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Social Marketing through Events
Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration

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List of papers

This dissertation is based on the following papers.

**Paper I**


**Paper II**


**Paper III**


**Paper IV**


**Paper V**

Abstract

In today’s society, events are used as a means to achieve a variety of goals, including increased tourism and economic improvement. Events also offer opportunities for communication, both through the visitor experience and through the publicity that is generated. In this line of research, an emerging perspective on events as catalysts of behaviour change has increasingly been addressed by event scholars and is the focus of this thesis.

Within the marketing discipline, one field that involves behaviour change is social marketing. Undesired behaviours are targeted for replacement by alternative behaviours that are considered more beneficial from an individual and societal perspective. Social marketing can be directed downstream, which is a direct address of individual behaviours, or upstream, which considers attempts to influence the behaviours of actors who shape the environment in which individuals exist.

This thesis describes how downstream social marketing research has shifted from a traditional perspective of influencing individual consumers’ behaviours through the promotion of ideas to a broader perspective that seeks to understand consumers’ search for hedonic or social response in relation to behaviour change. In this direction, this thesis suggests and explores the construct of the experiencescape in the social marketing research field.

Scholars have suggested that the upstream direction has traditionally been neglected, and there is a need to advance upstream theory to guide upstream social marketing. Within upstream social marketing, publicity is recognized as an important means to influence policy and policy makers. Events’ capacity to generate publicity and awareness of issues can be utilized for social marketers. To theoretically address this issue, framing theory is introduced in a social marketing context.

Through the lens of social marketing, this thesis explores how events can be used to influence behaviour change. A mixed-methods approach is employed to collect case study data from the perspectives of various stakeholders, for instance public organizations, visitors, event producers, advocacy groups.
This thesis demonstrates that through the event experience, visitors’ access to alternative behaviours can be temporarily enhanced. The event experience comprises a variety of dimensions that can be used to influence individual consumers’ behaviour. It is argued that experiences of social marketing products in an event setting that contrasts the mundane have implications for perceived consumer value and thus for behaviour adoption and maintenance. It is concluded that events enable social marketing communication beyond traditional information-based promotion.

The study also explores how framing theory can guide attempts to use publicity for upstream purposes. As such, this thesis shows how event-generated publicity can be framed and thus can be an approach for social marketers.

By introducing the theoretical construct of the experiencescape this thesis contributes to expand the area of social marketing. The experiencescape provides a lens that acknowledges consumers’ emotions and search for a hedonic response as central to influencing behaviour. This concept resonates with the emerging perspective of consumer perceived value as a driver of behaviour adoption. Moreover, this thesis contributes by exploring publicity as a means of social marketing. It is concluded that framing theory, particularly the sub-process of frame-building, provides a framework for considering how publicity frames may be approached in upstream social marketing.

Finally, practical strategies are discussed regarding stakeholders' use of events to influence downstream and upstream behaviour change. It is suggested that from a social marketing perspective, there is an unleashed potential for destinations to manage event portfolios because in addition to the traditional rationale of using events as a means to achieve economic goals, the intersection between events and a social and environmental agenda for sustainable development provides interesting opportunities. This possibility applies to recurring hallmark events that—by definition—are locally embedded in social and cultural structures.

**Keywords:** Social marketing, Events, Behaviour change, Consumer experience, Publicity, Framing theory
Sammanfattning


Kombinationen av evenemang och social marknadsföring, visar sig vara fruktbart för båda forskningsfälten. Social marknadsföring gagnas av att nya koncept som *upplevelserummet* och förklarande om hur en kort men intensiv upplevelse, exempelvis en musikfestival, kan bidra till beteendeförändring. Evenemangs forskningen drar nytta av nya koncept som *uppströms* och *nedströms* social marknadsföring och *framing theory* som hjälper till att ge en rikare beskrivning av hur budskap kommuniceras genom evenemang.

En kombination av kvantitativa och kvalitativa metoder har använts för att samla in och analysera falldata ur flera intressentperspektiv, exempelvis offentliga organisationer, besökare, evenemangsarrangörer och intressegrupper. I synnerhet har musikfestivalen *Way Out West* studerats. Empiriska data beskriver ett kraftfullt socialt marknadsföringsbudskap om de positiva miljöeffekterna från en vegetarisk kost, som kommunicerades via den årliga, tre dagar långa musikfestivalen. Resultaten tyder på att insatsen kan ha påverkat 15% av besökarna att minska sin vardagliga köttkonsumtion och till att reducera festivalens ekologiska fotavtryck med 40%.

I avhandlingen framhålls evenemangsupplevelsens betydelse för social omstrukturering; normer kan förändras då besökare i gemenskap upplever något som bryter av mot det vardagliga. Ytterligare en central diskussion berör publicitet som ett medel för att påverka beslutsfattare och indirekt individers beteenden.
Vidare presenteras strategier för hur intressenter kan kommunicera sociala marknadsföringsbudskap genom evenemang. Exempelvis föreslås att en stads evenemangsportfölj innebär intressanta möjligheter, i synnerhet om den innehåller så kallade hallmark evenemang. Dessa är återkommande och integrerade i den lokala kontexten och kan på ett effektivt sätt bidra till att skapa nytta för individ och samhälle.

Nyckelord: Social marknadsföring, Evenemang, Beteendeförändring, Konsumentupplevelser, Publicitet, Framing theory
Acknowledgements

The PhD programme and the writing of this thesis have been challenging. It is a major mental effort to enter a project spanning several years without a fixed deadline or knowing which turn or dead end to expect next. However, in many ways, this process has been the time of my life. It is a luxury to have time devoted solely to reading, thinking, discussing and writing. Numerous persons have guided, supported and challenged me through the process. I am so grateful for your generosity!

First, I would like to thank my supervisors, Tommy D. Andersson and Lena Mossberg. Tommy, you opened the door to a PhD in my mind, and you have been around ever since—with challenging questions, of course, and with a new creative angle or a supportive word when they were needed most. Lena, during my second year, you agreed to become my second supervisor. You brought a marketing perspective and a PhD course on marketing and consumer experience at just the right time that contributed significantly to the development of my thesis. Thank you both for fun, inspiration and your patience with me.

Second, I would like to thank Göteborg & Co (Therese Brusberg, Lennart Johansson and Camilla Nyman) and Turistrådet Västsverige (Marie Linde, Fredrik Lindén and Lotta Nibell-Keating) for funding the PhD project. I hope the outcomes will create value for your organizations.

A special thanks goes to the co-authors with whom I have written articles: Petra Adolfsson, Tommy D. Andersson and Erik Lundberg (twice!). Writing with you has been fun and has provided great opportunities for learning.

I would like to thank the scholars who have read and commented on drafts or on my work in relation to formal seminars: John Armbrecht, PhD, Prof. Donald Getz, Prof. Michael C. Hall, Prof. Bengt Johansson, Benjamin Julien-Hartmann, PhD, Erik Lundberg, PhD, Prof. Rita Mårtenson and Dao Truong, PhD, and of course the editors and anonymous reviewers of the journals to which my papers were submitted.

For my research, empirical data have been crucial. Thank you to Live Nation/Luger (Joel Borg, Ola Broquist, Patrick Fredriksson and Niklas Lundell), Göteborg & Co (Stefan Gadd), Svenska Friidrottsförbundet
(Anders Albertsson) for allowing access to the necessary data. In this context, I would also like to thank the thousands of informants I have interviewed through surveys, telephone, e-mail or face-to-face during the process. Without your input, there certainly would have been no thesis.

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Leaving the familiar practical context of tourism and events to start as a PhD student in autumn 2012 was a rather dramatic change in my professional life. During the first courses (Classical Texts in Business Administration and Philosophy of Science), I started to doubt that my decision was a good one. Luckily, I found support in the group of fellow PhD students. Thank you Marcus B, Sandhiya (again!), Tore, Samuel, Markus R and Gabriella for fun and encouragement. Additionally, Emma, Kajsa, Maria, Ann-Charlotte, Malin and Stefan, your administrative support has been very important.

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Gothenburg, May 2017

Henrik Jutbring
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In 1992, I had the privilege of entering the fascinating world of events on a professional basis. Some years later, in 2000, I was employed by the destination management organization Gothenburg & Co, where the tasks of event management were to be performed on a different level. Until 2012 when I started my PhD studies, I had the opportunity to engage in events and destination development in a variety of managerial positions. It is from these twenty years of practice that my interest in events and market communication has grown, and I am grateful to be able to explore some of the questions generated in this thesis.

There are three occasions in particular that stand out in my memory and that have made me reflect on events and communication. The first memory stems from a discussion I had with a journalist in 2006. At the time, I was curating the music programme at one of the stages of the nine-day public celebration called “Göteborgskalaset” (the Gothenburg Party). In general, the media were responding positively to the programme, but this reporter confronted me with challenging questions regarding the gender representation of the artists. She had carefully counted the number of males and females who were to perform, and she argued that the gender distribution was not equal but rather was 80/20 in favour of men. This was problematic since the sexes were not offered equal conditions; even worse, she reasoned, the event would signal that women were not welcome on the music stages. The criticism was not all new to me. It had been vocalized towards music festivals for a couple years, but it took some time for me to process and grasp the points she made in relation to my own practice.

A second occasion for reflection occurred in 2012, when a major international music gala was to be televised from Gothenburg. In the local morning paper, I was quoted as saying, “The media impact is difficult to assess, but it is enormous.” According to the television broadcast network, the event’s potential audience reach was 600 million households worldwide, an astonishing number that I consider impossible to embrace intellectually. However, it was probably on that seductive number that I based the statement of an “enormous media effect”.

Prologue
In the summer of 2012, a third situation triggered my interest in events and communication. I received a call from the Way Out West management informing me that they planned to make the festival all vegetarian. The argument supporting the strategy was that the removal of meat would reduce the events’ environmental impact and, of equal importance as I interpreted it, would draw attention to meat consumption, CO₂ emissions and their impact on the climate. At the time, the Way Out West event manager, my colleagues-to-be at Gothenburg University (Tommy D. Andersson and Erik Lundberg) and I (as a practitioner) were working on a collaborative research project that aimed to develop a model to assess the environmental, social-cultural and economic impact of events (Andersson & Lundberg, 2013). The results of the evaluation of the 2010 Way Out West indicated that the serving of meat had a severe impact on the festival’s ecological footprint and thus on the environment. As we spoke, I realized that the removal of meat for environmental reasons would probably not only contribute to a reduction of the ecological footprint but would also draw attention since such a move was rather unexpected and previously unheard of. To the festival management, it was more than just a move; they spotted an opportunity to leverage the festival to urge people to reflect on the consequences of their everyday meat-eating habits.

Reflecting on these three particular memories, I note a pattern. In the first case, Göteborgskalaset was seen as an instrument for normative messaging, which was assumed to have an impact on audiences’ thoughts and actions. In the second case, the inspiring footage from Gothenburg that was distributed worldwide would stimulate attention and foster a positive image and, eventually, international demand to travel to the city, thus assigning the event “enormous value”. In the case of Way Out West, the sudden veggie move was believed to translate into a media debate that, in its turn, would inspire individuals to change their meat-eating habits. It appears the journalist, the festival manager and I shared the view of important communication opportunities emerging in the wake of the events and opportunities to communicate messages powerful enough to widely influence audiences’ behaviour. Based on my interaction with event professionals over the years, this perspective is commonplace within the industry. It appears that events as an agent for change through communication is an important notion that is commonly used to justify public investment in the bidding or creation of events. How can events be understood in relation to behaviour change?
1. Introduction

In societies today, events\(^1\) are increasingly used as a means to achieve a variety of goals, such as increased attraction to a place, increased number of visitors and increased economic impacts.

Events attract attention that, in the form of publicity, may be used to frame certain issues. Furthermore, events provide a pleasurable visitor experience that is limited in time and place and that contrasts everyday life. For visitors, event experiences offer additional opportunities for communication beyond the attention to issues that publicity brings.

In this line of research, scholars’ interest has emerged in the examination of events as catalysts for behaviour change that benefit society at large, such as in relation to environmentally sustainable behaviours (Frost & Laing, 2013; Henderson & Musgrave, 2014; Mair & Laing, 2013), and sport participation for improved health (Hughes, 2013; Ramchandani & Coleman, 2012; Ramchandani, Davies, Coleman, Shibli, & Bingham, 2015). Examples of issues communicated through events may involve biased gender representations or the reduction of meat consumption, with the common goal of influencing consumers or decision makers. In the marketing discipline, one field that involves behaviour change and social welfare is social marketing (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971).

By adopting a social marketing perspective, this thesis explores how events can be used to influence behaviour change for the benefit of individuals and society.

