

2014

A comparative study of producers' perspectives in the formation of road safety campaigns in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) and Australia

Faiz Mohammed Aldalbhi
University of Wollongong

Recommended Citation

Aldalbhi, Faiz Mohammed, A comparative study of producers' perspectives in the formation of road safety campaigns in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) and Australia, Doctor of Philosophy thesis, School of the Arts, English and Media, University of Wollongong, 2014. <http://ro.uow.edu.au/theses/4069>

UNIVERSITY OF WOLLONGONG

COPYRIGHT WARNING

You may print or download ONE copy of this document for the purpose of your own research or study. The University does not authorise you to copy, communicate or otherwise make available electronically to any other person any copyright material contained on this site. You are reminded of the following:

Copyright owners are entitled to take legal action against persons who infringe their copyright. A reproduction of material that is protected by copyright may be a copyright infringement. A court may impose penalties and award damages in relation to offences and infringements relating to copyright material. Higher penalties may apply, and higher damages may be awarded, for offences and infringements involving the conversion of material into digital or electronic form.

**A comparative study of producers' perspectives in the formation of
road safety campaigns in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) and
Australia**

**A thesis submitted in fulfilment
of the requirements for the award of the**

Doctor of Philosophy

**from
University of Wollongong**

**by
Faiz Mohammed Aldalghi
Master of Professional Communication**

**School of the Arts, English and Media
Faculty of Law, Humanities and the Arts
March, 2014**

Certification

I, Faiz M. Aldalghi, declare that this thesis, submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy, in the School of the Arts, English and Media, Faculty of Law, Humanities and the Arts, University of Wollongong, is wholly my own work unless otherwise referenced or acknowledged. The document has not been submitted for qualifications at any other academic institution.

(Signature)

Faiz M. Aldalghi

06 March 2014

Acknowledgment

This large and sophisticated project with so many challenges cannot be attributed to a personal or individual effort. As a result, it is necessary to thank deeply all the people who contributed to this project in one way or another. Sincere appreciation and special thanks to my principal supervisor Professor Philip Kitley for his guidance, comments, inputs, patience and personal assistance throughout this project. Professor Kitley's friendly advice, and highly valued and precious recommendations from the first day of my PhD journey made me more confident and pushed me strongly to finish this project. My special thanks also go to my supervision team Dr.Tanja Dreher, Associate Professor Gary Noble and Dr.Jennifer Algie for their valued contributions. Sincere appreciation is also extended to the Minister of the Interior, KSA, Prince Mohammed Bin Naif, for his unlimited support for police at various levels, and his support for academic scholarships for police officers. This support rests on his belief in the impact of such scholarly studies on the development of security and road safety work. Special thanks also to General Saeed Alqahtani (Assistant Interior Minister for Operations, KSA) for his assistance. My thanks also go to Major-General Othman Almohrej (Director of the Directorate of Public Security, KSA) for his assistance. I would like to thank Major-General Saad Alkhelaiwi (Director of King Fahad Security College), Major-General Khaled Alqahtani (Commander of Special Forces for Road Security), Major-General Saad Almaghrabi (Former Commander of Special Forces for Road Security) and Brigadier Eid Alotaibi from the Riyadh Police Department for their assistance. Special thanks to all participants in this project, particularly the personnel from the Department of Public Relations and Media in KSA and the RTA (now 'RMS') in NSW. My thanks are also extended to Professor Soames Job (Former Director, Centre for Road Safety in RTA), Mr. John Bruton, Senior Advisor, Communications from RTA, and Mr. Ali Algammas from the Department of Public Relations and Media. Great and sincere gratitude also to Lieutenant Colonel Khaled Alrwaitie and Mr. Jassar Almanie from the Special Forces for Road Security for their support and special assistance. Special thanks to Dr. Colonel Mohammed Alzahrani for his help. And of course, extra warm and deepest thanks to my father Mohammed and my mother Jawaher, for their best wishes, advice, encouragement and prayers during my journey in life and during preparation of this thesis in particular. I really thank them so much and I hope that my children become as proud of me as I am proud of them. Special and heartfelt thanks to my wife Majdah and my sons Mohammed and Sattam for their incredible patience and encouragement. Majdah supportively stood beside me in all steps of this project. Sweet thanks to my children Mohammad and Sattam who shared with me the critical and happy moments during the research journey. It is hard, however, to remember all the people who helped in this project, so I also thank all my friends and everyone who helped in this project whom I have unwittingly not mentioned here.

Abstract

Research studies suggest that audience-focused road safety campaigns based on scholarly research and professionally designed are a significant element in road safety strategies. Well designed campaigns have a positive impact on minimising road accidents and their consequences especially when they are integrated with law enforcement interventions. For a long time in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), however, policy makers and road safety authorities have depended solely on law enforcement to counter rising trends in fatal accidents. Law enforcement, however, has not been effective in achieving a long-term downwards turn in road safety violations and serious accidents. Since 2000 there has been a shift in the way of thinking about road safety policies and strategies. Along with law enforcement strategies, road safety campaigns are now increasingly relied on as significant interventions in KSA. This research was prompted by the observation that these campaigns do not appear to have had a marked impact on fatality and injury rates on the KSA roads. On the other hand, professionally designed and audience-focused road safety campaigns are a significant part of road safety strategies in New South Wales (NSW). There, authorities have reduced road accidents by 33 percent since 2002, and road accidents are responsible for only 0.79 percent of the total deaths in NSW, compared with 7 percent in KSA (Saudi Arabia Monetary Agency 2012; Attorney General and Justice 2013 p 2; Road and Maritime Services [RMS] 2012a p 37). This comparative study examines the road safety campaign formation process in NSW Australia and Riyadh province, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, with emphasis on the theoretical knowledge and pragmatic principles which inform campaign policy authorities, designers and producers in developing road safety campaigns to communicate effectively with target audiences. The road safety campaign formation process is examined from a producers' perspective which has been largely neglected in studies of campaign formation.

A mix of qualitative methods was adopted in this study. Archival research and semiotic analysis was relied on to analyse advertisements from four case studies of road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW. A series of interviews were conducted with stakeholders involved in the campaign formation process. Thirty three semi-structured interviews were conducted with policy makers, academics, police officers, campaign advertising developers and designers in both settings. This comparative, empirical research was designed to provide an understanding of the decision making and application of theoretical and other knowledge producers brought to the development and delivery of campaigns including those selected as case studies.

Significant differences in campaign formation processes in KSA and NSW have been found by this research. These differences included processes of identifying and selecting target

audiences, the communicative address of advertising content, institutional arrangements and the delivery of campaigns. It was discovered that national policy priorities in KSA resulted in campaigns that were directed at a general undifferentiated national audience, and usually combined an incompatible set of national security and road safety objectives. These competing priorities resulted in advertising content that was vague, at times ambiguous, pitched at awareness rather than behaviour change, and neglected to select and target groups most closely linked to risky behaviour on the roads.

In NSW, it was discovered that formation teams set appropriate objectives and identified and selected target audiences in a way that forged a much closer link between road safety priorities, communicative address and delivery. It was discovered that while NSW teams were aware of the diversity of the NSW population and relevant target audiences, formation teams gave insufficient attention to modes of reception among diverse audiences and tended to work off or translate a dominant culture model as default rather than develop culturally appropriate and nuanced advertising content more likely to persuade diverse target audiences to change behaviour.

The perspective in this research on understanding the formation process of road safety campaigns from the producers' perspective, and on the analysis of campaigns as directed textual events and complex development processes makes an important contribution to the academic understanding and comparative analysis of road safety campaigns.

Table of Contents

Certification	i
Acknowledgment	ii
Abstract	iii
Table of Contents	v
List of Tables	x
List of Figures	xi
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms	xii
Chapter One: Introduction	1
1.1. Introduction	1
1.2. The road traffic environment of KSA	2
1.3. The road traffic environment of NSW	4
1.4. Comparison between Riyadh Province, KSA and NSW with special reference to road traffic environments	5
1.5. Road Safety Campaigns: a comparison between KSA and NSW	8
1.6. Research goal	10
1.7. Theoretical contribution and justification of the study	10
1.7.1. Theoretical contribution	10
1.7.2. Justification of the study	11
1.8. Outline of chapters	12
1.9. Conclusion	15
Chapter Two: Literature Review	17
2.1. Behaviour change	18
2.1.1. Behaviour and road safety	19
2.1.2. Importance of understanding behaviour and impactful factors in road safety context	20
2.1.3. Behavioural modification theories	22
2.1.4. Persuasion and behavioural modification	26
2.1.5. Summary: Behaviour change	28
2.2. Persuasion in Advertising	28
2.2.1. Advertisements and persuasion	28
2.2.2. Designing persuasive social marketing advertisement	29
2.2.3. Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)	33
2.2.4. Summary: Persuasion in advertising	34
2.3. Road safety campaign formation and target audience selection	35
2.3.1. Road safety campaigns as part of road safety strategy and the complexity of designing effective campaigns	35
2.3.2. Identification of campaign theme	38

2.3.3.	Target audience selection and understanding.....	39
2.3.4.	Identification of campaign objectives.....	40
2.3.5.	Campaign budget.....	41
2.3.6.	Campaign advertisements	42
2.3.7.	Media selection	44
2.3.8.	Campaign evaluation	46
2.3.9.	Summary: Road safety campaign formation and target audience selection.....	48
2.4.	Audiences and socio cultural diversity.....	49
2.4.1.	Audience theories	49
2.4.2.	Cultural theories.....	52
2.4.3.	Cultural diversity in KSA and Australia	53
2.4.4.	Culture impact on social and road safety problems	55
2.4.5.	Targeting sub-cultural group audiences	57
2.4.6.	Summary: Audiences and socio cultural diversity.....	58
2.5.	Semiotic theory	59
2.5.1.	Fundamental concepts.....	59
2.5.2.	Semiotic theory: meaning in context.....	61
2.5.3.	Semiotic theory and the analysis of texts	64
2.5.4.	Summary: Semiotic theory	65
2.6.	Research questions	65
2.7.	Conclusion	67
	Chapter Three: Methodology.....	69
3.1.	Qualitative methods	69
3.2.	Mixed-methods	72
3.2.1.	Method I: Case Studies.....	74
3.2.2.	Method II: Semi-structured interviews	79
3.2.2.1.	Interview questions and translation.....	83
3.2.2.2.	Interview subjects.....	84
3.2.2.3.	Ethical considerations.....	86
3.3.	Data analysis using Nvivo 9 software	87
3.4.	Methodological limitations in cross-cultural study	88
3.4.1.	Limitations in sampling, data collection and analysis of data.....	88
3.4.2.	Limitations relating to differences in ideas and values that construct the level of significance	89
3.4.3.	Limitations relating to differences in institutional arrangements and governance	89
3.5.	Method III: Semiotic analysis.....	90
3.5.1.	Justification of the chosen TVCs and advertising	90

3.6.	Methods for searching and appraising grey literature and primary data...	92
3.7.	Conclusion	93
Chapter Four: Findings and Discussion: Differences in campaign Formation between KSA and NSW		95
4.1.	Producer perspectives on campaign development	95
4.1.1.	Summary: Producer Perspectives on campaign development.....	99
4.2.	Differences in selecting road safety campaign themes between KSA and NSW	100
4.2.1.	NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”	100
4.2.2.	NSW case study 2: “Wake Up to the Signs”	101
4.2.3.	KSA case study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”	102
4.2.4.	KSA case study 2: “Enough”	103
4.2.5.	Summary: Differences in selecting road safety campaign themes between KSA and NSW	105
4.3.	Analysis of campaign objectives.....	105
4.3.1.	NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”	105
4.3.2.	NSW case study 2: “Wake up to the signs”	106
4.3.3.	KSA case Study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”	106
4.3.4.	KSA case Study 2: “Enough”	107
4.3.5.	Producer perspectives on campaign objectives.....	108
4.3.6.	Summary: Analysis of campaign objectives	110
4.4.	Campaign budgets.....	111
4.4.1.	NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”	111
4.4.2.	KSA case study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”	112
4.4.3.	KSA case study 2: “Enough”	112
4.4.4.	Producer perspectives on campaign budgets.....	113
4.4.5.	Summary: Campaign budgets.....	115
4.5.	Producer perspectives on creative input in the campaign.....	116
4.5.1.	Understanding and considering target audiences.....	118
4.5.2.	Summary: Producer perspectives on creative input in the campaign 123	
4.6.	Media utilisation	123
4.6.1.	NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”	124
4.6.2.	NSW case study 2: “Wake Up to the Signs”	130
4.6.3.	KSA case study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”	131
4.6.4.	KSA case study 2: “Enough”	136
4.6.5.	Producer perspectives on media utilisation	141
4.6.6.	Summary: Media utilisation	146
4.7.	Campaign evaluation	146

4.7.1.	NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”	147
4.7.2.	NSW case study 2 “Wake up to the signs”	149
4.7.3.	KSA case study 1: “Enough”	150
4.7.4.	Producer perspectives on campaign evaluation	150
4.7.5.	Summary: Campaign evaluation	152
4.8.	Conclusion	153
Chapter Five: Findings and Discussion: Differences in target Audience Selection between KSA and NSW		155
5.1.	Target audience selection	155
5.1.1.	NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”	155
5.1.2.	NSW case study 2: “Wake Up to the Signs”	158
5.1.3.	KSA case study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”	161
5.1.4.	KSA case study 2: “Enough”	162
5.1.5.	Producer perspectives on target audience selection	165
5.1.6.	Summary: Target audience selection	168
5.2.	Producer perspectives on the impact of cultural factors on road safety message reception by target audiences	168
5.2.1.	Summary: Producer perspectives on the impact of cultural factors on road safety message reception by target audiences	170
5.3.	Producer perspectives on the impact of the traffic environment on road safety message reception by target audiences	171
5.3.1.	Summary: Producer perspectives on the impact of the traffic environment on road safety message reception by target audiences.....	174
5.4.	Conclusion	174
Chapter Six: Findings and Discussion: An analysis of how Campaign Texts in KSA and NSW Connect with Target Audiences.....		176
6.1.	Analysis of road safety campaign advertisements	176
6.1.1.	NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”	177
6.1.2.	NSW case study 2: “Wake Up To The Signs”	181
6.1.3.	KSA case study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”	184
6.1.4.	KSA case study 2: “Enough”	192
6.1.5.	Summary: Analysis of road safety campaigns advertisements	197
6.2.	Analysis of KSA campaign slogans and logos	198
6.2.1.	The “Let’s not lose our lives” slogan and logo	198
6.2.2.	The “Enough” slogan and logo	199
6.2.3.	Summary: Analysis of KSA campaign slogan and logo	201
6.3.	Conclusion	201
Chapter Seven: Conclusion and implications		203
7.1.	Overview of research	203
7.2.	Justification of comparison study.....	204

7.3. Key findings	205
7.4. Implications of this study	207
7.4.1. Implications for theory	207
7.4.2. Implications for road safety and social marketing campaigns practitioners.....	209
7.5. Study limitations.....	212
7.6. Suggestions for further directions.....	214
7.7. Conclusion	215
References.....	216
Appendix A: Semi-structured Interview Questions	252
Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet	274
Appendix C: Consent Form	277
Appendix D: Ethics Approval and Renewal	278
Appendix E: List of KSA Interviewees.....	280
Appendix F: List of NSW Interviewees.....	282

List of Tables

Table 1.1: Multicultural groups population in NSW	6
Table 2.1: Comparison of media penetration in KSA and Australia across different points in time.....	45
Table 3.1: Linking research method with sample and research question.....	73
Table 4.1: “Let’s...” campaign sponsors.....	112
Table 4.2: Media utilisation in the “Pinkie” campaign.....	125
Table 4.3: Media utilisation in the “Let’s...” campaigns.....	132
Table 4.4: Media utilisation in the “Enough” campaign.....	137
Table 4.5: Repetition of ads using different media during the campaign period of “Enough”.....	140
Table 5.1: Road accident percentiles in KSA by location in 70s, 80s and 90s.....	161

List of Figures

Figure 1.1: Trends for fatalities, NSW vs. the rest of Australia between 2001 and 2011.....	7
Figure 1.2: Death toll due to car accidents in KSA between 2000 and 2012.....	8
Figure 1.3: Framework of thesis.....	14
Figure 2.1: Framework for background literature review.....	18
Figure 2.2: Campaign planning sequence.....	37
Figure 4.1: Main factors for road crashes in NSW between 2005 and 2007.....	100
Figure 4.2: Main factors for road crashes in NSW between 2007 and 2009.....	102
Figure 4.3: Car accident causes in KSA in 2006.....	104
Figure 4.4: Main six violations in KSA in 2006.....	104
Figure 4.5: Budget distribution for media in “Pinkie” campaign.....	126
Figure 4.6: Message distribution across media in “Let’s...” campaign.....	135
Figure 4.7: Budget distribution across media in “Let’s...” campaign.....	136
Figure 4.8: Budget distribution on media in “Enough” campaign.....	141
Figure 5.1: Involvement of drivers in speed-related crashes in NSW according to age and sex between 2005 and 2007.....	156
Figure 5.2: Involvement in road crashes in NSW between 2005 and 2007 according to road user class.....	157
Figure 5.3: Drivers involved in crashes in NSW due to fatigue according to sex and age from 2007 and 2009.....	159
Figure 5.4: Involvement in road accidents in NSW according to road user class between 2007 and 2009.....	160
Figure 5.5: Contribution to road accidents in KSA in 2006 according to age.....	164
Figure 5.6: Death due to road accidents in KSA in 2006 according to age.....	164
Figure 6.1: “Pinkie” campaign’s non-motion advertisement.....	177
Figure 6.2: “Wake up to the signs”-non-motion advertisement.....	181
Figure 6.3: “Let’s...” campaign first ad (newspaper and road side sign ad).....	184
Figure 6.4: “Let’s...” campaign second ad (newspaper ad).....	189
Figure 6.5: “Enough” campaign first ad.....	192
Figure 6.6: “Enough” campaign second ad.....	195
Figure 6.7: “Let’s...” campaign logo.....	198
Figure 6.8: “Enough” campaign logo.....	200

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

Abbreviation/Symbol	Definition
ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
BBC	British Broadcast Company
CARRSQ	Centre for Accident Research and Road Safety
CAST	Campaigns and Awareness Raising Strategies in Traffic Safety
CITC	Communication and Information Technology Commission
ELM	Elaboration Likelihood Model
EM	Ecological Model
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
NHTSA	National Highway Traffic Safety Administration
NSW	New South Wales state/ Australia
NTSC	National Traffic Safety Committee
PIS	Participant Information Sheet
QLD	Queensland state/ Australia
RMS	Road and Maritime Services
RTA	Road and Traffic Authority
SBS	Special Broadcasting Service
SCT	Social Learning/ cognitive Theory
TAC	Transport Accident Commission
TfNSW	Transport for New South Wales
TMR	Transport and Main Roads Department
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
WHO	World Health Organisation

Dedication

This work is dedicated to
My father Mohammed and my mother Jawaher
My beloved wife Majdah
My sweet sons (Mohammed and Sattam)
For their unlimited support, advice and prayers during all times
It is also dedicated to my brother Abdul-salam
Who passed away on 24th of November 2004 due to a car accident when he was 16 years
old
May his soul rest in peace

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Introduction

Recent news in New South Wales (NSW) reported on a road traffic accident in which two four-wheel drive vehicles collided head to head and caused severe injuries to 15 people including 11 children. Some of the injured were trapped in one of the vehicles for more than an hour, before they could be flown to hospital for treatment of life threatening injuries. On May 9, 2008, seven people of one family were killed and only one 15 year old girl of the family survived a horrific car accident on Hail-Alqasseem Highway in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). The family car was driven by a young man (20 years old) and collided with a car driven by a man in his 60s, who also died in the accident (Alomaim 2008). This story is not a solitary one in the KSA. Indeed, car accident tragedies are a daily occurrence in KSA and have ongoing socio-economic consequences for the community, as well as bio psychosocial challenges for survivors, those who do survive that is (Al-Ghamdi 2003a; Al-Saif 1997; Almalik 2000; Hassan & Al-Faleh 2013). On a personal level, car accidents have touched my family on more than one occasion and at different levels, as well as other families in KSA. For example, it was 5 PM on the 24th of November 2004 when my close friend Waeil and I were enjoying our holiday in Dubai and his mobile rang. The caller was from the KSA, it was my younger brother Abdul. He told Waeil that my younger brother Abdul-salam had just died from a car accident. Abdul-salam was 16 years old, he and two other friends were on their way home from school when the car that they were travelling in rolled. Abdul-salam received serious head injuries and died at the scene of the accident. Both his friends were seriously injured. Unfortunately, this was not the last time I lost a family member due to a motor vehicle accident. In 2006, an uncle (74 years old), was unconscious due to a car accident for four years, and died in late 2011.

These are not isolated events. The problem of deaths and injuries resulting from road accidents is considered to be a global concern (World Health Organisation [WHO] 1996; 2013). It is also a major cause of disability around the world (WHO 1999; 2013). Road fatalities are expected to continue to increase around the world with an annual fatality toll between 1.1 and 1.3 million by 2020 (WHO 2013).

These incidents caused this researcher to believe that law enforcement campaigns on their own were not effective enough as a solution to the problems experienced on KSA roads, prompting an investigation into the methods and outcomes of successful road safety

campaigns such as those used in Australia. In a country like KSA, sufficient provisions for community awareness and training programs do not exist, especially for primary and high school students, where learning and teaching of best practices for road safety could have a major impact (Al-Saif, Albader, Alharthi & Alsharbini 1994; Capek & Sloup 2003; RTA [now 'RMS'] 1999b). The following sections describe in more detail the incidence and impacts of vehicle accidents in KSA and NSW.

1.2. The road traffic environment of KSA

According to WHO (2013), 1.24 million people were killed in the world in 2010 due to road accidents. Although road safety is considered a global issue, most of these accidents happened in developing countries (WHO 2013). KSA, for example, is classified by the WHO as one of those countries that has the highest level of road accidents and their victims in the world (WHO 2013). Regionally, Saudi Arabia has recorded the highest rate of road accident fatalities in the Arab world, according to a World Health Organisation (WHO 2013) report. In fact, traffic accidents are one of the main reasons for fatalities and injuries in KSA (Hassan & Al-Faleh 2013). The motor vehicle is the main means of transportation in the KSA because of minimal facilities for train and public transport (Alghannam 2007). Due to a lack of alternatives, many people are compelled to drive cars although they may not be fully efficient and safe drivers (Al-Ghamdi 2000). There has been a consistent increase in the Saudi population with an annual average growth rate of 3.91 percent between 1970 and 2008 (Al-Shammari, Bendak, & Al-Gadhi 2009 p 552). Over the same period the number of registered motor vehicles has increased from 144,768 to 5,566,776 at an annual average growth rate of 10.14 percent (Ministry of Interior 2008). This means more people and more vehicles crowd onto the roads with the potential of more accidents.

More than seven percent of the national death toll in Saudi Arabia in 2011 was due to car accidents (Saudi Arabia Monetary Agency 2012). Since 1970, at least 122,330 people have died on the roads (Al-Shammari et al. 2009 p 552). When taken together with the number of seriously injured people it becomes more than one million which is equivalent to more than 4 percent of the total KSA population (Al-Shammari et al. 2009 p 552). In 2012 there were 544,179 car accidents which caused 7,153 deaths and 39160 injuries (Ministry of Interior 2012 p 5-15). That is equivalent to 13 deaths per 1000 accidents (Ministry of Interior 2012 p 5). In fact, in Saudi Arabia, almost one person dies and more than four people are injured every hour on the roads each day (Ministry of Interior 2012 p 5). KSA is a culturally diverse country where non-Saudis account for about 29.6 percent of the country's population (Central Department of Statistics & Information 2010). Non-Saudis are involved in almost 40 percent of accidents, indicating Saudis and non-Saudis are almost equally involved in road

accidents and indicating that non-Saudis are significantly over-represented in car accidents (Ministry of Interior 2012 p 58). The number of non-Saudis living in KSA has been rising by 7.1 percent and has reached almost 9 million in 2012 compared to 8.4 million in 2010 (Saudi Arabia Monetary Agency 2012).

In KSA a significant amount of medical resources are directed to the care of accident victims which comes at the expense of caring for patients with naturally-occurring illnesses which may be unavoidable (Ministry of Health 1995; Teasdale 1995). More than 2,000,000 accidents with 39044 fatalities happened in KSA between 2000 and 2009 and 30 percent of hospital beds were occupied by car accident victims (Alhaider 2010). Almost one third of the long staying accident victims are discharged with serious disabilities including major neurological deficits, such as hemiplegia, paraplegia or tetraplegia (WHO 1996).

Road traffic accidents continue to cause immense socio-economic and medical complications for the victims, their families, society and the nation of Saudi Arabia (Ansari, Akhdar, Mandoorah, & Moutaery 2000; Al-Ghamdi 2003a, 2003b). Each road accident leads to a loss of productivity (Mahdi 2009). This includes hospital treatment, ongoing costs associated with injured people being integrated back into society, and the loss of manpower to the economy (Mahdi 2009). Road accidents in Saudi Arabia are costing the economy 26 billion riyals (USD6.93 billion) a year (Maktoob Business 2009).

Many human, vehicular and environmental factors are implicated in road traffic accidents in Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Interior 2012; Al-Ghamdi 1999). Over 24.6 percent of accidents occur because of vehicles travelling in excess of the speed limit (Ministry of Interior 2012 p 29). The driver factors include driver error, intoxication, illness or fatigue. Driver error can be attributed to carelessness, lack of experience, lack of knowledge and attention, over-exhaustion or fatigue (Bendak 2005). Vehicle factors relate to brake, steering, or throttle failures, or the conditions of the road itself such as lack of sight distance, poor roadside clear zones, rough road surfaces and the like (Al-Ghamdi 1999).

Several factors have been proposed as contributing to higher rates of automobile accidents in Saudi Arabia. Two important factors are speeding and the age of drivers (Badawi, Alakija, & Aziz 1995). One study found that 41 percent of its sample aged 25-35 years was involved in speeding, driving recklessly or making driver errors (Nofal, Saeed, & Anokute 1996). Compared to the USA, Saudi Arabian drivers have been reported to have had 1.6 times more accidents due to speed (Al-Ghamdi 2006). When crashes involving pedestrians are considered, drivers of the age group 18–30 years are responsible for 57 percent of the crashes, whereas drivers between 31 and 40 years contribute only 21 percent of crashes (Al-Shammari et al. 2009).

Interventions aiming to prevent road traffic fatalities may seek to reduce or compensate for these factors. When considered alone, human factors have been found to contribute to 80 percent of total accidents (Ministry of Interior 2012 p 29). Several interventions, however, are adopted by authorities in these countries including KSA to prevent or at least minimise the annual losses from traffic accidents. One of these interventions is road safety campaigns. Road safety education has been adopted by Saudi authorities since the 1980s through Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) traffic weeks (Al-Saif, Albader, Alharthi, & Alsharbini 1994). Yet the problem of traffic accidents and their horrific consequences is increasing yearly despite various interventions including road safety campaigns (Alghannam 2007). For example, while car accidents increased in 2012 by 8 percent (total 589,258), the death toll also increased in the meantime by 7 percent compared to 2011 (total 7,638 death; Hassan & Al-Faleh 2013).

In brief, it is obvious that road accidents in KSA present a very serious national problem and all signs are that the problem is going to be even more serious without major intervention.

1.3. The road traffic environment of NSW

Australia is a developed country which has a high volume of traffic on the roads with the possibility of many road traffic accidents. Car accidents in NSW are considered a serious problem when compared to the state population and compared to countries highly developed in road safety. In 2012, for example, car accidents were behind 369 fatalities and 22932 injuries in NSW (Road and Maritime Services [RMS] 2012a p 6). The number of fatalities per 100,000 of the population in NSW (5.1) still remains higher than countries such as the Netherlands (3.2) and the United Kingdom (3.1). Moreover, the statistics record a considerable increase in the road toll in 2012, an increase of 8 percent compared to 2011 (RMS 2012a p 37-38). The financial loss due to road accidents is also a significant problem in NSW. In 2011, for example, the loss was \$5,370 million (Transport for New South Wales [TfNSW] 2011 p 7).

Young drivers aged 17-25 constitute 14 percent of all the licensed drivers, but they were involved in 21 percent of all fatal crashes in NSW in the year 2010-11 (TfNSW 2011 p 7). Similarly in Victoria, 23 percent of the drivers killed in 2012 were aged between 18-25 years old though this age group only represents 14 percent of license holders in the state (Transport Accident Commission [TAC] 2013). When the NSW or Victorian situation is compared with that of other similar developed countries such as USA, it has been found that similar percentages of young license holder's involved in road traffic fatalities (National Highway Traffic Safety Administration [NHTSA] 2007).

Speeding and alcohol intoxication are two other important reasons for accidents and fatalities in NSW. In 2012 speeding was responsible for around 38 per cent of fatalities, and at least 12 percent of the drivers or riders involved in fatalities had a blood alcohol level more than the permitted limit for driving (RMS 2012a p 37).

1.4. Comparison between Riyadh Province, KSA and NSW with special reference to road traffic environments

Australia is a federal country where each state or territory collects and reports its own statistics separately, whereas Saudi Arabia is a unitary country where the available data in most cases is national level data which is not broken down to provincial or city levels (See, for example Attorney General and Justice 2013; RMS 2012a; ABS 2013 a; Ministry of Interior 2012; Ministry of Labour 2012). These differences in the scale and scope of statistics reflect differences in governance and culture between the two research settings, and make a direct, transparent comparison of relevant information difficult. Nevertheless it was decided that the best level of comparison that could be made was between NSW and Riyadh Province, even though a lot of the time the researcher was required to refer to national level reports, policies and statistics from KSA.

Riyadh Province and NSW share important similarities. Riyadh and NSW have similar populations: the population of Riyadh grew from 4,137,000 in 2001 to 6,700,000 in 2010; the total population of NSW in 2011 was 6,917, 658, up from 6,642,900 in 2001 (Central Department of Statistics & Information 2010; ABS 2002; ABS 2013 a). Thus both Riyadh and NSW have similar total populations, but Riyadh's population has risen much faster than that in NSW. The rapidly increasing population makes road safety issues an intensifying concern.

Both states have culturally diverse populations; according to the latest census in 2011, 68 per cent of NSW residents were Australian born, while more than 30 percent of its population was born overseas and represent different ethnicities such as English, Chinese, New Zealand, Indian and Vietnamese as shown in Table 1.1 .However, it is difficult to give the same accurate statistics about the population of cultural groups in Riyadh, or for the whole of KSA as all government statistics simply refer to culturally diverse groups as “non-Saudis” without breaking them down by ethnicity or language (See Central Department of Statistics & Information 2010; Ministry of Labour 2012; Ministry of Interior 2012; Saudi Arabia Monetary Agency 2012). The best available data on this matter for KSA at the national level and Riyadh city, (not the Province) was obtained from the Library of Congress

website which suggested that 90 percent of the Saudi population is a mix of Arabs, while the other 10 percent are from Afro-Asian backgrounds (Library of Congress 2006).

Both NSW and Riyadh have extensive city road networks and networks of linked highways which are comparable to each other (RTA 2009a; Ministry of Interior 2012). However, the diversity in the populations of both settings means that the road users are from multicultural minorities who speak different languages and have diverse cultural backgrounds. It will be shown that these cultural differences affect the strategies of road safety campaigns stakeholder in both settings in order to reach target audiences.

Table 1.1: Multicultural groups population in NSW

Country of birth	New South Wales	%	2006	%	Australia	%
Australia	4,747,372	68.6	4,521,155	69.0	15,017,847	69.8
<i>Other top responses</i>						
England	227,524	3.3	218,834	3.3	911,593	4.2
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan)	156,035	2.3	114,044	1.7	318,969	1.5
New Zealand	114,232	1.7	106,616	1.6	483,398	2.2
India	95,388	1.4	57,154	0.9	295,362	1.4
Vietnam	71,840	1.0	63,789	1.0	185,039	0.9

In New South Wales (State/Territory), 68.6% of people were born in Australia. The most common countries of birth were England 3.3%, China (excludes SARs and Taiwan) 2.3%, New Zealand 1.7%, India 1.4% and Vietnam 1.0%.

Source: ABS 2013 a

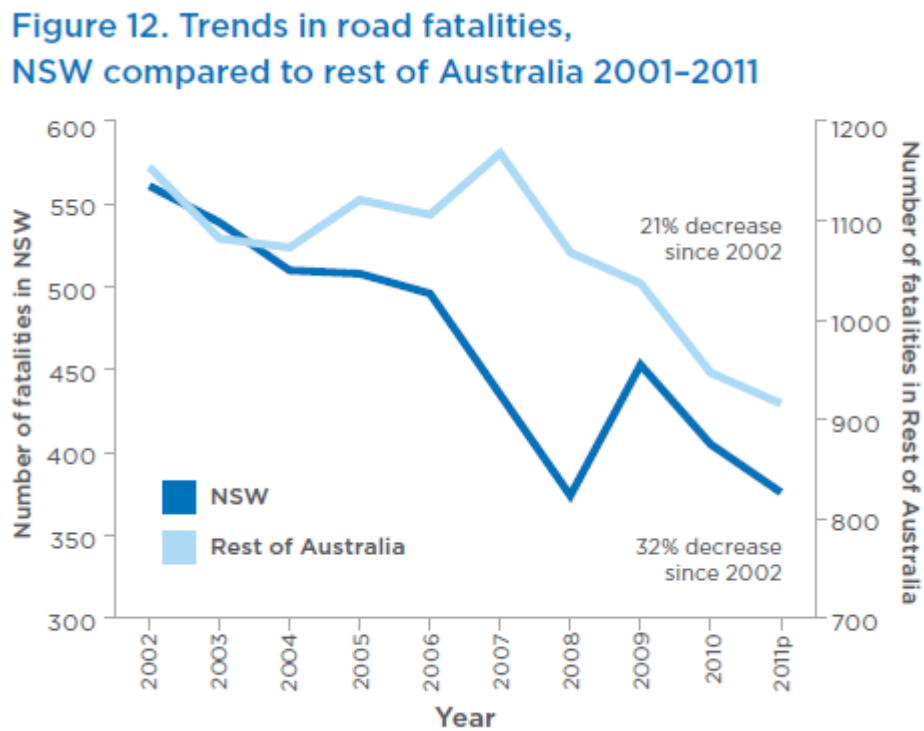
Taking a closer look at the capital cities of Riyadh and NSW will be helpful in understanding the multicultural character of both places. The population of Riyadh city is composed of 60 percent Saudi and 40 percent non-Saudis (Central Department of Statistics & Information 2010). In KSA, many non-Saudis are drivers employed by Saudi families as family or company drivers (Ministry of Labour 2012). Sydney also is very multicultural, with half of its residents born overseas (City of Sydney 2010). Thirty percent of the population speaks a language other than English (City of Sydney 2010).

Young drivers in NSW and the KSA may share similar risky attitudes and behaviours which account for a significantly higher number of fatal accidents for that demographic compared

to their percentage of the total number of drivers in both KSA and NSW (Altwaijri, Alzahrani, Abat, & Abdullah 2008; RMS 2012a; Ministry of Interior 2009; Ministry of Interior 2012). The involvement of fatal crashes by young drivers across both countries has been consistent over the years indicating a persistent pattern (RMS 2012a; Ministry of Interior 2012).

Figure 1.1 gives the trends of fatalities in Australia between 2001 and 2011 (RMS 2012a). It shows a reduction of fatalities over the years throughout Australia with a persistent and definite fall in NSW.

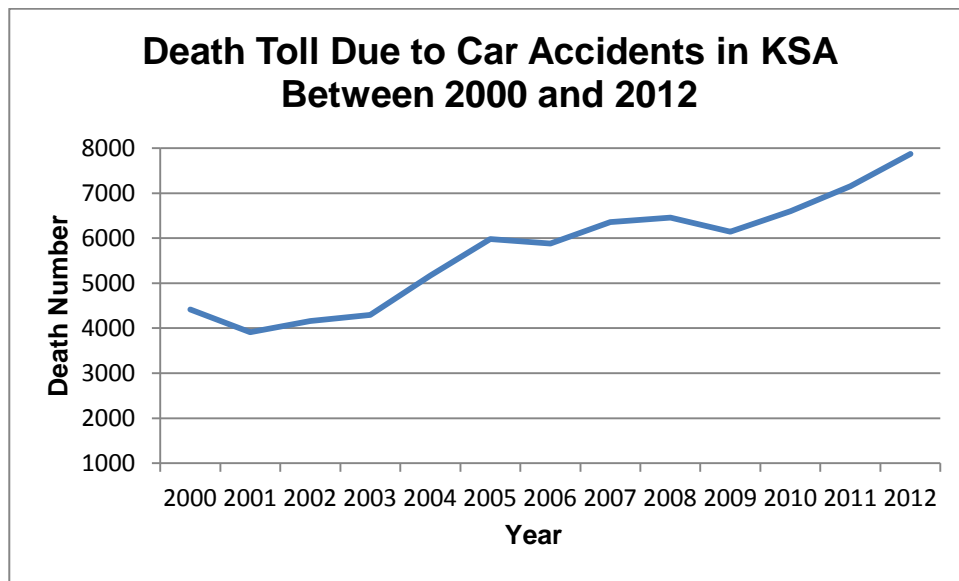
Figure 1.1: Trends for fatalities, NSW vs. the rest of Australia between 2001 and 2011



Source: (RMS 2012a p 37).

In the KSA, on the other hand, as the following graph shows, it is obvious that the death rate due to car accidents has increased gradually since 2000, from 4,419 to 7,153 in 2012.

Figure 1.2: Death toll due to car accidents in KSA between 2000 and 2012



Source: Ministry of Interior 2000 to 2012.

It is interesting to see that Australia in general and NSW in particular, has been successful in reducing road traffic fatalities consistently over the years. This success story may have implications for the management of road traffic environments and road safety campaigns which might be used as an example for countries such as KSA.

In summary, road accidents in Riyadh KSA and in NSW present a serious problem for community and public authorities.

1.5. Road Safety Campaigns: a comparison between KSA and NSW

Given the trends described, interventions such as road safety campaigns are needed to modify driver behaviour. One of the interventions that has proven effective in many countries is a coordinated program of comprehensive road safety campaigns (Delaney, Lough, Whellan & Cameron 2004; Alrasheedi 2006; Al-Ghamdi 1999). While road safety campaigns have been part of road safety awareness and prevention in the KSA, the campaigns appear incidental and not closely targeted (Alawfi & Ibraheem 2004). In developed countries including Australia, particularly NSW, road safety campaigns have been part of the strategy in reducing road accidents for more than three decades (Tay 2002). The “Pinkie” campaign in 2007, for example, is one of the most successful campaigns in NSW in recent years (Watsford 2008). The campaign encouraged peers to mock risky driving behaviour by bending a pinkie finger and provoking risky driver’s

masculinity (Watsford 2008). The ad campaign had a positive impact on more than half of the NSW society from different age groups who said they have used the pinkie finger to comment on risky drivers' behaviour while 53 percent of young males who were the main target of the campaign said that they would be more likely to remark on risky driving as a consequence of watching the "*Pinkie*" campaign ad (RTA 2009a). The professional design of the "*Pinkie*" campaign and creative aspects in the campaign ad earned different awards at national and international levels (Personal interview, Ryan O'Connell, Strategic Planner at Clemenger BBDO 11/5/2012). Therefore the NSW experience may provide useful insights into different aspects of road safety campaigns which might prove to be effective interventions in KSA. However, to this researcher's knowledge, no substantial study has yet been carried out comparing the implications and prevention strategies of road safety campaigns in NSW and the KSA. This is the basis and justification for undertaking a comparative study between KSA and NSW. This thesis will examine the use of social marketing campaigns in reducing the incidence of car accidents and their unfortunate effects in KSA and NSW, and will focus specifically on comparing the differences in social marketing campaign formation practices between KSA and NSW with special attention to differences in selection of target audience and visual elements in campaign content. Here "visual" elements may be understood as shorthand for all the communicative dimensions of advertising content, and will include both visual or pictorial content, linguistic content whether written or audio, and also creative decisions about colour, and the spatial representation of characters, titles and slogans.

The positive outcomes of the well-planned "*Pinkie*" campaign in decreasing the road toll compared to poor outcomes of most road safety campaigns in KSA could be attributed to non-professional design and an ineffective implementation process of campaigns by decision makers or executives who, for a variety of reasons as will be discussed, rely on personal experience more than relevant research, scholarly expertise and professional design in campaigns. As a result, and as this is a comparative study between KSA and NSW, the professional practices in developing NSW case studies campaigns including "*Pinkie*" will be used as a benchmark to compare KSA campaign formation and delivery practices in the case study chapters. This will help in understanding the distinctiveness of current practice in KSA road safety campaigns and examine whether or not there may be opportunities for adopting best practice for successful campaigns.

The Saudi government spends generously on education. The King Abdullah Scholarship Program, for example, is one of the biggest scholarship programs in the world. The program enables young Saudis to study in highly ranked universities in developed countries such as USA, UK, Australia and Canada. As a result, studying the evidence base, and range of theoretical perspectives which inform the design of the "*Pinkie*" campaign and others will

prompt the generation who benefits from this scholarship program to develop relevant knowledge, and work towards institutional and collaborative campaign formation practices which deliver campaigns closely focused on urgent priorities and are designed to communicate effectively with target audiences. This new generation will soon become the decision makers in the KSA and, it is hoped, will apply the best from their postgraduate research programs in studying and solving social problems.

1.6. Research goal

This study recognises the critical importance of the target audience in social marketing activities such as road safety campaigns, and draws on insights from media studies, literary studies and social marketing in developing a research approach that explores how practitioners and campaign producers in KSA and NSW develop road safety campaigns with a particular focus on target audience selection and visual communication elements.

Overall goal:

To examine the road safety campaign formation process in NSW Australia and Riyadh province, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, with emphasis on the theoretical knowledge and pragmatic principles which inform campaign policy authorities, designers and producers in developing road safety campaigns to communicate effectively with target audiences.

1.7. Theoretical contribution and justification of the study

1.7.1. Theoretical contribution

This study represents an empirical investigation, involving a detailed and analytical account of the formation of road safety campaigns with a particular focus on selecting and communicating with target audiences, drawing upon the producers' perspectives in two culturally different contexts (of NSW and KSA). This study brings a new dimension to road safety campaign research. Traditionally road safety campaign research has considered the audience via studies which examine the reception of advertising content. The current study extends and shifts this approach by taking a producer oriented perspective. The producer perspective on target audiences in the formation of road safety campaigns has not been discussed before, nor has the perspective been tested cross culturally. The important theoretical contribution of this study is the claim that road safety campaigns can be

understood as two interrelated but conceptually and pragmatically different fields, both of which must be investigated concurrently to develop a deep understanding of the relationships between campaigns as events, and campaigns as outcomes of a process of collaborative development. In this research campaigns are understood firstly, as social marketing events which extend over a defined time. More than that however, campaigns are understood as highly directed communicative events, designed to persuade target audiences to change risky behaviour on the basis of advertising which ideally recognises the cultural and social values, interests and distinctiveness of target audiences. The theoretical knowledge which is relevant in examining this field includes semiotics, cultural theory and the theory of behaviour change and persuasion in advertising.

Second, looking at campaigns as artefacts of a complex, cooperative development process, draws attention to the way campaign formation is embedded in cultural values and policy priorities, governance and institutional structures, knowledge, expertise, creative talent, research input and experience in an objectives driven process, and brings other theoretical perspectives into play. Here qualitative research is required to bring producers' voices into focus in order to understand campaign formation in historical, cultural and institutional context. Extended interviews with practitioners have shown that campaigns are outcomes of a range of interrelated but not necessarily coordinated processes and decisions.

The theoretical contribution of this thesis lies then in the claim that a comprehensive understanding of the formation and delivery of road safety campaigns depends on an innovative research approach which links the character of the social marketing event to a formation process which is embedded in culture and shaped by distinctive political, historical and economic realities. The need for a research approach with this dual focus and rich theoretical apparatus is especially pressing in comparative and cross cultural studies of road safety campaigns. In this context the distinctive character of a campaign, its objectives, mode of delivery and level of funding can only be understood as an outcome of a formation process which represents the social and cultural values, conventional knowledge and social relations between producers and the diverse audiences targeted for intervention.

1.7.2. Justification of the study

In the contemporary world the nature of communities is complex. So-called "native" or indigenous national populations everywhere have expanded and become more diverse as a result of in-migration and other, involuntary movements of minority groups. This is true in the KSA where large numbers of immigrants of non-Arab ethnicity live and work, and it is true in NSW which has an ethnically very diverse population. In every community where motor vehicle transport is part of everyday life and commerce, road safety interventions are an

urgent necessity to protect lives and national resources. One justification for this project is that the research has shown that in diverse communities, road safety campaigns need to pay careful attention to the selection of target audiences, and careful attention to the best way of capturing the attention of those audiences in ways that can persuade them to change risky behaviour (Delhomme et al. 2009; Henley, Raffin & Caemmerer 2011; Khadoor 2007; Donovan, Jalleh & Henley 1999). This study demonstrates that campaign producers need to become aware of the cultural distinctiveness and composition of target audiences and create advertising that draws on and connects with the languages, values and interests of the target audience. The other side of this is that producers need to be reflective about the way they develop campaigns, and draw on appropriate evidence and knowledge in selecting their targets and putting a campaign together.

Aspects of campaign programs and strategies in the KSA have been explored in a small research project in this writer's Masters degree where ideas were developed for making campaigns more effective. This larger doctoral project builds on that earlier work and benefits from the earlier investigation of appropriate advertising communication for KSA audiences, but takes a much wider theoretical and comparative perspective on road safety advertising campaigns.

The findings of this research will help practitioners understand the importance of designing road safety campaigns with attention to meaningful context. The outcomes will demonstrate that to affect attitude and behavioural change, road safety campaigns must be alert to and respect cultural differences, draw on relevant expertise and on evidence produced from professionally designed and evaluated research. The project has revealed significant differences between KSA and NSW among road safety campaign producers in selecting and researching audiences. This comparative analysis may find ways of sharing knowledge and experience for improving road traffic safety in general, and in both communities in particular.

1.8. Outline of chapters

Chapter one provides background information of the road traffic environment in KSA and NSW and compares the road traffic environments in both settings. The chapter briefly compares the reliance on road safety campaigns in both settings. Chapter one identifies the research goal for the project and the theoretical contribution and justification for the study. The chapter concludes with an outline of chapters.

Chapter two reviews previous literature about behavioural modification principles including a review of leading theories and behaviour modification through persuasive advertising. The

review continues by looking at aspects of campaign formation, including target audience selection, communication with selected audiences and the impact of cultural diversity on communication, with reference to communication with sub-cultural groups. This leads into a review of semiotic theory and its value in analysing advertising messages. The chapter concludes with presenting the research questions.

Chapter three describes and discusses the research approach and methodology relied upon in this project. The mix of qualitative methods approached in this study including case study, semi-structured interviews and semiotic analysis, their advantages and limitations is highlighted. The selection criteria for selecting specific campaigns and advertisements for case study and semiotic analysis is presented. The process of designing, validation and translation of the semi-structured interview questions for KSA fieldwork, and their modification to suit the NSW setting is described. Ethical considerations of the research and compliance with UOW regulations for fieldwork, and preserving the recorded material are also discussed. The limitations of cross-cultural studies are highlighted. The analysis of collected data using Nvivo 9 software is outlined, and the perceived advantages of using this software are also discussed. The criteria and methods for selecting and reviewing grey literature is also discussed.

Chapter four presents findings from the analysis of case studies and interviews with campaign producers. This approach is also followed in the discussion of findings in chapters five and six. This chapter is focused on findings raised in research question one. Thus findings related to differences in campaign formation practices are discussed in detail. The chapter reviews findings on administrative levels in campaign development between KSA and NSW, differences in selection of road safety campaign themes, setting of road safety campaign objectives in KSA and NSW, differences in allocated budget and the sources of funds, road safety advertisement design and designers' knowledge about target audiences, and differences in the mediation of campaigns between KSA and NSW. The chapter concludes with a discussion of differences in campaign evaluation between KSA and NSW.

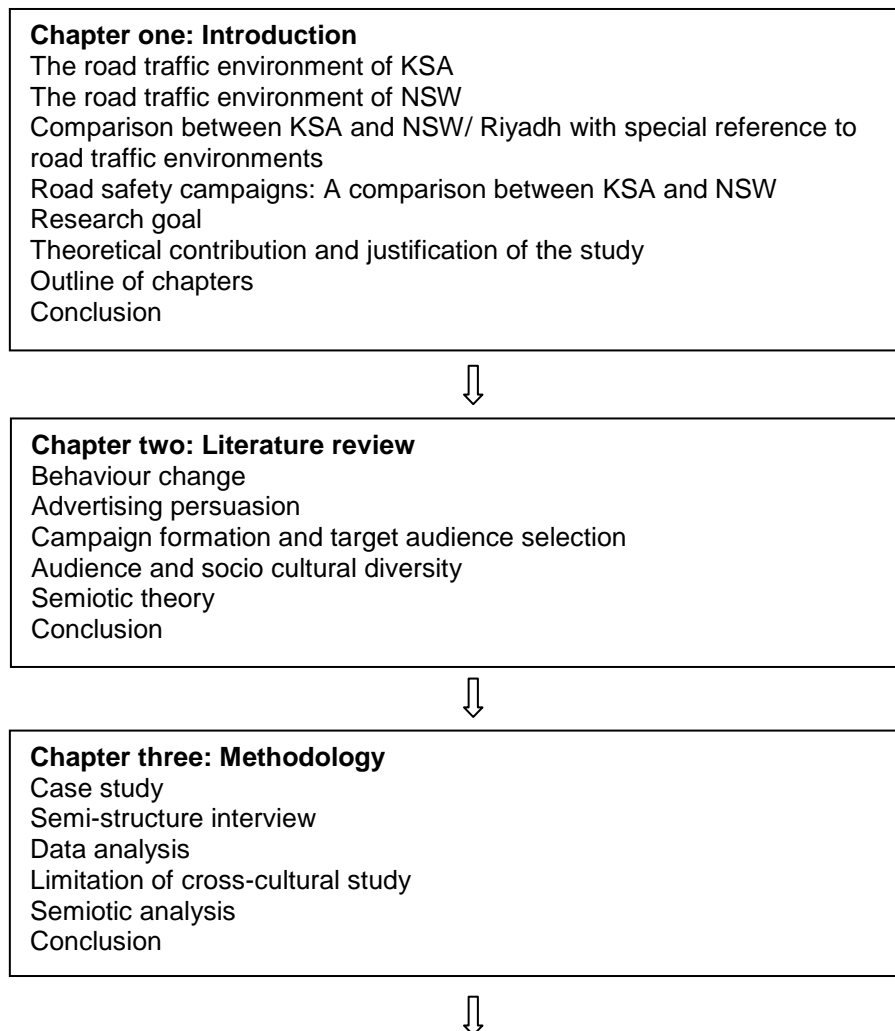
Chapter five explores differences in methods for selecting and targeting road safety campaign audiences in KSA and NSW. The chapter discusses differences in the stakeholders' perspective concerning the impact of cultural values and road traffic environment on road safety message's reception by target audience. The chapter draws together findings to answer the second main question in this study.

Chapter six focuses on answering the third main research question. Outcomes from a semiotic analysis of visual and textual elements of six road safety advertisements drawn

from case study campaigns from KSA and NSW are presented to examine the whether the selected advertisements were likely to communicate effectively with their target audiences.

Chapter seven reviews the comparative research project and suggests further directions for research. Key findings that emerge from this comparative study are reviewed. Theoretical and managerial implications of the study are highlighted. Key limitations of the study are also highlighted before a brief conclusion is presented. See Figure 1.3 for framework of thesis.

Figure 1.3: Framework of thesis



Chapter four: Differences in campaign formation between KSA and NSW

Administrative differences
Selection of road safety campaigns themes
Setting of road safety campaign objectives
Budget
Advertisement designing
Differences in selection of utilised media
Differences in campaign evaluation methods
Conclusion



Chapter five: Differences in target audience selection between KSA and NSW

Target audience selection
Stakeholders' perspective on the impact of cultural values on road safety message's reception by target audience
Stakeholders' perspective on the impact of road traffic environment on road safety message's reception by target audience
Conclusion



Chapter Six: An analysis of how campaign texts in KSA and NSW connect with target audiences

Analysis of road safety campaign advertisements
Analysis of KSA campaigns slogan and logos
Conclusion



Chapter seven: Conclusion and implications

Overview of research
Justification of comparative study
Key findings
Implications of this study
Key limitations
Further directions
Conclusion

1.9. Conclusion

In this chapter, it was noted that the impetus for this study was linked to the urgent need for more effective interventions in road safety to impact the rising trends in fatalities and serious accidents in KSA. The comparative success of road safety campaigns in the NSW jurisdiction was evident and the question whether campaign practices in NSW might offer a pathway to develop more effective campaigns became the basis for this project. The road traffic environment in KSA and NSW and the impact of car accidents on the economic, social and health systems in both settings have been outlined. The main reasons behind car accidents and the most at-risk groups in KSA and NSW were also highlighted before road

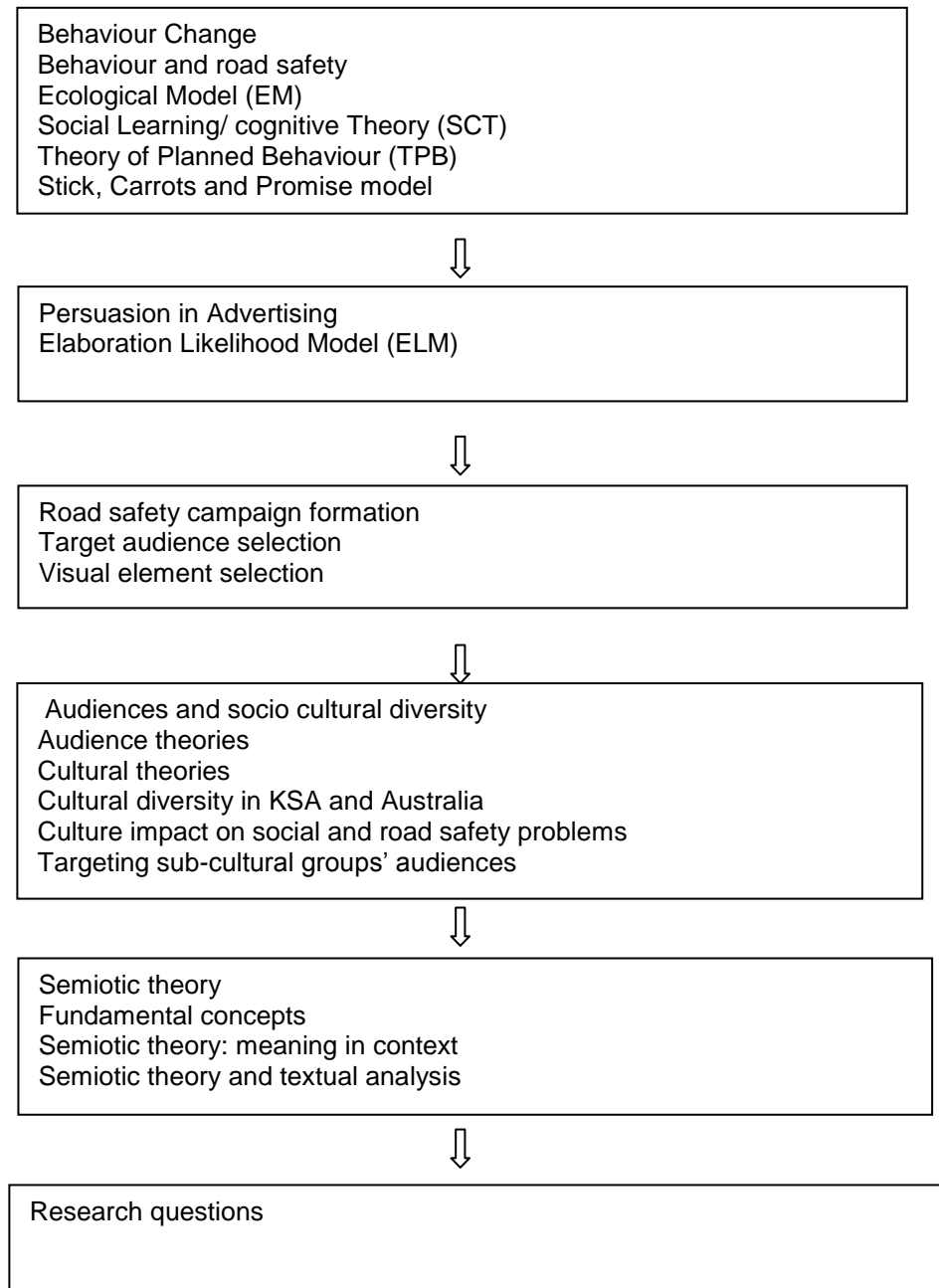
traffic environments in both settings were compared. A quick comparison of road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW was also outlined. The overall goal of this research has been identified. The theoretical contribution of this study and contribution to scholarly literature in the field has been shown. The significance of this study has been discussed, and reference made to how these research outcomes will help in understanding cultural complexity in road safety interventions and the perceived public and community benefits of this research. In the next chapter, a review of scholarly literature in fields relevant to the research goal established for this project is presented.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

The complexity and importance of understanding human behaviour and behavioural modification principles in road safety campaigns producers will be explored in this chapter. Leading theories in the field of behavioural modification will be reviewed. Persuasion in advertising and its significant role in behavioural modification will also be discussed. The methods and theories that may be adopted in designing a persuasive advertisement will also be explored.

The discussion will then review methods for designing and delivering effective road safety campaigns. The importance of the audience for road safety campaigns, and methods for selecting target audiences including important theories in this field will be also discussed. The impact of cultural diversity on road safety and the best methods for designing communicative messages for sub-cultural groups will be highlighted. The value of semiotic theory, and the contribution that semiotics brings to understanding signs and symbols, and its value in analysing cross-cultural communication will be highlighted. The chapter will conclude by presenting the research questions which have been developed on the basis of the literature review. See Figure 2.1 which outlines the framework for this literature review.

Figure 2.1: Framework for background literature review



2.1. Behaviour change

This section will highlight principles of behaviour modification in a brief review of leading theories in the field. In the course of this discussion, persuasion as a key tool in behaviour modification will be reviewed. Literature related to the importance of understanding behavioural modification principles by road safety campaign producers in addressing risky

behaviour practices will be reviewed in this section. The complexity of understanding the way human behaviour is embedded in cultural and social factors will be also examined.

2.1.1. Behaviour and road safety

The discussion may begin with a brief, general definition of behaviour, such as “behaviour refers to anything a person does” (Axelrod & Hall 1999 p 1). But as this is very general, the focus will be on behaviour in relation to road safety, and the way culture and a social context may impact on behaviour on the roads. The way people drive, whether safely or in a risk-taking manner is a reflection of drivers’ lifestyle and personality according to West and Hall (1997; see also Groeger & Rothengatter 1998). “Risky driving” behaviour here includes such behaviour as speeding, disobeying traffic lights, tailgating, drink driving and driving without a license (Fernal & Palk 2012; West & Hall 1997). Despite different levels of involvement, male and female drivers alike are involved in similar forms of risky driving behaviour. Online survey findings show that there are no significant differences in the ways male and female drivers take risks (Fernal & Palk 2012).

Risky driving behaviour is a significant contributor in car accidents in most parts of the world if not all the world. Risky driving represented by drivers’ faults has been identified as the main cause of road accidents (Groeger & Rothengatter 1998). More than 21 percent of road fatalities in QLD in 2012, for example, were caused by risky driving behaviour (speeding) (Mackay, Knight & Leal 2013). Risky behaviour of drivers also accounted for most car accidents in Jordan in recent years (Magableh, Grzebieta & Job 2013). It has also been argued that the relationship between risky driving behaviour and other risk taking activities such as criminal behaviour, drug use and alcohol consumption behaviour is significant (West & Hall 1997; Fernal & Palk 2012). For example, West & Hall (1997) found a connection between traffic violations and social deviance. This conclusion was also affirmed by Fernal & Palk (2012) who found that the involvement in risky activities other than risky driving is higher among those who are involved in risky driving behaviour.

Thus risky or dangerous behaviour and car accidents are strongly associated. Past studies found that the drivers’ lifestyle and character may contribute to the causes of accidents (Groeger & Rothengatter 1998). It was also found that there is a strong link between drivers’ attitudes or intentions to commit traffic violations and accidents (West & Hall 1997). Measuring drivers’ intentions, however, is difficult and yields unpredictable results. Thus, an emphasis on understanding risk-related behaviour rather than intended or reported behaviour enables road safety campaign policy makers to understand the actual problems they confront more clearly (Groeger & Rothengatter 1998).

This strong association and interrelationship between behaviour and road safety makes behaviour modification a major part of most road safety interventions, particularly non-coercive interventions such as road safety campaigns. Indeed, scholars have argued that understanding at-risk drivers' behaviour is a key element for the success of any road safety campaign (Groeger & Rothengatter 1998; Rothengatter 1994). Modifying risky behaviour of road users is likely to deliver most of the desired results of road safety campaigns and play an important role in preventing accidents (Magableh, Grzebieta & Job 2013; Fry 2006).

2.1.2. Importance of understanding behaviour and impactful factors in road safety context

Behaviour modification cannot be achieved without an adequate understanding of human behaviour. But human behaviour is complex and its relationship with other elements such as social and cultural practices makes understanding behaviour more challenging (Groeger & Rothengatter 1998; Bener & Crundall 2005; Magableh, Grzebieta & Job 2013).

