clearness of classifications and coding procedures, together with the level of ambiguity in the measurement, will enhance the reliability of an instrument.

Furthermore, Ho (2006:239) explains that the reliability of a measurement refers to the

ability of the measuring instrument to consistently measure what it was developed to measure. Reliability consists of internal and external consistency processes. External consistency can be achieved through test/retest or running parallel forms of the same test (Ho 2006:239). Applying techniques of internal consistency enables the researcher to omit inconsistent items.

In this study, Cronbach's alpha was used because it estimates the average correlation coefficient of items within a test (Maree 2007:216.) A high alpha (0.8 or greater) corresponds to a high internal consistency of the entire test. A low alpha indicates that at least one item is not reliable. Cronbach's alpha was used to test the internal reliability of factors in this study and the value of 0.6 was used as the cut-off point.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:103) are of the view that the validity of data should be considered regardless of the research methodology applied to the study. They indicate that based on the principle of validity, the following should be taken into consideration: the accuracy, meaningfulness and credibility of the research as a whole (Leedy & Ormrod 2005:103). Bailey (1994:120) defines validity as "the degree in which a study accurately reflects or assesses the specific concept that the researcher is attempting to measure". Zikmund (2000:281) notes that this objective is in most instances difficult to achieve. The process undertaken during the literature review, the data collection and in the pilot of this study made sure that this research complied with the principle of validity.

#### **4.5. CONCLUSION**

This chapter on the research methodology covered the research method, approach and designs which were applicable and were used in this study. In line with the sequential mixed method process, data collection was divided into two phases: qualitative research and quantitative research. The research instruments that were used were in-depth interviews and a survey. The population and sample for each phase were determined, followed by the procedure for data

analysis. This chapter concluded with a discussion of how the validity and reliability of the research were ensured.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH RESULTS**

#### **5.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the results obtained from the study following the methodology as set out in chapter 4. The results from the qualitative phase will be presented, followed by the second phase which involved the quantitative design. These phases will be discussed following the sequence of the interview guide and the survey questionnaire respectively. The results obtained for each question will be presented.

#### **5.2. QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS**

The purpose of this phase was to achieve the following three research objectives:

- 1) to determine the participants' knowledge and understanding of the government programme on combating violence against women and children
- 2) to determine the participants' views about the communication tools used to promote the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, and
- 3) to determine the participants' views on the impact of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign

A total of 400 questionnaires were handed to respondents and the same number was returned for analysis. The following sections present the results obtained through the close-ended and open-ended questions of sections A to D of the self-administered questionnaire (see Appendix B). Section A of the questionnaire dealt with the demographic and general information of the respondents; section B focused on general awareness of the campaign, section C focused on the communication channels and strategies used in the campaign, and section D dealt with the evaluation of the communication channels and strategies. The interpretation of the results will be followed by the main findings of each question. The statistics given for all the questions are based on a valid percentage and the frequencies are indicated where necessary. In cases where

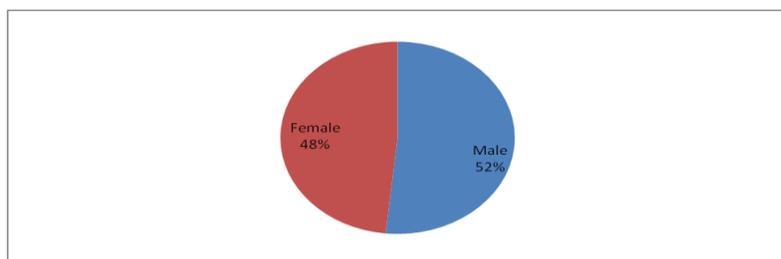
the respondents had more than one option to choose from, the results are only given in frequencies.

### **5.2.1. Demographic and general information of the respondents**

The aim of section A of the questionnaire was to ascertain the respondents' demographic profile to understand their views on the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. The data are presented in tables, charts, frequency and percentages according to the respondents' gender, marital status, language, age, education level and employment status.

#### **5.2.1.1. Gender distribution**

In this question 1, the respondents were required to indicate their gender. The purpose of this question was to explain trends regarding the respondents' attitudes and behaviour on GBV. This question had a response rate of 100%. Figure 5.1 below shows that the higher number of respondents (52%) was male.



*Figure 5.1: Gender distribution of respondents*

#### **5.2.1.2. Marital status**

The total number of the respondents who answered this question was 398, of which most (54.27%) were single. However, 13.57% of the respondents indicated that they were not officially married but were staying with their partners (as indicated in figure 5.2. below).

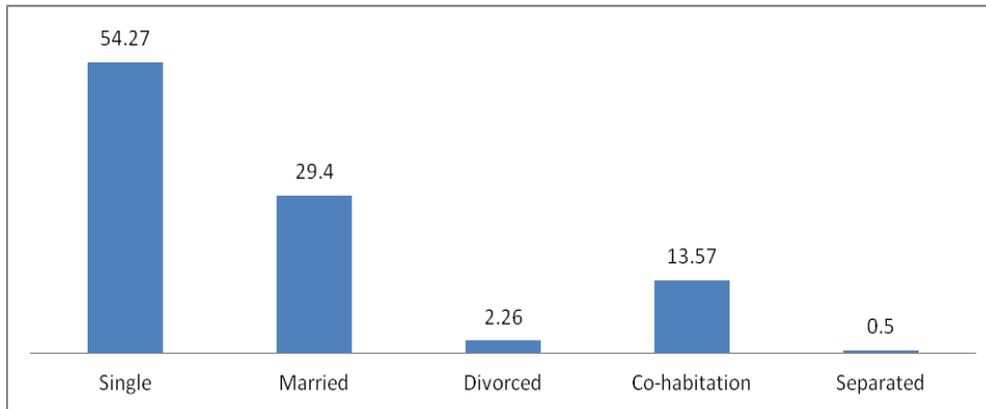


Figure 5.2: Marital status of respondents

### 5.2.1.3. Language preference

In this question 3, most of the respondents (20%) indicated that they spoke isiNdebele, with Afrikaans-speakers (1%) being the minority among the speakers of South Africa’s official languages. Furthermore, the influx of Zimbabweans into South Africa is shown by one respondent who indicated that he/she spoke Shona (as is illustrated in figure 5.3 below). It is noteworthy that the respondents indicated that they could speak more than one language, hence the increase in the percentage of respondents who spoke Afrikaans (presumably as a second or third language).

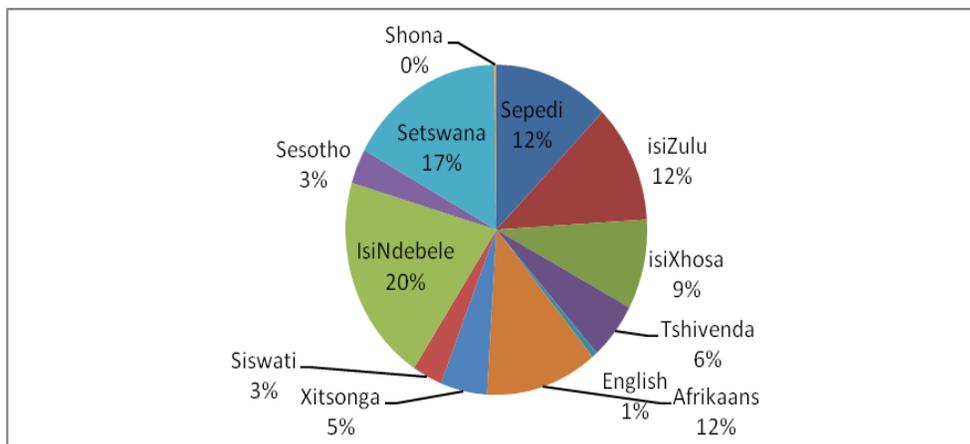


Figure 5.3: Language distribution of respondents

#### 5.2.1.4. Age categories

The purpose of this question was to determine the age categories of the respondents. The relationship between age and perception on GBV was of significant in this study, hence it will be explained further in this chapter. All the 398 respondents answered this question. The results obtained from the questionnaire revealed that 37% was between the ages of 22 and 35 years. This category was followed by the age category 17 to 21 years (32%), which (as illustrated in figure 5.4) was below matric level. This might be explained as an indication that these respondents completed their matric when they were older than 17 years.

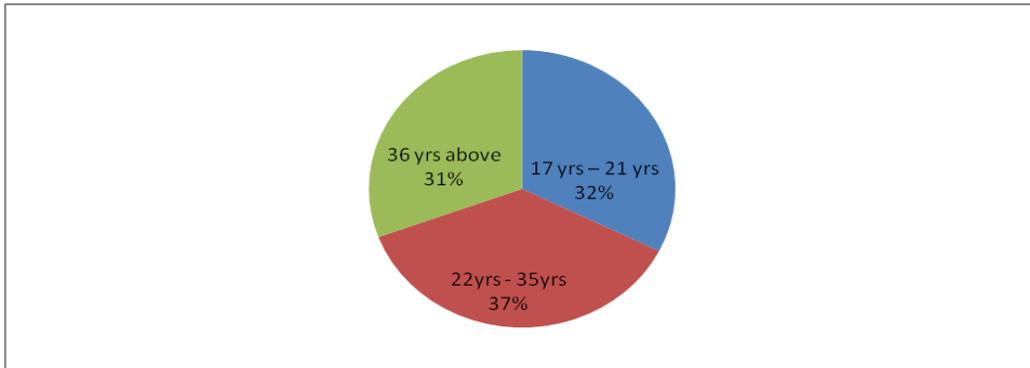


Figure 5.4: Age categories of respondents

#### 5.2.1.5. Highest qualification

In this question (5), only 18.64% of the respondents indicated that they had acquired a diploma or degree. It is worrisome that 33% of the respondents only had matric (as shown in figure 5.5). This might be associated with their poor matric results and low socio-economic status.

