



The Good Practice Guide

An initiative of the National Community Awareness Advisory Group to the National Emergency Management Committee

Compiled by Emergency Management Australia in conjunction with State and Territory emergency management organisations

© Commonwealth of Australia 2000

Published March 2000

ISBN 0-642-51862-9

The Good Practice Guide has been compiled and published by Emergency Management Australia (EMA) following a recommendation of the Australian Coordination Committee for the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction (IDNDR)

EMA's mission is *To reduce the impact of disasters and emergencies on Australia and its region*. It supports a national community awareness and education program, which in turn relies on planning and implementation at the local community level, and is supported by State and Territory emergency management organisations

Contents

Foreword 5

1. Introduction 7

What this Guide is about, and how to use it

2. But it couldn't happen here, could it? 9

One reason why people don't always pay attention
and what you can do about it

3. Planning a communication campaign: how to get it right 12

Communication kept simple, eight steps to success...

1. Define the target audience's	12
2. Find out what the target audience's want and need	13
3. Fix the message	14
4. Set measurable objectives	15
5. Work out tactics	15
6. Marshall support	15
7. Implement	15
8. Evaluate	16

4. Evaluation: measuring performance 17

The manager's nightmare:
how do you know you are doing a good job?

Measuring outputs	17
Measuring outcomes	18
Selecting sample sizes and developing a methodology	19
Recording and communicating the results	19
Finding further information	19

5. Tactics: your choice 20

Practical advice on different tactics

Comprehensive campaigns us many tactics	20
Print and electronic publications	21
Brochures, booklets and posters	21

Flyers	22
Letterboxing and mailouts	22
Inserts in newsletters and newspapers	23
Advertising	23
Using the Internet, CDs and other new technology	23
Give-aways	24
Face-to-face communication	25
Doorknocking and street meetings	25
Shopping centre displays	26
Displays at agricultural field days, trade shows	27
Special events	27
Active community participation	28
Education	29
Targeting schools for long-term change	29
Life-long learning	30
Co-operation with other community members and organisations	30

6. Working with the media 32

Where the media fit in the community education picture; how to get the media on-side and involved; five rules for successful media liaison

Rule 1. Identify every medium operating in your area	33
Rule 2. Find out what those media outlets want and need	33
Rule 3. Choose the 'right' method	33
Rule 4. Appoint a media liaison officer or spokesperson	35
Rule 5. Look for a partner	34
Examples of strategies	35

7. Partners and sponsors 36

How to get money from sponsors and what they expect in return

Partnership experiences	37
--------------------------------	-----------

8. Working with the community 39

Working with communities to change behaviour and improve hazard awareness

9. Information sources 40

Foreword

This *Good Practice Guide* aims at improving the way organisations communicate with the community on disaster awareness and education

It is not the definitive communication 'how to' for organisations, but rather it is a guide — a description of good practice across Australia — and general advice on communication which draws on that good practice. It is a starting point for organisations looking for new ideas and better ways to communicate in the context of disaster awareness and education

I recommend that you use this *Good Practice Guide* as the foundation to build your own collection of experience. It already reflects the best practice in emergency management communication and has been developed by EMA in cooperation with all State and Territory emergency management organisations

The *Good Practice Guide* is designed to help solve your communication problems, provide some solutions and spark some new ideas and approaches. It is a practical and useful tool, which I believe will help you in planning and implementing awareness and education programs at the local level



Alan Hodges AM
Director General
Emergency Management Australia

Introduction

What this Guide is about, and how to use it

The Community Awareness and Education in Emergency Management Good Practice Guide has been prepared to assist people and organisations in Australia with planning and carrying out community awareness and education campaigns and projects in emergency management.

Implementing successful behaviour change programs requires good research, understanding of your message and the media that will carry it, and most importantly, understanding of the groups you wish to influence, and how you may best support them as they change their behaviour. This publication suggests why some campaigns succeed, some fail, and others produce unexpected results. It provides advice that may help your group's program succeed.

Target audiences for this guide include: State Emergency Services; fire authorities; police; human service agencies; local government bodies; Rotary International; Country Women's Association; school parent organisations; resident groups; and any other community organisation that shares a responsibility for, or a commitment to, reducing loss of life, property damage and social, environmental and economic disruption caused by hazards.