Psychological studies of driver behaviour, for example, examine road safety from different angles, looking at culture, social relationships and age, and their association with behaviour in road safety contexts. Acceptability of risky behaviour in driving varies between societies, and may be acceptable in some cultures but not in others (Magableh, Grzebieta & Job 2013). Non-wearing of seat belts, for example, is commonly seen on KSA roads, whereas non-compliance is rarely seen in NSW (Personal interview, John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA [now 'RMS'] 16/5/ 2012). Not wearing a seat belt is, indeed, the second major traffic violation in KSA, comprising more than 11 percent of overall traffic violations (Ministry of interior 2012). Haglund and Aberg (2000) looked at social and cultural attitudes to speed and speeding in Swedish society. They noted that positive attitudes towards speed led drivers on 90 Km/h roads in Sweden to adopt the risky behaviour of speeding (Haglund & Aberg 2000).

Behaviour and behavioural changes are also affected by individuals' age and social relationships. For example, behavioural problems in childhood associated with personality disorders may lead to an adoption of risky driving in adulthood (Moffit, Caspi, Dickson, Silva & Stanton 1996). More than that, parents have an influence on the driving behaviour of their children and their influence continues after dependents begin driving (Scott-Parker, Watson, King & Hyde 2013). Other scholars, acknowledging the importance of early socialisation, however, point to the way more general socialisation practices and influences play a part in individual behaviour, especially in adolescence. Peer influence is considered an important form of such influence. Studies show that young drivers may engage in risky driving behaviour to make themselves more acceptable to their peers (Scott-Parker, Watson & King 2013). The well-known "Pinkie" campaign from NSW was focussed on peer approval, and

sought to modify risky driving by associating safer driving with social and peer approval. It also has been argued that risky driving by young drivers can be attributed to other factors such as showing off, being a safe driver, or simply due to being late (Fleiter, Lennon & Watson 2010; Haglund & Aberg 2000).

The complexity of human behaviour outlined in the literature makes understanding behaviour challenging. The linkages between behaviour and cultural and personality factors requires a full understanding of these factors before understanding the actual behaviour. Consequently, these complexities make behaviour modification through road safety campaigns a challenging objective that needs a strong grounding in knowledge of human behaviour. Such understanding can be achieved to some degree by adopting basic behaviour modification principles and rules and, according to Michon, Smiley and Aasman, should be aligned with cognitive psychological concepts (1990). Using principles of behaviour modification in road safety campaigns is likely to boost their success, and a lack of understanding or study of psychological principles of a target audience's behaviour on the other hand may result in unsuccessful campaign outcomes (Groeger & Rothengatter 1998). One example reported in the literature noted that principles of feedback, prompting and incentives for change were instrumental in the success of campaigns about safe crossing of roads (Limbourg & Gerber 1981).

It is also significant for stakeholders to understand relationships between behaviour and attitudes which may be understood as internal beliefs expressed by behaviour (Devine and Hirt 1989; Hargreaves 2011). As Hargreaves argues, researchers need to look to a person's beliefs, attitudes and values in order to predict their behaviour and develop different theories that may help in behaviour modification (Hargreaves 2011). Recognising relations between attitudes and behaviour and whether attitude change is a result of behavioural change or tends to precede behavioural modification is significant in behaviour modification process (Groeger & Rothengatter 1998). Devine and Hirt (1989) present evidence that behaviour change is preceded by attitude change. In their view, road safety programs must target attitude change firstly as this will be reflected in behaviour eventually. What the literature suggests, then, is that more understanding of behaviour modification theories is required for behaviour modification. Relying on behavioural modification theories is likely to strengthen the potential for campaign messages to modify behaviour in terms of desired outcomes (Webb, Sniehotta & Michie 2010).

2.1.3. Behavioural modification theories

Reviewing all theories related to behavioural change is difficult especially as this thesis focuses on road safety campaigns and not on psychological studies. Behaviour modification theories are varied and range across disciplines such as Control Theory, Goal-Setting Theory, the Model of Action Phases, Carrot, Stick and Promises, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Ecological Model (EM) and Social Learning/ Cognitive Theory (SCT) ;(Webb, Sniehotta & Michie 2010). While some of these theories address questions of motivation for behavioural change, others focus on how to link motivation with actual behaviour, while others are focused on assisting people to maintain recently adopted behaviour (Webb, Sniehotta & Michie 2010). As a result and because this is not a psychological study, this brief discussion will be limited to theories more related to social marketing and persuasion in particular.

2.1.3.1. The Ecological Model (EM)

Behavioural modification theories have been criticised because of their focus on individual factors while little attention has been paid to ecological influences on individual behaviour and the contribution of socio-cultural and environmental factors in behaviour (Lee & Kotler 2011). Although the Ecological Model (EM) has been seen as a merely theoretical model which cannot be grounded or practiced in reality, the strength of the well-known EM is that it draws attention to and attempts to explain inter-relationships and interaction between audiences and their environment (Brower 1988).

The EM model was established by Hawley (1950), and developed over time by other scholars such as Bronfenbrenner (1977, 1979) (Lindridge, MacAskill, Ginch, Eadie & Holme 2013). The central idea in EM is that there is an evolutionary and continuous relationship between people and their surrounding environment (Germain 1979). The model explains the roles of cognitive and social factors in shaping individual's personality and the significant role of supportive environmental factors in changing one's behaviour (Brower 1988; Lee & Kotler 2011). Based on the EM, the relationship between audience and their environment is mediated by personal and environmental factors (Brower 1988). These factors include personal factors (personality), relationships (peers), community (school) and societal factors (culture) (Lee & Kotler 2011). The relationship between these elements and a person's past experiences and expectations of the future are believed to guide individuals' choices of adopting or rejecting a specific behaviour (Germain 1979). Therefore, understanding how personal and environmental factors interact with each other and affect human behaviour assists in developing appropriate ways to achieve desired behavioural modifications (Lindridge et al. 2013).

In fact, although considering and targeting environmental effects on audience behaviour in social marketing advertisements is given less attention by designers, addressing the interrelationship between individuals and their environment through EM in social marketing interventions will encourage audiences to take greater responsibility for deciding which behaviour they should adopt (Wymer 2011; Lindridge et al. 2013). In the meantime, this will boost social marketing's ability to modify target audience behaviour (Lindridge et al. 2013). Drawing all these factors altogether will lead to long-term behavioural change (Lee & Kotler 2011). The EM model of change is useful for this study as it will assist in examining whether road safety campaign messages should address these factors in order to affect target audience's behaviour or only focus on the individual driver or road user.

2.1.3.2. Social Learning/ Cognitive Theory (SCT)

Similarly to EM but more in -depth, the Social Learning/ Cognitive Theory (SCT) goes further in explaining the relationship between behaviour and environment by illustrating different levels of effects of these factors on individuals' behaviour and the factors that can lead to these behavioural effects. SCT proposes that behaviour is affected by the surrounding social environment (Donovan & Henley 2003; Eagle, Dahl, Hill, Bird, Spotswood & Tapp 2013). SCT postulates that behaviour, personal factors and environment are mutually interacting and affect individuals' behaviour (Eagle et al. 2013). Yet, the effect level of these factors is different. For example, environmental factors can affect individuals directly and indirectly (Hastings 2007). Friends, family and local community which are included in the individual's so-called "immediate environment", for instance, are considered as direct influential factors, and economic and cultural factors, described as the "wider social context", are indirect factors (Hastings 2007 p 28)

SCT stresses the role of imitation and observation on learning. SCT suggests that a lot of behaviour is learnt through social reinforcement (Bandura 1977). New behaviour can be learnt through either practicing the behaviour or observing others who perform this behaviour (Bandura 1977). In other words, others' performance provides a model for individuals to adopt this behaviour through imitation or observational learning (Eagle et al. 2013; Donovan & Henley 2003). This way of learning; however, is guided by factors that help in or prevent adoption of the observed or imitated behaviour. The social environment can act as a facilitator or obstruction to social learning (Bandura 2004). These factors include deprivation and availability of required material (Bandura 1986). For example, watching smokers on movies will not be enough to adopt smoking if tobacco is not available. More than that, individual characteristics, the different abilities of individuals and positive feelings about this behaviour are significant factors in promoting adoption of the behaviour

(Eagle et al. 2013). This model has been extended by Bandura (1986) into what he describes as a comprehensive social cognitive model. In this model, Bandura suggests that beyond the factors already noted, perceived self-efficacy determines a person's capacity and self-confidence in adopting the suggested behaviour (Donovan & Henley 2003).

Thus, social marketing interventions must address both environmental and personal factors to prepare people for adopting desired behaviours (Hastings 2007). For example, encouraging people to drink clean water in poor communities that do not have clean water will not affect behaviour. On the personal level, it is important for social marketers to modify people's perception about targeted phenomena that are imitated by selected audiences (Hastings 2007). For example, presenting positives of anti-smoking can change perceptions about the negative consequences of imitating those who smoke.

SCT, however, has some weaknesses such as assuming knowledge is a prerequisite to behavioural modification while such modification may happen due to other factors. Hastings's example draws attention to economic factors, and the example given is eating vegetables because of an increase in the price of junk food. In this case switching to healthy food was due to its relatively low price, and not because of prior knowledge about its nutritional value (Hastings 2007). Another weakness is that SCT does not offer clear guidance on how to push audiences to the critical phase of behaviour modification (Hastings 2007). Despite these weaknesses, SCT is a well-known comprehensive theory that endeavours to explain individual behaviour and is widely and successfully used in social marketing interventions (Eagle et al. 2013).

As far as this project is concerned, understanding imitation or observational learning's impact on driver and road user behaviour is significant. It will assist the investigator to examine whether road safety campaign messages in KSA and NSW which warn target audiences about imitating risky behaviour in driving by showing resulting negative consequences are likely to be effective, and whether advertising which presents celebrities or people with a high audience profile driving responsibly is likely to encourage audiences to imitate safe driving. It will also assist in examining to what extent road safety authorities, including campaign designers, prepare the traffic environment for behavioural change by building pedestrian bridges or crossing lines before encouraging people to cross roads safely in road safety campaign messages.

However, it must be appreciated that although understanding behaviour modification theories is important in attempting behavioural change outcomes, persuasion is considered the main tool for operationalising these theoretical insights and in convincing people to adopt desired behaviours. People may be motivated to change risky behaviour and adopt

safer practices if suitable tools are adopted. Different methods can be utilised in motivating people to change their dangerous or unhealthy behaviour. In their evaluation of the European Energy Behavioural Change Programme (BEHAVE), Gynther, Mikkonen & Smits (2012) concluded that human beings' behaviour is motivated for a positive change if long-term behavioural change programs based on relevant theoretical principles and models, and programs which provide knowledge to persuade audiences about desired change/s are implemented. It has been argued that motivating, supporting and advising people can also be effective ways to encourage people to adopt safer behaviour (Hayes 2010).

2.1.3.3. Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

Another important theory in this field is the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) by Ajzen (1991). TPB is a well-known theory and widely used in behavioural modification in health and social fields (Schaw, Sheeran & Norman 2007). TPB was proposed by Ajzen to improve on the predictive power of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) by including perceived behavioural control. TRA, was put forward by Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen in two landmark studies (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975 and Ajzen & Fishbein 1980). The objective of TRA is to equip those who seek to promote behavioural change of any type (from consumer spending to the adoption of public health messages) with a method which is better able to predict the strength of a person's intention to adopt the desired behaviour. More recently, TPB suggests that the actual behaviour is preceded by behavioural intention; this intention is an interaction between a person's attitudes towards behaviour itself, the person's imagination about what others will say about this behaviour and a person's perceived level of control on that behaviour (Ajzen 1991). Indeed, the planned behaviour model proposes that intention is a mix between attitude and subjective norms (Webb, Sniedhotta & Michie 2010). So Ajzen brings attitude to the centre in behaviour change and argues that any behaviour change requires attitude change at first.

TPB suggests that the intention is the most significant part in behaviour (Schaw, Sheeran & Norman 2007). In this view, changing intention or attitude is more important than changing behaviour, which is understood as resulting from attitude change. If this is the case, then it opens up an opportunity for road safety campaigns to focus on influencing individuals' attitudes and intentions, on the understanding that prevention of risky behaviour is more likely to be achieved by long term influence on factors that influence behaviour. Reviewing and understanding TPB in this study will assist in examining whether attitudes are given enough thought by road safety campaigns producers in KSA and NSW, and also if attitudes are used to segment target audiences.

2.1.3.4. Conceptual framework “Stick, Carrots and Promise”

The “Stick, Carrots and Promise” approach to behaviour modification by Rothschild (1991) is another significant theory with promise for road safety interventions. Although the theory broadens the behaviour change process by suggesting coercive and non-coercive ways for behavioural change, it is still one of the leading theories in social marketing. The theory suggests that behaviour can be modified through education, marketing and legislative strategies (Rothschild 1999). Behaviour modification using Rothschild’s model is based on self-interest, interchange, competition and other external factors (Rothschild 1999). Decisions about what might be most appropriate in modifying particular behaviour is linked to perceptions of individuals’ self-interest levels and alignment with social norms. Education, for example, is used when self-interest is high, yet legal or coercive sanctions may be used where self-interest is perceived to be low and the required change works against individual or even preferred social and cultural behaviour (Rothschild 1999).

As a result, the motivation adopted in applications of the Rothschild model will vary based on perceptions and understanding of specific situations and circumstances. For example, while education does not promise any instant rewards, instant rewards are frequently promised by marketing (voluntary exchange), and no-punishment rewards are promised by following the law (non voluntary manner; Rothschild 1999). Understanding this theory will enable the researcher to examine approaches that are adopted by social marketing campaign producers to support road safety campaign’s efficacy and change audience behaviour. This will be investigated through reviewing whether different coercive interventions such as law enforcement may be used in conjunction with non-coercive interventions such as road safety campaigns to encourage different types of audiences, especially those who do not have any particular self-interest or have low self-interest to adopt safer behaviour by using appropriate methods for various groups of audiences. A variety of elements; however may affect decision of which method is more suitable for making an effective behavioural change, and discussion turns to these matters in what follows.

2.1.4. Persuasion and behavioural modification

Although different techniques and methods can be used to motivate people to adopt specific behaviour/s, choosing the best method for changing behaviour is one of the main difficulties that confront campaign designers (Briscoe & Aboud 2012). Persuasion, for example, is one of the approaches that is used to motivate people for behavioural change because it is a significant component for societal communication (Reardon 1981). Choosing the best tool

for behavioural change will vary from one country to another, one field to another, and between target audiences (Gynther, Mikkonen & Smits 2012).

The usage of persuasion for behavioural change rather than using other coercive tools may be justified on a number of grounds. For example, although integration of road safety campaigns with law enforcement campaigns may seem particularly effective, such programs are costly and have impact only over a limited time (Rooijers 1988). Persuasion, however, has a long term effect on people and can achieve desired results because individuals become motivated to change, not because they feel afraid, or fear consequences, but because they are persuaded that the changes looked for are in their interest and fit with attitudes they respect, such as caring for others (Rooijers 1988; Rothschild 1999). It must also be noted that constant monitoring of people is impossible. Police cannot monitor every road user at every moment, so enhancing self-monitoring by persuading people to adopt safe behaviour is ultimately more beneficial.

Persuasion may be defined as “the process by which attitude change is brought about, usually by the presentation of a message containing arguments in favour or against the person, object, or issue to which the attitude applies” (Colman 2008 p 130). Noting the link between attitude change and persuasion, it can be understood that persuasion may be the key for behavioural modification (Petty & Cacioppo 1986). As noted above in TPB, changing attitudes is critically important in attempts to modify behaviour. O’Keefe (1990) argued that persuasion works on influencing a person’s mental disposition. Cervin & Henderson (1961), however, linked persuasion to the interaction between two individuals (sender and receiver) and the way the receiver responds to the message sent by the producer. Thus, shared values between both message designer and receiver may lead to such interaction. O’Keefe (1990), on the other hand, linked persuasion to personality type as he argued that persuasion is influenced by personal differences between audiences.

Literature on behavioural modification and change including leading theories in this field have been briefly reviewed because of its significance in understanding the role behavioural modification plays in road safety interventions. Understanding the association between individual behaviour and road safety, and reviewing relevant theories of behavioural modification is significant for this study. The review provides a foundation for exploring the extent to which this important relationship is understood by road safety campaign producers and whether this association and behavioural modification theories are considered in designing road safety campaigns with behavioural change objectives. Understanding behaviour modification theories and principles will also inform this thesis in examining the type of appeals used in campaign messages and their relevance to target audiences and efficacy in effecting change.

2.1.5. Summary: Behaviour change

Personal behaviour and personality type have a significant impact on attitudes towards road safety and the actual driving behaviour of road users. There is a significant relationship between risky driving behaviour, traffic violation offences and road accidents. Therefore, understanding principles of behavioural modification by stakeholders, and the inclusion of risky behaviour modification objectives in road safety campaigns is an important element in campaign success. Yet it is not an easy task to understand the complexities of human behaviour. Human behaviour is associated with a range of cultural, social and age factors which make understanding behaviour difficult. Although a lot of theories are used in psychological studies, the Ecological Model (EM), the Social Learning/ Cognitive Theory (SCT), the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and Carrot, Stick and Promise are considered as leading theories for behaviour modification in social marketing. Yet using these theories requires full understand of their models and the integration of persuasion strategies is an important part of influencing audiences to adopt safer behaviour. Persuasion is also affected by personal differences and the way receivers interact with the sender. A more in-depth discussion about persuasion in messages in general and in road safety campaign messages in particular will be reviewed in the next section.

2.2. Persuasion in Advertising

Following the general discussion of persuasion above, this section reviews literature focused on persuasion in advertising. Different techniques used in producing persuasive advertisements are reviewed. These techniques are linked to several factors such as emotional response, social factors, culture, production and media selection. A review of the different issues that must be considered in designing road safety advertisements will be discussed. Factors such as budget, geographic reach and type of appeal will be reviewed before the section concludes by examining literature that stresses the importance of affecting audiences' cognitive processes and the application of scholarly theories in designing persuasive advertisements.

2.2.1. Advertisements and persuasion

Because advertising has proved to be a powerful method for advertisers in communicating their goals and needs to audiences (Bachanda 1988), it has been adopted by different commercial and non-commercial organisations to carry their messages to audiences. Advertising is a significant element in any road safety campaign in the world that is designed

to reach target audiences. Road safety departments in Australia, for example, use advertisements profusely to reach to target audience and modify unwanted behaviour (Fry 2006). When social marketing campaigns are understood as communicative events, attention is given to the advertising strategies, and the content of the advertising prepared and delivered to audiences.

As this study is interested in social marketing in general and road safety campaigns in particular, it is worthwhile to review what the literature says about persuasion in advertising in general with more focus on persuasive advertisements in road safety campaigns as a form of social marketing. Modifying risky behaviour is the ultimate aim of most road safety interventions (Bendak 2005). In the road safety context persuasive advertising is not simply a matter of providing information. Nor is it coercive (Albader 1997). It is advertising that induces the subject voluntarily to change or modify behaviour such as wearing a seat belt, taking rests more often and limiting drinking and driving. Road safety advertising seeks to modify the attitudes or modify the behaviour of road users by adding to their knowledge (Glendon & Cernecca 2003; Haworth 2005).

2.2.2. Designing persuasive social marketing advertisement

2.2.2.1. Type and level of appeal in persuasive advertisements

Previous work in this field emphasised that appeals to target audiences' feelings of fear were likely to be effective in persuading them to modify their behaviour. The persuasive power of fear was emphasised in Lewis, Watson and White (2008) and Tay's (2002 and 2005) studies which looked at the effectiveness of road safety campaign messages based on its relevance to target and non-target audiences. The fear-based appeal is one of the forms that has been used profusely from earliest days to persuade road users to change risky behaviour. In early Victorian road safety campaigns by TAC, for example, the dependence on high fear appeal, "shock-and-gore" advertising messages to change behaviour was dominant (Chulov 2002). Fear-based advertising is believed by many government organisations to be the best way to achieve behavioural modification outcomes in social marketing and was frequently relied upon in road safety campaigns in Australia and New Zealand in the 1990s (Tay 2002). Tay reports that fear appeals were effective in changing behaviour in some Victorian "drinking-driving" campaigns (Tay 2005). However, it can be argued that fear-based advertising is not suitable in road safety campaigns targeting children, or where people have a high level of fear as an unwanted consequence from a campaign. Thus there are ethical considerations in using high fear appeals (Tay 2005). Jones and Hall note, for example, that using fear appeals may affect audiences'

judgements, as it may manipulate people's ability in making free and rational decisions regarding the case or the issue in the campaign advertisement (Jones & Hall 2006).

Some literature links persuasion in advertisements to audiences' emotional response to the ad. Understanding the relationship between thinking and feeling can result in effective message design (Vaughn 1986). However, there are differences in processing information between audiences. These differences come from personality differences (LaBarbera, Weingard & Yorkston 1998). In their study LaBarbera, Weingard & Yorkston (1998) found that audiences respond positively to messages that are consistent with their feeling and personality-type processing approach. As a result, using visual and textual elements that are consistent with personality-type processing can have a great impact on the audience.

Other researchers such as Lewis, Watson and White (2008) have argued that positive emotional appeals may be just as effective in modifying driver behaviour as negative, or fear-based emotional appeals. Their work draws on the Elaboration Likelihood Model in examining the efficiency of message-relevant influence. However, when positive emotional appeals in road safety campaigns are compared with the negative fear appeal, it is clear that the negative fear based appeal is used more frequently in road safety campaigns compared to positive emotional appeals (Lewis, Watson & White 2008; Lewis, Watson, White & Tay 2007). Yet, it must be noted that, despite the low usage of positive appeals compared to negative appeals, positive appeals may still be effective. Its efficacy indeed, is similar to negative appeals, or may indeed be more effective especially on male audiences who were found to be influenced more by positive appeals (Lewis, Watson & White 2008). Using positive appeals in some cases in road safety campaigns will be more persuasive than negative or fear-based appeals over time (Lewis, Watson & White 2008). This could be because the high level of fear used in negative appeal advertisement results in reverse consequences (Brooker 1981). It may also be attributed to the pleasant emotion created by positive appeals which promotes more involvement in advertising (Brooker 1981).

Mixing appeals, however, has been argued by some scholars to be more effective. Tay (2002) for example, concluded after reviewing the effectiveness of positive and negative appeals with advertising that combined both emotional and fear appeals in messages, that mixing appeals has an impact on behavioural modification on both target and non-target audiences. This could be because of differences in message reception by audiences, as messages are processed by audiences in different ways (Fry 2006). As a result, social marketing frequently and pragmatically uses a variety of tools that lead to behavioural change and campaign success rather than relying on one approach (Gynther, Mikkonen & Smits 2012).

2.2.2.2. Impact of social and cultural values in persuasive advertisements

Other scholars, on the other hand, associate audiences' responses to particular advertisements to the link the ad creates between the audience and the social values inscribed in the content. Linking advertising content to social values increases its ability to shape people's thinking because associating advertising with things around us makes it more attractive (Bachanda 1988). In line with Bachanda's findings, other scholars have shown that advertisements with appeals linked to social cues such as attractiveness, social rewards and similarity have been successful (Schooler, Basil, & Altman, 1996). However, it is important to test the emotional responses and social values in the advertisement on targeted audiences before it is released as audiences' perceptions of social value will vary across age and gender (Austin, Pinkleton & Fujioka 1999).

There is a body of literature that puts emphasis not on psychological mechanisms, but on the importance of cultural factors such as language and symbols in advertising. Language is a significant component of any culture as it is the means of communication among its members. Hence, the type of language that is used in an advertisement affects its persuasion effect (DeShields & Kara 2011). For example, using local elements such as local images and local accents increases the audience involvement especially for local audiences. Liu, Wen, Wei and Zhao (2013) discovered that the correspondence between an advertisement's content and the language used increased the involvement of the audience and made it memorable for a long time. As far as this project is concerned then, it might be assumed that using Saudi looking people with Saudi accents and traditional clothes is likely to draw Saudi audiences' attention more than using Western-looking people in the same advertisement.

2.2.2.3. The communicative address and geographic fit of persuasive advertising

Some scholars argue that whatever psychological or social appeals may be inscribed in advertising, the production values of individual ads also have an impact on the persuasive values of a message and draw the attention of an audience (Slater & Rouner 1996). This is very significant for road safety advertisements especially when audiences are apt to compare campaign ads with well designed and produced commercial advertisements where companies spend a lot of money on advertisements to compete with other companies in order to draw people's attention. Grube (1993) discovered that audiences reported that anti-alcohol campaign messages did not draw their attention when compared with good quality commercial advertising for alcohol. Consequently, the persuasive power of advertisements is in part related to production quality, which in turn is in part a matter of budget. Thus, a

sufficient budget is very important in designing an adequate road safety campaign advertisement (Tay 2005).

Another element in the delivery of advertising that is linked to its power to persuade audiences is the perceived fit between advertising content and the choice of media used to deliver messages to the target audience. Research on this element of persuasion in advertising has been presented by Haworth, who examined characteristics of effective road safety campaigns. He found that paid advertising is a significant element of road safety campaign success as is placing ads in well chosen media channels (Haworth 2005). A campaign which presents unpersuasive or poor quality ads wastes funds and will affect the budget allocated to other road safety countermeasures (Haworth 2005).

Equally, the scope or reach of ads to target audiences in particular locations is a factor in the impact and success of a campaign in terms of speaking to or connecting with selected audiences. Haworth (2005) found that road safety advertising campaigns in Australia that targeted local communities or cities were more effective than those which were addressed to a more general, state or national level audience (Haworth 2005). However, this effect may be linked to the homogeneity of target audiences rather than geographic area as it is more likely that audience in towns or small cities are more homogenous and share similar values when compared to national and big city audiences, making advertisements with local content more communicative and impactful upon them as noted above.

2.2.2.4. Affecting audience's cognitive beliefs in designing persuasive advertisements

Other scholars have emphasised that affecting the cognitive beliefs of target audiences may also increase an advertisement's capacity to persuade and consequently change targeted behaviour. Persuasive messages which are likely to impact on audience behaviour should reference the recipient's beliefs and knowledge (Grube1993). This may be attained by providing audiences with extra information that helps them to make comparisons between two kinds of behaviour. Presenting a target behaviour's advantages or benefits, for example, can increase the efficacy of advertising messages (Austin, Pinkleton & Fujioka 1999). On the other hand, other scholars argue that using indirect persuasion techniques in messages, which give the audience the chance to construct the meaning of an implied claim, may make the recommended behaviour more acceptable for audiences rather than more overtly directing or prompting them in what to do (McQuarrie & Phillips 2005). This gives the audience an opportunity to generate for themselves the absent meaning. Adopting an indirect persuasion technique, however, may be sensitive to the age and level of education

of target audiences and their ability to derive the intended message correctly. In targeting primary school students to educate them about safe crossing of roads, for example, it is advisable to use direct and simple communications as they are less able to make their own judgments and arrive at the message intended by the advertisement producers.

Research has shown that targeting audience beliefs and values in road safety advertising may be significant in affecting target audience's behaviour and attitudes (Haworth 2005; Glendon & Cernecca 2003). One way of reaching out to audiences is by suggesting solutions in campaign messages rather than by presenting abstract (uncaused) problems. In line with Aizen's theory of planned behaviour, there is a body of research which suggests that advertisements in road safety campaigns should ideally show the problem or the cause and how to avoid it. Designed in this way, advertising is likely to be more effective and likely to persuade people to adopt safer driving behaviour (Glendon & Cernecca 2003).

2.2.3. Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)

It has been argued that there is an association between individuals' involvement in an advertisement which in turn influences persuasion (Petty, Schumann, Richman & Strathman 1993). One of the most influential theories in this field is the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) by Petty and Cacioppo (1986). Just as Rothchild's model was seen to emphasise the importance of understanding the motivations and interests of individuals, the ELM model is also focused on the way selected or targeted audiences are affected by social marketing content designed to reach and influence them. Here, though, the focus is on the reception of marketing content rather than on the way the content may be linked to individuals' interests.

Petty & Cacioppo (1986) suggest that marketing or advertising content is processed in two ways in an individual's mind. They refer to the processing as "Central" and "Peripheral" (Griffin 1991). The significant difference between central and peripheral processing is the level of thought or concentration given to think about or process the argument (Yi, Yoon, Davis & Lee 2013). Deep processing of the ad (considering the ad's cue or argument) by the audience is considered the "Central" process, whereas "Peripheral" processing is where the audience superficially processes the ad based on cognitive noting of the ad heuristics (Petty & Cacioppo 1986). Indeed, ELM suggests that while central processing of messages by audiences obviously involves more scrutiny of the message, persons not highly involved in the message are more likely to process the text in a peripheral manner, or give it more limited attention (Webb, Sniehotta & Michie 2010). Hence, the acceptance or rejection of the message in the peripheral route is made quickly and based on audience experience in some cases, whereas more thought is given to the ad message in the central route (Griffin 1991).

Despite the processing level of the message by individuals, personal motivation is significant in ELM and may determine to what extent a person may become involved in the advertisement. Lewis, Watson & White (2008) argued that central processing occurs as a reflection of high motivation and low motivation results in the peripheral route. In turn, the level of personal involvement in message processing affects a person's motivation either positively or negatively (Lewis, Watson & White 2008). For example, while central processing can result in high motivation for behaviour change, the peripheral process results in low motivation. As a result, central processing has been argued to be more likely to have an impact on the behaviour of motivated people who have the ability to make the required change/s, while unmotivated people may process the ad peripherally which may limit its effectiveness (Flynn, Worden, Bunn, Connolly & Dorwaldt 2011).

Previous literature on ELM, however, suggested that the quality and the credibility of information in the ad has a significant impact on ad reception (Yi, Yoon, Davis & Lee 2013). The reception of the message is thus affected by the position and credibility of the message's source. Varying the argument may have more impact on positive (central) reception of message for different types of audiences (Dweedar 1995).

The association between the reception of social marketing messages and levels of motivation for behavioural change is obviously very significant for road safety interventions, where social marketing campaigns often address behaviour or practices which audiences may at first sight perceive to be of limited interest or significance. The ELM model suggests that campaign developers need a well developed understanding of their target audiences' motivations and interests, and a thorough understanding of how marketing content can be designed to gain and hold audiences' attention. As a result, when advertising producers work off ELM theory or principles it is likely to result in creating effective ads that satisfy their objectives in reaching audiences and impacting behaviour (Flynn, Worden, Bunn, Connolly & Dorwaldt 2011). In this project, the principles of reception of advertising by audiences as outlined in ELM are an important focus, and that is why the model has been reviewed here. Combined with semiotic theory about the construction of meaning in advertising, this project has been concerned with the examination of to what extent reception and the construction of messages for specific audiences is adequately considered by campaigns producers.

2.2.4. Summary: Persuasion in advertising

Advertising is a significant tool used by most profit and non-profit agencies to reach and persuade target audiences to act in different ways. Personal and cultural differences affect the way audiences receive or respond to advertising content, style and perceived fit. This

makes designing effective and persuasive advertisements more challenging as producers explore ways of taking these factors into consideration. Although the fear-based appeal is dominant in road safety advertising, emotional appeals are also used and have impact on target audiences. Mixing both appeals and adopting new methods may enhance message persuasiveness. Issues such as emotional status, social factors, culture, cognitive beliefs and processing must be considered by advertising producers as part of the development of persuasive advertisements that have the ability to change audience behaviour.

2.3. Road safety campaign formation and target audience selection

The place of social marketing campaigns as part of a comprehensive road safety strategy will be outlined and literature concerned with various aspects of campaign development will be reviewed in this section. The section begins with a definition of social marketing and road safety campaigns. Discussion moves to the selection of campaign themes, selection of target audiences, the importance of audience segmentation and of understanding audiences. The importance of setting campaign objectives and allocating adequate budgets will be also reviewed. Media utilisation methods and differences in utilising different media will be discussed before the media environments in KSA and Australia are reviewed. The section will conclude by highlighting the importance of campaign evaluation and the best methods for adequate evaluation.

2.3.1. Road safety campaigns as part of road safety strategy and the complexity of designing effective campaigns

Road safety is a broad term that includes a range of interventions taken by authorities to save road users' lives and defray negative impacts on the national or state economy. These interventions include law enforcement, engineering, and education. As these interventions are different in nature and their responsibilities are dispersed across a number of responsible authorities, governments usually gather these interventions under what is called a "road safety strategy" to ensure that all these interventions work together harmoniously. Road safety campaigns are part of a comprehensive road safety strategy and are integrated with other elements in this strategy (Khadoor 2007).

Road safety campaigns are one form of social marketing. Social marketing may be defined as "the adaptation of commercial 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). This definition, however, was modified by Donovan and Henley (2003) who included involuntary behaviours rather than

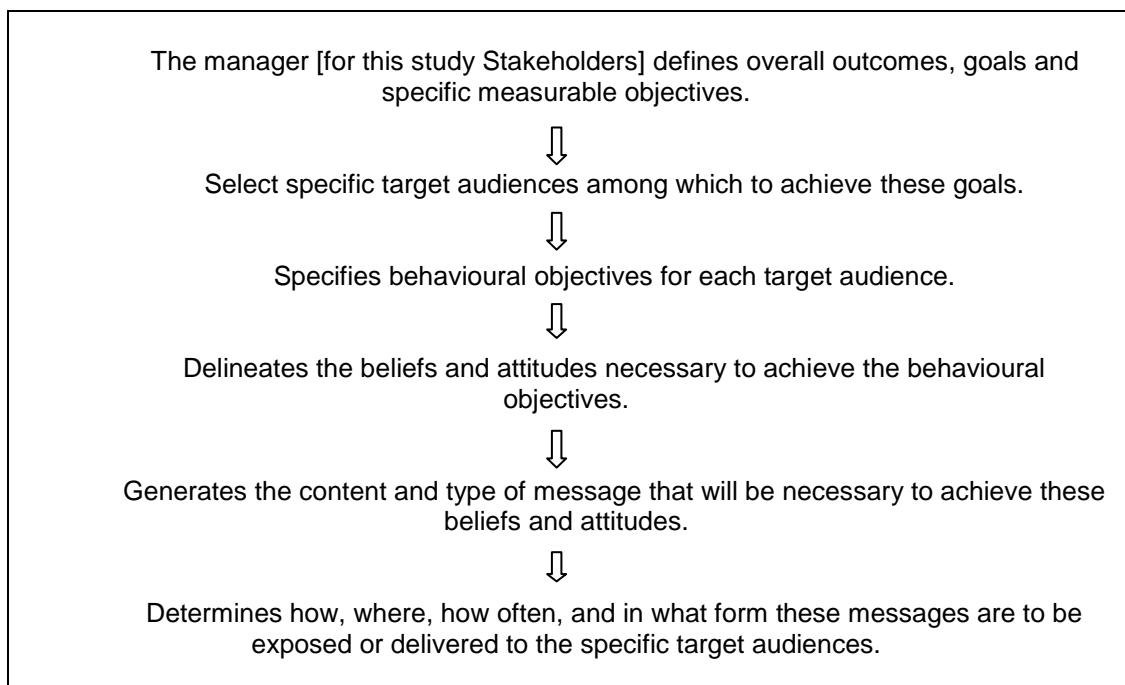
limiting social marketing to voluntary behaviour. They argued that limiting social marketing to voluntary behavioural change overlooked the contribution coercive measures such as fines and legal penalties typically play in campaigns focused on drink driving, the enforcement of smoke-free environments and the like. Delhomme, De Dobbeleer, Forward & Simões (2009 p 21) go beyond ideas of voluntary and/or involuntary behavioural change in defining one form of social marketing and draw attention to techniques involved, and attitudinal as well as behavioural change. They define road safety campaigns as “purposeful attempts to inform, persuade, and motivate a population (or sub-group of a population) to change its attitudes and/or behaviours to improve road safety, using organised communications involving specific media channels within a given time period”. While this definition captures the essential features of a campaign as a social marketing event, it overlooks the formation of a campaign as a complex process of collaboration among producers and stakeholders. To bring those elements to the fore, the following definition from Almalik is useful as it defines a road safety campaign as a “planned process of communicative activity which aims to change audiences’ behaviour or perceptions during a specific time” (Almalik 2000 p 3). Here the word campaign is used to indicate a well-planned set of activities with a definite purpose, not a series of disjointed happenings. Alenad reinforces this view, and draws attention to the fact that campaign formation is a process extended over time, and that the formation process is typically begun long before any target audiences see any campaign material, and concludes long after campaign advertising has disappeared from TV screens, radios and newspapers. Alenad emphasises the multiple steps or phases of a campaign that begin with goal setting, developing advertising to carry the campaigns messages, the selection of media, allocating a budget and setting up evaluation measures (Alenad 1990). In this project, this broader understanding of social marketing has informed and guided the research.

Target audience selection, setting objectives, selection of a campaign theme and making choices about the mediation and delivery of campaigns all contribute to making campaigns, either for social marketing in general or road safety in particular, highly complex design, development and organisational tasks (Henley, Raffin & Caemmerer 2011). The various elements in designing and developing a campaign are closely integrated and any defect in one of them will affect others, and consequently the whole campaign. As Khadoor and Abu-Ismael argue, prior planning for all aspects of any campaign by an appropriately qualified, multi-disciplinary team who rely on accurate statistics, empirical and academic studies including audience, behaviour change and persuasion studies, is very important for campaign success (Khadoor 2007; Abu-Ismael 2007). Campaign planning is ideally a rational process and endeavours to lay out a sequential flow of development, starting by identifying and describing the issue or focus of intervention, and finishing with an evaluation of the campaign during and after its conclusion. Most of these steps were mentioned in

detail by Donovan and Henley (2003) as outlined in Figure 2.2, and will be reviewed briefly in what follows.

In Figure 2.2 there is an implicit assumption that “the manager” is responsible for the range of steps described. As has been noted however, road safety campaigns typically involve various stakeholders, and at least in more affluent jurisdictions, typically involve specialists and professional teams throughout the planning, design, delivery and evaluation processes (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989). A social marketing campaign such as a road safety campaign is extended in time, and involves the collaborative efforts of a range of practitioners (Delhomme et al. 2009). The campaign formation process, outlined below in a series of sequential and orderly steps emphasises the way a campaign might be developed over time. It gives less emphasis to the human process of formation, which as with all human endeavours, typically involves tensions between contributors, less than ideal sharing of information and expertise, and differences among practitioners about the best way to achieve campaign objectives and what level of resources are available to support the decisions and activities proposed for the campaign (Eagle et al. 2013; Faulks 2011; Donovan & Henley 2003; Wymer 2011; Alenad 1990).

Figure 2.2: Campaign planning sequence



Source: Donovan & Henley 2003 p 63

2.3.2. Identification of campaign theme

Addressing any problem starts by accurate identification of the problem itself. As a result, identifying the right theme is critical for any campaign (Henley, Raffin & Caemmerer 2011). This will affect other parts of a campaign such as setting campaign objectives, identifying the target audience and the media to be utilised to deliver the campaign material to the audience. The road safety campaign theme must target what is considered as traffic issue (Khadoor 2007). The issue or theme in road safety campaigns can be identified using different methods.

A review of road accidents statistics, for example, is one basic and well known approach to understanding what road safety problems demand attention and priority (Botalibi 2006). Thus, availability of data gives planners a clear idea of the problem/s that must be targeted by the campaign (Delhomme et al. 2009). However, it must be noted that the lack, or inaccuracy of statistics is common in developing countries (Al-Ghamdi 1999). This may present difficulties in selecting and prioritising campaign objectives and themes in these countries. Some scholars such as Khadoor (2007) think that the lack of statistics is not a particularly serious problem experienced by stakeholders as it can be solved by special study undertaken by specialists contracted by campaign producers to fill the gap in knowledge and provide them a better understanding of the issues to be targeted. Even if Khadoor's optimistic attitude is accepted, however, it is difficult for contemporary specialists to fill the gaps if statistics have not been collected over time, and if the categories applied in historical data do not fit current needs (Bendak 2005).

Choices about campaign issues or themes must consider other elements such as the target audience in order to deliver an effective campaign. Ideally, road safety campaigns must focus on one issue per campaign as incorporating two or more issues in one campaign will result in scattering audience attention (Botalibi 2006). Other scholars, however, go further in considering the audience by suggesting that focusing on audience behaviour rather than on just the issue itself will have more impact on target audiences. Thus a campaign theme should focus on target behaviour as this can facilitate making decisions about the best approach for campaign implementation and the appeal that should be used in campaign messages (Hoekstra & Wegman 2011). For example, while speeding is considered an issue in most communities, "speed" as an issue seems too broad, as behaviours behind speeding are different between different societies and within the same community. Some drivers speed to show off and others speed due to behavioural problems in time management or other behaviour. Adopting this technique may also result in sub-segmentation for audience as discussed in-depth in the coming section.

2.3.3. Target audience selection and understanding

Selecting the target audience for a campaign is another important step which is no less important than identifying the campaign theme. A thorough, well-informed understanding of the campaign audience depends on stakeholders understanding dimensions such as the socio-cultural features of the target audience, their observed behaviour, level of education, media consumption habits and the like (Delhomme et al. 2009; Henley, Raffin & Caemmerer 2011). Identifying a target audience may be understood as a data-driven process which draws on relevant accident and violations statistics, surveys and observation in order to select at-risk audience groups and understand the socio-economic characters of selected audience groups (Delhomme et al. 2009). Others such as Maddock, Silbanuz & Reger-Nash (2008), however, argue that statistical profiling is inadequate and leads to a limited understanding of the target audience. They argue that a target audience should be identified and profiled on the basis of theory as the conceptual foundation of the campaign (Maddock, Silbanuz & Reger-Nash 2008). For example, adopting the Theory of Planned Behaviour in segmenting audiences in social marketing campaigns that aim at increasing physical activities has been successful (Bogers, Brug, van Assema, & Dagnelie 2004; Guinn, Vincent, Jorgensen, Dugas, & Semper 2007; Kvaavik, Lien, Tell, & Klepp, 2005). Given that various approaches are supported in the literature, it can be recommended that in identifying and selecting a target audience, target audience specialists who understand the target group and how to engage them must be consulted or involved in the campaign team (Henley, Raffin & Caemmerer 2011). This will enable campaign producers to understand the best methods for drawing the attention of the target audience, given that the engagement of the target audience is the first step in campaign effectiveness (Walsh, Hassan, Shiu, Andrews & Hastings 2010).

A campaign may target a single, defined audience in the community or may target the whole population if the campaign issue is one relevant to the whole society (Delhomme et al. 2009; Walsh et al. 2010). As discussed above, however, different audience groups have different levels of understanding and may respond to the same message in different ways based on differences in their interpretation of the campaign message (Weenig & Midden 1997, Walsh et al. 2010). Studies have shown that campaigns targeting specific groups are more likely to have the desired impact on audiences than campaigns targeting the whole of society or different groups within the same society (Delhomme et al. 2009). Thus, the practice of segmenting the audience can result in reaching the target audience more effectively and assists in directing the right messages to the right audience through an appropriate selection of media channels and forms (Walsh et al. 2010). The practice of segmentation of the audience identifies and profiles “a subset of the larger population that shares key characteristics, making it more likely that individuals in a given segment will respond to the

same stimuli in a similar way” (Delhomme et al. 2009 p 101). Variables such as age, gender, geographic area, and road user position can be taken into consideration while segmenting audiences (Delhomme et al. 2009; Alenad 1990). As a result, segmentation requires careful review of the relevant literature about the campaign audience so that target audiences can be clearly recognised, segmented and reached successfully (Khadoor 2007).

However, the assumption that an audience group is homogenous can lead to campaign failure, even though the group has been constructed on the basis of factors such as age, gender or ethnic background (Pollay 2000). Ulleberg (2002), in his research on personality subtypes of young drivers, for example, concluded that road safety practitioners should target young drivers and deal with them as heterogeneous groups. Considering personal characteristics and cultural differences in campaign design makes campaigns more effective and enhances a campaign’s efficacy in gaining the selected audience’s attention (Dweedar 1995). Differences between audiences take different forms and affect different aspects of campaign development such as choosing the right appeal and delivery media. For example, differences in the educational background and level of an audience may result in differences in media consumption habits (Weenig & Midden 1997). To obtain maximum benefit from a campaign and boost the potential for choosing the appropriate appeal and most appropriate media channels, a more fine-grained segmentation process is often required, which means that a targeted audience may be sub-segmented into smaller groups (Walsh et al. 2010; Maddock et al. 2008).

Some authors have raised ethical concerns over the practice of segmenting audiences (Newton, Newton, Turk & Ewing 2013). Bloom & Novelli (1981) argue that social marketing campaigns should ensure that some groups are not discriminately favoured over others who might be deprived of these campaigns and their right to be educated about social issues in their society. Others such as Donovan & Henley (2003) argue that segmentation is ethically justified as it allows producers to direct campaigns to what are perceived to be the most vulnerable groups rather than targeting those who are not in need of the intervention.

2.3.4. Identification of campaign objectives

Identifying campaign objectives is one of most important parts in the design and development of a road safety campaign, and the attention or lack of attention given to this step may lead to the success or failure of a campaign (Khadoor 2007). At a general level, road safety campaign objectives range between educating road users about new or unknown traffic rules, increasing public awareness about particular traffic issues such as fatigue, or persuading audiences to adopt safer behaviours or avoid risky behaviour (Hoekstra & Wegman 2011; Henley, Raffin & Caemmerer 2011).

While there is a consensus over the importance of developing objectives-based campaigns, there are different views concerning the statement of objectives in campaign briefs. What is at stake here is the degree to which objectives can be seen to guide and justify factors such as campaign approach, ad design and development, and media selection. Alrasheedi (2006), for example, argued that particular road safety campaigns should have just two types of objectives: general and more specific objectives. Khadour (2007), on the other hand, argued that in stating road safety campaign objectives, the objectives must be abstractly stated and should not incorporate general statements such as “raising awareness” (Khadour 2007). Alenad, commenting on the vagueness of many campaign objectives, suggested that they were expressed in this way to make them more media or publicity friendly (Alenad 1990). Those advocating for clarity in objectives stress that road safety campaign objectives must be measurable, clear and understood by both stakeholders and audiences (Khadour 2007). The objectives must present the importance of achieving the campaign objectives and the benefits that are likely to flow from following the campaign message such as the importance of obeying the traffic laws in saving people’s lives (Alsamrany 2011). Identifying measurable objectives that are known to both the media and the public enables stakeholders and other researchers to evaluate the campaign effectiveness at the end of any campaign. Presenting these objectives clearly for selected audiences and the media enables them to act as informal, outsider scrutineers and evaluate campaign outcomes, integrating all relevant voices in the review and evaluation of social marketing campaigns.

2.3.5. Campaign budget

Despite the importance of identifying the campaign theme and target audiences, these more abstract and even theoretical steps cannot be transformed into reality without allocating a budget for the campaign. Identifying a road safety campaign budget relies on several factors such as the geographic area to be targeted, campaign objectives, campaign period, activities and the media that will be utilised (Khadour 2007). Thus, allocating an adequate budget is crucial and has direct and significant impacts on all aspects of a campaign including media selection and campaign evaluation (Campaigns and Awareness Raising Strategies in Traffic Safety [CAST] 2008; Delhomme et al.). Donovan, Jalleh & Henley (1999), however, minimise the importance of big budgets on some aspects of road safety campaigns. These researchers examined the impact of large budgets on road safety advertising production by testing the impact of twelve different advertisements developed and presented using different budgets (up to AUD 200,000). They concluded that a big budget is not necessary for producing effective advertisements. Although this conclusion can be true to some extent, it is necessary to allocate a budget that is adequate to utilise

effective and in some cases expensive media to deliver the campaign to target audiences. Producing quality advertising content is not the end of the story. If the advertising content is not delivered using an understanding of the target audiences' media consumption patterns, a large production budget, despite its level, may be considered a waste of money (Botalibi 2006).

The campaign budget may be fully allocated from road safety organisation resources, or may draw on other sources of funding. For example, allowing the private sector to sponsor road safety campaigns can enhance the level of allocated budgets and gives the private sector the opportunity to participate in campaigns and deliver on their values of social responsibility (Hastings & Angus 2011). Choosing the right sponsor, however, is very significant for campaign success and credibility. Some sponsorship can backfire on the campaign itself or may create conflicts of interest (Hastings & Angus 2011). For example, sponsorship by tobacco companies in health campaigns, or sponsorship by sunscreen companies in skin cancer campaigns may give an impression that the sponsors are simply using the social marketing campaign for their own commercial purposes.

2.3.6. Campaign advertisements

Although persuasion in advertising in general and in road safety in particular has been discussed above, a brief discussion of campaign advertisement design at this stage of the literature review seems to fit the logical order of campaign development. Any campaign, regardless of its accuracy in identifying its objectives, theme and target audience, needs advertising content that engages with its target audience. Campaign advertisement content in general must not contradict with other safety messages or broad lines of road safety strategy in the country, and must be associated with and represent the campaign theme and objectives (Botalibi 2006; Delhomme et al. 2009). More importantly, however, the campaign message must gain audiences' attention, inviting the audience to engage or interact with the messages in ways that open up the audience to the persuasive values and content of the campaign (Khadoor 2007). This interaction can be achieved in different ways as was discussed in-depth in the previous discussion on persuasion in advertising.

The content of an advertising campaign must suit the age, expectations and level of understanding of the target audience (Botalibi 2006; Khadoor 2007; Donovan, Jalleh & Henley 1999; Henley, Raffin & Caemmerer 2011). For example, the information published in a specialist journal for road safety is not suitable for public audiences – but changing the style of presentation and language register may make specialist information more easily accessible. Considering reception theories such as semiotic theory and the audience's culture and cognitive level, for example, can result in designing messages that are able to

communicate well with the targeted audience and influence their behaviour (Botalibi 2006). Inclusion of local content and social norms of the targeted audience's society in campaign advertisements is likely to enhance the connection of a campaign with local audiences, and consequently, increase its effectiveness (Henley, Raffin & Caemmerer 2011; Walsh et al. 2010).

The type and level of appeals used in road safety campaign messages is also important for engaging and persuading the target audience. While different appeals are used in road safety advertisements, the incentive appeal that emphasises the positive effects of obeying traffic laws is rarely used in road safety messages as most campaigns have historically relied on threat and emotional appeals (Donovan, Jalleh & Henley 1999). Delaney, Lough, Whelan and Cameron, (2004 p 60), in their meta analysis of different literature of campaign effectiveness from various parts of the world (such as Elliott 1993; [INRETS] 1999; TAC road safety advertising program; and Newstead, Cameron, & Narayan 1998) concluded that an emotional road safety campaign with a persuasive message had great impact on targeted audiences and could lead to effective behavioural changes. Unfortunately, however, the report focused mostly on TV campaigns and neglected other media campaigns, which may limit its findings to TV campaigns. The evidence is not as strong for other kinds of media such as outdoor advertising, newspapers and the like. Tay (2002), however, argued that moderating the level of fear arousal in road safety advertising may lead to better results compared with high fear arousal. On the other hand, Abu-Ismaiel (2007) argued that varying appeals in campaign advertisements may result in attracting and maintaining the attention of different audiences. For example, several evaluations for Australian and New Zealand road safety campaigns in the last decade have showed that using strong emotion and shock in campaign messages led to a noticeable modification of targeted and non targeted audiences' risky driving behaviour and perception (Tay 2002).

Given the variability of target audiences, campaign producers' next step in campaign development is to pre-test campaign advertisements to ensure that the message is delivered and interpreted as it was intended by the campaign's producers (Donovan, Jalleh & Henley 1999). Pre-testing of campaign advertisements boosts the potential of designing advertisements likely to affect audience behaviour in line with objectives (Henley, Raffin & Caemmerer 2011; Hoekstra & Wegman 2011). Pre-testing of campaign messages can be undertaken in different ways, including in-depth interviews or focus groups (Henley, Raffin & Caemmerer 2011). Pre-testing of campaign message is also beneficial for production as it allows the designers to review and edit the production based on matters raised in focus group discussions or by in-depth interview participants. There is, however, an art in the production of creative and effective advertisements, and original work needs to be presented in such a way that the content suits the media forms and channels selected to

reach the target audience (Khadoor 2007; Donovan, Jalleh & Henley 1999). These issues, however, will be returned to when reviewing results from fieldwork concerning creative inputs in chapter 4 and when examining campaign advertisements in chapter 6.

2.3.7. Media selection

A campaign message needs a bearer that delivers it to the target audience successfully and efficiently. Different types of media can be utilised to deliver campaign messages to different types of target audience. However, setting a clear media plan identifying media that will be utilised, times and level of exposure is required for campaign success (Delhomme et al. 2009). Factors such as cost, target audience and their media consumption practices all affect the media plan and selection (Delhomme et al. 2009).

Hoekstra & Wegman (2011) argued that mass media can be effective in reaching a wide range of audiences, especially in campaigns targeting the whole society. This view was also supported by Alsamrany (2011) who argued that despite the development in media platforms and delivery, newspapers are still the main bearer for news and should be utilised for campaign delivery to a variety of audiences. Although this could be valid for an older demographic who still rely on newspapers for the daily news, it is not accurate for the young generation who are the focus of most road safety interventions including road safety campaigns (Gastwirth 2007). Hence, the method of media selection must align with new developments in the media field and the dramatic shift in media consumption habits, especially among young people who rely more on social media and smart phones than TV and newspapers (Gastwirth 2007; Khadoor 2007). However, it must be noted that despite the high cost of utilising a combination of mass and new or social media, a carefully articulated delivery offers a great coverage and exposure (Delhomme et al. 2009).

Another argument that confronts decisions about using the mass media to target the whole of society was presented by Weenig & Midden (1997) who argued that people with low education are less interested in paying attention to mass media messages. Groups with limited education are more interested in and attracted by direct communications (Hoekstra & Wegman 2011). Adopting more personal forms in delivering campaign material takes time and effort, yet enhances the potential of campaign delivery to target audiences (Hoekstra & Wegman 2011). This form of communication, termed “interpersonal communications” by Delhomme et al. (2009 p 122) means two or more people communicating directly face to face or via telephone or email.

Media choices, however, are affected by media environment (Alenad 1990). There are considerable differences in media landscapes of NSW and KSA. As these settings are the

focus of this study, it is worthwhile to highlight briefly media penetration differences in KSA and Australia in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Comparison of media penetration in KSA and Australia across different points in time.

Medium	KSA Population (27 million) (Central Department of Statistics and Information 2011).	Australia Population (22.620.600) (ABS 2011a).
Computers	In 2010, 58.1percent of households in KSA had a computer (CITC 2010b).	2008-09, 78 percent of households had access to a computer (Australian Bureau of Statistics [ABS] 2011b).
Internet	4.4 million Subscriber to broad band internet services by the end of 2010. (CITC 2011a).	In 2010-11, 6.2 million households had broadband internet access. (ABS 2011c).
Mobile Phones	At the end of 2010, 51.6 million subscribers CITC 2011a).	At the end of June 2011, there were 9.7 million mobile handset subscribers in Australia (ABS 2011b).
Newspapers	326 newspapers per 1, 000 people (2000) (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace 2004)	162 newspapers per 1,000 population (2000) (Tiffen & Gittins 2004)
Pay TV	While 96 percent of people in Saudi Arabia watch free satellite TV channels, 48 percent watch pay TV channels . More than 24 percent subscribed to pay TV channels (CITC 2010b).	1.2 million subscribers in 1999 (Newstead 2000)
Radio	6,250,000 radios in households in 2002 (Nationmaster.com 2003).	25,500,000 radios in households in 2002 (Nationmaster.com 2003).
Telephone	By the end of 2010 there were 4.16 million land phones in KSA (CITC 2011a).	By the end of 2005, there were 11,460,000 land phones in Australia (World Development Indicators database n.d).
Television	65 percent of Saudis had at least one TV in 2006 (Ministry of Economy and Planning 2007).	99 percent of Australian households have at least one TV (OzTAM Metro & Regional TAM 2012).

Table 2.1 shows media penetration in KSA and Australia across different points in time.

Mobile phone penetration in Saudi in 2010 was equal to double the country's population at the time, whereas in Australia in 2011, less than fifty percent of the population appeared to

be using a mobile. Furthermore, as can be seen, newspaper readership is higher among Saudi audiences as compared to Australia. Radios were extremely popular in 2002, with three times the number existing in Australian households as compared to KSA. These are the kind of differences that media planners need to be aware of and take into account in developing campaigns in these two settings.

2.3.8. Campaign evaluation

Assessment of any work gives a clear idea about the weaknesses and strengths, and success or failure of the work under review. Road safety campaign stakeholders must realise the importance of campaign evaluation because without evaluation they will not be able to critically understand what are they doing (CAST 2008). The importance of road safety campaign evaluation is not only limited to the campaign under review, rather it extends to future campaigns by enabling the designers to understand the advantages and disadvantages of different campaigns, and enhances the likelihood of avoiding weaknesses discovered in any future campaigns (Alrasheedi 2006). In fact, non-evaluation of road safety campaigns results in perpetuating ineffective campaigns that repeat the same mistakes from previous campaigns, drawing funds away from other road safety interventions which in turn affects the whole arena of road safety (Hoekstra & Wegman 2011). Surprisingly, however, despite the large number of road safety campaigns mounted, only a few are formally evaluated in-depth (Boulanger, Divjak, Orozova-Bekkevold & Zabukovec 2007).

It is important, however, to identify the aim of evaluation and the evaluation tools to meet campaign objectives (Plant, Reza & Irwin 2011). Although different methods can be adopted for campaign evaluation, there is no perfect evaluation method (Tay 2002). Campaign evaluation tools, however, must be carefully designed to focus on, or measure the variables or behavioural changes that were intended to be achieved by campaign objectives (CAST 2008). Adopting scholarly methods in designing the campaign evaluation tool also enhances the validity of the evaluation's outcomes (Hoekstra & Wegman 2011). While statistical techniques that compare statistics for traffic accidents and targeted traffic violations before, during and after a campaign are the dominant methodology relied on in road safety campaign evaluation, methodologies that measure perception and attitudinal change, and behavioural change are little used in the road safety field (Tay 2002; Botalibi 2006). Comparing traffic accidents and traffic violations across time is, however, not accurate as these statistics cannot reflect actual changes in audience behaviour. The change in violations or accidents statistics cannot be attributed to road safety campaigns as a single factor, as other factors are involved in road safety and may affect these statistics.

It is also common for road safety practitioners to measure exposure level of audiences to selected advertising (Plant, Reza & Irwin 2011). Audiences' understanding of campaign messages and their attitude to campaigns can also be evaluated to measure audience engagement in campaign advertisements (Walsh et al. 2010). Yet the exposure level or understanding of campaign messages does not necessarily trace whether the campaign message has affected audience behaviour. Indeed, measuring delivery of campaign material to audiences, and audience recall of material is not sufficient to evaluate campaign effectiveness (CAST 2008). If behavioural change is an important part of campaign objectives, then the campaign evaluation must measure behavioural change directly rather than other aspects such as campaign delivery (Taubman, Florian & Mikulincer 2000).

Whatever methods are used in campaign evaluation, it is important to note that there is an argument about the difficulty of measuring and understanding the separate impact of road safety campaigns on target audiences. It is hard to understand or evaluate the effectiveness of each intervention separately, if interventions such as law enforcement and national security are combined in one campaign (CAST 2008). On the other hand, Hoekstra & Wegman (2011) argue that the difficulty in separating results can be solved by designing special studies that pre-test differences between behavioural intention targeted by a campaign among a target audience who were presented by the campaign material, and compare it with results obtained from another audience who were not presented with the campaign material.

Surprisingly, despite the ample literature in social marketing, evidence-based methods for developing road safety campaigns have not been discussed except in a few practical text books such as Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research (1989) and Delhomme et al. (2009) which were designed as guidelines for decision makers rather than discussing scholarly methods for developing and evaluating campaigns (Delhomme et al. 2009). Even in these detailed manuals, the understanding of the collaborative process required in developing a campaign is not discussed in any depth. There is an assumption that all the necessary expertise will be available, and that it will function at best practice level. But this is an optimistic assumption, and overlooks the particular circumstances that affect campaign development in particular places/settings at particular times. More than that, comparing how road safety campaigns are developed in a developing country like KSA with a developed country like Australia/NSW has not been given attention.

In this review of literature concerning theoretical and practical issues in the planning, design, delivery and evaluation of road safety campaigns, research and recommendations for developing campaigns most likely to achieve desired outcomes have been critically examined. A sound background knowledge of evaluation practices and procedures will allow

the researcher to investigate whether appropriate and relevant theoretical principles and approaches have been part of the practice of road safety campaign designers in KSA and NSW. Interviews and documentary research will allow the researcher to understand the importance placed in the two settings in designing campaigns in an appropriately (social) scientific and professional manner.

2.3.9. Summary: Road safety campaign formation and target audience selection

Road safety campaigns are a form of social marketing campaigns. The involvement of different elements in the campaign formation process makes campaign development challenging and requires a multi-disciplinary team. The formation process is typically drawn out, and depends for success in collaborative relations and a clear understanding among all practitioners of the campaign objectives. Choosing the right theme for the campaign must be based on accurate data and assessment of priorities for intervention. Careful selection and good understanding of campaign audience(s) are likely to lead to building an effective campaign. Audiences differ in so many aspects such as education level, understanding and behaviour, that audience segmentation is important for suitable communication with different groups. Setting clear and measureable objectives is also important for road safety campaigns. Campaign budget may be allocated either from road safety organisation funds or through private sector sponsorship. Campaign advertising must be designed in such a way as to gain the attention of the target audience by taking into account target audience culture, age, beliefs and values. The relevance of campaign advertisements to the target audience can be examined prior the campaign release through pre-testing the advertising with focus group or in-depth interviews with participants. Setting a clear media plan is significant for campaign delivery. Socio-cultural differences and the dramatic shift in media consumption habits between different audiences must be considered in this plan, as the significant differences between media environments in KSA and NSW illustrate clearly. It is important to evaluate road safety campaigns to understand their effectiveness. The evaluation tool must be designed in line with scholarly principles and focus on objectives that were intended to be achieved by the campaign. Measuring behavioural change is perhaps the best indication about campaign impact on target audiences. In section 2.4 below, theoretical explanations of the way culture shapes individuals and groups are outlined, and the section concludes with a review of the way cultural diversity may impact on road safety interventions.

