

CHAPTER 3

The Campaign—Step 1

Early Planning

INTRODUCTION

Successful emergency preparedness campaigns require adequate planning, staffing, and funding, and must be based upon a comprehensive understanding of the target audience. Far too many efforts have failed as a result of a single major flaw in design: an overlooked cultural taboo, a budget that fell short of actual costs, a lack of community support, or an unreceptive audience.

However daunting these requirements may seem, project failure is rarely inevitable. By subscribing to a regimented planning and project management framework, like the one suggested in this text, program planners can ensure that their message coverage and program outcomes are maximized. Well-laid plans, initiated in the earliest stages of the campaign, allow for the flexibilities often needed when variables and assumptions shift, thereby helping the project team to work efficiently through problems as they arise. The adage, “failing to plan is planning to fail” certainly rings true in the realm of communication campaigns. Moreover, although adequate project planning may seem overwhelming at first, there are always ways to make it happen. The NIH writes that:

Making health communication programs work requires planning, but planning need not be a long-term, time-consuming activity. Nor should all the activities [be conducted all at once], before any other actions are taken. Planning is easiest and best done bit by bit—related to and just in time for the programmatic tasks it governs. For example, you need certain kinds of information about the intended audiences in order to define them, select them, and set objectives. You need different information to guide message development; gather each type as you need it. (National Cancer Institute 2004)

Proper planning can be the dividing factor between an organization that succeeds in influencing peoples' behavior and another that churns out unread brochures. At the project outset, the planning process may take time, but over the course of the campaign, it will ultimately save time by providing much-needed focus and direction, setting the project on an attainable course. Planning should be considered important for all of the following reasons and more:

- It helps you to better understand the hazards and the associated risk.
- It delineates the role your organization is best suited to play in targeting those hazard risks.
- It helps you to better understand who your audience is, why they are at risk, what they know and do not know about their risk, what they can and cannot do to change their risk, and how they learn about risk.
- It helps you to identify solutions that have a high chance of effecting behavioral change.
- It helps you to determine what you will say, how you will say it, and who will do the talking.
- It helps you to manage your project, prioritize tasks, assign individual roles and responsibilities, and budget the funds required to complete the project.
- It helps you to identify obstacles before they derail your successes.

Chapter 3 through Chapter 6 will present and explain an easy-to-follow structure by which emergency preparedness education campaigns may be planned, conducted, and assessed. Chapter 3 describes the early planning phase, beginning with identification of the problem that is to be addressed—namely the hazard or hazards and their associated risk. This is followed by the critical process of target audience identification, which allows program planners to have a sound understanding of those with whom they will be communicating, including their demographics and psychographics (personality and thought characteristics), their vulnerabilities, their perceptions of risk, and the medium through which they are most likely to receive their information. Using this hazard and audience information, program planners will be able to identify appropriate solutions to be communicated, and to establish project goals and objectives. Early planning also involves forming a planning team and coalition, identifying and securing partners and stakeholders, identifying potential obstacles, and planning to manage the project.

DEFINE THE PROBLEM

All public education efforts begin with the identification of a problem or problems that are to be addressed. In the case of emergency management, the problem relates to the vulnerability to a known hazard. Individuals and population groups are often affected by hazards differently due to a variety of social and behavioral factors both at the individual and community level, including physical location, availability and access to resources, knowledge, abilities, perceptions, norms, and others. Therefore, the program planner must first identify and understand the source of the risk as well as the actions and behaviors that contribute to vulnerability, and then determine the most realistic and efficient methods for reducing or eliminating that vulnerability.

The process of defining the problem involves the following steps:

1. Identify and analyze the hazard risk
2. Define the target population
3. Identify appropriate solutions

Identify and Analyze the Hazard Risk

The first step in defining the problem is to identify and analyze the hazard that will be managed. Obviously, program planners need to know exactly what hazard they will be addressing if they are to adequately provide the public with risk reduction information. A *hazard* is defined as any event or physical condition that has the *potential* to cause fatalities, injuries, property damage, infrastructure damage, agricultural loss, environmental damage, interruption of business, or other types of harm or loss. There are many individual hazards that affect us on a personal or family level, such as a fall, minor crime, choking, drowning, or car accident, for example. However, disaster preparedness public education efforts focus on those hazards for which the consequences may be so great as to overwhelm the local capacity to respond. These events, by definition, are disasters. Coppola (2006) classifies common hazards into three categories: (1) natural, (2) technological, and (3) intentional.

1. *Natural hazards* are those that originate from natural processes and include the following subcategories:
 - a. *Tectonic hazards* (earthquakes, tsunamis, volcanoes)
 - b. *Mass-movement hazards* (landslides, rockslides, debris flows, avalanches, land subsidence, land expansion)
 - c. *Hydrologic hazards* (floods, drought, desertification)

- d. *Meteorological hazards* (hurricanes, tornadoes, ice storms, severe weather, hail, extreme temperatures, windstorms, sand storms, wildfires, thunderstorms, fog)
 - e. *Biological hazards* (human epidemic or pandemic, animal epidemic, plant epidemic, plagues)
 - f. *Other natural hazards* (e.g., meteors, salinization) that do not fall into any of these categories
2. *Technological hazards* are those that are artificial in origin, but for which there is no malicious intent, including:
 - a. Transportation hazards (infrastructure failure or damage, airline accidents, rail accidents, maritime accidents, roadway accidents)
 - b. Infrastructure hazards (power failure, telecommunications failure, computer network failure, water/sewer failure, gas distribution failure, dam failure, food shortage, overburdened public health system, economic failure)
 - c. Industrial hazards (HazMat processing or storage accidents, explosion, fire, raw materials extraction accident)
 - d. Structure fires or failures
 3. *Intentional hazards* are those for which there exists malicious intent, including:
 - a. Terrorism
 - b. Civil unrest
 - c. Stampedes
 - d. Crime
 - e. War

Generally, if it is the program planners' intention to address the vulnerability to a single hazard—earthquakes, for instance—then there is no need to conduct a full hazard identification for the community. However, if the goal of the campaign is overall emergency preparedness (for all possible hazards), program planners will need to determine all major hazards that threaten the community. This is performed using any of the following information sources:

- Community historical records
- City or county emergency operations plan
- City or county hazard mitigation plan
- Local emergency management officials
- Local libraries
- Local colleges or universities
- Local or county floodplain manager
- Local chapter of the American Red Cross
- Local emergency planning committee (LEPC)

Once identified, a hazard must be profiled and analyzed to determine the likelihood and consequence components of its associated risk, and to provide program planners with a better understanding of how it affects the community. The more completely a hazard is understood, the better the risk program planners can successfully address it among the target population.

A risk assessment tells program planners how often the hazard will likely occur, and what will happen if it does. Risk consists of likelihood and consequence. The risk component can be expressed as a probability (e.g., 50% chance of occurrence in a given year) or a frequency (e.g., occurs once per decade). The consequence component of risk measures the human (deaths and injuries), structural, economic, and environmental effects that would occur if the hazard resulted in a disaster.

Because few organizations have the time, expertise, or resources to conduct a full hazard risk assessment, it is recommended that organizations obtain hazard analysis information from the city, county, or state office of emergency management. Almost all offices of emergency management—which may be a stand-alone department or part of the fire or police departments—will have conducted such an assessment as required by law, and will likely be willing to share all or relevant excerpts of this assessment for the purposes of a public preparedness campaign. These assessments will likely include much of the information that is needed to complete a hazard profile. The hazard profile is a tool that provides program planners with all the hazard information they need to begin identifying a target population and vulnerability reduction solutions in one place, including:

- The hazard name and description
- The hazard frequency or probability, including historical incidences, predicted future frequency or probability, and magnitude and potential intensity
- The geographic range of the hazard (what is affected in the community), including property, infrastructure, and populations
- Duration of the hazard
- Seasonal or other time-based patterns associated with the hazard
- Speed of onset of the hazard
- Availability of warnings

Define the Target Population

A difficult yet pivotal step in planning any communication campaign is the identification and definition of the population to be targeted by its messages. In the hazard identification and analysis step, program planners identify many different populations and groups that are vulnerable to the effects of the hazard in question. However, each group and

individual differs with regard to vulnerability; abilities and capacities to mitigate, prepare, respond, or recover; and methods for receiving and processing information. In other words, there can be no single solution that meets everyone's needs equally.

Generally, program planners should limit their message to a single target audience to which the campaign will be tailored, or define each audience individually in order to tailor solutions, messages, and communication methods to each. Because resources are always limited, and it is therefore impossible to reach all audiences effectively, planners must prioritize the audience that will be the intended target of their message. It is important to note that the designated target audience is not always the most vulnerable group in the broader population. When choosing a target audience for a given campaign, program designers should identify the most vulnerable group *that has the means and the will to benefit from the campaign*. Sometimes, the most vulnerable group is at risk because of their own unwillingness or inability to take the proper protective behavior. For example, members of an extremely religious sector of a particular population may refuse to take protective action because they interpret such action as a challenge to God's will. Although it is certainly possible to design campaign messages to alter risky beliefs and norms, these types of changes are likely to happen very slowly over long periods of time, so a single intervention is unlikely to successfully motivate behavior change in time to mitigate an imminent threat. In this case, although the religious group may be the most vulnerable segment of the population, it may save more people to target a group whose vulnerability stems from simple lack of knowledge or awareness than deep-seated religious beliefs. Therefore, in selecting a target population, program planners must consider the time frame, money, and resources available in order to determine which target audience should be encouraged to enact what behaviors to produce the most "bang" for the campaign's "buck."

In many ways, the particulars of the selected target population determine all other factors—what messages must be developed, how those messages are communicated, what risk reduction options are possible, and what results are likely to be achieved. By learning as much as possible about the target audience, program planners will increase their chances of success immeasurably.

Defining a target population helps to ensure that message content and delivery are best suited to meet the particular needs of the intended individuals program planners hope to reach. In the business sector, this process is commonly referred to as *market research*. Market research is performed to define the individual and social features of a target audience in order to maximize "product sales". In public education, the process is almost identical, with the product being an idea or a way of thinking.

As is true with any product, the sales pitch behind that idea must be designed for the recipient population—their comprehension, attitudes, biases, and purchasing power, among many other factors.

All audiences, small or large, can be subdivided into smaller and smaller definable groups. The more defined a target audience becomes, the more targeted a communication campaign can be tailored to suit those individual characteristics. However, increasing specificity generally raises costs and lowers campaign reach. Program planners must decide how particular they wish to make their audience profile.