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\(^1\) In this thesis, the concept of “events” refers to “planned events”. The planning of events involves “the design and implementation of themes, settings, consumables, services and programmes that suggest, facilitate or constrain experiences for participants, guests, spectators and other stakeholders” (Getz, 2008, p. 21).
In this chapter, the social marketing research field will be described and discussed, and potential developments will be addressed. Next, the empirical setting of events will be problematized in relation to social marketing and the research aim of the thesis will be presented along with research questions and the disposition of the thesis into five individual studies.

1.1 The social marketing approach to behaviour change

As noted, the social marketing perspective is chosen since it is a marketing field that explicitly addresses behaviour change for the benefit of individuals and society. With regard to this objective, social marketing has proven to be reasonably successful (Stead, Gordon, Angus, & McDermott, 2007).

The most well-established definition of social marketing suggests that social marketing involves “the adaptation of traditional marketing technologies to programs designed to influence the voluntary behaviour of target audiences to improve their personal welfare and that of the society of which they are a part” (Andreasen, 1994, p. 110). Central to social marketing are “activities that are designed to change beliefs, attitudes, and values” to affect consumer behaviour (Andreasen, 1994, p. 110). To establish an order of consumer behaviours addressed within social marketing, Andreasen (2012) suggested a categorization to which concrete examples have been added here: start a behaviour (e.g., start using a safety belt when driving); switch a behaviour (e.g., take the train instead of the plane); stop a behaviour (e.g., stop smoking); not start a behaviour (e.g., refrain from trying drugs); increase a behaviour (e.g., exercise more often); or decrease a behaviour (e.g., eat meat less often).

Two main directions of research and interventions can be seen within social marketing: downstream, which directly addresses individuals who pursue undesired behaviours, and upstream, which addresses actors whose practices and decisions shape the environment in which individuals exist. The up- and downstream directions of social marketing stem from the metaphor of a river (e.g. Wallack, Dorfman, Jernigan, & Themba, 1993): people are drowning, and despite the downstream efforts by rescue workers to aid those in danger, more people are falling into the river. To prevent people from falling into the water, rescue interventions are also addressed upstream. These are attempts
to eliminate factors that make people engage in harmful behaviour (or fall into the river) in the first place.

Accordingly, to supplement Andresen’s (1994) definition, which primarily considers the downstream direction, Gordon’s (2013, p. 1529) definition of upstream social marketing should be considered to “influence the behaviours of those who shape the structural and environmental conditions within society, including politicians, policy makers, civil servants, decision makers, regulators, managers, educators and the media”. Since, “influencing behaviours” in the upstream context refers to influencing professional decision making, not the social behaviour of decision makers, it could be seen as an indirect form of downstream social marketing that ultimately seeks to influence individuals’ behaviours. Influencing professional decision making can be defined together with other concepts, but in this context, it is seen as upstream social marketing. Upstream initiatives can be performed by a variety of groups, including governmental, non-profit or for-profit organizations (Kotler, Roberto, & Lee, 2002).

Social marketing: origin and scope
Social marketing was coined by Kotler and Zaltman (1971) in the Journal of Marketing at a time when social issues were addressed top down by advertisements pleading for citizens’ attention and calling for action in certain desired social directions. Kotler and Zaltman (1971) aimed to demonstrate how marketing principles could be applied to social issues and thus contributed to widening the marketing scope beyond the company and commercial sphere. Social marketing was argued to be the “bridging mechanism” between “the behavioural scientist's knowledge of human behaviour” and the “socially useful implementation” that it allows (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971, p. 12).

Table 1 illustrates the main conceptual differences between traditional and social marketing.
Table 1

Comparison between traditional and social marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Traditional marketing</th>
<th>Social marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Products</td>
<td>Goods or services</td>
<td>Behaviour change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary aim</td>
<td>Financial gain</td>
<td>Individual and societal gain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>Suppliers of alternative products</td>
<td>Alternative behaviours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producers</td>
<td>Typically, for-profit organizations</td>
<td>Governmental, non-profit or for-profit organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumers</td>
<td>Buyers or users of the products</td>
<td>Individuals, communities or upstream decision makers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Kotler et al. (2002, p. 10).

A fundamental difference from traditional marketing involves the products considered (Table 1). Whereas traditional marketing considers a goods or a services, social marketing defines the product as “behaviour change”. Through behaviour change, the consumer will experience personal benefits. For example, by refraining from smoking cigarettes, the individual will experience the benefits of improved health. Adoption of the desired behaviour will produce “societal gain” as well. For instance, the costs of medical treatment and health care related to smoking will be reduced if individuals stop the behaviour.

Traditional marketing sees suppliers of alternative products as competitors. From a social marketing perspective, competition is alternative behaviours in which a consumer could engage. Social marketers typically represent governmental or non-profit organizations. However, as discussed in this thesis, they may also be industry corporations. Finally, as noted above, the targets of social marketing communication could be both individuals (downstream) and decision makers whose decisions shape individuals’ contexts (upstream).

It should be emphasized that social marketing is not the only research field within the marketing discipline to address social issues. When reviewing marketing journals such as Journal of Marketing, Journal of Business Research and Journal of Business Research as well as the AMA Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, alternative approaches to address social issues have developed over time. In particular, corporate social responsibility (CSR)
(eg. Davis & Blomstrom, 1975), green marketing (eg. Prothero, 1990) and cause-related marketing (CRM) (eg. Varadarajan & Menon, 1988) have attracted scholarly interest. These fields are briefly reviewed in Table 2. Less significant approaches such as environmental marketing (eg. Miles & Covin, 2000), enviropreneurial marketing (eg. Menon & Menon, 1997) and sustainable marketing (eg. Fuller & Gillett, 1999) should also be noted.

Table 2

**Overview of marketing approaches to address social issues**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concepts</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Marketing</td>
<td>“The design, implementation and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution, and marketing research.”</td>
<td>Kotler and Zaltman (1971, p. 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“The adaptation of traditional marketing technologies to programs designed to influence the voluntary behaviour of target audiences to improve their personal welfare and that of the society of which they are a part.”</td>
<td>Andreasen (1994, p. 110)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>“The managerial obligation to take action to protect and improve both the welfare of society as a whole and the interest of organisations.”</td>
<td>Davis and Blomstrom (1975, p. 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRM</td>
<td>“The process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organisational and individual objectives.”</td>
<td>Varadarajan and Menon (1988, p. 60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Marketing</td>
<td>“The holistic management process responsible for identifying, anticipating and satisfying the requirements of customers and society, in a profitable and sustainable way.”</td>
<td>K. Peattie (1995, p. 28)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The approaches displayed in Table 2 explicitly seek to contribute beyond the direct organization-consumer exchange. Social marketing and CSR both mention “welfare” and “society”, whereas CRM seeks to contribute to a “designated cause”, and green marketing intends to satisfy the “requirements of society” in a “sustainable way”. However, given the scope of this thesis, examining events as catalysts of behaviour change that benefit society at large, CSR, CRM and green marketing involves the consideration of dimensions that are not immediately relevant. For instance, it is suggested that green marketing should be conducted in a “profitable” way. In the same vein, CRM emphasizes “revenue-providing” to satisfy organizational objectives, and CSR explicitly mentions the “interest of the organization”.

5
One further difference is that compared to competing approaches, social marketing is unique in that it explicitly underlines the key role of influencing behaviour (Andreasen, 1994) as a means to improve individual and societal welfare. Moreover, in relation to competing approaches, social marketing has endured and developed for more than four decades since its initial discussion in 1971. Social marketing is a growing research field, as indicated by the increasing number of articles and PhD theses (Truong, 2014; Truong, Garry, & Hall, 2014).

Development of social marketing

Social marketing has been the subject of intense debates from a marketing perspective as well as by non-marketing scholars. These debates have left imprints on the development of the field.

From a marketing perspective, Glenane-Antoniadis, Whitwell, Bell, and Menguc (2003) suggest that there is a prevailing traditionalist view of how social marketing should be approached. Traditionalists focus on the use of conventional marketing principles based on models of behaviour and attach centrality to one or more of the marketing mix components (McCarthy, 1960) to influence behaviour change (Glenane-Antoniadis et al., 2003). In particular, the traditionalist view emphasizes social marketing as the promotion of ideas (eg. Barach, 1984; Fine, 1981).

In contrast, other social marketing scholars advocate a broadened scope of social marketing (eg. Luca, Hibbert, & McDonald, 2016b; S. Peattie & Peattie, 2003; Wood, 2008). In response to the traditional view of social marketing, an emerging line of research emphasizes a shift towards a consumer perspective. It is argued that since behaviour change does not occur in isolation and consumers need to take an active role in creating change, emphasis must be placed on the relationships and interactions between actors (eg. Gordon, 2011; Luca et al., 2016b; S. Peattie & Peattie, 2003; Wood, 2008).

Exchange theory is a central concept in social marketing (Rothschild, 1999). The basic idea is that a problematic behaviour is exchanged for perceived individual gain or benefit when an alternative behaviour is adopted (Andreasen, 1994). The shift towards a consumer perspective, discussed
above, also has implications for exchange in a social marketing context. Opponents of a traditionalist perspective argue that the marketing mix was developed to address twofold exchanges of tangible products, where value propositions are “provider defined” (Luca et al., 2016b, p. 204). However, since the value perceived from changed behaviour may be long term and abstract (Gordon, 2011; Hastings, 2003), recent social marketing research (Butler et al., 2016; French & Russell-Bennett, 2015; Zainuddin, Previte, & Russell-Bennett, 2011; Zainuddin, Russell-Bennett, & Previte, 2013) emphasizes perceived consumer value as a key to understanding consumers’ adoption or rejection of a social marketing product.

Moreover, contesters of the traditionalist approach highlight the need to move beyond a view of consumers as rational decision makers because consumers usually rely on a system that is “highly influenced by context and sensitive to immediate pleasure” to navigate the social world rather than on its cognitive capacity (Carvalho & Mazzon, 2013, p. 167). In a social marketing context, Carvalho and Mazzon (2013) suggest, in line with seminal marketing work by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), that consumers’ emotions and search for hedonic response are central to influencing behaviour. Hence, the significance of non-cognitive factors that influence behaviour must be emphasized within social marketing research.

Outside the marketing domain, scholars from such fields as public health (Hoek & Jones, 2011; Wymer, 2010) and environmental protection (Brennan & Parker, 2014) have addressed the philosophy underpinning marketing. These scholars suggested that the philosophy should be based on the view that individuals, when provided with information about the risks attached to certain behaviours, will freely make rational choices about what will benefit them and adapt their behaviour accordingly. Scholars suggest that the individual is assumed to be personally responsible for the consequences of his or her choices; Hoek and Jones (2011) describe this as a “victim-blaming” approach that attributes personal responsibility for social well-being to individuals (Crawshaw, 2012). Since individuals exist in an environment and behaviour change needs to be understood in context, opponents suggest this focus must be developed in upstream social marketing (Hoek & Jones, 2011).

This objection is at least partly accepted by social marketing scholars. For example, the co-founder of social marketing, Philip Kotler, admits in an
interview that historically, upstream research has been neglected in favour of a downstream direction (Dibb & Carrigan, 2013). Hastings and Donovan (2002, p. 4) issued a call for social marketing to embrace a "perspective that encompasses not just individual behaviour but also the social and physical determinants of that behaviour”. In this vein, proponents of so-called critical social marketing have underlined the need to advance social marketing research to address the relationships between the individual and the environment as well as to recognize individual behaviour change as part of a broader social change agenda (Gordon, 2011; Gordon, Carrigan, & Hastings, 2011). To release the potential of upstream social marketing, it is necessary to advance social marketing theory (Gordon, 2013, p. 1526) since there is a lack of guidance on when and how upstream marketing should be operationalized (Gordon, 2013; Wymer, 2011).

In response to these observations, there has been a recent reorientation towards the upstream direction of social marketing research to include attempts to influence the actors that shape individuals’ environment, such as policy makers and the media (Andreasen, 2006; Goldberg, 1995). In an examination of a case of tobacco control, Gordon (2013) found that with a systematic approach that included, for example, media advocacy and publicity, upstream social marketing could affect structural environments in which behaviours occur. Publicity has an important role in upstream social marketing since it is assumed to raise awareness and to influence the behaviours of actors that shape societal structures (Gordon, 2013; Wallack, 1994). In this thesis, publicity is defined as information distributed to the general public through formal media, such as newspapers, magazines, television, radio, and the Internet. Publicity is uncontrolled in the sense that it is produced and edited independently, such as by journalists, and not paid for.