2.4. Audiences and socio cultural diversity

The audience is a critical element in the formation of road safety campaigns and this section reviews literature concerned with understanding and communicating with selected audiences. Discussion begins with a review of the way target audience is defined and understood in social marketing. Types of audiences and the methods for selecting target audiences will be highlighted. The importance of studying and understanding campaign audiences to determine campaign contexts and delivery channels for each target group will be examined. Socio-cultural differences between and among audiences and their impact on the reception of campaign messages will also be reviewed drawing on communication theory. The Importance of using cultural theories to enhance understanding of cultural groups will be presented. A brief description of the multicultural character of both Saudi and Australian, and more specifically, New South Wales society will be presented, and the implications of understanding such cultural differences in developing road safety campaigns is explored. The discussion then will turn to review scholarly literature concerning how communication practices may be designed to acknowledge and reach culturally diverse audiences.

2.4.1. Audience theories

Audience is a broad term that is used in different ways and for different purposes in literary and communication studies. "Target audience", however, is defined in social marketing as "the group that practitioners want to reach through their bystander prevention and intervention strategies" (Potter & Stapleton 2011 p 802). The success or failure of campaigns may be measured by evaluation of the impacts that campaigns have had on target audiences (Assaf 1976). Consequently, selecting a target audience is a significant part of the campaign process which may lead to the success of the campaign if it is given sufficient attention (Potter & Stapleton 2011). Observation of road safety issues and statistics from previous studies may help, for example, to identify the group most vulnerable to car accidents, as well as determine how to encourage this target group to change their risky driving behaviours whilst encouraging safe driving behaviours (Alsamrany 2011). Awareness of the distinctive characteristics that make up a target audience assists in developing a social marketing strategy (or publicity practices) which are shaped by the historical, socio-cultural and economic factors of the target audience (Delhomme et al. 2009). Social marketing methods used to segment customers in research can aid in understanding how to identify a target audience, and can inform strategies designed to

encourage target audience to change their behaviour (Stead, Gordon, Angus, & McDermott 2007, p 180).

However it can be very difficult to determine accurately and to understand fully a campaign audience's characteristics, given the differences which exist between individuals and groups. Audiences can be divided into three groups based on several factors. Abercrombie & Longhurst, (1998) defined an audience as a "group of people before whom a performance of one kind or another take place". Three kinds of audiences have been identified in recent specialist audience research literature: the simple audience, the mass audience and the diffused audience (Abercrombie & Longhurst 1998). Mass and diffused audiences are produced by the power of modernisation, and the communication between performers and mass or diffused audiences is mediated, different from direct communication in the case of simple audience (Abercrombie & Longhurst 1998). Interactions between the audience, television shows and the type and styles of advertisements created by producers or campaign developers are crucial factors for consideration when wanting to change behaviour of an audience (Jenkins 2002).

Knowledge or evaluation of road safety campaign impacts on selected audiences can be gained from post-campaign evaluations which typically rely on observations of changes in the occurrence of the behaviours under review produced by researchers and/or law enforcement officers (Delhomme et al. 2009). For example, an independent survey, commissioned by the RTA's Road Safety Marketing, found that 53 percent of the overall community, as well as 53 percent of young males (17-25 years) said that they would be more likely to remark on someone's driving as a result of seeing the "Pinkie" campaign (RTA 2009a).

Exploring audiences' behaviour and the channels they prefer may assist producers in choosing proper channels and messages to target those audiences for effective communication. But audiences have the power to choose what they want to watch, as well as when they do or do not consume, and thus audiences are not passive. Active audiences also independently interpret meaning from the advertising content they are exposed to (Ang 1996). Globalisation and new technologies have made it easier for audiences to access information, but make it more difficult for producers to understand the audiences, their behavioural patterns and activities (Ross & Nightingale 2003 p 2).

The diversity of the society is another element that should be considered in addressing the needs of various target groups because they may require different messages. A "horizon of expectation" (Jauss 1982) is formed through the reader's life experience, customs and understanding of the world, and has an effect on the reader's reception and understanding

of verbal, written and other texts. What this means, in practice, is that the meaning of a particular text is read (in the widest sense of that word) and produced through a complex filtering process or set of expectations to use Jauss's term. Just what expectations audiences might bring to their consumption of texts is often difficult to assess. Target groups based on gender, ethnicity or class, are highly visible and producers may confidently make assumptions about the expectations visible groups bring to the reception of texts. These assumptions may, of course, prove to be quite wrong or wide of the mark, as pioneer reception researchers Morley and Brunsdon showed in their study of the current affairs program *Nationwide* (Morley & Brunsdon 1999). But other groups such as gay and lesbians can be classified as "invisible", and it is much harder for producers to construct texts which engage with their expectations. Consequently, invisible groups are often inadvertently overlooked or left out of consideration (Staiger 2005). The exclusion of these groups from media representation may be considered as marginalization (Staiger 2005). An understanding of audience theory and reception assists the investigator to see whether minorities and subculture groups are targeted differently by campaign messages as compared to "mainstream" or hegemonic groups, as their unique characteristics affect their reception and interpretation of campaign messages.

However, although the audience is the central element in social marketing studies (Jones & Hall 2006), studying audiences in road safety campaigns has largely been limited to studying the effectiveness of campaigns from the audience's point of view (See Tay 2002; Alrasheedi 2006; Lewis, Watson & White 2008; De Winter & Dodou 2010). A close and in-depth meta-analysis of sixty seven studies of road safety campaign effects on accidents between 1975 and 2007 in twelve countries from Europe, North America and Australia by Phillips, Ulleberg & Vaa (2011), showed that the audience's perspective was the main and dominant factor that was relied upon in these studies, while the producers' perspective was largely absent in the scholarly research. Although this study did not include KSA and other parts of the world such as the Middle East and Africa, it did identify research priorities and approaches in countries where social marketing is most developed. Given that research practices in the developing world tend to follow developed world practices, the study's conclusions may be taken as indicative of trends in the developing world. The critical finding from this literature review, however, was that in most academic studies the focus was limited to "receivers" or audiences rather than campaign producers. The research shows that an audience focus is important and must be part of road safety campaign producers' perspectives (Ross & Nightingale 2003; Botalibi 2006). The producers' perspective about their target audiences, however, has been given little or no attention. To fill this gap in knowledge, the scope of this study will be directed to the other side of road safety campaign development: the perspectives of campaign producers rather than the audience's perspective. This research will look at the campaign formation process, including to what

extent the audience is taken into account by road safety campaign producers and designers in KSA and NSW in the multiple steps involved in campaign formation.

2.4.2. Cultural theories

There are a number of theories that help in understanding the importance of culture in shaping and modifying attitudes and behaviours (Cooper & Denner 1998). One influential theory is "Culture as Core Societal Values: Individualism-Collectivism Theory". According to this theory "shared attitudes, beliefs, norms, role and self definitions, and values of members of each culture are organised around a theme that can be identified among those who speak a particular language, during a specific historic period, and in a definable geographic region" (Triandis 1996 p 410). On the other hand, "Culture as Context: Ecological Systems Theory" proposes that the psychological development of humans may evolve due to continuous interactions with their environment (Bronfenbrenner 1993; 1995). A third theoretical position, known as social identity theory, argues that people's attitudes are constructed due to group and social engagements (Berry, Poortinga, Segall & Dasen 1992; Brewer 1995).

As part of this thesis involves a consideration of cross-cultural reception issues, it is worthwhile to briefly discuss cross-cultural differences in advertising between different societies and their impacts on ad reception. One distinction that has proved heuristically valuable, for example, is the concept of high [cultural] context and low [cultural] context societies. Audiences from high-context cultures focus more on non-verbal communication and implicit messages, low-context culture audiences are engaged more by explicit messages including verbal texts (Kotabe et al. 2005 p 139). In this context, the conservative and traditional Saudi society is considered as a high-context culture society where the society's members are occupied by traditional customs, and more consideration in everyday communication is given to non-verbal communication contextualised by society's customs. NSW, on the other hand, is regarded as a low-context culture society. As a result, the interpretation and understanding of any ad or message varies between different cultures (Dweedar 1995). For example, the effectiveness of an ad designed for a high-context culture will be low if it is used in low-context culture and vice versa (Kotabe et al. 2005 p 139). This surely will affect the design of campaign messages that target sub cultural groups. Designers and other producers are likely to work off their own "default" cultural assumptions unless they are sensitised and well-informed about the target audiences in the frame. Understanding these cultural theories, together with insights provided through Jauss's (1982) "Horizon of expectation" theory will assist the researcher to examine whether road safety campaign stakeholders understand and consider the impact of culture on human behaviour and attitudes, and its impact on the reception of texts, including campaign

messages. This focus and line of inquiry will be important in examining whether or not campaign messages are designed to reach out to sub-cultural groups which are part of a target audience, or whether the campaign overlooks cultural differences within audiences and effectively overlooks or excludes them.

The theories outlined briefly above give sometimes complementary and sometimes contradictory views of culture and development of psychological processes that shape the attitudes and behaviour of people. However, according to all theories, it is obvious that consideration of culture is critically important in public education processes, particularly in designing road safety programs that demand changes in people's attitude, behaviour and actions.

2.4.3. Cultural diversity in KSA and Australia

Saudi Arabia is a multicultural society. Prior to the creation of the modern state known as KSA, a variety of Arabic tribal communities were living in what was called the Arabic Peninsula (Alzubaidi 2004). Discovery of oil in the first half of the past century led the Saudi government to welcome individuals from Western countries to compensate for the lack of local expertise in the field. The discovery and commercial exploitation of oil created jobs for foreign workers and made the country an attractive work place for non-Saudis due to expectations of high income and a no-tax policy for expatriate workers (KSA has no income tax for both Saudis and non-Saudis in line with Islamic law).

Oil rich Saudi Arabia is one of the fast growing economies in the world and the biggest market in the Middle East where expatriates represent almost one third of employees (Bhuian & Al-Jabri, 1996; Abbas & Al-Aali 2012). A wide variety of workers from various cultural backgrounds are employed in both government and the private sectors (Bhuian & Al-Jabri, 1996). The fast growth of the Saudi economy led private and government sectors in the KSA to employ non-Saudis to fill jobs not able to be filled by Saudis due to skill shortages and Saudis' reluctance to accept low-paid and low status jobs. Employees from different cultures, languages and countries are employed in KSA in different levels from high level management to private drivers to bridge the gap in the labour market (Rice 2004). According to the latest census, non-Saudis represent 31.1 percent of the Saudi population (Central Department of Statistics & Information 2010). However, although Saudi society is culturally diverse, it is important note that it is hard to provide details of the component multicultural groups in the same way that is possible when discussing multiculturalism in Australia, as official publications in the KSA refer to only two different categories (Saudi and non-Saudi) without breaking the non-Saudis down to nationalities, ethnicities, cultural background and languages, as has been showed in the introductory chapter.

The best available data that breaks non-Saudis down into cultural background is on Library of Congress website as noted in the introductory chapter. More recent data, however, is available in the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs website. According to Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs 2009, 90 percent of the Saudi population are Arabs and 10 percent derive from Afro-Asian countries. Closer scrutiny of these figures suggests that two thirds of non- Saudis are from Arabic countries. However, it must be noted that the Arabic world consist of twenty three countries which have a variety of different cultures and in most cases the cultural differences between Arabic countries are significant (Feghali 1997).

Like KSA, Australia is also a multicultural society. Business and jobs opportunities make Australia an attractive destination for migrants from various parts of the world. Since the Second World War, Australia has had a significant immigration program which has made Australian society more multicultural (Ho 1990; Rizvi 1988). For example, while 25 percent of the Australian population was born overseas, 14 percent of migrants came from of non-English-speaking countries (Loxley, Toumbourou, Stockwell, Haines, Scott, Godfrey, Waters, Pattorn, Fordham, Gray, Marshall, Ryder, Saggars, Sanci & Williams 2004). Recent statistics based on the last census in 2011 showed that 30.2 of Australian population was born outside Australia and 23.2 percent of population speak languages other than English at home such as Mandarin, Arabic, Greek and Italian (ABS 2013 b). More specifically, NSW is a multicultural state where 31.1 percent of its population were born overseas and 27.8 percent speak languages rather than English (ABS 2013 a). Australian society consists of groups from 140 different cultural backgrounds who speak 90 different languages (Ho 1990). This spectrum of cultures makes Australia one of the most multicultural countries in the world.

However, it is important to note the significant difference between multicultural groups in both settings. In KSA, non-Saudis are not citizens, and have the status of guest workers so they have limited expectations of participating in Saudi society (Bhuian & Al-Jabri, 1996). In Australia, on the other hand, the diversity is a result of a deliberate immigration policy, and there is an understanding that immigrants can become citizens and participate fully (Ho 1990). They expect to make their whole life, and their children's lives, in Australia (Jakubowicz 2005). So in Australia there is a much greater incentive for immigrants to participate, share, and understand the host society language and culture, even while hanging on to their own. Briefly, however, where immigrant groups are motivated to assimilate into the host society, it is likely that there will be greater interest in learning the language, idioms and values of the host society. Take-up of public communications in the dominant language of the host society is likely to be better in this case than in

circumstances where immigrants are not motivated to learn the language, customs and values of the host society.

Although multiculturalism may enhance economic development and enrich the host society's culture, multiculturalism presents challenges to the host society in integrating groups from widely different backgrounds. Some of these challenges are at the level of national and even moral policy, such as considerations about expectations the host society might have that immigrants will assimilate to an assumed "national culture" or will retain elements of their own culture while integrating at an everyday, pragmatic level with the host society (Chiswick & Miller 1999). As road safety in general and road safety campaigns in particular are the main focus of this thesis, the concerns related to this particular part will be discussed in what follows.

2.4.4. Culture impact on social and road safety problems

Culture is a broad term that includes symbols, beliefs and behaviour (Dam 2009). Raymond Williams referred to culture as "a whole way of life" (Williams 1958). As a result, social problems as part of life usually have an association with culture as a whole way of life, so they vary between cultural groups. For example, smoking is more prevalent among people with Vietnamese, Chinese and Arabic backgrounds in Australia compared to people from mainstream culture (Rissel, McLellan & Bauman 2000; Baker et al 2006). These differences arise from differences in cultural beliefs about what is acceptable and what is unacceptable. Smoking, for example, is seen by family and parents in Aboriginal communities as normal which make it more prevalent among this particular group (Roche & Ober 1997). Approximately 54 percent of people in aboriginal communities are smokers (Ivers 2004).

Although few studies have been conducted in the cross-cultural road safety field (Ozkan, Lajunen, Chliaoutakis, Parker & Summalaa 2006), it is clear that road safety is not isolated from the challenges presented by cultural diversity. At the most basic level, traffic culture is different between countries and driving style is affected by these traffic cultural differences (Ozkan, Lajunen, Chliaoutakis, Parker & Summala 2006).

There is a body of literature that suggests that cultural diversity affects risk perception in multicultural societies (See Summala 1996; Rundmo 1999; Lund & Rundmo 2009; Hayakawa, Fischbeck & Fischhoff 2000). Traffic risk perception is an important component in road safety. Indeed, traffic risk perception and road safety are strongly associated, and affecting road user's risk perception is significant in influencing behaviour (Summala 1996; Rundmo 1999). Hayakawa, Fischbeck & Fischhoff (2000), for example, found differences in risk perception related to road accidents between Japanese and Americans. Another

example provided by Lund & Rundmo (2009) is that there are differences between people from Norway and Ghana concerning traffic risk perception and sensitivity. According to Lund & Rundmo (2009) Ghanaians think the probability of their involvement in road accidents is higher than Norwegians.

Australia and KSA are not excluded from these effects of cultural diversity and multiculturalism on traffic risk perception. Lam (2005) surveyed three major communities of non-English speaking background and the mainstream English speaking community in Sydney, Australia to compare parents' risk perceptions about children pedestrians. He found that Chinese and Arabic parents think the road environments are less dangerous for their pedestrian children compared to perceptions among Vietnamese and mainstream society.

There is a strong link between traffic accidents and linguistic diversity. After analysing and comparing data collected from 117 multicultural societies with the number of fatalities due to traffic accidents, Roberts & Winters (2013) found that there is a correspondence between the linguistic diversity of a country and the number of fatal traffic accidents. Taking this into account, it appears that road safety in KSA is also affected by linguistic diversity. For example, non-Saudis drivers are over-represented in road accidents as they are involved in 38.11 percent of road accidents and committed 35 percent of traffic violations (Ministry of Interior 2012). This high representation for non-Saudis in road accidents and traffic violations could be attributed to cultural differences. The increase in multicultural groups with different habits and traffic cultures who are unfamiliar with local conditions and driving may be one of the main reasons for the high representation of non-Saudis in car accidents in KSA (Ansari, Akhdar, Mandoorah, & Moutaery, 2000).

Surprisingly, although there is very little cross cultural research about how road safety interventions influence target audiences, especially the risk perceptions of target audience, the way risk perception is affected by cultural differences was not demonstrated in these publications. So this research project is one small contribution to the examination of road safety interventions cross culturally. There may be limited research evidence because most interventions are developed locally to suit local circumstances. But that is no longer sufficient, as there is so much movement among people, especially among adult people (migration, refugee movements, tourism and education). In the contemporary world, many jurisdictions need to consider how best to understand and include sub-cultural groups as targets for road safety interventions.

2.4.5. Targeting sub-cultural group audiences

Countries use different interventions to save their people's lives from road accidents. One of these interventions is road safety campaigns. Social marketing campaigns are used to influence behaviour and attitude and increase knowledge of audiences (Milat, Carroll & Taylor 2005). However, targeting of mainstream audiences and audiences from different cultural diversities in multicultural societies is not consistent. Most social marketing campaigns are directed to mainstream culture audiences (Milat, Carroll & Taylor 2005).

It has been argued, however, that using same approaches in targeting dominant culture to target sub-cultural groups was successful in Australia (Baker et al 2006). Yet, this success could be limited to people with similar cultures or languages. For example, targeting mainstream culture in Australia may have impact on people from New Zealand and U.K. but as outlined above, is unlikely to have the same impact on Indians or Arabs due to significant language and cultural differences. This is because the culture creates differences, and these differences affect the way we see, understand and react to the world (Geertz 1973). Thus communicating with groups whose "whole way of life" is different as a unified audience becomes more challenging, as it is harder to predict how messages (such as road safety advertisements) will be read. As will be discussed in the section on semiotic theory below, there is always a possibility of a slippage in meaning, even within a cultural group which might appear to be homogenous. There are differences of age, gender, social class and life experience which will affect how messages are understood. But it is to be expected that differences in these circumstances are likely to be less significant than they might be when we examine how individuals and groups of quite different cultural backgrounds interpret the same messages. Within a relatively stable, homogenous society, there is a lot that is shared. There is a lot of intersubjectivity, and a lot of knowledge is held in common. Given the reality that meaning is constructed, not given, then in a multicultural society, it is obvious that there are likely to be differences in the way people of different backgrounds understand interventions such as road safety advertising campaigns. Therefore, it is highly desirable that special campaigns that consider cultural differences between community groups and their risk perception differences are designed and delivered to different sub cultural groups (Baker et al. 2006; Lam 2005). Further, media consumption habits vary between cultural groups (Milat, Carroll & Taylor 2005). These differences will affect access of sub-cultural minorities to campaign content. Thus, utilising media that targets each ethnicity will increase the potential of their reception and involvement in the campaign (Milat, Carroll & Taylor 2005).

It is important; however, to note that minority groups especially in the road safety context are not limited to sub-cultural groups associated with ethnic and or national origin. Sub-

populations may be comprised of groups based on different variables such as age, gender and position on the road. In some cases they overlap with sub-cultural minority groups (Baker, Ivers, Bowman, Butler, Kay-Lambkin, Wye, Walsh, Pulver, Richmond, Belcher, Wilhelm & Wodak 2006). For example, young male drivers, pedestrians and drink-driving groups may be considered as minority groups although they may share the same culture with mainstream people.

Critical analysis of audience literature and related reception and cultural theories is significant for this study. This background will assist in appraising to what extent methods that are adopted by campaign designers in both settings in selecting and targeting campaign audiences rely on scholarly methods. It will help in examining whether road safety campaign producers are aware of social and cultural differences and their impact on audience reception in designing campaign messages that target sub-cultural groups in the society.

2.4.6. Summary: Audiences and socio cultural diversity

It has been noted that most authorities regard the audience as a significant part of any social marketing campaign. Socio-cultural differences among audiences result in different reception of complex campaign advertisements which (depending on their form of mediation), usually combine verbal, written and visual elements. Indeed, readers may be able to decode the visual elements of an ad in line with the producer's preferred meaning, but written elements such as slogans which appear in the language and script of the dominant culture are not able to be read, and may be given an oppositional or resistant meaning, as minorities register that they are invisible in the ads. An understanding of cultural and reception theories is thus significant for addressing this issue while designing campaign messages. Saudi and Australian societies have become more multicultural societies due to immigration. Multiculturalism, however, has a range of implications in the delivery and understanding of public policy campaigns. Road safety is one policy area that appears to have been affected negatively. This could be because of cultural differences that impact driving and risk perception. Road safety campaigns must take these differences and other variables such as language, culture and media consumption habits into consideration to ensure more effective exposure of campaign content among these groups, and to enhance the potential for campaigns to affect these groups' behaviour. In the next section, the contribution of semiotic theory to this research project and its importance will be reviewed.

2.5. Semiotic theory

In this section the role semiotics as a mode of analysis of complex texts, including advertising texts is reviewed. The importance of this theory and its multiple usages in different fields will be outlined. Semiotics is defined, and fundamental concepts are outlined before discussing how the meaning and understanding of texts is affected by the circumstances of culturally different audiences. The section concludes with a consideration of the potential weaknesses and strengths of semiotic theory, and the benefits of using semiotic theory in this study.

2.5.1. Fundamental concepts

Semiotics begins with the assumption that meaning is something constructed by humans and is not simply “there” for people to understand. Semiotic theory is a theory of signs; a theory that can provide a systematic approach in analysing the construction and interpretation of all kinds of texts (Short 1981; Landsberg 1980). Semiotics is not a communication process; rather it is an examination of the meaning generation process that occurs in the interaction of readers (more generally, audiences) and texts which is understood broadly to include visual and written forms of signification (Nuessel 2012; Lange-Seidl 1986).

Semiotics has developed across time to meet different purposes and has applications across many disciplinary fields (Daddesio 1987). Since the theory was founded by Ferdinand de Saussure and Charles Sanders Peirce in the 1970s, the theory was developed by different renowned scholars from a variety of disciplines such as Mertz, Parmentier, Lee & Urban and Lee (Lange-Seidl 1986; Mertz 2007). Contributions by scholars from a variety of fields strengthen the theory and have made it more suitable for different contexts such as film analysis, literary analysis and the analysis of advertising (Cousins 2012).

The idea of the sign is the centre of the semiotic theory. A sign consists of a signifier and a signified (Cousins 2012). The signifier is the real, actual component of the sign itself, while the signified is the mental idea which the signifier constructs in the mind of the producer and/or reader. The word "Hi" for example, signifies a greeting when spoken or written, but more than that, it signifies friendliness (Cousins 2012). In the language of semiotics, in this simple example, the signifier is the denotative meaning of the signifier (a greeting), while the signified is considered the connotative meaning of the expression which might be

understood as "... this person is greeting me in a friendly way". The sign is the combination of signifier plus signified: thus "Hi is a friendly greeting" (Cousins 2012).

In advertising on television, visual imagery is usually equally important in carrying the message as any words which flash across the screen. A (tele)visual image of a man, a woman and two young children sitting together in a domestic setting, for example, is a stereotypical representation of family and the positive values associated with family in Australian society. The visual signifiers – the moving images of the family group in warm and close association, laughing and talking, present the denotative meaning of the signifier segment which can be read as "this is a family at home". The connotation advertisers intend for recipients to read into the image is that family life, and being together in an attractive domestic space is desirable, and that buying a new carpet, or a new television set will only increase the positive values that come from being together as a family. Semiotic analysis offers ways of analysing visual imagery commonly used in advertising – whether that is on television, or in large outdoor billboards or in display ads in magazines and newspapers, and is thus useful in analysing road safety advertising when understood as communicative texts (Williamson 1978).

Semioticians identify three relationships between signifiers and signified, and use the terms symbol, icon and index to describe the relationships. In the symbolic relationship, there is no obvious or natural association between the signifier and the signified. The "meaning" of the sign has to be learnt as there is no way of connecting "c-a-t-t-l-e" for example, with a particular group of animals. Equally, taking a visual symbol, there is no way of knowing what a national flag "means" unless one has learnt that this flag with these colours is the flag of Saudi Arabia and thus "means" KSA. The iconic relationship is one where there is a closer representation or identification of the signifier with the signified. Thus a portrait resembles the person it represents. A model of a plane resembles the planes that fly overhead every day. A hand gesture, such as a police officer's upraised hand resembles a barrier and is read as "Stop!" (Landsberg 1980). The index relationship acknowledges a close association, and even a more "natural" association between the signifier and the signified. The expression "smoke means fire" is the example usually given to explain the index relation (Wescott 1971 p 417). But a recording of a voice, or a segment of film can also be indexical in the sense that the sound of the voice, or the picture of the man or woman in Parliament is (unmistakably) the voice and face of the Prime Minister.

The importance of these distinctions in this context is that readers need to share cultural knowledge and have shared experiences to understand more abstract, symbolic relations between signifiers and signified. If campaign producers know that knowledge of particular words, gestures, costumes and music for example is shared intersubjectively (by most

people in the community that is to say), then using those signifiers in advertising is likely to carry the producers' preferred or intended reading. If producers are uncertain of what forms of signification are shared, and do not take care to find out through appropriate research, then it is likely that their ads run the risk of not connecting with selected audiences, and that the target audiences will fail to understand or take the intended meaning of the ad.

The analytic power of semiotic theory derives from its understanding that meaning is something that is produced in the engagement or interaction of readers or audiences with signs, and that there are systematic ways of searching for and tracing patterns of signification and the construction of meaning. Semiotics, that is, looks both ways – at the way a producer inscribes meaning in a text, and in the way audiences make sense of that text. In the context of road safety interventions, this double view is especially valuable. It opens up ways campaign producers and designers can construct ads or slogans which they believe will be effective in modifying risky behaviour in a target audience, and suggests ways of checking whether the target audience is likely to “get” that message by testing how the advertising text, approach and slogan are read by the target audience.

One of the best known explorations of the production and construction of meaning is David Morley and Charlotte Brunsdon's *Nationwide* study which examined what sense young British audiences from different class backgrounds made of selected reports from the current affairs television program *Nationwide*. Brunsdon and Morley discovered, to their surprise, that their predictions about how different class backgrounds would interpret particular news items were quite wrong, and highlighted how meaning is a construct, rather than a given (1999). Even though this research was not set up as a semiotic study, its focus on reception and the construction of meaning is grounded in fundamental assumptions drawn from Semiotics.

2.5.2. Semiotic theory: meaning in context

The idea that there are gaps or slippages in meaning such as Brunsdon and Morley discovered is a critical element in semiotic theory. One example of the way time affects meaning can be illustrated by taking the case of the word “cattle” in English. Once “cattle” meant everything a person might own – house, land, tools, and animals of all kinds. Now, over 1000 years of language change, the signifier “cattle” means just one kind of animal. The signifier – the letters on the page or screen (c-a-t-t-l-e) have not changed, but the signified (the understanding, the mental construct or meaning) has. Put another way, it can be said that the conventional meaning of cattle has changed radically over time, and that the meaning of “cattle” has to be learned, there is no way of guessing what it means.

If meaning is conventional, and given or constructed by humans at a time, in a place, and in a cultural setting through a grammar of signs (signified plus signifier), then there is always the possibility of a slip or misunderstanding – the signifier is the same, but the signified (the understood meaning) may not be the same. Teenage language plays with this process, turning conventional meaning upside down to create and distinguish an in-group: “sick” is reinterpreted within the teenage speech community to mean something like “great!” Someone who is not a member of the in-group might not understand the positive connotations of “sick” in the teenagers’ language, and find it strange that something conventionally well regarded – such as an expertly executed tennis shot for example, is apparently disparaged. In KSA, the word “crazy” is also used differently between teenagers. It is used to express teenagers’ high admiration for something. Another different usage for words by adolescent groups in KSA is that the word “painful” is used to say that a particular thing is very beautiful. These slips are not mistakes –they are perfectly understandable, as signifiers are always read from the reader or audience’s perspective. Semiotic theory is grounded in the assumption that if meaning is a dynamic construction, not an immutable given, then it is always possible for a slippage in interpretation and meaning, in communication, to occur. This may be related to time and social factors such as the way groups within a speech community use language to distinguish themselves, or it may be related to cultural factors.

Linguistic and cultural diversity may produce as a result a variety of interpretations of one sign or text. Thus the same sign or term may be used and interpreted differently and in some cases oppositely by different people based on the interpreter’s cultural background, ideological differences and social circumstances (Cousins 2012; Petrilli 2009). For example, in Western countries in general, and in Geneva in particular, the Red Cross is a well-known and respected sign/idea, because the Red Cross was established in Geneva as an international humanitarian organisation. But in Muslim countries, the signifier, the red cross in the Red Cross logo and phrase was not well liked, as it was read or decoded in a different way. The red cross was read as a Christian sign, or sign of a religious organisation, although it was never intended to be that – it was a humanitarian organisation. Due to this interpretation, the key signifier, the cross, was changed to the crescent in Muslim countries as the crescent is a signifier with positive connotations for Muslim men and women. In Geneva today, two flags fly on Red Cross headquarters – the Red Cross and the Red Crescent.

Cultural Studies theorist Stuart Hall discussed these sorts of misunderstandings or differences in meaning in terms of a process of ‘encoding and decoding’ (Hall 1980). Hall suggested that there were three possible reading positions from which a particular communication or text might be read or decoded (Hall 1980). Producers of texts encode

their communications drawing on their assumptions and understandings of a given situation, and on the professional codes and forms of signification that characterize their message – whether it is an advertisement for a car, or a television news program. Producers aim for “perfectly transparent communication” and intend that their readers will produce what Hall called the “preferred meaning or reading” of a text. Hall (1980) argued that this hoped-for transparency was likely, however, to be affected by situational or historical factors among readers. It was unlikely that readers would necessarily take the connotative meaning in a message. It was more likely that they would produce a “negotiated reading” which shared some of the ideological and cultural assumptions encoded in a text, but resisted a total embrace of the producer’s intentions. Thirdly, Hall (1980) argued that it was also possible for readers to produce an “oppositional reading” of a text, and produce a globally contrary reading that departed more or less completely from the assumptions that were part of the intended meaning. In this case the meaning produced challenged the producer’s assumptions about how a text would or should be understood. The example given above of the resistance of Muslim readers to the signifier of the red cross is a good illustration of an oppositional reading of a sign. Another good example drawn from this project might be an advertising text that purports to address all members of the community, but is expressed in a script and language, and uses signifiers that are all alien to the guest worker segment of the community. It is easy enough to understand that under these circumstances guest workers would decode the communication as “not for us”, and fail to produce the intended or preferred meaning of the advertising message. Hall’s landmark discussion of encoding/decoding and three reading positions has been challenged by scholars who argue that there are likely to be many more than three reading positions (Nightingale & Ross 2003). That discussion is beyond the scope of this thesis, and here it is sufficient to note that Hall’s critical contribution was not that there were just three reading positions and three possible meanings. The critical point is that it is always the case, even for texts deliberately designed to persuade the audiences they are directed at, that the meaning of a text is open to interpretation, and will be read and understood in terms that acknowledge that meaning is a discursive construction that is produced in the process of encoding/decoding, or more simply, in the engagement of historically and culturally situated audiences with historically and culturally shaped texts.

In these various examples it has been shown how both within a speech community and across speech and cultural communities there may be slippages in the interpretation or meaning or messages inscribed in texts. These examples were closely related to verbal and symbolic language. But Williamson has shown, in a landmark study of advertising, how other, less obvious elements of complex texts, such as the spatial relationship between characters, their expressions and clothing or style are all signs that can be read (and misread) by audiences (Williamson 1978).

2.5.3. Semiotic theory and the analysis of texts

Taking an overview of the examples of semiotic research cited, it is clear that one strength of semiotic theory is that it alerts researchers (and in practice, designers, campaign directors and other “creatives”) to the need to focus on both the denotative and connotative meanings in texts (Mertz 2007). “Semiotics helps us to not to take representations for granted as “reflections of reality” enabling us to take them apart and consider whose realities they represent” (Chandler 2000 p 78). For this research, which was established as a comparative, cross cultural study of multicultural settings, semiotic theory’s insistence on the indeterminacy of meaning was understood as of fundamental significance.

Another complication in message interpretation is associated with personal differences among people from the same society who may, at first glance appear to share the same cultural values. Class, gender and age will all be part of how an individual deconstructs a signifier. For example a picture of a Rolls Royce might signify prestige, high quality engineering and upper class British style to privileged people. To someone else, however, the same signifier – the car in the street or in a photograph in a magazine – might signify unnecessary luxury, conspicuous consumption, snobbery and a waste of resources. Another example concerning age and gender interpretation is that the Pinkie ad may communicate well with younger male audiences in Australia, but it may not have the same impact with females and males over fifty years of age. Such social differences in interpretation can be understood using semiology. In short, semiotic theory helps in understanding the textual representation of social and cultural differences in interpretation both across and within cultural settings, and this is a real strength of the semiotic theory (Daddesio 1987).

Semiotics, as with any theory or model, has some strengths and weaknesses. One weakness of semiotic theory is the belief of some semioticians in the ability of semiotics to interpret everything in the cosmos (Chandler 2000). Many renowned semoticians apparently subscribe to this view. For example, Sebeok (2001) argued that semiotics is an analytic approach that can cover everything on the globe. Yet, setting aside some semioticians’ exaggerated claims, semiotic theory has a lot of strengths as has been discussed throughout this section which makes it an ideal theory for understanding signs and their meanings, reception, linguistics and cross-cultural interpretation.

It has been noted that semiotic theory has been adopted by different scholars in different fields of scholarship. Social marketing, for example, is one field where semiotic theory was

adopted for different levels and kinds of analysis (see Lazar 2003). However, the adoption of semiotic theory in the analysis of road safety campaign communications in particular is not common and has been limited to only a few studies. Even then, the focus in these studies was not directed to the interpretation and analysis of road safety campaign advertisements, but rather to the analysis of road signs and analysing the impact of commercial advertisements of cars or motorbikes on road safety (See Bachand 1988; Wagner 2006; Heffner, Turrentine & Kurani 2006).

Semiotics is appropriate for this thesis because it is capable of deconstructing complex texts which blend sound, verbal text and images – this is necessary for understanding television texts and other forms of advertising such as outdoor displays, as they are complex structures of meaning. Semiotics is used in this study to assist the researcher in reading how ads from the case study campaigns reach out to target audiences.

2.5.4. Summary: Semiotic theory

Semiotic theory is a comprehensive and well supported theoretical approach to the way meaning is constructed within culture. It derives from an understanding of language, understood in broad terms to include verbal, written and visual languages. It looks at how meaning is encoded in signifiers and signs. Semiotics as a reception theory looks at how audiences/readers/viewers construct or interpret meaning by reading the signs. In the contemporary world, the interpretation of meaning in specific settings is significantly influenced by processes of immigration and globalisation. Social factors within the same culture are also affecting the interpretation of meaning. Such differences in interpretation due to cultural and social factors can be highlighted and analysed by semiotic theory. Despite a few weaknesses in the application of semiotic theory, semiotics has a lot to offer this study concerning modes of address and the representation of target audiences.

2.6. Research questions

The following key research questions will shape this research:

- 1- What are the key differences between KSA and NSW in road safety campaign formation?
- 2- How do road safety campaign producers in KSA and NSW select target audiences in road safety campaigns?

- 3- What are the most effective visual and textual communication elements used in road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW?

Each main question is broken down into sub-questions to assist the researcher in managing the practicalities of research:

- 1- What are the key differences between KSA and NSW in road safety campaign formation?

In answering question 1 the researcher will be guided by the following related questions:

- A. Are there any administrative differences between KSA and NSW, including the departments and personnel responsible for developing road safety campaigns?
- B. Do the themes selected for road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW target risky behaviours that are justified by road safety statistics?
- C. Do road safety campaign producers in KSA and NSW set measurable objectives for campaigns?
- D. Is sufficient budget allocated for road safety campaigns and where does this budget come from?
- E. Are road safety campaign advertisements in KSA and NSW designed by professional agencies and do they consider target audiences?
- F. Is media selection for delivering the campaign material driven by target audience selection and to what extent is the selected media linked to target audiences?
- G. Are road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW independently evaluated, including scholarly evaluations?

- 2- How do road safety campaign producers in KSA and NSW select target audiences in road safety campaigns?

In answering question 2 the researcher will be guided by the following related questions:

- A- Are target audiences in road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW selected and segmented based on statistics in order to target at-risk groups?
- B- Are road safety campaign producers in KSA and NSW aware of the ways in which cultural factors impact on road safety message reception by target audiences?

C- From a producers' perspective, what are the main differences between traffic environments in KSA and NSW and what are their impacts on campaign reception by target audiences?

3- What are the most effective visual and textual communication elements used in road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW?

In answering question 3 the researcher will be guided by the following related questions:

- A. Do road safety campaign ads in KSA and NSW communicate with target audiences and consider cultural differences for campaign audience to draw audience attention?
- B. Are campaign logos in KSA designed carefully to communicate with the target audience?

2.7. Conclusion

In this chapter a review of the literature has pointed to a strong association between human behaviour and road safety. Thus, understanding principles of behavioural modification is important in designing campaigns which attempt to intervene in and modify or change behaviour linked to road safety. The association between human behaviour and cultural and social factors, however, makes such understanding more complex, and increases the necessity of understanding behavioural modification theories and persuasion techniques to influence audiences to adopt safer behaviour. Advertising is the usual means public authorities rely on in reaching out to the public in their endeavour to achieve their road safety objectives. In the review of persuasion in advertising, and in later discussion of the way advertising addresses audiences differently according to their circumstances and backgrounds, it was shown that campaign development can be understood as a series of interlinked decisions and steps concerned with matters such as campaign theme, objectives, funding, mediation and delivery and evaluation. The second part of the chapter turned from a review of dimensions of the campaign formation process to take up the communication dimensions of a campaign. Literature concerned with the selection of target audiences, and how audiences respond to and understand the meaning and significance of a campaign from their own perspective was reviewed. The reception of campaign communication was shown to be related to the distinctiveness of audiences, understood in terms of cultural differences and a groups' relation to the language, beliefs, values and cultural practices circulating in mainstream or hegemonic society. The review showed that

campaign producers may overlook, or communicate in ineffective ways with sub-cultural groups if they are not aware of and not informed about the way culture intersects with reception. The review concluded with an outline of semiotic analysis, and examined the potential value semiotics has in assisting observers such as this researcher, and producers themselves in analysing whether or not in campaign formation, campaign advertising and delivery is likely to be read by selected audiences in ways that match producer's objectives and the preferred meaning of their messages. In the next chapter, the discussion will turn to the methodology that has been adopted in this research.

Chapter Three: Methodology

The mix of qualitative methods used in this study is discussed in this chapter. The main tools adopted in this comparative study will be reviewed, including (cross cultural) case studies, semi-structured interviews and semiotic analysis, and their advantages and limitations and how the researcher managed or avoided these limitations. The rationale behind selecting specific campaigns and advertisements for the case studies and semiotic analysis will be justified. The chapter will explain how the semi-structured interview questions for the KSA fieldwork were designed, validated and translated before being modified to suit the NSW setting. The ethical implications of the research and the steps the researcher took to comply with ethics protocols in conducting interviews with participants and preserving the recorded material will be also discussed. The analysis of interview data using Nvivo 9 software is outlined, and the perceived advantages of using this software will also be discussed. Finally, the method and criteria for the selection and review of grey literature is discussed.

3.1. Qualitative methods

Qualitative research has been widely used in the social sciences, health services and health education since last century and has been adopted by renowned scholars in sociology such as Max Weber (Bartos 1986; Pope & Mays 1995). Indeed, qualitative research constitutes the basis for evidence-based practice in public health education research (Jeanfreau & Jack 2010). Despite the reliance on quantitative approach in different fields of knowledge until the 1980s (with the exception of anthropological field work and pioneering sociological studies by Chicago school sociologists) affected the contribution of a qualitative approach to knowledge prior that time, research based on qualitative methods has increased in recent years in different fields (Carr 1994; Dworkin 2012). This shift in the popularity of qualitative methods in recent years may be attributed to several factors. There has been a trend towards research objectives which aim to examine complex social phenomena deeply rather than more superficially. In this view, qualitative research enables researchers to explore areas such as beliefs that cannot be easily accessed using quantitative methods (Pope & Mays 1995). It also allows the researcher with a typically small sample of participants to focus on the in-depth meaning of the issues to be examined and explore the “how and why” rather than just the “how many” (Dworkin 2012; Pope & Mays 1995). These points might be summed up by saying that qualitative research methods allow the researcher to come to understand the insiders’ point of view and gain a perspective that is richly informed by the

participants' own beliefs, reactions, values and aspirations. Qualitative research gives participants the freedom to say what they want in their own words by not limiting their answers to a set of restricted choices that have been prepared beforehand by the researcher. The scope for participants to present their own views in their own way can lessen the subjectivity of the researcher, open new prospects for inquiry, and increase the depth of knowledge about the topic being investigated.

Qualitative methods are often used when little is known about the topic to be researched as it allows the researcher to examine the empirical world from the perspective of the research topic rather than the researcher's point of view (Duffy 1987; Jeanfreau & Jack 2010). This proved to be the case in this project, as little attention had been paid to the way road safety campaigns are formed nor how campaign policy stakeholders and campaign developers select their target audiences and design textual content for the campaign.

Another advantage of the qualitative approach is that it takes people as it finds them, intricately involved in their social relations and life world. The emphasis on the lived reality of social life is well suited to comparative research as it acknowledges important differences rather than trying to suppress them (Benohel 1985). As Pope and Mays put it, the aim of the qualitative approach is development of perception which assists the researcher to understand the nature of social phenomena and the differences between things (Pope & Mays 1995). This makes qualitative methods useful for this study which is interested in understanding differences in road safety campaign formation and target audience selection practices in KSA and Australia, and the way campaign advertising can gain peoples' attention and persuade them to modify their behaviour.

However, it must be noted that although a qualitative approach has definite advantages in exploring social phenomena, there is no perfect method (Campbell, Quincy, Osserman & Pedersen 2013). The qualitative approach has strengths and weaknesses, as do other methods (Carr 1994). Yet, appraising strengths and weaknesses enables the researcher to understand whether strengths outweigh weaknesses or vice versa in order to choose the most effective methods (Beck 2009). In what follows, the discussion will turn to consider the strengths and weaknesses of the qualitative approach in general to assess its usefulness for this project before going further to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of case studies and semi-structured interviews, the main tools used in this project.

One of the drawbacks of qualitative research is that it typically takes time. Getting to participants' beliefs, emotions and perceptions of value is difficult. It takes time for the researcher to gain the trust of participants and establish a relationship that enables the discussion of sometimes troubling topics. When time and research funds are limited, there

may not be sufficient time for the researcher to establish trusting relations. In this project, the researcher sought to address this issue by keeping expectations within reasonable limits, and by structuring the interviews in such a way that respondents had scope to open up. It has been argued that qualitative research deals with emotions so the involvement of the researcher in interviews may affect the opinion of participants or the researcher can be influenced by the predispositions or opinions of participants particularly if a small sample is recruited (Bartos 1986; Bryman 1988; Carr 1994). However, the involvement of the researcher in interviews has more positives than negatives. Spending time with participants increases participants' confidence in the researcher which helps in promoting a deeper understanding of participants' views and more frank and honest responses (Bryman 1988; Carr 1994). It also allows the researcher to understand the language used by participants and become familiar with the dynamics of the society under review (Pope & Mays 1995; Bartos 1986). In this project, the researcher believed that an examination of the language or the address of the selected campaign material would reveal whether appropriate communicative language was part of the campaigns selected for examination. In preparing for this research it was understood that the researcher must be aware of the emotional connotations of road safety on participants and on the investigator. The researcher took care to avoid using emotional terms or actions to make sure the responses were not affected by overly emotional reactions. Participants were also informed that they could express their ideas and beliefs independently and freely without any influence from the researcher and could withdraw at any time from the project if they felt any emotional problems, with no adverse consequences, as stated in the Participant Information Sheet (PIS) and Consent Form. It is also important to note that the researcher needs to recruit a well informed purposive sample and has a clear plan that clearly defines the topics to be discussed with participants to avoid drawing the discussion away to irrelevant topics or being influenced by any ideas expressed by participants (Pope & Mays 1995).

It also has been argued that the qualitative approach produces "soft" data that is unable to answer research questions (Carr 1994). However, deep exploration of meanings and phenomena in qualitative research can lead to in-depth, informative and persuasive answers to research questions (Jeanfreau & Jack 2010). A qualitative approach also allows participants to raise topics and issues which may open new perspectives to the researcher not previously considered (Carr 1994). This can lead to answers to the research questions which are formed from multiple minds looking at the project from different angles and perspectives.

3.2. Mixed-methods

A mix of qualitative methods (case study, semi-structured interviews and semiotic analysis) was used in this study, as the research is concerned firstly with the decisions of producer practitioners involved in the complex process of designing and delivering road safety campaigns, and second in the analysis of campaign advertising. The research into campaign formation was understood as an investigation into how responsible practitioners managed a process, and what informed their approach and decisions. The analysis of campaign advertising was understood as requiring a different approach as what was required was a mode of analysis which looked at campaign content as it might be read by relevant audiences. The methods adopted for conducting interviews with participants and for data analysis are explained and justified in this section.

A mixed-method approach increases the validity of data collected and helps to improve understanding of the research outcomes (Weerakkody 2008). Hence, different qualitative methods were integrated in this project, including archival research, interviews and semiotic analysis. Deep comparative analysis was undertaken across case studies and included a total of four cases; two in KSA and two in NSW which were selected in relation to road safety campaigns. Semiotic analysis was conducted focused on creative inputs and campaign ads to examine whether or not they addressed target audiences, and to investigate the differences in creative inputs in both settings.

An analysis of campaign strategy books and participants' speeches helped the researcher understand differences in representation of target audiences in terms of ethnicity, religion, class and gender in the campaign process so that "target audiences" for road safety campaigns could be better identified. This was achieved through a review of relevant scholarly literature, interviewing key people and analysing the interview outcomes, as well as semiotic analysis and examination of specific campaigns. See Table 3.1: for information showing how each research method is linked to the sample of participants and research questions.

Table 3.1: Linking research method with sample and research question

Research question/ objective	Research Method	Research object/ Respondent
What are the key differences between KSA and NSW in road safety campaign formation?	Case study; Semi-structured interview	<p>“Let’s not lose our lives” 2001 and “Enough” 2006 campaigns from KSA and “Pinkie” 2007 and “Wake up to the signs” campaigns 2010 from NSW</p> <p>Selected campaign textbooks, websites and relevant publications</p> <p>Two case studies of KSA road safety campaigns are compared with two case studies of NSW campaigns.</p> <p>Object of the research includes the published campaigns and supporting documentation.</p> <p>Respondents include campaign’ policy makers, media planners, advertising agencies representatives, academics, police department officers, law enforcement officers in KSA and NSW will be interviewed and the comparison their responses will assist in understand differences in campaign formation including selecting target audience and designing advertisement in the campaign.</p>
How do road safety campaign producers in KSA and NSW select target audiences in road safety campaigns?	Case study; Semi-structured interview	<p>“Let’s not lose our lives” 2001 and “Enough” 2006 campaigns from KSA and “Pinkie” 2007 and “Wake up to the signs” campaigns 2010 from NSW</p> <p>Selected campaigns textbooks, websites and relevant publications</p> <p>Two case studies of KSA road safety</p>

		<p>campaigns are compared with two case studies of NSW campaigns.</p> <p>Object of the research includes the published campaigns and supporting documentation.</p> <p>Respondents include campaign' policy makers, media planners, advertising agencies representatives, academics, police department officers, law enforcement officers in KSA and NSW will be interviewed and the comparison their responses will assist in understand differences in campaign formation including selecting target audience and designing advertisement in the campaign.</p>
What are the most effective visual and textual communication elements used in road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW?	Semiotic analysis	<p>Advertisements from "Let's not lose our lives" 2001 and "Enough" 2006 campaigns from KSA and "Pinkie" 2007 and "Wake up to the signs" campaigns 2010 from NSW</p> <p>Object for analysis includes televisual texts/ advertisements of selected KSA and NSW campaigns</p>

3.2.1. Method I: Case Studies

A "case study" is defined by Abercrombie, Hill & Turner (1984 p 34) as "the detailed examination of a single example of a class of phenomena". A case study is an attempt to provide a comprehensive depiction and understanding of the research setting (Cousin 2005). The case study approach has been widely used across a variety of fields including social science (Gerring 2007). It is used frequently in the social marketing field to examine educational campaigns. More particularly, the case study approach has been used in studies concerning road safety campaigns including PhD theses. It was used by Faulks

(2011) in his study of road safety advertising and social marketing. It was also used as the key research method in King's doctoral thesis (2005), in his comparison of road safety in Thailand and Vietnam and Western countries. King noted that the approach helped in "generat[ing] rich and detailed information" (King 2005 p 154).

A case study is very helpful when the phenomena under investigation are complex and interrelated issues are involved (Pope & Mays 1995). This is clearly the case in investigating road safety interventions which may be examined from different perspectives such as social marketing, communication, sociology, traffic safety and psychology. Further, road safety interventions are directly and less directly linked to other fields and pragmatic issues such as government policy, budget constraints, audience media practices and the like. Understanding how road safety campaigns are developed in two countries that have significant differences in culture at a general level and in the road safety context specifically, is also a complex issue that benefits from an approach that provides scope for following complex decision making and the way many different teams and forms of expertise contribute to the end result.

Another strength of the case study method is that the closeness of the issues studied to research participants' real life experience results in producing more accurate outcomes through the in-depth understanding of audience behaviour (Flyvbjerg 2006). That is true here as road safety and road safety campaigns in particular are part of participants everyday experiences as they move around. More specifically, the road safety field in general and road safety campaigns in particular is the profession/career of the participants in this study which means that the case studies are closely linked to the participants' real and professional lives which may enrich the outcomes of this study.

Having outlined the advantages of the case study approach and its usefulness and relevance for this research, the discussion will turn to consider weaknesses in the approach and how these perceived disadvantages were compensated for or allowed for in this project. Firstly, it has been argued that the random selection of cases or choosing cases for which information is not available or incomplete may affect the research or weaken the results (Flyvbjerg 2006; Sandelowski 2011). Clearly, careful and purposive selection of cases will boost the value of the detailed investigation in understanding similar cases and increases the validity of outcomes and intensive understanding of the topic being researched (Sandelowski 2011; Gerring 2007). In this project, to make sure that the selections were justified and the cases selected from KSA and NSW were sufficiently similar to justify a comparative approach, the researcher developed a set of criteria, including the availability of relevant documentation before selecting cases for intensive study. These criteria, outlined below in section 3.2.1 guided the selection of cases in the two settings and provided an

opportunity to make a detailed investigation of how campaigns were designed to address their audiences.

Second, some scholars argue that one case cannot be generalised (Giddens 1984). However, although no outcomes of any method can be generalised across a whole field, searching multiple cases that are carefully and purposefully selected can provide more valid and rigorous insights (Flyvbjerg 2006; Sandelowski 2011). The idea of generalisation, however, is more linked to the quantitative approach rather than qualitative research. In qualitative research, the aim is not to show that this case represents most other cases; it attempts to show how complex relations work themselves out. The objective is to get insights into the way practices, values, beliefs, policies and so on work themselves out in everyday life.

Third, in his study about case studies in political science, Eckstein (1975) argued that the case study method cannot be used for testing theories. This claim may be limited to the political science field, as adopting a case study method has enabled other researchers not only to test but also to generate theories in different fields as Walton has demonstrated (Walton 1992). In this project Ekstein's claim, whether or not the force of Walton's argument is acknowledged, is not particularly relevant, as this project was not an exercise in theory building but more pragmatic. It was focused on a comparative study of how road safety campaigns were shaped by historical, cultural and financial factors, and campaign stakeholders' understanding of audiences.

Another issue that is sometimes considered a disadvantage of the case study method is the time limitation especially when the researcher wants to study cases that are not continuously present as is the case for example in observing bird migration (Cousin 2005). While this limitation may be a factor in the study of phenomena in the natural world, it is not relevant in this project which is concerned with a comparative study of campaigns that have already occurred, and for which adequate documentation exists. Indeed, the researcher made sure before selecting cases for investigation that there were respondents available for interviews who were involved in the campaigns, and that there was sufficient supplementary documentation and data such as evaluation reports available for consultation.

Another disadvantage of a case study approach often presented is that geographic limitations may affect the outcomes of research based on the case study method. Cousin (2005) argued that most case studies are based on the setting where the researcher comes from which may affect his or her choices in selecting cases out of their geographic area. However, it must be appreciated that the focus of a case study on limited settings makes more in-depth research achievable (Pope & Mays 1995). In this project, while it is true that

half of the case studies selected do derive from the researcher's own national background, the others have been selected from a completely different setting so a strong comparative analysis may be advanced. The researcher has a good knowledge of the NSW setting, however, having lived and worked here as a postgraduate student for over six years. Further, in this project there are good reasons for selecting case studies from the researcher's own setting, as the project has applied research objectives, and is based on an understanding that a comparative approach is likely to contribute to more effective road safety interventions in the home setting.

3.2.1.1. Selection criteria for case studies of four road safety campaigns

KSA has conducted traffic awareness campaigns since 1984 when it joined the GCC's initiative "Traffic Week" (Saeed & Algammas 1997). Since the year 2000 there has been a major shift in understanding of the value of national campaigns in KSA for traffic awareness, initiated by four comprehensive campaigns (Alawfi & Ibraheem 2004).

However, few campaigns have been implemented since 2000, which makes choices for a case study limited. To suit the objectives of this comparative research project, suitable campaigns would be national or regional in scope, fully researched, designed, produced and mediated (published or mounted) in KSA or the Riyadh region, and focused on a specific road safety problem or special objectives. Thus, two of the available campaigns: "Let's not lose our lives" in 2001 and "Enough" in 2006 will be discussed in-depth in this study. While both the campaigns were aimed at reducing/controlling speed, the "Enough" campaign aimed at highlighting the negative consequences of disobeying traffic lights. The choice of these two campaigns for a case study analysis was based on several factors:

- A- The "Enough" campaign was chosen as it was the only campaign in KSA which had an explicit traffic theme.
- B- Both campaigns aimed to modify audience behaviour.
- C- The campaigns had similar themes to the NSW campaigns selected for examination.
- D- The availability of material about the campaigns allowed an in-depth analysis to be undertaken and opened up an avenue to satisfy examination of the way responsible institutions function.

In contrast to KSA the large number of annually implemented campaigns by the RTA (now 'RMS'), provides a variety of NSW campaigns to choose from as case studies. After reviewing a number of possible campaigns given the criteria noted above, in the end two different campaigns namely: "Pinkie" 2007 and "Wake up to the signs" 2010 were selected

for review and will be discussed in detail in this study. While speed was the main theme for the “Pinkie” campaign which targeted young drivers in NSW, “Wake up to the signs” was aimed at educating people in NSW and Queensland (QLD) about signs of fatigue - one of the main factors that result in road crashes. The “Wake Up” campaign was implemented in QLD firstly by the Transport and Main Roads Department (TMR) in 2009 and borrowed by RMS in NSW with a few changes after its success was proven by QLD authorities.

The rationale behind choosing those two campaigns was as follows:

- A- The “Pinkie” campaign had a similar theme to both of the KSA campaigns. However it relied on an audience segmentation technique in targeting its audiences which might benefit Saudi campaign producers.
- B- The fatigue theme is different, new and has not been targeted yet by Saudi producers although it might be the cause of many road accidents in a country with long driving distances, and where drivers are compelled to drive in extreme weather - either hot or cold - due to lack of public transportation. Yet the extent of the contribution of fatigue in road crashes is not clear in KSA, as fatigue is not identified as a cause of road accidents in Saudi official statistics.
- C- The “Wake up to the signs” campaign is similar to KSA campaigns in targeting all audiences in NSW.
- D- The fatigue theme was targeted by NSW authorities from different angles to cover all related aspects and to make people totally aware of the theme. For example, the Micro-Sleep campaign introduced in 2002 represents a technique that is as yet unused in KSA, and may be recommended to Saudi authorities at the end of this thesis.
- E- The “Wake up to the signs” campaign was implemented in two different Australian states (QLD and NSW) which will provide a good chance to analyse two Australian state campaigns as most components of the campaign were taken on by the RTA with very little changes to the campaign advertisement, media utilised and target audiences.
- F- The choices were made from recent campaigns to ensure the validity of outcomes and recommendations, particularly in terms of media involvement. New media was part of the recent campaign and opens up new creative ideas for behavioural modification.
- G- Both campaign advertisements have different appeals which have not been used in KSA campaigns where emotional appeal is dominant in campaign advertisements as will be shown.
- H- Both NSW campaigns, as for the KSA campaigns, aimed to modify audience behaviour.
- I- The availability of material about the campaigns enables the researcher to prepare an in-depth analysis.

It was important to note that the NSW campaigns had elements or aspects of their design, research and mediation that could provide a useful pointer to ways for improving KSA campaigns. That is, while it was important that campaigns were selected for their similarities as noted above, it was also thought valuable to examine campaigns from NSW that exhibited important differences in design, production and approach to audiences as a way of leading on to a discussion of how different institutional practices and values, and cultural values and practices, feed into and influence the construction of road safety campaigns.

These were the criteria of selection, looking at both similarities and differences between the campaigns selected from both settings. These two KSA campaigns, and these two NSW campaigns are similar in some important ways. But then, they are also different, and given the cross cultural comparative focus of this project, these differences were not perceived as obstacles but as pathways to close examination of campaigns in their historical and cultural context.

However, as this comparative study is associated with two different countries in terms of culture, administrative systems - including public access to official information, administrative structures and responsible organisations, it proved hard to obtain and compare information that covers both cases in the same detail. Campaign budgets, logos and slogans for campaigns, media buys and message distribution on media, are some of the details not released by NSW authorities to anyone including researchers. As a result the comparisons were conducted based on available information.

Having briefly examined the advantages and disadvantages of the case study approach from both a theoretical and a more practical research perspective, the researcher believes that adoption of the approach in this project is justified, and that the disadvantages identified have been addressed and compensated for in the design and conduct of the research. In each research setting the researcher has been able to focus on two well selected campaigns and through interviews with stakeholders and examination of supporting documentation, has been able to provide a framework for understanding the design, policy decisions and theoretical perspectives which prompted production teams in each setting to proceed in the way they did.

3.2.2. Method II: Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted to ascertain campaign producers' perspectives on the campaign formation process, target audience selection and visual communication elements. A semi-structured, in-depth interview is an inductive method that forms the backbone of most qualitative research in the social science field (Dworkin 2012; Campbell,

Quincy, Osserman & Pedersen 2013; Jeanfreau & Jack 2010). In-depth interviews allow the researcher to probe respondents' responses, to explore respondents' understanding of the issues raised, and observe paralinguistic phenomena such as respondents' gestures and emotional reactions (Bartos 1986). It also allows the researcher to understand the audience's point of view about any stimulus material (Bartos 1986).

The qualitative semi-structured interview method is well-known in educational campaign studies in general and in reception issues in particular (Pope & Mays 1995). More specifically, the in-depth interview approach has been adopted by several scholars in the road safety field such as Scott-Parker, Watson, King & Hyde (2013), Haglund & Aberg, (2000), Hargreaves (2011) and Scott-Parker, Watson & King (2013) as the basis of their research methodology and as background for journal articles, conference proceedings and PhD theses. These authors relied on this method because they were interested in complex information that is hard to quantify. Put simply, these researchers were interested in complex social phenomena, their impact on drivers' behaviour and the ability of road safety campaigns in modifying audience behaviour. They saw in-depth interviews as the approach that would enable them to explore their objectives in the social settings selected.

In-depth interviews allow detailed exploration of issues under investigation including people's behaviour and complex beliefs (Hollway & Jefferson 1997; Pope & Mays 1995). More than that, this method is useful for discussing sensitive topics where participants sometimes feel they cannot talk in a focus group setting (Hollway & Jefferson 1997). The openness of a semi-structured interview allows the participants to ask for clarification about an unclear question which contributes to the coherence and validity of the information provided. A semi-structured interview also allows the investigator to ask for further explanation instantly if the participant seems uncertain about how to reply, or makes a comment which conflicts with earlier statements (Hollway & Jefferson 1997). This flexible, responsive to-and-fro between interviewer and respondents cannot be achieved when using more structured interview forms such as questionnaires. In questionnaire-based interviews, it is difficult to follow up issues raised, as most participants cannot be reached after reviewing or analysing collected data.

The dynamic, conversational character of the semi-structured interview method boosts the relevance of responses to the researcher's questions. More than that, the semi-structured form allows the researcher to adapt their questions, even terminology as interviews proceed, ensuring again that the information produced in the interview situation closely reflects the reality of the respondents' views and perceptions of the topic under consideration. For example, when this researcher interviewed road safety campaign policy makers in both settings they used the term "campaign" to refer to road safety campaigns,

but in interviewing other groups such as law enforcement officers, their usage of this abstract term was different, as they usually used “campaign” to mean law enforcement campaigns. In a semi-structured interview, the researcher has time and the opportunity to check critical understandings of this kind, and make sure that the researcher understands clearly how fundamental terms are being used. Moreover, when comparing the semi-structured to a structured interview, it can be said that the semi-structured interview allows the researcher to keep a consistent line of focus across all interviews while still allowing respondents to add their own views, to expand on the researcher’s questions, and allows the researcher to discuss topics raised by participants. The fully structured interview restricts the discussion to a limited set of questions or topics that were designed by the researcher prior to the field work which may result in limiting the participants’ contribution to what researcher wants. It can be said that the openness in the semi-structured interview preserves the value of the ethnographic interview where the emphasis is on the respondents’ own thoughts and words.