Audience profiling is critical because the ways in which people receive messages and interpret information are by no means uniform. For example, while children learn primarily through teachers, peers, and the other members of their families, their parents may be more likely to educate themselves through newspapers, social networks, and television. However, even as a group, parents may differ in how they learn according to their level of education, age, and social networks. It is easy to see how each group can differ so much in its learning mechanisms when one considers all of the possible demographic characteristics that define individual members, including socioeconomic status, education, race, gender, age, and employment.

Audiences are categorized primarily by demographics and defining characteristics. The most basic determination is geography—residents of a community, city, county, floodplain, or state, for example. More often, geography is a secondary defining characteristic from within which a smaller segment of the population is determined. The actual group that is chosen will more likely be determined by the interests of the organization conducting the campaign, a particularly high vulnerability among only certain members of the general population, or some other factor that is of special importance to the organization or group conducting the campaign.

The following list is provided to give a sampling of the more common headings under which the myriad identifiable characteristics describing target populations are found. Ultimately, the chosen target population members will be described using defining characteristics from several of these categories. For example, the selected target population could be “poor families with young children in rural areas of Montana.”

Population by location

- Jurisdiction (generally set by political boundaries—either town, city, county, state, or nationwide)
- Risk area (selection may be based on the location of a community in a highly vulnerable and hazard-prone zone, its accessibility in the event of a disaster, its disaster history, and its local resources)
- By place of residence or employment

- *Physical or mental ability:* There are approximately 57 million people in the United States classified as having a disability—nearly one-fifth of the population. Limitations in mobility, seeing, hearing, or learning complicate emergency responses and therefore require extra planning. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's (CDC) National Center on Birth Defects and Developmental Disabilities (NCBDDD) developed a Webpage with helpful information about emergency preparedness for people with disabilities as well as emergency managers, responders, service, and care providers (NCBDDD, 2016). It is recommended that program planners reference these resources when planning to target people with specific disabilities. Within the category of disabilities, there are defining characteristics that will guide how messages are formed. For instance, people who are deaf have one set of individual preparedness concerns, and they will receive information one way, while those with a physical handicap such as the loss of one or more limbs will have different concerns and will receive their information (as a group) in a different manner.
- *Urban or rural livelihoods:* The type of communal settlement within which a population resides determines not only its risks but also the means by which its members receive information and what options they have for preparing for disasters. For instance, while residents of cities may benefit from robust media markets, they also face many unique hazard risks not faced by most rural populations (e.g., the presence of critical infrastructure, an increased risk of international terrorism). Rural populations, however, may face risks and conditions unique to their living situation, including fewer emergency management resources and more dispersed social networks. Research has found that natural disasters are more likely to affect nonmetropolitan areas, which make up about 75% of the nation's total land area.
- *Income:* Low-income population groups demand special attention because they often lack access to disaster information through traditional delivery systems like television and radio. Furthermore, low-income groups are more likely to be located in high-risk areas or near infrastructure susceptible to accidents or intentional acts, such as train stations, railroad tracks, and chemical plants.
- *Transience:* Populations that exist within a geographic area who do not consider that area their permanent residence often have special vulnerabilities that differ greatly from that of the general population. Transient populations include tourists, business travelers, student residents, and seasonal workers, for example.

- *Religion:* Members of different religious affiliations will perceive, prepare for, and respond to hazards and disasters in different ways as determined by their religious beliefs and rules. These affiliations will also define how they receive and process information, both important factors to program planners.
- *Age:* Members of different age groups differ greatly from one another in terms of abilities, perceptions, and many other factors. The most common delineations of populations by age include children, adolescents, adults, and seniors, although there are many other groupings that are possible in order to best meet the needs of communicators (see Figure 3.1).
- *Gender:* Although differences between genders are decreasing in the United States with regard to emergency preparedness, there are still differences in the ways that men and women receive and process information, as well as how they perceive risks.
- *Literacy:* Program planners must have an understanding of the education levels of target audience members, as this will help them to design their message content and means for delivery.
- *Ethnicity:* Ethnicity can be an important factor in determining spokespeople, as members of ethnic groups may hold an inherent



FIGURE 3.1 Fire and police department officials are especially effective communicators for transmitting preparedness and prevention messages to children (Author photo).

trust or distrust in certain sources of information (government officials or police officers, for example).

- *Employment or school status:* This characteristic is important because it can help program planners better understand target population members' financial or time resources, and help them determine the best means to reach them. Examples of subgroups under this heading include the employed, the unemployed, retirees, workers in specific occupations, and students.
- *Psychographics:* People differ greatly in terms of their psychological profiles. This can include their attitudes, outlooks, self-image, opinions, beliefs, values, and many other personality traits.
- *Health:* People who enjoy good health can differ from those with general or specific ailments with regard to their perception of risk, their ability to change behavior, or other factors.
- *Language:* Language is one of the most fundamental requirements of communication. Program planners must have a full understanding of the language abilities of their target population in order to determine what language is most appropriate for campaign messages.

Other defining characteristics include housing type, family status, preferred method of transportation, business affiliation, culture, and behavior. The number of defining characteristics is almost limitless. While it is important to define the target audience as fully as possible, it is also important not to define it so narrowly that there are few individuals who fit the defined profile.

The most comprehensive source of data and information available to drive the process by which audiences are defined is the U.S. Census. Conducted every 10 years, and estimated periodically between official counts, the official census can provide a wide range of information on populations within given jurisdictional and administrative boundaries. These data are especially useful in determining income, age, gender, household, employment, ethnicity, and many other demographic factors. However, the census will not give program planners psychographic information that helps them understand audience perceptions, attitudes, learning patterns, and other important factors. To acquire this kind of information, program planners will need to rely upon other methods of information collection. The best way to ensure that your program messages are audience appropriate is to include members of the target audience in the program planning process. Other ways to collect this information include:

- Interviews with members of the target population
- Group meetings with representatives from the target population

- Meetings with or assistance from individuals, organizations, or agencies that regularly serve or work with the target population (e.g., teachers, NGOs, religious organizations, service organizations, corporations, foundations, fire departments, counselors, newspapers)
- Social science research publications
- Data maintained by polling companies or depositories of polling information
- Chambers of commerce
- Advertising agencies, newspapers, and radio and television stations (for media-use data and buying and consumption patterns)

Once the primary audience has been identified, program planners begin to profile the members of this group in order to learn as much as they can about their particular needs, preferences, and characteristics. The more that is known about the primary audience, the better the message can be designed, delivered, and timed. To ensure maximum impact, planners should try to establish a baseline by answering the following questions:

- What people make up this group? Are they children, adults, senior citizens, students, homemakers, business executives, blue-collar workers, single, or married?
- What are the special characteristics and needs of this group? Consider such factors as age, education and literacy levels, gender, occupation, motivations, cultural and social interests, activities, and preferred entertainment options.
- What specific hazard consequences (from the hazard in question) affect members of this group?
- How are members of this group at particular risk from the consequences of the hazard (vulnerability)?
- Risk perception (see Sidebar 3.1):
- What does this group already know about the hazard?
- What disaster knowledge do they lack?
- What misinformation (inaccurate beliefs) do they possess?
- How does this hazard measure up in comparison to the concerns and fears they hold for all hazards?
- What specific characteristics of this audience place them at an increased risk from the hazard (see Figure 3.2)?
- What abilities does this group have to address risk and vulnerability?
- What desires does this group have to reduce their vulnerability?
- What social, cultural, or economic obstacles does this group face in minimizing vulnerability?
- What social or cultural factors would help to affect change or influence message delivery?



FIGURE 3.2 Fire danger signs in Western Australia placed along high-traffic routes and in public parks help alert citizens to current risk factors (Author photo).

- What benefits do members of this group associate with behavior change?
- From what sources does this group typically receive information? This could include newspapers, television, radio, mail, town meetings, informal social networks, parents, and peers.
- When are members of this group most receptive to messages?
- Where are members of this group most apt to receive information?
- Who are the most influential voices for this group (e.g., role models, teachers, parents, relatives, leaders, etc.) Are there other people in this community to whom this group listens and respects (e.g., elders or clergy), often called *gatekeepers*?

SIDEBAR 3.1 RISK PERCEPTION

The branch of science that studies why people fear the things they do (and why they do not fear other things) is called *risk perception*. Understanding trends in public risk perception helps to explain why, for instance, millions of people in the Washington, D.C., metropolitan area were so disproportionately afraid of the Washington, D.C., sniper in 2002 even though they were statistically less vulnerable to that than,

for instance, automobile accidents, food poisoning, heart disease, or cancer. Risk perception is a primary factor, though not the only factor, that determines whether people prepare for the hazards they face.

In their article, “Rating the Risks,” Slovic et al. (1979) stated, “People respond to the hazards they perceive.” These scientists discovered that people tend to misjudge their risk according to four risk perception fallibility conclusions, namely:

1. Cognitive limitations, coupled with the anxieties generated by facing life as a gamble, cause uncertainty to be denied, risks to be distorted, and statements of fact to be believed with unwarranted confidence.
2. Perceived risk is influenced (and sometimes biased) by the imaginability and memorability of the hazard. Therefore, people may not have valid perceptions even for familiar risks.
3. Risk management experts’ risk perceptions correspond closely to statistical frequencies of death. Laypeople’s risk perceptions are based in part on frequencies of death, but there are some striking discrepancies. It appears that for laypeople, the concept of risk includes qualitative aspects such as dread and the likelihood of a mishap being fatal. Laypeople’s risk perceptions are also affected by catastrophic potential.
4. Disagreements about risk should not be expected to evaporate in the presence of evidence. Definitive evidence, particularly about rare hazards, is difficult to obtain. Weaker information is likely to be interpreted in a way that reinforces existing beliefs (Slovic et al. 1979).

People tend to fear a hazard risk less as they become better informed with more specific details of the risk. However, the amount a person can discover about a risk will almost never be complete, as the actual likelihood or consequence most risks pose cannot be quantified in a way that addresses the specific threat faced by individuals (even well-known risks such as cancer or heart disease) (Ropeik 2002). The more uncertainty a risk poses, or as Slovic, Fischhoff, and Lichtenstein state, “the more of a gamble something is,” the more people will fear it. In the face of uncertainty, people will consciously or subconsciously make personal judgments based upon imperfect information in order to establish some individual concept of the risk they face (Slovic et al. 1979). These judgments, based upon uncertainties and imperfect information, often cause people to wrongly perceive their own risk, more often in a way that *overstates* reality.