It is argued here, however, that publicity’s function in upstream social marketing must be problematized. The assumption that publicity will influence upstream decision making may theoretically need to be approached as a system of interrelated sub-processes rather than as a singular upstream objective. That is, to facilitate the end goal, social marketers’ messages must be transferred to journalists into actual publicity and eventually to the consumers of that publicity. Media consumers, whether they are upstream decision makers or downstream individuals, are assumed to make sense of the intended message and act in accordance. Further understanding of how a
promoted message moves from a social marketer to a journalist to publicity to media consumers and eventually influences actors that shape individuals’ environment is necessary to provide guidance on how publicity endeavours can be operationalized.

1.2 Events and social marketing

Some characteristics of events are of particular interest to the marketing perspective and the scope of this thesis. For example, events provide a pleasurable, time-limited experience that contrasts with consumers’ everyday life (Getz, 2008). Thus, the event context influences consumers by resonating with their search for pleasure and hedonic response. These are the non-cognitive factors that require wider recognition in social marketing research (Carvalho & Mazzon, 2013) compared to the dominant focus on information-based promotion to influence behaviour change.

A second characteristic of events that is of particular interest here is that events are capable of organizing attention and thus “frame places, objects and people” (Richards, 2013, p. 1); that is, events generate publicity. Since publicity is assumed to raise awareness and to influence the behaviours of the actors that shape societal structures (Gordon, 2013; Wallack, 1994), it is important from an upstream social marketing perspective. The event context offers opportunities to explore how publicity can be leveraged for social marketing purposes.

One problematic aspect of events from a social marketing perspective is their limited duration. The reason that an event’s duration is problematic is that social marketing scholars advocate a long-term perspective to challenge structural factors and to allocate capacity for enduring behaviour change, suggesting that short-term initiatives to influence behaviour are overrated (Luca et al., 2016b). Since events occur at a given, limited time (Getz, 2008), a crucial issue is how social marketing through events relates to a long-term perspective and enduring behaviour change. Events may, however, be recurring, which is of interest in light of the fact that marketing communication research (Batra & Ray, 1986) links the frequency of a message to the message’s effect on an audience.
1.3 Aim and research questions

Against this background, the aim of this thesis is to explore social marketing communication that seeks to influence behaviours through events. To achieve this aim, the following research questions are posed:

RQ1: How can events be used to influence changes in visitor behaviours?

RQ2: How can events be used to generate publicity aimed at behaviour change?

1.4 Disposition

The theoretical positioning of this thesis within social marketing emerged over time during the PhD process. This situation has implications for four of the five articles that do not explicitly employ a social marketing framework. However, based on the characteristics of direction, target groups and product (targeted behaviour), the articles can be connected to a relevant social marketing framework to fulfil the aim of this thesis (Table 3).

Table 3 demonstrates how the featured articles connect to the aim and research questions. Articles 1, 4 and 5 explore processes that relate to the use of events to influence visitor behaviour change, and Articles 2 and 3 are devoted to exploring how events can be used to generate publicity aimed at behaviour change.

The articles take a predominantly upstream focus (Articles 1-4) in which event industry organizations’ decision makers and journalists are the target groups (Table 3). Targeted behaviours relate to journalists’ decision making about how to frame news reports (Article 2-4) or event managerial decisions regarding environmental (Article 1) and booking policies (Article 3). Articles 2 and 3 focus on how events that generate publicity can be used for social marketing purposes. Article 2 attempts to describe the process of influencing publicity through an international sport event, taking the internal perspective of a destination management organization. In contrast, Article 3 takes the external perspective of a non-dominant advocacy group’s attempts to influence upstream decision making through event-generated publicity.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Research aim</th>
<th>Direction</th>
<th>Target groups</th>
<th>Contributes to RQ’s</th>
<th>Product (targeted behaviour)</th>
<th>Research aim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Objectives, objects and objectivity: On practitioner-academic collaboration in tourism and leisure research (Andersson, Jutbring, &amp; Lundberg, 2016)</td>
<td>To describe a collaborative process between academia and practitioners in a tourism and leisure research project, focusing on sustainability (and then analysing this process by applying the concept of boundary objects)</td>
<td>Upstream</td>
<td>Media</td>
<td>Upstream</td>
<td>Downstream</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Encoding destination messages in media coverage of an international event: A case study of the European athletics indoor championships (Jutbring, 2014)</td>
<td>To describe the process of encoding a destination message into the news media coverage of an international event</td>
<td>Upstream</td>
<td>Media</td>
<td>Upstream</td>
<td>Downstream</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Piggybacking events to advance gender equality (Jutbring, 2016)</td>
<td>To describe and discuss how festival managers handled communication of core values and brand identity [...] and to assess and measure the environmental impact of the vegetarian strategy</td>
<td>Upstream</td>
<td>Media and industry</td>
<td>Upstream</td>
<td>Downstream</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>When a music festival goes veggie: Communication and environmental impacts of an innovative food strategy (Andersson, Jutbring &amp; Lundberg, 2013)</td>
<td>To explore how this event supported individual behaviour change by assessing the effect of a social marketing initiative pursued by a music festival and, more specifically, to address consumer change in the non-ordinary pleasurable event setting</td>
<td>Upstream</td>
<td>Event visitors</td>
<td>Upstream</td>
<td>Downstream</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Social marketing through a music festival: Perceived value by festival visitors that reduced meat consumption (Jutbring, 2017)</td>
<td>To explore a festival as a vehicle for changing individual meat consumption</td>
<td>Upstream</td>
<td>Event visitors</td>
<td>Upstream</td>
<td>Downstream</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
<th>Overview of included articles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
The downstream target group addressed in Article 4 and 5 includes event visitors or individuals, as in Andreasen’s (1994) definition of social marketing. The targeted behaviours studied in Articles 4 and 5 refer to a reduction of meat consumption, whereas Article 4 assesses the impact of visitors’ behaviour during the event. Article 5 addresses enduring behaviour after the event visit.

The Way Out West music festival, which pursued social marketing by “going veggie”, is the central case in this thesis. The case has been studied at different points in time and from different stakeholder perspectives. Article 1 describes the phase in which event managers choose a social marketing initiative. Article 4 describes the implementation phase of the veggie strategy to assess the effect of changed visitor behaviour on the festival’s environmental impact measured in terms of global hectares. Article 5 addresses the post phase by exploring the self-perceived effect of the social marketing initiative on individual behaviour after the festival.

It can be noted that, with the exception of Article 5, a managerial perspective is dominant in this thesis. However, the perspective in Article 5 resonates with the tradition of research within social marketing. Carins et al. (2016, p. 1083) suggest that the “purpose of formative research in social marketing is to understand the target audience to generate consumer insight, which informs planning, development and initial implementation of social marketing programmes”.
2. Theoretical framework

This section provides the theoretical framework to explore social marketing communication that seeks to influence behaviours through events, along with a framework to facilitate a discussion of how events can be used not only to influence change visitor behaviours but also to generate publicity aimed at behaviour change.

2.1 An experiential perspective on consumption

In line with the contemporary development of social marketing, the theoretical construct of the *experiencescape* (eg. Hansen & Mossberg, 2013; Mossberg, 2007; O'Dell, 2005) provides a way to conceptualize a deepened scope of social marketing. The experiencescape is defined as “a space of pleasure, enjoyment and entertainment as well as the meeting ground in which diverse groups move about and come in contact with each other” (Mossberg, 2007, p. 62).

The construct of the experiencescape takes a consumer perspective and emphasizes hedonic, situational and social influences on consumers. Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) provide important grounds for the experiencescape construct by proposing an experiential view of consumption to complete the previously dominant view of consumers as information processors who solve problems through rational decision making (eg. Bettman, 1979). The experiential view emphasized a hedonic rather than functional perspective on consumption and thus argued for the centrality of fantasies, feelings and fun to understand the consumer outcomes of a marketing exchange process. Consumption is principally a state in which “symbolic meaning, hedonic responses, and aesthetic criteria” are appreciated by the customer and thus represents a changed focus from decision making to *experience* (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982, p. 132).

Within the experiencescape concept, Mossberg (2007) places the *physical environment, interaction with the producer, interaction with other consumers, interaction with objects* as well as the main *theme or story* as categories of factors that influence the consumer.
The physical environment’s impact on consumers has been addressed by Belk (1974), who suggested a shifted theoretical perspective from personal characteristics towards situational factors to examine consumer behaviours. These situational factors may include the physical and social surroundings in which consumers exist. The importance of physical and relational surroundings to understand consumers was further advanced by Bitner (1992), who proposed the concept of the servicescape, which includes the combination of environmental factors that affect consumers’ internal response and thus their behaviour. Bitner (1992, pp. 65-66) ordered these factors into categories such as ambient conditions (e.g., temperature, lighting, noise, music, and scent) that affect the human senses; spatial layout and functionality (e.g., the arrangement, shape and size of equipment, furniture and other facilities and their ability to assist consumers in their actions); and signs, symbols and other objects that directly or indirectly communicate with the consumer. Included in this category are signs with explicit messages, such as brands or signs that communicate behavioural rules (e.g., “no smoking” or “queue starts here” signs) as well as objects that more implicitly communicate meaning and norms (e.g., quality of materials, artwork, presence of certificates). Bitner (1992) regards the servicescape as a place for commercial exchange controlled by the producer.

The dimension of interaction with the producer was addressed in marketing research, for example, in Arnould and Price (1993) seminal article. In the setting of an extraordinary experience, consumers’ emotional outcomes relate to their relationship to the producer’s representatives involved in the experience.

Interaction with other consumers can positively or negatively impact the consumption experience. For instance, a cheerful and involved audience may enhance an experience (Lovelock, 1996). A strong form of consumer interaction occurs when patterns of consumption translate into a sense of community and belongingness. Oliver (1999) argues that members of consumption communities share values and behaviours. Muniz and O’Guinn (2001) argue that within (brand) communities, a sense of moral responsibility may develop. Muniz and O’Guinn (2001, p. 424) describe moral responsibility as

“a sense of duty to the community as a whole and to individual members of the community. This sense of moral responsibility is
what produces collective action and contributes to group cohesion. Moral responsibility need not be limited to punitive strictures concerning life and death matters, but rather every day, but nonetheless important, social commitments”.

The aspect of community interaction has been emphasized in social marketing research. In particular, the role of social norms developed through interpersonal contact and shared values constitutes a strong influence on attitudes and behaviour (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000, 2013). For example, it appears that individuals’ observation of other community members’ actual behaviour is an important influence. In this respect, a social marketing programme must demonstrate what acceptable behaviour is since “to be affective, the norm must be visible” to the target audience (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000, p. 77).

Mossberg (2007) argues that for some experiences, consumers’ interaction with tangible products is a relevant consideration. For instance, an experience could involve a meal in which food and drinks are the tangible products. However, this may not always be the case, such as within social marketing, where the core product is the intangible idea of a certain behaviour and the benefits it may offer in exchange, and the augmented product is the tangible product that may promote or develop the adoption of the core product (Kotler & Lee, 2008).

The experiencescape may be seen as the arena where the theme or story will be activated. Themes or stories may promote products or brands if messages communicated to consumers are co-ordinated, argues Mossberg (2007). Mossberg (2008) suggests that content and values are communicated to consumers in a meaningful and memorable way through a theme and that a themed environment facilitates consumers’ escape from the ordinary and eases interactions with other consumers.

Hansen and Mossberg (2013) elaborate on the experiencescape construct and underline the dimension of liminality to characterize situations that are experienced by consumers as having a social role or community beyond the ordinary. Liminality may be experienced at a temporary time and place between the ordinary states of everyday routines (Jafari, 1987). Turner (1977, p. 95) argues that individuals who have passed through such liminal space tend to “develop an intense comradeship or egalitarianism”, and thus
“communitas” emerges. The previously held social structures of this communitas cease through the liminal “moment in and out of time”. Liminal experiences may facilitate a sense of celebration and social camaraderie that can be appreciated and even shared between strangers. This enables conversations (even between strangers who otherwise would not meet) that appear to be about the shared event experience but that also refer to political, social or existential issues that would otherwise be considered too sensitive. In this line, Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) suggest the search for interpersonal rewards as a generic motive for people to engage in leisure activities.

In conclusion, this section suggests that events may be seen as experiencescapes. There are notable similarities between the provided definitions of events (Getz, 2008) and the experiencescape construct. For example, the subjective visitor experience is central, the event experience emerges from interaction with physical and social elements, and events have a theme.