However, some researchers consider the critical question in using in-depth interviews is what the right number of interviewees, or the “sample” should be (Dworkin 2012). This question, however, has no definite answer. Some scholars suggest avoiding this kind of question altogether and think raising the “How many” question derives from a quantitative paradigm, while others suggest a number between five to fifty participants as an adequate sample that allows a thorough examination of an issue and maximises the information value of collected data (Charmaz 1990; Dworkin 2012). Most scholars who endorse qualitative research methods argue that the “saturation point” during data collection is more important than how many respondents are interviewed (Mason 2010). A saturation point is reached when subsequent interviews do not offer new concepts in the topic under investigation (Dworkin 2012). Saturation, however, is affected by factors such as the budget available and homogeneity or heterogeneity of the group of respondents (Dawson 2002).

In this project, interviews were designed to cover all people responsible for campaign design and implementation, as well as others whose expertise and experience made them relevant to the study. In this case then, it was not the number of respondents that was a prime concern, but whether or not a comprehensive selection of stakeholders was interviewed. Reaching saturation point in this research however, was not affected by budget, as the Saudi government generously covered field and other research expenses. The heterogeneity of respondents was relevant, however, as in this comparative study the researcher investigated the same issues across two different cultural settings and the interviewees were heterogeneous from different background in various fields. It was expected that they would have different ideas, and talk about the topic from different perspectives. Indeed, the differences among respondents were considered important as

they gave insights into the way different factors combine in different settings to produce different outcomes.

In this research semi-structured interviews were well suited to examining how different contributors to the campaign formation process understood their roles, how they were affected by institutional structures and policies, levels of funding and the like, and how they interacted with and were reliant on others involved in the formation process. The interviews revealed barriers and disjunctions in an idealised step-by-step formation process, drawing attention to participants' awareness that the formation process was embedded in, and an outcome of, historical, cultural and governance factors.

While extended interviews did assist in developing a rich understanding of the formation process, the semi-structured interview approach has some limitations as well as advantages and it is important to assess whether the perceived disadvantages of the method might impact in a negative way on the progress and outcomes of this research. It has been argued that in-depth interviews' outcomes cannot be generalised (Dworkin 2012). Once again, this criticism reveals a degree of confusion over the research paradigm grounding this research. The response here is that the objective of the interviews was not to generalise from them, but to gain an insider's point of view that could assist the researcher, for example, appreciate how budget might affect campaign strategies, or how a rather limited and unpopular state-run television system might affect audiences' interest and consumption of ads on national television compared with commercial or satellite television. It has also been argued that anxiety, either of the investigator or participants, may limit information obtained from in-depth interviews (Hollway & Jefferson 1997). There may be some truth in this, and it is here that an interviewer's skill and experience comes into play. Prior to leaving to conduct interviews in the field, the researcher performed a number of trial interviews and refined his technique in pacing questions, re-phrasing questions and the like. More than that, the sample of respondents interviewed as part of this project were professional people with many years at management level, and interview anxiety was not thought to be an issue – at least among the respondents.

But semi-structured interviews, being less directive than other more structured forms, increase participants' confidence so they feel more comfortable to share openly their own experience with the researcher (Jeanfreau & Jack 2010). This can enrich the research, integrating respondents' experience into the information collected as respondents have the opportunity to answer open-ended questions rather than choosing between "yes" and "no" answers which may limit shared information and adversely affect research outcomes (Hollway & Jefferson 1997).

Other than that, scholars such as Hollway and Jefferson (1997) have argued that negative experience about the topic under research may affect participants emotionally. Although this can be true for this area of study especially in KSA as many people have experienced road safety traumas at different levels either for close relatives or friends, the researcher was aware of this important point and participants were formally advised through the Participant Information Sheet (PIS) (see Appendix B) about the possibility of adverse emotional effects. They were advised that they were free to withdraw from the interview at any time if they felt uncomfortable.

The cost of conducting time-consuming extended interviews with a range of informants is another disadvantage of the semi-structured interview method reported in the literature. Where the number of stakeholders is large, and the coding of interview transcripts is time consuming and requires a large team, budget constraints can mean the method must be set aside or is conducted in a hurried and less than thorough manner (Campbell, Quincy, Osserman & Pedersen 2013). It has been already noted, however, that the budget for this project was adequate as it was covered by the KSA government. Even so, in this project, the range of relevant stakeholders was not particularly large, and there was no need to employ a team of coders. The amount of data collected was manageable and was able to be coded by the researcher who had a good understanding of the field in general and special training in Nvivo provided by UOW which enabled him to organise and analyse the data in a scholarly manner. Thus although there are drawbacks in using semi-structured interviews as a research method, for this project the approach seemed most appropriate in both a theoretical and practical sense, and promised to produce the kinds of insights that were important for a comparative study.

3.2.2.1. Interview questions and translation

In preparation for semi structured interviews, a list of semi-structured interview questions were developed and piloted with the supervision team (see Appendix A for sample questions). The semi-structured interview questions were modified after fieldwork in KSA was completed to suit the NSW context and to make sure the data obtained from KSA and NSW participants were as close as possible a “match” in emphasis and focus for this comparative study. The interview questions generally sought information relevant to the idea of understanding the audience in the formation of road safety campaigns, the causes and implications of road traffic accidents, types and effectiveness of various campaigns (with special emphasis on road safety campaign in reducing the number of accidents and minimising their consequences) as well legal and management aspects of road traffic environments and campaign development.

Mock interviews were conducted with supervisors to receive comments on the skills of the interviewer (the researcher) and to ensure that the researcher was ready to conduct interviews effectively in the field before interviews with the selected subjects/interviewees were commenced. During the initial fieldwork in KSA the researcher emailed brief, standardised interview reports to his supervisors after each interview, commenting on progress, the clarity of questions, and whether the interview questions, participants selected and research emphasis were appropriate. This ongoing, iterative process of reflection and evaluation of methodology and research practice was valuable and helped to sharpen the researcher's focus while in the field.

The researcher was responsible for translating the materials from English to Arabic and vice versa. This was considered acceptable because the researcher's native language is Arabic, and the researcher is also proficient in English. However, the translation of vital information such as interview questions, Participant Information Sheet (PIS), Consent Form, interview outcome materials and other sections requiring specialist translation skills was verified by an independent researcher/translator. As most readers of the thesis at this stage are expected to be non-Arabic speaking, the original Arabic text from most participants has been left out. The Arabic of particularly important texts as expressed in Arabic language in campaign briefs and campaign strategy books such as participants' words (quotations), texts in KSA campaign advertisements and other material from KSA campaigns has, however, been retained by the researcher.

3.2.2.2. Interview subjects

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with key people in Saudi official institutions, and in the RTA (now 'RMS'), NSW. Eighteen participants were interviewed in KSA and fifteen participants in NSW (See Appendices E and F for participants' information). A total of thirty three interviewees was purposefully selected for extended interviews. Semi-structured in-depth interviews with key people involved either directly or indirectly in the development and production of road safety campaigns was the principal method for discovering and collecting primary data. The main reason behind identifying and targeting particular groups (such as "campaign designers") is that the information collected from policy makers, media planners and advertising agencies who were directly involved in road safety campaigns was used to understand the campaign producers' point of view concerning campaign development as a process extended in time and involving a range of contributors with varying expertise and knowledge. Other categories of informants such as academics, police and law enforcement officials (who have a more indirect involvement in campaigns), were used as an external reference and touchstone as these are people who are professionally interested in road safety. Opinions from these informants enriches, cross-references and occasionally checks

information presented by participants more directly involved and responsible for campaigns. Variables such as age, sex, marital status, and social position were therefore not given any priority in selecting subjects for interviews. The main priority and characteristic guide in selection was relevance to road traffic campaigns, departmental position, and professional involvement in road safety policy and or campaigns.

Initial contact details of the possible participants were obtained firstly from relevant authorities such as RTA in NSW, and the Department of Public Relations and the Media and Traffic Department in KSA. The rationale behind choosing these departments as start-off points is that these departments are responsible for campaign development in both countries and know all people or departments who are involved in campaigns. They were able to advise the researcher about where the research might commence, and provide key people's names and contact details for those who have been involved in campaigns from different departments or disciplines. Then the snowball technique was used to diversify information sources and avoid gathering information from one group only, such as campaign committee members or campaign departments, and to reach other and more relevant participants based on available information. This technique was beneficial and helpful in reaching most participants. However, some participants, particularly academics, were chosen based on their publications in road safety or social marketing fields, and were contacted using their details on the internet either from their personal web pages or departmental web pages. The potential participants were contacted via email and phone. Appropriate times and places were organised for meetings and interviews. The interviews were conducted in the participants' work offices, homes and public places according to their preferences.

The interviews were conducted face to face. Each interview took between sixty and ninety minutes; the findings and observations were audio recorded and/or recorded in writing. The researcher listened carefully to the audio records and transcribed the materials into written text before Saudi participants' responses were translated into English. The text was reviewed more than once to make sure that the interviewees' responses were written correctly. In some cases, if the answer was not clear, the researcher contacted the interviewee again to receive feedback. In case of any confusion, the transcribed texts were sent to the respective interviewees to double check the authenticity of the interpretation and to make sure that the meanings written were correct.

The semi-structured interview approach with open-ended questions helped to obtain as much information as possible about question topics. The interviewees were provided with the outline of the possible questions, (PIS) and the Consent Form well ahead of time so that they had the opportunity to explore the topics in detail. The materials were mostly sent via

email. Identifying the number of participants or when to stop interviewing in purposive sampling, however, is difficult (Dawson 2002). As a result, the researcher continued conducting interviews with participants from different categories until he reached the “saturation” point. Additional participants tend to start repeating what has been said by other participants in previous interviews (Dawson 2002). This was clearly noticed in the final interviews in fieldwork in both countries.

3.2.2.3. Ethical considerations

Ethics clearance for this project was obtained from the University of Wollongong Human Research Ethics Committee (See Appendix D for Ethics Approval Number HE 11/171). The research was conducted according to the approved guidelines and the recommended practice of standard human subjects research. The Participant Information Sheet (PIS) (see Appendix B) and Consent Form (see Appendix C) were developed and approved by the ethics committee and used consistently throughout the study. If the participants were not willing to sign the consent form for any reason, informed verbal consent was obtained before proceeding with the interview. The date, time and place of the verbal consent were noted by the researcher with the agreement of the interviewee.

As stipulated in the Human Research Ethics Committee approval, the personal identity of participants who wanted to be anonymous was kept confidential throughout the study. This was maintained by giving each participant a unique number or character which was not known to anyone else except the researcher and those directly involved with this research. In case the names of the participating organisations were revealed, it was done so only after proper approval from the organisation. All records of the interviews and identifiable information were maintained under lock and key.

The participants were also given opportunities to review the information they provided and had freedom of choice to approve the use of information by the researcher in an anonymous way to avoid any potential conflicts with their work obligations. This encouraged participants to talk freely. The anonymity and confidentiality of the participants were maintained throughout the study if asked for by participants. As outlined in the PIS, participants were also informed that answering some of the questions may be emotionally sensitive or disturbing particularly for those who might have lost family members or friends in a road traffic accident. Participants were advised that in such a situation, they could avoid answering those particular questions which were sensitive in nature or could refrain from participating in the interview altogether.

3.3. Data analysis using Nvivo 9 software

Choosing the analysis technique or software to be used in data analysis is one of the critical problems facing beginner researchers particularly in qualitative studies (Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2011). Nvivo software is an effective tool for qualitative research that is commonly used by researchers because of its unique features (Godau, Richards & Kuchartz 2004; Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2011). Nvivo 9 software was used as the main tool for analysing semi-structured interview data in this project. Using Nvivo for analysing a large amount of data increases the accuracy and reliability of the analysis as Nvivo has the ability to compare a large amount of data in quick time (Onwuegbuzie & Leech 2007; Bazeley 2006). It also has valuable features such as cause and effect relations between particular themes, “See Also” links and “Memos” which enable the researcher to go deeper than is usually possible with traditional textual analysis (Godau, Richards & Kuchartz 2004). Creating memos and linking them to relevant nodes enables the researcher to write down their observations, thoughts and prompt analysis during the analysis process (Godau, Richards & Kuchartz 2004). Nvivo also has the ability to analyse several kinds of texts including script, recorded material (talk), videos and images (Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2011). However, it must be appreciated that although Nvivo has the aforementioned features which facilitate qualitative research, it does not analyse the data on behalf of the researcher. Rather it helps to find links and connections and control large amounts of data. Thus, most analysis work in Nvivo is done by the researcher (Denzin & Lincoln 2005).

Free nodes or themes were created based on available responses that were given by participants to help the researcher answer research questions (Leech, Onwuegbuzie 2011). However, other themes that were not mentioned in the research questions were created based on topics that were raised by participants in their responses to semi-structured interviews. These themes were also explored during data analysis. The relevant information in each interview was gathered or coded under the relevant node (Leech, Onwuegbuzie 2011). Similar themes or nodes were then gathered in a hierarchical way under the main theme (parent node) (Godau, Richards & Kuchartz 2004). Themes such as “audience”, “campaign development” and “traffic environment” were used as main themes or parent nodes before being broken down to smaller themes such “target audience”, “campaign budget”, “media utilisation in campaigns” and “traffic audience compliance with traffic law” to enable the researcher to code data relevant to a specific theme. Memos were created and linked to nodes to enhance the ability of the researcher to write down his personal observation instantly.

In spite of some minor variation in questions between KSA and NSW as mentioned above, the reliance on standard questions in interviews enabled the researcher to make valid

comparisons by conducting consistent comparison analysis (Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2011). For example, See Also Links, Annotation and Memos were effectively used to record the instant observations or notices by the researcher.

3.4. Methodological limitations in cross-cultural study

Research involving diverse cultures and cultural backgrounds is becoming increasingly important in the globalised world. The need for research interaction and collaboration world-wide has led to greater interest in cross-cultural research (Sireci & Berberoglu 2000). Culture remains an important conceptual construct in many studies conducted in multicultural environments because it helps researchers understand how people vary in their perceptions and attitudes in different cultures (Goodnow 2006).

Cross-cultural studies are complex in nature and may face a number of challenges and difficulties. For example, selflessness and collective preferences may be more important in some cultures than individualistic attitudes which could be more predominant in another culture. This may have impacts on cross-cultural studies (Bochner & Hesketh 1994). The limitations and challenges in cross-cultural research may include, among others, difficulties in data collection and interpretation, chances of bias and lack of conceptual equivalence in language and appropriate interpretation of ideas (Jones 2009; Matsumoto & Juang 2008; Zhang & Lowry 2008). The following sections discuss some of the challenges that may relate to cross-cultural research and outline strategies designed to overcome the challenges.

3.4.1. Limitations in sampling, data collection and analysis of data

Most cross-cultural research examines data from different communities and tries to define the relationship between human behaviour and cultural factors. This is achieved through improving understanding of how people from different cultures try to communicate. However, it is not easy to quantify cultural differences. Because cross-cultural road safety research is relatively new, there has not been any agreed uniform way of data collection and analysis, which poses difficulties in cross-cultural research methodology (Nassif & Gunter 2008; Samiee & Jeong 1994). One important challenge is linked to inaccurate statement of the problems and relevant variables due to language barriers, leading to measurement error (Geisinger 1994). Compiling and collecting road accident statistics is different between KSA and NSW. Again, age categories, for example, may not match exactly, causing difficulties in making cross cultural generalizations. There may be a problem in interpreting participants' responses if sufficient care is not taken in selecting appropriate wording, culturally sensitive

phrasing and accurate translations in interview questions because of the differences in ideas and values that people may have in different cultures.

3.4.2. Limitations relating to differences in ideas and values that construct the level of significance

Although modern technologies and improved communication assist in bringing people of different cultures closer, they may still vary in their abilities in interpreting the materials presented for their opinions, raising the issue of validity. The validity issue asks the question: "Does the measure assess the same constructs in the new language or culture?" (Geisinger 1992 p 304-312). This concern will be addressed by an independent back-translation of the interview questions or any other instrument used in the methodology "to ensure that the new instrument assesses the same meanings or constructs with the same degree of accuracy" in both the target populations. Further validity tests may be employed.

The interpretation issue may be another important concern. Respondents may fail to interpret the meanings of the measuring codes used in questions, and investigators may fail to understand the linguistic and cultural differences that may exist between the two cultures being compared, resulting in inaccurate interpretations. The researcher in this project has knowledge of the cultures of both country settings which helped in finding functional equivalences and in reducing chances of intercultural misunderstandings and pitfalls (Douglas & Craig 1983).

3.4.3. Limitations relating to differences in institutional arrangements and governance

There is a problem of methodological bias in data collection in different countries and cultures mainly due to administrative procedures. Administrations and institutions may adopt different ways of data collection and maintenance resulting in differences in the mode and availability of data. Factors such as groupings, timings, variables including speed limits, road networks and the like may be set differently in different countries and will have impacts on both the quality and quantity of data, making comparison difficult. It has been acknowledged that in many developing countries adequate data is not available; and when available it is also not easy to identify and access data because it is not kept systematically. This makes comparative research between a developing and a developed country difficult (Al-Ghamdi 2003a; Al-Shammari et al. 2009; Bendak 2005).

Methodological bias can affect many measurement factors (Marsh & Byrne 1993). In NSW for example, RTA deals with all matters of traffic conditions and road safety, including

campaign design and maintenance (RTA 2009a), whereas in the KSA no single department is responsible for road safety matters. The Department of Public Relations and Media controls all social marketing campaign issues whether they relate to road safety or crimes. It is obviously necessary that a thorough consideration of cultural issues that are related to traffic matters is carried out before any conclusions can be derived in a comparative study between two cultures (Ozkan, Lajunen, Chliaoutakis, Parker & Summalaa 2006).

3.5. Method III: Semiotic analysis

In this research project, the object of research for semiotic analysis is the advertising texts or content produced for the four case studies investigated. Semiotics, that is to say, is applied to the textual content of advertising content, and approaches the content as a complex structure which is intended to be meaningful for its audience. Although advertising texts are intangible and often not available for review after a campaign has been run, the analyst typically makes recordings of televisual, cinematic and audio material, and reference copies of display ads, whether they were outdoor, newspaper or magazine displays. It is these texts which are typically composed of a variety of signifiers that are subject to thorough deconstruction. While it is true that the context of an ad may affect reader's appreciation and reaction to it (think of a large cinema screen compared with representation on a mobile phone screen), in this project because the focus is on content which has been removed from public view, the analysis is confined to the visual content of the ads, understood broadly as noted in chapter 1. The limitations in this approach are recognised.

Semiotic analysis offers the researcher a way of analysing the campaign content selected as texts, and once the analysis is done, the communicative values of the texts may be related back to the campaign formation process. The method is thus a process which takes texts at face value and then links findings to the context of production. Semiotics is valuable in laying texts bare for scrutiny, and providing opportunities for a further examination of the way these texts are embedded in a formation process and shaped by the dynamics of their production and intended meaning.

3.5.1. Justification of the chosen TVCs and advertising

There were more than one potential behind selecting particular advertisements from KSA and NSW road safety campaigns for semiotic analysis. While the justification for KSA choices will be presented in the first part of this section before justification of NSW choices, there were common factors behind these choices from both settings. The shared reason is that the selected advertisements from both settings were chosen from road safety

campaigns that were selected for case study as were justified above. The reason for choosing from these campaigns was that in-depth analysis for these campaigns will give the researcher more understanding for all aspects of a campaign which will assist in semiotic analysis of advertisements based on deep analysis of other aspects of the campaign such as theme, target audience, budget, objectives and utilised media. Understanding these factors by the researcher will help in avoiding bias as it will make his judgment or analysis of these campaigns advertisements reliant on data rather than guesswork.

For KSA; however, selected advertisements were those which were published in newspapers or adapted and used as outdoor, roadside displays, recalling that newspaper readership is high in the KSA and that print ads and outdoor advertising have significant reach (See Table 2.1). For example, forty two percent of the public reported that they knew about the “Your security is our aim” campaign in 2000 from newspapers and roadside signs (Directorate of Public Security 2001). Eighty percent of the “Enough” campaign audiences reported they were aware of and affected by shock images in campaign ads displayed in newspapers and roadside signs. Newspaper and outdoor displays ads have high repetition, and thus in this section the attention is directed to what can be considered as the key or most important advertising content of the campaigns selected.

On the other hand, only one advertisement per campaign will be analysed in the NSW case studies as each campaign included one main advertisement produced in two versions: one motion advertisement for TV and one non-motion advertisement for other types of media such as newspapers, billboards and backs of buses, unlike the KSA case where campaigns usually included more than one advertisement (See RTA 2011a; RMS 2012b; Ministry of Interior 2001; Ministry of Interior 2006b).

The non-motion or graphic advertisements in the “Pinkie” and “Wake up to the signs” campaigns will be chosen and compared with KSA’s case study advertisements. Although there are no clear figures in NSW about which type of advertisements in chosen campaigns were recalled more by audiences, (either TV advertisement or non-motion advertisements including newspapers, magazines, back of buses and billboards), it is reasonable to assume that audiences’ exposure to non-motion advertisements was greater than TV as such advertisements were available everywhere at anytime. TV was only available at home or the office for a few seconds twice or three times a day. As a result, analysing non-motion advertisements means analysing advertisements which had maximum exposure.

3.6. Methods for searching and appraising grey literature and primary data

Grey literature is a hidden mine of gold for researchers that is not easily located by most researchers as it is not commercially distributed or published (Frederiksen 2008). Ryan and Soule (1995) defined grey literature as "foreign or domestic open source material that usually is available through specialised channels and may not enter normal channels or systems of publication, distribution, bibliographic control, or acquisition by booksellers or subscription agents." Examples of grey literature are conference proceedings, working papers, governmental and non-governmental organisations reports, statistics and raw data (Frederiksen 2008). Grey literature was included in this research by adopting different methods to obtain such important sources.

For example, archival research of official publications such as annual statistical reports published by the Ministry of the Interior in KSA, accidents statistics reports by RTA in NSW/ Australia and Department of Transport and Main Roads (TMR)/ QLD Australia was conducted to investigate cultural factors that contribute to road traffic accidents and evaluate their impacts. Institutional research aimed to explore the political, economic and professional perspectives and practices of road safety campaign through a review of scholarly literature, archival research (both print and online), interviews and an examination of the content and nature of campaign advertisements using publications by relevant department such as Department of Public Relations and Media in Directorate of Public Security, Riyadh, KSA, and RTA library in NSW. More research for the primary data was conducted through archives or online for several organisations in both settings to obtain some important statistics from primary sources such as Central Department of Statistics & Information in KSA, Ministry of Culture and Information, Ministry of Economic and Planning and Ministry of Health in KSA, and NSW Centre for Road Safety, Customedia (media planning company), Australian Bureau Statistics and Department of Transport and Main Roads in Australia.

The researcher was also guided by suggestions from participants and academics interested and experienced in the road safety field in both settings about the best websites and conferences for grey literature including published and unpublished papers of road safety conferences and institutional publications in both Saudi Arabia and Australia. The researcher also carried out his own research for grey literature using online searches and by relying on sources used in relevant publications as noted in their bibliographies. Deciding which articles/reports from the grey literature should be used was based on their relevance to this study and their quality. As it turned out, apart from statistical reports, most of the grey literature used was peer-reviewed papers or cited frequently in similar articles in the road

safety field. Examples of sources that were referred to in order to find the grey literature include First Conference for Road Safety, 20-23 Dec 1997, Riyadh, K.S.A, Australasian Road Safety Research, Policing & Education Conference, 28th – 30th August 2013, Brisbane, Queensland, National Traffic Safety Committee (NTSC), Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Al-Mururiya (road safety journal), Centre for Accident Research and Road safety (CARRSQ), Monash University Accident Research Centre, Melbourne, Journal of the Australasian College of Road Safety and Federal Office of Road Safety. These are representative examples, please refer to reference list to view a full list of empirical and grey sources used in this research.

3.7. Conclusion

The mix of qualitative methods relied on in this project, which included case studies, semi-structured interviews and semiotic analysis has been discussed in this chapter. Justifications for the selection of methods used in this project including their strengths and weaknesses were reviewed. While there are limitations to the methods applied in this project, the researcher took steps to compensate for or avoid those limitations where possible. In this comparative study, it was the relationships between a range of cultural, historical, policy and environmental factors that was considered to be important to study in-depth, and for that reason, a qualitative approach, despite acknowledged limitations, was adopted as it promised to deliver the insiders' perspective on the relations and factors that appeared to be most significant. Four campaigns (two from each setting) were chosen as case studies for in-depth analysis. The campaigns were selected based on a carefully chosen set of criteria such as campaign themes and the availability and richness of background, critical, evaluative and scholarly material. The semi-structured interviews questions were designed by the researcher and piloted in mock interviews with supervisors. The researcher complied with all protocols required by the Human Ethics Research Committee, University of Wollongong in relation to this research. Thirty three participants, selected on the basis of their role in campaign preparation, design and implementation, or professional or scholarly interest in the field were interviewed in both KSA and NSW. A "snow ball" technique was used to identify many participants in both settings, while others were reached using their web pages or work contact details.

The focus on published campaigns provided an independent check of whether or not, historically, practitioners had addressed their campaigns to specific audiences, and whether or not the address to specific audiences was inscribed in campaign textual content. Semiotics was considered well suited for this kind of analysis, as it can be used in the analysis of complex televisual and printed texts, and can assist the researcher gauge to

what extent the ideas about the target audience, and how best to communicate with that audience, are inscribed in and structure the campaign text/s. The recorded data from interviews was transcribed into MS Word documents before it was analysed using Nvivo 9 software. Nvivo is a powerful analytic tool that has proven itself across many projects in enabling researchers to reduce the complexity of ethnographic data and track key topics. Interview transcripts were investigated using themes drawn from interview topics and based on the research questions before relevant statements were coded under each theme. Limitations that arise in cross-cultural studies were also discussed in this chapter. It is obvious that some aspects of cross-cultural comparison between KSA and NSW may be difficult, but by clarifying these challenges early on in the project, the researcher was able to pragmatically address these matters and guard against biased outcomes which derived from a lack of comparative research awareness. Various types of grey literature sources have been used in this project using different methods for selecting them. In the following three chapters, the findings from this project will be presented and discussed.

Chapter Four: Findings and Discussion: Differences in campaign Formation between KSA and NSW

This thesis analyses the formation of road safety campaigns in NSW and KSA with a particular focus on target audience selection and effective communication with target audiences. In order to answer the three key research questions introduced in the literature review chapter, the findings from four case studies will be presented and discussed: “Pinkie” and “Wake up to the signs” in NSW and “Let’s not lose our lives” and “Enough” in KSA. These case studies are analysed using the mixed methods introduced in chapter 3, including archival research, semiotic analysis and semi-structured interviews with campaign policy makers, producers and designers. The findings are presented in 3 chapters, each addressing one of the key research questions. Chapter 4 focuses on comparisons in campaign formation between KSA and NSW, chapter 5 focuses on target audience selection and chapter 6 focuses on visual and textual communication elements. Thus, in this chapter the discussion will address the first main research question: What are the key differences between KSA and NSW in road safety campaign formation?

The discussion of the general question in this chapter as well as in each findings chapter will be divided into several sections, each answering one sub-question. This chapter will start by comparing the administrative differences in campaign development between KSA and NSW. The selection of road safety campaign themes will be explored and discussed. Differences in choosing road safety campaign objectives will be investigated. Differences related to campaign budgets and sources of funds will be also discussed. Differences in road safety advertisement design will be explored along with how media utilised in road safety campaigns are selected, and the basis of the selection will be investigated before the chapter concludes with a discussion of differences in campaign evaluation between KSA and NSW.

4.1. Producer perspectives on campaign development

The information discussed in this section will assist in answering the sub-question 1 A: Are there any administrative differences between KSA and NSW, including the departments and personnel responsible for developing road safety campaigns?

What has become clear in the course of this research is that there is a significant difference in departmental organisation and responsibilities for campaigns in KSA and NSW. In the KSA, the Department of Public Relations and Media under the Directorate of Public Security

is responsible for developing many different kinds of campaigns. Alsamrany (2011) noted that the Department of Public Relations and Media has over twenty major responsibilities in the Public Relations and publishing area, and that the department is also responsible for road safety, security and the Hajj and Umrah campaigns:

There are some campaigns, such as the Summer Program, which are usually implemented during school holidays. In addition, we have Hajj and Umrah [religious pilgrimage] programs, which is another issue in order to educating pilgrims or those who come to do Umrah, or the visit to the two Holy Mosques (Personal interview, Saad Alasmay, Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011).

It emerged that these responsibilities are too much for one department, and that the pressure to complete such a wide range of widely differing campaigns each year, with limited resources, leads the department to rely on its own resources in developing campaigns, and may lead them to execute campaigns in a slapdash way as they do not have enough time, budget and expertise to do better:

The large number of tasks that the Department of Public Relations and Media is responsible for including different types of campaigns with their low budget is one of different reasons that impede their ability to produce effective campaigns (Personal communication, Khaled Albisher, Naif Arab University for Security Sciences, 21/6/2011).

It was also discovered that the Department of Public Relations and Media under the Directorate of Public Security is a police department headed by a police officer and that the majority of its staff are police officers with military training (Alsamrany 2011). In contrast, police forces or people who are military trained have a very limited, consultative role in NSW campaigns:

We don't have a technical role in campaign designing, our role is limited to consultations by RTA about the targeted traffic violation and law enforcement activities during the road safety campaign to support their efforts (Personal communication, John Hartley, Command Traffic services, NSW Police, 22/5/2012).

In NSW, however, a special department in RTA (now 'RMS') is responsible for developing road safety campaigns. The RTA tender campaigns to expert and specialist research, advertising and media companies for further development (Personal interview, Tina Gallagher, Transport of NSW, 24/9/2012; Personal interview, John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA 16/5/ 2012). In the KSA, on the other hand, most aspects of campaigns are designed and executed by the police department in-house which has limited expertise in relevant areas, and thus only a vague and poorly informed understanding of the characteristics of target audiences (Ameen Saeed, Manager of Central Media Committee

previously, 29/5/2011). These constraints are likely to negatively affect campaign effectiveness, as LE1 is aware:

Road safety campaigns in KSA will be efficient if the full campaign is designed by a specialist company. At the moment, the department which designs the campaign has no specialist skills, such as would a media or advertising agency with an academic background grounded in empirical methods, rather the educational background of most of its staff is police or military background (Personal interview, LE1, Riyadh Traffic Department, 30/5/2011).

Surprisingly, KSA authorities acknowledge the gap between the police organisation and audiences: "The major objectives for all campaigns are explaining the negative effects of traffic accidents on society and building bridges of confidence between traffic police and audiences" (Personal interview, Ali Alrasheedi, Manager of Safety Division in General Traffic Department, 5/6/2011).

Hence, it seems that the Department of Public Relations and Media in KSA is neither the optimal delivery agent nor developer for campaigns (Alsamrany 2011). It is part of the problem, if you will, which may lead audiences to turn off anything that comes through this department (Dweedar 1995). For example, younger drivers particularly, see the police as agents who give them tickets and take their money, and for this audience, the department is unacceptable, and anything it may produce or offer by way of advice is treated with suspicion (Personal communication, Baker Ibraheem, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 13/6/2011). In NSW, on the other hand, the RTA is not a police or law enforcement department which may make the department and its campaigns acceptable by audiences. What emerged here is consistent with Dweedar (1995) who claimed that the message source has impact on message acceptance by audiences.

It was discovered that a broad, long term strategy for road safety plays a significant role in directing the choice of particular campaign themes in NSW, and that road safety campaigns are considered as tools in this broad strategy that along with other factors, will help to create safer roads for all:

There is the vision of what you want to achieve over a long period of time which is usually expressed in terms of road safety strategies. That strategy will have elements that indicate what can be done to address speeding or seat belt wearing for example. And then as part of those specific campaigns, there will be publicity advertising and education components that would model the processes New South Wales traffic authorities have followed since the 90s (Personal interview, Ian Faulks, Partner, Safety and Policy Analysis International, 31/5/2012).

This practice of long term planning is in line with Capek & Sloup's (2003) argument that integrating road safety campaigns with other road safety interventions can lead to a greater impact on target audiences. In the KSA, however, interviews have revealed that long term strategic planning on how to address the road accident problem in KSA is under-developed, and that campaign producers pay little attention to what planning has been developed (Personal communication, Ameen Saeed, Manager of Central Media Committee previously, 29/5/2011). Responsible departments tend to act in isolation, and work on a year by year plan. An integrated, national strategy for a long-term, integrated approach to road safety is missing:

Planning for 5 years and creating a fixed strategy for a campaign, is difficult. However, we have a plan for one year ahead, which might be changed or modified according to traffic or security circumstances (Personal interview, Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, 7/6/2011).

Unsurprisingly perhaps, given the multiple responsibilities the Department of Public Relations and Media is assigned by the Directorate of Public Security, it was found that KSA campaign developers tend to cram campaigns with multiple messages:

We don't have a campaign for one theme but our campaigns focus mostly on traffic accidents, and then there is the security theme. Recently, we have introduced the security aspect, such as theft, because of people's complaints about it. We also added information technology crimes to the most recent campaign. Thus we had three aspects for this last campaign: traffic, security, and information technology security (Personal interview, Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, 7/6/2011).

In NSW, however, it was found that campaigns focused just on road safety, and were structured in terms of just one theme. "We are responsible for road safety campaigns only and we focus on one single issue per campaign" (Personal communication, Mr John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA (RMS now) 16/5/ 2012).

Another significant difference in campaign development between KSA and NSW that has become clear in this research is that NSW authorities usually take a long-term approach in campaign running:

In some campaigns, we can sort of naturally link up together. If you're looking at a campaign like "Driver Fatigue," there is a sequence to that sort of idea. For instance, that campaign has been used for 15 years or so. A general message, *Stop Revive Survive*, is just branding for fatigue in this State now. So the public already has some education about fatigue, everyone has some understanding of driver fatigue these days (Personal interview, Mr John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA 16/5/ 2012).

In KSA, however, it was found that the long term approach is not part of Saudi campaign formation practice. Most campaigns only continue for either one month or three months (Personal interview, Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, 7/6/2011). Short campaigns in KSA finish very soon after launch and vanish from audience's minds equally quickly, as the short running period limits campaign messages reaching target audiences and minimises their impact on audiences' risky behaviour (Abu-Ismaiel 2007).

Finally, this researcher's interview with an academic specialist in road safety identified a range of problems in campaign development in the KSA:

- KSA campaigns have many problems such as following;
- 1- Officials or high rank managers are not convinced by campaign effectiveness
 - 2- Most people responsible or working in campaigns are not specialists
 - 3- Mistakes occur in campaign preparation, including not using appropriate delivery mediums.
 - 4- Mistakes are made in targeting campaign's audiences. Target audiences are not selected carefully, nor are they studied deeply including their culture, values and educational levels.
 - 5- Departments do not evaluate campaign effectiveness in a scholarly manner
 - 6- Campaigns do not run long enough
 - 7- Financial difficulties affect all aspects of development
- So I think the campaigns are run only to show up in media and say that we do this or that campaign (Personal interview, Khaled Albisher, Naif Arab University for Security Sciences, 21/6/2011).

These comments are partly consistent with Alsamrany (2011) as points 1, 2, 3 and 4 were mentioned by him as problems in KSA campaigns.

4.1.1. Summary: Producer Perspectives on campaign development

There are significant administrative differences between KSA and NSW pertaining to campaign development and practices. What has emerged is that campaign formation in KSA is very far from the orderly, cooperative process of planning and development as described in the scholarly literature reviewed in chapter 2. In KSA, multiple responsibilities and a lack of relevant expertise among personnel affects the formation process and detracts from an informed focus on road safety priorities. While the Department of Public Relations and Media in KSA is responsible for road safety campaigns on top of a large number of other tasks, a special department in RTA is responsible for road safety campaigns only. In KSA, the Department of Public Relations and Media's personnel who contribute to and design the campaign have police and military training and backgrounds. In NSW, however, police have only a very limited consultative role in NSW road safety campaigns. The NSW campaigns have been tendered for specialist advertising and media companies whereas

road safety campaigns in KSA internally designed by the Department of Public Relations and Media. The differences in selecting road safety campaign themes will be explored in the following section.

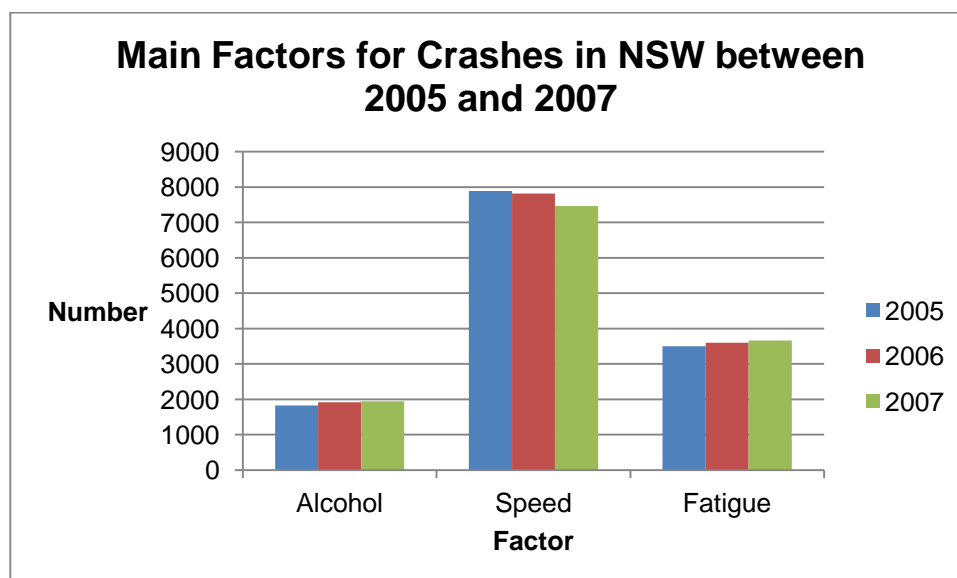
4.2. Differences in selecting road safety campaign themes between KSA and NSW

Here the discussion will compare the data in four case study campaigns and findings from interviews. The discussion presented in this section will aid in answering sub-question 1 B: Do the themes selected for road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW target risky behaviours that are justified by road safety statistics?

4.2.1. NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”

Speed was selected as the sole theme of the “Pinkie” campaign in 2007 as speed was a causal factor in 40 percent of annual fatal crashes in NSW in recent years, and resulted in 1048 deaths between 2002 and 2006 (RTA 2007a and RTA n.d a). In NSW in 2005 and 2006 about 37 percent and 40 percent of fatal crashes respectively were linked to speeding (RTA 2005 and 2006a). Speed- related crashes resulted in more than 4200 injuries and cost the community about \$780 million each year (RTA 2011o).

Figure 4.1: Main factors for road crashes in NSW between 2005 and 2007



Source: RTA 2005, 2006a and 2007

Figure 4.1 shows the main factors for road accidents in NSW between 2005 and 2007. Although the responsibility of speed for road accidents slightly decreased over the three years, it is clear that speeding was the highest contributor to road accidents compared to the other two factors (Alcohol and Fatigue). Thus based on given statistics, it can be said that choosing speed as the sole theme for “Pinkie” campaign is totally justified by statistics and was the right choice to be targeted at that time.

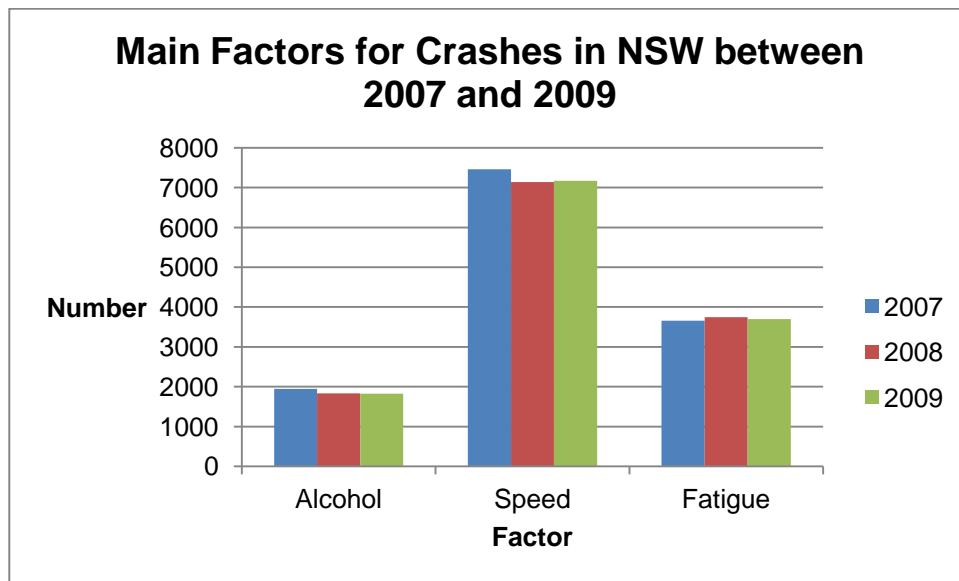
4.2.2. NSW case study 2: “Wake Up to the Signs”

Traffic safety regulations are legislated to enable the police to enforce compliance with traffic laws and save lives. Some risk factors, however, are hard to measure and monitor by police which makes them a significant threat to people’s lives. Driver fatigue, for example, is a complex problem due to the lack of legislation to regulate the issue, in contrast to speeding and drink driving where objective measures exist and can be relied upon (Dobbie 2002). Thus an advertising campaign is perhaps the only available strategy to address driver fatigue (RMS 2012b). This makes the objective of targeting fatigue more critical for road safety campaign producers than other themes which can be addressed in a number of ways and supported by law enforcement (Dobbie 2002).

The “Wake up to the signs” campaign was launched firstly by the Department of Transport and Main Roads (TMR) in Queensland (QLD) in September 2009 to outline the symptoms of driver fatigue and to give road users instructions as to how to address such issues (Transport and Main Roads of Queensland [TMR] 2012b). The campaign was successful and had a positive impact on QLD’s drivers (RMS 2012b). This success, and the campaign’s fit with NSW Roads and Maritime Services’ (RMS) fatigue objectives, target audience and key messages, led RMS to use most elements of the campaign to deliver the fatigue awareness message to NSW drivers (RMS 2012b). However, although some points of the QLD campaign will be discussed and compared with the NSW fatigue campaign, and other KSA campaigns, most discussion and analysis concerning this campaign will be focused on the NSW campaign as the study focus.

Driver fatigue resulted in 20 percent of fatal crashes in 2007, and is considered as the third main major contributor to the road toll in NSW, after speeding and drink driving (see Figure 4.2) (RMS 2012b; RTA 2007b; RTA 2008b, RTA 2009b).

Figure 4.2: Main factors for road crashes in NSW between 2007 and 2009



Source: RTA 2007b, 2008b and 2009b

Figure 4.2 shows the main factors for road crashes in NSW between 2007 and 2009. It is clear that besides being the third highest contributor to fatal crashes in NSW, fatigue resulted in about double the road accidents caused by alcohol, which may result in more casualties. Therefore, it can be said that choosing such an important theme was justified by statistics and literature. The fatigue theme, however, has not been targeted by KSA producers so far, and is not included in official statistics of causes of road accidents, although it might have caused many road accidents in KSA (See Ministry of Interior 2010; 2011; 2012). This may contribute to the public and the police alike having limited understanding of the significance of fatigue as a risk factor, as neither group is well informed about tell-tale signs.

4.2.3. KSA case study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”

The campaign “Let’s not lose our lives” was the second campaign of a comprehensive four-part campaign implemented in KSA between 2000 and 2003 (Ministry of Interior 2001). Two thematic concerns including road safety, security or drugs were covered in each of these four comprehensive campaigns (Ministry of Interior 2000, 2001, 2003, 2004). However as the focus of this thesis is on road safety campaigns, only the road safety theme of the campaign will be discussed here.

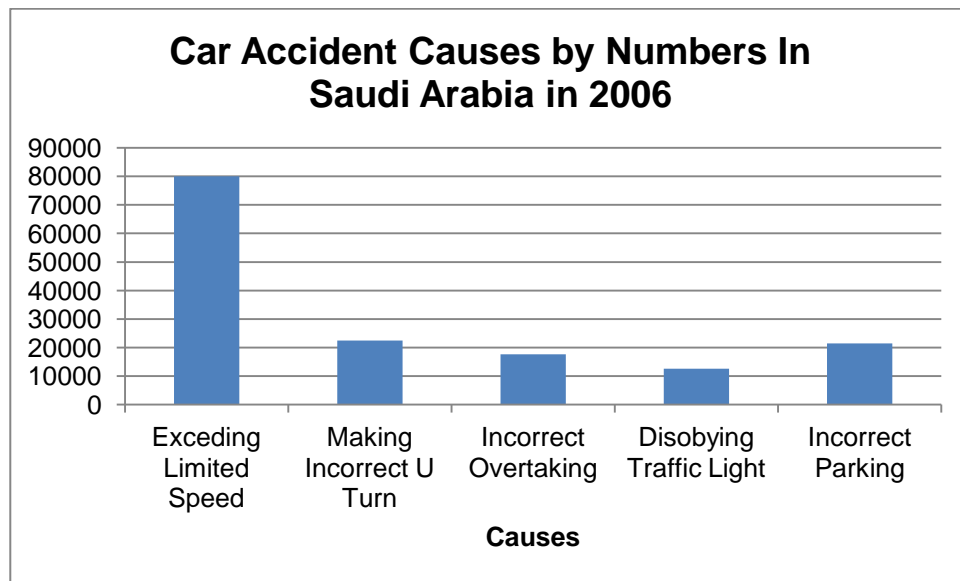
The campaign focused on speed as its main theme for road safety because it is one of the main causes of road accidents in KSA according to official statistics (Ministry of Interior 2001). Prior to 2000, however, the lack of statistics for government organisations including Traffic Department statistics, is a widespread problem in most developing countries including KSA (Al-Saif 1997). As a result, previous literature will be reviewed to find the relevant statistics to allow investigation of the validity of using speed as a key campaign theme and the validity of choosing target audiences in this campaign.

Speed violations were predominant in the KSA between 1984 and 1996 and together with disobeying traffic lights speed represented 25 percent of overall traffic violations in KSA during that period (Al-Ghamdi 1999 p 38). However, the number of speed violations related to road accidents decreased from 59.5 percent in the 1970s to 41.48 in the 1990s (Al-Ghamdi 1999). Thus, it can be said that although choosing speed as the campaign theme was partly justified by statistics, speed has decreased as a cause of road accidents year by year since the 1970s. In contrast, wrong-overtaking violations for road accidents almost doubled in the same period, rising from 6 percent to 11.47 percent (Al-Ghamdi 1997 p 20-23).

4.2.4. KSA case study 2: “Enough”

Speed and disobeying traffic lights were the themes in the “Enough” campaign, as the highest percentage of traffic violations and road accidents in the KSA are due to these two issues (Ministry of Interior 2006b). While choosing speed as a campaign theme is justified by statistics, disobeying traffic lights as a traffic violation and as a cause of road accidents was not particularly high as described in the campaign brief compared to other violations or causes (see Figure 4.3 and 4.4). Speeding was responsible for 32.9 percent of road accidents in the KSA in 2006 (see Figure 4.3). Disobeying traffic lights, however, was only responsible for 5.1 percent of road accidents in 2006 while incorrect overtaking caused 7.2 percent of road accidents in 2006 (see Figure 4.3).

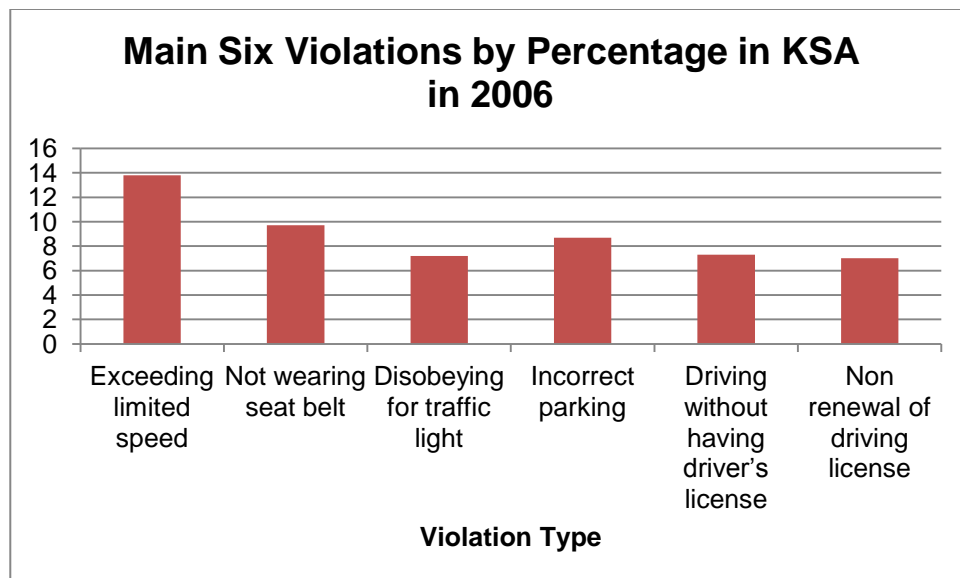
Figure 4.3: Car accident causes in KSA in 2006



Source: Ministry of Interior 2006a

About 14 percent of overall traffic violations in KSA in 2006, on the other hand, were speed violations while just 6 percent were disobeying traffic light violations. Not wearing seat belt violations, however, were 12 percent in 2006 (see Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4: Main six violations in KSA in 2006



Source: Ministry of Interior 2006a

Thus, although speeding seems to be well chosen to be a campaign theme, it is not clear

why disobeying traffic lights was targeted as it was of low importance compared to wearing seat belt and incorrect overtaking.

4.2.5. Summary: Differences in selecting road safety campaign themes between KSA and NSW

It can be said that while road safety campaigns in both KSA and NSW campaigns are driven by road safety statistics, the selection of themes for NSW campaigns is more nuanced and totally based on statistics, in contrast to selection practices in KSA where some themes are statistically justified but others not. Road safety campaigns in NSW focus on only one theme whereas KSA campaigns target more than one theme in a single campaign. In the next section, the differences between KSA and NSW concerning road safety campaign objectives will be explored.

4.3. Analysis of campaign objectives

In this section, the choice of road safety campaign objectives will be presented and discussed in order to answer sub-question 1 C: Do road safety campaign producers in KSA and NSW set measurable objectives for campaigns?

4.3.1. NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”

Clear Identification of campaign objectives is very significant for a campaign’s success (Assaf 1976). In the “Pinkie” campaign three main objectives were identified:

- A- Increase the social unacceptability of speeding.
- B- Undermine young drivers’ perceived pay-off for speeding (peer approval).
- C- Empower the community to encourage drivers not to speed (RTA n.d a and RTA 2007a).

Although measurable and quantitative objectives are usually easier for campaign evaluation including speeding campaigns (Alenad 1990), the “Pinkie” campaign seems different to previous speeding campaigns which aimed at providing the driver with information about the risks of speeding, including consequences for the speeder, his family or society; or giving the driver information about speeding penalties (Watsford 2008). In contrast, the “Pinkie” campaign adopted a social approach aiming to empower people in making their own choices and decisions (Watsford 2008). Although qualitative objectives were used in the “Pinkie” campaign, however, it did not affect campaign evaluation either by producers or other researchers who used different approaches to measure qualitative objectives (See

RTA 2007 a; RTA n.d a; RTA n.d b; RTA n.d c). The campaign aimed to make speeding “uncool” among young males by encouraging the community to demonstrate the social unacceptability of speeding (RTA 2007a). The objective was not just to highlight the risk of speeding or its legal implications, but rather to create a normative approach and empower community demonstrations of the social unacceptability of speeding (Watsford 2008). This was justified because driving was understood as a form of social activity and as involving personal choice (Romano, Peck & Voas 2012). Voluntary adherence to speed limits was thus important in order to achieve long term road safety benefits rather than short term effectiveness which may be reflected by limited changes in death toll or injuries statistics during the campaign, or the few months following the campaign. The “Pinkie” campaign focused on anti-speeding specifically by looking into attitudes and behaviours of young adult male drivers which included “poor risk perception, impulsiveness, sensation seeking and showing-off” (Redshaw 2008). Therefore, it can be said that the campaign objectives were indeed closely linked to the campaign’s target audiences and theme.

4.3.2. NSW case study 2: “Wake up to the signs”

Two main objectives were identified for the “Wake up to the signs” campaign in NSW. The campaign aimed at increasing drivers’ awareness of the signs or symptoms of fatigue and of the dangers of driving while fatigued (RMS 2012b). The campaign also aimed to remind drivers of the need to take regular rest breaks and stop before tiredness sets in (RMS 2012b).

Although it is hard to measure awareness levels (Alenad 1990), increasing the awareness of audiences about fatigue through the road safety campaign is the only way to address the fatigue problem due to the lack of regulations and devices that measure fatigue as discussed previously. Thus, it is clear that the campaign objectives defined the problem clearly and suggested the right solution for the audience (Hoekstra & Wegman 2011). Indeed, both the “Wake up to signs” and “Pinkie” objectives included this element. In short, the campaign objectives were clearly related to the campaign theme.

4.3.3. KSA case Study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”

“Let’s not lose our lives” had two types of objectives (Ministry of Interior 2001):

1- General objectives

- A- Raising the level of security and traffic awareness through establishing a feeling of security and stimulating individual and collective responsibility for the benefit of the society and as a national obligation.

- B- Building confidence between society and the police and reinforcing the efforts to prevent crimes and limit car accidents through proper society-police relations.

2- Special objectives

- A- Addressing speed as the main cause of car accidents according to the statistics.
- B- Addressing drug use (Ministry of Interior 2001).

Reading the campaign objectives in terms of road safety, they appear to be too broad. Each general objective needs sub-objectives to clarify the main objective and indicate how the objectives might be achieved. Both general and special objectives are expressed in such a way that they are incapable of measurement which makes evaluating campaign impacts difficult if not impossible (Khadoor 2007). “Feeling[s] of security”, for example, are hard to measure (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985). As noted above, the majority of specialists in the field are agreed that road safety campaigns are usually directed at modifying or influencing audience behaviour (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989). While the campaign aimed at addressing speed as the main reason for car accidents, the way of addressing this phenomenon such as by law enforcement, use of technology (speed cameras), rewarding safer drivers or through modifying behaviour is not mentioned which makes the methods that might be used to fulfil this objective unclear (Donovan & Henley 2003; Rothschild 1999).

Given that it is easier to evaluate the achievement of quantitative objectives (Abu-Ismaiel 2007), it is noticeable that there is no clear target or goal that is to be achieved by the campaign in terms of intervening in speeding. Although the campaign theme was mentioned in the campaign objectives, campaign audiences are not mentioned at all which raises the question whom these objectives actually target? Summing up, the “Let’s not lose our lives” campaign appears to be a victim of the poor formation of campaign objectives and a lack of specificity (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985). In discussion in chapter 6, it will be shown in the semiotic analysis of selected ads that the vagueness of setting objectives in the campaign formation process was responsible for advertisements that were not focussed on offering solutions and were even ambiguous.

4.3.4. KSA case Study 2: “Enough”

The “Enough” campaign had two main objectives, expressed as general and special objectives, as follows (Ministry of Interior 2006b).

The general objective of the campaign was:

- Spreading traffic awareness as it was planned to achieve traffic safety (Ministry of Interior 2006b).

Alenad has stressed that good objectives are not narrowly focused. Good objectives consider general objectives for the organisation and the capacities of the producers (Alenad 1990). Spreading traffic awareness was nominated as a general objective for the campaign as it was also a general goal for the Traffic Department. Speed and disobeying traffic lights were nominated as special objectives ostensibly because they were identified as key problems in statistical analysis of accidents.

The special objective was:

- Embodiment of traffic safety through deepening of traffic awareness by focusing on speed and disobeying of traffic lights as the main violations and major reasons for traffic accidents in all KSA regions according to statistics (Ministry of Interior 2006b).

The development of the campaign's objectives appears to have been based on insufficient or incorrect information and perhaps a lack of research. Speed and traffic light violations were claimed by the campaign producers to be high profile violations and major reasons for traffic accidents across all regions in KSA (Ministry of Interior 2006b). As it has been noted, however, speed was responsible for only 11 percent of road accidents in the Makkah region in 2006, whilst 83 percent of road accidents in the Alqurayyat region in the same year were because of speed (Ministry of Interior 2006a).

As campaign objectives must be clear and measurable to facilitate evaluation (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985), it is a weakness of the "Enough" campaign that neither the general nor the special objectives were measurable, suggesting that it might have been better to develop quantitative objectives to make campaign evaluation easier and clearer. Again, in chapter 6 semiotic analysis of ads from the "Enough" campaign show that the confusion in the definition of campaign objectives in the formation process resulted eventually in ads that did not deliver the producer's preferred messages about changing speeding behaviour.

4.3.5. Producer perspectives on campaign objectives

The focus in this section is on differences in choosing campaign objectives between NSW and KSA. Whether or not chosen objectives in both settings are measurable, and the impact of the kind of objectives chosen on campaign evaluation will be examined. Significant differences were found in setting campaign objectives between KSA and NSW and in producers' assessment of the importance of setting measurable objectives for campaigns. Campaign producers in NSW think that it is very important to have measurable objectives for road safety campaigns: "I think [campaign objectives] should always be measurable, if you're not setting measurable objectives you're not doing it right" (Personal interview, Mr John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA 16/5/ 2012). Counterparts in KSA, however, think

it is not necessary to have measurable objectives: "It is not necessary to have measurable objectives all of the time" (Personal interview, Ali Algammas, Head of Awareness Section in Department of Public Relations and Media 8/6/2011).

These quite different conceptions reflect on campaign producers' practices concerning campaign objectives in both settings. In KSA, for example, the main objectives for campaigns tend to be vague, broad and unmeasurable: "The main objective in every campaign is enhancing traffic safety perception. The secondary objective is based on the particular campaign theme" (Personal interview, Ameen Saeed, Manager of Central Media Committee previously, 29/5/2011). And again:

The major objectives for all campaigns is explaining the negative effects of traffic accidents on society, and building bridges of confidence between traffic police and audiences. However, each campaign has its own special objectives under the main ones, such as educating people about speed dangerousness or disobeying traffic regulations (Personal interview, Ali Alrasheedi, Manager of Safety Division in General Traffic Department, 5/6/2011).

In NSW, on the other hand, the main objectives are narrow, focused and measurable in most cases which may assist campaign development and evaluation, and consequently lead to a great impact on target audiences:

Objectives vary a lot from campaign to campaign. In general, what we're really aiming for is that you're actually changing people's behaviour by informing them that we have new methods of enforcement. So it is in their best interest to halt their drink driving or speeding behaviours, and to enhance their seatbelt wearing practices (Personal interview, Soames Job, Executive Director National Road Safety Council (Australia) and former manager for NSW Centre for Road Safety in RTA 16/5/2012).

TfNSW [Transport for New South Wales] is committed to reducing the number of deaths and injuries on our roads. This is the overall objective for road safety campaigns (i.e., speeding, drink driving, and seatbelts). This will contribute to a reduction in the road toll. The NSW Government 2021 plan has a goal to "improve road safety" by reducing fatalities to 4.3 per 100,000, by 2016 (Personal interview, Tina Gallagher, Transport of NSW, 24/9/2012).

Having such measurable objectives in NSW, tied to a particular timeframe makes campaign evaluation easier as campaign outcomes can be measured and compared with previous years, and campaigns can be modified if the evaluation gives bad indications:

You should always look to measure whether the campaign is being received by the audience; whether they get the right take-out message from it; whether they believe that will change their behaviour from it and then we would look to the crash statistics to see whether that's actually

happening (Personal interview, Soames Job, Executive Director National Road Safety Council (Australia) and former manager for NSW Centre for Road Safety in RTA 16/5/2012).

Thus what emerged from this study is that key objectives for KSA producers tend to be very broad objectives and cannot be easily measured. It was also found that vague objectives such as explaining the bad consequences of road accidents on society do not make any sense in a society like KSA, which has one of the highest death rates due to car accidents in the world (WHO 2013). Most people and families have direct, practical, vivid experience of the crisis through losing friends and/or family members. They do not want to be taught about the consequences of road accidents, rather they need a professional campaign with clear objectives able to change their risky driving behaviour

I think public in KSA is well experienced in road accidents as it is experienced by most society members at different levels, so it is pointless if the campaign aims to educate people about something they live and experience it as reality but more importantly the campaign should aim to change the risky behaviour rather than just telling people what is already known to them (Personal communication, TD2, Riyadh Traffic Department, 2/6/2011).

On the other hand, while changing people's behaviour is a key objective for NSW authorities and is represented in intervention steps that are clear, narrow and measurable, they also have clear goals represented quantitatively which must be achieved in a nominated timeframe which can be easily measured not only by the authorities, but also by audiences, road users and the media. Such transparency may encourage producers in NSW to work hard to meet their goals as they are monitored by the entire society (Personal communication, Ian Faulks, Partner, Safety and Policy Analysis International, 31/5/2012).

Stating the objectives in numbers in KSA as happens in NSW, however, is not departmental practice. This difference can be attributed to the lack of scientific and external evaluation of Saudi campaigns (Alrasheedi 2006). However, clear numerical objectives must be set and exposed to the media and society to enable them to act as external evaluators or monitors for the campaigns and responsible department's work. This approach and policy is in complete accord with Khadoor (2007), who claimed that campaign objectives should be clear, accurate and measurable and known to the campaign audience.

4.3.6. Summary: Analysis of campaign objectives

Although setting measurable objectives is required for road safety campaigns, none of the four campaigns studied in KSA and NSW had easily measurable objectives. Yet, despite that, the objectives of road safety campaigns in NSW are narrowly focused and linked to the

campaign themes when compared to objectives in KSA which are broad, non-evaluable and not linked directly to the campaign theme objectives. It also emerged that the objectives of NSW campaigns pay more attention to modifying audience behaviour while this is not noted in KSA campaign objectives. When it comes to producers' perspectives; however, it can be said that NSW producers are aware of the importance of setting measurable objectives whereas their counterparts in KSA do not think this is important for the campaign. Road safety campaign budgets in KSA and NSW will be discussed in what follows.