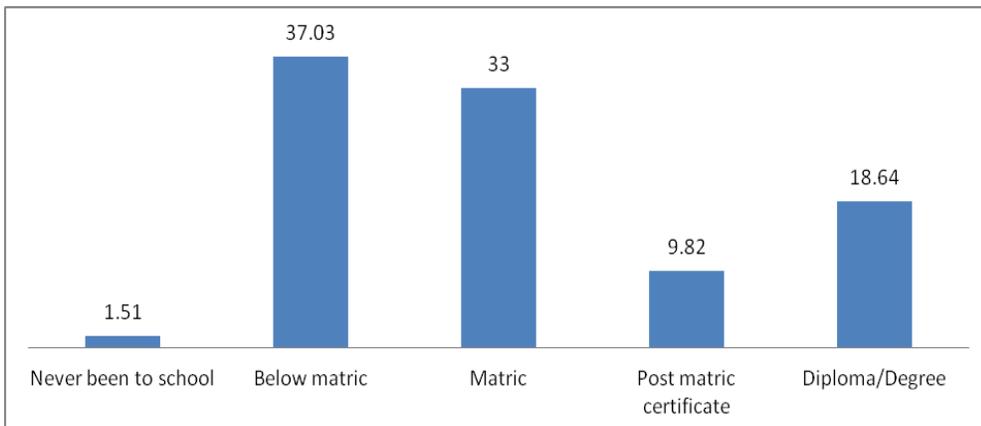


Figure 5.5: Respondents' highest qualification

### 5.2.1.6. *Employment status*

Figure 5.6 shows that just below half (46.48%) of the respondents were unemployed. More significantly is the fact that the figure was higher because there were limited employment opportunities in the township. It would be interesting to understand the unemployed respondents' views on GBV compared to that of those who were employed. Another contributing factor to this unemployment might be that one in every three (33%) of the respondents in Soshanguve only had matric.

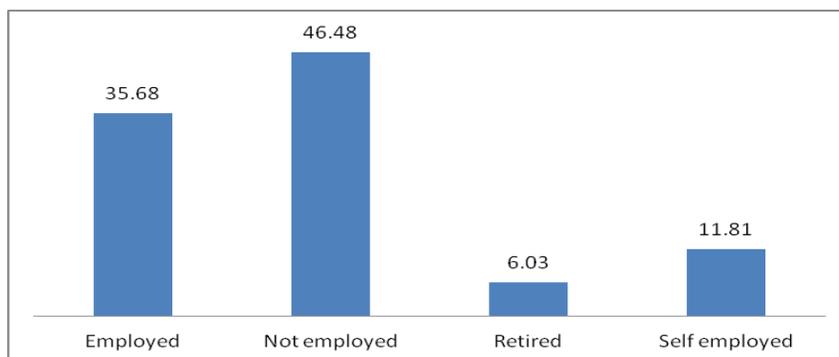


Figure 5.6: Respondents' employment status

## 5.2.2. **General awareness of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign**

### 5.2.2.1. *Messages on violence against women and children*

There is a clear indication that the majority (60.80%) of the respondents had not come across the messages aimed at promoting activism against the abuse of women and children (as indicated in table 5.1 below). This means that beyond the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, there were no efforts aimed at making sure that the public was educated about dangers of GBV on a continuous basis.

*Table 5.1: Messages on violence against women and children*

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<i>Yes</i>	156	39.20
<i>No</i>	242	60.80
<b>Total</b>	398	100.00

#### **5.2.2.2. Knowledge of the campaign**

Noting the fact that this campaign had been in existence for more than 10 years, it is disturbing to note that only 44.10% of the respondents was aware of the campaign. It is, however, interesting to note that there a high number of respondents (172) were aware of the campaign compared to those who had come across the messages on GBV in general, which was 156 (see table 5.1). While 55.90% of the respondents indicated that they were not aware of the campaign, 56.88% of them were male (as indicated in table 5.2 below).

There seemed to be a relationship between gender and the respondents' knowledge of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. The chi-square test, which is a test of independence, was used to find out if the relationship that was observed between these two variables was statistically significant. If the P-value was less than 0.05, one could reject the null hypothesis that the two variables were independent and could therefore conclude that the way the respondents answered the question was influenced by gender (males tended to agree while females tended to disagree). In table 5.3 below, the P-value = 0.0128 < 0.05 and one could therefore reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there was a significant relationship between the way the respondents answered question 8 and gender. Females were more likely to know about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign than the males.

*Table 5.2: Respondents' knowledge of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign*

Gender			
	Yes	No	
<i>Male</i>	F	76.00	124.00
	P	19.49	31.79
	RP	38.00	62.00
	CP	44.19	56.88
<i>Female</i>	F	96.00	94.00
	P	24.62	24.10
	RP	50.53	49.47
	CP	55.81	43.12
<b>Total</b>		172.00	218.00
		44.10	55.90

F = Frequency

P = Percentage

RP = Row percentage

CP = Column percentage

*Table 5.3: Chi-square test of knowledge of the campaign*

Statistics	DF	Value	Probability
Chi-square	1	6.2017	0.0128
Likelihood ratio chi-square	1	6.2160	0.0127
Continuity adj chi-square	1	5.7040	0.0169
Mantel-Haenszel chi-square	1	6.1858	0.0129
Phi coefficient		-0.1261	
Contingency coefficient		0.1251	
Cramer's V		-0.1261	

### **5.2.2.3. Sources of information on the campaign**

A significant number of respondents indicated that they received messages about the campaign through TV (34.34%), radio (26.01%) and newspapers (20.20%). Cell phones were among some of the least (0.00%) media whereby the respondents received messages while social media had 10.35% respondents. A total of 3.28% of the respondents who mentioned other sources of

information about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign listed the workplace, clinic, church, posters and word-of-mouth (as indicated in figure 5.7 below).

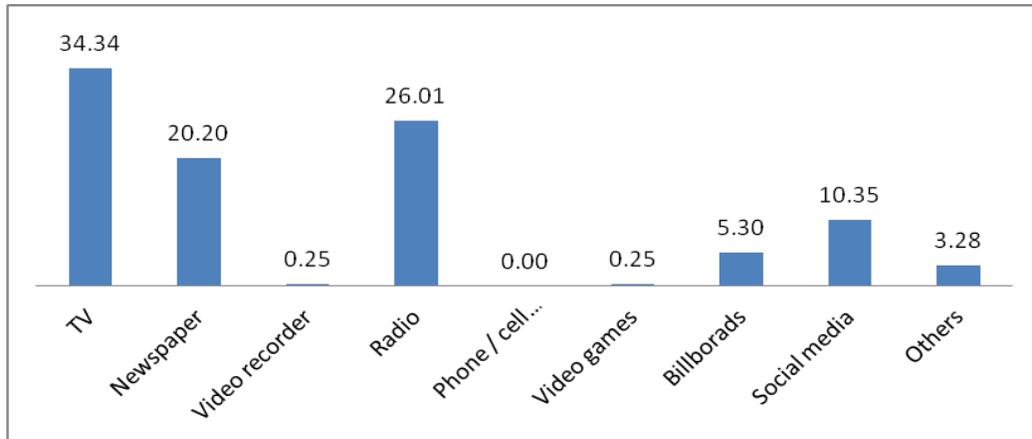


Figure 5.7: Respondents' sources of information about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign

#### 5.2.2.4. Main aims of the campaign

This question required the respondents to summarise the main aims of the campaign by demonstrating their knowledge about it. The results obtained showed that 61.72% of the respondents understood that this campaign's main objective was to reduce violence against women and children. It is worrying that 3.13% of the respondents believed the campaign was aimed at giving women and children more rights. Reducing inequality and creating awareness were among the aims listed by the respondents who felt that there were other objectives of this campaign (as illustrated in figure 5.8 below).

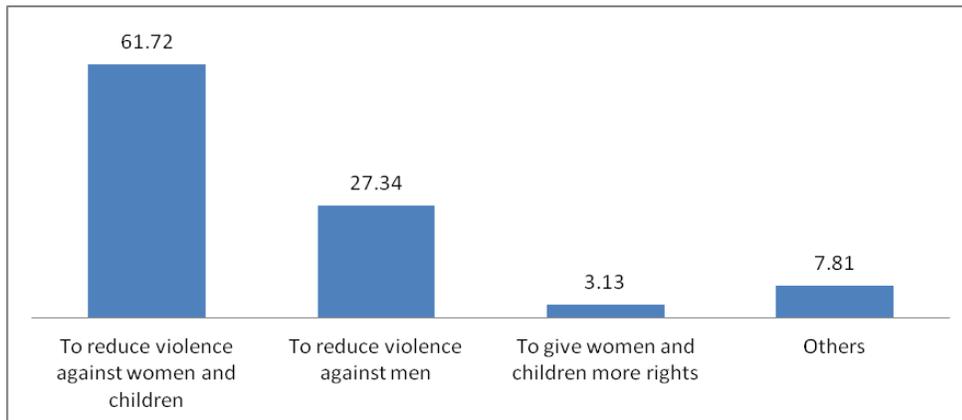


Figure 5.8: Main aims of the campaign

### 5.2.2.5. Causes of violence against women and children

In this question, the respondents were required to identify the causes of violence against women and children. Most of the respondents believed that drug addiction (30.62%), alcoholism (27.31%) and unemployment (18.57%) were the main causes of violence against women and child, with 13.25% viewing poverty as one of the causes of violence against women and children (as indicated in figure 5.9 below). The fact that 2.81% of the respondents indicated that the media was one of the causes of violence against women and children is worrying because the media should help to educate people about these social crimes. The respondents who chose other causes (5.22%) listed being abused as a child, broken homes, income inequality, peer pressure and violent movies as other causes.

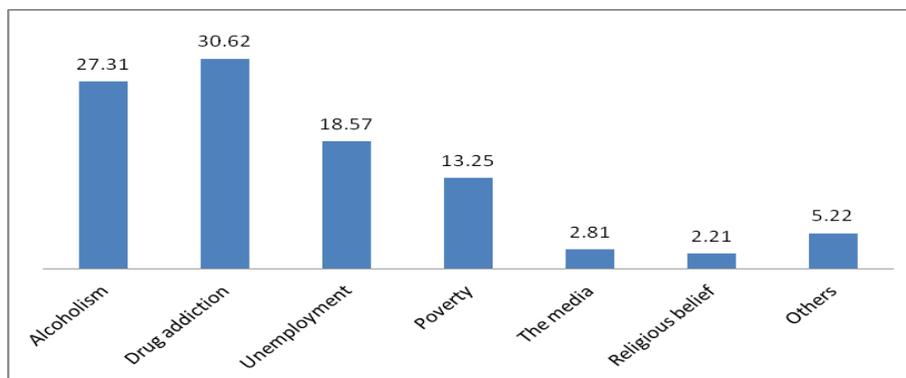


Figure 5.9: Causes of violence against women and children

### 5.2.2.6. Structures/institutions dealing with issues of women and child abuse

The respondents were also asked to identify structures/institutions dealing with issues of women and child abuse and the results (as indicated in table 5.4) show that 33.54% of the respondents knew the South African Police Service was the main institution to contact when dealing with issues of women and child abuse. It is, however, surprising that 27.25% of the respondents viewed Social Services (which deal with counselling and care for the marginalised/people with special needs) as a reliable structure, followed by family and friends with 18.87% respondents. A

low number of respondents (1.1%) viewed the media as the least reliable institution to consult on issues of GBV.