**Perceived consumer value**

In a recent attempt to advance the theoretical base of social marketing, French and Russell-Bennett (2015, p. 149) address perceived consumer value and propose that “what makes social marketing distinct from other forms of social intervention is its focus, derived from marketing, on social value creation through the exchange of social offerings”. Zainuddin et al. (2011, p. 362) suggest that consumer value is an “incentive for consumers to perform desirable behaviours that lead to both greater social good and individual benefit”. The value that consumers obtain by adopting the social marketing product is intangible and stems from complex exchanges involving a range of actors (Domegan, Collins, Stead, McHugh, & Hughes, 2013). Luca, Hibbert, and McDonald (2016a) propose that consumer value is created in context; for instance, value originates from interactions (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004) and social roles (Arnould, Price, & Malshe, 2006), which is consistent with the experiencescape construct. Previous social marketing research suggests that an actual experience of a social marketing product (i.e., a desired behaviour) may contribute to influencing behaviour change since “experienced users derived higher levels of functional and emotional value than novice users and reported higher levels of satisfaction and behavioural intentions to use the service again” (Zainuddin, 2013, p. 257).
Within an emerging line of social marketing research, theories of consumer value have gained increasing attention (Butler et al., 2016; French & Russell-Bennett, 2015; Zainuddin et al., 2011; Zainuddin et al., 2013). Resonating with the experiential view of consumption (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), Holbrook (2006, p. 715) defined consumer value as an “interactive relativistic preference experience” of consumption and formulated a framework to categorize consumer value. This framework incorporates the dimensions of “extrinsic/intrinsic” motivation for consumption. The “self-oriented/other-oriented” direction of who will benefit from consumption serves as the conceptual base. Structured as a matrix, Holbrook’s (2006) typology incorporates four kinds of consumer value: a) functional; b) social; c) emotional; and d) altruistic.

*Functional value* is self-oriented and extrinsically motivated. It relates to consumers’ objectives that are facilitated by an external resource provided, for instance, as part of a social marketing initiative. *Social value* is oriented towards others and is extrinsically motivated. It may refer to influencing co-consumers as a means of achieving enhanced social status. Social value is obtained by consumers seeking to influence others’ responses through conformity to group norms (Holbrook, 2006). *Emotional value* is self-oriented and intrinsically motivated and occurs through the consumption of products with no other end than a hedonic consumer experience itself (i.e., the fun “that I might derive from various leisure activities (e.g., a game of tennis or playing the piano)” (Holbrook, 2006, p. 715).

Finally, *altruistic value* is described by Holbrook (2006, p. 716) as being directed towards others but intrinsically motivated and “entails a concern for how my own consumption behaviour affects others”, viewed from the perspective of ethical desirability. Altruistic consumption may include experiences as “some sort of spiritual ecstasy (e.g., achieving a rapturous sense of unity with the Cosmos or of one-ness with the Deity)” (Holbrook, 2006, p. 716).

### 2.2 Framing of publicity

As noted earlier in a recent call to unlock the potential in upstream social marketing, Gordon (2013) suggested that there is a lack of guidance about when and how upstream marketing should be operationalized (Wymer,
For example, publicity is considered to play an important role in upstream social marketing since it is assumed to raise awareness and to influence the behaviours of actors that shape individuals’ environment (Gordon, 2013; Wallack, 1994).

To address this issue, it is suggested that framing theory (eg. Scheufele, 1999) may provide guidance. Framing theory, as developed within media and communication studies, offers a theoretical framework to address publicity as a potential contributor to the way in which an audience will make sense of information and relate it to reality.

Framing theory seeks to examine the role of language in constructing power relations and in influencing attitudes or practices such as managerial decision making (Santos, 2005). Framing theory emphasizes the role of journalists and publicity as a contributor to how a target group will interpret and make sense of information and relate it to reality (Santos, 2005). Media and communication research has found evidence of a link between publicity and effects on decision making (eg. Helfer, 2016). Hence, it is suggested that there is a fit between framing theory and the issue of how social marketing research can influence upstream behaviours. The theoretical framework of framing theory may provide guidance for operationalizing upstream initiatives.

Entman (1993, p. 52) defines framing as “to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient […] in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation for the item described”. Framed communication typically refers to framing devices (Gamson, 1992), such as catchphrases, metaphors, graphics, or allusions to history or culture that are used to illustrate a certain perspective on an issue. Alternatively, framing refers to an individual’s frames of thought that are employed to make sense of a certain situation.

In a review of the field, Scheufele (1999) suggests a model of the overall framing process and its sub-processes: a) frame-building refers to how a certain issue is framed when communicated and how these frames are transferred to the individual journalist; b) frame-setting involves the journalist’s decision about how to frame an issue and how these frames are
eventually picked up by media consumers to influence their thoughts; c) *individual-level effects-of-framing* is how individual consumers react in terms of behaviour or attitudes when exposed to framed publicity (frame-setting); and d) *journalist-as-audience* refers to how individual effects loop back to affect the next round of frame-building. In relation to the scope of this thesis, frame-building and individual-level effects-of-framing are of primary interest.

**Publicity and upstream social marketing**

Frame-building refers to interactions among journalists, stakeholders (de Vreese, 2010) and social forces (Gamson & Modigliani, 1987) regarding how to frame an issue and how frequently (Scheufele & Tewksbury, 2007) the chosen frames will appear in publicity. Frames can be designed and used as a communication tactic by interest groups “to coordinate individuals around particular interpretations” of problems (Chong & Druckman, 2007c, p. 118). Such interest groups could be political elites or social movements that “manage campaigns, streamline communication and marketing, [and] manage public relation” to affect new frames (de Vreese 2010, p. 139). There is competition between different interest groups in society regarding how issues should be framed (Druckman, 2004). Based on Gordon’s (2013) definition of upstream social marketing, it is relevant to assume that social marketers are such an interest group that, for tactical reasons, frames issues to influence publicity to achieve the end goal of influencing behaviour change.

Within the frame-building process, journalists are assumed to select and modify frames with a large degree of autonomy (de Vreese, 2010). However, journalists’ susceptibility to influence varies. Gans (1979, p. 79) suggests that a “journalist is simply holding a mirror to them [the interest groups] and reflecting their image to the audience”. In contrast, the media may be aware of these interests in framing publicity and thus may be hostile towards political communicators, such as interest groups, who seek to tactically influence publicity (Lengauer, Esser, & Berganza, 2011).

**Publicity and downstream social marketing**

Framing theory can also be related to the downstream direction through individual-level effects-of-framing (Scheufele, 1999), which discusses the impact of framing on media audiences’ opinions (de Vreese, Boomgaarden, & Semetko, 2011; Nelson, 2004; Wise & Brewer, 2010) and subsequent
behaviour (Chong & Druckman, 2007c; Scheufele, 1999). The causality of these effects, however, is debated. Although studies of framing processes state that publicity influences cognitive, attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, there is uncertainty regarding why and how these outcomes are linked to frames (Scheufele, 1999; Wise & Brewer, 2010).

The individual-level effects-of-framing has similarities to the information-processing theory (Bettman, 1979) by assuming that one-way, producer-to-consumer, information-based messages are interpreted by the consumer and affect consumer choice. Information-based methods have been criticized for their ineffectiveness at influencing behaviour change within social marketing (McKenzie-Mohr, 2013). It is fair to conclude that the objection applies to mass-mediated publicity as well. However, it must be stressed that framed publicity can play another important role. Publicity may contribute to consumers’ awareness of alternative behaviours, and social marketing researchers argue that awareness or attention may be a crucial first step in the process of change (eg. McKenzie-Mohr, 2013; S. Peattie & Peattie, 2003). To influence sustainable behaviour, (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000, p. 84) suggest that attention is crucial since “without attention all persuasion is impossible”.
3. Methodology

Each of the five articles individually describes the specific methods for data collection and analysis. Therefore, this section reflects on general methodological issues. Based on an overview of the data collections and analyses conducted in the various studies (Table 4), a discussion of the significant choices and how they relate to the validity and reliability of the research will be presented. Finally, the overview and discussion grounds for a short reflection regarding the philosophical positioning of the research.

3.1 Data collection

Table 4 describes the methods that were used to address the research questions posed in each article. Upon reviewing the studies conducted in this thesis, two distinguishable methodological choices become apparent: a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods; in an empirical setting predominately composed of single cases of events.

**Mixed-methods research**

Networks developed as a practitioner provided access to the event contexts and allowed the use of different methods to collect data. Occasionally, access to inside data that was not accessible to the public was given. Two examples of the latter are the data that we used in Article 4 to calculate Way Out West’s ecological footprint, for which the management opened their books, and for Article 2, physical access to the 2013 European Athletics Indoor Championship’s closed rooms (e.g., VIP Lounge, media centre, press conferences) allowed unique possibilities for data collection as the event unfolded.

As shown in Table 4, all but one article employed a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. Thus, a *mixed-method* approach was used to collect data. The term mixed methods is defined by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, p. 5) as follows: “as a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and
qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone.”

Table 4

**Overview of the data collection and analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Data collection methods</th>
<th>Empirical setting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Objectives, objects and objectivity: On practitioner-academic collaboration in tourism and leisure research</td>
<td>- Document analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Encoding destination messages in media coverage of an international event: A case study of the European athletics indoor championship</td>
<td>- Face-to-face, telephone (4) or e-mail interviews (28) - Observation - Document analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Festivals framed unequal: Piggybacking events to advance gender equality</td>
<td>- Face-to-face or telephone interviews (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>When a music festival goes veggie: Communication and environmental impacts of an innovative food strategy</td>
<td>- Face-to-face and telephone interviews (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Social marketing through a music festival: Perceived value by festival visitors that reduced meat consumption</td>
<td>- Face-to-face or telephone interviews (5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Bryman (2006), there are various rationales for integrating quantitative and qualitative methods. They include completeness, the creation of a more comprehensive account by employing both quantitative and qualitative research; credibility, employing both approaches enhances the integrity of the findings; utility, among articles with an applied focus, the combination of the two approaches is more useful to practitioners and others; and process, quantitative methods provide an account of structures in social life, whereas qualitative methods provide a sense of process.

In relation to the rationale of the mixed-methods research design of this thesis, completeness and credibility guided the choice in Article 5. Qualitatively addressing the measured effect of a social marketing initiative from a consumer perspective provides a more complete picture. Additionally, credibility was enhanced since quantitative data could be discussed and confirmed through qualitative interviews. Through the web survey results, respondents who reported change inspired by the initiative were located. Based on their different individual perspectives, it was assumed they would possess important knowledge in relation to how the perceived effect occurred. This knowledge was accessed through semi-structured interviews that mainly focused on meat consumption, the behaviour change process and the event experience.

Bryman (2006) suggests practitioners’ utility when research results are applied as a rationale for mixed methods. This rationale relates to the way the main case studied in this thesis, Way Out West, was approached through a variety of methods. Quantitative outcomes of research can guide practical decision making (Article 4), and qualitative results (Article 5) may contribute to enhanced utility through deeper understanding of the studied phenomena.

Finally, the process rationale (Bryman, 2006) is apparent in Article 3. The quantitative analysis of publicity, in an initial phase, provided input for a second phase of qualitative data collection that sought to explore advocacy groups’ attempts to influence event-related publicity. The qualitative data were analysed through a process approach, which would have been difficult based on quantitative content analysis data only. There is also a utility rationale for the use of mixed methods for Article 3 since the process could contribute to guiding social marketing attempts to use publicity as a means to influence upstream decision making.
**Single case studies**

In Table 4, a second choice is apparent: the empirical settings studied all relate to certain cases. The choice of *single case studies* has relevance in relation to the explorative research aim of this thesis (Yin, 2009) and in relation to the mixed-method inquiry since cases typically represent many forms of data (Wilson & Vlosky, 1997).

In particular, the case of the Way Out West music festival has been studied at different points in times through different methods, theoretical frameworks, and stakeholder perspectives and by different constellations of researchers (Tables 3 and 4). Way Out West has been held every year since 2007, gathering approximately 30,000 daily visitors to Slottsskogen Park, which is centrally located in Sweden’s second-largest city of Gothenburg. The event is organized and owned by the international concert organizer Live Nation. Over three days, approximately 150 international and national rock, hip-hop and pop artists perform on three main stages located in the park and in a number of club venues in the city centre. The festival predominately attracts well-educated visitors, where females are in majority. Article 4 describes how in 2012, the night before the festival opened, it announced the unconditional removal of meat from all menus. Consequently, visitors, artists, VIPs, media representatives, crews and sponsors were offered a vegetarian diet for the three festival days. The announcement explaining the initiative stated that “*the food that we eat [in Sweden] represents 25% of the average Swede’s climate impact*, so ”*if some of us would reduce our meat consumption over the year, then we can get really far...*” (WOW, 2012).

It is argued that the single case study design is advantageous since the case of Way Out West going “veggie” is a unique case of social marketing that matches the research aim and context of this thesis. Uniqueness is a valid rationale for a single case study (Yin, 2009). An additional advantage is the acknowledged richness of data that a case study can produce. The possibility of collecting data from a variety of sources is a recognized strength compared to research designs that rely on one type of data, such as experiments or surveys (Yin, 2009).