4.4. Campaign budgets

In this section, the road safety campaign budgets in KSA and NSW including the differences between allocated budgets, the source of funds, and private sector and government contributions to campaign budgets will be investigated. The impact of budget allocations on other aspects of campaigns will be briefly looked at by analysing producers' perspectives on this particular area. The discussion in this section will assist in answering sub-question 1 D: Is sufficient budget allocated for road safety campaigns and where does this budget come from?

4.4.1. NSW case study 1: "Pinkie"

The allocated budget for any campaign must ideally cover all campaign activities (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989). About AUD 2 million was allocated by RTA to cover "Pinkie" campaign expenses (RTA 2007a). However, allocating funds is particularly difficult for ongoing or long period campaigns (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985). As a result, it seems that while AUD 2 million was nominated at the beginning of the campaign and intended to cover spending on the first stage or early stages of this four year campaign, each stage needed a different budget to cover media expenses and police involvement, which makes it hard to estimate exactly how much was spent on the whole campaign. The whole budget of the "Pinkie" campaign was funded by the RTA (RTA 2007a).

Accepting responsibility for a long and expensive campaign reflects the conviction among policy makers in NSW that road safety campaigns are an important tool to encourage people to practice safe driving and to minimise the road toll and economic losses that result from traffic accidents (Delhomme et al. 2009). Due to unavailability of campaign expenditure and budget figures for the NSW "Wake up to the signs" campaign budget, the discussion of NSW campaign budgets is limited to the "Pinkie" campaign only.

4.4.2. KSA case study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”

Allocating a sufficient budget by campaign producers allows them to utilise appropriate media which results in reaching target audiences more successfully (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989). In the “Let’s not lose our lives” documentation, however, there is no clear statement as to how much the campaign budget was. On the other hand, the overall campaign had nine private sponsors, as shown in Table 4.1

Table 4.1: Campaign sponsors

Road Safety Ads Sponsors	Drugs Ads Sponsors
The National Commercial Bank	Middle East Broadcasting Center TV (MBC)
Alamoudi Group of Companies	Alrajhi commercial foreign exchange
The Savola Group for cooking oil	Alwatan newspaper
Mobil-Engine Oil	
Firestone Tyres	
Mouad Jewelry	

Source: Ministry of Interior 2001

Although it is not uncommon for campaign budgets to be partly boosted by sponsorship (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989), here the sponsors contributed almost 100 percent of the campaign budget, covering the costs of ad design as well as publishing and screening expenses (Ministry of Interior 2001). Administrative fees such as travelling or accommodation for committee members during the preparation stage were paid from the Directorate of Public Security budget (Personal interview, Ameen Saeed, Manager of Central Media Committee previously, 29/5/2011).

4.4.3. KSA case study 2: “Enough”

Unlike the “Let’s” campaign, the “Enough” campaign producers did release some information about the campaign budget. While SAR 2 million (AUD 500 000) was allocated for the campaign from the Public Security Directorate budget, some ads were sponsored by Mobily (Telecom Company) (Ministry of Interior 2006b). Given the high cost of road safety advertisement design, production and media buying (Donovan, Jalleh & Henley 1999), AUD 500 000 is considered a relatively low budget to cover design and broadcast of a high impact campaign using TV channels which attract a large audience share, and/or high circulation newspapers to reach all audiences. Mobily sponsorship may have boosted the

campaign budget although it is unclear whether the sponsorship money was included in the SAR 2 million or not, and if not, just how much the company contributed remains unknown.

4.4.4. Producer perspectives on campaign budgets

Allocating a sufficient budget can imply that policy makers are convinced by campaign effectiveness. It can lead to generous spending on campaigns because of a high expectation of campaign effectiveness. The reverse is also true (Personal communication, Baker Ibraheem, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 13/6/2011; Personal communication, Sarah Redshaw, Research fellow, sociology, Macquarie University, 21/6/2012).

Research for this project revealed that in NSW, budget allocations are generally adequate for road safety and road safety campaigns:

The government is very committed to reducing road toll injuries and deaths. Billions and billions of dollars worth of vehicles and other lost opportunities have economic as well as social consequences. If you're quite serious, New South Wales spends around 240 million per year on road safety programs (Personal interview, John Hartley, Command Traffic services, NSW Police, 22/5/2012).

One of the advantages of having government do the funding is that there is a lot of funding for the campaign. So we have a budget of, say for the last year, I was able to have a budget of \$15 million to do a campaign. So that's a good budget (Personal interview, Soames Job, Executive Director National Road Safety Council (Australia) and former manager for NSW Centre for Road Safety in RTA 16/5/2012).

This generous spending on road safety in general and road safety campaigns in particular in NSW reflects higher level management and policy makers' general conviction of the value of campaigns in NSW. This helps campaign producers design effective campaigns and utilise appropriate media by tendering the creative or technical aspects of campaigns to experts or specialist external organisations (Tay 2005).

In KSA, on the other hand, although Saudi participants were not prepared to give the exact figure for campaign budgets, in contrast to the transparent responses by their counterparts in NSW, they all complained about the low budgets allocated for campaigns and its negative consequences on all other aspects in the campaign (Personal communication, Mohsen Alshahrani, Head of Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011; Personal communication, Ali Algammas, Head of Awareness Section in Department of

Public Relations and Media 8/6/2011). It seems that Saudi participants were reluctant to blame their higher managers who are responsible for budget allocation, and were keen to avoid confrontation with them. They were reluctant to state clearly that higher managers are not convinced by campaign effectiveness, and that that resulted in low budget allocations (Personal interview, Khaled Albisher, Naif Arab University for Security Sciences, 21/6/2011).

The impact of low budgets for KSA campaigns can be seen in more than one aspect of campaign development and mediation, and is a common factor in less than optimal campaign delivery and mediation (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989). Saudi practitioners were in no doubt about the impact of low budgets: "It is possible to have a successful campaign if we have a sufficient budget to do special studies about audiences, to pay professional ad designers, and to pay for TV channels for delivering them" (Personal interview, Saad Alasmay, Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011). Low budgets can also negatively affect campaigns in different ways including media utilisation which may limit a comprehensive reach out to target audience, resulting in campaign failure. High rating channels charge expensive prices for ads, prices which put high rating channels out of the reach of campaign producers in KSA due to their limited budget:

Low budgets control advertising display time and the utilisation of other media. For instance, if you want to display the campaign ad in a high viewing commercial channel rather than a government sponsored station, you will not be able to display on those expensive channels because of low budget (Personal interview, Saad Alasmay, Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011).

In field research it also emerged that although KSA and NSW both mount campaigns sponsored by the private sector, sponsorship in NSW is occasional and amounts to a very limited proportion of campaign budgets:

Private sector sponsorship for campaigns varies, for example, sometimes the Motor Accidents Authority might fund one-third of the campaign. I have to say, a lot of the campaigns are funded 100 percent by the RTA, by the government (Personal interview, Soames Job, Executive Director National Road Safety Council (Australia) and former manager for NSW Centre for Road Safety in RTA 16/5/2012).

In KSA, on the other hand, it seems that to compensate for the big gap between the high costs of campaigns and the low budgets allocated, private sector contributions in campaign budgets may exceed the government contribution and some campaigns may be fully funded by the private sector: "Funding is a very difficult problem, for example, in the first campaign in 2000, we invited the private sector and they contributed 100 percent of the campaign budget" (Personal interview, Ameen Saeed, Manager of Central Media Committee

previously, 29/5/2011). "Sometimes, sponsors sponsor the campaign as part of their social participation, other times; they want to achieve commercial or marketing goals through campaign sponsorship" (Personal interview, Ali Algammas, Head of Awareness Section in Department of Public Relations and Media 8/6/2011).

Allowing the private sector to contribute 100 percent of a campaign budget for their commercial or marketing purposes may create a conflict of interest (Hastings & Angus 2011). Being the main funder for the campaign may encourage the sponsoring company to control most aspects of a campaign and make it more of an advertising campaign for the sponsor. As a result, the informative and persuasive messages in campaign ads can be overwhelmed by marketing purposes, particularly if the sponsor is not closely associated or relevant to road safety

... full sponsorship has a backfire on campaigns as the private sector will not pay a single cent unless they get more back so they usually cram road safety campaign advertisements with their logos and products which will surely affect the road safety message's content and the reception by audience who might deal with that as commercial advertisement rather than awareness advertisement (Personal communication, Taiseer Almufarrag, Manager of PI media Production Company, 12/6/ 2011).

In NSW, on the other hand, it seems that careful choices for campaign sponsors from the private sector in NSW are made, and sponsors are allowed to contribute only a limited proportion of the total campaign budget, as a way of guarding against the road safety campaign slipping over to an advertising campaign for the sponsor company.

4.4.5. Summary: Campaign budgets

In this discussion of budgeting it is clear that the politics of social marketing activities by responsible authorities has a major impact on funding levels for campaigns and on perceptions of ownership of public campaigns. Where government is committed to social marketing campaigns, there is a flow on effect in the allocation of sufficient funds. In KSA, however, it was discovered that government is not strongly committed to the value of social marketing campaigns and allocates insufficient funds. Campaign practitioners, more convinced of the value of road safety campaigns, compensate for the shortfall in government funds by approaching the private sector. Although this is a solution to the lack of government funding, it compromises the objectives of road safety campaigns and more generally, puts in doubt perceptions of ownership and responsibility for social marketing activities. This investigation into campaign funding draws attention to the argument in this thesis that the campaign formation process is an outcome and representation of historical,

political, institutional and cultural factors. In the following section, producers' perspectives on the design of road safety advertisements will be discussed.

4.5. Producer perspectives on creative input in the campaign

Findings from semi-structured interviews pertaining to road safety advertising design, including who designs advertisements, and whether or not the target audience is considered will be examined in this section. Creative teams' knowledge about target audiences and the practical steps that are undertaken to make sure campaign ads are linked to the target audience will be explored. The objective of examining these findings is to answer question 1 E: Are road safety campaign advertisements in KSA and NSW designed by professional agencies and do they consider target audiences?

This comparative research project has discovered that while professional and specialist creative agencies are contracted for designing NSW campaign ads (Tina Gallagher, Transport of NSW, personal interview, 24/9/2012), very few KSA campaign ads, such as those in the "Enough" campaign (2006) were designed externally by advertising agencies (Ministry of Interior 2006b). Most aspects of KSA campaigns including ad design is done internally by the campaign committee which, as readers recall, is comprised of members drawn from the police - officers who hold police educational backgrounds and qualifications (Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, personal interview 7/6/2011). Responses from Saudi participants to questions on funding suggests that relying on non-professionals in designing the technical aspects of a media campaign which ideally needs the expertise of professional people with specialist knowledge is most likely associated with the financial constraints faced by the Department. "Insufficient budget is the main reason behind relying on department's personnel experience to design most aspect of campaigns" (Personal communication, Ali Algammas, Head of Awareness Section in Department of Public Relations and Media 8/6/2011). At the same time, departmental officers tended to over-estimate the skills, knowledge and personal experience of road safety matters held by their colleagues. This might be another reason why design is kept in-house. Indeed, the Manager of the Department of Public Relations and Media expressed this view, saying, "Committee members have a good experience in ad design" (Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, personal interview 7/6/2011).

A key difference that emerged from interviews concerned the processes that determined what creative team was appointed to manage and design a campaign. Tendering the creative work to creative agencies can lead to creative competition and a high standard of production (Elliott, Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989). In NSW, ad design for each

campaign is tendered to three or more creative agencies (Personal interview, Mr John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA 16/5/ 2012). In KSA, on the other hand, a senior departmental executive noted: “We do not call for a tender, we talk to one or two companies that we know directly; since the campaign budget is a very little amount it does not need to be tendered” (Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, personal interview 7/6/2011). Allocating a limited budget for ad design in Saudi campaigns and not tendering those campaigns to a range of specialist agencies may negatively affect ad design (Alenad 1990; Botalibi 2006). Competition between companies that apply for tender enables the producers to choose the best of the competitor companies based on their profile and experience in that field, rather than going directly to companies which undercut the competition and have no or very little experience in the field. “Sure, if the creative aspects in campaign are tendered to different companies, this will create more competition between these companies to produce the best advertisement and then win the tender” (Personal communication, Rasheed, PI media Production Company, 12/6/ 2011). Tendering creative aspects in NSW campaigns leads producers to review a reasonable number of creative ideas as submitted by contractors and to choose the best idea rather than sticking to the ideas of just one company “[Tendering creative aspects of campaign] gives us the chance to get the best creative ideas in multiple creative experts minds” (Personal communication, Tina Gallagher, Transport of NSW, 24/9/2012).

Another significant finding concerning the creative process concerned the link between campaign objectives and effective design. Apart from campaign objectives set by campaign producers, it emerged in discussions with NSW personnel that the creative agencies themselves should ideally set their own creative objectives (Rashed 1981). Defining those objectives clearly, and aligning them with campaign objectives as well as with long term strategic plan objectives for road safety is very important to make sure all efforts are eventually directed to one main goal and do not conflict with each other. “Special creative objectives [put together] by the contracted company should align with campaign objectives provided and broadly with the broad road safety strategy in NSW” (Personal communication, Mr John Burton, senior executive at the RTA (RMS now) 16/5/ 2012). In NSW, the creative agencies that contribute to the campaign have clear and measurable objectives guided by a long term strategic plan provided by the RTA. This assists the creative team understand the campaign producers’ goals and leads in turn to professionally designed ads that meet producers’ and broad road safety strategic plan goals.

The TfNSW department responsible for creative aspects in NSW campaigns that deal with creative agencies and briefing them about the campaign theme, audience and objective is committed to reducing the number of deaths and injuries on our roads. The overall objective for road safety campaigns (ie. speeding, drink driving, seatbelts, etc) is to contribute

to a reduction in the road toll. The NSW Government 2021 plan has a goal to “improve road safety” by reducing fatalities to 4.3 per 100,000 by 2016 (Tina Gallagher, Transport of NSW, personal interview, 24/9/2012).

These comments reveal close cooperation, even in a competitive situation, between the creative team and other elements of the campaign formation team. Linking creative agencies’ objectives to government’s strategic plan in NSW can be noticed in creative people’s responses. For example, Ryan O’Connell, Strategic Planner at Clemenger BBDO said: “Our overall objective is to stop people dying on the road from speed” (Personal interview, 11/5/2012). Vague, unknown and/or unmeasurable objectives in KSA which are not guided by a strategic plan on the other hand may limit the creative people’s ability to design ads that can attract the target audience’s attention (Personal interview, Ibraheem Algohani, PI media Production Company, 12/6/ 2011).

Interviews in KSA revealed that other external factors may affect creative work or ad design in KSA negatively and impose external constraints on a campaign process which practitioners believe should be shaped by relevant expertise and theoretical knowledge. These tensions illustrate how the formation process is a process shaped by cultural values and circumstances beyond the power of formation teams (Alsamrany 2011). Strict rules of censorship by government and interference by government officials inhibit creative design (Marghalani, Palmgreen & Boyd 1998). Ibraheem Algohani from the PI media production company which contributed to the design of the “Enough” campaign advertisements commented along these lines:

Our clients from government authorities have the right to decide the ad’s content. They do not like ads to be out of the ordinary, so as to avoid censorship. As a result, the authorities interfere in creative work and often modify the original creative idea to bring it back to ordinary content (Personal interview, 12/6/ 2011).

Such interference was mentioned and justified by senior manager Almaroul who took the view that committee members have the right to intervene because of their personal experience in ad design as discussed earlier in this section. However, Almaroul’s confidence about government officers’ knowledge is contradicted by Alsamrany’s (2011) findings which suggested that a lack of relevant knowledge among committee members in KSA is one of main factors hindering professional campaign development.

4.5.1. Understanding and considering target audiences

Studying target audiences is very important for ad designers so they understand the characteristics of the target audience and can design ads that attract the target audience’s

attention (Elliott, Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989). This research project has found that while campaign designers in NSW, including advertising designers, rely on audience-based research to understand personal characteristics of target audiences (Personal interview, Ryan O'Connell, Strategic Planner at Clemenger BBDO 11/5/2012; Mr John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA 16/5/ 2012), their counterparts in KSA rely on their personal experience to gain such important knowledge (Personal interview, Taiseer, Almufarrag, Manager of PI media Production Company). One participant suggested that this was because there is a lack of relevant research studies: "We rely on our personal experience in order to understand target audiences' character; we don't rely on academic studies because of the dearth of such studies" (Personal interview, Ibraheem Algohani, PI media Production Company, 12/6/ 2011). However, as noted above, personal experience rather than research input has limitations and does not contribute to the development of creative content that connects well with target audiences:

The key factor, I think for us, is when we actually went and spoke to our target audience ... we gained a lot of insight and information around why they speed and their behaviour and that was what formed the basis of the campaign ad, so the idea that came out at the end was obviously a creative idea but it was born from conversations with our target audience. Because they are the people we are trying to elicit a behavioural change from, so they are the ones we had to find out most about, and talking to them provided the most information (Personal interview, Ryan O'Connell, Strategic Planner at Clemenger BBDO 11/5/2012).

Surprisingly, although the importance of understanding and considering target audiences relying on scholarly studies and the impact of using simple local language is recognised by campaign designers in KSA, they still rely on personal experience in designing key messages (Personal communication, Ibraheem Alharthi, PI media Production Company, 12/6/ 2011). This may continue to hinder reaching target audiences successfully (Personal interview, Rasheed, PI media Production Company, 12/6/ 2011). On the other hand, personal experience may be quite powerful and insightful in a setting where advertising has not had such a long hold on the general population's attention and media literacy.

This research discovered that the short history in advertising in general and road safety advertising in particular in KSA encourages producers to present simple, easily comprehended messages to make sure the audience grasp ideas intended by designers (Personal interview, Taiseer Almufarrag, Manager of PI media Production Company, 12/6/ 2011). In terms of social marketing, Australia has more than thirty-five years' experience and exposure to road safety campaigns (Dann & Fry 2009). In KSA, in comparison, producers and audiences have less than fifteen years' experience (Alawfi & Ibraheem 2004). Thus designers in KSA understandably take the view that there is a low threshold in audience's reception of advertising content (Nassif & Gunter 2008). Put another way,

audiences are receptive to simple, straightforward ideas and images simply because they have not been saturated by the media. Designers believe that high levels of creativity are unnecessary in campaign ads as simple ideas can attract people's attention (Personal interview, Rasheed, PI media Production Company, 12/6/ 2011). On the other hand, more effort and background research has to be part of NSW designers' work in order to present persuasive and unorthodox messages to attract the attention of media-literate audiences very used to advertising appeals. Media and advertising-literate audiences are so used to advertising appeals that it is hard to be persuasive and affect their behaviour, as audiences are so used to public service content and its "tricks" (Personal interview, Ryan O'Connell, Strategic Planner at Clemenger BBDO 11/5/2012).

Another important finding in regards to considering target audience that emerged from this study was that NSW and KSA put different emphasis on sensitivity to cultural differences in campaigns and message design. Understanding the culture of the target audience is one of the key factors that enables creative agencies to design an effective and understandable ad (Baker et al. 2006). The creative agencies in NSW rely on audience-based research and information provided by local audiences who are regarded as a precious resource in those studies (Personal interview, Ryan O'Connell, Strategic Planner at Clemenger BBDO 11/5/2012). To ensure campaign ads are suitable for targeted sub cultural groups, NSW authorities also contract professional organisations to make sure campaign content - either images, gestures or words - is unlikely to offend targeted ethnicities, thus making campaigns more effective and better able to draw and attract those groups' attention:

RTA has a contract with a company that is sensitive not only to translation but to also cultural differences; and that applies to Indigenous advertisers as well as people from what we call non-English speaking backgrounds. For example, they would look at this to make sure that there's nothing there that doesn't conform to their values and ensure that translated ads would be acceptable to this group (Personal interview, Jordaan Knapp, Customedia Company 15/5/2012).

Their counterparts in KSA, on the other hand, chose to rely on personal experience, internet websites such as You Tube, and consultations with an Austrian expert who happened to be a partner of the creative agency as a way of understanding local culture (Personal interview, Taiseer Almufarrag and Rasheed, PI media Production Company, 12/6/ 2011). Thus the KSA producers do not consider these important cultural differences to the same extent in their practices. They take the view, because of the importance of religion in a conservative society like KSA, that quoting the formal, published opinions (Fatwa) of influential religious figures will have an impact on target audiences:

I think the religious impact is more than media impact on Saudis, as a result, we get Fatwa from Sheikhs who are responsible for Fatwa in KSA,

that prohibit disobeying traffic lights in the “Enough” campaign (2006). This can be considered an achievement for the campaign committee, since it is difficult to get such a Fatwa (Personal interview, Mohsen Alshahrani, Head of Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011).

Yet, using Fatwas in campaigns that target Saudis and non-Saudis is based on the assumption that conventional knowledge and signifiers valued by a dominant cultural group will communicate equally effectively with readers who are not members of the dominant group and do not share its culture. It reveals a poorly informed understanding of the way advertising messages are read, particularly by non-Muslim groups, as the significance of the religious message will have no impact on non-Muslims who represent a significant proportion of road users in KSA (Gulf Traffic 2009).

Interviews with NSW research participants revealed that considering target audiences of sub-cultural groups in NSW is not only limited to their culture. Indeed, their road safety perspectives and practices are also studied in depth by NSW authorities to understand their cultural values:

We found that in the wearing of a seatbelt, the compliance rates were quite high generally. However, there were certain sections of the community that weren't restraining their children, or weren't wearing seatbelts themselves. This was common for people from countries where seatbelt wearing wasn't the case, and Sydney is very multicultural. We found that in the Lebanese community we had poor compliance rates, particularly for children being restrained, and in rural areas we had poor restraint use as well. The Vietnamese community, the Chinese community and the Italian community all had some issues. Then we did some further research into those communities to explore the nature of those communities. We found that with the Italian community, it was often the grandparents who were not using seatbelts regularly, as they just didn't have the social history of restraining the children when travelling. However, this was the sub group of the Italian community who were most likely to take children to and from school (Personal interview, Lori Mooren, Senior Research Fellow at Transport and Road Safety Research (TARS) at University of New South Wales [UNSW], 9/5/2012).

NSW authorities go further in studying sub-cultural groups and examine which appeals suit different ethnicities based on their cultural values, to enable them to choose appropriate appeals likely to affect the targeted sub-cultural group's behaviour:

When we did our multicultural campaign for child restraints, we found that the appeal had to be different for each of the three cultures that we were targeting. Generally in Australia, we find that the use of mild guilt is effective. When we were dealing with the Lebanese community the feedback we got from the community was that you have to use heavy guilt, particularly with men. Concepts such as being responsible and messages that appealed to that responsibility, of looking after one's family. In the

Vietnamese community, there is a high value on the success of your children. In the Italian community the focus is love of your family. These are examples of why we needed to use different approaches (Personal interview, Lori Mooren, Senior Research Fellow at Transport and Road Safety Research (TARS) at University of New South Wales [UNSW], 9/5/2012).

These findings, based on empirical research and a respect and understanding of cultural differences, was not found to be part of road safety campaign practice in KSA. There, no research is done to understand minorities from sub cultural groups, and opportunities to improve the reception of campaign messages and modify target group behaviour are missed and top-down, poorly designed campaigns in non-communicative language tend to completely miss their targets (Personal communication, Abdullatif Alawfi, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 6/6/2011). The cultural values and conventional codes of the dominant group are the default model for communicating with all audiences, a strategy which is unlikely to deliver intended campaign messages to at-risk groups (Personal interview, Baker Ibraheem, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 13/6/2011). This is a case then, where personal experience was shown to have its limitations. It has been discovered that in general, personal experience and a robust sense of communication with culturally close audiences probably was effective in KSA. However, the kind of fine-grained information NSW agencies turned up in researching sub-cultural groups was not looked for, and was not part of campaign designers' outlook nor experience in KSA, and negatively affected producers' efforts have all at-risk audiences take their preferred meaning from their advertising (Personal communication, Abdullatif Alawfi, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 6/6/2011).

Although reviewing related literature and empirical research about target audiences is very significant in understanding their characteristics, as Botalibi argued (2006), it is also important to test creative ideas based on research with target audiences before publishing the campaign ad to make sure it connects well with target audiences and draws their attention (Abu-Ismaiel 2007). Pre-testing ads may enable designers to modify the ad, based on test outcomes (Abu-Ismaiel 2007). It is also important to note that informants thought that in today's media-saturated environment, not involving professionals in campaign design will result in ads that are unlikely to draw people's attention in a world that is bombarded by so many media images and ads which makes it difficult to cut through all the ads about nice cars and so on (Personal interview, Sarah Redshaw, Research fellow, sociology, Macquarie University, 21/6/2012).

Interviews with NSW informants revealed that focus groups drawn from target audiences are used to test campaign ads (Personal interview, Soames Job, Executive Director

National Road Safety Council (Australia) and former manager for NSW Centre for Road Safety in RTA 16/5/2012). In KSA, campaign ads are tested internally and informally on Saudi committee members which reduces the opportunities for testing the communicative appeal of proposed advertising with sub-cultural groups (Personal interview, Ameen Saeed, Manager of Central Media Committee previously, 29/5/2011). Such important differences in ad testing practices may negatively affect the creative input and communicative potential of KSA campaign ads.

While it was clear that the extensive and expensive audience research that is a necessary part of NSW best practice may be unnecessary in KSA for some campaigns, where campaign objectives include cultural minorities, more audience research needs to be done (Personal communication, Khaled Albisher, Naif Arab University for Security Sciences, 21/6/2011). These results from field interviews support Alsamrany's (2011) findings which suggested that not seeking experts or professionals' help by campaign producers in most aspects of campaign development in KSA including the creative aspect, had adverse effects on campaigns.

4.5.2. Summary: Producer perspectives on creative input in the campaign

Road safety advertisements in NSW are designed by professional agencies who tendered for road safety campaign contracts. In KSA, on the other hand, most road safety advertisements are not tendered for and are designed internally by Department of Public Relations and Media personnel. The understanding of target audiences from both mainstream society and sub-cultural groups by campaign designers in NSW is research-based. The lack of audience research in KSA was found in part to be related to a lack of funding for such research. It was also related to a sense that the (mainstream or Saudi) community is well-known. This sense of a shared cultural heritage led Saudi designers to rely on their personal experience in understanding and communicating with target audiences. The professional approach of NSW authorities is likely to have a positive impact on ad design and its reception. In contrast in KSA, it became obvious that while the experience of knowledgeable officers was valuable, it had its limitations, especially where appealing to sub-cultural groups was concerned. In the next section, the differences in media involvement in road safety campaigns between KSA and NSW will be explored and discussed.

4.6. Media utilisation

Differences in the mediation of road safety campaigns between KSA and NSW will be discussed in this section. The criteria and methods for media selection including its

association with campaign target audiences will be explored. The aim of this section is to answer sub-question 1 F: Is media selection for delivering the campaign material driven by target audience selection and to what extent is the selected media linked to target audiences?

Comparisons between media utilisation in NSW and KSA campaigns, however proved unexpectedly difficult. Precise figures for the media budgets for the “Pinkie” and “Wake up to the signs” campaigns, and how different media were used to promote specific messages were not available or were not provided by campaign producers or media planners in NSW. Such data, in contrast, was provided by KSA authorities. Despite these difficulties, however, the analysis of media involvement in “Pinkie” and “Wake up to the signs”, and a comparison with KSA cases will be undertaken based on available data for each campaign.

4.6.1. NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”

Setting the media objectives is the most significant part in the media choice process which must be aligned with advertiser and advertisement objectives (Katz 1995). In the “Pinkie” campaign two media objectives were selected (Customedia 2007):

- A- Encourage participation and involvement from all members of the community
- B- Reach all drivers via a multi-media campaign

The campaign objectives in the “Pinkie” campaign introduced a new perspective in setting campaign objectives: the target was both a specific target audience and community wide (Watsford 2008). Objectives focused on community members' participation in the campaign in order to empower the community to fight the speeding phenomenon (Watsford 2008). As a result, most segments of society had to be reached successfully by the campaign to encourage community participation (Walsh et al. 2010). In this rapidly changing media world, it is important to consult with communication specialists to deliver campaign material to target audiences successfully (Faulks 2011). In order to ensure high exposure of campaign material to target audiences and make sure the campaign achieved coverage objectives, Customedia Company was contracted to develop the media plan for the “Pinkie” campaign (Personal interview, John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA (RMS now) 16/5/ 2012).

As can be seen in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.5, although TV was used as a central medium for maximising impact in the “Pinkie” campaign, a wide range of media was involved including cinema, outdoor, print, online and radio advertising – all of which aimed to specifically attract

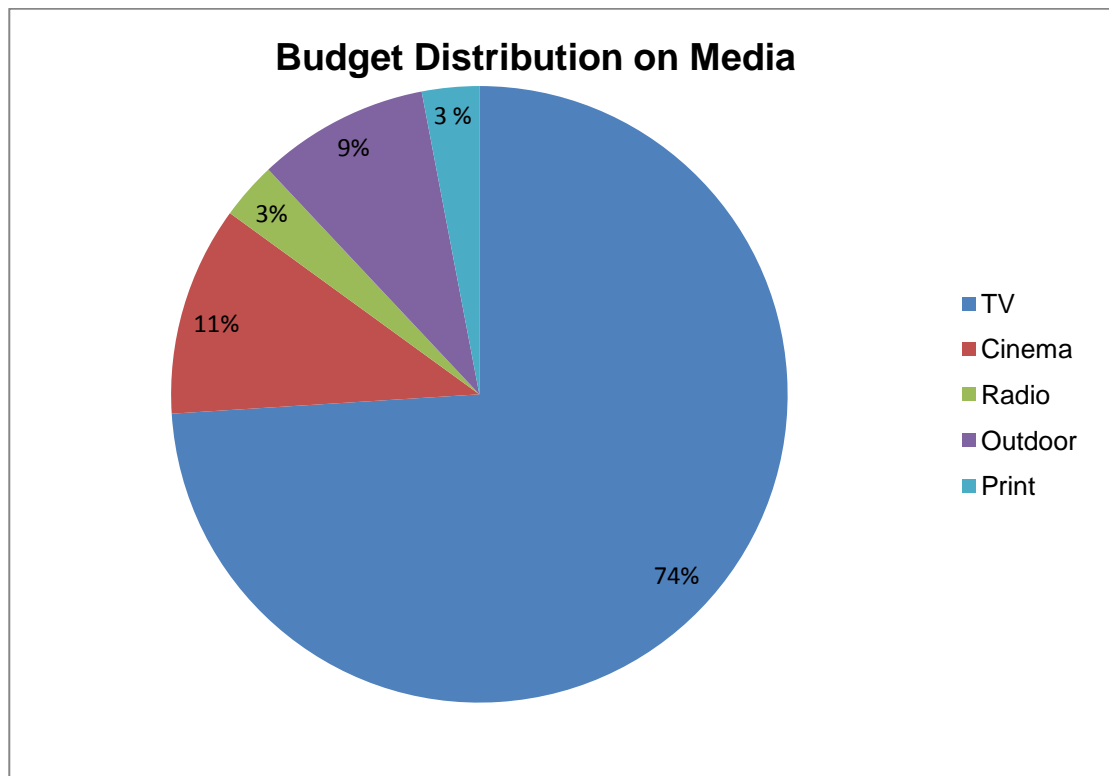
the attention of the young drivers target, as well as the mass of people in the broader community (Pollay 2000).

Table 4.2: Media utilisation in the campaign

Medium	TV/Radio Channel /Newspaper /Magazine Name	Notes
TV including Pay TV	Channels Seven, Nine, Ten and SBS	Widespread coverage
Radio	Radio (Nova & Today)	to target 17-25 year olds
Cinema		to target 17-25 year olds
Outdoor	bus-sides and (adshels)	
Print	Metropolitan and national newspapers, along with various suburban and regional newspapers	
	Magazines (Zoo, Ralph and FHM)	to target 17-25 year olds
Online	Most highly covered online news item on ninemsn, www.smh.com.au and www.dailytelegraph.com.au , You Tube	Online advertisement of "Hectic XXS" on You Tube to target 17-25 year olds

Source: (RTA 2007a; RTA n.d a, RTA n.d d).

Figure 4.5: Budget distribution for media in “Pinkie” campaign



Source: (Personal interview, Malcolm Stewart, Manager of Customedia Company, 30/4/2012).

1. TV utilisation in the campaign

Most of the media budget in the “Pinkie” campaign was directed to TV (74 percent, See Figure 4.5). Seven, Nine, Ten and SBS channels beside a few Pay TV channels were utilised to deliver the campaign advertisement to target audiences including sub-cultural groups (RTA 2007a and RTA n.d a). Utilising such a variety of commercial and non-commercial channels can help to deliver a campaign effectively to target audiences (Castells 2010). Although advertising on TV is expensive compared to other media, as each home in Australia has at least one TV (Katz 1995), most of the campaign budget was spent on TV advertisements. TV’s wide coverage presents an opportunity for greater impact on more audiences, especially rural audiences who cannot be reached by other media (Katz 1995). TV also provides a great chance to affect audiences’ behaviour as using sound, image, colour and motion, maximises the communicative and persuasive effect of TV advertisements (Katz 1995).

The “Pinkie” campaign TV advertisements were powerful and well received by most of the target audience (RTA n.d a). Thus choosing TV to deliver the campaign advertisement was a choice that helped deliver on coverage objectives (Alenad 1990). Viewers identified as

bystanders rather than young male drivers were positioned to adopt or imitate the “Pinkie” campaign gesture and generate a quick, unified response to any speeder, and reflect society’s opinion about such dangerous practices in driving (Watsford 2008). However, reaching such a broad, general audience effectively, and at the same time generating a unified public response to speeding needs identification of the media consumption habits of target audiences. Media consumption practices in the community were explored by “Pinkie” campaign producers through pre-campaign research (Myers 1999).

It is also important to know the best time to deliver the campaign’s advertisement, and the timing of the “Pinkie” advertisements was carefully thought through (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985). The “Pinkie” advertisement was rated as a Parental Guidance (PG) advertisement, and displayed on selected channels after 11 pm (RTA 2007a). Displaying the campaign’s advertisement late at night could be because movies or special programs targeting young people are also played at that time which can ensure high exposure to young people. The TV advertisement was available state wide and was supported by TV news stories and talk show programs to ensure delivery of the campaign to all audiences (RTA n.d b). Thus, TV was utilised effectively to reach to rural, urban and metropolitan audiences alike.

About 6 percent of the TV budget was allocated to deliver the campaign to sub-cultural groups (Customedia 2007). Dominant community language groups such as Arabic, Chinese and Vietnamese were given opportunities to hear the advertisement in their own languages so that major ethnic communities were covered (Customedia 2007). Choosing suitable media that enables campaign producers to reach target audiences who cannot be reached by other types of media is a critical element (Myers 1999). TV, however enables the advertiser to target groups of audiences based on their demographic or geographic characteristics (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985) As a result, SBS TV (Special Broadcasting Service) ¹ was used to reach key sub-cultural groups in the community who do not speak English at all, or speak it poorly, such as Arabic, Chinese and Vietnamese (RTA 2007a).

2. Cinema utilisation in the campaign

The campaign designer’s research showed that young people between 18 to 24 years old in NSW visited cinemas at least twice in the last three months prior the campaign (Customedia 2007). About 11 percent of the campaign budget was spent on cinema which was available state wide (RTA n.d b) (See Figure 4.5). Spending on cinema was the second highest figure

¹ SBS is an independent national broadcaster that has a nation-wide multilingual and multicultural TV, radio and online which target different ethnicities of Australian migrants by broadcasting programs and news in their languages including Arabic, Chinese, Vietnamese, Spanish and Indian speakers (SBS 2006).

after TV, which reflected campaign producers' enthusiasm to deliver the campaign to target audiences across the whole state including rural, urban and metropolitan areas. While targeting young male drivers in NSW cinemas made sense, given the popularity of the cinema among young Australians (Customedia 2007), such an option is not available in KSA as there are no cinemas there.

3. Radio utilisation in the campaign

Radio is linked to daily activities and stations focus on particular groups of audiences particularly in developed countries such as Australia (Myers 1999). A medium's importance and effective reach, however, may vary from country to country (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985). For example, utilising radio in NSW campaigns is more effective than in KSA. Overall, radio is more popular and effective in Australia compared to KSA (See Table 2.1). Radio audiences are usually more segmented compared to other media as most radio stations rely on advertising as their main income, making targeting and segmenting audiences very important to them (Katz 1995). Nova and Today FM radio stations were utilised to reach young people in NSW for the "Pinkie" campaign (17 to 25 years old, see Table 4.2). About 3 percent of the campaign budget was spent on radio utilisation (see Figure 4.5). This low proportion as compared to other mediums could be because only FM radio channels were utilised in the campaigns, and FM broadcasts are available in metro areas only (RTA n.d b). Frequency Modulation (FM) radio broadcasts to a very limited territory compared to Amplitude Modulation (AM) radio which makes FM ad rates cheaper than AM radio (Katz 1995). It seems, however, that although the focus of radio utilisation was on young people, it was limited to metropolitan areas only.

4. Outdoor and print media utilisation in the campaign

Bus-sides and Adshells (outdoor advertising) were used as outdoor media to deliver the campaign material. Although outdoor media was only available in metro areas in NSW for the "Pinkie" campaign (RTA n.d b), 9 percent of the campaign budget was spent on such media (see Figure 4.5). This is because many advertisement spaces were booked for campaign advertisements to ensure high and repeated exposure of campaign advertisements to drivers (Myers 1999). Exposure to outdoor media may be more effective than other media as it can have an instant impact on drivers who see the advertisement while driving (Rashed 1981). It also can empower the community by encouraging society members to comment on risky driving based on what they see in such advertisements (Personal interview, Jordaan Knapp, Customedia Company 15/5/2012). Hence, outdoor advertisements, which made the "Pinkie" image and tagline available everywhere at any time, were utilised to target bystanders as well as drivers to generate a unified and instant reaction to any risky driving (Customedia 2007).

About 3 percent of the campaign budget was spent on print advertisements including newspapers and magazines (see Figure 4.5). Metropolitan and national newspapers, along with various suburban and regional newspapers were utilised in the campaign (see Table 4.2). The campaign was also supported by daily articles in newspapers (RTA n.d b). As newspapers are comprehensive in content, many kinds of readers can be reached such as political, sports or economic readers (Alenad 1990). Thus, newspapers were used to deliver the campaign material to general audiences (readers) who can think through the campaign advertisement and engage in the campaign. Utilising regional and suburban newspapers, most of which are distributed free, is another effective choice to reach a broad range of newspaper readers who may focus on regional or suburban news (Pincas & Loiseau 2006). Regional newspapers are not available in KSA where all newspapers are distributed nationally (Ministry of Culture and Information 2010b).

Magazines tend to focus on specific themes or content and target specific audiences. Think of car magazines, hobby magazines, women's magazines (e.g., fashion) or men's magazines (e.g., fishing) (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985). The men's magazines *Zoo*, *Ralph* and *FHM* magazines were utilised to target young males aged 17-25 years in NSW (see Table 4.2). These three magazines are deliberately masculinist in their approach and content, and provided producers a platform where they could challenge normative constructions of masculinity. The long life of magazines and audience segmentation make magazines an effective choice for campaign producers (Katz 1995). While TV or radio advertisements disappear from viewers' screens and become unavailable after the campaign time period, magazines can prolong the campaign's effectiveness as they are usually kept by audiences for a long time (Alenad 1990). This allows the campaign to live longer in people's minds and memories.

5. Online web utilisation in the campaign

Increasing the utilisation of non-traditional media such as internet websites in road safety campaigns has been noticeable recently (Khare 2009). Producers of road safety campaigns can develop their own websites to deliver campaign material to audiences without paying other web servers (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985). While developing special websites for a campaign can save campaign funds, there are advantages in using professional web sites which have sufficient information about user characteristics and the number of visits (Alenad 1990; Myers 1999). Thus, the following effective and well known websites were utilised in the "Pinkie" campaign: Ninemsn, www.smh.com.au, www.dailytelegraph.com.au and YouTube (See Table 4.2). Putting campaign material on websites such as YouTube leverages their popularity with young people (Scott-Parker, Watson, King & Hyde 2013).

Using internet websites enables target audiences to blog their comments on the campaign advertisement which means more interaction by them (Faulks 2011). It also allows campaign producers to measure their reaction and responses to the campaign (Chitu 2009). The “Hectic XXS” advertisement on YouTube showed different scenes of young drivers driving in risky ways to the accompaniment of very loud music concluded with this statement against a loud music background “Like gassing it up, like hectic, we got something for you, the extra extra small condom”. Using YouTube for the “Hectic XXS” advertisement was effective as the 60-second advertisement on YouTube was viewed 500,000 times in the early days of the advertisement screening (RTA n.d d). The use of social media enabled producers to reach a broad target audience particularly those who spend long hours on computers (RTA n.d a). Hectic was developed specifically for young male drivers 18-25 years of age who were heavily involved in car culture, speeding and car performance (Personal interview, John Bruton, senior executive at the RT 21/5/2012). The internet has become cheaper and faster these days which makes social media websites such as YouTube, Facebook and Twitter an effective choice to deliver road safety advertisement to target audiences in NSW, particularly young people (Faulks 2011).

4.6.2. NSW case study 2: “Wake Up to the Signs”

Although many Australian campaigns are not documented properly (Donovan, Henley, Jalleh & Slater 1995) and “Wake up to the sign” is a relatively new campaign, it has been very difficult to find any external sources or publications about the campaign such as were available for the “Pinkie” campaign. The only public documentation was the official brief for the campaign published by RMS in NSW and TMR in QLD. However, although the campaign brief has important information about the campaign, the mediation of the campaign was overlooked in the brief. The media used was noted, but there was no information about TV channels, radio channels or websites used, and there was no information about the messages and budget distribution on the selected media. The lack of data limits the discussion in this section to available information in the campaign brief.

NSW authorities drew on Queensland experience in mounting the “Wake up” campaign, and used a very similar media strategy to deliver the “Wake up to the signs” campaign to target audiences. While TV, radio and outdoor advertising were used similarly in both settings, online advertisements were used in NSW only (RMS 2012b, TMR 2012b). However, outdoor billboard advertisements were placed in high fatigue crash zones in QLD (TMR 2012b). Although TV has voice and image which are very important in some advertisements (Alenad 1990), utilising TV could be more effective if the campaigns’ advertisements use emotional appeals which may need more sound or image effects in order to affect audience reception (Rashed 1981). For this reason it may have been a better choice to shift the

budget spent on expensive TV advertisements to display the rational message of “Wake up to the signs” on other media such as radio and billboards to intensify message delivery through these media which are known to be effective in rational campaigns (Khadoor 2007; Alenad 1990). Displaying campaign advertisements in the right places and at the right time can have a psychological impact on audiences, preparing the audience to understand and absorb the message in the advertisement (Alenad 1990). For example, utilising radio in the “Wake up to the signs” campaign by airing some advertisements on radio channels in rural areas to drivers while they driving may give them instant information about fatigue symptoms which could motivate the tired driver to stop driving. Timely information has more impact than information drivers have to recall from TV or online advertisements (Courtland & Arens 1986). Using billboards for advertisement has an immediate (if sometimes fleeting) visual impact on audiences (Myers 1999). Putting ads on billboards in high fatigue crash zones could be an impactful alert as they can be read and absorbed immediately by all but the most fatigued drivers, who might respond to such an advertisement instantly and positively. Billboards or roadside sign advertisements may also have more impact on audiences in this campaign, as the message was short and simple, and easily comprehended. The brevity of the ad’s central message may have enabled audiences to read it and absorb it quickly while driving (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985).

4.6.3. KSA case study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”

The media to deliver campaign content must be chosen after identifying campaign objectives and target audiences to make sure these audiences can be reached by the selected media (Alenad 1990). In the “Let’s not lose our lives” campaign a variety of media were utilised (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Media utilisation in the campaigns

Medium	TV/Radio Channel /Newspaper /Magazine Name	Notes
TV	Saudi TV (Government TV), Middle East Broadcasting Center (MBC), and Arab Radio and TV (ART) (satellite TV) and Showtime and Orbit (Pay TV)	Some sport, social, family, children, morning show and medical TV programs were asked by campaign producers to discuss the campaign theme during the implementation time. A special film about the campaign was introduced. Specific symposiums and competition programs were also introduced especially for the campaign.
Radio	MBC (commercial radio)	
Newspapers	Alhayat-Alwatan-Alriyadh-Okaz-Almadinah-Aljazeera-Albilad-Alnadwa and Alyawm	(Newspapers from different provinces) Half Page ad
Magazines	Saudi Auto-Top Gear-Gulf Auto-Alnadi-Eqra and Sport Auto	Mostly targeting young people
Road side signs		Mega com, Mobi and electronic panel
Gifts		T shirts, cubs, pins and bags
Broachures		
Internet		
Direct Communication (simple communication)		Simple communication is very important for campaign delivery, as a result policemen were deployed on the field during the campaign period which reflected the friendly relationship between society and policemen, and boosted face-to-face, direct communication which is well regarded in this traditional society.

Source: Ministry of Interior 2001

As noted above, utilising a variety of media brings more audiences within easy reach (Gaines 2010). Consequently, a range of media was utilised in this campaign as it was targeting all segments of KSA (see Table 4.3). However, these selections were not based on ratings for TV or circulation for newspapers (Personal interview, Mohsen Alshahrani, Head of Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011). This might be due to a lack of availability of such statistics in developing country such as KSA (Alenad 1990; Al-Ghamdi 1999).

1. TV utilisation in the campaign

Although small town audiences in KSA are easily reached by government TV (Ministry of Culture and Information 2011c), it has not been popular with audiences in major cities (see Table 2.1). While TV has a wide coverage and can reach different segments of the public, such as women and children (Alenad 1990), the demographics of viewers such as age, gender, education level and socio-economic status of government TV audiences are not clear enough and not well researched (Rashed 1981). Utilising Satellite and Pay TV; on the other hand, (see Table 4.3) has been found to be much more popular in KSA than government TV, as shown in Table 2.1. Small town audiences, however, have less access to these TV services, which means that the focus of TV campaign content was on urban audiences (Flew & Gilmour 2006). Additionally, the plan to discuss the road safety campaigns on other programs, such as news and talk shows, was justified, as it extends the impact of campaign messages, given that personal advice from high profile social role models which audiences tends to be well received in this traditional society (Ministry of Interior 2001).

2. Radio utilisation in the “Let’s not lose our lives” campaign

Geographic coverage and advertising costs are important criteria in choosing campaign media (Alenad 1990). Utilising MBC commercial radio, however, costs the producers a lot of money as it covers six Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries and exceeds the allocated geographic region for the campaign target audiences (Milat, Carroll & Taylor 2005). Utilising a radio service such as MBC with such a wide coverage may be appropriate for commercial advertisers who have resources to market their products in all GCC countries, but it is not suitable for road safety campaigns where the target audience is restricted to a limited geographic area (Rashed 1981). Further, although MBC radio is available for Saudi audiences, it broadcasts only in Arabic, thus excluding non-Arabic speaking minority audiences (Milat, Carroll & Taylor 2005). Further, MBC’s services are restricted to major cities in KSA, and other audiences in different cities and small towns are not reached by this medium (Khare 2009). Despite these significant drawbacks, it appears that campaign producers found themselves compelled to use this expensive medium as MBC was held to be the only way to reach radio audiences because of the very limited audiences for

government radio which is less popular among all segments of Saudis and non-Saudis as shown in Table 2.1.

3. Newspaper utilisation in the “Let’s not lose our lives” campaign

Campaign producers recognised that newspapers were popular with Saudi audiences (see Table 2.1), and utilised papers from different regions across KSA as can be seen in Table 4.3. However, all of the newspapers selected were in Arabic, which unfortunately excluded non-Saudi audiences who do not speak or understand the Arabic language (Alenad 1990). Reaching the population of KSA which does not speak Arabic as a first language could be done through newspapers that are published in the language of the target group (Milat, Carroll & Taylor 2005). This could be a more effective way to access the non-Saudi population, rather than through minority language or English speaking TV or radio programs, as most non-Saudis are the working class of KSA, such as drivers, who have limited time for viewing television (Ministry of Labour 2012).

4. Road side signs, internet and brochures used in the “Let’s not lose our lives” campaign

Roadside signs are only available in the main cities of KSA and on the highways between main cities (Alenad 1990). As a result, the effective reach of road side signs in the campaign was limited to main cities’ audiences. In 2000, the internet was an emerging communications service in the KSA, and limited to major cities which meant that advertising and publicising campaign messages by the internet was limited to the main cities only (Al-Salem 2005).

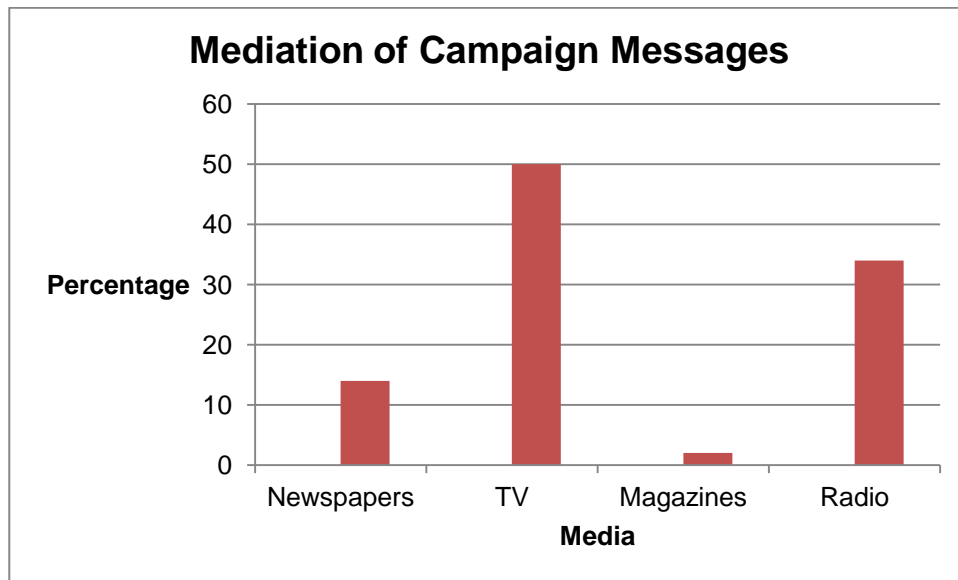
5. Direct communication (Simple Communication) in the “Let’s not lose our lives” campaign

Simple communication may have more impact on the audience than mass or diffused communications and allow a campaign message to reach target audiences, including those who do not have time for watching TV such as the driver class (Abercrombie & Longhurst 1998). Despite the recognised potential of this method, however, this method of delivering the campaign was only available for a few hours in the afternoon during campaign implementation (Ministry of Interior 2001). Further, it was only available in the main cities, and as most policemen only speak Arabic, its impact was very limited as non-Arabic speaking minority audiences were unable to be reached (Ministry of Interior 2001).

4.1.1.1. Distribution of campaign messages and budget on different media

The “Let’s...” campaign messages were distributed on various mediums (see Figure 4.6).

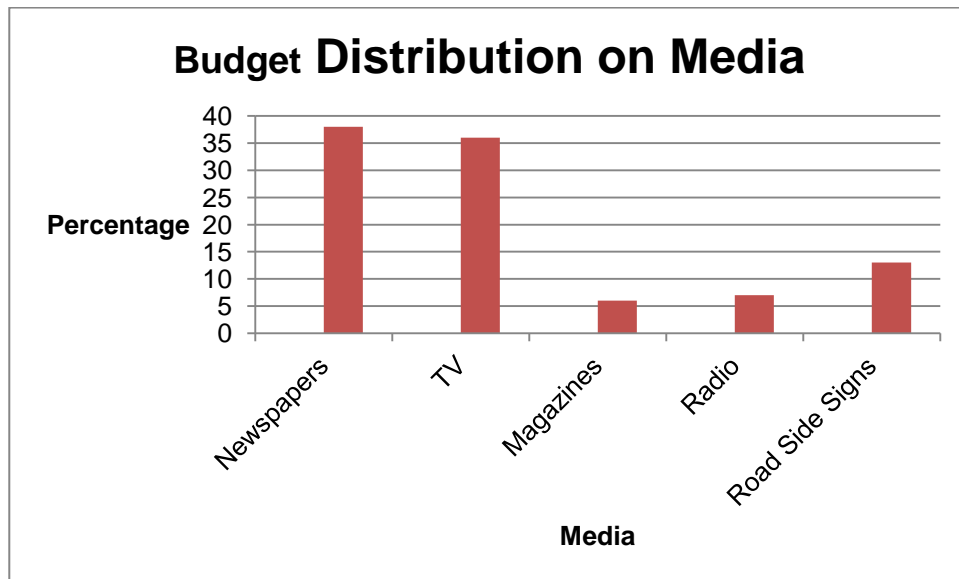
Figure 4.6: Message distribution across media



Source: Ministry of Interior 2001

It is clear that 50 percent of campaign messages were delivered using government, Pay and Satellite TV. The choice of TV might seem understandable: television audiences are large, and television services, particularly state television, have a nation-wide reach, and the cultivation effect of television is well-established (Wilmschurst & Mackay 1985). However; these TV services present very general broadcasting material, and as a result young people were not specifically targeted, despite the fact that this social group is over represented in road traffic deaths (Ministry of Interior 2011; 2012). On the other hand; very few messages were delivered through magazines although most of the magazines selected target young people (Ministry of Interior 2001). Thus it can be said that targeting young people was neither sufficient nor appropriate as very few messages were delivered to them in the media selected for the campaign.

Figure 4.7: Budget distribution across media



Source: Ministry of Interior 2001

Figure 4.7 shows the budget distribution across media in the “Let’s not lose our lives” campaign. While more than two thirds (70 percent) of the campaign budget was spent on newspapers and TV, less than 15 percent was spent on radio and magazines taken together. Most campaign budgets are absorbed by TV and newspaper ads due to the high fees of advertising on these media (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989).

Buying space for campaign ads in newspapers was an understandable choice given the popularity of newspapers among Saudi audiences (see Table 2.1). Further, national newspapers in KSA are regionally distributed and therefore have an effective reach. Newspapers selected were from specific regions in KSA such as Riyadh and Makkah (Ministry of Interior 2001). This restricted choice may have meant that newspaper audiences in other provinces may not have been reached effectively as the newspapers published in these regions were not utilised in the campaign.

4.6.4. KSA case study 2: “Enough”

For many decades, a broad-brush media approach was used by campaign producers to reach mass audiences. Audience segmentation, which is a function of the penetration of so-called new media (mostly digital platforms), however, has made the broad-brush approach less effective, and in the contemporary media environment campaign producers must pay attention to the way audiences segment themselves by their media consumption practices

(Myers 1999). It is for this reason that a variety of media was utilised in the “Enough” campaign, as shown in Table 4.4. Here digital platforms were not used, however, suggesting that authorities have not the resources to build digital communications into the media mix (Personal interview, Saad Alasmary, Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011).

Table 4.4: Media utilization in the “Enough” campaign

Medium	TV/Radio Channel /Newspaper /Magazine Name	Notes
TV	Almajd ad (family TV-Satellite TV) Saudi TV channel 1 (Government TV) Saudi TV channel 3 (Government TV-Sport Channel)	Sponsoring programs on Almajd TV channel (family channel) and Shabab magazine
Radio	MBC (commercial radio)	
Newspapers	Alriyadh- Aljazeera- Alwatan- Okaz- Alyawm- Alriyadiyah	10X8 Cm (stripe) ad
Road side signs		Unipole-on bridges and high buildings
Children story (Traffic friends)		500000 copy were distributed in KSA schools
Brochures		Brochures including putting campaign messages on world cup 2006 timetable with national team players' pictures to target young audiences

Source: Ministry of Interior 2006b

Table 4.4 shows that the producers of the “Enough” campaign were well aware of the desirability of utilising a mix of media in trying to reach campaign audiences. The media deployed in the “Enough” campaign, however, focused on major cities and Saudi audiences only, while non-Saudis who represent a large proportion of Saudi society were overlooked (Alrasheedi 2006; Ministry of Interior 2006b). This is despite producers identifying all audiences in all Saudi cities and small towns, including non-Saudis, as campaign audiences (Ministry of Interior 2006b). Producers failed to include publications or broadcast services that reached non-Arabic speaking audiences, meaning in effect that the campaign reached only half of the target audience.

1. TV utilisation in the “Enough” campaign

In most campaigns, TV is considered as the main medium for delivering campaign messages to target audiences because of its pervasiveness, which allows producers to reach more segments of audiences (Flew & Gilmour 2006). Media buying for the campaign, however, overlooked the different audience share of government, satellite and Pay TV in KSA. As a result, TV was not utilised effectively in the “Enough” campaign (see Table 2.1). More than 60 percent of the TV ads were screened on government TV which is not popular among audiences, particularly young people (Nassif & Gunter 2008). Screening about two thirds of the TV ads on government TV might be because advertising on KSA government TV is cheaper than advertising on other TV channels, or because producers were offered free time as has been discussed previously (Alenad 1990). Although government TV has a low audience share, screening the campaign ads on prime time may guarantee more audiences (Myers 1999). As Saudi TV contributes free time or discounted prices to campaign producers, however, it is usually impossible to screen social marketing advertisements during prime time as it is booked by private advertisers or companies who allocate big budgets looking to reach a maximum share of the viewing audience (Murray, Stam & Lastovicka 1993; Salmon 1989). It can be said that as a result, road safety campaign producers are caught in two ways: they are pushed out of prime time, and they are pushed onto the low rating government channel in placing campaign ads.

Utilising Almajd TV to reach a very big proportion of satellite TV audiences (see Table 2.1), on the other hand, was not an effective choice as this TV is considered as family TV. The “Enough” campaign targeted young people – the audience segment which prefers to watch other channels targeting young audiences rather than the family TV channel (Flew & Gilmour 2006). Pay TV audiences were not targeted at all in this campaign, even though Pay TV is popular in KSA (see Table 2.1).

2. Newspaper utilisation in the “Enough” campaign

Although six newspapers were utilised in the campaign, two of the six were published in the Riyadh province (Ministry of Interior 2006b). This meant that readers in Riyadh were well covered, but newspaper audiences in several regions of KSA were not targeted at all. Further, in general, newspapers are not popular with young people (Botalibi 2006). The choice of advertising in Alriyadiyah, a sports newspaper, however, was deliberate and designed to target young people who were described in the campaign brief as priority audiences (Ministry of Interior 2006b). Non-Arabic speakers, however, were not targeted at all by the newspaper ads as all newspapers selected were Arabic papers (See Table 4.4). Although there are English newspapers available in the KSA, they were not included in the

media buy, which meant English speaking and many young people were overlooked by the campaign (Alenad 1990).

3. Road side signs and children's story utilisation in the "Enough" campaign

Although the utilisation of road side signs is usually limited by locality, careful selection of display sites can mean maximum exposure if busy roads and high visibility sites are chosen (Myers 1990). Using road side signs with persuasive messages can boost safe driving behaviour during the campaign as people are able to read the message while driving and adopt the recommended behaviour (Rashed 1981). In the "Enough" campaign, however, only Arabic speakers were targeted by the outdoor ads as they were all in Arabic which obviously limited their impact to that language group. The utilisation of children's stories, however, was a unique idea as more than 500000 stories were distributed to school children in a country where public education has no single unit about road safety (Ministry of Interior 2006b).

4.6.4.1. Distribution of campaign messages of different media

The "Enough" campaign messages were distributed across several kinds of media, as shown in Table 4.5. Due to different formats used in campaign brief books, repetition of ads will be used as it is the only metric available.

Table 4.5: Repetition of ads using different media during the campaign period of “Enough”

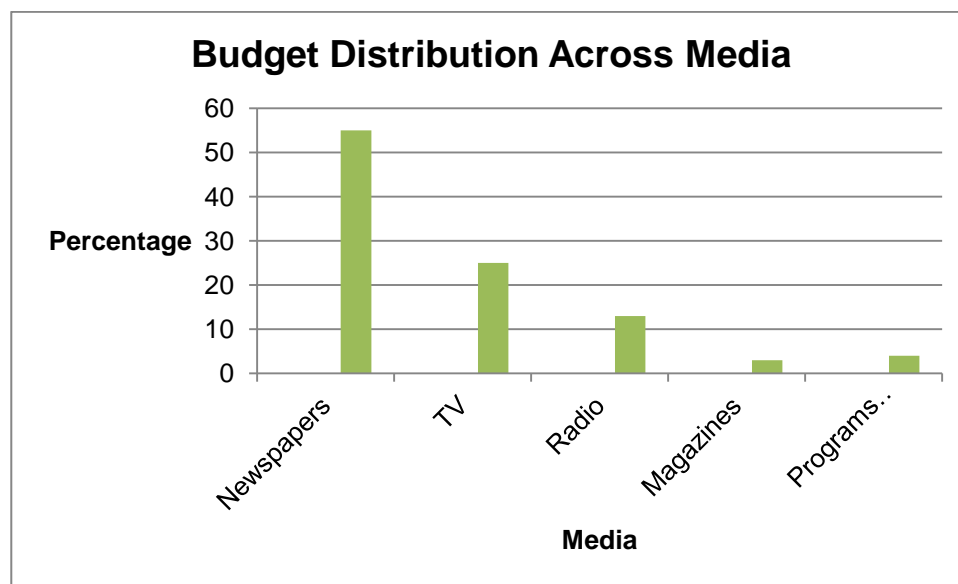
Medium	Name	Repetition	Note
Newspapers	Alriyadh	9 ads	Published from Riyadh Province
	Aljazeera	7 ads	Published from Riyadh Province
	Alwatan	7 ads	Published from Southern Province
	Okaz	8 ads	Published from Makkah Province
	Alyawm	5 ads	Published from Eastern Province
	Alriyadiyah	7 ads	Sport Newspaper
Radio	MBC	74 ad	Commercial Radio
TV	Almajd (family TV-satellite TV)	94 ads	About 30 percent only of TV ads on satellite TV
	Saudi TV channel 1	100 ads	
	Saudi TV channel 3 (sports channel)	100 ads	
Road Side Signs		97 ads	
Children story (Traffic friends)		500000 copy	distributed in KSA schools
Brochures		NA	

Source: Ministry of Interior 2006b

It is clear that while most campaign messages were delivered using TV, two thirds of these messages were screened through government TV (see Table 4.5). As utilising newspapers is based on circulation level and the character of its readers (Wilmschurst & Mackay 1985), it

is not clear why only 11 percent was published in Eastern province newspapers (see Table 4.5). Audiences in Eastern province are more vulnerable to road accidents compared to other provinces audiences. For example, 14.7 percent of deaths due to road accidents in 2005 were in Eastern province. However, only 6.5 percent from the overall death toll was in Riyadh province (Ministry of Interior 2005). This data suggests that more focus should be paid to Eastern province readers using the Alyawm newspaper.