This guide is not intended as a complete and detailed 'how to' manual to be applied universally. Rather, it sets out principles, directions, plans and ideas that can be modified and adapted to suit local communities in Australia.

While the community can be effectively involved across the entire prevention, preparedness, response and recovery spectrum, this guide focuses primarily on pre-event activities. It deals mostly with awareness messages that are less urgent and that must compete with other important community service messages and commercial advertising arriving via many different sources.

Everyone involved in emergency management knows that an aware and well-prepared community can reduce the impact of any disaster. It is important that the community – the people affected or potentially involved in emergencies or disasters – behave in certain ways to help themselves before, during and after hazard events. There may be no emergency worker at the scene of an incident, or arrival may be delayed, and people must act to help themselves or others.

With a little planning or preparation, people may also be able to deal more effectively with the uncertainty of an emergency.

Response activities, in contrast, demand urgent communications such as alerts, warnings, and safety advice delivered in real time, using appropriate media. The goal is to engender speedy action in response to dealing with an immediate threat. Separate EMA publications include information on communications in the event of evacuation coordination, flood warning broadcasts and other response activities. Refer to the EMA Homepage for details (<http://www.ema.gov.au>).

In recovery, communications should be tailored to suit the affected community with a clear understanding of the psychological and social aspects of recovery and the community's participation, rights and entitlements. Specific information about recovery information management is included in the *Australian Emergency Manual – Disaster Recovery* (EMA 1996).

Often well-intentioned emergency awareness programs fail, especially in the area of achieving **behaviour change** in the target group. There are many reasons for this. It is often claimed that the public is just too apathetic to be concerned, or that people don't act in their own best interests, which

can be particularly frustrating for action-oriented emergency service workers

Working with the community is an essential part of emergency risk management, where risks are assessed and treated to reduce community vulnerability and increase resilience

The Good Practice Guide aims to help people and organisations work more effectively with the community. It includes practical advice on planning and implementing community behaviour change campaigns and programs. It has a collection of good ideas on community involvement in emergency management.

The important message is that, in a communication sense, one solution does not fit every situation. Each communication act must be tailored to the needs and expectations of the groups and audience that make up the community. *The Good Practice Guide* is the pattern for the garment, not the garment itself.

2. But it couldn't happen here, could it?

One of the biggest barriers to convincing people to take action to prepare for disasters, such as fires, floods, earthquakes, storms and cyclones, is that many believe the disaster will not happen to them. The simple message for the community is 'it can happen to you'. The challenge is to make this message as relevant and localised as possible. However, providing information and raising awareness are only the first step towards helping a community to take action to reduce risk. Cultural, social and economic barriers to behavioural change must also be taken into account when devising a campaign.

One reason why people don't always pay attention and what you can do about it

April 1999, for example, killed one person, injured another 50, affected 130 000, and caused \$2.2 billion in damage

Like other developed countries, Australia is also vulnerable to such technological and human-caused hazards as chemical spills, explosions, industrial fires, and air and water contamination. In 1998 gas fires in Victoria claimed two lives and cut off the supply of gas to Melbourne for two weeks. In Sydney, water supply contamination made Sydney water undrinkable for weeks. Both events are reminders of how vulnerable we are to disruptions to essential services.

Despite more effective prevention, preparedness and response and recovery strategies being adopted, this does not mean that the threat of natural disaster is diminishing. A tsunami like that which devastated the northern coast of Papua New Guinea in July 1998 could roll in from the Indian Ocean and strike the north-west coast of Australia. *Cyclone Tracy* almost destroyed Darwin in the Northern Territory in 1974, and *Cyclone Vance* caused massive destruction to Exmouth in Western Australia in March 1999. Similar cyclones could be repeated almost anywhere in Australia's tropical north. The *Ash Wednesday* bushfires in Victoria and South Australia in 1983 could happen again each summer, and the floods like those in Townsville in north Queensland and Katherine in the Northern Territory in 1998 will almost certainly be repeated in other centres at other times.