The access to the Way Out West context also had practical relevance since data were available at a point in time that matched the progress of the research project. Finally, case studies have the ability to “*close in on real-
life situation and to test views directly in relation to phenomena as they unfold in practice” (Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 235). With a research approach that aimed to explore social marketing through events, the Way Out West case provided a first-hand experience of the context of interest and the opportunity to learn about the context being studied over time, a method “in which researchers understand the viewpoints and behaviour, which characterize social actors” (Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 236).

However, using a single case as the main empirical context for this thesis may also have potential disadvantages. A common objection to single case studies is that findings cannot be generalized and that studying a case may simply be a method of producing anecdotes, as Eysenck (1976) suggests. Yin (2009) argues that such objections are commonly based on a comparison to survey research, which employs statistical methods for generalizing finding, whereas case studies rely on analytic generalizations. For instance, generalization of results can be made to the broader theory that helped identify the case in the first place (Yin, 2009). In the next sub-section, the specific approach to enhance the generalizability of the findings in this thesis is discussed in relation to external validity.

Moreover, Flyvbjerg (2006) argues that single case generalizability is possible; it depends on how cases are chosen. On the one hand, it is suggested that Way Out West is an extreme case; when meat was unconditionally dropped from the menus, there was access to only one social marketing product (behaviour). Accordingly, the case could be expected to hold unusual information in relation to the aim of this thesis, and for that reason, the single case research design can be justified. On the other hand, it could be argued, in line with Brennan, Voros, and Brady (2011, p. 110), that “when it comes to behaviour change [...] we still do not know what works or why things have turned out the way they have”. One approach to explore behaviour change is through a case study since cases are integrated systems of behaviour, units of analysis embedded in a context (Yin, 2009), that allow enhanced understanding of a phenomenon (Stake, 1995). There may be a trade-off between enhanced understanding of behaviour change in a certain social marketing context and generalizability.

Another common criticism of case study research is that it may suffer from a bias of verification (e.g., Diamond, 1996), which is the tendency to confirm
the researcher’s preconceived notions (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Considering my previous experience as practitioner, it would be untrue to suggest I entered the project with a blank mind. In contrast, my previous experiences were important to make sense of the setting and to know where to search rather than suggesting that practical experiences would create verification bias. In particular, this could be argued because the findings and the PhD project, on an overall level, provided opportunities to challenge and ultimately reconsider initially held conceptions about events and marketing communication. From a general perspective, it could also be argued that a bias towards verification is a general human characteristic; as such, it is a valid aspect of all types of research, not only case studies (Flyvbjerg, 2006).

3.2 Data analysis

Triangulation
Data analysis through triangulation is considered a key component of mixed-method research (Modell, 2009) and may be used to establish the validity and reliability of evidence (Yin, 2009). Denzin’s (1978) categorization of approaches to triangulation in social science involve to the following: data triangulation, which refers to the triangulation of data stemming from different sources; investigator triangulation, which is the use of more than one researcher to analyse data; and methodology triangulation, which refers to the use of different methods to approach a research problem.

In this thesis, triangulation was used occasionally, such as data triangulation in Article 4, where quantitative data on visitors were co-analysed with quantitative and qualitative data stemming from the festival management. An example of investigator triangulation is found in Article 1, in which interview data collected by one researcher, were read and interpreted by a second researcher. A third example of triangulation is found in Articles 3 and 5, where data obtained through quantitative and qualitative methods were triangulated to validate evidence.

Validity and reliability
When reflecting on the research project in terms of validity and reliability, different steps were taken during the data collection and analysis phase to enhance the validity and reliability of the data.
For example, when conducting qualitative interviews, the interviewees were asked to read and react to transcripts or direct quotes before publication. When planning the quantitative data collection for Article 5, no validated scale that fit the purpose of the study was found through literature reviews. To increase validity, the survey was tested on an experienced panel of event management representatives and festival visitors and event scholars. In relation to a case study research design, these would be examples of tactics to improve the construct validity of the research (Yin, 2009, pp. 39-40), which is the identification of operational measures that match the concepts being studied.

In the context of case studies, external validity (to which theoretical domain results can be generalized) is to be considered. The articles in this thesis employ theoretical frameworks that provide a context for analysis and generalization. Yin (2009) argues that the use of theoretical frameworks is a research design that may enhance external validity and may be a valid way to generalize findings. It is also argued that the presentation and discussion of the research with peers in seminars, supervisor meetings, PhD courses, internal marketing department seminars, and conferences may have benefited the external validity of the research. Being part of a research community that is interested in marketing and events has provided opportunities for discussions on an almost daily basis.

To enhance reliability, the future replication and transparency of the research, the steps taken in collecting and analysing the data were documented, such as in databases or through a model of the research process (Article 3). Yin (2009, p. 45) proposes a guideline for conducting reliable research: “conduct the research as if someone were always looking over your shoulder”. This statement summarizes the notion of how the research was conducted.

### 3.3 A note on philosophical positioning

Since a research paradigm is a “basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigation” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 105), to position this thesis within a paradigm would indirectly be to state that it was philosophically informed from the beginning. However, this is not true. In contrast, beliefs and worldview have gradually developed during the process. An attempt to
position the research based on the previous overview of the methodological choices will now be made.

Research paradigms differ because they address philosophical questions concerning ontology, epistemology and methodology differently (Guba, 1990). According to Veal (2011), ontology refers to the researcher’s assumptions about reality and is commonly referred to as a “worldview”. Epistemology refers to the relation between the researcher and what is studied, whereas methodology concerns the principles for data collection and analysis in establishing knowledge (i.e., the criteria for evaluating knowledge claims).

When reflecting on the research process, an acceptance of an objective ontology has developed. There may be an objective world that exists outside of our sensory system. Real phenomena may exist independently of the human ability to access knowledge of them or, as the critical realist Sayer (2000, p. 4) puts it, “the world exists independently of our knowledge of it”. Through research, we may access true representations of the real world. That said, will we be able to judge which representations are true and which are not? There is a need to be open to accept that different true representations of an objective world may co-exist.

In terms of epistemology, objective, value-free, universal knowledge may be beyond man’s reach. Knowledge is subjectively created in interaction between the investigator and the phenomena studied. Sayer (2000, p. 4) suggests that social phenomena “have to be interpreted by starting from the researcher's own frames of meaning; by and large they exist regardless of researchers' interpretation of them”. The researcher is not able to fully distance himself/herself from the empirical data to access an objective truth. The choices a researcher makes regarding what, where and how to conduct research will reflect on the researcher and affect what is presented as knowledge. Research may access representations of truth, but we do not know whether it does. The production of knowledge is “a social practice” and “conditions and social relations of the production of knowledge influence its content” (Sayer, 2000, p. 4).

There is a tension in accepting an objective ontology alongside a subjective epistemology. Easton (2010, p. 120) resolves this tension by suggesting that
the world is socially constructed, but not entirely so; “the ‘real’ world breaks through and sometime destroys the complex stories that we create in order to understand and explain the situations we research”.

As discussed above, two distinguishable methodological choices are apparent in this thesis: mixed methods and an empirical setting predominately composed of single cases.

Within marketing research (Hanson & Grimmer, 2007) and social marketing research (Brennan et al., 2011), the research paradigms of positivism, post-positivism, and constructivism are relevant. In relation to that, a suggested positioning of the research would be within the post-positivism paradigm. That is since the post-positivist paradigm accepts an objective ontology along with a subjective epistemology (Brennan et al., 2011; Hanson & Grimmer, 2007). Moreover, the post-positivism paradigm may include quantitative as well as qualitative methods (Brennan et al., 2011) and case study research (Hanson & Grimmer, 2007).
4. Discussion

In this section, the social marketing framework developed in this thesis is used to explore how communication through events may facilitate behaviour change through a discussion of the research questions.

RQ1: How can events be used to influence changes in visitor behaviours?

RQ2: How can events be used to generate publicity aimed at behaviour change?

4.1 How events can be used to influence changes in visitor behaviours

The Way Out West case
In the setting of Way Out West, the producer designed the experiencescape to support downstream behaviour change. In this case, the targeted audience was the event visitors, and the product was a decrease, or even stopping of meat eating for the benefit of the individual and society at large. The social marketing target was approached via a strict regulation of the meat supply on the festival premises, paralleled by enhanced accessibility to alternative behaviours; in other words, the event uncompromisingly “went veggie” for three days.

The initiative was channelled through the physical environment (e.g., information signs, menus, information material, restaurant furnishing and design) via interaction with the producer (e.g., staff, volunteers and restaurant personnel were “educated” to be able to communicate about the strategy), interaction with other consumers (e.g., the meat ban became a topic that facilitated interaction and spontaneous conversations) and interaction with objects (e.g., eating the vegetarian food) as well as the main story of “Way Out West Goes Veggie” communicated through a variety of media.

In this case, the social marketing communication was enhanced through sensory experiences since vegetarian food, as a carrier of the message (e.g., smell, taste and appearance) came into play when eating (interacting with
objects) or observing other visitors eating. The potential stimulation of all consumer senses within the event experiencescape may facilitate the emotional, physical, intellectual and spiritual involvement of consumers (Föster & Kreuz, 2002). This is important in social marketing since consumers usually rely on a system that is “highly influenced by context and sensitive to immediate pleasure” to navigate the social world rather than on their cognitive capacity (Carvalho & Mazzon, 2013, p. 167).

A regulated setting or “forced adoption” of behaviour

Social marketing scholars (e.g. McKenzie-Mohr, 2013) emphasize enhanced access to desired behaviours as a key to influence behaviour. In a similar vein, scholars (e.g. Hoek & Jones, 2011) argue for attention to the regulation of the environment in which individuals make their choices. By intervening in the market and regulating the availability of products that facilitate problematic behaviours, individual behaviour change can be induced.

In this regard, events provide an opportunity for a temporary manipulation of the environment, of which the producers’ manipulation of the Way Out West setting is an example. Practically, there were no options for the event visitors other than to engage in the desired behaviour. Given that there were physical (e.g., the fenced-off venue, entrance queues, spatial distance to meat outlets), social (e.g., leaving the liminal space and the feeling of community with people, the risk of being seen as a person who was unwilling to contribute to a good cause) and economic barriers (e.g., having spent money on tickets) preventing consumers from escaping the desired behaviour, the initiative may be regarded as induced on the consumers.

The sudden regulation stirred up visitors’ feelings. One informant interviewed in Article 5 labelled the initiative a “forced adoption” of an alternative behaviour. Upset visitors claimed that their freedom of choice was limited by the removal of meat. It is fair to assume that these visitors perceived negative value from the initiative. However, the experiencescape encompasses the temporal dimension of liminality (Hansen & Mossberg, 2013), which remains to be explored in social marketing research. Based on Turner’s (1977) theory of structure and anti-structure, it is argued that experiences that contrast with everyday life may be seen as a liminal space, where the development of comradeship and shared experiences may
contribute to a restructuring of social norms and a transformation of behaviours may occur.

To some visitors, the regulation contributed to strengthening the liminal experience since the contrast of the event experience compared to the mundane was highlighted. One informant interviewed in Article 5 suggests that the vegetarian theme contributed to creating a special atmosphere at the festival, a sense of community. The informant reasoned that the vegetarian regulation became an issue “that I could bring up with anyone attending the festival. Some kind of door opener to meet a fellow human being, considered totally legitimate. […] a big topic of conversation that creates a sense of community no matter what we think about it”. The “veggie” theme facilitated the communication of values in a meaningful way. It contributed to consumers’ escape from the ordinary, and it eased interaction with other consumers (Hansen & Mossberg, 2013). Emotional value (e.g., relief, happiness) was perceived by visitors who sympathized with the theme. As such, the vegetarian message contributed to strengthening the sense of community and, in turn, the creation of social value (e.g., belongingness to a larger community).

It is suggested that by collectively engaging in a desired behaviour (i.e., talking about vegetarian food), the notion of contributing to a good cause within a “special atmosphere” facilitated social interaction between strangers. The studied case furthered interaction between members of the visitor community who shared values and behaviours (Oliver, 1999). A shared experience may have socio-psychological implications on what is perceived as a normal behaviour within the visitor community (Burchell, Rettie, & Patel, 2013; McKenzie-Mohr & Schultz, 2014; Rettie, Burchell, & Barnham, 2014) and may lead to a restructuring of social norms and thus to a transformation of behaviour.