Figure 4.8: Budget distribution on media in “Enough” campaign



Source: Ministry of Interior 2006b

Figure 4.8 shows the budget distribution across media in the “Enough” campaign. While more than half of the campaign budget was spent on newspapers only, about one quarter of the budget was spent on TV and 2 percent was spent on program sponsorship. Dweedar (1995), however, has argued that the size of newspaper ads is significant in attracting audience attention. In the “Enough” campaign, unfortunately, newspaper ads were 8x10cm only. Such small ads are hardly suitable to carry the weight of an important national road safety campaign message.

4.6.5. Producer perspectives on media utilisation

Interview outcomes from this comparative research project concerning media utilisation in both KSA and NSW will be investigated in this section. What this study shows is that in NSW, specialist and professional media companies are contracted by NSW authorities to set the media plan and market the campaign,

RTA would have an open tender and companies would submit their credentials for that and propose commercial terms. They would then select the company to do media plan and market the road safety campaigns for the next three years (Personal interview, Malcolm Stewart, Manager of Customedia Company, 30/4/2012).

In KSA, media utilisation is the responsibility of the campaign committee (Personal interview, Mohsen Alshahrani, Head of Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011). Relying on the personal efforts of campaign committee members to market the campaign in KSA may negatively affect the campaign delivery to target audiences. It is unreasonable to expect that non-specialists whose work has been in law enforcement, and whose education has not addressed professional communication, will be able to choose the right media and put together a media buying plan as happens in NSW, where professionals are responsible for such technical processes (Personal communication, Abdullatif Alawfi, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 6/6/2011). While the committee member's lack of knowledge of contemporary media practices might not be a factor in understanding older generation Saudi audiences, it is a handicap when younger audiences whose global satellite TV consumption practices are well known, and when non-Saudi, non Arabic speaking audiences are brought into consideration (Personal interview, Baker Ibraheem, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 13/6/2011).

It was also found that media plans for NSW campaigns are research-based and put together by special research companies based on the target audience's characteristics (Personal interview, Malcolm Stewart, Manager of Customedia Company, 30/4/2012). The chosen media strategy is also subject to ongoing evaluation to make sure the right media is used to deliver campaign material effectively to target audiences (Personal interview, Malcolm Stewart, Manager of Customedia Company, 30/4/2012). In KSA on the other hand, the personal experience of campaign producers, relationships with media organisations, and discounts from TV channels and newspapers determine which media are utilised to deliver the campaign to target audiences, regardless of the audience reach of those media and their relevance to target audiences. As the Head of the Media Section noted: "We rely on our experience in choosing media that are used and after the proposed media plan is set, we negotiate with industry to have discounts, using our special relationship with the media" (Personal interview, Mohsen Alshahrani, Head of Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011).

Another significant finding that emerged from this research project is that time, period and duration for displaying campaign ads in KSA is more or less a function of low budgets. The

lack of resources shortens duration of air time purchased, or inappropriate choices of media, made as a way of extending audiences' exposure to campaigns:

The campaign committee determines the campaign period in the campaign strategy. However, ads [exposure] period should align with that time on top of our budget, which controls displaying time. For instance, when you display your ad on an expensive channel, you will not be able to display it more than a week, whereas on cheap or free channels we can display it for more than one month (Personal interview, Saad Alasmay, Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011),

Such important factors in NSW are guided by peak times and occasions which make content more impactful as they are displayed at the right time using appropriate media to reach to target audiences,

Road safety is a general year-round problem. There are certain peaks and lows but there's no particular period when fatalities increase dramatically. As far as I can recall there is some peak for drink driving perhaps around Christmas and New Year, at around holiday seasons, there used to be some peaks in fatalities during holiday periods. It looks certainly as if there is evidence to suggest that there's a peak, we need to be in the market of advising people to think more clearly, more carefully, rather than about the choices they make on the road (Personal interview, Jordaan Knapp, Customedia Company 15/5/2012).

Hence it is very important to have sufficient funds to enable producers set an effective media plan and buy the right slots that will deliver campaigns to target audiences (Katz 1995). The availability of statistical information and profiles of media audiences in NSW aids authorities and media planners in NSW set an effective media plan:

Every TV program and every radio station has a profile, a typical audience profile that allows us to know what type of person is watching that channel and program. Obviously the number of people who are watching that program is included in the statistics, and that's part of our media strategy (Personal interview, Jordaan Knapp, Customedia Company 15/5/2012),

The lack of such important information in KSA makes setting media plans a hard and unpredictable mission, and leads responsible people to rely on their personal observations or experience as has been discussed previously:

As you know, in KSA we don't have specific studies that show percentages of each newspaper readership, or TV channel audiences. As a result, we rely on our intuition in order to choose media mediums that we think are popular and have high numbers of audiences in each province in KSA (Personal interview, Mohsen Alshahrani, Head of Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011).

What has emerged here is consistent with Alenad (1990), who suggested that the lack of important information in developing countries, information which can be found easily in developed countries, must be compensated for by conducting special research to bridge this gap in knowledge.

It also has become clear that a very limited media repertoire including government TV (Government TV target mass audiences usually, Ministry of Culture and Information 2011c) is utilised to deliver the campaign to the entire society. Using the whole-of-society approach isn't appropriate as it doesn't cater for audience segments which make the campaign ineffective as it is not delivered to a variety audiences,

Choosing the best delivery mediums and means for each group are important. It is also important to mention that campaign producers in KSA rely on mass communication using government TV, which is considered to be poorest way of changing behaviour. They should focus more on other ways of communication, such as diffused and simple communication (Personal interview, Khaled Albisher, Naif Arab University for Security Sciences, 21/6/2011).

Relying on traditional media including government TV and radio these days has become less effective, particularly for targeting young people (the so-called "social media" generation; Al-Salem 2005). In NSW, on the other hand, on top of professional and research-based utilisation of traditional media as discussed above, social media such as Facebook and Twitter are used effectively to deliver campaign material to target audiences, particularly young people,

Social media is being used increasingly by government bodies to get a message to Facebook users who are predominantly young and who are increasingly more difficult to reach through traditional forms of media (Personal interview, Jordaan Knapp, Customedia Company 15/5/2012).

Utilising such important kinds of media in KSA, however, is still under study by authorities,

We believe that Facebook and Twitter have become a successful communication way, they are faster than famous news agencies in transferring news. We have proposed a plan to use these social media mediums, our plan has been sent to the Ministry of Interior to get approved (Personal interview, Mohsen Alshahrani, Head of Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media, 8/6/2011).

Utilising social media can be more effective particularly in targeting young people who represent a big proportion of Saudi society and are involved in a high percentage of road accidents (Chitu 2009; Ministry of Interior 2012). It is also beneficial to use such cheap media to reach target audiences wherever they are. TV, radio and newspapers are not

mobile and cannot be accessed in the same way, making them less effective in targeting nominated audiences. “An effective way in reaching young people using low budget in these days is achievable through utilising social media” (Personal communication, Julia Irwin, Director of Undergraduate Studies, Department of Psychology, Macquarie University, 18/6/2012).

Another significant finding that has become clear in the course of this research is that there are significant differences in targeting minorities from sub-cultural groups in KSA and NSW. About 10 percent of campaign budgets in NSW is dedicated to the delivery of campaign material to sub-cultural minorities using dedicated TV and/or radio channels (Personal interview, John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA 16/5/ 2012). Media strategist Malcolm Stewart backs up John Bruton’s comments with these words:

Most sub-cultural groups have a variety of TV programs that they can see on SBS and you can buy SBS just in Sydney or just in New South Wales. Arabic speakers, Mandarin, Cantonese, and Vietnamese speakers, all have radio stations and they have a variety of newspapers that they can read in their first language which are used for delivering campaigns to those groups (Personal interview, Malcolm Stewart, Manager of Customedia Company, 30/4/2012).

In KSA, on the other hand, media utilisation for targeting this important component of KSA society is inadequate compared to NSW.

We have two English newspapers in KSA, which are the Riyadh Daily & the Saudi Gazette. Security and Traffic ads and Hajj campaigns ads are published in English language in those newspapers. However, targeting minorities is not equal with targeting Saudis since we target Saudis more (Personal interview, Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, 7/6/2011).

Not allocating a specific proportion of campaign budgets to target this important group who are overly represented in road accidents in KSA, and not using a variety of media that are appropriate for minority groups, puts these groups out of range (Al-Ghamdi 2000). However, although media in KSA do not target those groups by special TV channels or newspapers as in NSW, it is important to realise that these groups can be targeted effectively using Indian, Indonesian and Pakistani satellite channels that are available and watched by those groups in KSA. International media such as Indian newspapers are also exported to the Indian community in KSA and can be utilised to target this group. KSA authorities may make an effective intervention in minority groups’ behaviour by buying time and space in media which attracts the at-risk audiences, but so far, authorities have failed to do so. Professor of Communication Baker Ibraheem respond to a question about how to address lack of media targeting sub-cultural groups in KSA by saying:

I agree, there is a lack of media that is targeting sub-cultural groups in KSA, but this issue can be addressed through buying media in satellite channels that targeting these groups or imported newspapers from those groups' countries (Personal communication, Baker Ibraheem, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 13/6/2011).

4.6.6. Summary: Media utilisation

The reach and impact of different media on different audiences is vital to developing effective road safety campaign and producers depend on accessing and synthesising a substantial amount of data in making decisions. In highly mediated countries ratings services and other expertise is available to inform choices. In KSA, there are legacy effects in the national media market, and a gulf between public or government sponsored channels and popular commercial channels available to all segments of the population. Low budgets, and a lack of data makes producers' choices in KSA more difficult than in NSW. The mediation of NSW campaigns is more driven by and linked to target audience of the campaign compared to KSA practices. Sub-cultural groups are targeted more effectively in NSW whereas these important components of KSA society are rarely and ineffectively targeted. Targeting young people as a major issue in road safety is more effective in NSW compared to KSA as more youth-focused channels and social media are utilised in NSW. The media utilised in NSW is selected carefully by specialist media companies contracted for marketing road safety campaign content. Road safety campaigns in KSA, on the other hand, are marketed by the Department of Public Relation and Media relying on their own personal experience. It has been noted that there are advantages and disadvantages in relying on experience, and it seems that as the media environment of KSA develops, and advertising becomes more and more a part of everyday life, relying on experience in making choices about reaching audiences will be less and less reliable. Media companies contracted for campaigns in NSW market the campaign based on research and TV or radio channels' profile of audience's personal characteristics. The lack of such data in KSA leads producers to mount their choices of selected media on their intuition and other factors such as discounts by media channels, free donated time and their personal relationships. In the final section of this chapter, road safety campaign evaluation in KSA and NSW will be explored and discussed.

4.7. Campaign evaluation

In what follows, discussion will examine whether or not road safety campaigns in both settings are evaluated independently or internally. The discussion in this section will address

sub-question 1 G: Are road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW independently evaluated, including scholarly evaluations?

4.7.1. NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”

With large expenditures of public money, and critical and important humanitarian or community objectives, campaign evaluation must be conducted to make sure the campaign fulfils its objectives (Alenad 1990). It is important to review all aspects of the campaign at different stages as ongoing evaluation for road safety campaigns contributes significantly to their efficacy (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989; Plant, Reza and Irwin 2011). For example, pre-evaluation must be carried out to explore the audiences who are likely to be reached by the advertisements, and post-evaluation to see whether selected audiences were reached or not, and to judge the media effectiveness and the ability of the media plan to achieve its objectives (Katz 1995). Pragmatically, however, what campaign teams are able to achieve in the evaluation of their work may reflect factors beyond the control of campaign teams. Indeed, as Mohammad Almaroul noted:

Evaluating the campaign before and during it is run is not [part of our practice] because it needs special effort and experience. In addition, it needs academics and qualified people to make such studies, which is very expensive for us with our limited budget (Personal interview, Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, 7/6/2011).

In NSW, where as it has been noted, budget constraints are not such a problem, “best practice” recommendations were put in place in the “Pinkie” campaign and different stages of the campaign were carefully evaluated. For example, two pre-campaign research activities supported the creative concept across all age groups and genders, and suggested that a new and different idea to modify speeding behaviour would have impact and be attention-getting, thus ensuring good cut-through (RTA 2007a). Campaign effectiveness can be measured through measuring the target audience behaviour towards speeding and to the principle ideas communicated in the campaign theme (Plant, Reza and Irwin 2011). Thus the evaluation activities can be considered a strength of the “Pinkie” campaign. Both pre-campaign surveys found that the TV advertisement had an impact on target audiences (males aged between 17 and 25 years old), and that the advertising idea was understood as the producers intended, and the advertisement was likely to change young male driver speeding behaviour. Both studies also found that the wider community thought this action (campaign) was needed by authorities to counter speeding. Relevant audience groups responded to the advertisement positively and did not find it offensive (RTA 2007a). It seems, however, that although the researchers did everything they could to improve

reliability and clarity of the research by undertaking two evaluation studies at the same time (Crouch & Mackenzie 2006), it is difficult to make a final judgement on the results of the evaluations as the methods used are not explained in detail in the report. This could be because the information was cited from an internal document that was provided by the RTA; perhaps the information was more a bureaucratic than an academic report.

Two weeks into the “Pinkie” campaign, during-campaign research showed that 97 percent of target audiences and 95 percent of general audiences were aware of the campaign theme and the advertisement (RTA n.d d), suggesting that media placement had been effective. However, there was lack of discussion about methodology and sampling in this report. The evaluation was not independently undertaken as it was conducted by the creative company that designed the “Pinkie” campaign advertisement which may affect its reliability due to a possible conflict of interest.

Continuous evaluation for the campaign based on scientific methods, and measuring audience behavioural changes were stressed in campaign objectives and can give a clear picture of campaign outcomes (Wundersitz & Hutchinson 2011). An independent survey of the whole population of NSW and young people in the state carried out in 2009 by the RTA’s Road Safety Marketing team which was conducted after the last major campaign period. It found that about 58 percent of the general population and the same percent of young males’ recognised that the aim of the campaign message was to show speeding is not cool and does not impress (RTA 2011o). As a result, 69 and 70 percent of the general audience and young male drivers respectively said that the campaign encouraged young male drivers to obey the speed limit (RTA 2011o). Based on these results, it seems that the evaluation focused on behavioural change rather than simply recall of ads or exposure which can give a clear idea about the campaign impact on audience behaviour (Botalibi 2006).

The way young drivers felt about their passengers changed after the campaign. Eighteen percent reported that they would be more reluctant to casually speed if they had friends or a girlfriend in the car with them, compared to 2 percent before the campaign (RTA n.d d). Twenty three percent said they would be less likely to speed if they are watched by the opposite sex compared to 2 percent prior the campaign (RTA n.d d). Speeding tickets issued decreased by 9 percent after the campaign, and young people’s (17-25) deaths related to speed crashes dramatically fell by about 50 percent one year after the campaign, compared to 2006 (RTA n.d d). Evaluation outcomes based on speed-related crashes, however, may be a weakness in the “Pinkie” campaign evaluation, as changes in speed-related crashes are not an accurate measurement or reflection of the campaign; some speed-related crashes may be attributed to more than one factor, and minor crashes are not

reported to police (Plant, Reza and Irwin 2011). In spite of its success, the “Pinkie” campaign, however, received considerable criticism concerning its imagery. The ad was formally reported to the Advertising Standards Bureau because of its perceived sexually suggestive content (Faulks & Irwin 2008). The ad content also led to a number of spoof ads such as an advertisement for the launch of the Australian edition of Top Gear magazine in July 2008 (Faulks 2008).

4.7.2. NSW case study 2 “Wake up to the signs”

Due to the lack of external sources that discuss the “Wake up to the signs” campaign as mentioned previously, the information available on the campaign brief will be used in this section even though it was limited to the NSW campaign evaluation. Some Australian campaigns are not evaluated properly for one reason or another and the “Wake up to the signs” seems to be one of these (Donovan, Henley, Jalleh and Slater 1995). It was a relatively recent campaign and has not been evaluated sufficiently, which makes releasing official evaluation difficult at this stage (Personal interview, Tina Gallagher, Transport of NSW, 13/6/2012).

Scientific and independent evaluation for campaigns is very important to see what was not achieved and why (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989). Campaign objectives must be measured to see whether they were fulfilled or not (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985). In “Wake up to the signs”, however, while 50 percent of all NSW drivers are likely have seen campaign advertisement, the best evidence to date is that a reasonable number of participants think that the advertisement educated them well about fatigue symptoms and provided them with significant information about driving fatigue and how to deal with it (RMS 2012b). Although the evaluation method/s adopted in this study were not noted clearly within the report which may lessen its reliability (Walsh et al. 2010), based on results available, it seems that evaluation focused on the understanding of the message intended by the campaign advertisement (fatigue signs) so it is reasonable to say that the evaluation measured the main aim of the campaign as stated in the campaign objectives (Khadoor 2007). Therefore, based on the available information about campaign evaluation, it can be said cautiously that the campaign’s objectives look as if they were achieved and target audiences were reached successfully. However, it has not been clear whether the campaign was evaluated internally or independently, and clarity on this point is important, and will affect how evaluative claims may be assessed.

4.7.3. KSA case study 1: “Enough”

Because of the lack of evaluation documents related to the “Let’s ...” campaign, the study of KSA road safety campaign evaluation will be limited to the “Enough” campaign. The special objectives of the “Enough” campaign, however, were achieved, as 85.9 percent of audiences were aware of speed consequences, while the disobeying traffic light message was delivered to 85.8 percent of audiences (Alrasheedi 2006 p 41). Questions for campaign evaluation should ideally be narrow and unambiguous, and focus on behavioural change and how audiences respond to campaign messages rather than simply recall of the message (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985; Plant, Reza and Irwin 2011). It seems, however, that the study focused on media exposure rather than on behavioural changes among the target audience. Delivering campaign messages to audiences is not the ultimate goal for campaign producers, and is not a measure of the modification of risky behaviour – which can be understood as the critical element in evaluation of the campaign (Alsamrany 2011).

On the other hand, successful campaigns require a scholarly or professional evaluation at different stages such as prior, during and post implementation, to make sure each stage of the campaign is performing well and contributing to the required change within stated timeframes (Alenad 1990). The “Enough” campaign, however, was evaluated only once, after the campaign. This post evaluation step was conducted personally by an independent researcher who submitted it as a conference paper (Personal interview, Ali Alrasheedi, Manager of Safety Division in General Traffic Department, 5/6/2011). Thus, it is clear that the campaign did not recruit an independent department for campaign evaluation. The evaluation relied on non-published internal evaluation material which was based on official reports provided by traffic departments in KSA provinces. It did not rely on an independent scholarly approach, and the outcomes thus have limited reliability (Personal interview, Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, 7/6/2011).

4.7.4. Producer perspectives on campaign evaluation

It was found that a relatively small number of campaigns are evaluated internally by RTA. Internal evaluation by RTA is scientific and conducted by a special department with expertise in evaluation. However, most campaigns are evaluated independently by neutral and external research departments: “The RTA is responsible for the evaluation which is carried out by specialist staff, but sometimes we contract an external research company for an independent evaluation” (Personal interview, Soames Job, Executive Director National Road Safety Council (Australia) and former manager for NSW Centre for Road Safety in RTA 16/5/2012).

In KSA, on the other hand, all road safety campaigns are evaluated in-house except for the first campaign which was evaluated externally (Directorate of Public Security 2001),

We do not evaluate the campaigns in a scholarly way but we rely on official reports that come from traffic and police departments in KSA's provinces. They summarize the activities that were done by those departments during the campaign period. I think this evaluation is not-scientific and not academic (Personal interview, Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, 7/6/2011).

Internal evaluation in KSA, however, is unreliable since it is not based on scientific methods nor conducted by experts or specialist officers (CAST 2008). It relies on descriptive official reports written by traffic departments in different provinces of KSA that explain activities such as conducting symposiums or seminars for school students that were carried out by departments during the campaign in order to educate local people (Personal communication, Abdullatif Alawfi, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 6/6/2011). It is easy to understand that these reports tend to present favourable commentary on Departments, rather than a careful examination of campaign outcomes (Personal communication, LE1, Riyadh Traffic Department, 30/5/2011). Reports also give officers' personal observations about targeted phenomena (Personal communication, LE1, Riyadh Traffic Department, 30/5/2011). If the targeted phenomenon is speed, for example, officers give their impressions about speed violations during the campaign, noting whether they increased or declined based on personal observation, and (more rarely) on statistics. Not carrying out scholarly evaluation and not contracting independent and specialist research organisations in conducting evaluation studies may be an outcome of financial constraints as was clearly expressed by some policy makers in KSA:

Only the first campaign in 2000 was independently evaluated by a specialist company. The latest campaign, however, had the evaluation done internally by the department, as it is expensive to evaluate all campaigns externally. For example, the first campaign evaluation cost about 300000 SR (about US 80000) (Personal interview, Ameen Saeed, Manager of Central Media Committee previously, 29/5/2011).

Such internal, unsystematic evaluation cannot be relied on as officers are reluctant to give candid evaluations and criticize their own and/or their managers' work (Alsamrany 2011). It is regarded as culturally inadmissible to comment critically and frankly on colleagues' performance: "Most campaigns in KSA failed but sometimes we can't say [they have] actually failed, because we complement each other as a social value" (Personal interview, Baker Ibraheem, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 13/6/2011). Too much praise and a lack of critical appraisal in internal evaluation reports

may affect future campaigns negatively. Even though it may be culturally taboo, raising problems in each campaign is likely to lead producers to become aware of shortcomings in campaigns, and hopefully will encourage improved design and evaluation practices, and avoid previous mistakes (Alsamrany 2011).

In addition to ongoing independent evaluation for NSW campaigns, field research showed that NSW campaigns are also monitored at a higher level by the NSW Parliament to make sure the RTA is accountable and working properly:

I have predominantly been involved in over-sighting campaigns rather than developing campaigns. So for 15 years I was working in the New South Wales parliament where we would routinely, at least annually, get the roads and traffic authority and other road safety agencies in, all road safety associated agencies such as health and education and so on; and we would ask them about the road safety campaigns they were running, what the purpose was, who was involved in developing it, what kinds of materials were produced, what models were used for the campaign and what the outcomes were (Personal interview, Ian Faulks, Partner, Safety and Policy Analysis International, 31/5/2012).

The accountability of NSW producers and agencies concerning campaign objectives and outcomes to parliament does not exist in KSA (Personal interview, Ameen Saeed, Manager of Central Media Committee previously, 29/5/2011). The lack of external, high level and disinterested oversight may limit campaign effectiveness. External observers from official agencies are in a position to judge campaigns and policy strategies abstractly, and such disinterested evaluation is likely, all factors being equal, to lead to dropping unsuccessful aspects of campaigns and consequently campaign success (Personal communication, Lori Mooren, Senior Research Fellow at Transport and Road Safety Research (TARS) at University of New South Wales [UNSW], 9/5/2012).

4.7.5. Summary: Campaign evaluation

Although findings concerning evaluation methods and sources (internal or independent) for evaluation of the four road safety campaigns reviewed here were limited and to some extent unsatisfactory, the information presented in section 4.7 derives mostly from interviews with participants. It can be said that the campaign evaluation in NSW is more scholarly and independent when compared to KSA evaluation practices. A few campaigns are evaluated internally by the RTA, but even so, a professional or scholarly approach is adopted in these campaigns which are analysed by specialist professional. Other NSW campaigns, however, are evaluated in a scholarly and independent manner. In KSA, on the other hand, campaign evaluation is done in-house and descriptive reports are relied upon for analysis rather than

information collected in line with best practice. While on-going evaluation for road safety campaigns is part of NSW campaigns, such evaluations are not adopted by KSA authorities.

4.8. Conclusion

This chapter has presented the producers' perspective on critical steps in road safety campaign development. Participants' reflections on their practice has shown that the campaign formation practice is subject to a range of constraints and is embedded in the historical circumstances, political and cultural values of the community responsible for producing social marketing campaigns. Campaign formation has been shown to be an uncertain process, far less predictable and tidy than textbooks suggest. It has been discovered that producers in both settings are keenly aware of what expertise and knowledge should ideally inform their work, but also aware that policy, levels of finance and the urgency of their responsibilities often affects such matters as evaluation and informed choices for the mediation of campaigns.

Significant administrative and institutional differences between KSA and NSW concerning departments responsible for campaign development and the educational background of departmental personnel have been discovered in this study. While the RTA is responsible only for road safety campaigns, the Department of Public Relations and Media in KSA is responsible for different types of campaigns including road safety campaigns. In NSW, road safety campaigns are designed by external specialist companies. In contrast, in KSA campaign design is in-house. The selection of campaign themes in NSW is driven by road safety statistics and is more nuanced when compared to KSA selections. In NSW, selected objectives are more focused and linked to the campaign theme and can thus be evaluated more easily, whereas broad and hard to evaluate objectives are typical of KSA campaigns. The RTA spends generously on road safety campaigns when compared to low the budget typical in KSA – and even then, these funds are usually obtained from sponsorship. The design of road safety campaign advertisements in NSW is done by professional advertising agencies and is research-based. It was discovered, on the other hand, that the Department of Public Relations and Media designs road safety campaign advertisements in KSA, relying on officers' personal experience. The media utilised in NSW campaigns was selected carefully and professionally by a specialist media company based on research in order to successfully reach to target audiences. This task in KSA, however, is again part of the already heavy workload of the Department of Public Relations and Media. It was noted further, that media contracts were subject to possible conflicts of interests, nepotism and the media schedules of the sponsors. In NSW, scholarly or best professional practice methods are adopted in evaluating road safety campaigns in NSW, although it was noted that these practices were not always as transparent as desired. In KSA, however, non-scholarly

descriptive reports filed in an unsystematic manner by regional officers are relied on for campaign evaluation. The discussion in the next chapter will turn to explore the differences between target audience selection practices in road safety campaigns in both settings.

Chapter Five: Findings and Discussion: Differences in target Audience Selection between KSA and NSW

A comparison between methods of selecting and targeting road safety campaign audiences in KSA and NSW will be undertaken in this chapter. The producer perspective concerning the impact of cultural values and the road traffic environment on road safety message reception by target audiences will be explored and discussed. This chapter will assist in answering the second key research question in this study: How do road safety campaign producers in KSA and NSW select target audiences in road safety campaigns?

5.1. Target audience selection

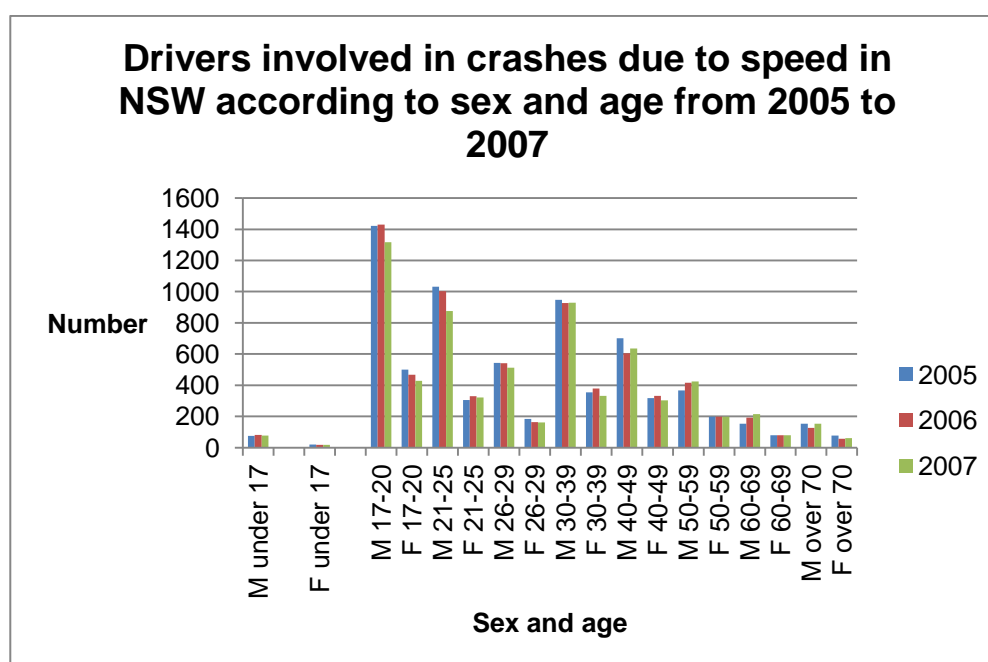
Outcomes from four case studies and semi-structured interviews pertaining to target audience selection by policy makers of road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW will be highlighted and discussed in this section. The official statistics for audiences' involvement in road accidents from both KSA and NSW will be reviewed to examine the validity of these choices and whether they were based on road safety statistics or not. The objective in discussing this information is to answer question 2 A: Are target audiences in road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW selected and segmented based on statistics in order to target at-risk groups?

5.1.1. NSW case study 1: "Pinkie"

Identifying target audiences is a significant element in any campaign process. Pre-campaign research needs to be carried out to map groups at risk and understand their sociological character (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989). Indeed, age, gender and class of road users formed the basis for choosing the "Pinkie" campaign's target audiences: male drivers aged 17 to 25 years old were the primary target for the "Pinkie" campaign. This group was the main at-risk group of road users, and it was these figures that motivated the RTA (now 'RMS') and campaign producers to develop a campaign to modify the speeding behaviour of the target audience (RTA n.d a). Beyond that, however, the general appeal was to reach the wider community and promote attitudes against speeding so that speeding eventually becomes a socially unacceptable behaviour through peer approval of the message "speeding is no good" and the community becomes empowered to take a stand against speeding (RTA n.d b).

According to campaign materials, speeding for young male drivers is exciting and associated with masculinity and freedom, potent factors which might impair judgment and lead to road accidents, hurting them and other road users due to their lack of driving experience (RTA n.d a). Males were involved in 85 percent of fatal speeding crashes in NSW and 40 percent of drivers who were involved in fatal crashes in 2006 were under 26 years old, though this group only represents 16 percent of all license holders (RTA n.d a). While about 40 percent of annual fatal crashes in NSW in recent years were related to speed, young people aged 17 to 25 were involved in 34 percent of those crashes between 2002 and 2006 (RTA 2007b). Young drivers also represent a high level (75 percent) of speeding infringement notices (RTA 2007b).

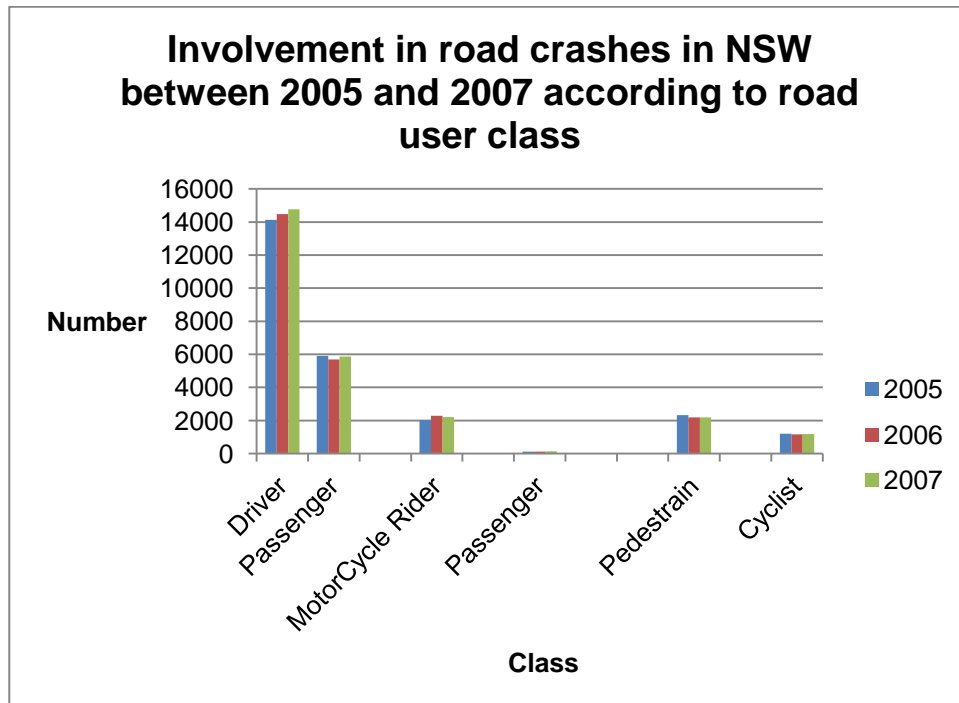
Figure 5.1: Involvement of drivers in speed-related crashes in NSW according to age and sex between 2005 and 2007



Source: RTA 2005, 2006a and 2007b

Figure 5.1 shows the involvement of drivers in speed-related crashes in NSW according to age and sex between 2005 and 2007. It is noticeable that although the involvement of males in general was considerably higher than female involvement, young males (17-25) were highly involved compared to other age groups or sex.

Figure 5.2: Involvement in road crashes in NSW between 2005 and 2007 according to road user class



Source: RTA 2005, 2006a and 2007b

Figure 5.2 shows the involvement in road crashes in NSW between 2005 and 2007 according to road user class. It can be clearly seen that the driver group was the group most at risk and the group for whom involvement in road accidents gradually increased across the three years. Thus, targeting the driver group with the “Pinkie” campaign was justified by statistics which showed a huge difference in their involvement compared to other groups. Targeting this group to educate them about road safety and modify their risky driving behaviour is a higher priority than targeting other groups of road users as most researchers found that the group aged between 17 to 25 years old is the highest risk group vulnerable to road crashes because of the age of driver and lack of experience (Williamson 2003). Therefore, targeting such a group was rated as a high priority by the RTA to intervene in speeding behaviour and to save their lives and others (Scott-Parker, Watson & King 2013).

A campaign audience is not only limited to mainstream audiences based on age, gender and class (Lam 2005). The target audience for a campaign may widen out to include high risk or road safety vulnerabilities of minority or sub-cultural groups (Milat, Carroll & Taylor 2005). As a result, for the “Pinkie” campaign the largest sub-cultural groups, young male

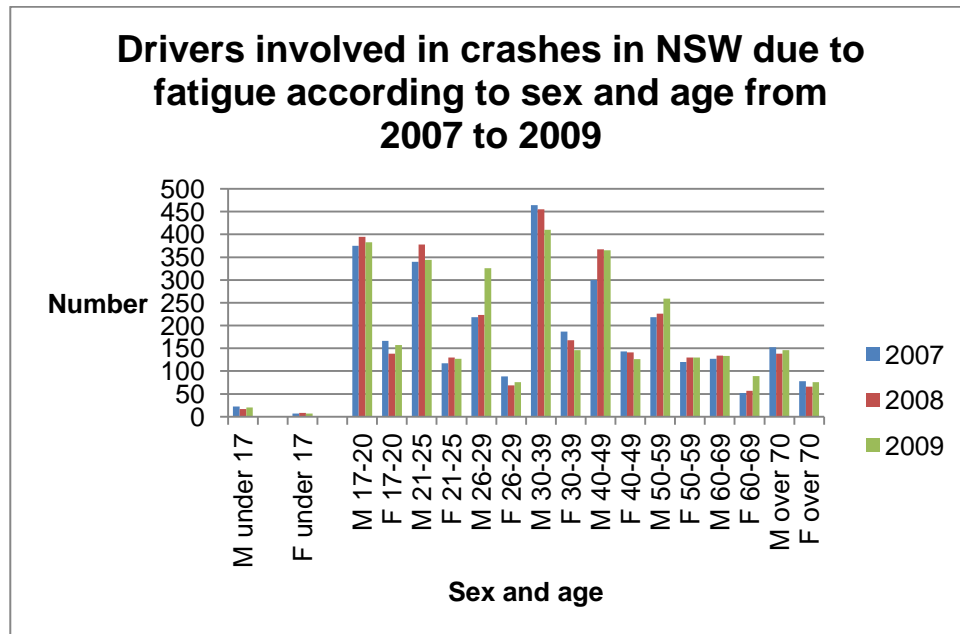
Arab-Australian, Chinese-Australian and Vietnamese-Australian drivers were also included as targeted audience for the campaign (RTA 2007a).

5.1.2. NSW case study 2: “Wake Up to the Signs”

The “Wake up to the signs” campaign was not directed to specific audience segments but to all NSW drivers (RMS 2012b). Reviewing relevant previous literature and available official statistics, however, will assist in judging whether the choice of selected audience was based on road safety statistics in order to target the at-risk group or not. Fatigue can be linked to several variables including age, gender and driver categories such as heavy truck drivers. According to research by Knippling and Wang (1994) which examined USA statistics between 1989 and 1993, there is a relationship between age and sex of drivers and their involvement in fatigue-related crashes. They found 77 percent of fatigued drivers in 1990 were male, and 62 percent of fatigued drivers from both genders were less than 30 years old (Knippling & Wang 1994). Young males are also highly represented in fatigue-related crashes in Australia. While male fatigued drivers were involved in 75.5 percent of single vehicle crashes in Australia in 1998, 35.1 percent of the victims were between 17 and 24 years old (Dobbie 2002). However, reviewing recent official statistics in NSW showed that some of those variables are different in NSW. Males aged 40 years or more for example, were involved in 31 percent and 61 percent of fatigue- related fatal crashes in 2007 and 2008 respectively (RTA 2007b; RTA 2008b).

Driver class also can be an important variable for campaign producers to rely upon. One third of fatal truck crashes in Australia in 1998 resulted from fatigue (Dobbie 2002). Most of those accidents involved commercial drivers who drive for long hours and cannot maintain regular sleeping times as they are compelled to deliver their load of merchandise to other customers in distant states, leading them to drive day and night, putting themselves and others at risk (Knippling & Wang 1994).

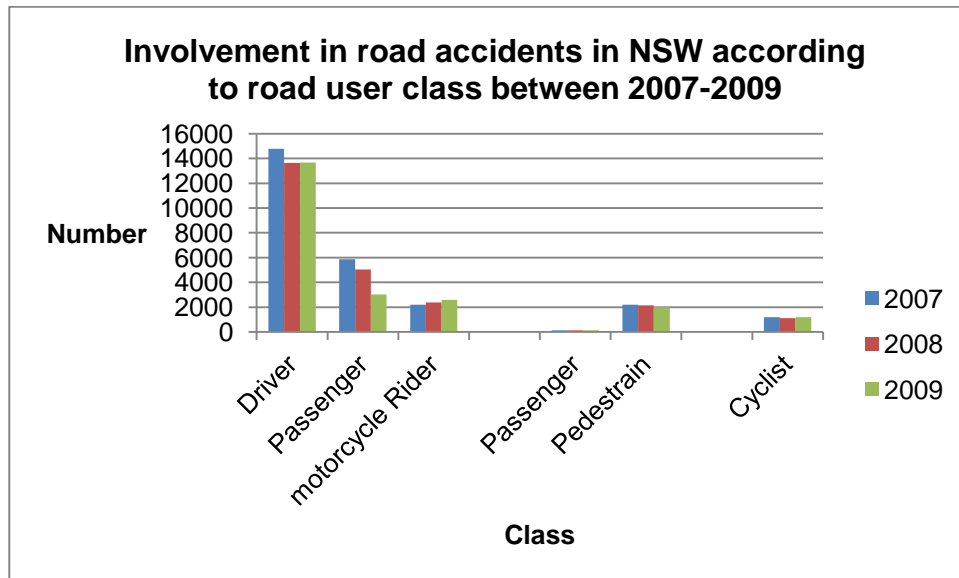
Figure 5.3: Drivers involved in crashes in NSW due to fatigue according to sex and age from 2007 and 2009



Source: RTA 2007b, 2008b and 2009b

Figure 5.3 shows drivers involved in crashes in NSW due to fatigue, according to sex and age from 2007 to 2009. While males over 40 years were more involved in fatal crashes due to fatigue in 2007 and 2008 as discussed previously, males between 30 and 39 years old were also highly involved in general fatigue-related crashes, including fatal and non-fatal crashes. Thus, it is clear that while males are highly over-represented in fatigue-related crashes; males over 30 years old are more at risk.

Figure 5.4: Involvement in road accidents in NSW according to road user class between 2007 and 2009



Source: RTA 2007b, 2008b and 2009b

Figure 5.4 shows involvement in road accidents in NSW according to road user class between 2007 and 2009. Although reasons behind those road accidents were not made explicit, clearly individual drivers in charge of vehicles were highly over-represented in road accidents in NSW compared to other types of road users, and some of the accidents reported could be attributed to fatigue as second rank cause for road accidents in NSW (See Figure 4.2).

About 67 percent and 65 percent of fatal crashes in NSW in 2007 and 2008 respectively, were on country roads (RTA 2007b and 2008b). It should be noted that in QLD, the possibility of dying as a result of fatigue-related crashes increased in rural areas by thirteen and a half times compared to driving in urban areas in QLD (Legislative Assembly of Queensland 2005). Given these statistics, and as fatigue is one of the main factors for fatal and non-fatal crashes in NSW, it is reasonable to assume that fatigue contributes to a significant number of country road crashes (Knippling & Wang 1994). Therefore, it can be said that targeting male drivers over 30 years of age on the perception of fatigue as a risk factor was more important than targeting other audience segments in NSW. Giving more attention to rural area audiences through radio or billboards in high frequency fatigue-related crash areas would deliver campaign material to those audiences or to drivers who are passing through rural areas or using country roads which experience more fatal crashes.

Targeting audiences in QLD for the “Wake up to the signs” campaign, however, was more specific. The primary audience for the campaign in QLD was men in different age groups as they were overly represented in fatigue-related crashes based on official statistics (TMR 2012b). However, targeting all segments in NSW could be ineffective as characteristic differences between audiences have an impact on message reception (Lewis, Watson & White 2009). Yet, targeting the whole of society might be justified in some cases, particularly when the campaign theme may be understood as a whole-of-society problem (Alrasheedi 2006). As a result, targeting all drivers in society in NSW in the case of a fatigue campaign might be justified on the grounds that everyone who drives can fall into a micro sleep or get tired involuntarily while driving. Fatigue or sleepy driving is a high risk, inescapable behaviour that can be experienced by anyone at any time on both long and short trips, regardless of the age of the driver or their driving experience (Centre for Accident Research and Road Safety [CARRSQ] 2011).

5.1.3. KSA case study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”

The “Let’s not lose our lives” campaign targeted all Saudis and non-Saudis in all cities and small towns to educate them about the consequences of speeding, regardless of their demographic characteristics (Ministry of Interior 2001). Due to the lack of accurate road safety statistics in KSA prior and in early 2000 as noted in previous chapter, the relevant literature will be reviewed to examine the validity of target audience selection and the basis for such a choice. The number of traffic accidents despite their causes differs greatly between urban and rural areas in KSA. For example, in urban areas accidents rose gradually from the 1970s to the 1990s, whereas rural areas accidents steadily decreased during the same time period, as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Road accident percentiles in KSA by location in 70^s, 80^s and 90^s

Accident Location	70 ^s Percentile	80 ^s Percentile	90 ^s Percentile
Urban	70.17	72.1	80.51
Rural	29.83	27.9	19.49

Source: Al-Ghamdi 1999 p 69

Urban road accidents continued increasing after the campaign and accounted for 91 percent of all road accidents (Alhamdan 2004). Thus, targeting urban area audiences which are at

greater risk than drivers in small towns, might lead to fewer road accidents in urban areas, or at least keep incidences at the same level (Al-Ghamdi 2003a; Hassan & Al-Faleh 2013).

However, if the age of drivers who were involved in road accidents in KSA before and closely after this campaign is considered, 40 percent of participants in road accidents in the 70, 80 and 90 percentiles were from young people who had not turned 40 years of age, and the involvement of this group in road accidents rose yearly since the 1970s, and continued throughout the time (Al-Ghamdi 1999 p 70). This increase might be attributed to recklessness and risky driving behaviour, as it was linked to the low age and low educational level of drivers in KSA (Alnafe & Al-Saif 1988). As a result, while men represented 90 percent of dead people during Alhamdan's study which was carried out during November 2003 in Riyadh city, 63.6 percent of victims were between 21 and 40 years old (Alhamdan 2004 p 755). Consequently targeting young males under 40 years old who are living in cities on the face of it was more important than targeting all audiences, as younger drivers were more vulnerable to road accidents according to statistics reviewed.

The limits of a whole-of-society approach are obvious when the variety of road users and their ways of using the roads is considered (Khadoor 2007). Think for a moment of the different activities and practices of car drivers, passengers, motorbike riders, people on pushbikes, large and heavy vehicles and pedestrians. Taking these particular groups into consideration can aid the identification of the most dangerous or more vulnerable groups using the roads, thus enabling more targeted campaigning (Albader 1997). Pedestrians, for example, were victims of over 50 percent of severe road accidents in Riyadh (Al-Ghamdi 2003 a p 723). Another example concerning drivers is that the involvement of taxi drivers in road accidents in KSA in 2000 was 3.3 times higher than other groups of drivers (Al-Ghamdi 2000).

5.1.4. KSA case study 2: "Enough"

All audience segments in all Saudi cities and small towns were identified as target audiences for the "Enough" campaign, with a special focus on young drivers (Ministry of Interior 2006b). Put another way, the general audience was not segmented in any way. Speed or disobeying traffic lights (campaign themes as discussed in chapter 4), however, was not an issue for drivers across all segments of Saudi society, as will be explored in this section by reviewing official statistics that have been released by Saudi authorities. However, due to the lack of statistics that show the number of traffic violations in KSA, and/or the responsibility for such violations for road accidents according to drivers' age, the numbers of involvement in road accidents mostly caused by speed will be explored to see whether the most vulnerable group for road accidents was targeted by the campaign or not.

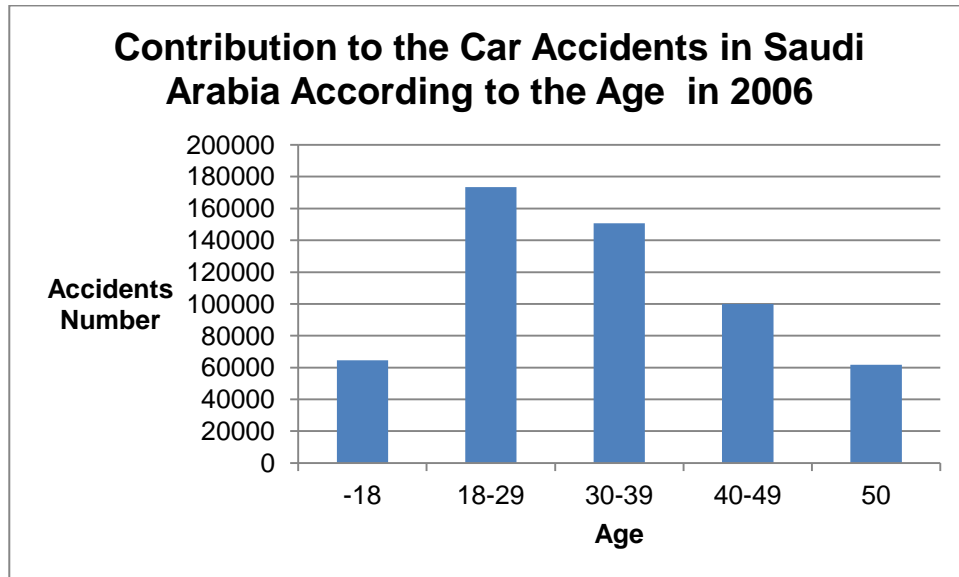
Audiences can be segmented according to personal characteristics such as language, age, gender, educational level, and society customs and values as well as customary behaviour (Alenad 1990). It is noteworthy that non-Saudis are overly represented in road accidents in KSA, compared to their population. More than 41 percent of road accidents in KSA in 2006 involved one non-Saudi driver or more while they only represent 31 percent of KSA population (Ministry of Interior 2006a; Central Department of Statistics and Information 2010). If traffic violations are examined, over one third (35.75 percent) of traffic violations in KSA in 2005 were committed by non-Saudis, and in 2006 this number had risen slightly to 36 percent (Ministry of Interior 2005 & 2006a). However, as it can be seen from campaign documentation this important segment of Saudi society was not included in determining the target audience for the “Enough” campaign (See Ministry of Interior 2006b). Of course, a new campaign design would be necessary to accommodate differences in language and cultural values, without losing the meaning of the message as people interact with ads that they understood and see as relevant (Wilmschurst & Mackay 1985). As many as 62.11 percent of non-Saudis have not completed primary school, and 15.23 percent of this number are illiterate (Ministry of Labour 2010). Overlooking this very important segment of the population, noting that a considerable number of non-Saudis are working as family drivers, could not be supported by an evidence-based approach (Ministry of Labour 2012; Al-Ghamdi 2000).

If location or origin of drivers is considered, urban drivers are more vulnerable to car accidents than rural drivers, as 82 percent of road accidents in KSA in 2006 occurred in urban areas (Ministry of interior 2006a). When gender is considered, males are the most at-risk group in the KSA, accounting for 86 percent of drivers (2005) and 85 percent of those who die due to motor vehicle accidents (2006) (Ministry of Interior 2005 & 2006a).

Drivers between 18 and 39 years of old were involved in 40.7 percent of car accidents in 2006 (see Figure 5.5). More than 52 percent of road accident victims in KSA in 2006 were from the same age group (see Figure 5.6). Clearly, it is the younger group of drivers which is the most at-risk group, and a campaign targeting speed would ideally identify and target this group (Redshaw 2006; Altwaijri, Alzahrani, Abu Abat, & Abdullah 2008). Although young people were identified in the “Enough” campaign brief to be targeted slightly more than other segments, the targeting decision does not appear to be supported by the evidence showing that 18 to 39 year old drivers were the most at-risk group for road accidents in KSA (see Figures 5.5 and 5.6). On the evidence, it can be argued that this segment should be targeted separately by a special campaign that is designed based on their personal and socio-cultural characteristics, and not simply included in a campaign addressed to a

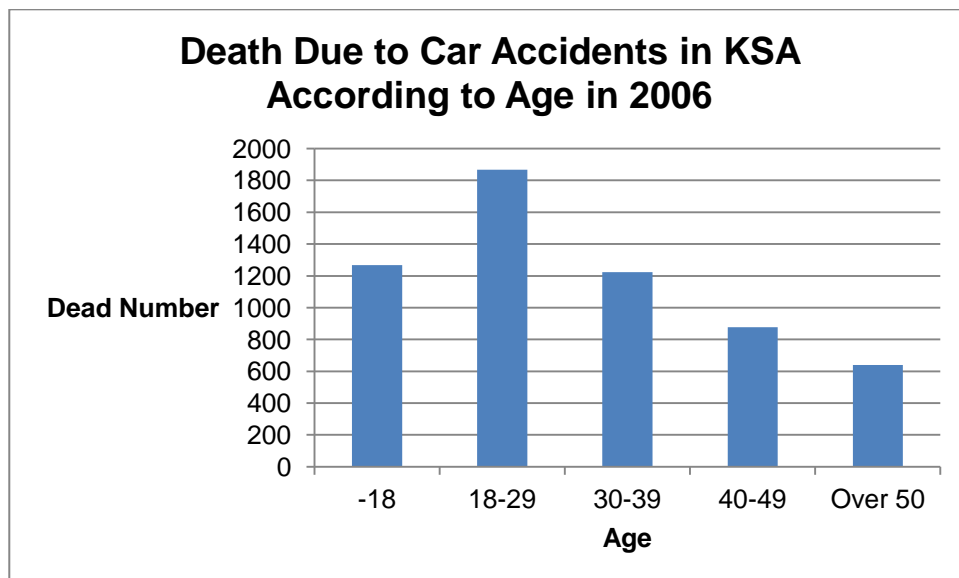
general, undifferentiated audience that does not take into account their contribution to accident statistics (Altwaijri et al. 2008; Ulleberg 2002).

Figure 5.5: Contribution to road accidents in KSA in 2006 according to age



Source: Ministry of Interior 2006a

Figure 5.6: Death due to road accidents in KSA in 2006 according to age



Source: Ministry of Interior 2006a

Given the above data, therefore, it can be said that the selection of the target audience in the “Enough” campaign does not appear to be driven by road safety statistics. Decision makers apparently did not take statistics into consideration while choosing target audiences

for the campaign. Available statistics suggest that targeting two segments of non-Saudis and young people under 40 years old was a more urgent priority than targeting the whole of society which included audiences not at-risk when compared to the priority targets. In effect their decisions about targeting appear to be based on other factors, and not on statistics.

5.1.5. Producer perspectives on target audience selection

Semi-structured interview findings pertaining to producers' perspectives on target audience selection in KSA and NSW support the findings which emerged from case studies. In KSA it was discovered that campaign designers take a whole-of-society approach. As one participant commented, "...for ... road safety campaigns we target all segments and ages simultaneously. Traffic accidents involve all different ages and nationalities" (Personal interview, Mohammad Almaroul, Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media, 7/6/2011).

In NSW, on the other hand, a more segmented approach informed by statistics is adopted:

We rely on statistics to segment target audience and target the at-risk group if this issue is a one group issue, for example, with the speeding campaign, the main target are males aged between 17 and 39. Whereas for drink driving, it's broader because drink driving occurs across a wider age range, so it really depends. It's tightly segmented. Another example is when we introduced broader laws about having children in child restraints, the main target was the mothers, because they tend to be with the children in the vehicle (Personal interview, Soames Job, Executive Director National Road Safety Council (Australia) and former manager for NSW Centre for Road Safety in RTA 16/5/2012).

Moreover, more segments of the society are targeted by RTA based on several considerations such as area, age, gender, road user position and driver type which narrows targeting and makes it more effective (Personal interview, John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA (RMS now) 16/5/ 2012). This technique, however, is not practised in KSA where authorities believe that road safety is a whole-of-society problem as discussed previously and noted in participants' comments in interviews. However, the earlier review of selection of target audiences in case studies and the review of recent road safety statistics suggested that targeting the whole society by one campaign is not a correct perception of the problem as traffic problems differ between different age groups and in some case within the same group. These groups must be sub-segmented and targeted separately based on their involvement and contribution to the problem (Williamson 2003; Potter and Stapleton's 2011). Almalki (2004); for example, found that most traffic violations in KSA are committed by young people; indeed, the sub-groups of this group who are aged between 18 and 32 years committed 64 percent overall traffic violations in the country. These findings are supported by the recent statistics released by the Traffic Department in KSA which

suggested that while people under 40 years old were involved in 75.93 percent of casualties accidents in KSA in 2012, more than 45 percent of people involved in accidents from this group were between 18 and 29 years old, a clear statement identifying a specific at-risk group, and implicitly recognising inadequacies in whole-of-society selection decisions (Ministry of Interior 2012 p 55).

This study has identified significant differences between KSA and NSW authorities in terms of identifying and segmenting target audiences in road safety campaign formation, particularly those from sub-cultural groups. Interviews in NSW revealed, for example, that campaign material is translated into major community languages, and talent with similar features to those of minority groups are used to attract the attention of targeted sub cultural groups. As Malcolm Stewart noted “We translate the campaign to several languages which can be considered as the major non-English speaking groups in NSW, for example, Arabic speakers, Mandarin speakers, Cantonese speakers and Vietnamese speakers” (Personal interview, Malcolm Stewart, Manager of Customedia Company, 30/4/2012). What producers are saying is that campaign communications are formed around identified target audiences, and that if those audiences include cultural minorities, then campaign content is designed specifically to reach out to and address these groups:

We deliberately, in the brochures and campaigns, tried to show examples of people from different ethnicities. For instance, in the child restraint brochure, some of the children look very European, others are obviously of Asian descent and some are dark-skinned, so that you get that breadth of social representation and coverage (Personal interview, Soames Job, Executive Director National Road Safety Council [Australia] and former manager for NSW Centre for Road Safety in RTA 16/5/2012).

On top of translating campaign material that targets mainstream audiences into languages of major non-English speakers’ communities, NSW authorities design a special campaign to target Aboriginal communities. This could be because translating may not deliver the preferred reading of the advertisements because of significant differences between the dominant culture and Indigenous people’s culture and physical features as discussed in chapter 2:

The biggest single minority group to be targeted for road safety is the Indigenous Aboriginal community. We have a whole separate campaign for this group based on the theme “Bring them all home safely. This was researched and identified as the right kind of “language” for that group. All of the ads show Indigenous people with Indigenous actors, and all targeted to media which focuses on Indigenous Australian interests and tastes, so it’s actually completely separately targeted campaign, (Personal interview, John Bruton, senior executive at the RTA 16/5/ 2012).

These targeting practices that emerged in interviews are supported by scholarly accounts of best practice. Noth and Landsberg, for example, argue that targeted groups “find themselves” in ads which represent them respectfully and in an informed way. This may include designing a special campaign for sub-cultural groups with distinct cultural differences, targeting sub-cultural minorities with distinctive lifestyles, values and practices by translating campaign material into minority languages, and/or representing sub-cultural groups in ads with characters, images and settings which capture the distinctiveness of targeted groups (Noth 1988; Landsberg 1980).

In KSA, while targeting practices share some similarities with NSW practices, it can be said that they don’t reveal the same interest in segmenting and addressing the range of cultural minorities. The large number of sub cultural groups who are non-Arabic speakers come from different countries and speak a range of languages. KSA campaigns, however, address these different groups in English language ads, as if English was the default language of all non-Arabic speakers. The deficiencies in this approach are recognised by some campaign producers:

In KSA, 33 percent of the population are Non-Saudis (e.g., other Arabic nationalities, as well as Philippines and Turkish peoples). For these groups, messages need to be varied, so it can be difficult to reach all ethnic groups separately. Instead we used English (Personal interview, Ameen Saeed, Manager of Central Media Committee previously, 29/5/2011).

These important differences in communicating with targeted sub-cultural groups between KSA and NSW may be attributed to differences in methods for selecting road safety audiences which in turn may affect the definition of selected audiences for a campaign (Botalibi 2006). For example, selecting particular sub-cultural groups and targeting them by NSW authorities was based on road crash statistics and empirical studies that are the basis of an evidence based approach that identifies at-risks groups including sub-cultural groups (Personal interview, Lori Mooren, Senior Research Fellow at Transport and Road Safety Research (TARS) at University of New South Wales [UNSW], 9/5/2012). The lack of consideration of these important factors by Saudi authorities may be attributed to the lack of clear and segmented road safety statistics and empirical studies which leads road safety campaign designers to rely on their personal experience or intuition in selecting road safety campaign audiences particularly from sub-cultural groups (Al-Shammari et al. 2009). As a result, authorities tend to be vague about at-risk groups and do not specifically name the most at-risk group/s by ethnicity, nationality or language. The flow-on effect is that campaign producers use the term “non-Saudis” to refer to those groups which include many nationalities and ethnicities speaking multiple languages. The generic “non Saudi” category made reaching such groups in a way that effectively addresses them and delivers campaign

messages almost an impossibility as Professor Baker Ibraheem acknowledged (Personal interview, Baker Ibraheem, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 13/6/2011).

5.1.6. Summary: Target audience selection

It is clear that despite targeting the whole society in the NSW driver fatigue campaign which on the evidence did not appear justified, audiences in road safety campaigns in NSW are more segmented and their selection is generally driven by statistics which allows producers to identify and target at-risk groups. In KSA, on the other hand, road safety campaigns generally target the whole society in one campaign without segmentation. The campaign targets all groups whether these groups are shown as at-risk by the statistics or not. One issue that emerged in interviews was that the lack of an evidence base pushes authorities into decision making practices that are not always reliable. Target audience selection that is driven by statistics enables policy makers in NSW to select specific segments of sub-cultural groups and reach out and communicate with at-risk minorities in ways most likely to be persuasive and achieve desired outcomes. In KSA, however, fine-grained segmentation practices are not part of campaign formation for a variety of reasons, which means often at-risk minorities are targeted as one generic category “non-Saudis”. In the next section, the road safety campaign policy makers’ perspectives on the impact of cultural factors on road safety message reception by target audiences will be explored and discussed.

5.2. Producer perspectives on the impact of cultural factors on road safety message reception by target audiences

The impact of cultural differences including language on the reception of campaign message from campaign producers’ perspectives will be presented and discussed in this section. This section of the study will assist in answering question 2 B: Are road safety campaign producers in KSA and NSW aware of the ways in which cultural factors impact on road safety message reception by target audiences?

This study has discovered that personnel involved in campaign development either directly or indirectly, in both KSA and NSW, are aware of cultural values and their impact on the reception of campaign material:

There is no doubt that the influence of customs, traditions and culture are very important. These influences are different; one may have a larger role than the others in some cases, and no influence for other issues. I will give you an example of the influence of these factors on awareness campaigns in KSA. Authorities broadcast the United States campaign Just Say No to

Drugs, which highlighted the negative consequences of drug abuse. The ads were translated into Arabic, but unfortunately they failed. Differences in culture, social systems, upbringing and education of individuals appear to have affected message reception. This shows the importance of considering such factors in campaign planning (Personal interview, Abdullatif Alawfi, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 6/6/2011).

Alawfi's view was supported by Alrasheedi when this researcher asked him whether a successful campaign in one part of the world might be transferred to another part with the same effectiveness. Alrasheedi responded "The culture of any country is a very important influence in the reception of a campaign message. We can't say that successful work in one part of the world will be successful in another part of the world" (Personal interview, Ali Alrasheedi, Manager of Safety Division in General Traffic Department, 5/6/2011).