*Table 5.4: Structures/institutions dealing with women and child abuse*

Structure/Institution	Percentage	Structure/Institution	Percentage
Family and friends	18.87%	Charitable or voluntary organisations (NPO/NGO)	6.17%
The South African Police Service	33.54%	Hospitals and clinics	5.18%
Lawyers	02.22%	Religious organisations	5.67%
Social Services	27.25%	The media	1.11%

### **5.2.3. Communication channels and strategies used in the 16 Days of Activism Campaign**

#### ***5.2.3.1. Respondents' preferred sources of information***

This question required respondents to identify a maximum of five communication channels and strategies they used to get information in general. The radio and TV had an equal percentage of 20.51%, followed with newspapers at 14.89% (as depicted in table 5.5).

*Table: 5.5: Respondents' preferred sources of information*

Source	Percentage	Source	Percentage
Radio	20.51%	Books	4.16%
TV	20.51%	School	2.92%
Billboards	04.49%	Posters	7.87%
Newspapers	14.89%	Workplace	2.42%
Magazines	05.39%	Internet	8.65%
Word-of-mouth	06.46%	Others	1.74%

It is interesting to note that most of the respondents (see figure 5.5) used communication channels to get general information which were also prevalent as the sources used to get information on the 16 Days of Activism Campaign ( question 9). it is noteworthy that the internet, posters and word-of-mouth (8.65%, 7.78% and 6.46% respectively) were among the

significant communication channels used. The respondents who highlighted that they were using other sources of information listed social media, leaflets and promotions among other things.

### 5.2.3.2. Analysis of the respondents' preferred TV channel

Figure 5.10 shows the respondents' preferred TV channel to get information on the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. It is noteworthy that there was a relationship between the language of the respondents and their TV choices. SABC 2 is a predominantly Setswana channel, hence 33% of the respondents used it to get information on the campaign. Soshanguve residents still mainly relied on the SABC channels as 82% of the respondents preferred to use it. ETV and DSTV were at equal standing at 9% each.

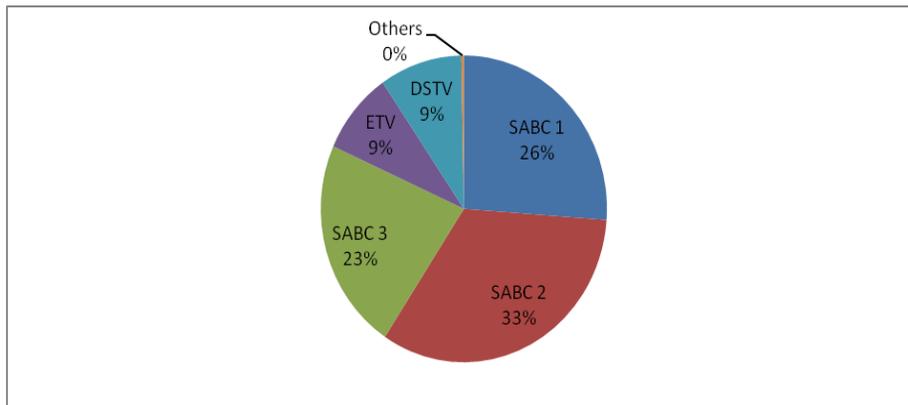


Figure 5.10: Respondents' preferred TV channel

### 5.2.3.3. Analysis of the respondents' preferred newspapers

Table 5.6 shows the newspapers the respondents used to get messages on the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. Since Soshanguve is in Pretoria, it is not surprising that most of the respondents used the *Pretoria News* (23.89%), with the *Daily Sun* and *Sowetan* being used by the same number of respondents (20.56%). It is amazing that the free *Record* had the lowest readership, followed by the *Mail and Guardian*.

*Table 5.6: Respondents' preferred newspapers*

<i>Sowetan</i>	20.56%	<i>Citizen</i>	03.33%
<i>Daily Sun</i>	20.56%	<i>Record</i>	00.56%
<i>Sunday times</i>	16.11%	<i>Pretoria News</i>	23.89%
<i>City Press</i>	10.00%	Others	05.00%
<i>Mail &amp; Guardian</i>	00.00%		

#### **5.2.3.4. Analysis of the respondents' radio station preference**

Table 5.7 presents the radio stations the respondents used to get information about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. Metro FM had the highest number of respondents (36%) using it, followed by Motsweding and Soshanguve FM which had 23.43% and 14.86% respectively. The reason why there was a high preference for Metro FM can be associated with the diversity of languages used even though the station prominently uses English. Motsweding FM had a high number of respondents who indicated that they speak Setswana (17%) since it is a vernacular radio station (see figure 5.3). It is interesting to note that 20% of the respondents were IsiNdebele speakers, but the radio station that uses this language was amongst the lowest (2.56%).

*Table 5.7: Respondents' preferred radio stations*

Thobela FM	06.86%	Metro FM	36.00%
Mtsweding FM	23.43%	5FM	06.86%
Phalaphala FM	02.29%	TUT FM	03.43%
Ikhozi FM	03.43%	Soshanguve FM	14.86%
Iligwalagwala FM	03.43%	Others	12.00%
Ikwekwezi FM	02.56%		

## **5.2.4. Evaluation of communication channels and strategies**

### ***5.2.4.1. Effectiveness of the communication channels***

Question 17 required the respondents to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements regarding the nature of the exposure to the messages about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. A total of eight statements were developed for evaluation. While in question 13 most of the respondents indicated that they preferred radio as a communication channel, 42.24% disagreed that they got more information about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign and 28.24% strongly disagreed. These could be the respondents who did not choose radio as a preferred communication channel (as indicated in the table 5.8 below).

It is interesting to note that 13.52% of the respondents indicated that they strongly agreed with the view that it was through TV adverts that they were made aware of the campaign. Nonetheless, radio and TV (10.94% and 13.52% respectively) were still the top two channels, with the highest number of respondents strongly agreeing. The fact that the lowest percentage of respondents (0.77%) strongly agreed that that they received an SMS about the campaign shows that this campaign had not reached the stage where cell phones were used to target the audience. This can be associated with the fact that the campaign was still mainly dominated by the national government compared to local government.

*Table 5.8: The nature of the exposure to the messages about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I used a radio to get more information about the campaign.	28.24%	42.24%	04.33%	14.25%	10.94%
I got information about the campaign on the radio news bulletin.	27.74%	44.02%	07.38%	13.49%	07.38%
TV adverts made me aware of the campaign.	29.59%	34.18%	02.30%	20.41%	13.52%
I got exposed to the campaign through TV news.	29.08%	35.46%	10.20%	15.56%	09.69%
I received an SMS about the campaign.	52.17%	44.50%	01.28%	01.28%	00.77%
Posters informed me about the campaign.	43.73%	42.97%	04.60%	03.84%	04.86%
I read about the campaign in the newspapers.	37.60%	38.87%	02.30%	12.79%	08.44%
I attended an event dealing with the campaign.	51.28%	44.10%	01.54%	01.54%	01.54%

#### **5.2.4.2. Description of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign**

While this question 18 required the respondents to describe the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, 25.75% of the respondents strongly agreed with the fact that the campaign was helpful and 25.68% of them viewed the campaign as reliable (as illustrated in table 5.9 below). It can therefore be concluded that the respondents were satisfied with the campaign in terms of its ability to educate or create awareness and was helpful to those who needed this kind of information. This is affirmed by 24.80% of the respondents who strongly agreed that the campaign was informative. It is important, however, to note that 17.89% of the respondents indicated that they strongly agreed that the campaign was on time. The percentage is the lowest among those respondents who strongly agreed and it can be deduced that the fact that the campaign is not ongoing made the respondents feel that it was not on time. Furthermore, 42.82% of the respondents were neutral on this issue, which can be associated with the fact that the campaign only gets high media coverage during the 16 days. It therefore poses a challenge for the campaign planners to make sure that the campaign is continuous to curb its invisibility during the year.

*Table 5.9: Description of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	
Uninformative	3.77%	11.32%	34.23%	25.88%	24.80%	Informative
Unfriendly	1.63%	07.34%	35.33%	32.88%	22.83%	Friendly
Unhelpful	2.44%	07.32%	35.33%	28.73%	25.75%	Helpful
Unreliable	3.51%	10.00%	37.03%	23.78%	25.68%	Reliable
Ineffective	2.71%	07.59%	41.19%	27.37%	21.14%	Effective
Late	3.79%	11.11%	42.82%	24.39%	17.89%	On time
Unresponsive	2.17%	08.97%	42.39%	28.26%	18.21%	Responsive

#### ***5.2.4.3. Evaluation of the respondents' level of satisfaction with the campaign***

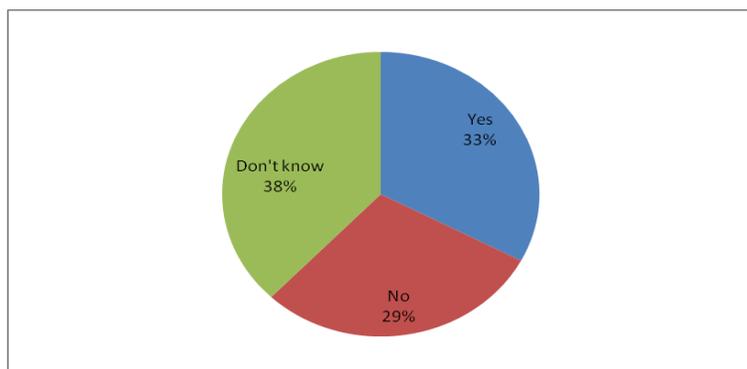
Table 5.10 depicts the evaluation of the respondents' level of satisfaction with messages on the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. It is worth noting that 30.21% of the respondents were very satisfied with the fact that the messages they had come across about the campaign were relevant. This substantiates the need for this campaign because the respondents felt they were very satisfied with its relevance. Only 6.78% of respondents were very dissatisfied with the amount of the messages received about the campaign. This can be attributed to the fact that it is not a year-long campaign, hence messages are only available during the 16 days of the campaign period. This can also be explained by the 17.37%, which is the lowest percentage of those who were very satisfied that the campaign's messages were not received frequently. Regarding the language used in the campaign, 33.90% of the respondents were satisfied with the medium of instruction used in the campaign in 2011.