In this context, a sense of moral responsibility may develop. Muniz and O’Guinn (2001, p. 424) describe moral responsibility as a “sense of duty to the community as a whole, and to individual members of the community”. This sense of moral responsibility is what produces collective action (eating vegetarian food), which contributes to group cohesion. As such, the desired behaviour became observable to other visitors. This is important because a social marketing programme must demonstrate what acceptable behaviour is;
to be effective, the norm must be visible (McKenzie-Mohr & Schultz, 2014). Through the event experience, the social marketing message (and product) becomes embedded within social structures.

**Temporary adoption or enduring behaviour change**

Although social marketing scholars advocate a long-term perspective to challenge structural factors and to allocate capacity for enduring behaviour change, events are executed during a limited time (Getz, 2008). It has been claimed that short-term initiatives to influence behaviour are overrated (Luca et al., 2016b). As such, there appears to be a mismatch between social marketing’s ambitions to influence long-term behaviour change and the temporal character of events. It would be naïve to suggest that a temporarily adopted behaviour during an event, as in the case of Way Out West, will endure over time. For example, Barr, Shaw, Coles, and Prillwitz (2010) suggest that behaviours practised on holiday are not maintained in ordinary life at home. However, the exploration conducted in this study suggests a few ways in which the temporal event experience may support long-term behaviour change.

First, as discussed above, the regulated environment of the event setting forces consumers to adopt certain behaviours, as in the case of Way Out West. It is shown that visitors perceived positive consumer value: functional, emotional and social value were attained. Since “experienced users derived higher levels of functional and emotional value than novice users and reported higher levels of satisfaction and behavioural intentions to use the service again” (Zainuddin, 2013, p. 257), it could be argued that the actual experience of a social marketing product (i.e., a desired behaviour) provided through the event could contribute to influencing future behaviour. In this vein, Article 5 suggests that the adoption of the social marketing product gave rise to a positive affective response after consumption. This is interesting because traditional perspectives on marketing communication effects suggest affective responses as precursors of behavioural outcomes (Palda, 1966). In this case, by contrast, forced adoption of the behaviour may have given rise to affective and attitudinal responses. In other words, the lived experience of behaviour may contribute to reducing barriers towards repeated or enduring adoption of the behaviour.
Second, Article 5 relates to the formation of communities. Although social interaction and the creation of communities is intensified during the non-ordinary state of an event, communities endure when visitors stay in touch and continue to interact either physically or through social media. Norms shaped within the community during the event are potentially also at play after the event, and consumers continue to perceive social value when continuing a behaviour in the ordinary setting after the event. This suggests that other-directed value, such as social and altruistic value, motivate individuals to continue a behaviour in their everyday situations after the event. Both others’ reactions to the behaviour and the behaviours’ impact on others, are important for the continuation of a temporarily adopted behaviour. This is important because there appears to be a conflict between individuals’ self-oriented hedonic consumption and behaviours targeted within social marketing, such as pro-environmental behaviours (e.g., “I eat meat because I like it”).

Finally, effective approaches to behaviour change need to engage stakeholders from different sectors in collaboration. Community and audience engagement, public-private partnerships as well as industry participation have been addressed as expected future developments within social marketing (Beall, Wayman, D'Agostino, Liang, & Perellis, 2012). Since events attract highly involved visitors as well as stakeholders from a variety of societal sectors (Getz, Andersson, & Larson, 2007; Söderman & Dolles, 2013), events offer opportunities for producers, consumers and other relevant actors to interact in a pleasurable atmosphere. Hence, collaborative social marketing initiatives may be initiated through the event and may be extended after the event, which is a way to develop context-sensitive programmes that aim for social change (Domegan et al., 2013; Gordon & Gurrieri, 2014).

4.2 How events can be used to generate publicity aimed at behaviour change

Scholars have emphasized the relative lack of contextual focus in social marketing (Brennan & Parker, 2014; Hoek & Jones, 2011; Wymer, 2011). Thus, research addressing the upstream direction has been relatively neglected. Way Out West’s vegetarian initiative was at least partly the
outcome of a collaborative research process that involved event management, researchers and a representative from a public destination organization. As such, it may be seen as a case of upstream social marketing that illustrates how research can influence upstream decision making.

In a recent call to unlock the potential of upstream social marketing, Gordon (2013) suggests that there is a lack of guidance about when and how upstream marketing should be operationalized (Wymer, 2011). As a reply to the call, this thesis turns to media and publicity. Publicity is assumed to raise awareness and, for instance, to influence the behaviours of actors who shape societal structures (Gordon, 2013; Helfer, 2016; Wallack, 1994). Therefore, it plays an important role.

Events are defined as noteworthy occurrences (Getz, 2008) that are capable of organizing attention; thus, they “frame places, objects and people” (Richards, 2013, p. 1). This thesis confirms that attention in the form of publicity emerges in the wake of events, but how can events be used to generate publicity that aims for behaviour change?

As noted, the usefulness of publicity in upstream social marketing needs to be problematized. Gordon (2013) suggests that media advocacy and public relations may play an important role in creating awareness and influencing attitudes towards policy. Since the strategy appears to incorporate public opinion as a way to mobilize support for policy change, it is argued that the use of publicity should not be seen as a singular process but rather as a system of interrelated sub-processes.

**Framing theory and upstream social marketing**

Within upstream social marketing, there is an important issue related to how publicity is influenced (Gordon, 2013; Wymer, 2011). Hence, the sub-process of *frame-building* (Scheufele, 1999) is central. Frame-building refers to the interaction between journalists and external influences such as interest groups or social forces regarding how an issue is framed in the media. Based on Gordon’s (2013, p. 1529) definition of upstream social marketing, it is natural to think of social marketers as such an interest group that, for tactical reasons, frames issues to influence publicity to achieve the end goal of influencing behaviour change.
A case of frame-building through event-generated publicity

Article 3 explores a case of upstream social marketing in which equality advocacy groups attempt to pressure industry decision makers (festival managers) by exploiting event-related publicity. The initial step to achieve the end goal was for the advocacy groups to engage in frame-building (i.e., to influence journalists).

Traditionally, upstream social marketing seems to rely on information-based promotion as a source of influence “in terms of promotion, the tools that can be employed in upstream social marketing include active dissemination of research articles and reports” (Gordon, 2013, p. 1533). Advocacy groups may be seen as an external source that pressures journalists by approaching them with statistical evidence of a disproportion. Chong and Druckman (2007a) suggest that the perceived strength of messages affect the receiver in a frame-building process.

Quantitative measures appear to be effective framing devices (Gamson, 1992) (e.g., the translation of the message into numbers) to bridge the communication of a message between social marketers and journalists. This may be because numbers are perceived as objective (Thernstrom, 1986) and have the “potential to travel and be conveniently abstracted from complex social processes makes them appear to be objective nuggets of fact” (Best, 2001).

Moreover, beyond a compelling message both contextual factors (e.g., external pressure from advocacy groups), and internal factors (e.g., journalistic norms to balance reports) (Bennett, 1993) may influence the frame-building process.

The event experience and frame-building

Article 2 describes a case in which a destination management organization sought to utilize an event experience to influence publicity. Since journalists visit the event setting in person, dimensions of the experiencescape were designed to build journalists’ frames. For example, the physical environment (e.g., signs, information material) was designed to support the desired frames of a “sustainable destination”.

Moreover, the setting was designed to facilitate journalists’ interaction with objects (e.g., water taps and electronic automobiles) carrying the message.
Most notable was the strategy to interact with consumers (in this view, journalists became consumers of the event experience) by educating and encouraging event staff to socialize with journalists. One of the interviewed communicators claimed that “the only way is to charm them [the media professionals] ... everything technical has to function, that is basic, but what we can add is the human encounter”. Interpreted from a social marketing perspective, it is argued that the event experience provide opportunities for upstream social marketing communication beyond information-based promotion.

**Framed publicity and downstream effects**

Since social marketing ultimately seeks to influence individuals’ behaviour change, the link between publicity and downstream effects must be addressed. In general, the idea of the potential power of publicity to directly influence downstream behaviour is strongly challenged within communication research (Scheufele, 1999). One view is that publicity may affect thoughts, attitudes and behaviour, but scholars have yet to explain “why and how” outcomes on the individual level are linked to each other (Scheufele, 1999, p. 117). Within event studies, the hypothesized linkages between destination-framed publicity generated through events and future tourism demand have not been established (Crompton, 2004; Getz, 2003; Getz & Fairley, 2003; Mackellar & Reis, 2014). It appears that the general claim that there is a direct relation between event publicity and individual behaviour is unjustified.

Within social marketing, Morton and Duck (2006) consistently find that mass-mediated messages may foster awareness of particular issues, but individuals will only be moderately influenced. In contrast, Morton and Duck (2006) suggest that the potential for media to influence individuals may be reinforced when individuals interact and communicate with others. This perspective is shared by S. Peattie and Peattie (2003, p. 376), who claim that media coverage, similar to friends or family, can influence an individual’s acceptance and adoption of a social marketing product. Consequently, it could be argued that publicity’s potential to influence individuals when they interact (Morton & Duck, 2006) draws attention to the link between the two main themes in this thesis: framed publicity and the consumer experience.
Framed publicity, which can be timed to coincide with the visitation of an event, may be enhanced through social interaction at the event site. Dialogue around the issue will naturally occur, and the awareness produced by publicity may “help to persuade” (S. Peattie & Peattie, 2003, p. 372).
5. Summary and conclusions

The aim of this thesis was to explore social marketing communication that seeks to influence behaviours through events. Before addressing theoretical and practical contributions, limitations and future research, this chapter will provide summary responses to the research questions.

To achieve this aim, the following research questions were posed:

RQ1: How can events be used to influence changes in visitor behaviours?

RQ2: How can events be used to generate publicity aimed at behaviour change?

5.1 Events and visitors

Social marketing scholars advocate a long-term perspective to challenge structural factors and to allocate capacity for enduring behaviour change. Although events are executed and create awareness for a limited time, this study suggests ways in which the temporal event experience supports long-term behaviour change. For example, consumers who engaged in vegetarian eating continued to perceive social value when continuing the diet in their everyday life after the event, since communities and norms formed during the event endured. Barriers to enduring behaviour change may be reduced because experienced users may derive higher levels of satisfaction and behavioural intentions to repeat the behaviour than do novice consumers (Zainuddin, 2013).

Moreover, previous social marketing research has stressed that interaction, public dialogue and debate are critical elements in the development of context-sensitive programmes to foster social change (Domegan et al., 2013; Gordon & Gurrieri, 2014). Since events naturally link to stakeholders from a variety of societal sectors (Getz et al., 2007; Söderman & Dolles, 2013), events offer opportunities for producers and other relevant upstream actors to collectively initiate social marketing initiatives to be implemented during an
attractive event. This interaction could be extended after the event, which suggests that events may be a resource to develop context-sensitive programmes embedded in social and cultural structures. This resonates with Beall et al.’s (2012) suggestion that community and audience engagement, public-private partnerships and industry participation are expected to be future developments within social marketing.

This thesis provides examples of how events can be used to communicate a social marketing message through the visitor experience. The experience comprises such dimensions as the physical environment, interaction with the producer, interaction with other consumers, interaction with objects, and the main theme or story in a liminal place (Mossberg, 2007). Thus, visitors’ behaviour change is influenced through first-hand experiences of desired behaviours that are performed collectively with other consumers and producers in a liminal setting that contrasts with ordinary life. Communities are formed, and norms may be re-shaped. It is thus concluded that events may be used to influence individual behaviour change beyond traditional information-based social marketing to include communication through an experience that affects consumers’ emotions and their search for a hedonic response.

5.2 Events and publicity

In relation to the second research question, the findings in this thesis resonate with the prevailing view that events attract and have the capability to organize attention (Richards, 2013). Through a framing strategy that attaches centrality to frame-building and the use of numbers as framing devices, non-dominant stakeholders such as advocacy groups could utilize the opportunity for publicity that emerges in the wake of events. In this respect, it is argued that framed event-generated publicity can be an upstream social marketing means to raise awareness and generate support that pressures decision makers to change policies.

Event-generated publicity is suitable for a framing strategy since events, unlike ongoing everyday activities or naturally occurring events, can be planned for timing. Article 4 provides an illustration in which the event
management carefully chose the timing (the night before the event) to launch a message.

Moreover, the event experience itself can be utilized to influence publicity. Journalists visit the event setting in person, and dimensions of the event experiencescape can be designed to build journalists’ frames. As such, events provide opportunities for upstream social marketing communication beyond promotion such as press releases or research reports.

However, since social marketing ultimately seeks to influence individuals’ behaviour, the direct effect of event-generated publicity is a subject of interest. The potential power of framed publicity to directly influence downstream behaviour has been questioned by researchers in media and communication studies (e.g. Scheufele, 1999) and event studies (e.g. Crompton, 2004; Getz & Fairley, 2003). However, when framed publicity is timed to coincide with the execution of an event, it may contribute to visitors’ experience and foster social interaction and dialogue around desired issues.