People are more afraid of those things that they can imagine or that they can remember. These easily *available* risks, as they are

called, tend to be overestimated regarding their likelihood of occurrence. For instance, we rarely hear about a person dying from a common cause such as a heart attack, unless somebody close to us dies of that specific cause. However, the media will often heavily report on a death that is the result of an uncommon cause, like the West Nile Virus. The result tends to be that people underestimate common risks and overestimate rare risks. Generally, people fear what they hear about repetitively or constantly. This phenomenon is referred to as the *availability heuristic*, which states that people perceive an event to be likely or frequent if instances of the event are *easy to imagine or recall*. This is a perception bias that can be correct when considering events that are, in fact, frequently observed, such as in the case of those who believe that automobile accidents are common because almost everyone they know has been involved in one. However, when a risk that is spectacular but not necessarily common receives constant media attention, such as high school shootings did in the 1990s (in particular, the Columbine attack), people often wrongly assume that similar events are very likely to occur.

It can be difficult for people to understand the statistics they are given, and even more difficult for them to conceptualize how those statistics apply to them personally. Furthermore, statistics tend to do little to affect the way people perceive the risks that are calculated. This is not to say that the average person lacks sufficient intelligence to process numbers; it is just that the numbers are not the sole source of influence on public risk perception. It has been discovered through extensive research that people use other, more heavily weighted, *qualitative* factors in addition to the quantitative likelihood of a hazard resulting in personal consequence when ranking their risks (Slovic et al. 1979). People are usually more concerned with the consequence component of risk than they are about the likelihood component.

Slovic, Fischhoff, and Lichtenstein, in their article, "Facts and Fears: Understanding Perceived Risk," proposed that there are 18 risk characteristics that influence public risk perception (Slovic, et. al. 1980). Of these characteristics, 17 fall under two subgroups called *factors*: factors related to dread (Factor 1) and factors related to how much is known about the risk (Factor 2). Using these 17 characteristics, they examined public perceptions of 90 risks and plotted their findings on a two-dimensional graph depicting Factor 1 on the x-axis and Factor 2 on the y-axis.

Factor 1

Dreaded versus not dreaded

Uncontrollable versus controllable

Global catastrophic versus not global catastrophic

Consequences fatal versus consequences not fatal

Not equitable versus equitable
 Catastrophic versus individual
 High risk to future generations versus low risk to future generations
 Not easily reduced versus easily reduced
 Risk increasing versus risk decreasing
 Involuntary versus voluntary
 Affects me versus does not affect me
 Not preventable versus preventable

Factor 2

Not observable versus observable
 Unknown to those exposed versus known to those exposed
 Effect delayed versus effect immediate
 New risk versus old risk
 Risks unknown to science versus risks known to science

Risks that are typified by the first-listed characteristic (on the left) in each factor-pair listed above are seen as more dangerous than those that are exhibited by the second-listed characteristic (on the right). For example, uncontrollable risks are more feared than controllable ones.

Slovic et al. (1979) state that “people’s beliefs change slowly and are extraordinarily persistent in the face of contrary evidence. New evidence appears reliable and informative if it is consistent with one’s initial belief; contrary evidence is dismissed as unreliable, erroneous, or unrepresentative.” They add that “convincing people that the catastrophe they fear is extremely unlikely is difficult under the best conditions.” This stoicism is compounded by the fact that once people make their initial judgments, they believe with overwhelming confidence that their beliefs are correct. This phenomenon, called the “overconfidence heuristic,” states that people often are unaware of how little they know about a risk, and how much more information they need to make an informed decision. More often than not, people believe that they know much more about risks than they actually do.

Risk perception factors into what is called a “worldview.” Worldviews are conceptualized as “...general societal, cultural, and political attitudes that appear to have an influence over people’s judgments about complex issues” (Slovic 1999). Studies have found strong correlations between worldviews and risk perceptions (e.g., Dake 1992; Jenkins-Smith 1993). Some specific worldviews that have been investigated (e.g., Buss et al. 1986; Dake 1991; Jasper 1990) are the following:

- *Fatalism*: Characterized by those who feel that they have little control over their own fate.

- *Hierarchy*: Typifies those who prefer to leave risk decisions to the experts.
- *Individualism*: Associated with those who believe that those with greater ability should earn more.
- *Egalitarianism*: Describes those who feel that the source of many of the world's problems is inequality.
- *Technological enthusiasm*: Depicts those who trust in advances in technology to improve health and societal well-being.

While these categories are not mutually exclusive and this list is certainly not exhaustive, the purpose of their inclusion in this chapter is to emphasize the importance of doing formative research about the characteristics of one's target audience that shape their perceptions of risk before trying to craft messages to change their risk-related behaviors. An in-depth discussion of all findings associated with differential risk perceptions is outside the realm of this book, but practitioners can greatly benefit from conducting their own literature searches involving their specific population of interest before designing campaigns. Several theories of communication and psychology provide lists of important elements to consider when engaging in this type of formative research. See Chapter 4 for further discussion.

In relatively recent years, researchers have called attention to the limitations posed by assessing risk strictly in terms of quantifiable scientific certainties. Risk communication scholars emphasize the importance of considering risk perceptions, intuitive risk judgments that citizens rely on to evaluate hazards, in addition to the technologically advanced methods used by analysts when making risk assessments. As argued by renowned risk communication scholar Paul Slovic (1987):

Lay people sometimes lack certain information about hazards. However, their basic conceptualization about risk is much richer than that of experts and reflects legitimate concerns that are typically omitted from expert risk assessments. Efforts are destined to fail unless they are structured as a two-way process. Each side, expert and public, has something valid to contribute. Each side must respect the insights and intelligence of the other. (p. 285)

Of the variety of audience characteristics that are important to planners, there are some that may facilitate change; others that may hamper it; and yet others that, while they seem important, may have little overall impact. The ability of the planning team to analyze these audience

characteristics, and to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and obstacles regarding how that audience receives and retains information, is key to the campaign's outcome. The following examples illustrating how particular audience characteristics can influence public education is adapted from Bernstein, et al. (1994, 627 and 631):

1. *Age*: Younger people are more likely to change their attitudes than older ones, perhaps because they are more receptive to opinions and input from others, and have yet to build a base of experiences that may firm up their own attitudes. The receptivity of children to developing positive attitudes toward emergency preparedness can have a substantial influence on overall community disaster education efforts. An application of this principle can be found in emergency preparedness educational efforts in schools, which can have a powerful effect on how children approach disaster hazards at home.
2. *Intelligence*: Some argue that highly intelligent audiences will understand the persuasive arguments, and thus be more likely to change their attitudes and behavior. Others suggest that such individuals will challenge the logic of the arguments (i.e., "counter-argue") and will be more likely to find flaws in the presentation, and therefore not change at all. Research suggests that the degree to which people focus on understanding and enacting the recommendations rather than counter-arguing against the recommendations is a function of the extremity of the position taken in the argument and how involved audience members are with the topic. Audience intelligence alone is not a reliable correlate with susceptibility to persuasion. However, if the recommendation is not promoting a severe change and if the audience does not seem to hold a firm position on the topic, people of higher intelligence are probably more likely to successfully follow the plan.
3. *Self-esteem*: Those with low self-esteem tend to value the attitudes of others more but at the same time may be incompletely attentive to events around them. Thus, while susceptible to persuasive arguments, those with low self-esteem may not think about them enough to effect change. In contrast, those with high self-esteem pay attention to others, but their self-confidence precludes susceptibility to change. The American Red Cross recommends personalizing the disaster preparedness issue by reinforcing for people that they can effectively prepare for a disaster. "Tell them: 'You can do this; you can get ready; it's something you can do now.' People get more involved when they feel they are in control over their situation"

(American Red Cross 1992, p. 80). This technique can also increase self-efficacy (discussed in Chapter 4).

4. *Relevance of the topic/involvement*: If the topic being discussed is highly relevant to the audience, they are more likely to pay attention to the message. Strongly presented arguments are thought to increase source credibility, thereby increasing the effectiveness of the message. Therefore, in most cases, the more important the topic is to those in the audience, the more they will be receptive to strongly presented arguments. However, the increased attention that comes with high involvement is also associated with greater scrutinizing of the message. Therefore, weak arguments are more likely to be rejected by highly involved audience members than by those to whom the topic is not relevant. In contrast, as noted in Chapter 1, those who are not highly involved with the issue are more likely to be persuaded by simple heuristic cues such as the number of arguments presented (regardless of their strength) and the credibility of the speaker.

Program planners often seek to address two very different audience types when they set out to affect a behavior change in a population. In both groups, program planners are trying to bring about a certain behavior, but the type of behavior sought is what places individuals in one group or the other. The first and most obvious group is called the *primary intended audience*. This audience includes those individuals whose hazard vulnerability program planners are trying to reduce. There may be one primary intended audience, or several different primary intended audiences, depending on how much segmentation is performed by planners (see Sidebar 3.2). *Secondary intended audiences*, or gateway audiences as they are also called, are those with influence on the primary intended audiences or those who must do something to help cause the change in the primary intended audiences. This group also requires behavior change, but the type of behavior relates to their interaction with the primary intended audience, not with their hazard vulnerability. For this reason, it is often the case that different kinds of messages and tools need to be developed if program planners decide to utilize the assistance of this valuable (and sometimes vital) resource.

SIDEBAR 3.2 SEGMENTATION

Defining subgroups of a population according to common characteristics is called *segmentation*. Segmentation can help program planners develop messages, materials, and activities that are relevant to the intended audience's current behavior and specific needs, preferences, beliefs, cultural attitudes, knowledge, and reading habits. It also helps

to identify the best channels for reaching each group, because populations also differ in factors such as access to information, the information sources they find reliable, and how they prefer to learn. Program planners may increase a program's effectiveness by developing strategies that are attuned to the needs and wants of different intended audience segments. In fact, given the diversity of the public, trying to reach everyone with one message or strategy may result in an approach that does not effectively reach those most able or ready to change. Be aware, though, that moving from a mass-market strategy to a differentiated strategy will add economic and staff resource costs for each additional segment. The key to success is to segment the intended population on characteristics relevant to the disaster preparedness behavior to be changed. A logical starting point is the behavior itself. When possible, compare those who engage in the desired behavior with those who do not and identify the determinants of their behavior. Many planners simply rely on demographic, physical, or cultural segmentations. However, people who share these characteristics can be very different in terms of preparedness behavior.

Identify Appropriate Solutions

Once the hazards have been identified and the target population has been defined, program planners need to begin formulating the solution they intend to communicate. This solution will be a preparedness measure, a mitigation measure, or a combination of both. Moreover, while there are several possible solutions to each hazard vulnerability, the chosen solution will be the one that, given the particular characteristics of the target audience, is most likely to succeed.