*Table 5.10: Respondents' satisfaction levels with the campaign messages*

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
Accuracy of the messages received	01.26%	07.98%	28.99%	36.13%	25.63%
Relevance of the messages received	00.43%	07.23%	26.38%	35.74%	30.21%
Amount of the messages received	07.66%	11.91%	31.49%	30.64%	18.30%
Language used in the messages received	02.54%	09.32%	34.32%	33.90%	19.92%
Frequency/Timelines of the messages received	06.78%	12.71%	32.63%	30.51%	17.37%

#### **5.2.4.4. Evaluation of the respondents' views on the success of the campaign**

Question 20 required the respondents to indicate whether they thought the 16 Days of Activism Campaign was achieving its aims. The respondents' views are presented in figure 5.11 below, which shows that 38% of the respondents indicated that they did not know whether or not the campaign was achieving its purpose. However, 33% of the respondents were of the view that the campaign was achieving its main aim, with 29% pointing to the contrary. Even though the percentage of the respondents who indicated that the campaign was not achieving its purpose was lower than those who thought otherwise, this can be associated with the fact that there was still high number of reported cases of social crimes across the country.



*Figure 5.11: Respondents' views on the success of the campaign*

In order to determine if there was a relationship between education level and the respondents' views on the success of the campaign, the chi-square test (which is the test of independence) was used to find out if the relationship that was observed between these two variables was statistically significant. If the P-value was less than 0.05, one could reject the null hypothesis that the two variables were independent and therefore conclude that the way the respondents answered this question was influenced by education level. The initial test found statistical significant differences for the respondents, with the diploma or degree status (59.46%) of those who thought the campaign was achieving its aim high compared to those with other qualifications (as listed in table 5.11). One can conclude that there was a relationship between the level of education and the respondents' understanding of the aim of the campaign.

In table 5.12 below the P-value = 0.0001 < 0.05 and one therefore could reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there was a significant relationship between the way the respondents answered question 20 and their level of education. The respondents' level of education influenced their assessment of the campaign's success.

Table 5.11: Qualifications influence the success of the campaign

Qualification	Success of the campaign				
	Yes	No	Don't know	Total	
Never been to school	F	2	1	2	5
	P	00.51	00.26	00.51	01.29
	RP	40	20	40	
	CP	01.56	00.87	01.37	
Below matric	F	31	39	72	142
	P	07.97	10.03	18.51	36.50
	RP	21.83	27.46	50.70	
	CP	24.22	33.91	49.32	
Matric	F	43	43	43	129
	P	11.05	11.05	11.05	33.16
	RP	33.33	33.33	33.33	
	CP	33.59	37.39	29.45	
Post-matric certificate	F	8	14	17	39
	P	02.06	03.6	04.37	10.03
	RP	20.51	35.90	43.59	
	CP	06.25	12.17	11.64	
Diploma/Degree	F	44	18	12	74
	P	11.31	04.63	03.08	19.02
	RP	59.46	24.32	16.22	
	CP	34.38	15.65	08.22	
<b>Total</b>		128	115	146	389
		32.90	29.56	37.53	100.00

F = Frequency

P = Percentage

RP = Row percentage

CP = Column percentage

*Table 5.12: Chi-square statistics of level of education by success of the campaign*

<b>Statistic</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>Value</b>	<b>Probability</b>
Chi-square	8	41.7750	<.0001
Likelihood ratio chi-square	8	41.4907	<.0001
Mantel-Haenszel chi-square	1	27.4082	<.0001
Phi coefficient		00.3277	
Contingency coefficient		00.3114	
Cramer's V		00.2317	

#### ***5.2.4.5. Impact of the campaign on the respondents***

Question 21 required the respondents to indicate the extent to which the 16 Days of Activism Campaign had affected them. This was an open-ended question as the respondents had to indicate their experiences with the campaign in a narrative way. The feedback on this question indicated that 20% of the respondents believed the 16 Days of Activism Campaign had not affected them, while the rest (80%) believe awareness of the campaign had helped them to know what do when faced with GBV. Among these were those who indicated that the campaign had helped them to come out and report cases of violence against women and children to the authorities. There were also 8% who felt that even though the campaign was helpful, it still had a long way to go to reach its objectives. In the words of one of the respondents: “We were informed at work about this campaign and every year we donate clothes, blankets and food to shelters to help women and children to cope well, and we let them know that they are not alone in this.” Another respondent added: “When you are at school and they give that kind of information, you get attached and want to know more about it.”

Because this campaign is government-led in partnership with the stakeholders, some of the respondents felt that they did not hear about the successes and failures of the campaign. One respondent put it thus: “We didn’t know and never find out if the campaign is successful and achieved their aims.” Another worrying element is that it was not visible at the community level. This was echoed by one respondent who said: “This campaign has done nothing for us who lives in township/rural areas.” However, another respondent had a different view and said: “Since I

live in a rural area, I get scared a lot. Even going into the street alone as female scares me, but the 16 Days Activism Campaign is helpful because it teaches us how to handle situations.” Some of the respondents saw the fact that the campaign only gets publicity during the 16 days of activism as a stumbling block to its success. In the words of one of the respondents: “The campaign should be done every month, that’s when it will affect us.” Another respondent added: “The campaign needs to create awareness during the year as well, not just certain time of the year.” Furthermore, one respondent insisted: “The campaign helps, but they don’t allow it time.”

One of the respondents appreciated the fact that this study highlighted the campaign as a major issue faced by the government and community at large. This respondent asserted: “The fact that these surveys are done and sacrificing time to get the message across.” In the words of an elderly respondent: “Informing us through surveys helps a lot because I am old and knew nothing about it.” Another respondent added: “Right now I am more aware of it, so would say sending people to do these surveys helps us a lot; before this survey, I didn’t know much about it.” This was echoed by another respondent who said: “The campaign changed me to be a better person, for example, I have learnt to appreciate myself and the people around me, mostly my boyfriend and child.” Nonetheless, one of the respondents was unhappy about the fact that in most instances, the victims were women as if men were not affected. To put it in this respondent’s own words: “It has affected me negatively, because there are men who are being abused but nothing is being done about it.”

#### ***5.2.4.6. Respondents’ views on the government’s efforts on to curb gender-based violence***

The last question (22) required the respondents to indicate whether they thought government was doing enough to educate people on GBV. This question was open-ended and the respondents had to narrate their views. 88% of the respondents indicated that the government was doing enough to educate people on GBV, with only 2% indicated that they did not know whether the government was doing enough. Only 10% of the respondents indicated that the government was not doing well in educating people on GBV.

The respondents who indicated that the government was doing well in its efforts to educate people about GBV made, inter alia, the following comments:

- “The government is doing enough and I think the people who are not educated about this are just being ignorant and stubborn.”
- “Yes, they are doing enough, but more still needs to be done.”
- “Yes, they educate us and we as teachers educate others. I think they are doing a great job at it.”
- “Yes, they are. It is up to us to stop the abuse.”
- One respondent was critical about the government and wrote: “Yes, they do their level best, but the people who are in charge of the campaign do not do enough; they misuse the resources.”

One of the respondents who were impressed about the government’s efforts noted: “Yes, I am proud of our government.”

Some of the comments of the respondents who were unhappy about the government’s efforts on GBV were:

- “I am not sure because I haven't seen changes because people still abuse and they get away with it.”
- “No, the abusers are not punished enough that is why they do not hesitate to do it again. Government should do something about it.”

Some of the respondents associated GBV with socio-economic status and the lifestyle of the population. The following comments relate to employment:

- “No, if more people were employed, then it will decrease the abuse.”
- “No, if the unemployment would decrease, then I would say they are doing enough.”
- “No, they should reduce alcohol availability.”

The last comments had more to do with focus areas of the campaign. This respondent was of the opinion that the government's efforts should also be directed at the rural areas. This respondent noted: "No, people in rural areas do not receive enough exposure on the campaign. Government must focus to those kinds of areas."

One respondent thought the government was not doing enough about GBV because of its reliance on the media as a mouthpiece to reach the population. This respondent commented: "No, they are not, they are relying on media."

One respondent was pessimistic about the government had strong and harsh words for the government. This respondent warned: "I do not care about this government, they are doing nothing."

The above summary of the analysis covered the results from the quantitative phase of this study. In line with the sequential mixed method, the results from the qualitative phase will be presented in the next section.

### **5.3. ANALYSIS OF THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS**

As indicated in chapters 1 and 4, the questions of the in-depth interview guide were mainly linked to the following research objectives:

- to determine the promotion strategies used in the 16 Days of Activism Campaign
- to determine the techniques used to evaluate the effectiveness of the campaign

Moreover, in order to structure the in-depth interviews, the researcher developed eight questions in line with the abovementioned objectives. The researcher started by explaining the purpose of the research and assuring the participants of their anonymity. The language of communication was English because it was assumed that the participants were employed in professional positions.

As indicated in chapter 4 (research methodology), the in-depth interviews were conducted with the two male employees from the DWCPD and the GCIS on different days.

### **5.3.1. Evaluation of the background of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign**

The first question required the participants to give a background of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign to confirm their understanding of the research topic. The participants, one from the GCIS and the other one from the DWCPD, highlighted the fact that this is an international campaign that originated from the first Women's Global Leadership Institute which was sponsored by the Centre for Women's Global Leadership. It is the intensive awareness phase of the 365 Days Programme and National Action Plan which takes place annually from 25 November (International Day of No Violence Against Women) to 10 December (International Human Rights Day). In South Africa, the day has been marked since 1999 and the campaign has been extended to include issues relating to violence against children. The 16 Days of Activism Campaign focuses primarily on generating increased awareness of the negative impact violence has on women and children. The other key commemorative dates are 1 December (World Aids Day) and 3 December (International Day for the Disabled). Again, most schools close during the 16 days, leaving children vulnerable to abuse.

According to these participants, since 2010, the DWCPD has been the convener of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. The participants from the DWCPD remarked: "The high prevalence of women and children abuse is also depicted in the Business Against Crime research which shows the violent nature of South African crime is worrisome." The participant also remarked: "This campaign is also linked to child protection week, which this year (2012) ran from the 28<sup>th</sup> of May to the 3<sup>rd</sup> of June."