Major cities such as Adelaide, Perth and Newcastle are in earthquake-prone zones. Most of Australia's most popular resorts and tourist

One great communication tradition is to make assumptions about what the community (or the audience) already knows and what it wants. Brochures are produced, public meetings organised and letters written, but the community may not be listening and not acting on advice given. The usual reason is that people believe that the message is irrelevant to their lives at that time.

With smoke on the horizon, temperatures in the high 30s and strong winds blowing, it is easier to attract people's attention with a message about bushfire preparedness. The same message seems less relevant in mid-winter when there is frost on the ground and the temperature is below zero. Similarly, in a drought-stricken rural area the threat of flood appears remote to most people, although the reality is that drought-breaking rains often cause flooding.

Australia is vulnerable to natural hazards. While bushfires, cyclones, floods and severe storms occur frequently, hazards such as earthquakes and landslides occur less frequently but may be equally devastating. The Sydney hailstorm in

destinations are in the cyclone belt. Many inland towns and cities are built on floodplains.

Half a million people in Australia are affected every year by natural disasters. The estimated annual average damage bill over the last 25 years is \$1.25 billion. In fact, the cost of major natural disasters to the Australian community during 1998 and 1999 escalated to \$4.5 million. In the wake of each disaster, businesses fold, jobs are lost and local economies may take years to recover.

Although improved emergency management capabilities have helped to reduce the potential numbers of casualties caused by recent events, community risk from disasters is growing with the increasing value of community assets and population movement into hazard-prone areas.

While Australians construct larger and taller buildings, travel faster and become more reliant on interdependent technology, the risk of major catastrophes actually increases. Communities live with greater technological and environmental risk as industrialisation requires the production, transport and storage of greater amounts of hazardous materials. Despite improvements in safety precautions, technology is actually stretching the capacity of building materials to the limit.

Australians often change location. People move from the country to the city, and from one State to another. Every year many leave home to holiday in different parts of Australia, which means they face different and unfamiliar hazards in new areas. Sometimes these new hazards are recognised, more usually they are not.

Community discussions of disaster awareness in Queensland provided one insight into the problem. They suggested that 'southerners' who come to live in North Queensland recognise more acutely the threat of cyclones than do the locals. To new residents a cyclone represents a new threat to lives and property, one that did not

exist in their former environment, and of which they are much more aware.

How can such points translate into information that can be used in community education and awareness campaigns? The best technique is to localise the information — to localise the hazard threat.

Emergency management communications should be integrated into the local risk reduction strategy that could cover a wide range of elements and hazards. Local projects could perhaps be undertaken by a consortium of agencies, rather than individually.

High-risk industries may have legal and political incentives to be actively involved in making vulnerable communities aware that they are in possible danger and in supporting the community in dealing with risk. Sensitivities may arise where a major hazard is connected to local employment or the regional economy, such as a petrochemical plant, or where local authorities refuse to approve developments in hazard-prone areas.

Often the best way to convince people of the likelihood of a disaster (and the need to prepare for it) is to remind them that it has happened before. Local historical society records, the local newspaper library or long-time residents provide evidence of past threats and disasters histories, which can be used to demonstrate that disasters can (and do) happen in every part of Australia.

In the New South Wales (NSW) Hunter Valley, the Hunter Catchment Management Trust in partnership with other organisations, including the NSW State Emergency Service (SES), mounted a community education program based on the 40th anniversary of the Great Hunter Valley Flood of 1955. That campaign demonstrated the effectiveness of encouraging the community to assess and act on preparedness messages, based on the understanding of an earlier disaster.

Use all possible events and occurrences to make the subject relevant. The first day of summer (fires), the first heavy rains (floods), an earthquake, landslide, cyclone or violent storm in another area, even overseas, each increases subject relevance. The message is that *'it can happen here'*

Campaigns in drugs, alcohol and health areas use the same principle – establishing that *'it can happen to you'*. Television campaigns, for example, feature people in their target audience. young drinkers and drivers, women in the age groups threatened by breast cancer and osteoporosis, and children's long-term health threatened by measles

Challenging the belief that *'the emergency services will do it all for me'* requires us to consider whether this will reduce people's confidence in public safety arrangements in general and in emergency response agencies in particular. Emergency agencies may need to reposition themselves from 'authorities' to facilitators and supporters of the community's own safety actions, backed up with resources and training to deal with certain elements of emergencies when necessary

We need to remember that information does not necessarily lead to action and behaviour change. Once people are aware of a risk, they will not necessarily act on that increased awareness in ways that we may consider to be in their own best interest. Other factors relating to their personalities, resources/capacity to act and social endorsement of their behaviour must be taken into account when devising a campaign.