Defining solutions understandably requires a working knowledge of both the hazard and the population vulnerable to it, as was determined in the previous two steps. Program planners begin to identify the most appropriate solution by identifying all possible solutions. From this list, they weigh the benefits, costs, and likelihood of audience members taking the proposed actions, in order to select the best alternative.

Mitigation solutions work by decreasing either the likelihood of a disaster occurring or the consequences of a disaster should one actually occur. Preparedness measures allow an individual or group to respond more effectively to a disaster once it happens, through action or equipment. In selecting the appropriate solution, program planners will need to fully understand not only how the mitigation or preparedness option works (from conception to implementation, including maintenance) but also how these factors are influenced by the particular characteristics of the target population.

Each mitigation or preparedness option may be analyzed according to the following factors, as each relates specifically to the target population:

- Benefit (the amount of actual vulnerability reduction)
- Cost (in financial terms, to the individual)
- Time (required to implement or maintain the solution)
- Availability (of materials, resources, and expertise that are required to implement the solution)
- Secondary negative consequences
- Sustainability
- Target audience obstacles (problems—ideological, cultural, technical, or other—that the population will have with the solution)
- Feasibility obstacles (problems that are independent of the target population that would make implementation of the solution difficult or impossible)
- Likelihood that individual members of the population will take the mitigation or preparedness action
- What, if any, segment of the population is already taking this action, and their successes and failures in doing so

This is the point of program development in which communication theory may first provide insight as well. When considering the most desirable solution to promote through the program, it is important to consider *why* the target population is not already engaging in protective behavior against the hazard. Is it a simple lack of awareness that they are at risk, or is it something deeper such as a cultural norm or a widespread fear that will need to be addressed within the program's message? The behavioral theories detailed in Chapter 4 of this book list constructs that may serve as a checklist that program planners may use to identify barriers to the recommended behavior among the target population. Consideration of these barriers and the time and resources that would be necessary to break them down should factor into the process of identifying an appropriate and realistic solution.

Based upon these assessments, program planners are able to make more informed decisions about what actions will have the greatest overall effect in reducing population vulnerability. Remember that there is no perfect solution, so the option that brings about the greatest change is preferred above the rest.

With the hazard identified, the target population defined, and the most desirable solution singled out, program planners will have successfully defined the problem to be addressed. The entire program will be built upon this foundation. It is not difficult to understand how a lack of knowledge in any of these three areas could make for potentially devastating setbacks later on.

MARKET RESEARCH

At each step in the campaign process, from planning to assessment, there will become a need for program planners to gain more insight and to test the validity of their assumptions and proposed methods. The most effective way to do this is to work directly with a sample group from the target population itself. This is often referred to as *market* or *communication research*.

Market research provides program planners with a much deeper understanding of how the issues with which they are dealing apply to the target audience in particular. When program planners make decisions regarding hazards, solutions, communication methods, and other aspects of the campaign, they are making assumptions about how these issues apply to or affect the target audience. For instance, program planners may need to find out how members of the population feel about making the behavior change they have chosen. If they assumed that the population's members would be receptive to the idea, but through market research discover members of the target population are vehemently opposed to it, they will have saved themselves considerable time and money by having the option to change course at this early juncture. By failing to conduct such testing, they may not find out about these attitudes until the campaign has begun and resources have already been dedicated.

Working directly with members of the audience may confirm or invalidate assumptions, thereby providing program planners with more realistic impressions of what needs to be done; how successful their efforts, methods, or materials will be in practice; or how successful their conducted efforts have been in affecting change. At this early point in the process, program planners use market research methods to learn more about their proposed solution. In order to take the next steps—namely developing a message and choosing communication methods—it is key to understand as much about the knowledge, attitudes and feelings, misperceptions, and assumptions that the audience holds with regard to the proposed mitigation or preparedness solution. It is within these bounds that the communication campaign will be designed, taking advantage of these factors in planning rather than encountering them unexpectedly along the way.

There are several ways in which market research can be conducted, with the chosen methods a factor of capacity, time, and available funding. Surveys are the most common, but other highly effective methods include the following:

- *Focus groups*: A qualitative research technique in which an experienced moderator guides approximately 8 to 10 participants through a discussion of selected topics, allowing them to

talk freely and spontaneously. Focus groups are often used to identify previously unknown issues or concerns, or to explore reactions to potential actions, benefits, or concepts during the planning and development stages.

- *In-depth interviews*: A type of qualitative research in which a trained interviewer guides an individual through a discussion of a selected topic, allowing the person to talk freely and spontaneously. This technique is often used to identify previously unknown issues or concerns, or to explore reactions to potential actions, benefits, or concepts during the planning and development stages. In-depth interviews are preferred over focus groups when the topic of interest may be considered private, politically charged, or otherwise sensitive such that participants may not be comfortable discussing it in front of others.
- *Theater-style testing*: Individuals typical of the intended audience are invited to a conveniently located meeting room. The room should be set up for screening a television program. Participants are generally not told the real purpose of the session, only that their reactions to a television program are being sought. At the session, participants watch a television program. The program can be any entertaining video approximately 15 to 30 minutes in length. The videotape is interrupted about half-way through by a sequence of four commercials. The emergency preparedness message should be inserted between the second and third commercials. At the end of the program, participants receive a questionnaire and answer questions designed to gauge their reactions, first to the program and then to the advertisements. Finally, the ad is played again and participants complete several questions about it. The majority of these questions should be closed-ended to enable an easy and accurate summary of participant responses.

In recent years, researchers and campaign designers have increasingly examined social media and web 2.0 platforms to assess public sentiment and interest in a particular topic. For example, Twitter data have been used to track users' interests and concerns related to particular public health issues (e.g., Signorini et al. 2011); Google Trends may be used to estimate the spread of illness throughout a region (e.g., Ginsberg et al. 2009), as well as assess issue salience and public opinion (Zhu et al. 2012). Companies such as CrowdTangle.com provide customers with information about how often a Web link of interest has been shared, who shared it, and what they said about it, providing information about public interest and issue salience. These types of sources analyzed qualitatively may provide a useful jumping-off point for program planners

who are looking to gain insight into public sentiment about a given issue in a particular region. Analyzing these data using statistical procedures that can be generalized to a larger public requires a specialized skillset, so program planners looking to hire specialists to do formative for summative evaluation using this type of data should look for someone experienced in analyzing “big data.”

EXISTING PROGRAM RESEARCH AND GAP ANALYSIS

Before going about planning the campaign from the ground up, it is always wise to identify and assess what has already been done to address the issue, what is currently being done, and what the outcomes of these actions are (in terms of vulnerability reduction and behavior change). There is no sense in repeating the work of others. Nor is it wise to conduct a campaign whose message differs from or even contradicts the message of another campaign without first planning how you will explain the differences. In many cases, even when no other organization or agency has addressed the problem in exactly the same way, it has tackled some part of the problem or addressed similar issues with the same population. Existing program research is conducted for the following reasons:

- To avoid reinventing the wheel
- To build upon the successes of other programs and benefit from the trust they have gained
- To find collaborative opportunities
- To understand and learn from the failures of other programs
- To understand any misconceptions, mistrust, or other incorrect or negative feelings that may exist because of a prior communication attempt

When program research is conducted to determine the individual communication needs or actions lacking within the greater spectrum of communication efforts currently underway, it is called a *gap analysis*. Gap analysis looks for specific areas where messages are not reaching audiences. This could be a factor of segments of the population or it could relate to components of the message received by all members of the population.

DETERMINE PROJECT FEASIBILITY

In Chapter 1, the many possible components of a comprehensive disaster preparedness campaign were described, including communication, facilitation, funding and financial incentives, policy change, and technology.

With a full comprehension of the problem in hand, and a better understanding of how the target population is affected, program planners can better determine which of these components will be necessary to actually bring about measurable vulnerability reduction. If communication alone will do little to change attitudes in the absence of a change in policy, and no effort to bring about a policy change exists within the campaign strategy, it would be better to change the campaign goals to something more achievable than trying to go ahead with the campaign as is. On the contrary, if the target population lacks only the funding and knowledge to bring about change, and a partner organization or sponsor is willing to assist by helping those unable to afford the necessary measures (such as purchasing a weather radio, go-kit, or smoke detector), then this combination would likely bring about much greater change than communication alone.

Once you have determined that your proposed solution has the potential to bring about actual change, there are a few final factors that must be considered before setting out on the full campaign effort. These include the following:

- Does your organization have the necessary expertise and resources to conduct the campaign? If not, can these be acquired?
- Does your organization have the necessary authority or mandate to bring about the changes or measures being proposed?
- How much time does your organization have to dedicate to campaign planning and implementation?
- What, if anything, can be accomplished in that time?

ESTABLISH REALISTIC GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

With the wealth of information program planners have gained in these initial steps, they will finally be able to begin establishing a campaign goal and objectives. The goal and objectives will be used to guide the campaign design and methodology as it progresses. In fact, the purpose of the initial research (the problems, the audience, and the solutions) was primarily to establish exactly what program planners are setting out to achieve (the goal) and how they plan to go about doing it (the objectives).

The campaign *goal* is defined as the general emergency preparedness outcome that the communication team hopes to create. An example of a campaign goal is:

To encourage college freshmen at the University of California to plan and prepare for earthquakes.

All aspects of the campaign will be designed to meet this central goal. The goal does not indicate how, to what level of success, or in what time frame this outcome will be achieved.

Campaign *objectives*, on the contrary, are specific, plainly measurable action points that the communication team hopes to achieve in its drive to meet the goal. They are more specific than goals in that they offer some quantifiable target outcome involving specific knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors of intended audience members. The CDC offers guidance for writing realistic and measurable objectives (Public Health Information Network Communities of Practice, 2015). They recommend all objectives be written in SMART format (see Sidebar 3.3). An example of a SMART campaign objective that relates to the preceding goal could include:

To increase by 10% the number of UCLA students who have secured furniture to walls, using anchors, one year after the program launches.

Note that while the use of furniture anchors by *every* student at the university would be optimal, the long-term objective of the campaign is only to *increase* the number by 10%. It is unrealistic to expect that any single campaign could completely solve a problem. The NIH suggests that practitioners seek the guidance of statisticians or emergency preparedness experts to help to determine realistic rates of change before setting quantifiable communication objectives. The organization points out that even commercial marketers consider a 2–3% increase in sales to be a great success.