### **5.3.2. Evaluation of the communication objectives of the campaign**

The second question required the participants to give their understanding of the communication objectives of the campaign. Both noted the fact that every year has its objectives, which are

approved by the Cabinet. the participants concurred that the campaign has the following key objectives:

- to generate an increased level of awareness among South Africans with regard to the incidences of violence perpetuated against women and children – how it manifests within South African society and its negative impact on vulnerable groups
- to enhance and increase partnerships between the government, the private sector, civil society, organised labour, sectoral groups, FBOs, the media (electronic and print) and the diplomatic corps in an effort to spread the message
- to mobilise, strengthen and coordinate partnerships with all the sectors of society (including NGOs, community-based organisations and FBOs; sports bodies; the public service; youth organisations; political parties; trade unions; the media; the private sector; and women’s and men’s organisations) to spread the message during the implementation of the campaign and to provide invaluable support to the victims and survivors of violence
- to mobilise men and boys in the fight against gender-based and child-directed violence and to encourage the perpetrators of these offences to change their behaviour

In addition, one of the participants from the DWCPD indicated that in 2011 “our focus was to emphasise that broken families compromise efforts to protect children in the community”. This participant further noted that “the absence of a father figure and/or absence of parents makes it more difficult”.

The general view of the participants was that most urban dwellers are easy to reach, both through the media and through campaigns which may be conducted in their workplaces.

As one of the participants put it: “The main challenge is to communicate through the most effective and appropriate channels, aiming to reach the maximum number of people across the country, particularly women and children residing in the rural areas.”

### **5.3.3. Evaluation of the campaign's target audience**

For this question, all the respondents recognised the following groups of audience: public servants and their families; rural communities; truck drivers; health, farm, and mine workers. They also emphasised the role of traditional leaders, women councillors and mayors, trade unions, schoolgoing children, tertiary education institutions, men, youth, men's and women's movements. Furthermore, the importance of FBOs, local and foreign media, all progressive women's movements, children's organisations, municipal officials and traditional healers as the key role players was emphasised.

### **5.3.4. Evaluation of the senders/messengers of the campaign**

The third question required the participants to demonstrate their knowledge of the messengers of the campaign. Both participants were of the view that the president and the deputy president of South Africa, the minister of the DWCPD as a lead department, all the ministers and deputy ministers, the media, musicians and promoters, premiers, MECs, mayors, MPs, MPLs, state-owned enterprises (SOEs), survivors, victims, traditional leaders, ex-offenders, ward councillors, FBOs, women's movements, organised labour, educators, community development workers, health workers and caregivers are among the influential messengers of the campaign messages.

In the words of one of the participants from the GCIS: "This is a government campaign with stakeholders and partners; you can take a toolkit and run a campaign." Another participant from DWCPD commented on the 2011 campaign planning process: "The process was led by the GCIS with the SAPS and DWCPD and the Department of Social Development. The Department of Basic Education was invited but never made it."

### **5.3.5. Evaluation of the key messages of the campaign**

The fourth question required the participants to demonstrate their understanding of the key messages of the campaign. On the key messages, both participants were of the view that the tag line of the 2011 campaign ("Act Against Abuse"), which has been consistently used for a long

time, is still relevant. The participants further noted that they had also developed key messages focussing on the following themes:

- Don't look away, act against abuse.
- Break the silence against all forms of abuse.
- A call to action – wear the white ribbon in support of the victims and survivors of gender-based violence and abuse directed at children.
- Men participating in the fight against women and children abuse.
- Building a South Africa that truly cares and protects against children abuse.
- Unite against women and children abuse.

However, one participant from the DWCPD pointed out that the 2011 campaign had a special focus on strengthening families and communities. This participant reckoned: “This year’s messages included “Working together to stop child abuse”; “Economically empowering women against abusive relationships”; “Fighting against child neglect and exploitation”; and “Building and strengthening responsible families”. This participant summed it up as follows: “It takes a village to raise a child.”

### **5.3.6. Evaluation of the promotional strategies used in the campaign**

The sixth question required the respondents to state the promotional strategies and the reasons for their use. While both participants had long list of channels of communication, there was a consensus that the following channels are used: the Izimbizo Programme; Cyber-Dialogues; multimedia campaigns, driven largely by television and radio and including print; FBOs, community-based organisations and NGOs; Thusong Service Centres; pension payout points to reach elderly women; shopping malls; community policing forums; radio and television; community media; print and outdoor advertising; public servants; municipal officials; monthly media briefings by the national convenor during the three communication sessions of the campaign; the provincial road shows programme; and Torch of Peace.

One participant from the DWCPD pointed out: “In rural areas, we advertised on borehole tankers where children play, buses, community radio, SABC TV and radios. In the last (2011) campaign we had a partnership with e-TV where they produced their video clip in support of the campaign.”

Emphasising the reasons for the choice of the channels above, one of the participants from the GCIS remarked: “We get reports of the AMPS from our marketing and research team which recommends more radio and TV and less print media.” Regarding the language used in the messages of the campaign, one participant remarked: “We were helped a lot by SABC radio stations. Our minister speaks Sesotho, which covers other three languages. Language was not really a problem.” Another participant from the GCIS hinted on the reasons for selecting specific areas for the events: “Research indicates that violence against women and children is prevalent in the areas where socio-economic levels are low. For example, areas without recreational parks, unstable or lacking education are mostly affected. That is why our opening and closing ceremonies of the campaign take place in specific areas where there are widespread acts of violence.” However, the same participant added: “The trend around abuse is not restricted to women who are not well-off; violence cuts across, it happens to women in general.”

### **5.3.7. Evaluation of the campaign**

The seventh question required the respondents to indicate how they would evaluate the campaign. On the whole, it can be said that there was no plan or strategy from both departments (DWCPD & GCIS) on how to evaluate the effectiveness of the campaign. In the words of one of the participants from the GCIS: “We rely on the masses that we reach, for example listenership, broadcasting AMPS. We just gage through call-ins and letters to the editors.” The same participant echoed: “From a communication perspective, we conduct media monitoring – prior, during and post the campaign – checking how messages have been captured by the media.” Nonetheless, one of the participants indicated his dissatisfaction with the media by hinting: “Media are quiet supportive but turn to pick up negative incidence during the campaign.” Another participant from the DWCPD elaborated on the complexity of evaluating the campaign

by noting: “Behavioural change is a complex phenomenon; we have to cover perpetrators and victims’ perspectives. We do not have a tool as yet.” But this participant asserted: “The 16 days campaign cannot run on its own, the 365 days programme of action against gender-based violence is run by NPA (National Prosecution Authority) and it is weak. By the way, the 16 days awareness level is even higher than the State of the Nation Address (SONA)”.

In this respondent’s words, as he concluded his answer to the question by indicating a lack of focus on people with disability in an effort to eliminate GBV: “In South Africa, we have 16 Days, Child Protection Week, Women’s Month, and so far we don’t have a National Disability Week. These issues are integrated.”

Both participants agreed that there was an increase in awareness levels but they were not sure if the increment resulted in a high reporting rate of abuse cases. Furthermore, they were also not sure if the decline in abuse crimes could be attributed to the fact that people were aware of the campaign and were stopping GBV. In one of the participants’ words: “Crime statistics has increased but also declined, we do not know what this means to us.”

### **5.3.8. Evaluation of the participants’ views on the impact of the campaign**

Question eight required the participants to give their views on the impact of the campaign. With regard to the impact, all the respondents agreed that it was not yet known. One participant from the GCIS observed: “That is something we still need to work on.” In addition, the participant put it thus: “At the moment, awareness is what this campaign achieves and its purpose. The last year’s (2011) campaign did not do a fair and honest measurement except relying on media feedback.” Another participant echoed the same sentiments when he added: “Probably higher reporting of social crimes incidents.”

All the participants concurred that the campaign was under-resourced, hence they were unable to conduct extensive research on the campaign. One participant remarked: “The campaign is not resourced.” Noting the fact that this campaign is government-led, consisting of different

departments participating in its planning and implementation, both participants who were interviewed recommended that the researcher contact the GCIS or DWCPD: “If you can go to GCIS because they are our communication specialists, they would give you more information.” and “Have you had any correspondence with the women’s ministry (DWCPD) since they are the champions?”

The section below focuses on the reliability and validity of the research results.

#### 5.4. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE RESULTS

As discussed in chapter 4, the purpose of section D (specifically questions 17, 18 and 19) of the questionnaire was to determine whether the five-item Likert scale was valid and reliable to measure the respondents’ views on the effectiveness of the communication channels, evaluation of the messages and satisfaction levels with the messages on the 16 Days of Activism Campaign.

The Cronbach alpha values were calculated to determine the reliability of the data. Table 5.13 shows the Cronbach alpha values for the interval scale items in questions 17, 18 and 19 of the questionnaire are >0.60, indicating the high level of reliability. The alpha values stand at 0.84, 0.95 and 0.90 respectively. The total Cronbach alpha values, both raw and standardised, are 0.899100 and 0.901222 respectively. The five-item Likert scale used to measure the effectiveness of the communication channels, evaluation of the messages and the satisfaction levels with the messages on the 16 Days of Activism Campaign was therefore reliable.

*Table 5.13: Cronbach alpha values*

	Cronbach alpha	
	Raw	Standardised
Question 17	0.849856	0.846980
Question 18	0.952200	0.953000
Question 19	0.903700	0.905200
<b>Total</b>	0.899100	0.901022

## **5.5. CONCLUSION**

This chapter presented the results of this study regarding the evaluation of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. The main findings that had been obtained were presented. The results were discussed in the same order as they appeared in each question of the in-depth interview guide and the questionnaire used for this study. The next chapter contains a discussion of the summary of the study, the research findings, and recommendations and conclusions.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.1. INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the communication strategies used in the 16 Days of Activism Campaign and to determine the impact of the campaign in Soshanguve. This chapter briefly presents the research problem, summary of the major conclusions and the link between the research objectives pertaining to the evaluation of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. The conclusions were derived from the research findings of the empirical study as presented in chapter 5 of this dissertation. The recommendations for the campaign planners and implementers will also be presented, followed by the limitations of the study and possible directions for future research.

#### **6.2. SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM**

As indicated in chapter 1, there have been many advances in the design and implementation of health communication campaigns. However, there have been fewer developments in campaign evaluation (Noar 2009:1). Kazmi (2008:487) points out that the purpose of evaluation is to ascertain the effectiveness of a strategy in achieving organisational objectives. Consequently, Kazmi (2008:489) concludes that the absence of an evaluation mechanism results in strategists being unable to find out whether or not the strategy is producing the desired results. In chapter 2 of this study, it was noted that South Africa has been hailed for its progressive constitution, which enshrines gender equality. The number of women in parliament has risen substantially since 1994, creating a formidable force for legislative change. But while changing laws can be a rapid process, changing the mindsets that suppress these impressive gains is another issue altogether (Ngoma 2005:8). A culture of violence, born from years of political struggle against apartheid, has been blamed for the gloomy statistics (Commission on Gender 2009:6).