5.3 Theoretical contributions

The aim of this thesis was adopt a social marketing framework to explore social marketing communication that seeks to influence behaviours through events.

In relation to this aim, the following theoretical contributions are discussed.

Contributions to downstream social marketing

Social marketing has been subject to contestation concerning the dominant reliance on traditional marketing approaches (e.g. French & Russell-Bennett, 2015; Glenane-Antoniadis et al., 2003; S. Peattie & Peattie, 2003; Wood, 2008). In particular, the marketing mix and information-based promotion have been subjects of debate. In resonance with a broadened scope of social marketing (e.g. Glenane-Antoniadis et al., 2003; Luca et al., 2016b; S. Peattie & Peattie, 2003; Wood, 2008), this thesis contributes by introducing the theoretical construct of the experiencescape (Mossberg, 2007; O'Dell, 2005). The experiencescape provides a lens that acknowledges consumers’ emotions and search for hedonic response as central to influencing behaviour (Carvalho & Mazzon, 2013). Furthermore, it resonates with the contemporary
development of social marketing theory, which highlights consumer interaction and perceived value as drivers of behaviour adoption (e.g., French & Russell-Bennett, 2015; Luca et al., 2016a, 2016b; Zainuddin et al., 2011).

Overall, the construct of the experiencescape provides an effective lens through which to view aspects that influence consumers in an experiential setting. Based on Holbrook’s (1999, 2006) categorization of perceived consumer value, this thesis demonstrated that the value consumers perceive from the adoption of reduced meat eating in the setting of an event can be linked to the categories of factors considered by the experiencescape concept. Hence, this thesis contributes by exploring perceived consumer value through the adoption of a social marketing product in an experiencescape.

Moreover, the experiencescape adds the dimension of liminality (Turner, 1977) to deepen the perspective of influences on consumer behaviour in a social marketing context. Events offer a consumer experience that contrasts with everyday life and may thus be seen as a liminal space where the development of comradeship may contribute to a restructuring of social norms. This is of particular interest since recent social marketing research underlines the importance of influencing behaviour change through communities (McKenzie-Mohr, 2013) and social norms (Burchell et al., 2013; Rettie et al., 2014). The study of Way Out West indicates that social structures among visitors during the festival continue to exist after the event. This phenomenon has implications for attempts to influence behaviour change since behaviour change is embedded within social structures (Gordon, 2013). Hence, it is concluded that liminal experiences, which contrast with ordinary life, have theoretical implications for social marketing research.

**Contributions to upstream social marketing**

In relation to the debate that suggests a lack of environmental focus on facilitating individual behaviour change within social marketing (Hoek & Jones, 2011; Kennedy, 2016; Truong, 2016) and the prevailing dominance of downstream social marketing (Dann, 2010; Dibb & Carrigan, 2013; Gordon, 2013), this thesis contributes by exploring cases of social marketing that explicitly address upstream decision makers (e.g., media editorial and event management).
This thesis provides a contribution through the use of framing theory (eg. Scheufele, 1999) to inform social marketing intervention. Upstream social marketing has long considered media and publicity as a means to create awareness and influence attitudes at the policy and individual levels (Andreasen, 2006; Goldberg, 1995; Gordon, 2013; Wallack, 1994; Wymer, 2011). However, social marketing research lacks theoretical guidance on when and how upstream marketing should be operationalized (Gordon, 2013; Wymer, 2011). To facilitate this understanding, it is concluded that publicity may benefit from being approached as a system of interrelated sub-processes rather than as one singular process. As demonstrated in Article 3, framing theory, particularly the sub-process of frame-building, provides a framework to consider how publicity frames may be approached within social marketing research.

**Contributions to event studies**

This thesis contributes because it is one of the few studies (eg. Henderson & Musgrave, 2014; Musgrave & Henderson, 2015) to explicitly connect social marketing with event studies.

There is a rationale for events as a means of social marketing communication beyond the traditional view of events as instruments for increased attraction to a place, increased numbers of visitors and increased economic impacts. In particular, that rationale is relevant from an *event portfolio* perspective (Getz, 2008), pursuant to which destinations seek to maximize value by co-ordinating different events (Chalip, 2004). In this case, social marketing communication can be co-ordinated and repeated through a variety of events at a particular destination. Accordingly, this thesis argues that a social marketing framework may be suitable to guide an emerging stream of event studies that addresses events as policy tools, e.g., sustainable development by influencing behaviour change (Chalip, 2006; Frost & Laing, 2013; Mair & Laing, 2013; O'Brien, 2007; O'Brien & Chalip, 2007; Organ, Koenig-Lewis, Palmer, & Probert, 2015; Ramchandani & Coleman, 2012; Ramchandani et al., 2015).

Moreover, this thesis contributes to the sub-field of *event media management* (Getz & Fairley, 2003) by answering the call by Bradley (2014), who suggested that although publicity is an important rationale for governmental organizations to engage in events, few studies have considered how event-
generated publicity is achieved. Bradley (2014, p. 301) concludes that event media management is an area that “remains largely unexplored and there is a need for this topic to be investigated further”. This thesis contributes by explicitly exploring the processes of influencing event-related publicity from a dominant stakeholder perspective. Specifically, Article 3 contributes to the same sub-field by widening the perspective to include non-dominant groups, such as advocacy groups seeking to piggyback on event publicity.

5.4 Practical implications

Although the individual articles suggest practical implications in relation to their respective scopes, this section attempts to present practical implications in relation to the overall aim of the thesis.

Within this thesis, social marketing through events has been explored from the perspectives of numerous stakeholders, including event managers, destination managers, academic researchers, advocacy groups and individual visitors (Table 3). Together, these perspectives include actors representing the private and public sectors as well as academia, civil society and citizens. However, this section will focus on industry event management and public sector destination management organizations along with advocacy groups representing civil society.

Implications for event management

Since event management controls event planning and execution, the event context provides interesting opportunities for both up- and downstream social marketing.

Downstream initiatives: the importance of consistent values

It appears that timing is important to explain the outcomes of Way Out West’s initiative. At the point in time at which the initiative was launched, there was a general acceptance of the vegetarian message within both society overall and the visitor community. Hence, it may be argued that the values underpinning the vegetarian initiative were consistent between the producer, the consumer and the context. In contrast, a general ban on alcohol and the communication of anti-alcohol behaviour probably would not have been adopted to the same extent by the target group. Accordingly, one general
suggestion is that managerial initiatives should address behaviours that are consistent with the values held by both the event management organization and the target group.

This is important since the attention an event attracts rests on legitimacy and mutual trust between the event and its audience (Richards, 2013). Being perceived as a credible source is fundamental to (social) marketing communication. It may be argued that the Way Out West initiative in 2015 to extend the meat restriction to milk may have challenged the source’s credibility. The reason for this issue is that the initiative coincided with an oat milk producer becoming a high-profile sponsor of the event; moreover, the initiative was not based on evidence of milk as an important contributor to Way Out West’s ecological footprint, as in the case with meat. However, Way Out West 2016 provided an interesting example of how to increase the source credibility of a social marketing message. The headlining artist and opinion leader Morrissey took the opportunity to endorse the Go Veggie! theme through speech, film and music when performing the song “Meat Is Murder”. This example resonates with Hansen and Mossberg (2013) suggestion that content and values communicated to consumers in a meaningful way through a themed environment facilitate consumers’ escape from the ordinary and interaction with other consumers.

Moreover, event managers can be assumed to have a general interest in contributing to visitors’ perceived value from the consumption of the event experience. Article 5 shows that visitors who adopted the desired behaviour experienced functional, emotional, social and altruistic value. In particular, it appears that social value was an important motivation for visitors who adopted and continued the behaviour after the event. Since interaction with and the perception of belongingness to a community are keys to the emergence of social value, a practical suggestion is to increase the possibilities for consumers to socially interact with other visitors as part of the social marketing activities. This may relate to the physical design of the experiencescape during the event as well as the facilitation of continued interaction after the event, such as through social media or smartphone applications.
Events may play an important role in social marketing. As in the case of Way Out West, the event allows managers to combine the event’s ability to attract attention with a designed experience to communicate a social marketing message of a desired behaviour. Findings from the Way Out West case suggest that the removal of meat from the event premises caused a 40% decrease in the daily per-visitor ecological footprint compared to 2010, when meat was served. However, there was also a more extensive goal established by the festival management: to influence the visitors to reduce meat consumption after the event. In relation to that objective it was found that more than 15% of the target group reported reduced meat consumption inspired by the initiative. This finding is important because it contributes to a broader managerial perspective of events, from the management of how to make events more sustainable to the employment of events as a policy tool for sustainable development in society.

By drawing attention to aspects that influence the consumer experience, the construct of the experiencescape may be a pedagogic construct to guide practical social marketing initiatives. This may be of particular interest for social marketers if the targeted behaviour is one that can be immediately adopted when consuming the experience (e.g., consumption of non-alcoholic beverages, physical exercise or waste management).

Downstream initiatives: “Forced adoption” of behaviour

In relation to events and social marketing, this thesis discusses the strategy of the “forced adoption” of desired behaviours. From a managerial perspective, it is important to note that there are ethical issues involved in “forcing” certain behaviours on consumers since visitors are socially and economically “trapped” within the festival premises. Managers may need to consider how visitors will feel about a decision made over their heads about such a personal issue as to what food to consume. Visitors may also feel guilt when they realize the consequences of a current (problematic) behaviour. Some Way Out West visitors became upset and claimed their freedom of choice was limited by the removal of meat, thus implying that negative value was perceived by some consumers. However, positive consumer value was achieved through the collective practices of eating vegetarian food for the sake of the climate. Thus, it appears that the notion of belonging to a
movement for a good cause by engaging in a certain behaviour may add value to the consumer experience.

*Downstream initiatives: A space for social interaction – and combined up- and downstream communication*

Events allow for interesting opportunities to combine upstream and downstream social marketing. Since public events typically affect and are affected by an extensive variety of stakeholders, there are links to different sectors of society that together significantly influence the context in which the target group exists. This phenomenon can be leveraged from an upstream social marketing perspective. An event could initiate collaborative networks that address concrete social marketing objectives that comprise planning as well as interacting in a pleasurable context with the target group.

For example, an event could adopt the social marketing target of responsible alcohol drinking. Together with beer companies, public health and social authorities and non-profit organizations, the event could establish a platform not only to inform consumers about the risks of alcohol but also to provide opportunities at the community level to experience non-alcoholic alternatives in a non-ordinary, pleasurable atmosphere. These collaborative networks could be maintained on an ongoing basis and could include social marketing activities in a variety of settings that target the defined objective. This would provide a way beyond the limited time and place of events to sustain consumer interaction and experiences in ordinary life.

The Euroskills event is an example of when a network of collaborating stakeholders used the event’s capability to raise awareness and to provide experiences to influence the attitudes and behaviour of a target group. One of Euroskills’ key purposes is to stimulate young people’s “interest in” vocational training and to “raise the status of vocational training” (Euroskills, 2016). When Euroskills was held in Sweden 2016, the event was a collaboration among the Union Confederation, the Confederation of Swedish Enterprise, the Ministry of Education and Research, the National Agency for Education, and the National Agency for Higher Vocational Education. All of these actors shared an interest in mobilizing young people to engage in vocational training. As such, Euroskills is a case of downstream social marketing through events that employed cross-sectoral collaboration to communicate with the targeted group.
Upstream initiatives: Utilize event publicity for social marketing communication

This thesis demonstrates how event-generated publicity can be influenced by event management to increase debate and put pressure on upstream actors. In Sweden, an interesting example unfolded in 2016. In conjunction with the summer festivals, a large number of incidents of sexual abuse were reported to the police. The phenomenon attracted attention and was debated thoroughly in the national news media and in social media. Some festivals took action to prevent the crimes, whereas others claimed it was a general structural problem for which festivals should not be held responsible. Inspired by the extensive event-related publicity, the Director of Education at the Swedish National Agency for Education, entered the debate by claiming that the problem related to everyday reality and that the agency needed to engage in preventive actions (Burén, 2016). Swedish public radio reported that from 2011 to February 2016, 10,705 reports of sexual abuse were received by the Swedish police authority. Of these, 21% occurred through the Internet, 10% related to schools, and 1% occurred in relation to festivals (Burén, 2016).

This case is an example of when a structural social problem achieves attention through an event, which mobilizes upstream organizations to act. There are notable similarities to the findings in Article 3; through festival publicity, a structural problem receives attention, and the ability to examine festivals and to attribute certain events or occurrences to a time and place helps to make abstract issues concrete. This may be particularly true if the issue is framed by numbers. In relation to the case described above, it seems that social change is better achieved if festival managements and the Swedish National Agency for Education collaborate rather than working in isolation. From this perspective, events, as a vehicle for social marketing, may contribute through their capacity to frame attention and to facilitate debate and dialogue to influence upstream decision making.