SIDEBAR 3.3 WRITING SMART OBJECTIVES

The CDC's Division for Heart Disease and Stroke Prevention put out a guide to help states write realistic and measurable objectives. They recommend all objectives be written using the acronym SMART. Objectives should be:

- *Specific: What exactly will be done for whom?* An objective should identify the target population or setting and clearly specify the action to be taken.
- *Measurable: How exactly will the objective be measured?* In order to maintain objectivity in process and program evaluation, objectives and their results should be able to be quantified. If the objective specifies that something will change over time (e.g., the number of students who have secured furniture to the walls, using anchors, will increase by 10%), a baseline measurement

must be established first so that it may be compared with the outcome measurement. If no baseline is known during the program planning process, taking a baseline measurement should be included as the first *short-term objective* of the program.

- *Attainable/achievable: Can the objective be met within the time frame provided with the resources available to those who are implementing the campaign?* As explained previously, it is important to set realistic expectations for a single program.
 - *Relevant: Does meeting this objective bring us closer to meeting the program's stated objective?* Long-term objectives should link directly to the program's stated goals; short-term objectives should link directly to longer-term objectives that ultimately lead to the program's stated goals.
 - *Time-bound: When will this objective be accomplished?* Because there are often delays associated with access to funding and other unanticipated barriers to program launch, it is recommended that program planners specify time in terms of years, months, weeks, or days after the program launch date, rather than specifying an exact month and year. For example, the sample objective listed previously sets a time frame of one year after program launch instead of specifying a particular month and year. This allows for program launch delays without having to change the months and years listed in the objectives.
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Preparedness programs are often composed of a number of short-term objectives that ultimately lead to attaining at least one long-term objective, which is directly related to the program goal. Short-term objectives do not necessarily have to be so closely linked to achievement of the goal, as long as their action ultimately leads to it. One or several short-term objectives may be necessary to meet before members of the target population can take action to achieve the long-term objectives. Often, short-term objectives are related to the theory that is being used to guide in program design (discussed in Chapter 4). Theory provides program planners with insight into *why* members of the target population are not taking action to prepare for an emergency despite having knowledge of how the action may be protective for them. For example, UCLA students may be aware that securing furniture to their walls using anchors will help to protect them in the event of an earthquake, but they may not be taking action because they *don't know how* to anchor their furniture. If this is the case, a short-term objective might be set to increase the percentage of students who *know how* to anchor furniture to the wall. This objective alone will not bring about the overall

campaign goal (as knowledge does not necessarily lead to action) to fruition, but it is necessary before the long-term objective, to increase the number of UCLA students who secure their furniture to the walls with an anchor, which *is* directly related to the goal, can be met. When writing long-term and short-term objectives, it is important to remember that 100% compliance is never a realistic expectation. Therefore, program planners must take some attrition into account at each step of progression from short-term to long-term objectives. For example, knowing *how* to secure furniture to the walls is a necessary precursor to actually taking action to do so, but not ALL students who learn how to secure furniture should be expected to do so. Some students may opt not to secure their furniture because they do not have enough money to buy anchors; others may decide it isn't worth the hassle because they intend to move within the next few months anyway; some may fully intend to secure their furniture but simply never get around to it. Therefore, in order to increase the number of UCLA students who actually secure their furniture by 10%, the increase in the number of students who learn *how* to secure their furniture should be even higher—perhaps 20%. When writing a series of short-term and long-term objectives, each subsequent objective should project a smaller portion of the target population to comply.

If a single target audience has been selected, then objectives will pertain entirely to this audience. However, if segmentation is used and several audiences are to be targeted, then each may require its own unique set of objectives. Each of these objectives, in turn, will be achieved through the performance of one or more tasks, to be described in the project planning phase.

Without objectives, it is impossible to truly measure whether the project has achieved what it had intended to, which makes it extremely difficult to report successes to supporters, partners, and other stakeholders. Often, there is a tendency to see outcomes in terms of what we hope them to be, rather than as they truly are. Setting measurable objectives before the start of the campaign keeps us honest with others and ourselves in determining if the campaign achieved what it set out to do. Therefore, it is vital that these objectives be reasonable and realistic in order to give the campaign a fair chance at being deemed a success (see Sidebar 3.4).

SIDEBAR 3.4 SETTING REASONABLE AND REALISTIC OBJECTIVES

The NIH recommends that communication campaign objectives be assessed to determine how reasonable and realistic each is

concerning the organization's capacity to achieve it. The following is an adaptation from these recommendations:

Be reasonable: Objectives describe the intermediate steps that must be taken to accomplish broader goals; they describe the desired outcome but not the steps involved in attaining it. Develop reasonable communication objectives by looking at the program's goal and asking, "What can communication feasibly contribute to attaining this goal, given what we know about the type of changes the intended audiences can and will make?"

Communication efforts alone cannot achieve all objectives. Appropriate purposes for communication include:

- Creating a supportive environment for a change (societal or organizational) by influencing attitudes, beliefs, or policies
- Contributing to a broader behavior change initiative by offering messages that motivate, persuade, or enable behavior change within a specific intended audience

Raising awareness or increasing knowledge among individuals or the organizations that reach them is also feasible; however, do not assume that accomplishing such an objective will lead to behavior change. For example, it is unreasonable to expect communication to cause a sustained change of complex behaviors or compensate for a lack of basic emergency services.

The ability and willingness of the intended audience to make certain changes also affect the reasonableness of various communication objectives. Your objectives will be reasonable for a particular intended audience only if audience members are able and willing to make the recommended behavior change.

Be realistic: Once reasonable communication objectives are developed, determine which of them are realistic, given your available resources, by answering these questions:

- Which objectives cover the areas that most need to reach the program goal?
- What communication activities will contribute the most to addressing these needs?
- What resources are available? Include:
 - Staff and other human resources
 - Committee members, associates from other programs, volunteers, and others who have the requisite skills and time
 - Overhead resources such as computer time, mailing costs, and printing

- Services available from another source, such as educational materials available free or at cost and the effort by other organizations willing to help
- Information about the issue, the intended audience, the community, and media structures, or about available educational materials
- Budget available to fund the program
- Time (weeks, months, or years available to complete the program)
- What supportive factors exist (e.g., community activities, other organizations' interests, positive community attitudes)?
- What barriers exist (e.g., obstacles to approval, absence of funding, sensitivity of an issue, intended audience constraints)?
- Which objectives would best use the resources your program has identified and fit within the identified constraints?

Your answers to the last question should become your priority objectives. Sometimes you may feel so constrained by a lack of funds that proceeding appears impossible. An honest assessment may lead you to conclude that a productive communication effort is not possible. However, creative use of the resources already identified may enable you to develop a communication program that can make valuable contributions.

FORM THE PLANNING TEAM AND COALITION

Once goals and objectives are set, program planning can begin. Task generation, assignment of responsibility, delineation of timelines, and dedication of resources together make up the campaign planning process that is discussed in Chapter 4.

Operational campaign planning begins in earnest with the formation of a planning team or a planning coalition. The myriad tasks that are generated and driven by this planning effort are generally too broad in nature to be effectively conceived of and outlined by just one person, and the value of added perspectives that are gained through the input from a diverse team of planners cannot be underestimated. The utilization of a planning team or coalition also allows communicators to allocate appropriately individual task responsibilities (such as market research or strategic plan development) to those individuals, groups, or organizations most capable of handling such tasks—thereby increasing the quality of each distinct campaign function.

The process of forming a planning team begins with the selection or appointment of a project leader, who is normally chosen from within the organization leading the communication effort. The project leader, in

turn, leads the development of the full team. Because the quality of the planned campaign will always be reflective of the diversity, knowledge, perspective, and experience of the planning team, the team should be composed of individuals who together satisfy all perceived needs. There are many stakeholders in every communication project, including facilitators, recipients, potential partners, and many others involved in the management of the hazard and its associated risk; each has an important perspective that merits attention and inclusion.

The selected or appointed project leader can begin forming the project planning team by generating a list of all parties and individuals believed to have an interest or stake in the project's outcome. At this point, it must be decided whether the planning effort will remain within the organization or open up to include outside organizations in the form of a coalition. The project leader should consider what each project partner is able to offer in terms of expertise or knowledge on the preparedness topic, time and effort (volunteer or otherwise), relevant skills, access to contacts and other professional networks, sponsorship, financial support, and more (see Sidebar 3.6).

If it is determined that a coalition is a wise choice, then the planning team leader uses the extensive list of potential partners or external planning participants to determine those individuals and organizations whose assistance would be most useful *and* appropriate (keeping in mind the need to maintain representation from the greatest number of stakeholders), and who would be dedicated to the project and work collaboratively with all other team members and partners. Project leaders may then invite members of this culled list to join the planning coalition, thereby giving them the opportunity to contribute to the campaign planning effort. Keep in mind that these invitees need not be public education or emergency management professionals, although it is almost always of benefit to include such experts (e.g., firefighters). The coalition may also include teachers, respected community officials, business people or leaders, concerned parents and volunteers, and others representative of the target audience. Involving people with different backgrounds and experiences has many advantages, including:

- Access to a wider range of ideas, perspectives, and expertise
- Greater access to the target audience
- Access to additional partners
- A minimized risk of faulty assumptions and methods
- Shared work responsibilities among several people
- Expanded networks of potential contacts, supporters, and sponsors
- Increased access to project funding, labor, and other resources
- Increased message credibility

- Increased message coverage
- Increased levels of trust and attention from target audiences
- Expanded support for priority activities

Coalitions, like partnerships, bring together the knowledge, resources, and commitment of multiple organizations—in this case, members or leaders from different organizations with a stake in emergency preparedness. Ultimately, the attention those organizations pay to the improvement of public preparedness becomes institutionalized for long-term action. For this reason, the strongest potential partners are most likely to be interested in joining a project planning coalition. The NIH recommends using the following guidelines to create a successful coalition (also see Sidebar 3.5):

- Formalize the relationship to create greater commitment: Formal arrangements include written memoranda of understanding, by-laws, mission statements, and regular reminders of the coalition's purpose and progress.
- Make sure that the responsibilities of each organization and its staff are clear. In particular, staff members need to know whether to take direction from the coalition chairperson or from the agency that pays their salary.
- Structure aspects of the coalition's operation: Elect officers. Form standing committees. Have regularly scheduled meetings with written agenda and minutes. Expect and support action, not just discussion, at these meetings. Circulate action items resulting from meetings among coalition members. Establish communication channels and use them frequently.
- Ensure the involvement of representatives who show leadership characteristics, such as the ability to obtain resources, problem-solve, and promote collaboration and equality among members—Members with political knowledge, administrative or communication skills, or access to the media and decision-makers are also valuable.
- Create and reinforce positive expectations by providing information on the coalition's progress—Optimism and success sustain member interest.
- Formalize accountability and develop criteria for judging whether coalition members are honoring their commitments.
- Be flexible—Losing prospective partners can limit a program's effectiveness.
- Provide training to help members complete their tasks—For example, coalition members may need training in how to be effective advocates for your program's issues.