GBV has been recognised as a global public health and human rights problem that leads to high rates of morbidity and mortality, including gynaecological problems, sexually transmitted infections, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, substance dependence and suicide (Taylor et al 2011:354; Shannon et al 2009:1). The South African government has already delivered in

part on its commitment to prevent and eradicate violence against women and children by reviewing the criminal justice system in South Africa, which led to the development and adoption of the Service Charter for Victims among other things (Jewkes et al 2002:1604). Furthermore, in responding to this international public health and human rights concern, the South African government has adopted numerous public health communication strategies to highlight the plight of violence against women and children. One of the public health communication campaigns that are conducted in South Africa is the 16 Days of Activism Campaign.

Although this campaign was launched more than 10 years ago, a woman is raped in South Africa every 83 seconds, with only 20% of these women reporting the case to the police annually (Family Violence Prevention Fund 2007; Pan American Health Organisation 2005). According to UNICEF (2010:7), the South African Police Service's report on crimes against children shows an increase of 16% between 2008/9 and 2009/10, reaching 57 000 cases.

While studies have been conducted in public health communication, the literature review revealed that none of the studies focused on the evaluation of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. In order to help fill the paucity of research evidence in this area, this study was aimed at evaluating the 16 Days of Activism Campaign with special reference to the Soshanguve community in Gauteng province.

The literature reviewed covered among other things the international, regional and local milestones and coverage on GBV. This was achieved through the UN conventions, African charters and South African legislation on GBV. It should be noted, however, that more needs to be done in SADC regarding the cultural and religious practices which directly or indirectly contribute to GBV.

The literature reviewed reveals that the South African government has introduced solid legislation to deal with GBV (Jewkes et al 2002:1605). The communication planning, implementation and monitoring of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign is managed by the GCIS

through the Directorate of Strategic Planning and Project Management and the DWCPD as the lead department for this campaign. This, however, is implemented with interaction between various government clusters, NGOs, community-based organisations, FOBs and local communities (Concept document, 16 Days of Activism Campaign 2008:1–8).

Furthermore, during the literature review the international communication campaign models which are generally applicable in public health communication campaigns were examined, followed by the detailed presentation of the models which are mainly used in South Africa. Each model was critiqued in order to ascertain its relevance to the 16 Days of Activism Campaign.

### **6.3. SUMMARY OF THE MAIN CONCLUSIONS**

This section presents the major conclusions from the empirical research. These conclusions derived from the qualitative research will be discussed in the form of themes linked to the interview questions. The conclusions from the quantitative research will be discussed according to their sequence in the survey questionnaire, but the discussion will be based on the main sections. The following is a summary of the conclusions from the qualitative as well as quantitative phases of this research.

#### **6.3.1. Background of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign**

From the question on the background of the campaign (see section 5.2), it can be deduced that the main focus of the campaign is to eliminate all forms of abuse against women and children. Since its inception in 2009, the focus of the (DWCPD has been to comprehensively help in dealing with the vulnerable. This study found out that the DWCPD is mainly concerned about socio-economic status and its impact on the abuse of women and children. However, in the GCIS there is more focus on the communication channels which are used, given that they are a government communication agency. This was in line with the views of Tulchinsky and Vravikova (2009:1 & 2) who view the role of public health communication as that of bringing about behavioural changes in the lives of the specific public. This can also be attested to by the

DWCPD participant's remarks which highlighted that there is a need for a national disability week or month to highlight the plight of people living with disabilities.

### **6.3.2. Main objectives the 16 Days of the campaign**

It can be deduced from both respondents that the immediate challenge is not whether or not the campaign is realising its objectives, but the fact that its continuity is limited to 16 days. While this campaign is government-led, it is also a concern that it has been changed from two departments as champions and this may result in a lack of credibility of the source when messages are sent to the audience. This can also be attributed to the fact that the 365 National Action Programme resides in the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, whereas the 16 days campaign is championed by the DWCPW. One can commend the South African government since the inception of the campaign in 1999 for the ability to combine the women issues with those of children, because this gives the campaign weight since it turns the focus on families in general. The challenge therefore becomes the inclusion of people with disabilities in this campaign. From the interaction, it can be concluded that their plight is not catered for in this campaign, nor does the campaign which focuses on disable persons have a direct link with GBV in families.

The participants' responses to the question relating to the communication objectives of the campaign were somewhat uniform. Rensburg and Cant (2003:208) and Stephenson, Quick and Hirsch (2009:36) have observed that the communication objectives should be a reflection of the communication needs of the audience and not of the communicator. This study found that the uniformity in the GCIS and DWCPD is because these objectives are approved by the Cabinet and the departments just have to implement them. It can, however, be argued that some of the objectives are too broad and not specific, which makes it difficult to evaluate them. This might be due to the fact that there is political influence in the objectives, which by its nature would seek to cover as broad issues as possible. It is noteworthy that in three years' time, there might be a shift towards more realistic objectives directed specifically at the vulnerable groups due to the DCPWD being the lead department. This is evidenced in the utterances of the participant from

the DWCPD which, to a certain extent, focused on strengthening the family unit and a safer and responsive community.

### **6.3.3. Target audience of the campaign**

All the participants recognised the following audiences as important: public servants and their families; rural communities; truck drivers; health, farm and mine workers; women councillors and mayors; trade unions; schoolgoing children; tertiary education institutions; men; youth; men's movements; FBOs; local and foreign media; all progressive women's movements, children's organisations; municipal officials; and traditional healers. This study found that there is no clear distinction between the perpetrator and victim-based audience, which can increase the lack of focus when communicating to multitudes.

### **6.3.4. Messengers of the campaign**

Regarding the messengers (those people, institutions and tools which are used to send messages to the target audience), it can be concluded that everyone – starting from the executives and the government officials in all three (namely national, provincial and local) levels of government – are important. The reason for the inclusion of schools as one of the messengers is because children are usually the victims of abuse, from fellow learners, teachers, relatives and parents in general. It might also be attributed to creating awareness among these learners while they are still young so that as they grow older, they will not be perpetrators and/or victims themselves. As recommended by Skinner, Hu and Sundar (2009:108); Von Essen 1995:130); and Seitel (1995:9), the messengers should be credible because they are the faces of the campaign.

This study found that even though the participant from the DWCPD gave the impression that the sequence of the executives and officials is not vital, the conduct and the credibility of any messenger who participates in campaigns of this magnitude should be beyond reproach.

### **6.3.5. Messages of the campaign**

From the question on the messages of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, this study found that there was an increment in the number and variety of messages that were sent to the target audience in 2011. This can be viewed as a disadvantage because the more the messages, the more one is likely to forget. While the slogan “Act Against Abuse” has not changed over the years, it can also be argued that this helped the general audience to be able to become more familiar with and be associated with the campaign. Nevertheless, the complexity of the audience in the form of victims and perpetrators makes it difficult to cater for all of them. This message consistency are echoed by Cassell et al (1998:75–79) who indicate that the more people are exposed to the same messages consistently, the more they are likely to remember the message.

### **6.3.6. Promotional strategies used in the campaign**

From the question on the promotional strategies used to create awareness about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, this study found that there was a high reliance on the mass media, even though the participants did not know which one of the mass media was more effective except to note the fact that they relied heavily on the All Media Product Survey (AMPS) and listenership as provided by the GCIS’s marketing and research team. The AMPS shows that the reach of broadcast mass media is huge, since both participants stated their reliance mainly on SABC radio stations and TV channels. This study further found that the existence of Cyber-dialogue, which is interactive between the messengers and the audience, is not adequate. This study shows that there is dependence on the print media to cover the opinion pieces and editorials on GBV issues during the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. This dependence might place the government at the mercy of the editors, which might in turn limit the impact of the messages. The GCIS has moved towards IMC, which combines tools and techniques like public relations, advertising, sponsorship, word-of-mouth, personal communication, exhibitions and new media with the sole purpose of increasing the reach with the right messages at the right time (Kotler et al 2008; Maibach et al 2007:5; Koekemoer 2004; Kotler 2000; Bearden et al 1998; Brassington & Pettit 1997).

### **6.3.7. Evaluation of the strategies used in the campaign**

Regarding the evaluation of the campaign, this study found that there was no readily available instrument to measure or evaluate the campaign's effectiveness from the audience's perspective. There was, however, an internal evaluation framework for the planning process prior, during and after the campaign from the sender's perspective.

Barker and Angelopulo's (2006) interactive communication campaign model emphasises that there should be an assessment at the end of each phase, even though in most instances this only happens until the output – which is the production of communication materials. Essentially, this can only measure the number of media outputs, placements and the number of messages received by the target audience (Kazmi 2008:487; Zerfass et al 2008:183; Centre & Jackson 2003:153). Lindenmann (2003:17) concludes that this might lead to the evaluation of the wrong variables.

### **6.3.8. Participants' views on the impact of the campaign**

The issue of the impact of the campaign is directly linked to the output and outcomes evaluation which should take place during the above stage (output evaluation). Knowing that behavioural change takes a long time and is a complicated phenomenon to measure, it is disappointing (as found in this study) that neither of the departments is in the process of developing such a plan. Relying on crime statistics in this case might be misleading because the report is issued once a year and some of the victims do not report DBV cases. Even though there are some causal relationships, this cannot be a definite occurrence. As indicated in chapter 1 of this dissertation, the evaluation of communication campaigns plays a significant role in demonstrating accountability, effectiveness and organisational impact (Cutlip et al 2000:364; Xavier et al 2005:417; Wilcox et al 2003:420). As it stands, this study found that the evaluation of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign is limited to output and does not reach impact.

### **6.3.9. Implication of demographic and general information on gender-based violence**

The majority of the respondents who participated in this study were males. It is interesting to note that in the study of Kim, Wutte, Hargreaves, Ndhlovu, Phetla, Morison, Busza, Porter and Pronyk (2007:1794), it was concluded that violence against women and children is an explicit manifestation of gender inequality and is increasingly being recognised as an important risk factor for a range of poor health and economic development outcomes. It can be linked to gender as ascertain as it can be linked to marital status. The majority of the respondents were single (that is, not married). Since Soshanguve is one of the townships in Pretoria, this study found that the majority of the respondents spoke IsiNdebele. Furthermore, the majority of the respondents were between the ages of 22 and 35 years. There is some relationship between social status and attitudes and behaviour towards GBV. A study conducted in the United States in 2007 found that violence among adolescents and children remains a major public health problem (Cavanaugh, McGruber, McKinney, Massey & Groce 2010:757). Youth under the age of 18 years were involved in one out of eight violent crime arrests, one out of 10 murder arrests, and one out of four arrests for property crimes and weapons violations.