Language is an important part of any culture and can also be a barrier for sub-cultural groups and limit their understanding of campaigns that target dominant language audiences (Liu, Wen, Wei & Zhao 2013; Wescott 1971; Petrilli 2009). However it can also assist people who share the same language in understanding a campaign even though they do not share the same culture (DeShields & Kara 2011). For example, Saudis share the Arabic language with people from many different countries such as Egypt and Morocco, even though the culture of these Arabic speaking groups differs significantly from Saudi culture.

Campaigns that target mainstream people will have different impacts on sub-cultural groups because of language and cultural differences. These variables will be a barrier to ad reception and understanding. However, it might have similar impact to those from similar cultures, such as Arab culture (Personal interview, Baker Ibraheem, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 13/6/2011).

Likewise, producers in NSW are aware of the impact of cultural values on campaign reception. They believe consideration of a target audience's culture will result in an effective campaign as it is more likely to connect effectively (Staiger 2005). Not considering such important elements may result in an ad which is offensive to a particular culture. Lori Mooren's response to the question about whether she considered a successful campaign from one part of the world could be easily transferred to another part with the same effectiveness opens up these issues:

...not necessarily, for example, the (Pinkie ad) which you are obviously familiar with, it may be offensive to some cultures to the point where people wouldn't want to watch it. A more conservative culture who doesn't think it's sacrilegious or not sacrilegious but offensive to talk about a sexual organ; refer to a sexual organ in the ad, for example using this ad to target people from Islamic cultures which I think are quite religious and conservative, would be offensive. Another thing is that if you transplant drink driving ads

to a country where drinking isn't an issue, it's a bit of a waste (Personal interview, Lori Mooren, Senior Research Fellow at Transport and Road Safety Research (TARS) at University of New South Wales [UNSW], 9/5/2012).

In NSW producers are aware of the impact of music as an important part of the reception of advertising (Ross & Nightingale 2003). While music can be used to engage people in campaign ads, not considering the target cultural group's music culture is likely to lead to a lack of interaction with campaign ads.

We also have a campaign - it was called "Heaven and Hell," and it wasn't a religious campaign at all; it's just [about the] euphoria of driving very fast, feeling liberated by [speed] [the driver] has a collision that kills people; so in an instant it goes from feeling wonderful to feeling terrible to now feeling culpable; he's responsible for the death of these people. So that campaign used a sound track that was a modern Western music soundtrack. We can't presume, and [music] was a very big part of that ad; we can't presume that that would work in Vietnam; we can't presume that it would work in Greece or somewhere else where they have a different music, different styles and different harmony (Personal interview, Jordaan Knapp, Customedia Company 15/5/2012).

What emerged here is in line with what has been noted in the Literature Review chapter about the cultural impact on audience personality and reception of texts as noted by different scholars in the Ecological Model (EM) and Social Learning/ Cognitive Theory (SCT) such as Lee & Kotler (2011), Brower (1988) and Bandura (1977).

5.2.1. Summary: Producer perspectives on the impact of cultural factors on road safety message reception by target audiences

Field interviews drew out an agreement among campaign producers about the impact of cultural values on the reception of campaign content in both settings. They are aware of the importance of the likely impact of cultural values on campaign reception, and are aware of the concept and theory of audiences' "horizon of expectation" (Jauss 1982).

This agreement about the importance of considering multi-cultural groups in road safety campaigns' messages could be because both settings are multicultural societies and include sub-cultural groups who do not share the dominant culture with the mainstream audience as has been discussed in chapter 2. These sub-cultural groups are also an important category of road users who affect traffic safety and are impacted by it in one way or another which may lead stakeholders in both settings to share this bottom-line agreement on this issue. "Considering multicultural issues during campaign design is significant for any multicultural country including KSA as [minorities] are a significant component of society in

general and road users in particular” (Personal communication, Abdullatif Alawfi, Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University, 6/6/2011). The impact of the road safety environment on audience reception from producers’ perspectives will be explored and discussed in the next section.

5.3. Producer perspectives on the impact of the traffic environment on road safety message reception by target audiences

In the following section differences between road traffic environments in KSA and NSW from producers’ perspectives will be explored. The impact of these differences on target audience reception for road safety campaign’s message will be discussed. The aim of the discussion in this section is to find an answer to question 2 C: From a producers’ perspective, what are the main differences between traffic environments in KSA and NSW and what are their impacts on campaign reception by target audiences?

The traffic environment has a significant impact on driver behaviour and ways of driving (Romano, Peck & Voas 2012). Driving culture and the traffic environment in each country may affect audiences’ reception of campaign content and in turn may affect the ability of a campaign to change audience behaviour (Magableh, Grzebieta & Job 2013). For example, observing wrong practices and risky driving which totally contradict campaign messages on a daily basis in the streets may lead drivers to turn off from a campaign. If no adverse consequences signalled in campaigns are evident, and violator drivers are not ticketed by police, and those who are ticketed are a very small percentage of those who offend, then violator drivers tend not to envisage themselves as likely victims of road accidents or penalties, based on the reality they can see in the streets. Reflecting on a general lack of compliance with traffic and road safety practices in KSA and its Impact on reception, Colonial Alrasheedi, the experienced Manager of the Safety Division in the Traffic Department suggested that perhaps the lack of compliance was associated with drivers’ awareness that violators were rarely punished, and there was thus little incentive to obey rules or to follow the message sent by a road safety campaign (Personal communication, Ali Alrasheedi, Manager of Safety Division in General Traffic Department, 5/6/2011).

Although the traffic environment in KSA and NSW was discussed in the introductory chapter of this study, it seems timely to remind the reader about the significant differences between both settings in terms of the level of safety on the roads. Here, the professionals’ responses to related questions in semi-structured interviews and available statistics will be drawn on to understand the importance of these differences and their impact on campaign reception by audiences, and on campaign development by producers. This research draws attention to a

stark difference in the traffic environments of KSA and NSW. The level of road safety in both settings is a concern for officials who practice traffic work, either in traffic departments or law enforcement departments, in both KSA and NSW. According to (TD2), "Traffic safety in KSA is a big issue as every family in the country has lost a member or relative, or has one who has been injured due to car accidents" (Personal interview, Riyadh Traffic Department, 2/6/2011). This view was also supported by (TD1) who clearly expressed his professional view about the traffic environment in KSA based on his experience and senior position in the traffic department:

The traffic environment in KSA is not safe. As I said previously, we have 600 car accidents daily in Riyadh city only, so you can expect to be involved in an accident at any moment. As I see it from my position, I expect a call from a friend or relative at any moment to tell me that he is involved in a car accident, either [a] dangerous or [a] simple accident (Personal interview, Riyadh Traffic Department, 30/5/2011).

The above responses by professional people from the Traffic Department in KSA show how significant the problem is in KSA and the level of risk in the KSA traffic environment (Hassan & Al-Faleh 2013).

Professionals in NSW, however, see the NSW traffic environment as a relatively safe environment: "The traffic environment in NSW is safe, for example, deaths per 100,000 are 5.3 or 5.2, roughly at world standards" (Personal interview, John Hartley, Command Traffic services, NSW Police, 22/5/2012). Hartley's view was also supported by McLachlan who considers the traffic environment in NSW as reasonably safe, particularly in metropolitan areas: "It is reasonably safe, you might be involved in a minor collision but are less likely to be involved in a major collision especially in metropolitan areas" (Personal interview, Wayne John McLachlan, Command Traffic services, NSW Police, 22/5/2012).

Officials' perceptions about the traffic environment in both settings are also supported by official statistics which show how unlike the traffic environments in KSA and NSW are. These differences, however, have been reviewed in the introductory chapter and will be only briefly reviewed here. While road accidents were responsible for more than 7 percent of the national death toll in KSA in 2012, only 0.79 percent of the total deaths in the same period in NSW resulted from road accidents according to latest statistics (Saudi Arabia Monetary Agency 2012; Attorney General and Justice 2013 p 2; Road and Maritime Services [RMS] 2012a p 37). Taking a closer look at recent statistics for road accidents and their victims can also support this argument. For example, 7,153 persons were killed in 2012 in KSA from road accidents, which means twenty persons died daily on KSA roads. Only 367 fatalities on

the other hand were attributed to car accidents in NSW which means that only about one person was killed daily on NSW roads (Ministry of Interior 2012; RTA 2011b).

These statistics and officials' perceptions of risk underline how different the traffic environment in KSA is when compared to the safer environment of NSW. One contributing factor to risk in KSA is the lack of public transportation (Al-Shammari et al. 2009). This pushes everyone to drive, including inefficient and incompetent drivers from different cultures or countries with very weak licensing systems. "There are more than 52 nationalities living in KSA, with various cultures travelling on roads, representing a large proportion of drivers involved in road accidents" (Personal interview, Riyadh Traffic Department, 30/5/2011 [TD2]). Weakness of traffic laws and/or weak implementation in KSA could also be a reason for the dangerous traffic environment and high number of road accidents and victims (Alhumidan 2008). People do not think they will be caught and fined by police, which may lead them into wrong practices and jeopardise themselves and other road users (Personal interview, Riyadh Traffic Department, 30/5/2011 [TD2]).

The dangerous environment in KSA may affect the reception of campaigns by audiences, or at least minimise a campaign's ability to change risky drivers' behaviour (Romano, Peck, & Voas 2012). The social context, including male drivers' dangerous driving (women are not permitted to drive on KSA roads) affects normative driving practices and may reduce campaign effectiveness on the majority of drivers (Redshaw 2008). The dangerous environment may also lead to increasing numbers of risky drivers on KSA roads as safe drivers from minority groups become influenced by what they see as majority practices which may lead them into bad driving habits. This will in turn affect their reception of campaign messages:

Most safe drivers who came from overseas to KSA are affected by the carelessness of Saudis or their dangerous way of driving while they might have been good drivers before they came here which may lead them to ignore messages sent by road safety campaign (Personal interview, Ameen Saeed, Manager of Central Media Committee previously, 29/5/2011).

This direct environmental and social effect here falls under what Hastings called the "immediate environment" influence in Social Learning/ Cognitive Theory (SCT) (Hastings 2007 p 28). This is also in line with Bandura (1977) who proposed that behaviour is learnt through imitation and observation of society members' practices.

What has been suggested by participants in this study about the impact of the traffic environment on campaign message reception has been partly supported by Elliott in his meta-analysis of eighty seven road safety mass media campaigns. When baseline

compliance is below 40 percent, then negative approaches (emotional appeals and educational message) may be more effective. If the compliance level is over 40 percent, however, then positive approaches which reinforce safe behaviour and the adoption of behavioural change may be the appropriate approach (Elliott 1993). Therefore, it can be said that understanding the traffic environment in the target audience's country and the level of compliance with traffic laws is an important consideration in designing effective campaign ads and in choosing the right appeal (Personal communication, Khaled Albisher, Naif Arab University for Security Sciences, 21/6/2011).

5.3.1. Summary: Producer perspectives on the impact of the traffic environment on road safety message reception by target audiences

There are significant differences between road traffic environments in KSA and NSW. The traffic environment in KSA is considered dangerous when compared to NSW's safer traffic environment. As producers' point out, these important differences have an impact on campaign reception, and affect the type of appeal that should be chosen to target selected audiences.

5.4. Conclusion

Fieldwork in KSA and NSW showed that there are significant differences in the way producers select and segment target audiences in road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW as part of the campaign formation process. While the selection of target audiences in NSW road safety campaigns is driven by road safety statistics, and more segments of at-risk groups within the society are targeted, KSA road safety campaign target audience selection does not reflect actual road safety statistics. Typically the whole society in KSA is targeted by campaigns rather than focusing on one segment of at-risk groups identified in statistics. More attention has been paid by NSW authorities to targeting various segments of sub-cultural groups, while these important segments are neglected by KSA authorities and targeted as one "non-Saudi" segment within the whole society. Campaign development in KSA does not consider the cultural differences between these groups and dominant culture, and the cultural differences that exist within these cultural groups. Surprisingly, given these differences in campaign formation practices, policy makers in KSA in particular as well as in NSW are aware of these cultural differences and their impact on the reception of road safety messages. Despite the stark differences between road traffic environments in KSA and NSW, producers understand how the traffic environment in particular settings affects the reception of a campaign message, but the implementation of these important insights in road safety campaigns has been shown to be an unpredictable part of campaign formation.

In the next chapter, the differences in visual and textual communication elements will be explored and discussed.

Chapter Six: Findings and Discussion: An analysis of how Campaign Texts in KSA and NSW Connect with Target Audiences

In this chapter, the verbal and visual textual elements of six road safety advertisements from NSW and KSA campaigns (one per NSW campaign and two per KSA campaign) selected as case studies and two logos of KSA case studies campaigns will be analysed using semiotic theory. The analysis and discussion will assist in answering the third main research question of this study: What are the most effective visual and textual communication elements used in road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW?

In this thesis, the “effectiveness” of visual communication elements is not measured by testing the impact of these advertisements on target audiences as happens in most road safety campaigns evaluation studies. Rather, the effectiveness of visual and textual communication elements will be analysed by applying semiotic theory as outlined in chapter 2 and chapter 3, on selected advertisements. The objective of the analysis is to examine whether, and to what extent, producers have constructed their advertising content in ways that are most likely to communicate directly and persuasively with the target audiences.

6.1. Analysis of road safety campaign advertisements

Semiotic analysis for six road safety advertisements from four campaigns (one ad per NSW campaign and two ads for each campaign in KSA) will be undertaken in this section. Various elements from each advertisement will be analysed to understand to what extent these advertisements communicate with their target audience from both dominant and minority cultural groups. The objective of this section is to answer question 3 A: Do road safety campaign ads in KSA and NSW communicate with target audiences and consider cultural differences for campaign audience to draw audience attention?

6.1.1. NSW case study 1: “Pinkie”

Figure 6.1: “Pinkie” campaign’s non-motion advertisement



Source: RTA 2007a

Emotional advertisements that include horror images which show speeding consequences tend not to change young audiences' behaviour as they feel they are invincible (RTA [now 'RMS'] 2011o). The “Pinkie” advertisement instead used a combination of emotional, psychological and socio-cultural elements to “shame” young males (Watsford 2008). The advertisement relied on a message and images which were represented as an in-joke at the offender's expense, and were designed to motivate compliance with a social norm (RTA n.d c).

Message appeal can be determined based on several variables such as audience characteristics which enable designers to know the sensation-value of the message and the way the message is likely to be received by audiences (Fry 2006; Alenad 1990). Cars are often used by young men to express their masculinity and shape their identities (Redshaw 2006). Showing off by driving a car contributes strongly to young males' sense of their own masculine identity (Walker, Butland and Connell 2000). For example, speeding by young male drivers is often perceived by them to be the best way to prove their masculinity (RTA n.d d). The “Pinkie” campaign is an unorthodox road safety campaign which directly challenges the association of speed and masculinity especially for young males who are its target audience (Watsford 2008). In the actual graphic presentation of the campaign the well-known gesture of the pinkie was designed to undermine and emasculate the speeder based on his driving behaviour, using a forceful tag-line “Speeding. No one thinks big of you” (RTA n.d a). The word “Speeding” stood alone on a separate line, just as the

(imagined) speeder stands alone like a pinkie finger. As a result, the gesture, supported by the tagline, provides a device that unifies the community of family, friends and peers who are seen as distinctly separate to that of the speeding young man, to condemn the speeders' choice of action (RTA n.d d).

The limp, bent pinkie finger, read here as a small, impotent phallus, signifies failure rather than the thrust and urgency of speeding. The flaccid finger deflates any suggestion that speed might be equated with male values, and is especially powerful in that it is performed by a young female, the very object of young male desire (Williams, Kyrychenko & Retting 2006; Redshaw 2006). The young woman's natural appearance represents her as someone untroubled by consumerist pressures; secure and confident about her own judgments, expressed wryly by her crooked finger.

There is a lack of spatial clarity in the scene created for the advertisement and this brings the female figure and her judgment into sharp focus, leaving speeding drivers with one clear image – the image of the judgmental finger – in mind (Gaines 2010). The movement of the girl's hair is a signifier that reinforces the impression that the driver was driving too fast, helping the viewer to imagine that the blowback created by his speed made the young woman's hair fly.

The "Pinkie" campaign advertisement positions young women as women with the agency and the power to modify young male's behaviour. The connotation of the bent finger and bored look on the young woman's face is clear enough: speeding and risky driving does not impress, and is not positively associated by anyone, but more significantly, by young women, with idealized masculine values. The "Pinkie" advertisement targets an absent character that is not represented in the advertisement. The bent over, smallest finger (pinkie finger) represents the absent driver, who is trying to impress friends and young females on the street by speeding (Myers 1999). Indeed, the lack of specificity helps to lump all speeding male drivers (the main target audience for the campaign) together, subjecting them all to the deflating effects of the pinkie. While young speeding drivers are thus disempowered, the advertisement positions young women in a place of power, investing in them the power and willingness to deflate prevailing norms and erect different expectations of masculinity. In other versions of the ad, community members, including some older female bystanders were substituted for the young woman, investing the wider community with the same agency and power as exhibited by the young woman described here.

Advertisements must be planned in terms of campaign objectives, and the third objective in the "Pinkie" campaign focused on bringing the community in behind the main message (Wilmschurst & Mackay 1985; RTA n.d. d). Ideally, an advertisement must also go beyond

display on TV channels or newspaper pages, to ensure it is retained in the public consciousness and enable other segments of the society to communicate with speeders by adopting and using the gesture (RTA n.d d). Although the image is of a female observer, the phrase “No one” extends the criticism of the absent driver’s speeding, making it clear that there is a general, community wide condemnation of speeding. To achieve campaign objectives, the “Pinkie” advertisement used a symbol which became an easy to remember, abbreviated way of judging speeding by all members of the community who were the secondary target audience of the campaign. It empowered the public and enabled them to perform, in a humorous but effective manner, wherever they were, a powerful social critique of speeding drivers, criticism which may have more impact than government authority or the police.

It is important in developing ads to keep the target audience clearly in mind to optimise the construction of a message in a way that its content and codes “connect” with the intended audience and communicate the preferred meaning (Dweedar 1995; Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985). Different ethnicities were targeted by the “Pinkie” campaign and it seems that the pinkie signifier was unique and powerful in delivering its desired message to target drivers from the mainstream or dominant culture group, where it had the ability to affect their behaviour. It was unable, however, to connect with other sub-cultural groups who do not understand and share the same coded gesture as mainstream Australians do (Walsh et al. 2010; Personal interview, Lori Mooren, Senior Research Fellow at Transport and Road Safety Research (TARS) at University of New South Wales [UNSW], 9/5/2012). In fact, not understanding the connotations of the pinkie gesture meant the ads did not communicate well with important minority groups and limited its ability to change the risky behaviour of those groups (O’Keefe 1990; Khare 2009). These findings align with what was discussed in chapter 2, drawing on Jauss (1982). Whether or not the connotations of the pinkie signifier are read in a particular way is related to the “horizon of expectation” outlined by Jauss (1982). Recall that Jauss claimed that message reception and comprehension by audiences are shaped by the audience’s life experience and cultural values (Jauss 1982). This also aligns with Kitzinger (1998) who suggested that a message is understood differently by different cultural groups based on their culture. Reflecting on this finding, it may be that using different characters from targeted minorities such as Arab-Australian, Chinese-Australian and Vietnamese-Australian in modified or translated advertisements is likely to be more effective (Mueller 1991). If speeding amongst young male Arabs, Chinese and Vietnamese drivers, however, is related to masculinity, then the ad will need to be designed in ways that tap into the ways masculinity is represented and valued among those groups (Walker, Butland & Connell 2000; Vaughn 1986). If this is done, the ads will catch the target audience’s attention and young males will “find themselves” in the advertisement, and may be persuaded to change their behaviour.

Although the RTA logo was used in this ad, the logo was kept small and was placed in a non prominent position, maintaining the focus on the main image (RTA n.d d). The style and position of the RTA logo in the frame keeps the logo from distracting the viewers' gaze and avoids the risk of viewers focusing on the logo as an assertion of government authority (Wagner 2006). In the case of "Pinkie", however, putting the RTA logo on the advertisement may lead target audiences (young males) to think that the government is trying to control them, while older men may take the view that the government is trying to win political points which ultimately may undermine the advertisement's effectiveness particularly on young people who do not want to be controlled by anyone - including their parents or the government (Ulleberg 2002; Altwaijri et al. 2008). It is not the ultimate goal to make people aware of the organisation's effort rather to make them aware of the organisation's message (Katz 1995). Therefore, it would have been better to leave the RTA logo out of the advertisement, which in future could enhance its effectiveness on target audiences.

While there is evidence that the "Pinkie" ads connected well with the at-risk driver group and with community members, the connotations of this ad rely on the at-risk group's own sense of itself to modify or change speeding behaviour. Put another way, there are no explicit instructions in the ad about behaviour change. It might be argued that the ad is vague, and omits a solution to concerns over speeding by young males. Can it be assumed then, that the preferred meaning of the ad, that young at-risk of speeding drivers will change their speeding behaviour, is sufficiently persuasive to produce the results authorities were looking for? The answer to this question can be answered quite pragmatically in the sense that evaluation showed that at-risk drivers did take the preferred meaning of the ad. But another answer may be presented by reference to the earlier discussion of persuasion and behaviour change. Here it was the unexpected connotation of speeding as un-masculine that was powerful, as the preferred reading of the "pinkie" sign was closely aligned with young drivers' sense of their own social identity and their interest in not losing social esteem that was persuasive (Petty & Cacioppo 1986, Rothschild 1999). The connotation of the "Pinkie" ad and campaign was far from vague: it just used subtle but powerful persuasive appeals to achieve the behaviour change objective rather than the confronting messages of shock and fear appeals, or the coercive force of heavy penalties.

6.1.2. NSW case study 2: “Wake Up To The Signs”

Figure 6.2: “Wake up to the signs”“-non-motion advertisement



Source: RMS 2012b

This rational appeal advertisement relied on alerting drivers to physical symptoms which may be evidence of driver fatigue (Alenad 1990). It is interesting that this ad uses the rear vision mirror to carry the campaign message (RMS 2012b). The mirror presents the driver to themselves, and acts as a kind of diagnostic tool. The effective feature of this ad is that it presents people as they see themselves. Looking in the rear view mirror the driver can see what is behind them, but with a shift of focus can see him or herself (Williamson 1978). The ad is a constant reminder of a very familiar picture for drivers. It allows drivers to see themselves close up. It is personal, it is intimate, it is just the driver who sees this – and so it encourages drivers to reflect on themselves and take responsibility for themselves (RMS 2012b). While the supplementary message in small font “Driver fatigue: wake up to the signs” tells drivers what to do, the main message – ‘Tired eyes? Yawning?’ – presented as two questions, does not tell drivers what to do. The ad constructs a conversation and addresses drivers as responsible. It reminds them of risks to themselves, and appeals to their self-interest, a powerful element in behavioural change (Rothschild 1999).

The ad borrows from familiar codes used in commercial advertising which represents the body as something of individual concern and care (Williamson 1978). Here the ad adapts consumerist fascination with ourselves and suggests that checking signs of fatigue is something that every driver should do, just as they might look for dry eyes or cancer spots. The design concept behind the ad makes good sense as it references advertisements that are part of every member of the community’s experience.

The red capillaries inside the tired eye are represented as a familiar sign of fatigue and of danger. To continue driving when the eyes are signalling fatigue is represented as a failure in caring for oneself. Different colours and fonts were effectively used in the ad text (Lazar 2003). Tired Eyes? Yawning? for example, was presented in a large white font with question marks as two separate, simple questions against a black background. The connotation of the questions are that as a driver you should ask yourself these two questions, particularly at night time, signified by the black background (Arens & Weinglod 2010; Assaf 1976; Williamson 1978). Night is the regular bedtime for many people and the questions, presented here as two diagnostic tests, naturalise concern about the driver's body, which would normally be asleep at this time.

The ad also draws on the construction of the eye as the pathway to knowledge, signified in everyday expressions such as "I couldn't believe my own eyes", an expression which represents the eye as producing true, accurate evidence. This accounts for centering the tired, red eye in centre frame. The ad is constructed as a test, and provides an immediate solution to the problem. Here again, like a lot of commercial advertising, the mirror is used as a way of transacting between a perceived self and an idealised, symbolic self.

Commercial advertising urges viewers to see themselves as others who are more attractive, slimmer, healthier, better dressed or whatever. Advertisements construct a relationship with a symbolic, absent "other" who has the qualities or features we as consumers desire (Williamson 1978). Here the symbolic, absent other is the alert, bright-eyed self. Thus if the answer to the two questions is "Yes," then the ad offers you a way out, a way of reclaiming your best self. The solution, like the test, is presented as simple and total: all the driver has to do is *stop, revive, survive* presented in a short sentence with an easily remembered musical rhyme.

Another effective use of font and colour can be noticed in "Wake up to the signs" presented in yellow (Austin, Pinkleton & Fujioka 1999). The sentence which became the name of the campaign has a pleasing ambiguity. The "signs" could be the signs of fatigue, or advisory advertisements on roadsides, or traffic signs. Once again, the ambiguity is left open, as something drivers need to think about, need to take notice of. Once again, the medical self-care model is in play, suggesting that we all need to be alert and look on signs as pointers, or a pathway to self-care, self-preservation, even survival.

Whatever the creative skill invested in campaign ads might be, however, the critical test is whether the message is clear and easily absorbed by target audiences or not (Wilmshurst & Mackay 1985). In the "Wake up to the signs" ad, the English language text and blue eyes represent the dominant Anglo-Australian ethnic group as the main target for the advertisement (Baker et al. 2006). The language used in the advertisement's text was

straightforward and unambiguously linked to the advertisement's main image which contributed to its powerful impact particularly on mainstream drivers (Castells 2010). The advertisement was also constructed, as discussed, in the familiar form of a diagnosis, where typically the move is from symptoms to solution which no doubt enhanced its impact. Advertising messages which involve a cognitive processing construct, meaning the message should provide information about how to solve or minimise the problem, often have a high persuasive value (Lewis, Watson & White 2009). However, minority audiences such as Asian-Australians, Indigenous Australians and others who were targeted by the campaign and have different shaped eyes and eye colours, perhaps could not readily find their symbolic "other selves" in this advertisement which would limit its effectiveness among minority audiences (Milat, Carrroll & Taylor 2005).

The final element for semiotic analysis in this text is the NSW government logo placed in the lower right of the frame, and more prominent than the RTA graphic in the "Pinkie" ad. In this advertisement, however, the logo cannot be seen as negative in contrast to the "Pinkie" campaign as discussed above. This is because the message in the "Wake up to the signs" campaign was not aimed at provoking audiences, but aimed to provide rational information about fatigue symptoms (Nelson 1974). Highlighting the organisation's efforts (RMS) by putting its logo on the campaign advertisement is unlikely in these circumstances to affect the reception of this ad negatively. The logo reminds viewers of the RMS's efforts in caring about fatigue and caring about saving people's lives, and the insertion of the logo and its position may be read as an assertion of the RTA's (now 'RMS') credibility in people's minds (Khadoor 2007).

6.1.3. KSA case study 1: “Let’s not lose our lives”

Figure 6.3: Campaign ad (newspaper and road side sign ad)



Source: Ministry of Interior 2001

Ad Translation:

**Nasser suffered for a moment in the accident...
But his family will be suffering for the whole of their lives**

Nasser is a smart, ambitious and successful young man studying in the Faculty of Medicine, but in one moment...Nasser's life is gone!
He ended up at a hospital, not as a doctor but as a dead body!
While Nasser suffered for only moments before he died, he leaves pain and sorrow for his family for the rest of their lives

In previous years...thousands of people have died...every hour one person dies

Each one dies and leaves pain for many others

It is a calamity that does not leave anyone without pain if it does not take his life

We must cooperate to eliminate this calamity

We must cooperate

To save our lives...

In the lower right corner is the campaign logo; at left is the sponsor's logo (Savola Company)

In this ad, it is clear that an emotional appeal was used to highlight the pain of a Saudi family who lost their brother and son. Relying on the signifier of the family to create an emotional appeal in KSA is effective as a Saudi family tends to be extended, interrelated and sympathetic to each other (Alkhateeb 1997). Most families live together in the same home or in different homes beside each other and meet on a regular basis (Ministry of Economic and Planning 2007). As a result, if anyone gets hurt they will be dearly missed by the others. The visual signifiers are thus familiar and powerful and may be read as the loss of one is a loss for all. The focus on the grieving faces and the psychological consequences of road accidents on the victim's family foregrounds the very real damage that will flow from the death of a victim to the wider circle of family and friends (Al-Ghamdi 1999).

Using female characters as signifiers of the Saudi family has a cultural dimension that is likely to have more impact on male audiences (the driver, who is typically male, is seen as "the head of the family"). Most women in KSA, due to cultural restrictions, do not work outside of the home and are valued as home-makers and child-carers (Al-Manea 1984). In KSA women represent only 8 percent of Saudi employees in the private sector (Ministry of Labour 2010). As stated in Islamic law, males are guardians of women and responsible for the female members of the family, and unemployed women are totally dependent on fathers, husbands or brothers for financial support (Al-Manea 1984). As a result, women are often unable to face life's difficulties without a man as they are highly dependent on males to support them in all aspects of life (Al-Salem 2005).

These cultural realities are reinforced strongly in the ad. The signifier of the three grieving women can be read as a sign of responsibility, even shame, as the drivers' lack of care has multiplied the consequences of Nasser's death. The connotative meaning of the three women huddled together may be read as emphasising that an accident involving a single individual touches more than the individual. The three figures are physically close and are assumed to be emotionally close, united in grief and "what might have been", so the denotative meaning of physical closeness comes to be read as emotional closeness, as the death of Nasser has similar impact on all three (Williamson 1978). As the figures are extracted from any context and are shown in close up without other spatial information, they signify through the lack of any specific reference to individual family circumstances that accidents may affect all people, whoever they may be. The visual and the verbal texts are strong and consistent signifiers of one of the key messages of the campaign, namely that accidents have ever widening consequences.

In a way, the choice of the three grieving women, and their central position, reminds readers of the semiotic structure of the "Pinkie" ad. Both ads rely on absent signifiers – the speeding young male driver in NSW, and the irresponsible driver or drivers in Saudi. Both structures

centre the reader's attention on the consequences of risk taking. In NSW, the consequences are a loss of community respect and sense of self, and in KSA, the consequences are both personal and social. The verbal text inscribes a sense of loss in the unexpected death of a young doctor-to-be; a person dedicated to saving lives. The verbal text reminds readers that the loss is not just personal – road accidents account for injury and the deaths of thousands, and just as Nasser is now unable to save others' lives, the accident has robbed others of their lives. Accidents are not simply personal but have collective or communal consequences. This sense of collective consequences is reinforced in the "our" of the campaign slogan: this is not just about an individual, it is about all of us.

The "Save our lives" ad involves a series of contradictory signifiers and messages. Some are perhaps too obvious and lack subtlety ('... ended up at a hospital not as a doctor but as a dead body'), but it may be that in a media environment which is not as saturated with advertising as NSW, the simple, stark contrast in expectations of Nasser's life has a cut-through value. Other contradictions inscribed in the text are quite sophisticated, such as references to the way road accidents upset time (a few minutes of risky behaviour means a lifetime of suffering) and normal expectations of family life. These contradictions are powerful signs centred in the realities of everyday life. The absent driver produces pain, death and lifelong suffering for those who he is most responsible for in terms of cultural values. The ad addresses the absent driver, and reminds him what his absence will mean for others. The absent driver, the intended audience for the "Save our lives" while missing from the visual text, is thus a powerful presence and a persuasive message for modifying risky driving behaviour. The driver's absence as a signifier is effective as it invites others to fill the gap. Readers can easily insert themselves in the situation, something they might not find easy to do if the driver was present in the text.

More critically, there is a vagueness about the signification in the ad which has unexpected consequences. The kind of accident that resulted in Nasser's death is not made explicit; it is not clear whether Nasser died due to a car, fire, or bomb accident. But because road accidents are frequent and it is common for most families to experience the loss of one or more of members, it appears that the producers' preferred reading for the ad is that the signification of grief will be linked to the dangers on the roads (WHO 2013; Alghannam 2007).

The lack of specificity is significant, however, if this ad is intended as an intervention to modify risky driving behaviour (Arens 1999; Glendon & Cernecca 2003; Haworth 2005). Perhaps the openness of the ad is an outcome of the range of problems the Department of Home Security is expected to address (Alsamrany 2011). After all, the lines "In previous years...Thousands of people died...Each hour one person dies, Each one dies and leaves

pain for many others” can be read as a comment on the human condition, more than a reflection on road accidents. Even if it is assumed that the women’s grief is a result of a road accident; however, it is still not clear. What is the reason behind this accident? For example, is it speed or another reason? Is Nasser a victim or was he responsible for a tragic accident? The empty signifier of the absent Nasser is effective in one sense as discussed, but it also introduces vagueness and directs reader’s attention away from the causes of the accident to Nasser’s death – a death which is apparently all too common. The effect of framing Nasser’s death in this way removes attention from road safety issues, the very matter that ideally should be the focus of everyone’s attention. The ad may be read as raising awareness of accidents and the pain of loss, but the connotations of the verbal text and the group of women don’t produce a reading that points to and urges behavioural change.

If the signifiers were more obviously about speeding then it is likely that the producers’ preferred reading, a reading that represents the theme of the campaign, might have been taken by audiences (Donovan, Jalleh & Henley 1999). The analysis of the ad shows that it does not make clear to readers what they might do to stop this happening again. There is no specificity about what has happened. The text may be read as creating sympathy for the death of a young, smart promising student. But while sympathy might be an appropriate emotional reaction, it does not point to any way of dealing with speed, which can affect the lives of everyone, not just young smart students. The ad might be effective in the sense of connecting with audiences about the tragedy that speeding may cause, but it is not effective in modifying behaviour – the key objective of the campaign.

Presenting the family in this cultural light in a campaign targeting all segments of the Saudi society including sub-cultural groups, may impact on Saudi audiences only, as most non-Saudis, particularly non-Arabs, do not share this stereotype image about the role of the female in the family and her dependence on a male member (Mertz 2007; Nassif & Gunter 2008). The signifiers and images relied upon speak to Saudi viewers, as the clothing, the cultural significance of grieving women and Arabic script are coded for members of the Saudi cultural group and Arabic speakers. In this way, the reception of the ad can be negatively affected by such cultural differences, and as a consequence, the ad is likely to be less able to change non-Saudi behaviour (Borçun & Purcarea 2013). Finally, viewers with no Arabic and limited understanding of the dependent position of women in Saudi society who were intended to be included as a target audience for the “Let’s not lose our lives” campaign have limited opportunities to interpret the ad in terms of the producers’ preferred meaning.

The ad also was used as roadside ad with a slight change. Only one sentence was used in the roadside sign:

Nasser suffered for a moment in the accident...

But his family will be suffering for the whole of their lives

As discussed in chapter 2, the advertisement must suit the characteristics of the media selected for the campaign. It is preferable that only a few words are used in roadside ads to allow drivers to read the message in a few seconds, and thus roadside signs rely more on images than words (Alenad 1990). Relying on a picture in roadside signs and shortening the wording to one sentence with a big font, however, may not connect with drivers, as nothing in the picture or wording informs the reader about road accidents or speed (Rashed 1981). Perhaps producers thought the campaign name or logo would be understood by audiences, and that would facilitate understanding of the whole message. The lack of explicit signifiers linking family grief to aspects of road safety, however, puts the key message of the ad and campaign at risk. Further, the inclusion of confusing signifiers such as the cooking oil company logo make it harder for passing viewers to determine whether the ad is a commercial ad, or part of a social marketing campaign about road safety (Hastings & Angus 2011). The second advertisement for the “Let’s...” campaign will be analysed in the next section.

Figure 6.4: Campaign ad (newspaper ad)



Source: Ministry of Interior 2001

Ad Translation:

Speed Wrecked my Life

I had a good husband and a happy life
 I never thought, even for a moment, everything would disappear in moments
 Due to speed, I lost my husband, my life becomes distorted and the wheelchair has become my lifelong companion...

In previous years...Thousands of people died...Each hour one person dies
 Each one dies and leaves pain for many others
 It is calamity that does not leave anyone without pain, if it does not take his life

We must cooperate to eliminate this calamity
 We must cooperate
 To save our lives...

At lower right corner is the campaign logo, at left is the sponsor's logo for Mouad Jewellery.

Fry (2006) has argued that the use of emotional appeals is the main component of road safety campaign messages, and her conclusion is supported here. An emotional appeal was used in this ad based on the image of a widowed wife, a beautiful woman who has lost her husband (guardian or financial supporter as discussed above) and her mobility. As in the previous ad for the same campaign, the ad is centred on the human consequences of the absent abstraction “speed”. The signifiers of the woman’s dark clothes, vacant expression and lack of make-up all connote the woman’s sense of loss and a lack of vivacity, resonating with the woman’s words that before she was affected by speed she enjoyed a happy life.

The ring on the woman’s right hand codes wealth, but may also be read as signifying that her wealth cannot protect her from (road) accidents. Recalling earlier discussion in chapter 2 about conflicts of interest involving sponsors, it is possible that representing a precious ring may have been insisted upon by the jewellery sponsor, even if the significations of the ring may be ambiguous. In any case, the ring may confuse audiences as the Mouad logo makes the ad look more a commercial than a safety message. More generally, it may also be read as signifying that wealth cannot protect anyone from sudden tragedy: well off people, the poor, students, children and women are not immune from car accidents even if they are not responsible for causing accidents. As such, all groups in society are vulnerable to car accidents, and the lone figure in the wheelchair may be read as a visual synecdoche, a figure where a part represents a greater whole.

The connotative meaning of “I had a good husband” might be that he was a good driver; a safe driver, and that he was not at fault in the accident. However, he is a victim of another’s speeding despite his driving skill or compliance with traffic rules. This may minimise the ability of the ad to change behaviour, as it may be read as suggesting that the safe driver is also vulnerable to becoming a victim of speeding on roads (Axelrod & Hall 1999). As a result, viewers might think that being a safe driver makes no sense, as you may become a victim despite safe driving. The lack of specificity in the ad which was discussed in analysis of the above ad for the same campaign once again has unexpected communicative effects, and may not motivate behavioural change as expected.

Reading the spatial connotations of the scene in the ad, the dull, undecorated wall behind the woman signifies the monotony that is now part of the woman’s life. Setting the figure in a wheelchair, with the two remote controls beside denotes the loss of her companion and the substitution of husband with television and the wheelchair. The connotations of the setting are the tragedy of living a vital life with others, rather than observing it. This ad is linked with the previous ad in the way it foregrounds the consequences of (road) accidents for families. Here though, the ad highlights that the impact of a road accident is not limited to

psychological or emotional impacts, but that there can be long-term physical impacts (Groeger & Rothengatter 1998; Alhamdan 2004).

It should be noted, however, that unlike the women in the “Pinkie” advertisement, the women in both ads from the “Let’s not lose our lives” campaign are not given any agency in effecting change although they are directly affected by male speeding. Agency is a term which focuses “... on the individual as a subject and view[s] social action as something purposively shaped by individuals within a context to which they have given meaning” (Chopra 2005 p 9). In these ads the women are shown as powerless victims with no ability to effect change, even by advising drivers and encouraging compliance. In representing women as lacking agency, the ads preserve the status quo, and suggest that road safety is not their business and that they have no direct role in promoting road safety although they can be victims of risky driving. Cultural norms, which make women dependent on men, and exclude women from driving, position women as unable even to give advice to drivers, the majority of whom are men (Alkhateeb 1997; Al-Manea 1984). Provoking emotional responses about masculinity in messages, however, might communicate well in KSA, as showing off as an assertion of masculine identity is prominent in this culture where males are dominant and masculinity has a high social value amongst men (Alkhateeb 1997). Although more sociological research would be required, the esteem associated with masculinity in Saudi society might be available as it was in NSW to intervene creatively in risky behaviour associated with performing masculinity. Reinforcing values such as the responsibilities associated with masculinity (which was in part the message of the “Let’s not lose our lives”) might prove an effective intervention in young male speeding.

Finally, the verbal text and the representation of the victim’s words require analysis. The words are written as if they were hand written and may be read as an intensely personal statement. Reading further, the accident victim appeals to her society, to her community, to prevent more accidents. Unlike the ad from the same campaign discussed above, however, here there are no signs of community – all the signs are of an isolated, individual victim. Put another way, the community which is to act cooperatively is an absent signifier, as is the abstraction – speed – which is the cause of the woman’s misfortune. Here the abstract nature of the cause of suffering and communal misfortune, and the community which is to cooperate are perhaps too abstract. The woman on her own apparently has no immediate support, and it is harder for viewers to read themselves into the victim’s circumstances. In the previous ad, the signifier of the family was powerful, assisting readers to position themselves. In the previous ad the absent signifier of Nasser’s accident was somehow more understandable than “Speed”. While the ad addresses speeding as the main reason for car accidents, speed is represented abstractly, as something “uncaused,” which may limit the ad’s capacity to change risky behaviour as in the text speed is not closely

associated with driver behaviour, nor with any solution or advice about how to avoid such dangerous behaviour (Glendon & Cernecca 2003).

Again, like the previous advertisement of the “Let’s ...” campaign, using Arabic in a campaign message targeting Saudis and non-Saudis alike, and representing the victim of speed(ing) as a Saudi individual means that the campaign message is unlikely to communicate directly and fully with non-Arabic speakers and those who do not share the position of women in the traditional Saudi family. The “our” in the ad and the connotations of “thousands” may not be read by non-Arabic speakers as including them, which is a concern, as the target audience for the ad was intended to be the whole community in all its diversity.

Repeating the statements in the last six lines in both ads may remind the audience about how significant the problem is according to statistics of fatalities, and its impacts on survivors and family members. It seems, however, that the “Let’s ...” campaign like the “Pinkie” campaign tried to unite the whole society against this problem. Yet, it is also not clear in the “Let’s...” campaign how the society will face and overcome this problem. The emotional appeal of being united in grief is one thing, but will grief persuade people to change behaviour? In “Pinkie” the challenge to the target audience’s masculinity was a powerful impetus for change, as the psychological message of inadequacy was directly related to the at-risk drivers’ interest in fitting in with a shifting sense of masculine identity, and holding onto the community’s approval and esteem.

6.1.4. KSA case study 2: “Enough”

Figure 6.5: Newspaper and roadside sign ad.



Source: Ministry of Interior 2006b

This ad positions the viewer as a driver or passenger, looking in the rear view mirror at a vehicle that is badly smashed up. A traditional man’s headdress is draped across the windowsill of the right hand (passenger side)

door. The ad's textual message and campaign logo are also superimposed on the mirror.

Ad Translation:

I lost my family because of recklessness...

Enough.....Recklessness

An emotional appeal was used in this ad, expressed in terms of a sense of loss and (probable) guilt over risky driving. As discussed above, family is a powerful cultural value in Saudi society. Loyalty to family in KSA is high as the family is seen as the foundation of financial support at least, and the locus of identity (Al-Salem 2005). In this ad, the family is introduced as a victim in a way that differs from the grieving family in "Let's not lose our lives". Here the family members did not survive. As a result, the "I" of the ad, who may be assumed to be the driver (as it is the driver who usually has access to the rear view mirror), is represented as alone, as having lost his family position and identity due to his own recklessness.

Here again, however, the verbal text is abstract as in the "Let's ..." campaign. It is not clear whether the driver is at fault or not. It is "recklessness" that is at fault here. But presenting recklessness in an abstract way as if it is not associated with anyone and was not linked to driver behaviour limits the effectiveness of the message on target audiences. The campaign message which is obviously designed to connect to individuals' behaviour, is turned into an "uncaused cause". It is thus less likely to make drivers reflect on their behaviour and feelings about what it might be like to lose their family (Perloff 2010). In contrast, a clear link between the text in the ad (causation) and driver's behaviour such as "I lost my family because of my recklessness" drives home the preferred meaning: that it is our behaviour as drivers that has consequences – sometimes tragic consequences.

Another reading of the ad is also available. The view in the rear vision mirror may be the view of "everyman", in the sense that fatal accidents are something that is the experience of so many in KSA. Designing the ad in this way would widen its appeal, making it represent circumstances that most drivers could relate to. Even if this reading is acknowledged, however, it still positions the driver as an observer, rather than as a driver who takes charge of his behaviour and makes changes. This connotation is likely to be close to the preferred reading of the ad given Saudi participants' comments in interviews about the need to change driver behaviour in chapter 5. The connotations of the ad, which position the driver as an observer rather than an agent of his own change and future, make this a less effective communication as the key objective of making changes is not part of what is signified.

The signifier of the smashed car in the mirror is a complex image which may be read in numerous ways. A mirror usually reflects the viewer, and so the smashed car may be read connotatively to mean that as people usually see themselves in a mirror, so you yourself or your car might be smashed as this car in the future, as this is the inevitable fate for any reckless driver. The ad stresses recklessness, which is presented in a different colour. Read spatially, the smashed car may represent all the beautiful moments with family wiped out from the driver's mind as his family disappeared from this life. Of all the memories he has, he can remember only the smashed car as the last moment with the family. Using the red colour in the first sentence ("I lost my family because of recklessness"), with its cultural associations of danger and blood, stresses and reinforces the importance of family and the violence of loss.

The *shomag* (traditional head cover for Saudi men), on the right hand door, may be read as a signifier of all that is left of a passenger (drivers sit at the left hand side in KSA). Read connotatively, the shomag reminds us that passengers are also in danger when a driver is reckless. This in turn, may enhance positive influence by peers or passengers who may encourage the driver to slow down if they feel they are in danger (Scott-Parker, Watson & King 2013).

All the campaign ads for "Enough" were represented as if they are reflections in a car mirror, perhaps to help people remember the campaign each time they looked into the car mirror (Personal interview, Taiseer Almufarrag and , Manager of PI media Production Company, 12/6/ 2011). While that is understandable, the question is whether the placement and semiotics of the advertisement were ideal. First, as people usually look into the rear view mirror while they are driving, they will be busy and not in an ideal position to reflect on campaign messages. Second, the dynamic also seems wrong, since a rear view mirror can be read as signifying what is in the past, while the campaign is focused on changing behaviour in the future.

Colour has been used effectively in parts of this ad to stress the "Enough" theme. For example, the main words in the message were presented in different colours, - a form of representation not part of the "Let's not lose our lives" ads. Only short sentences are used in "Enough" campaign ads. Dweedar argues that short messages and simple sentences are highly recommended, as short sentences help people read and absorb the ad quickly (Dweedar 1995). On the other hand, the pale colours used in this little ad (8 X 10 cm), are not attention grabbing, and detract from the power of the text to attract viewers' attention (Dweedar 1995).

The “Enough” campaign was intended to target all of Saudi society with a special focus on young drivers. However, the young driver group is not clearly signified nor referenced, making it difficult for young drivers to identify or “find” themselves in the ad. Equally, the *shomag* connects Saudi men to the ad, but suggests that the ad targets a Saudi audience rather than an inclusive audience. The traditional clothing signifier may be read as a cultural barrier by non-Saudis, limiting their engagement with the campaign message which they perceive is “not for them” (Dweedard 1995; Nassif & Gunter 2008). Non-Saudis, that is to say, might read the shomag signifier to connect Saudis with recklessness, and disassociate themselves from the message, surely not the producers’ preferred reading of the ad. The discussion in the next section will turn to analyse the second advertisement of the “Enough” campaign.

Figure 6.6: Newspaper and roadside sign ad.



Source: Ministry of Interior 2006b.

Reprising the Recklessness ad, this ad positions the viewer as a driver or passenger, looking in the rear view mirror at a 60 kph speed regulatory sign (on the right in Arabic). The ad’s textual message and campaign logo are also superimposed on the mirror.

Ad Translation:

Enough...Ignoring regulations

Road Safety Campaign

Unlike the above Recklessness ad with its emotional appeal of family tragedy, this ad about complying with speed regulations is based on a rational appeal. The speed sign indicates 60 km per hour and behind this sign is a tree although it is a little hard to see in the reproduction. Perhaps 60 was used as a signifier to represent the death of one person every

60 minutes, a too-well known statistic of life in KSA (Ministry of Interior 2013). Another possible meaning could be that complying with the speed regulations can protect your life, represented by the green tree protected by the speed sign.

The campaign title/name is distinguished by a style of writing different to that of the message below it, perhaps to implant the “Enough” message in viewers’ minds and memories (Wagner 2006; Landsberg 1980). “Enough...Ignoring regulations” is, however, rather vague, as the viewer is not sure what regulations are being ignored. However, the campaign logo and the word “road safety campaign” included in the verbal text may have assisted readers deconstruct the meaning of the ad (Assaf 1976).

Although rational appeals are rarely used in KSA road safety campaigns, the appeal here is insufficient as it did not feature important rational elements such as relevant numbers or facts, which may make it difficult to be absorbed by audiences, and consequently may make behavioural change more difficult (Elliott & Elliot and Shanahan Research 1989). Although the whole society was targeted by the campaign, once again, the roadside and newspaper ads were all presented in Arabic, making it difficult for non-Arabic speakers to respond to the preferred reading of the ad. The reader will recall that non-Saudi drivers are recognised as high risk drivers, and that they would naturally have been part of the intended audience for this ad.

Once again in this ad the behaviour that authorities are trying to change – non-compliance with speed regulatory signs – is not tied to drivers except by implication. Like ads examined previously, non-compliance seems to be something that happens. It is not attributed to an individual or individuals. It is something going on, but something that viewers can easily ignore as there is no obvious association created in the ad between the catch phrase and viewer behaviour. The ad attempts a rational appeal, but sends mixed signals, in the protesting figures at left, more on a quasi emotional appeal – that everyone is fed up with drivers ignoring the speed limits, than a rational appeal. A clearer rational appeal - such as “Enough playing around – double speed violation deductions apply during April if you ignore speed limits” has the merit of stating the consequences that flow from not complying. The link between driver behaviour and penalties is clear and the expectation is that this intervention will provide rational choices for drivers. Finally, the backward glance at the 60kph sign sends the wrong message: it suggests that the sign has been ignored, and that there are no consequences from ignoring the speed limit signified in the ad.

6.1.5. Summary: Analysis of road safety campaigns advertisements

This chapter has presented a semiotic analysis of advertisements run as part of road safety campaigns in NSW and KSA. The analysis drew on semiotics to examine how the ads were designed by producers to achieve specific road safety objectives, and whether or not the textual features of the ads were likely to connect with target audiences and deliver a transparent communication of the producers' message. The analysis examined, in brief, whether or not the ads were likely to communicate the producers' preferred reading of the ad. The analysis has shown that the ads drew on a range of signifiers which at first glance appeared to have a close connection with identified priorities and target audiences. Most of the ads seemed to be clearly about risk behaviour and its consequences. In the "Pinkie" ad, the connection was more indirect, and the signifiers did not have obvious connections to risky driving, but were cleverly designed to appeal to the target individuals' sense of their own identity as noted below. Closer reading of ads, particularly those produced for KSA target audiences, however, showed that the meanings that were likely to be taken away from the ads were ambiguous, and did not match the producers' preferred reading of the ads. In this sense the ads were not likely to be as effective as producers' expected.

Further, analysis showed that the forms of signification in both the KSA and NSW ads was not well suited to the range of target audiences in the frame. The signifiers tended to represent dominant cultural groups, and were not likely to be read by sub-cultural minorities in the same way as they were understood by dominant culture readers. In chapter 3 it was emphasised that the meaning of complex symbolic signifiers must be learned. Thus the meanings of conventional signifiers such as a bent little finger, a traditional headdress, and a group of grieving women are not necessarily obvious to readers who have not had a chance to learn their significance, or do not share relevant competencies such as knowledge of the dominant language that would assist them learn more about the forms of signification in the ads.

Finally, the analysis pointed to an important issue in the design of ads intended to change behaviour. It was shown that in a number of ads the meaning that was most likely to be read out of the text was not likely to lead to behavioural change. The KSA ads constructed readings of an awareness of grief and resignation rather than readings which connected with individual interests and cultural values which research has shown are most likely to persuade people to change their behaviour. The "Pinkie" and "Wake up to the signs" ads were more likely to change behaviour, as analysis showed that the ads communicated directly with target audiences interests and sense of their own identity. As discussed in chapter 2, these interests are known to be powerful in persuading individuals to change their behaviour.

6.2. Analysis of KSA campaign slogans and logos

Because NSW case study campaigns do not have prominent logos (see RTA 2011O; RMS 2012b), this section will examine how KSA campaigns logos are designed and to what extent target audiences are considered in designing these logos. The discussion and analysis answers 3 B: Are campaign logos in KSA designed carefully to communicate with the target audience?

6.2.1. The “Let’s not lose our lives” slogan and logo

Although the campaign slogan “*Let’s not lose our lives*” has a musical rhyme in Arabic which might help audiences remember it (Chen 2000), speed was not mentioned in this slogan. As a result, the slogan remains vague as people lives’ can be threatened by many things, not only by road accidents or drugs – the other focus of the campaign. Leaving the slogan statement open to a range of readings makes it ambiguous and less likely to encourage readers to think about the behaviour that producers want to impact (Chandler 2000). It would have strengthened the campaign to stress speeding in the slogan, as this is the main traffic violation that is the major threat for road users and the main reason for road accidents in KSA (Al-Ghamdi 1999; 2003a; Al-Shammari et al. 2009). The slogan appeared only in Arabic and does not communicate with other non-Arabic speaking ethnicities or cultural groups in the society although they were identified as target audiences of the campaign (Ministry of Interior 2001; Liu, Wen, Wei & Zhao 2013).

Figure 6.7: Campaign logo



Source: Ministry of Interior 2001

The campaign logo includes an icon to signify the protection of human life (Ministry of Interior 2001). A green leaf signifies life while yellow soil is the foundation of human life.

Between the green leaf and yellow soil is a symbol of a human to indicate the importance of maintaining human life (see Figure 6.7) (Ministry of Interior 2001).

Although a green leaf can imply life in most cultures including Saudi culture, the yellow soil and human symbol may be harder for audiences to read. Using highly abstract imagery complicates both the denotation and connotation of the logo (McQuarrie & Phillips 2005). Designing the logo with this level of abstraction tends to make it more enigmatic and may decrease its appeal and significance for target audiences who respond to familiar, strongly coded signifiers (Dweedar 1995). The logo of the Directorate of the Public Security was placed in the top left corner in of the campaign logo (see Figure 6.7) (Ministry of Interior 2001). Inserting this logo obviously authorises the ad. But it may negatively affect reception of the campaign message by the target audience as the audience might feel coerced to follow the campaign messages, given the unequal power relationships between the target audience and the government (Alawfi & Ibraheem 2004).

6.2.2. The “Enough” slogan and logo

The word “*Enough*” was used as the campaign keyword and linked (in phrases such as “Enough speed” and “Enough disobeying traffic lights”) to compliance issues such as speed, traffic lights and dangerous driving (Ministry of Interior 2006b). The word “Enough” is meant to indicate the wrath of Saudi society about the risky traffic environment in the KSA (Alrasheedi 2006). However, the word can be interpreted in a different way. Using this catchy word in an ad that includes the Public Security Directorate logo, and using government TV to screen this ad, may result in this message being interpreted as an order from the authorities. As such, the message will not be welcomed by younger people (the second main target for the campaign after the whole society), who see themselves as adults and beyond the time when they are able to be ordered about like children (Scott-Parker, Watson & King 2013; Ministry of Interior 2006b). With a young target audience firmly in view the Directorate of Public Security might have dropped the logo. It is important to have people remember the campaign catch phrase, without being reminded of social authorities, and reinforces the finding that all elements of an advertising text should ideally address their target audience in a way most likely to deliver the preferred meaning (Myers 1999). Producers might use peer images or voices to deliver the campaign slogan, signifiers which are likely to help the target audience read itself into the ad (Scott-Parker, Watson & King 2013).

Figure 6.8: The “Enough” campaign logo



Source: Ministry of Interior 2006b

The campaign logo had a mix of images to convey speed, disobeying traffic lights and road risks inside a red circle, echoing the graphic design of official regulatory signs (Ministry of Interior 2006b). Inside the circle, the three figures are represented with their arms raised presumably in protest against the lack of compliance with traffic regulations (see Figure 6.8). Traffic lights, the campaign slogan and the Public Security Directorate logo are also included within the circle (see Figure 6.8).

A logo gives a product or campaign meaning and helps make it understandable and memorable (Myers 1999). As a result, a professionally designed logo can prolong the recall of a campaign in people's minds (Cousins 2012; Wescott 1971; Alenad 1990). It also makes it easier for the message to be imitated by target audiences, such as the use of the “pinkie finger” in the “Pinkie” campaign in NSW (Watsford 2008). The “Enough” campaign logo, a simple, uncomplicated statement, was however, not drawn from local cultural symbols and icons. This may have limited its adoption or understanding by target audiences (Short 1981; Wescott 1971). While different ages of groups were shown in the logo, signifying that younger and older persons felt strongly about the issues, the raised arms of the figures are ambiguous. People waving their arms in the campaign logo can be understood as fans supporting risky driving, as upraised arms is an open signifier, with no single meaning in Saudi society.

6.2.3. Summary: Analysis of KSA campaign slogan and logo

This analysis has shown that slogans and logos in KSA campaigns are designed in an abstract, ambiguous and vague manner, much like campaign messages discussed above. The lack of well-chosen signifiers leaves slogans and logos open to various interpretations by target audiences. There appears to be a lack of connection or fit between these logos and target audiences. The use of a government logo inside the campaign logo may affect its reception especially by the critical target audience of young drivers.

6.3. Conclusion

In this chapter semiotic analysis has been used to compare the construction and the textual character of campaign advertising in NSW and KSA. The focus here was on the relationship between producers' understanding of their target audiences, and the textual, or more generally communicative strategies which were relied upon to connect with audiences with the objective of changing behaviour. Discussion has examined whether campaign texts might be relied upon to communicate producers' preferred reading of campaign content, or whether the messages were constructed in ways that would more likely distract readers and result in ambiguous readings or campaign ads that held limited or no interest for selected audiences. This analysis has shown that a mix of appeals has been used in NSW road safety campaign messages whereas in KSA there is a greater use of emotional appeals. However, the abstract and ambiguous presentation of road safety campaign messages, slogans and logos in KSA may open up campaign advertising to different interpretations by target audiences which may affect their reception and persuasive power. The construction of these texts in this way may be linked to institutional arrangements in KSA and to limited audience research. In NSW messages typically identify the problem and the solution. The use of fonts and colours are effective in both settings especially in the "Enough" campaign in KSA. NSW campaigns, however, consider the socio-cultural characteristics of target audiences such as young males whose masculinity was put on the line in the "Pinkie" campaign, a powerful message given the high cultural value placed on masculinity in Australian society. In KSA, however, messages tended to be general, and were not addressed to specific audiences which, as has been discussed, is more likely to deliver the behavioural change objectives of the campaign. However, the visual signification in these ads reads as if the ads communicate with a mainstream culture audience, effectively deleting the preferred meaning from the attention of non-mainstream groups. Despite the translation of NSW ads into different languages, the visual and cultural elements in the messages in KSA and NSW do not represent and address cultural differences between sub-cultural and dominant culture audiences, nor the differences between various sub cultures within society. The use of women in ads in both settings is different. While women

in NSW are given agency for change, women in KSA ads are represented as victims without agency which is likely to negatively affect the power of these ads to draw women into supporting the desired changes on driver behaviour.

Chapter Seven: Conclusion and implications

7.1. Overview of research

Road accidents and their negative consequences such as deaths, injuries, economic loss and societal problems are considered to be a worldwide issue (WHO 2013). This problem, however, is especially pressing in developing countries. In KSA, the death toll due to road accidents in 2013 has risen by 6.5 percent compared to 2012 and reached 7623 (Ministry of Interior 2012; 2013). These accidents resulted in about 40 000 injured people who occupied 30 percent of hospital beds in KSA, where 50 percent of injured people ended up with permanent disabilities (Ministry of Interior 2013; Ministry of Health 2013). These horrific statistics require policy makers to think of more effective interventions to reduce this toll which is rising year by year. Law enforcement campaigns, dominant in the last few decades, and which were seen by Saudi authorities as the sole solution in addressing the problem are clearly not capable of reversing the trends (Hassan & Al-Faleh 2013).

Road safety campaigns are one of a number of interventions that have proven their efficacy in different parts of the world including NSW, Australia (Al-Ghamdi 1999; Al-saif et al. 1994; Elliott 1993; Tay 2005). Reviewing successful examples of road safety campaigns as an intervention for road safety can help Saudi authorities adopt reliable methods and develop successful campaigns and effective interventions. This comparative research project investigated the reasons behind the success of NSW's road safety campaigns, and the relevant knowledge and planning, design and management practices adopted by authorities which help to make road safety campaigns more effective. Case studies of four campaigns from both settings and field interviews in both settings examined road safety campaign formation practices and whether and to what extent selecting target audiences and the understanding of effective communication with target audiences was given sufficient attention by campaign designers. This issue was identified as a neglected area in a review of professional literature concerning road safety campaigns. The findings of this research assisted in laying a framework for recommendations for policy makers in both settings for the design and implementation of more effective road safety campaigns.

The study was undertaken to answer the following three overarching questions:

- 1- What are the key differences between KSA and NSW in road safety campaign formation?

- 2- How do road safety campaign producers in KSA and NSW select target audiences in road safety campaigns?
- 3- What are the most effective visual and textual communication elements used in road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW?