- Give members a stake in the coalition and an active role in decision-making.
- Seek external resources to augment member resources.
- Evaluate the effectiveness of the coalition periodically and make necessary changes—This should include process evaluation of the coalition's functioning and assessment of the coalition's impact on the health problem being addressed.

Tucker and Mc Nerney (1992) describe four kinds of coalitions. The FEMA Emergency Management Institute provides examples of how each may relate to a public disaster preparedness education campaign:

1. Representatives of different groups who have grown weary of costly confrontation. They need to build consensus, using a specific issue as common ground. Example: *Various voluntary community groups, competing to garner the most support from private and corporate donations, might instead combine efforts on the topic of community preparedness, and share otherwise limited resources to achieve a wider level of preparedness.*
2. Representatives of different groups who, although of different missions or opinions, realize that they share a common perspective on a specific issue. Example: *Insurance companies and emergency preparedness authorities might have different goals (selling insurance to cover disaster claims versus providing adequate responses in a major population emergency), but both will benefit if the community is prepared (less damage/less claims, and less dependence on limited police/fire/ambulance resources in a disaster).*
3. Representatives of groups with varied goals and perspectives who are more likely to be sensitive to the specific point of view. Example: *A municipal health department with oversight for ambulance, public health, hospital, and clinic services might be sensitive to community emergency preparedness because the public's health needs in an emergency will affect the agency by demanding a response for many who, if not prepared, might otherwise become injured, need medical services, or become homeless.*
4. Representatives of varied groups might share a position that already has widespread acceptance. Example: *Businesses, service organizations, and governmental agencies all might climb on the bandwagon to publicize a smoke detector installation campaign in residences. Such efforts can sell detectors, reduce overall insurance liability, limit loss of life and property, and make the jobs of fire departments safer and more effective.*

SIDEBAR 3.5 SIX STEPS TO FORMING A COALITION

FEMA describes six steps that may be used to build and organize coalitions. The following is an adaptation of these steps:

1. *Develop a position:* Evaluate the importance of the preparedness issue, who is driving it, and who is likely to be affected or think they will be affected by it. Create a position that will benefit your organization's success with the program, as well as those you are trying to educate.
2. *Create a strategy for pursuing your position:* Questions to consider include:
 - a. How can you accelerate the opportunity to enhance community preparedness?
 - b. How can you make adjustments to adapt to the community's need or capitalize on a given trend?
 - c. Is there a mutual benefit for the community and for businesses to promote preparedness education and activities?
 - d. Can you get a major organization to back the concept or offer incentives for those taking specific training or actions?
 - e. Is there a sense of ownership among participants?

A key strategy is to help develop a sense of ownership of specific outcomes among coalition participants. The partners must understand and embrace these outcomes as goals they want to achieve.
3. *Identify coalition participants:* For each organization considered, planners should think about the following questions:
 - a. What are their positions?
 - b. How credible is the organization/individual with other organizations or individuals?
 - c. Will they want to be the official sponsors of the effort?
 - d. Who are the leaders of those organizations?
 - e. Will they participate themselves or will they recommend someone who will?
 - f. How can I work with others within those organizations or who have influence on them to help shape their opinion and see the preparedness point of view more favorably?
4. *Conduct research:* Try to get a baseline on the level of community preparedness before beginning a campaign. This evidence is used to support the need for your preparedness education programs.
5. *Organize your meeting:* Try to find common ground among invited coalition members. Where do we agree and disagree? Where can we work together? Try to identify common

philosophical values and look for misperceptions and unrealistic expectations. With groups of differing perspectives, building consensus will not be easy. Participants will need to work through the process, so everyone must be able to let his or her positions be known.

6. *Plan the campaign.*

Planners should be aware that there can be drawbacks to including partners in the planning process and in the facilitation of the campaign itself, but awareness of these issues can help them to be minimized. Drawbacks to including partners can include:

- Identifying partners, persuading them to join your efforts, waiting for them to make a decision, training them in the relevant issues, and coordinating with the additional team members often serve to increase the burden of time involved in planning.
- The different wants, needs, perspectives, experiences, capabilities, and ideals of each partner can require that the nature of the campaign be altered to ensure that all partners are satisfied.
- Partner organizations may try to use the program for their own needs or take credit for the program's successes beyond the contribution they provided.
- Staffing problems, funding shortages, or mismanagement in partner organizations can all lead to delays, mismanagement, or complete failure of the campaign.

For these reasons, planners must be sure that they are prepared to work with the partners they recruit, and that those partners are willing and able to do so (and for the right reasons). They must have a solid understanding about how flexible they are willing to be with the campaign to meet the wants of their partners, and how much support they are willing and able to provide them if and when they require it.

The makeup of the team that results from this effort must consist of enthusiastic supporters who can help plan and promote the public education effort. Ideally, representatives from the target audience are included as full members or in advisory roles, to verify assumptions and provide subject matter expertise. It is equally important to involve community organizations that typically work with the target audience, primarily to prevent redundancy of effort, provide the mutual benefit of collaboration, and allow for the sharing of ideas and experiences (as well as access reputation and trust they enjoy among message recipients). Although it is important that at least two or three people in the core planning team are able to provide leadership and continuity throughout the planning and implementation effort, it is okay if some

planning team members rotate in and out as appropriate (with some available only for the initial planning meetings and others helping out only during implementation).

The target audience profile will heavily influence the team's membership. For instance, businesses and industries can serve as effective conduits for sharing disaster information among their employees, if their employees are among those targeted. Businesses typically have phone trees established and methods for disseminating information to staff. Furthermore, many companies have already established disaster education programs that the planning team can tap into (such as emergency drills and annual training sessions). Government agencies and other community organizations are also important partners in public education. School systems, for example, can help educate children and young adults about hazards in their areas and appropriate preparations and response measures. Many government emergency management offices have already assessed the hazards in the community, and may have even developed guidance on how to educate their constituents.

One of the greatest benefits of including a wide range of stakeholders is that each will provide important input into the process specific to his or her individual perspective, and will likewise become a vocal advocate for preparedness in general and the project at hand. The following are examples of stakeholders that may be included in a public education planning effort:

- Emergency responders (fire, police, EMS) and emergency managers
- Local, state, and federal governmental agency officials
- Private-sector/business/industry leaders
- Volunteer organization representatives
- Community and faith-based organization leaders
- Elected officials
- News media representatives (television, newspapers, radio, Internet)
- Representatives from the target audience
- Educators and school administrators (from schools, colleges, and universities)
- Concerned individuals
- Civic and business organizations
- Businesses
- The Chamber of Commerce and the area Council of Governments
- Local community centers
- Religious organizations
- Youth clubs
- Women's clubs and organizations
- Trade enterprises and associations
- Banks and credit unions

- Health centers, hospitals, or clinics
- Sport clubs
- Libraries, cinemas, theaters, or circuses
- Utility companies
- Red Cross chapters

Encouraging Partners to Join the Planning Team

The inclusion of partners can be the most effective way to expand the scope and reach of the campaign. In exchange for the benefit of participating, partners bring to the project skills, labor, equipment, audience access, credibility, materials and supplies, space, experience, and much more (see Sidebar 3.6 for examples of benefits gained through partnership). How and when partners are identified and approached is always at the discretion of the organization conducting the campaign. In some cases, if your organization has little or no experience with public education, it may be preferable to include partners from the very beginning of the planning process before the problem is fully defined or the audience is profiled. However, in most cases it is preferable that there be structure to the project so that partners may know in what they are agreeing to participate.

SIDEBAR 3.6 PARTNER ORGANIZATION CONTRIBUTIONS

Partnering organizations bring to the program a much wider range of skills, abilities, and resources than are possessed by any single organization. The addition of these attributes allows planners to consider many more options than they otherwise could. The skills and resources a partner organization can bring to a public disaster preparedness education campaign might include:

- Graphic design software, skills, and equipment
- Printing materials and equipment
- Advertising space or time
- Endorsement
- Sponsorship or inclusion at events
- Specialized knowledge of or access to the target audience
- Specialized skills
- Additional people to communicate the public education message
- Space to hold events and equipment required to do so
- Food, drinks, and other supplies to draw people to events

- Storage, transport, or distribution of materials
- Experience with the hazards addressed
- Increase in the number of messages the program is able to transmit
- Training resources

Expanded support for your organization's priority activities

With luck, partners may jump at the chance to participate in your project as proposed. This is most typical for organizations that regularly work with the target audience and when these partners are required to dedicate little or no resources of their own. However, most potential partners will need convincing before they agree to join. The planning team leader must therefore be able to present to these organizations and individuals the benefits each stands to gain through their participation. Such benefits could include:

- The opportunity to share credit for success
- Membership and participation in a forum whereby community problems are discussed, addressed, and resolved
- The opportunity to foster good community relations
- Increased awareness of the hazards faced by community residents and businesses
- The opportunity to improve the working relationships between government and civil society
- Local and collective ownership for the resolution of community problems
- Increased visibility and credibility in the community
- The opportunity to build organizational capacities and other skills
- Networking opportunities
- Increased positive media coverage, perceived credibility, and community visibility
- Access to data and experience
- Assurance of message accuracy

Among the wide variety of options for partnership opportunities, there are subgroups within this body that can be approached for specific reasons. Major subgroups of partners in the community include the following:

- *Local businesses:* There are two primary reasons why local businesses participate in community projects like a preparedness education campaign. The first is that these businesses

depend upon their good reputation among community members. A project such as this can significantly raise their profile within the community, as its goal is to reach as many members of an audience as possible. The second reason is one of corporate responsibility. Many businesses feel they should give back to the communities that make their success possible. Preparedness education projects in general can require a significant amount of skills, equipment, and materials, all of which are provided by different members of the local business community. By partnering with these organizations, it is possible to acquire access to these skills, equipment, and materials as an in-kind donation in exchange for the positive publicity that comes through shared project credit. Through creative planning, it is often possible to gain these items through no extra cost on the part of the partners. For instance, grocers, hardware store owners, and other merchants in your community may be invited to put preparedness messages on shopping bags, store windows, or marquees outside their stores (see Figure 3.3). Local businesses may agree to work with you to set up displays inside their stores featuring key items shoppers might need as they put together a family emergency supply kit. Local merchants might also be interested in sponsoring contests on preparedness in the schools and donating prizes for kids. Other examples of opportunities for partnership roles for local businesses include:

- Local utilities (telephone, water, electric, gas) can include emergency preparedness and mitigation messages or literature in customer bills or newsletters.
- Businesses can be encouraged to distribute disaster preparedness information to employees, and hold preparedness workshops with employees and their families during business hours.
- Graphic design, printing, and other businesses with related capacities can design and print hazard and basic preparedness fact sheets and brochures.
- Local organizations and businesses can donate space upon which a poster may be hung or where brochures may be distributed to customers.
- Businesses with a large customer base may allow access to their customers by permitting the organization to host in-store workshops or other events.
- Restaurants or fast-food chains may want to donate food or refreshments at events.
- *Community organizations:* Community organizations include youth clubs, Red Cross chapters, NGOs, law enforcement



FIGURE 3.3 Tulsa, Oklahoma, Mayor's Citizen Corps received donated space on food tray liners from the McDonald's Corporation for printing emergency preparedness education materials for disaster education. (Courtesy of Tulsa Mayor's Citizen Corps and the Oklahoma Department of Emergency Management.)

organizations, women's groups, veteran's groups, religious organizations, and others. While these organizations are rarely able to provide financial assistance to the project, they can often provide two equally important resources: people and credibility. Community organizations tend to have deep roots in the community and may enjoy an even higher level of recognition and trust among community members in general or the target population in particular. Members of these groups work to help their community in a variety of ways, and when the public education project is compatible with those goals, they are likely to pay close attention. By accessing the networks each of these groups has established, your team can greatly extend the reach of its disaster awareness and preparedness message. Some ideas of partnership roles for community organizations include:

- Organizations that hold meetings with members of the community or some other target population can present

disaster preparedness and mitigation workshops at one of these meetings.

- Organizations that hold periodic fairs, festivals, or other events can include a segment or booth on disaster preparedness.
- Organizations that work with the target population can incorporate disaster preparedness into the services that they regularly offer.
- Organizations with a wide volunteer base can offer the time or skills of their volunteers for the planning or facilitation of the campaign.
- Organizations may contribute space to hold meetings, store equipment and supplies, or host people working on the project.
- Organizations may provide equipment such as computers, software, printers and plotters, audio and video recording and display devices, and so on.
- Organizations may agree to include information about your preparedness program and perhaps even a link to your program's Website or other online presence through their Website, or social media account such as Facebook, Twitter, or Instagram. Because people are more likely to check their Website or be linked to their social media accounts, this will increase the reach of the preparedness program as well as enhance the credibility of the message.
- *Public safety organizations:* The various public safety organizations that operate in the community already have a vested stake in the preparedness of the community populace. These organizations may even have public education campaigns in place that are operational. By working with them, planners will tap into a great amount of community-specific knowledge regarding hazards, solutions, and audiences. Additionally, the credibility these organizations hold within the community is rarely surpassed. The range of contributions these organizations may provide is limited primarily by the available time of their members, and their resources. However, as the vast majority of public safety organizations depend upon financial contributions from the community, they are likely to participate in any event or project that can increase their likelihood of receiving grants or donations. Creativity on the part of the planning team, and the ability of the planning team members to tap into their very limited time, will be the key to their involvement. Some ideas for partnership roles for public safety organizations include:
 - Firefighters, policemen, emergency managers, or EMTs may present public safety campaign messages through

presentations at schools, civic group meetings, or other venues (see Figure 3.4).

- Public safety organizations can offer sponsorship to a campaign, thereby lending a great deal of credibility to the message.
- Public safety organizations may have valuable information that can be used to define the hazard, possible solutions to the problem, or information specific to the target audience.
- Public safety organizations may have unique access to members of the target audience (e.g., they may have an e-mail list or phone numbers of people signed up to receive e-mails or text messages from their organization) or authority to conduct specific tasks (such as home safety inspections).
- Public safety organizations may agree to promote your message or program through their online or social media



FIGURE 3.4 Emergency services departments can combine annual fundraising efforts with public education campaigns by holding family preparedness fairs that encourage children and families to prepare by showcasing the resources and capabilities of the department (Author photo).

presence similar to what was described above with community organizations.

- *Partnering with schools:* Schools provide quite possibly the best access to any target audience that includes children or families. The environment found within schools is perfectly suited to foster learning, so any message conducted within this setting is likely to benefit (see Figure 3.5). In addition, schools already participate in many other public health education campaigns, so the structures are in place to transmit the disaster preparedness message. Through school-based associations, including parent–teacher groups or sports teams, planners can extend their message reach. Students are often enthusiastic about participating in public education projects and can be relied upon to echo preparedness messages throughout the community. Local merchants might even be more likely to participate if they know that schools are involved, because of the wider customer base that is reached and the credibility that is gained. Examples of partnership roles for schools include:
 - Schools can hold poster competitions, with prizes (donated by local businesses, for instance) for contest winners.
 - Schools can incorporate a disaster preparedness workshop into their regular parent and teacher meetings.
 - School teachers can incorporate a disaster preparedness message into their lesson plans.



FIGURE 3.5 A fourth grader at Painted Rock Elementary School dons firefighter gear during a FEMA for Kids presentation in Poway, California, February 13, 2008 (John Ashton for FEMA 2008).

- Schools can assign at-home projects that involve family disaster preparedness activities.
- Schools can pass along program materials and messages by e-mailing parents directly or posting information on their Websites or social media pages.
- *Target audience leaders:* Often, planners are not necessarily experts on the issues faced by the special populations their public education efforts are targeting. By involving leaders and members of these target groups in the planning process, they are not only ensuring that all of the important topics and issues are at least considered but they are also helping to establish trust and buy-in among the targeted individuals. Examples of partnership roles for target audience members and leaders include:
 - Audience members and leaders can assist with the development of a target audience profile.
 - Audience members and leaders can participate in the pre-testing of messages and materials before they are distributed among the greater target audience.
 - Target audience leaders can endorse the project, lending significant credibility to the campaign.
 - Target audience members and leaders can help the organization to assess the progress of the campaign and to make required adjustments.
 - Target audience members can raise awareness about the program and recruit others to get involved through their personal social media accounts, as they are likely to be a direct link to members of the target audience.

The Media as a Partner

In most public disaster preparedness endeavors, a partnership with the news (mass) media will be paramount, offering quite possibly the most important and influential contribution an organization can gain through its partnership endeavors. News media outlets, which include television, print (newspapers), radio, and Internet-based companies, already play a significant role in disaster and emergency management both before and after disasters occur. The media, for instance, are lauded for the valuable service they perform during the initial critical moments of a disaster when emergency response efforts are first mobilized, and media organizations serve to transmit warnings, evacuation orders and instructions, the location and availability of medical care and shelter, and where to go for more specific information.

In the preparedness phase of emergency management, the primary public education tasks assumed by the media are very similar (if not identical) to what you are likely to be performing yourself, including raising citizen awareness to the presence of hazards and providing information to those citizens regarding prevention or protection measures. The media have established themselves within modern society such that, as a general population, citizens turn to them more than any other source to obtain information, including that which relates to hazards (Walsh 1996). FEMA mitigation specialists even go so far as to claim that the media role in community and citizen preparedness is critical if such efforts are to succeed (FEMA 1998).

The media role should not be overestimated, however, as it is not absolute. While it has been found that personal preparedness is most likely to be undertaken by people attentive to the news media, this tendency is usually accompanied by other behavioral characteristics that support preparedness actions and attitudes (e.g., personal experience and expendable income). In this sense, the media role should be seen as an important *supplemental* component in your preparedness campaign, not the answer to its problems. Campaigns that rely too heavily on the media without addressing the reasons why people do not or are unable to prepare will not succeed. Other specific problems associated with media participation in public disaster preparedness education campaigns include the following:

- Although the media is effective at raising awareness about issues and communicating degrees of urgency, they often avoid contributing solutions to problems.
- The media is often unable to educate the public about risk in such a way as to give citizens an accurate perception of personal vulnerability.
- The media often speaks to a general audience rather than addressing the specific needs of a more focused target population.

The mass media is diverse in character, utilizing print, broadcast, and other methods of transmission, and existing at the local, regional, national, and international levels. It is a well-established institution operating in a predictable manner. With the right strategy, planners can tap into these resources and channels to reach wider audiences easier and quicker than they ever could by other means. FEMA proclaims in the publication *Project Impact: Building a Disaster Resistant Community*,

You will want to target print, radio, and television outlets at planned intervals with your messages. As gatekeepers to your community, the media affect and shape our opinions and our behavior. They influence

our preferences and our choices. By encouraging reporters to write or broadcast your messages, you will generate awareness and interest.

FEMA claims that a targeted, comprehensive media list, containing all of the important and relevant media outlets that reach the target audience, is the “most essential tool of any successful media campaign.” The planning team can create a media list through cooperation with local government agencies and other organizations that maintain regular contact with members of the mass media. Sources of greatest value will likely be those that cover community affairs, natural disasters, or the metro desk, for example. Outlets that should be included in the media list are found in Sidebar 3.7.

You must always remember that members of the media are not public education experts, and their goal is not to inform the public but rather to increase the ratings of their media outlet. Therefore, careful attention must be paid when fostering partnerships with the media to ensure that their inclusion does not backfire and end up hurting rather than helping your cause. Peter Sandman, an acclaimed risk communication expert, describes 11 ways for those performing preparedness education to help reporters understand the technical aspects of a story or message. They are (Sandman 1992):

1. Don't assume knowledge
2. Guide the interview
3. Avoid jargon
4. Simplify content
5. Anticipate problem areas
6. Provide written back-up information
7. Be alert for signs of confusion
8. Check for understanding
9. Suggest other sources
10. Offer to look at a draft or check quotes
11. Encourage specialized reporting

Media partners can disseminate preparedness messages through various means, which may include articles, feature stories, editorial coverage, or donated advertising space. In its *How-To Guide for State and Local Mitigation Planning*, FEMA describes various ways in which a planning team can work directly with the media to promote the risk communication messages it has developed, such as (FEMA, 2002):

- Include a special insert in a local newspaper
- Broadcast public meetings on a local access channel or through public service announcements

- Produce a video to be broadcast on local access channels
- Use news releases or information contained in press kits to create feature stories or reports. Press kits are folders summarizing the key information about your goals and actions, information that helps to pique interest in your program, and information that provides reporters with accurate details about the hazards and what can be done about them.
- Announce an upcoming meeting or event
- Attend a meeting or event to highlight your cause
- Provide viewers with contact information or other important data that will help them locate preparedness instruction and information.