This study further found that the majority of the respondents' level of education was below matric. It was observed that the majority of the respondents were unemployed. In their study Mosavel, Ahmed and Simon (2011:327) found that there is an interconnection between GBV and poverty (that is, low-income households with limited employment opportunities, daily financial struggles, prevalence of crime, dysfunctional schooling systems, the absence of recreational facilities and the dangers associated with organic recreational spaces). From a public health perspective, the health effects of GBV cannot be underestimated.

In this regard, the issue of the socio-economic status of the community remains an issue in GBV. In their study, Lam et al (2012:777) found that medium-income families strongly emphasised the importance of employment and an adequate income to meet family needs, and conflicts over spending habits were clearly apparent. Considerable stress arises from financial constraints, sometimes as a barrier to social participation and sometimes as a barrier to aspirations,

particularly among children and teenagers. Many parents felt they have failed to provide for their family. In lower-income families financial constraints also generated conflict, but they differed in that there was less emphasis on income as a necessity for happiness (unlike the middle-income groups) and there was a focus on interactions as a source of happiness instead of money when the latter was limited (*Lam et al 2012:777*).

### **6.3.10. General awareness of the campaign**

From the results on the messages the respondents came across, this study found that the majority of the respondents never encountered messages on ending violence against women and children. This might be associated with the fact that the 16 Days of Activism Campaign on its own has run for a short period of time and there are no other complementary messages to reduce GBV in-between.

While in the first phase of this study, it was discovered that in most instances the perpetrators of women and children abuse are mainly males, the majority of the respondents (especially males) were unaware of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. Similarly, it would be important to ascertain whether these perpetrators are involved in this type of abuse because of lack of knowledge or not.

Another fact that confirmed respondents' awareness of the campaign was their knowledge of the communication channels. This study established that that the TV, radio and newspapers were the top three communication channels respondents used to access 16 Days of Activism Campaign messages. SABC 2, 1 and 3 were the three main TV channels the respondents got information on the 16 Days of Activism Campaign from. The majority of the respondents used the *Pretoria News* newspaper to get information, while Metro FM was the most preferred radio station in Soshanguve.

Concerning the main aims of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign, this study found that the majority of the respondents were of the view that the 16 Days of Activism Campaign's main aim

is to reduce violence against women and children. This confirms the fact that the respondents embraced and understood the aims of the campaign, but the challenge remained implementation where the need arises.

Regarding the causes of violence against women and children, it was established that the majority of the respondents were of the view that drug addiction, alcoholism, unemployment and poverty were the main causes of violence against women and children. In his study on violence and health, Macdonald (2002:293) found that there is overwhelming evidence that violence (in one form or another) is a major contributor to premature death, injury and disability across the globe. Personal (mainly one-to-one) violence such as homicide, attempted homicide and other non-fatal assaults places a global burden on health (Macdonal 2002:293). In his research Macdonald (2002:293) identified what he calls key triggers of violence”, including endemic exposure to violence, cultural acceptance, poor social skills, poverty, and drug and/or alcohol abuse.

Concerning the structures and/or institutions to contact if one is affected by GBV, this study found that the majority of the respondents viewed the South African Police Service, social services, and family and friends the three main structures/institutions to contact. Contrary to this study’s findings, Nyamwaya (2003:86) emphasise the role of NGOs and communities themselves in driving the strategy, which focuses on the process of enabling people to take control of their health through partnerships, networks, alliances and multicultural collaboration which has so far worked well in South Africa. This popular education can be used to support community members to develop faith in their own wisdom and community solidarity, which are essential prerequisites for group action to address basic inequities (Wiggins 2011:368). Furthermore, Jones and Barry (2011:408) highlight the importance of partnerships in achieving synergistic outcomes, which cannot be achieved by an individual or NGO working alone.

### **6.3.11. Evaluation of communication channels and strategies**

This section focused on the evaluation of the communication channels/strategies. As indicated above, this study found that most of the respondents strongly agreed with the view that radio and TV exposed them to the campaign. The majority of the respondents described the campaign as helpful and reliable, but not on time. This is linked to the fact that the campaign runs for a short period (16 days) and could make more of an impact in terms of awareness if it ran for a longer period. However, most of the respondents were very satisfied with the fact that messages about the campaign are relevant.

Regarding whether the campaign is successful, it was found that most of the respondents did not know whether the campaign was successful and this was followed by a considerable number of respondents who believed the campaign was successful.

In this regard, Nyawaya (2003:86) notes that there is a lack of indicators for measuring public health promotion effectiveness in Africa. It must be stated, however, that this challenge is not limited to the continent alone; lack of such indicators is a problem globally (Nyamwaya 2003:86). Also, interventions need to be longer. Making interventions longer gives the participants time to move through the developmental stages of empowerment and to move empowerment from the individual to the community level (Wiggins 2011:368).

This study found that through this campaign, some of the respondents were able to share information about GBV. This finding is consistent with previous research on chronic disease networks showing that information tends to be commonly shared between family members (Barnes, Maclean, & Couusen 2010:238).

On the government's programme of ending violence against women and children, this study found that most of the respondents thought the government did enough to educate people on GBV. In a previous study on public health communication in school contexts, Williams, Jones, Caputi and Iverson (2011:15) found that integrating public health communication initiatives in

schools' teaching and learning curriculum, and having community links, would go a long way in addressing GBV. It was also evident that the values of collectivism and community are important in the South African context as noted by Mosavel (2011:163). Because GBV touches the lives of people from diverse cultures, it requires a culturally-based approach. The different social and cultural contexts are critical for developing responses that are effective and make sense to the particular population (Bent-Goodley 2009:263).

Below is a list of recommendations which resulted from the gaps discovered in the research results presented above.

#### **6.4. RECOMMENDATIONS**

The following recommendations are made:

- While the official launch and closing of the campaign focus on areas where GBV is prevalent, the campaign should also be launched at the municipal level to enable people who are directly affected to have first-hand experience of it and to take advantage of word-of-mouth communication. It is therefore recommended that as much as it is mainly launched at a national level, it should be owned (through active participation) by the local community who are informed by the happenings and challenges in their neighbourhood.
- It was evident from both the participants and the respondents that the campaign should run for a longer period. This is because the more people are exposed to messages for a long time, the more they are able to remember and the greater the likelihood that they will act upon the messages. This is despite the fact that there is a national action plan which currently is not as visible as expected.
- Conducting this kind of research survey is part of awareness creation and also, in some way, assessing the impact of the campaign on the community. This therefore gives the government an opportunity to conduct this kind of research on a yearly basis and not only focusing on NGOs but at the grassroots level in the language the respondents can understand.

- This campaign might need to be assessed, firstly, on the basic education level as part of annual or bi-annual assessment to trace the growth of learners in terms of their awareness and the effect of the campaign in their lives. This is in line with the fact that it is advisable for learners to know about this campaign in order to curb the consequences of GBV when they get older.
- Both participants indicated that the campaign was under-resourced. However, it is evident that social crimes cannot be stopped in isolation; it is a multi-stakeholder campaign. Therefore, the government, its partners and the stakeholders must join hands against unemployment, drug abuse, alcoholism and greed – as they are the main causes of this social crime.
- There is no doubt that the TV and radio are among the main communication channels whereby the respondents received the messages of the campaign but, in line with the recommendation given above, this does not eliminate other communication channels since research has shown that they can increase impact. For example, at a local level, the government can use *Izimbizo* (the meeting where the president, ministers, premiers, MECs, mayors, councillors and other government officials interact face-to-face on particular matters affecting the community at a local/municipal level) to ensure women are not discriminated against in terms of property rights, inheritance rights, marriage and divorce laws, access to education, employment and healthcare. This is due to the fact that discrimination against women makes them vulnerable.
- While the results clearly show that the South African Police Service is the main point of contact for the victims of GBV, the government should strengthen victim support units at police stations. This will go a long way in helping at the secondary prevention level. Apart from this, the victims should be taught how to open proper and reliable cases at the police stations.
- At the tertiary prevention level, the government should consider providing appropriate treatment/rehabilitation for violent offenders; improving parent management strategies and child bonding techniques in families with violent children; providing adequate shelter for victims of domestic violence; providing training and strategies for health and social

care professionals in identifying and referring victims of family violence; and increasing the penalties for perpetrators of violent crime.

- The role of the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development cannot be undermined in this plight. This department should fast-track dealing with these social crimes so that matters can be laid to rest in a short space of time in order to reaffirm its commitment and confidence to the victims and the public in general. The national register for sexual offenders should be put in the spotlight to discourage people from participating in this kind of social crime.
- Noting the fact that the role of traditional leaders was not explored in this study, there should be a clear separation of powers between the judiciary and traditional courts since studies have shown cultural practices can be a tool to perpetrate these kinds of crimes.
- Develop expertise and technical knowledge of research methods at the local level, including survey design, techniques for interviewing about sensitive topics, and the analysis and interpretation of victimisation survey data. The questionnaires should be translated into a local language since the meanings of the questions could differ from language to language.

## **6.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The following limitations were identified for this study:

- Non-probability sampling in the form of convenience sampling was used as the sampling method. Consequently, the results were not representative of the entire population.
- The results of this study were only limited to the population of Soshanguve, and the specific blocks which were identified, and cannot be generalised anywhere else.
- This study relied on a relatively small, but statistically acceptable, sample due to budget and time constraints.

## **6.6. DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

The following recommendations can be made for future research:

- Cross-cultural comparisons of patterns on the age and socio-economic status of the perpetrators of GBV will help to clarify risk factors for incidence and also help to create much needed prevention and intervention programmes.
- The development of a South African instrument to harmonise awareness, attitudes and behavioural change in the form of a survey questionnaire.
- Community surveys should be complemented by focus groups and/or in-depth interviews to acquire reach and wide views.
- The possibility of highlighting GBV as an essential hindrance to education, health, housing and individual success.

## **6.7. CONCLUSION**

The research problem, the major research findings, and the link between research objectives and the main findings pertaining to the evaluation of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign were presented in this chapter. Recommendations for the campaign planners and implementers were presented, followed by the limitations of the study and possible directions for future research.

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# APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

**CONFIDENTIAL**



### **An evaluation of the Government Communication and Information System's communication strategy: a case study of 16 Days of Activism Campaign in Soshanguve**

<p><b>SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE 2012</b></p>
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#### **INTRODUCTION**

Good day, my name is..... I have been requested by James Hadji, a MSocSc (Communication) student at Fort Hare University (Alice Campus) to conduct this survey on his behalf. The aim of this research is to understand your views on the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign. The findings will help to improve the government's efforts to communicate with the public on this matter and to improve strategies used in addressing gender-based violence in South Africa.