3. Planning a community campaign: how to get it right, how to avoid the pitfalls

A major challenge in planning an awareness campaign is to identify people and areas at risk. It is important that you clearly define your priority target audiences — the groups you most want to reach, the messages you wish to communicate and the actions you want the groups to undertake.

The community is likely to encompass a diverse range of socio-economic groups, networks, education levels, experience and ages, from the very young and the very old. Factors such as these will influence the capability of individuals, groups and the community as a whole to deal with hazards expected to affect them.

Your target audiences will also include many different sub-groups of people with special emergency management or communications needs, such as people with visual and hearing impairments, limited mobility, carer responsibilities and non-English speaking backgrounds.

Communication kept simple, your steps to success

In planning your campaign, you will need to know what you want to achieve and to be able to recognise whether you have been successful. Ask yourself:

- What will people be doing differently from now and how will we know?
- What benefit will people get from the new behaviour and how will they know?
- How can we encourage the community to sustain the new behaviour/s over the long-term?

Step 1. Define the target audience/s

You should plan to communicate with all the relevant vulnerable groups identified through your local emergency risk assessment process. You may even be legally bound to ensure that information is readily accessible by all members of the community

Which groups are you trying to reach? People aged over 60 without access to a car? Families with young children living in country towns? Recently-arrived immigrants? People living on a floodplain? Homes backing onto bushland? Remote communities that may be isolated for long periods?

Community groups and local government councils are good sources of information on the make-up of local communities. The Social Atlas series produced by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) is another information tool, breaking down the composition of the population (jobs, age, income, ethnic background, etc) into statistical areas as small as 10 suburban blocks (see Section 9 'Information sources' for details on how to obtain the Social Atlas and other statistical information)

Another way to define the target audience is to 'map' its community organisations, describing their memberships and their reach into the community. The organisations and their members may become your target audience. You may find, for example, that you can reach 80 per cent of people over 55 (if they are your defined audience) through senior citizen clubs, bowls clubs, licensed clubs and 'seniors card' commercial networks.

Step 2. Find out what the target audience/s want and need

Work out what your target audience expects, what it knows, and what it does not know. That information is available through community representatives. Informal discussion with, say, members of the local Apex or Rotary clubs, or senior citizen and youth clubs, may provide a clear picture of community knowledge and understanding of the issues to be raised in the campaign.

Setting-out where people can obtain information and knowing how they want it delivered are critical to a campaign's success. Discussions might show that a local newspaper is the most credible local source, and that most people look to it for advice as well as information. Or maybe word-of-mouth or the local weekend bowls or tennis club is the source of most information for the target audience.

The picture of what the community knows and needs becomes baseline information to use for comparison later in the campaign. It might show, for example, that most households do not have an emergency evacuation kit and have little idea what should be in such a kit.

If emergency evacuation kits are the point of the campaign, its effectiveness can be measured by asking people again — after the campaign — about the kits. The next section (Section 4, 'Evaluation, measuring performance') explains how to conduct an evaluation.

To collect the required information you may need to telephone a sample of people across the target audience. You could perhaps use volunteers or local university or TAFE students to conduct the research. Chambers of Commerce, community information centres, sporting clubs and residents groups are often willing to carry questionnaire sheets in their newsletters. Often your request for help in understanding community wants and needs will get a helpful response.

The information collected is useful in the campaign itself. Spokespersons for the campaign are able to talk publicly and authoritatively about the problem (for example, that too few people have emergency kits).

How much research is enough? Most research for community campaigns is qualitative — gathering impressions, attitudes, pointers to levels of knowledge and awareness.

On that basis, interviewing 50 members of an Apex club may provide an accurate fix on attitudes and levels of knowledge of 500 people in similar age and socioeconomic groups. The opinions of 10 people over 60 years of age each representing different socioeconomic groups may give a reasonable indication of how a population of 1000 people over 60 think about disaster awareness.