The planning team can also contact local broadcasters and offer interviews with disaster safety experts. Television stations frequently need guests to fill slots in early morning or weekend shows. Radio talk show hosts may welcome the chance to interview an emergency preparedness expert provided by the team, because the topic is always timely. The team can also arrange visits to the editorial department of local newspapers to gain print coverage. Experts could include representatives of the local or regional Red Cross, Salvation Army, emergency management office, National Weather Service, or fire department rescue team. The team may also want to have the expert write an opinion piece or a letter to the editor to be submitted to the newspaper.

FEMA provides some caution for working with the media. It states,

[w]hile the media is a good source for getting information to the public, you do have to be careful. Sometimes the media can distort the information you give them or give it a different spin. The media likes attention-grabbing headlines so they may try to make your plan controversial in some way. You should work on establishing an honest, working relationship with a local reporter so that each of you has someone to turn to when you need to gather or provide information to the community.

Almost every major news outlet now includes an online component, most of which allow readers to offer comments and to share the article both privately through e-mail and text and publicly on their own social media pages. Stories that are more often selected and shared by users will expose more people to the message. Researchers have identified characteristics of news stories and social media posts that make them more likely to be selected, shared, and “go viral.” These characteristics are discussed in Chapter 4.

SIDEBAR 3.7 MEDIA CHECKLIST

Media lists should include:

- Newspapers (dailies, weeklies, monthlies, college/university papers, and community newsletters)
- City and regional magazines
- Local trade and business publications
- State bureaus of national wire services, such as the Associated Press (AP), Reuters, and United Press International (UPI)
- Local radio and television stations (including college/university networks)
- Local cable stations
- Public broadcasting stations (which may have community affairs programming)
- Public information officers at military bases, if applicable (many military housing areas have broadcast stations and newsletters that may reach the entire families of service members)

Regardless of the medium, for the most part your media list will consist of the following types of reporters:

- Metro desk/city reporters—interested in news around town
- Public affairs reporters—interested in civic and legislative issues
- Business reporters—interested in hard news involving regional business, local economy, and economic/community growth (e.g., impact on sales, environment, address changes)
- News assignment editors

Public service announcement directors.

Source: FEMA (Federal Emergency Management Agency), Making Your Community Disaster Resistant: Project Impact Media Partnership Guide, FEMA, Washington, DC, 1998.

DRAWING UP PARTNERSHIP PLANS

Projects run more smoothly when everyone involved assumes his or her role with an accurate impression and full understanding of what he or she is expected to contribute. This certainly holds true with partners. Partnership plans and agreements can be drawn up to manage expectations. These agreements not only ensure that partners understand what role they are expected to play but they also help to prevent them from

overstepping their bounds and taking too much control of the project. Project managers can easily lose control and ownership if any one organization begins working far beyond the expectations of the original partnership agreement, and the partnership plan is a good reference that keeps these risks in check.

PROJECT MANAGEMENT

All complex projects require project management. The project management effort depends upon a project manager who is able to direct all players and resources according to the tasks required and the timetable desired. Project management must cover the project from planning and development, through implementation, to evaluation. The most effective method of maintaining project management is to create a visualization of each of these elements. Identifying and describing all tasks at the start of the project is very effective in ensuring that the project does not run into hidden or unexpected overruns in time or cost.

One very effective tool for managing a project is a program logic model. A logic model is a picture of the program that links all program resources and activities to short-term and long-term objectives and goals, and indicates how each will be measured and evaluated. Figure 3.6 offers one way to set up a logic model and describes what should be included in each box. This figure is based on logic models shown in the W.K. Kellogg Foundation's *Logic Model Development Guide*, which can be downloaded from the resource section of the W.K. Kellogg Foundation Website (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2004).

Logic models can be useful during several different phases of an emergency preparedness program. During the *planning phase*, logic models can be used to generate an exhaustive list of resources, activities, and output measurements required to achieve long-term and short-term objectives. This helps program planners to ensure that the scope of the project falls within any time and budgetary constraints. Program planners may start by filling in the last two boxes of the model that are reserved for goals and objectives. They may then work backward within the model to complete the "outputs," "activities," and "resources" boxes.

To begin filling in the output box, for each objective, program planners should ask, "What data are necessary to determine whether or not this objective has been met?" Each data point required to determine whether the objective was met should be listed in the "outputs" box. This will include baseline and completion measurements. For example, if a long-term objective is "To increase by 10% the number of UCLA students who have secured furniture to walls, using anchors, one year after the program launches," the corresponding

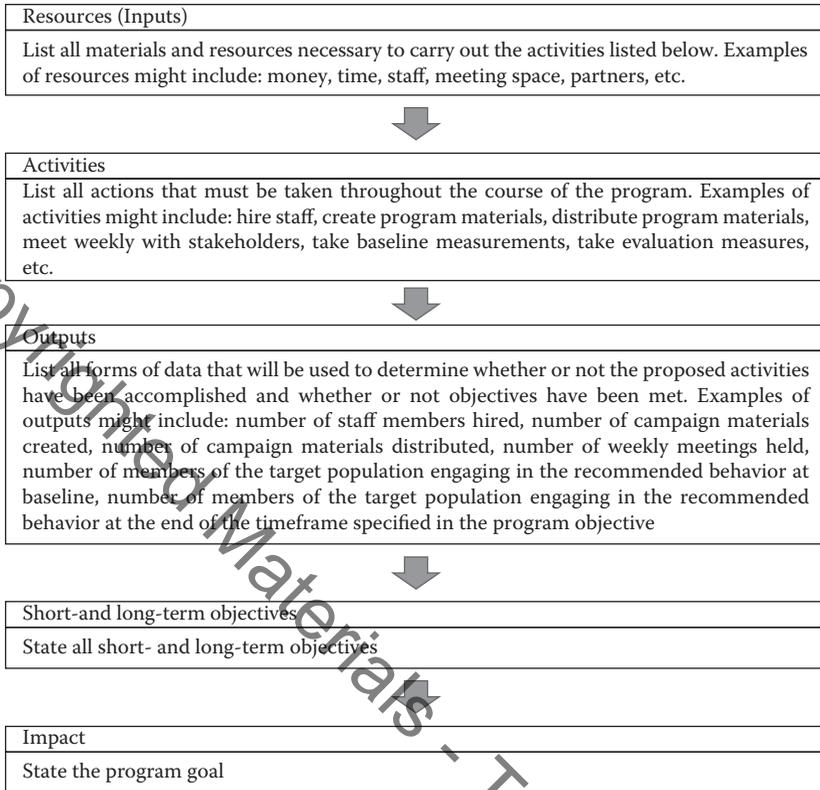


FIGURE 3.6 Example of a Gantt chart used to organize and illustrate the tasks of a preparedness campaign.

“outputs” to list would include “baseline number of UCLA students who have secured furniture to their walls, with anchors,” and “number of UCLA students who have secured furniture to their walls, with anchors, one year after program launch.”

Next, program planners should look at each objective and output individually and ask “What needs to be done in order to bring about each objective and to collect the corresponding data listed in the output box?” Each step needed to meet these objectives and take these measurements should be listed in the “activities” box. For example, if a short-term objective is to increase the number of UCLA students who know how to anchor furniture to their walls within six months of program launch, the corresponding activity to meet this objective might be to hold workshops on campus over the course of this six-month period. Examples of activities associated with this objective might include: “schedule workshops”;

“create workshop curriculum and materials”; “recruit and train five workshop facilitators”; “create and distribute promotional materials for workshops”; and “hold the workshops.”

Once the “activities” box is complete, planners may need to return to the “outputs” box to add in data needed for process evaluation. For example, an additional output based on the activities listed in the previous paragraph might be “number of workshops held during the fall semester.”

Finally, program planners should use all outputs and activities listed to make a determination about all resources needed to carry out the program’s activities. In keeping with the anchoring furniture example, the workshops listed in the activities box might require all workshop materials, a lecture hall to hold the workshops, facilitators to teach at the workshops, and materials for promoting the workshop. The baseline and final measurements listed in the outputs box might require a schoolwide survey, incentives for survey completion, the school’s e-mail listserver for survey distribution, and password-protected computers for storing and analyzing survey responses.

Logic models should be seen as dynamic guides that may be adjusted several times throughout the course of the program. They may be used as a reference over the course of the program to keep all personnel on the same page about how the program is scheduled to run and to guide in process as well as summative evaluation, which are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5.

The tasks involved in a public disaster preparedness education campaign are not conducted in a purely linear fashion. Often, different members of the campaign conduct many tasks at once. To increase the efficiency of time, labor, and resources, and to minimize the time required for project development and campaign facilitation, the project manager will need to be aware of each task and its current status. This is usually conducted with a task list.

Task lists are most effective when they are ordered by start date, with the anticipated time to conduct the task noted. An effective means to illustrate the task list is a cascade Gantt chart, so called because of its waterfall-like appearance. An example of a Gantt chart is provided in Figure 3.7. A timeline is drawn to each task (relative to all other tasks), responsible individuals or organizations are assigned, and resources are noted.

The project manager, who is responsible for assigning people and organizations to tasks, can use a Gantt chart or a similar illustrative task list to ensure that no one is double booked, and that all resources are identified, acquired, and assigned to no more than one task. These figures also make it easier for the project manager to ensure that tasks are being conducted on time and in the order in which they are needed.

ID	Task name	Start	Finish	Duration	2008				2009				2010		
					Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	
1	Project kickoff	12/1/2008	12/1/2008	1d											
2	Define campaign strategy	12/2/2008	12/15/2008	2w											
3	Select settings, channels, and methods	12/15/2008	1/9/2009	4w											
4	Select communicators	1/12/2009	2/6/2009	4w											
5	Design/develop message content	2/9/2009	4/17/2009	10w											
6	Create campaign materials	4/20/2009	7/10/2009	12w											
7	Pretesting and materials adjustment	2/9/2009	7/10/2009	22w											
8	Campaign launch	7/13/2009	7/13/2009	1d											
9	Campaign implementation	7/13/2009	4/16/2010	40w											
10	Campaign evaluation	7/13/2009	4/16/2010	40w											

FIGURE 3.7 Logic model guide.

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While by no means required, there exists off-the-shelf software, like Microsoft Project or EasyProjects.net, which guides the project management process. Whatever method is used, it should be flexible enough to allow for changes as the project progresses, and the true completion dates and costs become apparent.

CONCLUSION

Emergency preparedness public education campaigns may be complex, but with proper planning, staffing, and funding, and with a comprehensive understanding of the target audience, they can be very successful. Campaign planners are wise to dedicate as much time as possible to the planning phase—often as much or even more time as the actual campaign itself. The next two chapters describe the process by which these plans become practice, and the public is educated about the actions it may take to reduce its hazard risk.

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