Thank you for your willingness to participate in the survey. Please note that all the information you provide is confidential and will be used only for the purpose of this research.

## SECTION A: Demographic and general information

1. Indicate your gender.

*Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box.*

Male	1
Female	2

2. Indicate your marital status.

*Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box.*

Single	1
Married	2
Divorced	3
Co-habitation	4
Separated	5

3. What is your home language?

*Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box.*

Sepedi	1	Afrikaans	6
isiZulu	2	Xitsonga	7
isiXhosa	3	Siswati	8
Tshivenda	4	IsiNdebele	9
English	5	Other: Please specify	10

4. Indicate your age category.

*Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box.*

17 yrs–21 yrs	1
22 yrs–35 yrs	2
36 yrs and above	3

5. What is your highest level of education?

*Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box.*

Never been to school	1
Below matric	2
Matric	3
Post-matric certificate	4
Diploma/Degree	5

**6. What is your employment status?**

*Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box.*

Employed	1
Not employed	2
Retired	3
Self-employed	4

**SECTION B: General campaign awareness**

**7. Have you ever come across any message/s about non-violence against women and children?**

*Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box.*

Yes	1
No	2

**8. Are you aware of the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign?**

*Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box.*

Yes	1
No	2

**9. Where did you get the information on the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign? Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box(es).**

TV	1
Newspaper	2
Video recorder	3
Radio	4
Phone/Cell phone	5
Video games	6
Billboards	7
Social media	8
Other: Please specify .....	9

**10. If you answered YES to question 9, what do you think are the main aims of the campaign?**

*Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box.*

To reduce violence against women and children	1
To reduce violence against men	2
To give women and children more rights	3
Others: Please specify .....	4

**11.** Indicate which of the following factors listed below you consider to be the causes of violence against women and children? *Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box(es).*

Alcoholism	1
Drug addiction	2
Unemployment	3
Poverty	4
The media	5
Religious belief	6
Others: Please specify .....	7

**12.** Indicate which of the following structures/institutions you would contact in dealing with issues of women and children abuse. *Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box(es).*

Family and friends	1
The South African Police Service	2
Lawyers	3
Social Services	4
Charitable or voluntary	5
Hospitals and clinics	6
Religious organisations	7
The media	8

**SECTION C: Communication channels and strategies used in the campaign**

**13.** What are your preferred sources of information?

*Please mark only your five most preferred sources with an 'X' in the appropriate boxes.*

Radio	1
TV	2
Billboards	3
Newspapers	4
Magazines	5
Word-of-mouth	6
Books	7
School	8
Posters	9
Workplace	10
Internet	11
Other: Please specify .....	12

**14.** If you received information about the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign on the TV, please mark the appropriate channel(s) below. *Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box(es.)*

SABC1	1
SABC2	2
SABC3	3
ETV	4
DSTV	5
Other. Please specify	6
.....	.....

**15.** Which newspapers did you get messages in of the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign? *Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box(es).*

<i>Sowetan</i>	1
<i>Daily Sun</i>	2
<i>Sunday times</i>	3
<i>City Press</i>	4
<i>Mail &amp; Guardian</i>	5
<i>Citizen</i>	6
<i>Record</i>	7
<i>Pretoria News</i>	8
Other. Please specify	9
.....	

**16.** Which radio station/s did you get messages about the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign on? *Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box(es.)*

Thobela FM	1
Mtsweding FM	2
Phalaphala FM	3
Ikhozi FM	4
Iligwalagwala FM	5
Ikwewezi FM	6
Metro FM	7
5FM	8
TUT FM	9
Soshanguve FM Community radio	10
Impact Radio	11
Radio Sonder Grense FM	12
Others. Please specify	13
.....	

## SECTION D: Evaluation of communication channels and strategies

**17.** The following statements refer to the nature of the exposure to the messages about the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign. Indicate your opinion about each of these statements by marking the appropriate option (A–H) with a cross (X). *Mark only one scale point per statement with a cross (X). 5 = Strongly agree, 4 Agree, 3 Neutral, 2= Disagree, and 1= Strongly disagree.*

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
A	I used a radio to get more information about the campaign.	1	2	3	4	5
B	I got information about the campaign on the radio news.	1	2	3	4	5
C	TV adverts made me aware of the campaign.	1	2	3	4	5
D	I got exposed to the campaign through TV. News.	1	2	3	4	5
E	I received an SMS about the campaign.	1	2	3	4	5
F	Posters informed me about the campaign.	1	2	3	4	5
G	I read about the campaign in the newspapers.	1	2	3	4	5
H	I attended an event dealing with the campaign.	1	2	3	4	5

**18.** Listed below are pairs of descriptive words one could use to describe the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign. For each pair of descriptive words, choose the number of the scale that (in your opinion) best describes the campaign. Mark only one scale point per aspect. *5= Strongly agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly disagree. Mark only one option with an 'X' per word pair.*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	
Uninformed	1	2	3	4	5	Informative
Unfriendly	1	2	3	4	5	Friendly
Unhelpful	1	2	3	4	5	Helpful
Unreliable	1	2	3	4	5	Reliable
Ineffective	1	2	3	4	5	Effective
Late	1	2	3	4	5	On time
Unresponsive	1	2	3	4	5	Responsive

**19.** Think of the messages you come across about the 16 Days of Activism Campaign. Please indicate your level of satisfaction with these messages by marking the appropriate options in relation to each of the dimensions (A–E) below, with an (X). Mark only one scale point per aspect. *1 = very dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = neutral, 4 = satisfied, and 5= very satisfied.*

		Very dissatisfied	Dis-satisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
<b>A</b>	Accuracy of the messages	1	2	3	4	5
<b>B</b>	Relevance of the messages	1	2	3	4	5
<b>C</b>	Amount of messages received	1	2	3	4	5
<b>D</b>	Language used in the message	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E</b>	Frequency/Timelines of the messages received	1	2	3	4	5

**20.** Do you think that the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign is achieving its aim?

*Please mark with an 'X' in the appropriate box (s)*

Yes	1
No	2
Don't know	3

**21.** To what extent has the 16 Days of Activism for No Violence Against Women and Children Campaign affected you?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

**22.** Do you think the government is doing enough to educate people on gender-based violence?

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.....

.....

**Thank you!!!**

## APPENDIX B: IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDE

Designation: \_\_\_\_\_

Place: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Time: \_\_\_\_\_

The purpose of this in-depth interview is, firstly, to establish the promotion strategies used in the 16 Days of Activism Campaign and, secondly, to determine the evaluation techniques used to assess this campaign. The interactions in this interview are going to be audio recorded, so that the researcher will be able to refer back to the tape in case there are questions. The information gathered will be used for the purpose of the research and the answers and participants' names shall remain confidential. This interview will last for a maximum of 90 minutes.

### Questions

1. What is the background of the 16 Days of Activism Campaign?
2. What are the communication objectives of the campaign?
3. Who is the target audience?
4. What are the key messages of the campaign?
5. Who are the messengers of the campaign?
6. What are the promotional strategies and why do you use them?
7. How do you evaluate the campaign?
8. What are your views on the impact of the campaign?

## APPENDIX C: PILOT STUDY

The following are some of the issues which the respondents raised with regard to this research questionnaire:

In SECTION A (Demographic and general information), question 4 had to be changed due to a typing error from “36 years above” to “36 years and above”. On the same question, some of the respondents wanted to know the rationale behind their selection (beginning from 17 years) and the researcher indicated that the objective was to cover the students who would have completed matric or were in matric. Furthermore, the researcher indicated that in South Africa a person between the ages of 17 and 21 is expected to be in matric and/or busy with his/her higher education qualification. Above all, there is no need to obtain the parental and or guardian’s consent for people 17 years and older to participate in a research study.

Another typing error was that instead of “22 yrs–35 yrs”, the questionnaire read “21 yrs –35 yrs”. This was corrected accordingly. Some respondents had a problem with question 6 regarding their employment status and they suggested that a person who is self-employed was excluded from the categories. This was corrected by adding an option “Self-employed” in the questionnaire.

In SECTION B (General campaign awareness) question 10 referred to (conditional) Question 8, which was mistakenly referred to as Question 9 and it was corrected. Also, Questions 12 required the respondents to indicate the institutions they would contact that deal with issues of women and child abuse. One of the options was “Family and friends”, which led to the question being changed to include “structures/institutions”.

Some respondents indicated that question 13 of SECTION C would not give the researcher what he intended to achieve and they suggested that it should be changed. The researcher changed it to: “What are your preferred sources of information? Please mark only the five most preferred sources with an ‘X’ in the appropriate box(es)”.

SECTION D had questions 17, 18 and 19 in the form of a Likert-style rating scale. This rating scale was used as the measuring instrument because opinion data was required for analysis and Likert rating scales provide a suitable measure. Likert rating scales range from four-point to seven-point scales. Saunders et al (2007:373) mention that respondents, with reference to telephone surveys, find it difficult to discern values between ratings against scales in excess of five points. They also point out that five-point scales are commonly used in research. In view of these findings, an adapted five-point Likert-style rating scale was used to collect data, although a higher point scale would have offered greater opportunity for data variation as indicated in the copy of Table 4.3 below. Restriction to five points is postulated to minimise the chance of jeopardising the integrity of the data through respondent errors, bearing in mind the earlier comment that the respondents could find it difficult to distinguish between scales with more than five points. The reliability of the data was dependent on the respondents' ability to cope with the questionnaire, interpret it and answer it.

*Table: Nature of the exposure to the messages*

		<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
A	I used a radio to get more information about the campaign.	1	2	3	4	5

The instrument retained the same order of response categories to minimise confusion among respondents (Saunders et al 2007:372). Furthermore, items in the questionnaire were arranged in a logical flow for the respondents (Saunders et al 2007:379). During the pilot study, the respondents suggested that question 17 should be added with an explanation of what each numeric value stands for. This was captured and the new question was added with the following instruction: "Mark only one scale point per statement with a cross 'X', where 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral, 2 = disagree and 1 = strongly disagree."

Question 18 had two negative variables and had to be changed because some of the respondents indicated that the variables were contrary to the instructions, which also had to be changed if the

variables were to be left unchanged as indicated in the table below.

*Table: Descriptive words one would use to describe the 16 Days of Activism Campaign*

	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>	
Uninformative	1	2	3	4	5	Informative

Lastly, the intention of question 22 was to get an open-ended answer. However, some respondents felt that it had to be rephrased to capture the essence of the explanation. This question was left as it was because the researcher was of the view that it would depend on the respondent's ability and time to complete, but a close-ended answer would also extract what he wanted to achieve.