In the main, the most efficient way to gather information is to rely on representative groups (women's groups, business clubs, ethnic community groups, associations of disabled people, sporting clubs, service clubs, etc) These organisations speak for the many different sections of the community, and their combined voice is likely to give a reasonably clear picture of community needs

Research into community attitudes, knowledge and needs can be conducted with a focus group of 10 people, through a questionnaire distributed to 30 000 households, by a telephone survey of 1000 households, or a combination at different scales

The research falls into two categories:

- qualitative research, which collects ideas and reflects how people think and feel about the topic, and
- quantitative research, which provides a 'number picture' of how many people share a particular attitude or belief or behaviour.

Focus group discussions and one-to-one discussions with community organisations are qualitative research. While they provide accurate pointers to the way a community thinks and feels about the topic, because of their small sample size (10 people in a focus group, or 10 community leaders) they do not represent a statistically valid sample of the whole community

Quantitative research, on the other hand, can be statistically valid because the sample is larger (often 20 per cent of the population), and respondents are chosen at random (so the sample represents the population) The results are expressed as numbers, and the validity of the sample is always expressed as a number or a statement of statistical reliability

Rather than random sampling, qualitative research often uses quota sampling, where respondents represent all the characteristics of

the population being studied. In the quota sample there might be a specific proportion of men and women, teenagers and over-55s, car-owners and single parents

If the aim of a campaign is to persuade people over 55 years of age to purchase emergency evacuation kits, the research might compare this way

- three focus groups of 10 people, each over 55, identify the barriers to people over 55 years of age buying emergency kits, and also what they believe to be the uses and the value of the kit. It captures what they know about the kits and how important they believe them to be, and who in a household makes the decision to buy a kit. It provides general pointers to what is considered a reasonable or prohibitive cost for a kit, and
- quantitative research of a randomly selected 1000 households finds people over 55 and totals those who have kits, those who do not have kits, those who intend to buy one, and at what price they would buy one. It provides a numerical definition of the market for the kits, and predicts buying behaviour

A list of references to help decide which research methodology best suits a particular campaign is included in Section 9, 'Information sources'. The references explain in more detail the differences between methodologies, and discuss sample sizes

Step 3. Fix the message

At this stage you know to whom you're addressing the campaign, and what they want. Work out exactly what you want to say. There is a limit to how much information you can impart. The main message must be simple, understandable and actionable, precise and clear. Try to capture it in two sentences, for example, 'Cyclones can kill. You need to know how to protect yourself this cyclone season'

Additional information provided must be directly connected to the message. For example, if your message is the one above on cyclones, provide information on how people can protect themselves during the cyclone season, or tell people where they can get that information.

Step 4. Set measurable objectives

Managers of communication campaigns cannot know whether their communication efforts are successful unless there is an objective that can be measured. That objective should be an outcome, not just an output. For example, if the objective is not to produce 5000 flood brochures before April (an output), but to improve knowledge of the flood threat in a specific area, the brochures are a communication output of the program; changes in knowledge, attitude, understanding and behaviour are the communication outcome.

A campaign objective may be to influence behaviour, but the only way to measure change is to observe behaviour at the incident against behaviour beforehand. If the campaign aims to encourage people to assemble an emergency kit (transistor radio, torch, medicines, etc) then the only way to measure its success is to look at the result. How many people had a kit before the campaign? How many now have one ready after the campaign?

Step 5. Work out tactics

Consultation with the target audience provides general guidance to the most effective tactics to deliver the message to it. Individuals will have told you where they look for information on natural hazards. Consider providing printed publications, a web page, videotapes, posters, advertising and community service announcements, newsletters, community meetings, cartoons, comics and displays at shows, exhibitions, and using the media. Overall, deciding which tactics to use is limited only by your imagination and resources.

Usually the prime consideration in adopting particular tactics is cost, but a low level of funding can be the stimulus for developing smarter tactics. Emergency services often rely on clever low-cost partnerships with other organisations such as local councils and service clubs to take messages into the community. Part of the tactical development must be to ensure that you have the resources to deliver the strategy (see Section 5, 'Tactics your choice' for further advice).