Upstream initiatives: Utilize the event experience to communicate beyond information-based information

A study of the 2013 European Athletics Indoor Championships provides concrete information about how elements of the experiencescape (e.g., social interaction and physical objects) can be employed to influence journalists’
framing of the event. In the case of journalists, the event experience (for example, the media centre, press gallery and press conferences) could be designed by event managers. From a broader perspective, the experience could be employed as a means to influence representatives of upstream organizations such as policy or decision makers in ways that go beyond information-based messaging.

**Implications for destination management organizations**

From the public sector perspective, events may be effective tools to influence behaviour change and thus may contribute to societal development. This approach to events may match municipal or local government policy (e.g., regarding social or environmental objectives). It is thus suggested that a social marketing agenda should be considered when cities, regions or nations consider bidding for events and develop event strategies. It is important to consider whether there is a potential match between identified policy goals and behaviours that could be related to existing or future events.

Events are limited to a short time and cannot solve societal problems in isolation. However, from a public sector perspective, events may offer important resources for social marketing purposes. To effectively influence behaviours and due to the limitations of events, events may need to be aligned with societal institutions and organizations that address social marketing objectives on a continuous, everyday basis.

Annually recurring *hallmark events* ² typically provide high value for destinations at a relatively low risk (Getz, 2013). It is argued here that from a social marketing perspective, a destination’s portfolio of hallmark events may be a valuable tool because hallmark events generate publicity and attention. In addition, as shown in this thesis, related publicity can be framed and used to create awareness of social marketing issues. Moreover, since hallmark events are recurring, the social marketing message may be managed across the portfolio to be repeated over time, as discussed in Article 3. Both framing

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² Hallmark events possess “such significance, in terms of tradition, attractiveness, quality or publicity, that the event provides the host venue, community or destination with a competitive advantage. Over time, the event and the destination images become inextricably linked”. Hallmark events are, by definition, “permanent institutions in their communities or societies” (Getz, 2008, p. 24).
research (Chong & Druckman, 2007b) and marketing research (Batra & Ray, 1986) link the repetition of messages to audience effects. The recurring pattern may also allow learning processes to occur. Social marketing initiatives can be planned, executed and evaluated to be improved on a continuous basis within the event portfolio.

Furthermore, hallmark events are non-ordinary experiences that are “authentically embedded in a place or culture” (Getz, 2008, p. 24) and that attract not only tourists but also local visitors. Locally attached events may be more accessible as a means for social marketing than international one-offs because dominant stakeholders may not favour a re-design of the event to suit a local policy agenda. In other words, since hallmark events are “permanent institutions in their communities or societies” and are inextricably linked to the destination (Getz, 2008, p. 24), they may provide possibilities to be integrated with ongoing social marketing initiatives pursued by other public or governmental organizations at a destination. As such, the non-ordinary experience of events provides an interesting complement.

However, social marketing through events has challenges. Attempts to use event-generated publicity may be limited by a number of obstacles, including difficulties accessing media space, difficulties in getting the intended message through the gatekeeper, and the lack of a match between the event content and the message. These limitations must be considered in a social marketing context. It should also be noted that although events bring people together and facilitate social interaction, groups in society may be excluded from participation, such as through the event’s theme, content, physical construction, or entrance fee.

**Implications for advocacy groups**

Despite a lack of formal access to the planning of events, events may provide a pathway to mass media attention and beneficial conditions for the communication of social marketing messages. This thesis analyses how advocacy groups piggybacked on music festivals to influence event-related publicity to advance an upstream agenda and pressure industry corporations (i.e., event management) to change their practices. It is suggested that a framing strategy that involves selecting some aspects of the event context and making them more salient to illustrate a perceived issue appears to suit the event context. Events are suitable to frame for communication reasons since
they attract attention and publicity. Furthermore, they occur during a pre-announced period of time, which makes a communication activity convenient to plan and to match with naturally occurring media interest.

Dayan (2008) argues that events that are bid for, such as through legalization, increasingly introduce barriers to non-dominant stakeholders’ ability to access the event to provide contesting communication. Recurring events may be of greater interest than one-off events for advocacy groups seeking to influence upstream behaviour. This is because both regular and recent exposure have been shown to increase the awareness of a message on the individual level (Chong & Druckman, 2007b; Stewart & Kamins, 2009).

5.5 Limitations and future research

This thesis views social marketing as initiatives that can be directed either downstream or upstream to influence behaviour change. Whereas emerging downstream-directed social marketing research increasingly takes an experiential view of consumption (e.g. Butler et al., 2016; Zainuddin et al., 2011; Zainuddin et al., 2013), the theoretical construct of the experiencescape (Mossberg, 2007; O'Dell, 2005) has not previously been embraced by social marketing. Future research in this direction is promising for social marketing since it allows new possibilities to understand consumer behaviour and provides a path for the social marketing research field to take concepts from contemporary marketing thought. Although this thesis uses exchange and consumer value as a theoretical approach to behaviour change, future studies of the role of events in influencing behaviour could adopt the lens of consumer culture theory. The consumer culture theory perspective sees consumer choice as idealized symbols and brands connected to products (Arnould & Thompson, 2005). This approach would draw attention to relevant aspects, such as consumer identity and lifestyle (Prothero, McDonagh, & Dobscha, 2010), which have not been addressed through the framework used in this thesis.

This thesis suggests that the liminality of the event experience may contribute to the reconstruction of social community norms; thus, it is a potential asset for social marketers. However, a contrasting perspective is proposed by Barr, Gilg, and Shaw (2011) and Barr et al. (2010), who suggest that place may
influence hedonic consumption. Accordingly, people engage in more hedonic consumption and may behave less sustainably when they are away from their ordinary home context, for instance on holiday. Accordingly, if consumption at an event is more hedonically motivated than in the ordinary home context, a central question for future research is which social marketing products create individual pleasure while contributing at the societal level.

In this thesis, the upstream direction was primarily limited to the exploration of publicity as a means of social marketing. Publicity, as discussed here, is a form of one-way mass media communication. In contrast, social media facilitates the interactive communication of user-created content. Unlike publicity, social media allows individuals to connect, share and create meaning. Article 4 addresses this subject when describing how the event management decided to use the social media platform to communicate the vegetarian strategy instead of a sending a press release for editorials to frame and publish. The managerial aim was to remain in control and for the message to reach the target group without “being distorted” by media gatekeepers. Through this strategy, 65,000 subscribers were reached instantly, the message was shared, and discussions emerged. Yet another significant difference is that social media, unlike publicity, values and distributes information through algorithms rather than via human gatekeepers’ judgements. As such, social media may have practical as well as theoretical implications for social marketing. This line of research remains to be addressed in the context of events and social marketing.

The role of academia in social marketing is briefly addressed within the upstream focus of this thesis. From a tourism research perspective, Hall (2016, p. 17) sees researchers as “professional public interest workers”. On this basis, Hall (2016) suggests that tourist researchers have the capacity to contribute to sustainable behaviour change, as confirmed by the findings in Article 1. It is suggested that future studies further develop the scholar-practitioner collaboration in the context of upstream social marketing.

The most recent development in the social marketing field concerns a macro-marketing perspective. In this research direction, scholars are concerned with analysis of the macro-structures in which individuals and organizations operate. At this level of analysis, social marketing becomes an instrument of societal change (eg. Kennedy 2016; Truong, 2016). In future studies, the
macro-marketing perspective could be matched with the suggestion here that destinations could adopt an event portfolio approach to achieve policy goals.

This thesis identifies the potential created by events for organizations to collaborate and organize the communication and execution of social marketing programmes using the pleasurable, non-ordinary setting of an event as a resource to be leveraged for the benefit of society. The event setting provides opportunities for two-way communication and possibilities to interact with the target group. This interaction could be extended after the event, which suggests that events may be a resource to develop context-sensitive programmes embedded in social and cultural structures. This argumentation is in line with Beall et al.’s (2012) suggestion that community and audience engagement, public-private partnerships and industry participation are expected to be future developments within social marketing. This represents a potential area of future social marketing research on events, specifically in terms of sport events as inspiration for increased athletic participation and public health.

Methodologically, this thesis presents limitations in relation to the measurement of downstream effects in Article 5. Interviewees were asked to report their perception of their own behaviour over time, which is a measure of a subjective attitude towards one’s own behaviour rather than an objective measurement of an actual behaviour. To explore the adoption and endurance of desired behaviours, the selection of interviewees was made from a segment of event visitors where these effects could be expected because these were the most knowledgeable informants. An alternative approach would be a longitudinal design to measure actual behaviour (i.e., in terms of the number of vegetarian meals per day) before and after an intervention. Exploring visitor segments that would be expected to report low or even negative effects (“Increasers”, as the group is referred to in Article 5) would also be of interest for future social marketing research.

Empirically, this thesis largely relies on case studies of the Swedish music festival Way Out West. One way to approach future research could be to conduct multiple or comparative case studies of other types of events executed in different cultural and social contexts, thus controlling for context-specific influences on the results.
Epilogue

In September 2012, I had the privilege of entering the fascinating world of academia. The PhD programme has been a demanding process through which I have had the opportunity to reflect on personal experiences concerning events and communication. It took time for the theoretical perspective of social marketing to develop and for me to be able to distinguish between theoretical abstraction and an empirical context. When returning to the Prologue and the situations that triggered my research interest, I conclude by recognizing that my perspective has altered.

When re-thinking the public celebration of Göteborgskalaset (the Gothenburg party) and the journalist’s challenging questions regarding gender representation, I now think of it as a process of upstream social marketing in which framed publicity brought attention to a social issue. Undoubtedly, as an upstream target, I was put under pressure to reflect on the situation. Today, I also see that I adopted the frames of the conversation (with the journalist) to become frames of my thought. My framed reflections became one input in an internal discussion of how to curate the future programme, contributing to new booking policies.

Re-considering the case of the televised music gala indicates that this seems to be a case in which event-generated publicity is used for marketing communication to ultimately affect future tourism demand by creating awareness about a destination. Although I would not say this is a typical case of social marketing, it can be seen as a communication attempt to influence behaviour. In this case, the primary target audience (the 600 million households worldwide) is located at a spatial distance that prevents a visitor experience of the event; thus, the conditions for two-way interaction are limited. The literature offers little evidence of a direct casual linkage between event-generated publicity and future tourism demand. In my studies, I found practical obstacles to destination management organizations’ abilities to fully access events and thus to enjoy the communication opportunities of an international broadcast. Moreover, the gala is a one-off event, and message
frequency related to effect repetition is not possible as it is in the case of annual events.

After re-considering Way Out West’s vegetarian initiative, which was the central case studied in this thesis, I view it as mainly a case of downstream social marketing that utilizes a combination of event-generated publicity and (most notably) the event experience to influence visitors’ behaviour. When I first learned about the veggie strategy, I spontaneously considered the downstream impact that framed publicity would have on a general audience. Now, for reasons developed in this thesis, I realize that it is the event experience and the visitors that are of central interest from a social marketing perspective. Although social marketing is traditionally initiated by non-governmental organizations or governmental organizations, this case draws attention to the event as a platform for social marketing where industry and public interest can be organized to facilitate new structures to influence behaviour.

Finally, when returning to the question I posed in the Prologue regarding how events can be understood in relation to behaviour change, I would now suggest a broadened perspective to avoid seeing events as isolated phenomena. I would argue that annual hallmark events, which are by definition embedded in a social and cultural context, provide interesting opportunities for social marketing communication beyond traditional information dissemination. In a pleasurable and non-ordinary atmosphere, circumstances are provided for visitors to experience alternative behaviours. The experience may affect norms and social structures that will remain in play in visitors’ ordinary lives after the event. Event-generated publicity can create awareness of issues among visitors and can influence decision making that affects individuals’ environment. Moreover, event stakeholders represent many sectors of society; as such, events offer opportunities for cross-sectoral alliances that can collaborate on effective social marketing and the changed institutional structures necessary to facilitate enduring behaviour change.

I have now returned to the publicly owned organization that manages destinations’ portfolios of events. Today, I see challenges in relation to my former conceptions of events and their role in society. Through the PhD process, I have been forced to re-evaluate some of the “truths” that I intuitively took for granted. Even more interestingly, another outcome of the process is that I now see unleashed potential in events. To complement the
traditional rationale of employing events as a means for economic policy goals, this research project has drawn my attention to emerging opportunities in the intersection between events and a social and environmental agenda for sustainable development. This is an issue that I would find interesting to further explore in the future, both as a practitioner and as a researcher.


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