Step 6. Marshall support

Every campaign needs support. It may be financial support, human resources, and/or management policy. When planning a campaign, it is important firstly to identify and secondly to formalise the support required. This process may involve earning an allocation of campaign funds from an organisation's budget, or convincing an organisation's Chief Executive Officer to endorse and recommend the campaign to stakeholders.

It may mean ensuring that staff and volunteers are available at specific times and places to implement the campaign, and convincing community groups to support the campaign through cash donations and volunteer labour. It may also be necessary to convince a sponsor to provide equipment or the use of premises.

Identifying and guaranteeing support is an important outcome – without it, the campaign will not happen. Activating support comes in the implementation stage of the campaign as outlined in Step 7.

Step 7. Implement

Often the best-planned tactics fail at implementation stage because resources dry up or enthusiasm wanes. People are not available to staff a display at a shopping centre, or no one is free to take up the invitation of the residents' association to speak at its annual general meeting.

Failure is especially likely if implementation rests with only one or two key people. Unless colleagues and the organisation's senior management are committed to the program, it may fold if key people become unavailable or leave, or are simply 'burned out'.

Problems also arise at the delivery phase — brochures and posters may be dropped off at libraries and community information centres, but there are no follow-up calls and/or visits to ensure that the material is being displayed and used.

The implementation phase requires an action timetable that sets out what needs to be done, when the activities need to happen, and who is going to be responsible for them.

Step 8. Evaluate

Just as a pinch of prevention is worth a tonne of cure, a small scale evaluation of your communication campaign will pay big dividends in planning your next campaign. The evaluation will measure whether you reached your objective.

How to conduct an evaluation is discussed in the Section 4 Evaluation measuring performance.

4. Evaluation: measuring performance

While assessing the effectiveness of communication programs can be difficult, the evaluation and performance measurement of such programs is being increasingly recognised by managers and community leaders as critical in terms of accountability and continuous improvement. Without an evaluation or some form of evidence of meeting or moving towards the identified objectives, it is hard to convince senior managers and sponsors of the value and need for ongoing or increased resources and other support.

Tools and methodologies for program evaluation are now more readily available to assist and guide program managers in this challenging task, but adequate resources need to be allocated to enable a quality evaluation to be undertaken. Campaign outputs may be relatively easy to measure: number of brochures produced, amount of media coverage, number of people who attended meetings or visited displays. The measurement of outcomes is more complex and requires more effort and forethought: what happened as a result of your campaign and to what extent did this contribute to meeting emergency management objectives through raised awareness and behavioural change? Information may need to be gathered before, during and after program implementation to facilitate comparisons and analysis.

The manager's nightmare: how do you know you are doing a good job?

Measuring outputs

For example, a campaign that aims to improve household safety from house fires through the installation of smoke detectors, might measure its success by comparing the number of smoke detectors installed before, during and after the campaign in the short-term or the reduction in deaths as a result of house fires over a longer time frame

In an evaluation, campaign outputs can be recorded and compared with the original plan, output objectives and the reach of the campaign. Such outputs might include news releases, brochures, media advertising, seminars and community meetings, flyers, school visits, household doorknocks, and visits by fire service personnel. Quantifiable information should be available about these outputs, such as the number of telephone calls made or answered, letters received, and meetings attended. This process will allow questions to be asked about why not all the brochures were distributed, or why the advertising schedule was curtailed or extended. Output information may be requested by sponsors wanting to know, for example, that the 5000 brochures carrying their logo were delivered to households in particular suburbs.

Media response can be measured as an output — the number of articles that appear in print, the number of television and radio stories, the number of times your community service announcement goes to air. All can be

categorised as favourable or unfavourable and provide a conclusion about media coverage

It is important to recognise that, while a favourable article might have appeared in a local newspaper, it may not have influenced readers to adopt the behaviour change that is the campaign objective (eg to install a smoke detector) However, continued positive media coverage helps condition readers to take that behavioural step

Measuring outcomes

Measuring outcomes is measuring what happened as a result of all the media coverage, all the meetings and doorknocks, and all the advertising

It is a measurement of behaviour — what people have done or plan to do — a measurement of levels of knowledge about the topic, and a measurement of how many people actually received the message.

If the campaign is about convincing drivers to stop for a break after two hours on the road, then a real outcome measurement is whether a sample of drivers actually stopped for that break Another outcome measurement may be whether they received the message — saw the sign, heard the radio advertisements, read the printed article — and whether they understood it

Measurement of outcome might be made through a telephone survey of households to ask about the take-up of information It could be through community meetings of service clubs and sporting groups (many of the same groups are included in the research phase, Section 3, Step 3)

It can be through tallying responses to invitations and responses to tear-off slips on advertisements or flyers EMA, for example, on behalf of the States and Territories, places television community service advertisements on natural hazards Each carries a call to action for viewers to telephone their local State or Territory emergency service

organisation One measurement of the outcome of those advertisements is how many telephone calls the State Emergency Service office receives as a result

The best way to measure the outcome of your campaign is to ask people (members of the target audience) how they reacted to it. There are five essential questions.

Question 1 Did you see or hear the campaign material? (The answers give an indication of message penetration, of how successful you were at getting the message in front of people.)

Question 2 What did it tell you about? (The answer, for example, 'floods', will indicate whether the message you generated was the same as the message understood by the recipient)

Question 3 Did you do anything as a result of seeing the campaign material? If so, why did you? If not, once again, why didn't you? (This will indicate whether the campaign has influenced behaviour.)

Question 4 Do you plan to do anything as a result of seeing the campaign? If so, why did you? If not, once again, why didn't you? (Have you planted a trigger for future action?)

Question 5 Now that you've thought about or acted on this subject (eg the threat of flooding), what other information or assistance do you require and how would you like it delivered? (The response tells you not only what is needed and how it should be delivered, but defines what was missing in the campaign material)

The problem of sourcing adequate resources for research and evaluation can sometimes be solved by using outside bodies to provide labour Retired people, university students, TAFE and Year 12 students, service club members, interns, work experience people, and disabled people's commercial collectives all offer a source of free or

low-cost labour to tackle research and evaluation tasks. A telephone survey of say 200 households in a regional centre of 15 000 people would cost less than \$200 for the telephone calls and take one person about a week to complete. On the other hand, 10 (Year 12) students could do it in less than a day, though compilation and analysis of the results might take several more days.

Quality control, as an element of good management, is important in evaluation. Training interviewers is critical to successful evaluation. They must be well briefed and understand both the questions and the context of the evaluation. They should be prepared to answer questions about the organisation and the campaign, and to be able to respond to requests for more information. Evaluation questions should be pre-tested on people in the community beforehand to ensure that they are clear and unambiguous, and that responses will fall into predetermined categories. The interviewers represent the campaign and the organisation responsible for it.

Selecting sample sizes and developing a methodology

The same questions of sample sizes apply in the evaluation process. Appropriate sample sizes and methodology can be found by closely examining the target audience.

For example, if the campaign concentrated on shopping centres with displays, demonstrations and brochure handouts, the place to evaluate the impact of the campaign may be the shopping centre. Four well trained volunteers at exits to the shopping centre could use a 'tick the box' questionnaire to ask shoppers about their responses to the display. They might continue for several hours — and the number of shoppers they talk to makes up the sample.

If, on the other hand, your campaign concentrated on the business community, a five-question telephone survey of a sample of

business people during office hours will give an equally credible result.

In methodology terms, quantitative research is generally most suited to evaluation. A telephone survey, a face-to-face clipboard survey, or a mailed questionnaire will give better numerical results than focus group discussions.

Recording and communicating the results

When you have implemented and evaluated your campaign, it is important to record evaluation results so that other people in your organisation can use them in future campaigns. The evaluation is also useful in convincing sponsors, funding agencies and the community itself of the value (or otherwise) of the campaign.

You may also consider sharing your results, whatever they are, to a wider audience through word of mouth, reports and via publications such as journals and newsletters. In this way, others can learn from your successes, failures and your very valuable experiences.

Finding further information

Section 9 lists details of two publications helpful in questions of sample size and statistical reliability: *Listen and Learn*, and *Survey Research for Managers*.