7.2. Justification of comparison study

Motivated by a lack of research published on how those responsible for developing and delivering road safety campaigns reflect on and take into account the audiences of their campaigns, this project had the goal of comparing campaign formation and audience targeting and communication in two research settings where campaign formation was managed quite differently and where the level of experience in developing campaigns was distinctly different. NSW was taken to be highly experienced in campaign formation, whereas campaign formation in KSA was known to be a relatively recent responsibility of public authorities. Significant differences were discovered between KSA and NSW in the formation of campaigns, in selecting and researching target audiences, and in the construct of persuasive advertising messages for target audiences. Given these findings, this comparative study represents a contribution to academic knowledge and understanding of aspects of road safety campaign formation, and is likely to help researchers and practitioners better comprehend the complexity of designing campaigns for multicultural settings and suggest ways for improving road traffic safety by developing successful campaigns.

The emphasis in this research on producers' practices in identifying and selecting target audiences was productive. It became clear that while road safety campaign audiences in the KSA were vague and undifferentiated in campaign strategy publications, practitioners in NSW were able to develop clearer and segmented descriptions of identified target audiences which contributed significantly to the way they approached and communicated with target audiences. The investigation of the "Pinkie" campaign showed just how powerful a thorough understanding of the background, values and sensitivities of the at-risk group of young male drivers in Australia was in designing a campaign which communicated using signifiers and constructs of social value and identity which connected powerfully with the target audiences. The implication of these findings is that investigating audience selection practices is a valuable insight into the ways of investigating whether the communicative

content and strategies adopted in a campaign are closely related to an informed understanding of audience composition and characteristics.

Another benefit of this comparative research that emerged from interviews with practitioners and scholars is that an understanding of community and cultural complexity is critical in framing behavioural interventions. The presence of minority groups, either through immigration or labour supply arrangements has made both NSW and the KSA more diverse, which in turn has made communicating with society members more challenging (Chiswick & Miller 1999; Bhuian & Al-Jabri, 1996; Ho 1990; Al-Ghamdi 2000). This project revealed that the targeting of sub-cultural groups by campaign texts and images is a challenge and discovered that whatever assumptions might be made about communicating with “mainstream” audience groups, these assumptions cannot be easily applied to minority cultures. This comparative study has pointed to the importance of considering the different cultures and communicative practices of minority cultural groups which may provide better understanding of how they read, understand and consume social marketing advertisements as part of road safety interventions.

7.3. Key findings

Stark differences have been explored between KSA and NSW pertaining to campaign administration and development practices, methods for selecting and targeting road safety campaigns audiences and the selection of effective visual and textual elements in road safety campaign advertisements. While RTA is solely responsible for road safety campaigns in NSW, the Department of Public Relations and Media is responsible for different kinds of campaigns including road safety campaigns in KSA. All aspects of road safety campaigns in NSW are designed externally by professional companies in contrast to KSA where these campaigns are designed in-house in Riyadh by the responsible department which does not employ specialists in advertising or social marketing. Road safety statistics are the main criteria for selection of themes for campaigns in NSW. In KSA, in some cases the selected themes for KSA campaigns do not reflect what official statistics suggest are the traffic violations in need of most urgent intervention. Objectives selected by the RTA in NSW are more focused and attached to the targeted traffic violation or theme. The RTA objectives are also easy to be evaluated when compared to immeasurable KSA campaign objectives. Significant differences concerning road safety campaign budgets and the sources of budget funds have been explored. In NSW, professional advertising firms tender to produce campaign ads based on research, in KSA these critically important elements are designed internally relying largely on the personal experience of departmental staff.

The selection of media and its distribution in road safety campaigns in NSW is entrusted to specialist media companies who rely on audience research in choosing appropriate channels for delivering road safety campaign material to target audiences. In KSA, this task is another job for departmental staff and tends to be guided by personal experience, relationships and discounts or donations offered by media companies and sponsors. Scholarly methods are adopted in evaluating road safety campaigns at different stages throughout their duration in NSW. In KSA, descriptive reports from officers in the field are the main tool for post-campaign evaluation.

Significant differences in selecting and segmenting target audiences of road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW have been found in this study. Target audience selection in NSW is guided by road safety statistics which resulted in targeting segments of the community and accurate targeting of at-risk groups. This important step in campaign formation in KSA does not reflect road safety statistics, and a more totalising approach is taken as campaigns are directed at a general undifferentiated audience. Despite the conclusion in this research that policy makers in both settings are aware of the impact of cultural differences on the reception of campaign material by target audiences, the way this worked out in practice was different. Segmenting target audiences by RTA included targeting different segments of sub-cultural groups, whereas these different segmentations in KSA are targeted as one undifferentiated group (non-Saudis), despite cultural differences which vary significantly within these groups, and between these groups and dominant Saudi culture. The impact of traffic environment for campaign material reception by target audiences is understood by stakeholders in both settings.

Despite similarities in the effective use of graphic design in road safety campaign advertisements in KSA and NSW, important differences concerning the communicative elements and their creative design in road safety campaigns advertisements in KSA and NSW have been identified. A variety of appeals is part of NSW practice in developing advertisements, whereas in KSA campaigns there is an over-reliance on emotional appeals. Messages in KSA campaigns are generally pitched at awareness of a vaguely communicated issue, while RTA messages point clearly to the targeted behaviour and suggest a solution to the target audience to act on. These differences suggest that in KSA the producers' preferred reading of campaign advertising is unlikely to be made by audiences, whereas in NSW it is much more likely that the ads will be read in line with their preferred meaning by the target audience and be persuasive in prompting change.

The differentiated socio-cultural characteristics of target audiences are considered in designing visual elements in NSW ads and are part of the address of NSW campaign advertisements. However, this is a world away from the totalising approach followed by KSA

authorities who segment audiences into either Saudi or non-Saudi categories. Even so, the forms of signification in both KSA and NSW campaign advertisements seemed best suited to communicate with target audiences from the dominant culture despite the translation of NSW advertisements into the languages of the main sub-cultural groups. Put another way, it was discovered that the form of communication designed to reach dominant culture audiences in both settings was taken by default as the model for communicating with sub-cultural or minority groups on the assumption that translation of the verbal signifiers was sufficient to enable groups who do not share the hegemonic culture and language to read the preferred meaning of the campaign ads.

The inclusion and representation of women in advertisements in both settings is considerably different. Women in NSW advertisements are given power to affect unwanted behaviour of target audiences while their counterparts in KSA are presented as without agency, paralysed by trauma, and unable to change risky behaviour although they are the victims of it. These differences could be attributed to cultural differences between both settings and stereotypical images of the roles and relative power of women in each society.

7.4. Implications of this study

The ultimate goal of this study was to understand differences in campaign formation between KSA and NSW particularly in selecting target audience and the construct of campaign advertising. This research makes a valuable contribution on both a theoretical and practical level. These contributions will be presented in what follows.

7.4.1. Implications for theory

The findings presented here have implications for academic research into the campaign formation process. Setting aside research into the reception of social marketing campaigns, this thesis instead examined the producer perspective as an innovative approach to understanding road safety campaign development. The contribution this thesis makes is to demonstrate that what is represented in the advertising content and strategy of a social marketing event (specifically a road safety campaign) is an outcome of a complex cooperative process of campaign formation that is embedded in a particular historical, institutional and cultural context. The analysis here shows that a campaign as event cannot be understood without a rich description and appreciation of the human and institutional processes which produced the campaign. The theoretical implications of this outcome are that in future, research on road safety campaigns will be more reliable and informative if based on a qualitative research approach which looks for and investigates the contextual

relations between a campaign as a directed communicative event and the institutional and creative formation process which made the campaign possible.

More specifically, the comparison of methods adopted by campaign producers in selecting, understanding and targeting audiences from mainstream and minority cultural groups in road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW has implications for both the communicative or textual dimension of campaign materials, the effective reach or coverage of relevant groups, and the appropriate methods for gathering data about audiences and at-risk groups. The theoretical implication of this finding is that understanding and investigating selection and targeting practices is best pursued by examining both the communicative form and content of campaign ads and the formation processes which were the foundation of the advertisements. Thus qualitative research methods should be employed to discover from practitioners their understanding, values and priorities concerning cultural minorities, and semiotic analysis is required to determine whether the communicative form of campaign advertising is designed to communicate effectively with a culturally differentiated audience.

This research tested whether semiotics is a method of analysis that is productive in examining texts produced in culturally and linguistically different settings. Semiotic theory directed this researcher to examine advertising content in a systematic fashion and proved valuable in drawing attention to the form and construction of texts, their transparency for relevant audiences, and whether or not they were likely to be read in terms of the producers' preferred reading. The implication of this is that semiotic analysis is a theoretical approach which is appropriate and productive in analysing communicative relations between texts and their readers cross culturally. It has been shown that semiotic analysis is a powerful approach to understanding the readings that audiences might take from campaign advertising. Provided that the researcher has an informed understanding of the cultures under review, semiotics opens up lines of inquiry that can be explored with producers as part of an examination into whether campaign advertising is likely to be read in terms of producers' intended meanings. More specifically, Jauss's (1982) concept of the "horizon of expectations" serves as an easily applied check on whether the signifiers producers rely on in designing their ads are likely to be communicative for all relevant target audiences, and whether they are likely to be read in the same way.

In chapter 2 a range of theories and models of behavioural change were reviewed and their implications for this project were assessed. The outcome of this research suggests that Social Learning/ Cognitive Theory (SCT) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) are perhaps the most relevant theories for developing a campaign that is able to modify risky behaviour of target audience. SCT suggests that individual behaviour is affected by the surrounding environment, and that individuals learn by observing and imitating the action of

other members of the society. The analysis here, particularly of the impact of the road traffic environment in KSA where risky driving behaviour is commonplace and works against road safety campaign messages, and the safer NSW road traffic environment which promotes a more positive reception of campaign messages, confirmed the value of an approach guided by SCT. TPB suggests that behavioural intention precedes the actual behaviour of individuals. This intention is an interaction between an individual's attitudes about intended behaviour, the individual's thoughts about what others members of the society will say about the behaviour, and a person's perceived level of control of that behaviour. The analysis here showed for example that NSW producers had a good understanding of these theoretical principles and drew on them in designing the "Pinkie" campaign. Findings showed that producers used the power of community approval to promote the perception that no-one in the community was positive about speeding, and drew also on young males' perceptions of their own standing in the community to reinforce their message on speeding. In KSA on the other hand, producers intended to affect community perceptions about speeding, but were not able to link community disapproval to driver behaviour as effectively, as the driver was an absent signifier in the ads that were analysed.

Further, this inquiry into the range of appeals in KSA and NSW campaign ads suggests that understanding these psychological/ behavioural principles and how particular behaviour is learnt, performed and modified is important for road safety campaign producers in order to design appeals that are able to touch a target audience's emotions, and persuade audiences to modify the unwanted behaviour. In NSW it was shown that producers understood the benefits that derive from varying appeals. In KSA, however, it was discovered that producers relied less on theoretically informed approaches to designing advertising appeals, and put a great deal of reliance on emotional appeals.

7.4.2. Implications for road safety and social marketing campaigns practitioners

Although the researcher understands that this is a research thesis shaped by the objectives and research questions outlined in chapter 2, the differences that came to light in analysing approaches to road safety campaigns in the two settings suggest that the findings of this project may have a contribution to make in policy, management and design of road safety campaigns in KSA and NSW, and that the application of research outcomes may be discussed briefly here as a pointer to consultations with relevant authorities, especially in KSA.

For KSA practitioners, the conflict of responsibilities and scale of objectives in present institutional arrangements responsible for campaign formation suggest that a specialist department be created and responsible for the development, organisation and management of road safety campaigns in KSA. The new department might be part of the ministry of health or transportation. This department should ideally engage a variety of specialists in different fields such as road safety, media, communication, marketing, sociology and psychology. The department will ideally be aware of both national and regional priorities in the road safety area, and be consultative and sensitive to regional and sub-cultural differences within KSA. It is suggested that funding levels for the department be reviewed with the objective of allocating funds that will be sufficient for designing, evaluating and implementing effective and professional campaigns.

The implications of findings here concerning mixed objectives and themes in the address of campaigns is that campaigns are best structured in terms of a single theme to maximise the communicative power of the campaign. Objectives of KSA's road safety campaigns must be clearly identified. The objectives and all aspects of campaigns must align with a broad national strategy for road safety to increase the effectiveness of planned interventions and coordinate with law enforcement priorities. Road safety campaign objectives should be measurable to contribute to campaign evaluation practices. Above all, objectives must focus on modifying risky behaviour rather than on vague objectives such as "increasing awareness".

Findings concerning a general lack of audience research in KSA suggests that campaign target audiences must be described and delineated as clearly as possible, based on a mix of relevant inter-disciplinary data and profiling, before campaigns commence. Stakeholders must rely on scholarly and empirical studies to understand the socio-cultural character of target audiences, not on intuition or personal experience. Greater sharing of knowledge about target audiences with universities and research departments in KSA may enable stakeholders to come to a better understanding of campaign audiences. If there is a lack of such studies, however, stakeholders must carry out special research to obtain this knowledge.

It is also recommended that segmenting campaign audiences and targeting each segment or at-risk group separately become best practice. Segmentation will enable producers, creative agencies and media companies to make informed choices about appropriate appeals in ads and the best delivery platforms, based on each group's media consumption practices, and socio-cultural values and interests. More attention must be paid to sub-cultural groups who are compelled to drive and are involved in about half of the road accidents in KSA. In practice, targeting sub-cultural groups in KSA is at a very low level

although it is mentioned theoretically in campaign strategies. Targeting these groups either by translating campaigns that target mainstream audiences or by designing a special campaign that appeals to their values and conventional modes of communication as has been strongly recommended previously, must include educating at-risk groups about new regulations and laws and modifying their risky behaviour.

Technical aspects of campaigns such as creative input and media planning must be assigned to specialist external departments and/or the private sector. Professional and specialist agencies in media and advertising must be contracted to do these important technical aspects of the campaign rather than relying on personal experience of producers or discounts and donated time by self-interested media companies. Media strategies must be selected carefully based on media profile and the socio-cultural characteristics of campaign audiences. Utilisation of social media such as twitter, facebook and youtube is recommended particularly in targeting young people. Campaign evaluation must also be carried out in a scientific and professional manner by independent research agencies contracted for this reason. Scholarly evaluation must be carried out prior, during and after the campaign to enable stakeholders recognise differences that may be attributed to specific campaigns.

It is suggested that campaign messages must ideally construct a solution for targeted problems and provide users with a way of managing the problem according to their specific circumstances. Closer planning and links between campaign developers and law enforcement departments are recommended to be developed in line with findings that road safety campaigns that are integrated with law enforcement practices are likely to be highly effective.

For NSW practitioners, on the other hand, it is recommended that although targeting sub-cultural groups by NSW road safety campaigns is considered much more a part of general practice than in KSA, using different characters from targeted sub-cultural groups in campaign ads may have more impact on these groups and draw their attention to the ad. It is also suggested that allocating more funds for targeting these groups will enable stakeholders to address ads to more than one sub-cultural or minority group, using appropriate imagery and language for each ad. It is advised that successful visa applicants all receive information in appropriate community languages that will inform visitors about driving safely in NSW. Rural area drivers and other rural road users must receive more intensive campaign attention as there is a big gap in the death toll between rural areas and metropolitan areas. Rural campaigns (to use a convenient shorthand expression) need to focus on particular traffic issues related to drivers or road users in these areas such as speeding and drink driving. It is recommended that NSW authorities recognise the value of

their record in successful road safety interventions, and make efforts to open archives and libraries and assist overseas researchers in particular to access important data.

Common or shared recommendations can also be offered to practitioners in both settings. Given the dramatic revolution in media and communication platforms and devices, stakeholders in both KSA and NSW are recommended to adopt new methods in targeting young people in particular by using applications that are easily downloaded from smart phones and tablets. These applications can give accessible, direct recommendations for drivers or road users on a daily or weekly basis in order to encourage them to adopt safer behaviour. These mobile devices meet audiences literally wherever they are, and can more easily segment audiences into age groups, for example, than other forms of advertising. Once an informed construct of “smart phone” users is generated, road safety campaign messages can be directed to target audiences in a timely and cost-efficient manner.

Practitioners are recommended to give special consideration to the understanding and targeting of sub cultural groups as audiences so campaign messages and appeals tailored to their cultural values, priorities and interests can be developed alongside campaigns targeting mainstream audiences. Authorities in both settings are recommended to prepare and hold better documentation of campaign materials. This background information is important for stakeholders, researchers and evaluation purposes. This documentation will help stakeholders in reviewing previous campaigns and in understanding their strengths and weaknesses, which is likely to assist in later campaigns. Finally, it is recommended that KSA and NSW authorities resist the conspicuous display of their logos on campaign material as it is likely to affect its reception negatively, particularly for those campaigns aiming at changing young people's behaviour.

7.5. Study limitations

Cross cultural studies are complex in nature and some challenges and limitations may be encountered in conducting such studies (Bochner & Hesketh 1994). The difficulties Jones et al outlined such as data collection and interpretation, chances of bias and lack of conceptual equivalence in language, and failure in appropriate interpretation of ideas, thoughts and experiences were all significant in the field work phase and in accessing and interpreting information in this project (Jones 2009; Matsumoto & Juang 2008).

Factors such as gender (KSA does not have any female drivers whereas a significant number of drivers are female in NSW), age groupings, road accident causes, timing of the days and years in relation to peak traffic hours, and the application of special regulations for Christmas or New Year in NSW, which has almost no particular significance in KSA, can

show the complexity of cross cultural analysis. In KSA, there is an annual influx of millions of people in a short span of time with the Hajj, a Muslim religious tradition. The Hajj places strain on the management of road safety and road users (Alsamrany 2011). In NSW there is no equivalent event which authorities have to manage. Drink-driving, on the other hand, has been a long-term, chronic problem for NSW authorities but not for KSA authorities (RTA 2009b; 2011b; Ministry of Interior 2012). Add to these variations in speed limits, road networks and differences in the duration of campaigns and record keeping, and it is obvious that comparative research demands constant vigilance on the part of the researcher.

The researcher discovered that there is not any standard approach to data collection and analysis in this emerging area of cross-cultural research of road safety. It became clear that while the interpretation of some expressions or phenomena related to this study may be clear in one culture, the matter may not easily be expressed in the same way in the culture chosen for comparative purposes because of language differences (Geisinger 1992). Back-translation of the key concepts, however, was achieved to check that the meanings of key concepts and terms under discussion were clear to participants. Even so, it is obvious that in a country such as Saudi Arabia, where satellite, Pay TV and mobile platforms deliver foreign-sourced content to citizens on daily basis, reception practices and cultural competencies of residents in such a fluid media environment are dynamic, and residents' traditional certainties are giving way to different ways of seeing and understanding themselves and the world, which makes campaign producers' jobs both challenging and exciting.

Conducting interviews, maintaining records and transcribing data also presented challenges for the researcher. Interviews took a significant amount of time and expense. The researcher had to go to KSA to conduct interviews, and often had to contact participants several times to find a suitable time and place for the interview. Recoding the interview information and observations was also not easy, in part because of the volume of qualitative information, but also because of the cross-cultural factors outlined above. Because of the nature and sensitivity of the topic, conducting interviews was at times emotionally taxing on both the interviewee and the interviewer, particularly because they may lack self-awareness. It was also evident that because of the sensitivity of some of the research topics, despite all assurances of confidentiality and anonymity, it took some members of organisations time to feel confident in responding to matters which they perceived as challenging their supervisors or potentially reflected badly on their organisation's agenda.

Chances of interviewer selectivity and bias because of the lengthy, detailed information generated as a result of responses to open-ended questions were another limitation in this study (Duffy 1987). Bias in the interpretation of results was acknowledged and managed by

using NVIVO which provided a systematic approach to the identification of important themes and findings (Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2011). Despite the challenges, the research was rewarding; the researcher gained new experiences and generated information and knowledge that were not known before on the topics investigated. The possible challenges were kept in consideration during the time of investigation in a self-reflective mode of research practice, and were addressed as far as possible in an effort to minimise the misrepresentation of the outcomes of the project.

In conclusion consideration of cultural aspects remains an important conceptual construct in research projects focused on human behaviour and its implications. This is particularly important in this globalised world where multicultural environments are becoming increasingly prevalent. Cross-cultural research, although challenging for all the reasons noted above, is nevertheless in itself a way of confronting, understanding and responding to cultural differences, and rules out easy assumptions and generalisations about homogenous societies. Cross cultural research helps us better understand how human perceptions and attitudes vary in different cultures, and these understandings sensitise us to the necessity of shaping campaigns to their target audiences to deliver particular outcomes. Despite these challenges and limitations, the methodology used in this study has shown to be reliable and productive in investigating the research questions established for this project.

7.6. Suggestions for further directions

It is noticeable that scholarly research on the development of road safety campaigns including the selection of target audience and visual elements in road safety campaigns is rare, and it is recommended that more research be carried out in this field so the insights drawn from a set of inter-disciplinary skills, practices and research methods can be brought to bear on the conceptualisation, design and management of road safety campaigns. It is also recommended that the socio-cultural character of audiences needs more attention and research, especially in KSA. This kind of research will necessarily require an adjustment in policy priorities to recognise immigrant groups as deserving just as much careful attention as mainstream metropolitan and regional groups.

This kind of research will also require an in-depth qualitative research approach so that agencies are assisted in developing a rich understanding of minority groups' values, interests and priorities which can help in designing more persuasive advertisements that communicate well with targeted sub-cultural groups. To further refine the effectiveness of road safety campaigns as interventions, the related issue of research into differences in campaign impacts on selected audiences is also a priority so that road safety campaigns

address well informed selected audiences, rather than poorly defined and described national groups which are assumed to be more or less homogenous.

7.7. Conclusion

The goal of this research was to examine the road safety campaign formation process in NSW Australia and Riyadh province, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, with emphasis on the theoretical knowledge and pragmatic principles which inform campaign policy authorities, designers and producers in developing road safety campaigns to communicate effectively with target audiences. Taking a producer perspective in working towards this goal was an innovative and productive research approach. While the emphasis on producers has not been an important perspective in road safety campaign research to date, it proved to be productive and directed attention to the contingent nature of campaign advertising in relation to the culturally, historically, and politically shaped processes of campaign formation.

What this research has shown is that campaigns understood as directed communicative events cannot be understood without a detailed understanding of the collaborative and multidisciplinary processes which produce a campaign. This double focus provides a way of identifying ways of improving both the persuasiveness of campaign advertising and of managing the formation of campaigns such that urgent priorities are identified and made the centre of a campaign formation process informed by the application of a range of expertise and theoretical and professional knowledge and relevant evidence.

The study found significant differences between KSA and NSW in terms of the formation of road safety campaigns, selecting and targeting campaign audience, and designing visual and textual elements in campaign messages. The findings of this research have important implications for both academics and social marketing practitioners alike, and this researcher will take the insights derived from this study into further research and professional practice.

References

- Abbas, JA & Al-Aali, A 2012, 'Corporate social responsibility in Saudi Arabia', *Middle East Policy*, vol. XIX, no. 4, pp, 40-53.
- Abercrombie, N, Hill, S & Turner, BS 1984, *Dictionary of Sociology*, Penguin, Harmondsworth.
- Abercrombie, N & Longhurst, B 1998, *Audiences: A sociological theory of performance and imagination*, Sage Publications, London.
- Abu-Ismaiel, AA 2007, 'The role of educational organisations in road safety campaigns', paper presented at Scientific Symposium about Road Safety Campaigns Reality, Naif Arab University for Security and Science, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 22-24 October.
- Ajzen, I 1991, 'The theory of planned behavior', *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, no. 50, pp.179–211.
- Ajzen, I & Fishbein, M 1980, *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.
- Al-Ghamdi, A 1999, *Traffic accidents in KSA: Causes, implications and solutions*, National Traffic Safety Committee (NTSC), Riyadh.
- Al-Ghamdi, A 2000, 'Taxi service characteristics and involvement in road traffic accidents in Riyadh', *Journal of King Saud University*, vol. 12, no. 2, pp.199-217.
- Al-Ghamdi, A 2003a, 'Analysis of traffic accidents at urban intersections in Riyadh', *Journal of Accident Analysis and Prevention (AAP)*, vol. 35, no. 5, pp. 717-724.
- Al-Ghamdi, A 2003b, 'Traffic volumes on roads connecting GCC Countries', paper presented at Conference on Highways Connecting GCC Countries, Bahrain.
- Al-Ghamdi, A 2006, 'Analysis of speeding in Saudi Arabia and effectiveness of enforcement methods', *Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, vol. 1969, pp. 140-149.
- Al-Makaty, S, Van Tubergen, G, Whitlow, S & Boyd, D 1996, 'Attitude toward advertising in Islam', *Journal of Advertising Research*, no. 36, pp. 16–26.

- Al-Manea, AA 1984, 'Historical and contemporary policies of women's education in Saudi Arabia', PhD thesis, University of Michigan.
- Al-Saif, A 1997, 'The improvement of accident investigation forms and its role in achieving traffic safety', in *Proceedings of First Conference for Road Safety*, 20-23 Dec 1997, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, pp. 41–55.
- Al-Saif, KA, Albader, HA, Alharthi, SK & Alsharbini, ZA 1994, *Evaluation of traffic awareness programs during traffic awareness week for Gulf Cooperation Council*, King Abdulaziz City for Science & Technology, Riyadh, KSA.
- Al-Salem, SA 2005, *The impact of the internet on Saudi Arabian EFL female's self-image and social attitudes*, PhD thesis, Indiana University of Pennsylvania.
- Al-Shammari, N, Bendak S & Al-Gadhi, S 2009, 'In-depth analysis of pedestrian crashes in Riyadh', *Traffic Injury Prevention*, vol. 10, no. 6, pp. 552-559.
- Alawfi, AD & Ibraheem, BM 2004, 'The impact of national comprehensive campaigns for traffic awareness in minimising traffic violations', paper presented at the Second Conference for Road Safety 2004, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 18-21 September.
- Albader, HA 1997, 'The effectiveness of traffic awareness in minimising road accidents', paper presented at First Conference for Road Safety, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 20-23 December.
- Alenad, AH 1990, *Advertisement campaigns planning*, Dar A'alam Alkotob, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
- Alghannam, AA 2007, 'Arriyadh Traffic Safety Strategy', presented at Australasian Road Safety Research Policing and Education Conference, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia, 17 - 19 October.
- Alhaider, M 2010, 'Accident victims occupy 30 percent of hospital beds', *Alriyadh*, viewed 27 July 2012, <http://www.alriyadh.com/2010/03/25/article509954.html>,
- Alhamdan, N 2004, 'The relationship between traffic violations and accident injuries', conference paper presented at Second Conference for Road Safety, 18-21 Sept 2004, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

- Alharbi, F 2003, 'Evaluation of effectiveness of security awareness programs, empirical survey on high school students in Almadina Almonawara city', master thesis, Naif Arab University for Security and Sciences, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Alhumidan, AA 2008, 'The effectiveness of law enforcement campaigns in detecting traffic violations-empirical survey on policemen work in law enforcement campaigns in Riyadh City', master thesis, Naif Arab University for Security and Sciences, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Alkhateeb, SA 1997, 'Social status of women in traditional Saudi society, *Human and Social Science Journal Emirates University*, vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 90-131.
- Almalik, SM 2000, 'Planning for comprehensive road safety campaign to reduce road accidents in KSA', paper presented at Media and Security Symposium, King Fahad Security College, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 16-18 April.
- Almalki, M 2004, 'Demographic characteristics of traffic violation committers', paper presented at the Second Conference for Road Safety, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 18-21 Sept.
- Alnafe, A & Al-Saif, K 1988, *Analysis of the psychological and social characteristics concerning driving behaviour in KSA*, National Traffic Safety Committee, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Alomaim, K 2008, 'A family of seven individuals and the other car driver were killed, survival of family daughter in a horrific traffic accident in Hail', *Alriyadh*, 9 May, viewed August 3, 2012, <http://www.alriyadh.com/2008/05/09/article341204.html>
- Alrasheedi, AD 2006, 'The effectiveness of traffic awareness campaigns', paper presented at Conference of Education and Road Safety, 11-13 Dec, Naif Arab University for Security and Sciences, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Alsamrany, A S 2011, 'The role of the Department of Public Relation and Media in Directorate of Public Security in traffic awareness campaigns', masters thesis, Naif Arab University for Security and Sciences, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Altwaijri, M, Alzahrani, S, Abu Abat, S & Abdullah, M 2008, 'Violations committed by young drivers: Young drivers a direct factor in high accident rates', *Al-Mururiya*, vol. 19, pp. 22-25.

- Alzubaidi, MN 2004, *Lexicon of the tribes of the Arabian Peninsula lineages*, Dar Alrafedain, Baghdad, Iraq.
- Andreasen, AR 1994, 'Social marketing: Its definition and domain', *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 108-114.
- Ang, I 1996, *Living room wars: Rethinking media audiences for a postmodern world*, Routledge, London.
- Ansari, S, Akhdar, F, Mandoorah, M & Moutaery, K 2000, 'Causes and effects of road traffic accidents in Saudi Arabia', *Public Health*, vol. 114, no. 1, pp. 37-39.
- Arens, W 1999, *Contemporary advertising*, 7th edn, McGraw-Hill, Irwin, Columbus, Ohio.
- Arens, W & Weinglod, MF 2010, *Contemporary advertising*, McGraw-Hill Higher Education, Columbus Ohio.
- Assaf, M 1976, *Advertising basics*, Ain Shams University Library, Cairo, Egypt.
- Attorney General and Justice 2013, *Registry of births deaths and marriages*, NSW Government, Sydney.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2002, *Demography, New South Wales 2001*, ABS, viewed 07 Sep 2013, <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/3311.1>
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2004a, *Household use of information technology*, cat.no.8164.0, ABS, Canberra.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2004b, *Internet activity Australia*, cat.no.8153.0, ABS, Canberra.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2005, *Australian social trends*, cat no. 4102.0, viewed 10 December 2011, <http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/Previousproducts/9C24B425BFE802FCCA25703B0080CCCD>

- Australian bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2010, *Household use of information technology Australia 2008-09*, cat no. 8146.0, viewed 10 December 2011, <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/8146.0>
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2011a, *Australian demographic statistics 2011*, cat. no. 3101.0, viewed 2 January 2012 <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/3101.0>
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2011b, *Internet activity*, cat no. 8153.0, viewed 10 December 2011, <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/8153.0/>
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2011c, *Nearly three-quarters of Australian households now have broadband*, ABS, viewed 19 December 2011, <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Latestproducts/8146.0Media%20Release12010-11?opendocument&tabname=Summary&prodno=8146.0&issue=2010-11&num=&view=>
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2013a, *2011 Census QuickStats*, viewed 07 September 2013, http://www.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2011/quickstat/1?opendocument&navpos=220#cultural
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2013b, *2011 Census QuickStats*, viewed 12 October 2013, http://www.censusdata.abs.gov.au/census_services/getproduct/census/2011/quickstat/0
- Austin, EW, Pinkleton, B & Fujioka, Y 1999, 'Assessing prosocial message effectiveness: Effects of message quality, production quality, and persuasiveness', *Journal of Health Communication*, vol. 4, pp. 195-210.
- Axelrod, S & Hall, V 1999, *Behavior modification: Basic principles*, 2nd edn, PRO-ED, Shoal Creek, Texas.
- Bachand, D 1988, The marketing of ideas: Advertising and road safety, *Journal of Research in Marketing*, no.4, pp. 291-309.
- Badawi, IA, Alakija, W & Aziz, MA 1995, 'Road traffic accidents in Asir region Saudi Arabia: Pattern and prevention', *Saudi Medical Journal*, vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 257-260, viewed 24 June 2009, <http://cat.inist.fr/?aModele=afficheN&cpsidt=2890134>
- Baker, A, Ivers, RG, Bowman, J, Butler, T, Kay-Lambkin, FJ, Wye, P, Walsh, RA, Pulver, LJ, Richmond, R, Belcher, J, Wilhelm, K & Wodak, A 2006. 'Where there is smoke, there's fire: High prevalence of smoking among sub-populations and recommendation for interventions', *Drug and Alcohol Review*, vol. 25, no. 1, pp. 85-96.

- Bandura, A 1977, *Social learning theory*, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.
- Bandura, A, 1986, 'The explanatory and predictive scope of self-efficacy theory', *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, vol. 4, Issue Sept, pp 359-373.
- Bandura, A 2004, 'Health promotion by social cognitive means,' *Health Education & Behavior*, 2004, vol. 31, no. 2, pp. 143 – 164.
- Bartos, R 1986, 'Qualitative research: What it is and where It came from,' *Journal of Advertising Research*, vol. 26, no. 3, pp. 3-6.
- Bazeley, P 2006, 'The contribution of computer software to integrating qualitative and quantitative data and analyses', *Research in the Schools*, vol. 13, no. 1, pp 64–74.
- Beck, CT 2009, 'Critiquing qualitative research,' *Aorn Journal*, vol. 90, no. 4, pp. 543-554.
- Bendak, S 2005, 'Seat belt utilization in Saudi Arabia and its impact on road accident injuries', *Accident Analysis Prevention*, vol. 37, no. 2, pp. 367-371.
- Bener, A & Crundall, D 2005, 'Road traffic accidents in the United Arab Emirates compared to western countries', *Advances in Transportation Studies*, section A 6, pp. 5-12.
- Benohel, JQ 1985, 'Advancing nursing science qualitative approaches', *Western Journal of Nursing Research*, vol. 6, no.3, pp. 1-8.
- Berry, J, Poortinga, Y, Segall, M & Dasen, P 1992, *Cross-cultural psychology: Research and applications*, Cambridge University Press, New York.
- Bloom, PN & Novelli, WD 1981, 'Problems and challenges in social marketing', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 45, pp. 79-88.
- Bochner, S & Hesketh, B 1994, 'Power distance, individualism/collectivism, and job-related attitudes in a culturally diverse work group', *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, vol. 25, pp. 233-257.

- Borçun, D & Purcarea, VL 2013, 'Marketing and semiotic approach on communication: Consequences on knowledge of target-audiences', *Journal of Medicine and Life*, vol. 6, no. 1, pp.103-108.
- Botalibi, A 2006, 'Effectiveness of road safety campaigns', paper presented at the Education and Road Safety Conference, 11-13 December, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Boulanger, A, Divjak, M, Orozova-Bekkevold, I & Zabukovec, V 2007, *Typology of evaluation methods: Current practices and campaign evaluation: Campaigns and awareness raising strategies in traffic safety (CAST): Deliverable 2.1*, Directorate-General for Transport and Energy, European Commission, Brussels.
- Bhuiyan, SN & Al-Jabri, IM 1996, 'Expatriate turnover tendencies in Saudi Arabia: An empirical examination,' *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, vol. 4 No. 4, pp. 393-407.
- Bogers, RP, Brug, J, van Assema, P & Dagnelie, PC 2004, 'Explaining fruit and vegetable consumption: The theory of planned behavior and misconception of personal intake levels', *Appetite*, no. 42, pp. 157–166.
- Brewer, AM 1995, *Change management: Strategies for Australian organisations*, Allen & Unwin, St. Leonards, NSW.
- Briscoe, C & Aboud, F 2012, 'Behaviour change communication targeting four health behaviours in developing countries: A review of change techniques', *Social Science & Medicine*, no. 75, pp. 612-621.
- Bronfenbrenner, U 1993, 'The ecology of cognitive development: research models and fugitive findings', in *Development in context: acting and thinking in specific environments*, eds R Wozniak & K Fischer, Erlbaum, Hillsdale, NJ, pp. 3-44.
- Bronfenbrenner, U 1995, 'Developmental ecology through space and time: a future perspective', in *Examining lives in context: perspectives on the ecology of human development*, eds P Moen, GH Elder Jr. & K Lüscher, American Psychological Association, Washington, DC, pp. 619-647.
- Brooker, G 1981, 'A comparison of the persuasive effects of mild humor and mild fear appeals', *Journal of Advertising*, vol. 10, no. 4, pp. 29-40.

Brower, AM 1988, 'Can the ecological model guide social work practice?' *Social Service Review*, vol. 62, no. 3, pp. 411-429.

Bryman, A 1988, *Quantity and Quality in Social Research*, Routledge, London.

Cacioppo, JT & Petty, RE 1979, 'Effects of message repetition and position on cognitive response, recall, and persuasion', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 37, no. 1, pp. 97-109.

Campaigns and Awareness Raising Strategies in Traffic Safety (CAST) 2008, *CAST Workshops Evaluation Tool*, Belgian Road Safety Institute (IBSR-BIVV), Brussels, Belgium.

Campbell, JL, Quincy, C, Osserman, J & Pedersen, OK 2013, 'Coding in-depth semistructured interviews: Problems of unitization and intercoder reliability and agreement', *Sociological Methods & Research*, vol. 42, no. 3, pp. 294-320.

Capek, J & Sloup, J 2003, 'Road user education and licensing, road safety campaign', Linköping Institute of Technology, Linköping, Sweden viewed 1 Feb 2012, <http://staffwww.itn.liu.se/~ghaal/Sample%206.pdf>

Carlson, L, Grove, SJ & Dorsch, MJ 2003, 'Services advertising and integrated marketing communications: An empirical investigation', *Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising*, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 69-82.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace 2004, *Statistics on Arab media*, viewed 10 Dec 2011, http://www.carnegieendowment.org/files/New_Chart.pdf

Carr, LT 1994, 'The strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research: What method for nursing?' *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, no. 20, pp. 716-721.

Castells, M 2010, 'Communication power, mass communication, mass self-communication, and power relationships in the network society', in *Media and Society*, ed J Curran, Bloomsbury Academic, London & New York.

- Central Department of Statistics & Information (CDSI) 2010, *Population census*, CDSI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Centre for Accident Research and Road safety (CARRSQ) 2011, *Fatigue: State of the road fact sheet*, CARRSQ, Queensland viewed 10 Aug 2011, www.carrsq.qut.edu.au/publications/corporate/fatigue_fs.pdf
- Cervin, VB & Henderson, GP 1961, 'Statistical theory of persuasion', *Psychological Review* 1961, vol. 68, no. 3, pp.157-166.
- Chandler, D 2000, *Semiotics: The basics*, Routledge, London & New York.
- Charmaz, K 1990, 'Discovering chronic illness: Using grounded theory', *Social Science and Medicine*, no. 30, pp. 1161–1172.
- Chen, CH 2000, 'The new thinking of marketing advertising', *Brain Magazine*, vol. 292, pp.42-45.
- Cheng, JLC 1989, 'Toward a contextual approach to cross-national organisation research: a macro perspective', *Advances in International Comparative Management*, vol. 4, pp. 3-18.
- Chiswick, BR & Miller, PW 1999, 'Immigration, language and multiculturalism in Australia', *The Australian Economic Review*, vol. 32, no. 4, pp. 369–85.
- Chitu, I 2009, 'Some aspects regarding internet advertising', *Bulletin of the Transilvania University of Brasov*, vol. 2 no. 51, pp. 27-31.
- Chulov, M 2002, 'Shock-and-gore message runs out of gas', *The Australian* 7 January, p. 5, in 'Drink driving enforcement and publicity campaigns: Are the policy recommendations sensitive to model specification?' R Tay, 2005, *Accidents Analysis and Prevention*, pp.259–266.
- Chopra, R 2005, *Academic dictionary of social science*, Isha Books, Delhi, India.
- City of Sydney 2010, 'Sydney at a glance', viewed 3 August, 2012, <http://www.cityofsydney.nsw.gov.au/AboutSydney/CityResearch/AtAGlance.asp>
- Colman, AM 2008, *A Dictionary of Psychology*, 3rd edn, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Communication and Information Technology Commission (CITC) 2010a, *Information technology report about Internet in Saudi Arabia 2010*, CITC, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Communication and Information Technology Commission (CITC) 2010b, *The state of ICT market development in Saudi Arabia: online field work (x3) & interviews 2009 - 2010*, CITC, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Communication and Information Technology Commission (CITC) 2011a, *Annual report 2010*, CITC, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Communication and Information Technology Commission (CITC) 2011b, *Historical overview of communication and information technology commission*, viewed 13 Dec 2011, <http://www.citc.gov.sa/arabic/AboutUs/Pages/History.aspx>

Cooper, CR & Denner, J 1998, 'Theories linking culture and psychology: Universal and community-specific processes', *Annual Review of Psychology*, vol. 49, pp. 559-584.

Cousin, G 2005, 'Case study research', *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, vol. 29, no.3, pp. 421-427.

Cousins, SD 2012, A semiotic approach to mind and culture, *Culture & Psychology*, vol. 2, no.18, pp.149–166.

Courtland, B & Arens, W 1986, *Contemporary advertising*, Homewood, Irwin, Illinois.

Crouch, M & Mackenzie, H 2006, 'The logic of small samples in interview-based qualitative research', *Social Science Information*, vol. 45. no. 4, pp. 483-499.

Customedia 2007, *Youth speeding public education campaign: media strategy recommendation*, internal document, Customedia Company, New South Wales, Sydney.

Daddesio, TC 1987, 'Multilevel Semiotics', *The American Journal of Semiotics*, vol. 3/4, no. 5, pp. 491-523.

Dam, CV 2009, 'Who is afraid of diversity? Cultural diversity, European co-operation, and European tort law', *King's Law Journal*, no. 20, pp. 281–308.

- Dann, S & Fry, ML 2009, 'Benchmarking road safety success: Issues to consider', *Australasian Marketing Journal*, vol. 17, no.4, pp. 226-231.
- Dawson, C 2002, *Practical research methods: A user-friendly guide to mastering research techniques and projects*, OUP, Oxford, UK.
- Delaney, A, Lough, B, Whelan, M & Cameron, M 2004, *A review of mass media campaigns in road safety: Report no. 220*, Monash University Accident Research Centre, Melbourne.
- Delhomme, P, De Dobbeleer, W, Forward, S, Simões, A 2009 (eds.), *Manual for designing, implementing, and evaluating road safety communication campaigns*, Directorate-General for Energy and Transport, European Commission, Brussels.
- Denzin, NK, & Lincoln, YS 2005, 'Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research', in *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*, 3rd edn, eds NK Denzin & YS Lincoln, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 1–32.
- Department of Infrastructure and Transport (DIT) 2010, *History of Australian road and rail*, DIT, Australian Government, viewed 3 December 2012, http://www.infrastructure.gov.au/transport/publications/files/history_of_road_and_rail.pdf
- Department of Public Relations and Media 2010, *Internal document about salamty campaign*, Directorate of Public Security, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Department of Transport and Main Roads (TMR) 2010, *Driver fatigue public education campaign 2009-2010*, Department of Transport and Main Roads, Brisbane, Queensland.
- Department of Transport and Main Roads (TMR) 2012a, *Driver guide: Driving safely*, viewed 28 May 2012, <http://www.tmr.qld.gov.au/Safety/Driver-guide/Driving-safely/Driving-tired.aspx>
- Department of Transport and Main Roads (TMR) 2012b, *Safety campaigns: Driving tired*, viewed 1 May 2012, <http://www.tmr.qld.gov.au/Safety/Safety-campaigns/Driving-tired.aspx#current>
- DeShields, OW Jr, & Kara, A 2011, 'The varying influence of spokesperson's accent in communication effectiveness: A comparative study in two different regions of Mexico', *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, vol.19, no. 1, pp. 55–65.

- Devine, PG. & Hirt, ER 1989, 'Message strategies for information campaigns: A social–psychological analysis', in *Information campaigns: Balancing social values and social change*, ed CT Salmon, Sage, Newbury Park, pp. 229–258.
- De Winter, JCF, Dodou, D 2010, 'The driver behaviour questionnaire as a predictor of accidents: A meta-analysis', *Journal of Safety Research*, vol. 41, no.6, pp. 463-470.
- Directorate of Public Security 2001, *Measurement study of levels of knowledge, attitudes and behaviours for the family in Saudi Arabia about the traffic and security issues, the first and second phases, evaluation study before and after the first comprehensive campaign*, Department of Studies and Statistics, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Dobbie, K 2002, *Fatigue-related crashes: An analysis of fatigue-related crashes on Australian roads using an operational definition of fatigue: Road safety research report OR23*, Australian Transport Safety Bureau, Canberra.
- Donovan, R, Henley, N, Jalleh, G & Slater, C 1995, *Road safety advertising: an empirical study and literature review*, Federal Office of Road Safety, Canberra.
- Donovan, RJ, Jalleh, G & Henley, N 1999, 'Executing effective road safety advertising: Are big production budgets necessary?', *Accident Analysis and Prevention*, no. 31, pp. 243–252.
- Donovan, RJ & Henley, N 2003, *Social marketing: Principles and practices*, IP Communications Pty Ltd, East Hawthorn, Victoria.
- Douglas, SP & Craig, SC 1983, *International marketing research*, Prentice-Hall Inc, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Duffy, ME 1987, Methodological triangulation: A vehicle for merging quantitative and qualitative methods, *Images*, vol. 19, no.3, pp.130-133.
- Dweedar, A 1995, *Human behaviour psychology: Collective communication and public relations*, Dar Alnahda Alarbia, Beirut, Lebanon.
- Dworkin, SL 2012, 'Sample size policy for qualitative studies using in-depth interviews', *Archives of sexual behavior*, vol. 41, no. 6, pp. 1319 – 1320.

- Eagle, L, Dahl, S, Hill, S, Bird, S, Spotswood, F & Tapp, A 2013, *Social marketing*, Pearson Education Limited, Edinburgh Gate, Harlow, UK.
- Eckstein, H 1975, 'Case study and theory in political science', in *Handbook of Political Science*, vol. 7, eds FJ Greenstein & NW Polsby, Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA, pp. 79-137.
- Edelman, B, Ostrovsky, M & Schwarz, M 2007, 'Internet advertising and the generalized second-price auction: Selling billions of dollars worth of keywords', *The American Economic Review*, vol. 97, no. 1, pp. 242-259.
- Elliott, B & Elliot & Shanahan Research 1989, *Effective road safety campaigns: A practical handbook*, Federal Office of Road Safety, Transport and Communications, Canberra.
- Elliott, B 1992, *Achieving high levels of compliance with road safety laws: a review of road user behaviour modification: Report no. 6*, Travel Safe Committee, Queensland Parliament, Brisbane.
- Elliott, B 1993, *Road safety mass media campaigns: A meta analysis*, Federal Office of Road Safety, Transport and Communications, Canberra.
- Ernest, WB & Lüttich, H 2003, 'Review of "Semiotics: the basics" by D Chandler', 2000, *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 35, no. 6, June, pp. 927-930.
- Faulks, I 2008, 'Top Gear magazine, a parody (anti-ad) of the "speeding - no one thinks big of you" campaign', paper presented at Getting the Road Safety Message Across: What Can We Learn From Public Health Advertising, 10 July 2008, Sydney, Australia, pp 102-110.
- Faulks, IJ & Irwin, JD 2008, 'Complaints to the Advertising Standards Bureau about the "Speeding no-one thinks big of you" campaign', paper presented to Getting the Road Safety Message Across: What Can We Learn From Public Health Advertising, 10 July 2008, Sydney, Australia, pp 111-120.
- Faulks, I 2011 'Road safety advertising and social marketing', *Journal of the Australasian College of Road Safety*, vol. 22, no.4, pp. 34- 40.
- Feghali, E 1997, 'Arab Cultural Communication Patterns', *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, vol. 21, no. 3, pp. 345.

- Fernan, D & Palk, G 2012, 'Do people gamble with their lives: The relationship between risky driving behaviour and other risky behaviours,' paper presented at Australasian Road Safety Research, Policing and Education Conference 2012, 4 - 6 October, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Fishbein, M & Ajzen, I 1975, *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*, Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA.
- Fleiter, JJ, Lennon, AJ & Watson, BC 2010, 'How do other people influence your driving speed? Exploring the "who" and the "how" of social influences on speeding from a qualitative perspective', *Transportation Research*, Part F, vol. 13, no.1, pp. 49- 62.
- Flew, T & Gilmour, C 2006, 'Television and pay tv' in *Media and communication in Australia*, 2nd edn, eds S Cunningham & G Turner, Allen & Unwin, Sydney, pp.175-192.
- Flynn, BS, Worden, JK, Yanushka Bunn, J, Connolly, SW & Dorwaldt, AL 2011, 'Evaluation of smoking prevention television messages based on the elaboration likelihood model', *Health Education Research*, vol.26, no.6, pp. 976–987.
- Flyvbjerg, B 2006, 'Five misunderstandings about case-study research,' *Qualitative Inquiry*, vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 219-245.
- Frederiksen, L 2008, 'Grey literature report', *Reference Reviews*, vol. 22, no. 6, pp. 38-39.
- Fry, ML 2006, 'Message processing of fear-based anti-drink-driving advertisements', doctoral thesis, Queensland University of Technology.
- Gaines, E 2010, *Media literacy and semiotic*, Palgrave Macmillan, NY.
- Gastwirth, D 2007, 'Reaching the connected generation', *The New England Journal of Higher Education*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 26-27.
- Geertz, C 1973, *The Interpretation of cultures*, Basic Books, New York.

Geisinger, KF 1992, 'The metamorphosis of test validation', *Educational Psychologist*, vol. 27, pp. 197-222.

Geisinger, KF 1994, 'Cross-cultural normative assessment: Translation and adaptation issues influencing the normative interpretation of assessment instruments', *Psychological Assessment*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 304-312.

Germain, CB (ed.) 1979, *Social work practice: People and environments: An ecological perspective*, Columbia University Press, New York.

Gerring, J 2007, *Case study research: Principles and practices*, Cambridge University Press, New York, NY.

Giddens, A 1984, *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*, Polity Press, Cambridge.

Glendon, IA & Cernecca, L 2003, 'Young drivers responses to anti-speeding and anti-drink-driving messages', *Transportation Research*, Part F, no. 6, pp. 197–216.

Godau, RI & Richards, K 2004, 'Qualitative research software review', *Qualitative Research Journal*, vol. 4, no. 2, pp. 76-94.

Griffin, EA 1991, *A first look at communication theory*, 5th edn, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Groeger, JA & Rothengatter, JA 1998, 'Traffic psychology and behaviour', *Transportation Research*, Part F, no 1, pp.1-9.

Grube, JW 1993, 'Alcohol portrayals and alcohol advertising on television: Content and effects on children and adolescents', *Alcohol Health & Research World*, no.17, pp. 61-66.

Guinn, B, Vincent, V, Jorgensen, L, Dugas, D & Semper, T 2007, 'Predicting physical activity among low-income Mexican–American women: Application of the theory of planned behavior', *American Journal of Health Behavior*, no. 31, pp. 115–122.

Gulf Traffic 2009, 'Religious leaders join road safety campaign', viewed 21 Sept 2009, <http://www.gulftraffic.com/images/pdf/SaudiArabiaReligiousleadersjoinroadsafetycampaign17Aug09TN.pdf>

- Gynther, L, Mikkonen, I & Smits, A 2012, 'Evaluation of European energy behavioural change programmes', *Energy Efficiency*, vol. 5, no. 1 (February), pp 67-82.
- Haglund, M & Aberg, L 2000, Speed choice in relation to speed limit and influences from other drivers, *Transportation Research*, Part F, vol 3, no. 1, pp. 39-51.
- Hall, S 1980, 'Encoding/decoding', in *Culture, Media, Language*, eds S Hall, D Hobson, A Lowe & P Willis, Hutchinson/CCCS, London, pp.197-208.
- Hargreaves, T 2011, 'Practising behaviour change: Applying social practice theory to pro-environmental behaviour change', *Journal of Consumer Culture*, vol.11, no. 1, pp. 79–99.
- Hassan, H & Al-Faleh, H 2013, 'Exploring the risk factors associated with the size and severity of roadway crashes in Riyadh', *Journal of Safety Research*, no.47, pp. 67–74.
- Hastings, G 2007, *Social marketing: Why should the Devil have all the best tunes?* Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford, UK: Burlington, MA.
- Hastings, G & Angus, K 2011, 'When is social marketing not social marketing?' *Journal of Social Marketing*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 45-53.
- Hawley, AH 1950, *Human ecology: A theory of community structure*, Ronald Press, New York, NY.
- Haworth, N 2005, 'Maximising the impact of road safety advertising', *Road & Transport Research*, vol. 14, no. 4, pp. 3-12.
- Hayakawa, H, Fischbeck, P, Fischhoff, B 2000, 'Traffic accident statistics and risk perceptions in Japan and the United States', *Accident Analysis & Prevention*, no. 32, pp. 827–835.
- Hayes, S 2010, 'Brief interventions to change behaviour,' *Practice Nurse*, vol. 39, no. 6, pp. 20-23.
- Heffner, RR, Turrentine, TS & Kurani, KS 2006, *A primer on automobile semiotics*, Institute of Transportation Studies, UC Davis (UCD), University of California, viewed 1 Nov 2013 <http://escholarship.org/uc/item/3577d04p>
- Henley, N, Raffin, S & Caemmerer, B 2011 'The application of marketing principles to a social marketing campaign', *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, vol. 29, no. 7, pp.697 – 706.

- Ho, R 1990, 'Multiculturalism in Australia: A survey of attitudes', *Human Relations*, vol. 43, no. 3, pp. 259 – 272.
- Hoekstra, T & Wegman, F 2011. 'Improving the effectiveness of road safety campaigns: Current and new practices', *IATSS research*, vol. 34, no. 2, pp. 80-86.
- Hollway, W & Jefferson, T 1997, 'Eliciting narrative through the in-depth interview', *Qualitative Inquiry*, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 53 – 70.
- Ivers, RG 2004, 'An evidence-based approach to tobacco interventions for Aboriginal people', *Drug Alcohol Rev*, no. 23, pp.5 – 9.
- Jakubowicz, A 2005, 'Multiculturalism in Australia: Apogee or nadir?' *Canadian Diversity*, vol. 4, no. 1, p. 15.
- Jauss, HR 1982, *Toward an aesthetic of reception*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis.
- Jeanfreau, SG & Jack, L 2010, 'Appraising qualitative research in health education: Guidelines for public health educators', *Health Promotion Practice*, vol. 11, no. 5, pp. 612 – 617.
- Jenkins, H 2002, 'Interactive audiences', in *The new media book*, ed D Harris, British Film Institute, London, pp. 157-70.
- Jones, SC & Hall, DV 2006, 'Ethical issues in social marketing', *Proceedings of the 3rd Australasian Non-profit and Social Marketing Conference*, University of Newcastle, Australia.
- Jones, WB 2009, 'Exploring a combined quantitative and qualitative research approach in developing a culturally competent dietary behaviour assessment instrument', *Georgia Institute of Technology*, viewed 3 August 2012, http://smartech.gatech.edu/bitstream/1853/29718/1/jones_willie_b_200908_phd.pdf
- Katz, H 1995, *The media handbook*, 4th edn, Routledge, New York & London.
- Khadoor, AM 2007, *Arabic traffic awareness campaigns*, Naif Arab University for Security Sciences (NAUSS), Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Khare, N 2009, Cross-culture internet advertising, *Indian Journal of Economics and Business*, vol. 8, no.1, pp.167-177.

- Khuwaileh, A. & Khwaileh, T 2011, 'IT terminology, translation, and semiotic levels: Cultural lexicographic and linguistic problems', *Semiotica*, no.187, vol.1/4, pp.239–249.
- Knipling, RR & Wang, JS 1994, *Crashes and fatalities related to driver drowsiness/fatigue*, Research Note, U.S. Department of Transportation National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, Washington.
- Kitzinger, J 1998, *Framing abuse: Media influence and public understanding of sexual violence against children*, Pluto Press, London.
- Kotabe, M, Riege, A, Griffiths, K, Noble, G, Ang, SH, Pecotich, A & Helsen, K 2005, *International marketing*, 2nd edn, John Wiley & Sons, Australia.
- Kotler, P, Adam, S, Brown, L & Armstrong, G 2006, *Principles of marketing*, 3rd edn, Pearson Prentice Hall, French's Forest, Australia.
- Kvaavik, E, Lien, N, Tell, GS & Klepp, KI 2005, 'Psychosocial predictors of eating habits among adults in their mid-30s: The Oslo Youth Study follow-up 1991–1999', *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, vol. 2, no. 2, p.9.
- LaBarbera, PA, Weingard, P & Yorkston, EA 1998, 'Matching the message to the mind: Advertising imagery and consumer processing styles', *Journal of Advertising Research*, September-October, pp. 29-43.
- Lam, LT 2005, 'Parental risk perceptions of childhood pedestrian road safety: A cross-cultural comparison', *Journal of Safety Research*, vol. 36, pp. 181 – 187.
- Landsberg, ME 1980, 'The Icon in Semiotic', *Current Anthropology*, vol. 21, no. 1, pp. 93-95.
- Lange-Seidl, A 1986, 'The pragmatic dimension of semiotic', *Journal of Pragmatic*, no. 10, pp.109–122.
- Lazar, M 2003, 'Semiosis, social change and governance: a critical semiotic analysis of a national campaign', *Social Semiotics*, vol.13, no.2, pp.201-221.
- Lee, NR & Kotler, P 2011, *Social marketing: Influencing behaviors for good*, SAGE Publications, Thousand Oaks, Calif.
- Leech, NL & Onwuegbuzie, AJ 2011, 'Beyond constant comparison qualitative data analysis: Using NVivo', *School Psychology Quarterly*, vol. 26, no. 1, pp. 70–84.

- Legislative Assembly of Queensland Parliamentary Travel Safe Committee 2005, *Driving on empty: Fatigue driving in Queensland. Report No. 43*, Queensland Government, Brisbane.
- Lewis, IM, Watson, B, White, KM & Tay, R 2007, 'Promoting public health messages: Should we move beyond fear-evoking appeals in road safety?' *Qualitative Health Research*, vol.17, no.1, pp. 61–74.
- Lewis, I, Watson, B & White, KM 2008, 'An examination of message-relevant affect in road safety messages: Should road safety advertisements aim to make us feel good or bad?' *Transportation Research, Part F*, no. 11, pp. 403–417.
- Lewis, IM, Watson, BC & White, KM 2009, 'What do we really know about designing and evaluating road safety advertising? Current knowledge and future challenges', paper presented at Smarter, Safer Directions: Australasian Road Safety Research Policing and Education Conference, 11-12 November, Sydney.
- Library of Congress Federal Research Division 2006, *Country Profile: Saudi Arabia September 2006*, viewed 14 February 2014, http://lcweb2.loc.gov/frd/cs/profiles/Saudi_Arabia.pdf.
- Limbourg, M, & Gerber, D 1981, 'A parent training program for the road safety education of preschool children', *Accident Analysis and Prevention*, no.13, pp. 255-267.
- Lindridge, A, MacAskill, S, Ginch, W, Eadie, D & Holme, I 2013, 'Applying the social ecological model to social marketing communications', *European Journal of Marketing*, vol. 47, no. 9.
- Liu, S, Wen, X, Wei, L & Zhao, W 2013, 'Advertising persuasion in China: Using Mandarin or Cantonese?' *Journal of Business Research*, no. 66, pp. 2383–2389.
- Loxley, W, Toumbourou, JW, Haines, B, Scott, K, Stockwell, T, Godfrey, C, Waters, E, Pattorn, G, Fordham, R, Gray, D, Marshall, J, Ryder, D, Siggers, S, Sanci, L & Williams, J 2004, *The prevention of substance use, risk and harm in Australia: a review of the evidence*, National Drug Research Institute and the Centre for Adolescent Health, Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra.
- Lund, OI, Rundmo, T 2009, 'Cross-cultural comparisons of traffic safety, risk perception, attitudes and behaviour', *Safety Science*, no. 47, pp. 547–553.
- Mackay, NM, Knight, LL & Leal, NL 2013, 'Driving attitudes and risk perceptions of high-frequency speeders: Results of a community attitudes survey', paper presented at Australasian Road

- Safety Research, Policing & Education Conference, Brisbane, Queensland, 28th – 30th August, 2013.
- McQuarrie, EF & Phillips, BJ 2005, 'Indirect persuasion in advertising: How consumers process metaphors presented in pictures and words', *Journal of Advertising*, vol.34, no.2, pp. 7-20.
- Maddock, JE, Silbanuz, A & Reger-Nash, B 2008, 'Formative research to develop a mass media campaign to increase physical activity and nutrition in a multiethnic state', *Journal of Health Communication: International Perspectives*, vol. 13, no. 3, pp. 208-215.
- Magableh, F, Grzebieta, R & Job, RFS 2013, 'The Impact of Culture on Road Safety in Jordan', *Proceedings of the 2013 Australasian Road Safety Research, Policing & Education Conference*, Brisbane, Queensland.
- Mahdi, W 2009, 'Religious leaders join road safety campaign,' *The National, Abu Dhabi Media*, 18 Aug, viewed 2 April 2012, <http://www.thenational.ae/apps/pbcs.dll/article?AID=/20090818/FOREIGN/708179848/1405>
- Maktoob Business 2009, 'Road accidents costing Saudi economy \$7 bln', viewed 14 August 2012, [http://www.business.maktoob.com/20090000006846/Road_accidents_costing_Saudi_economy_\\$7_bln/Article.htm](http://www.business.maktoob.com/20090000006846/Road_accidents_costing_Saudi_economy_$7_bln/Article.htm)
- Marghalani, K, Palmgreen, P, & Boyd, D 1998, 'The utilization of direct satellite broadcasting (DBS) in Saudi Arabia', *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, no. 42, pp. 297–314.
- Marsh, HW & Byrne, BM 1993, 'Confirmatory factor analysis of multigroup-multimethod self-concept data: Between-group and within-group invariance constraints,' *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, vol. 28, pp. 313-349.
- Mason, M 2010, 'Sample size and saturation in PhD studies using qualitative interviews', *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, vol. 11, no. 3.
- Matsumoto, D & Juang, L 2008, *Culture and psychology*, 4th edn, Thompson Wadsworth, Belmont, CA.
- Mertz, E 2007, 'Semiotic Anthropology', *Annual review of anthropology*, vol. 36, pp. 337-353.
- Michon, JA, Smiley, A, & Aasman, J 1990, 'Errors and driver support systems', *Ergonomics*, no. 33, pp.1215-1229.

- Milat, A, Carroll, T & Taylor, J 2005, 'Culturally and linguistically diverse population health social marketing campaigns in Australia: A consideration of evidence and related evaluation issues', *Health Promotion Journal of Australia*, vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 20-25.
- Ministry of Culture and Information (MCI) 2010a, *Guide to commercial advertising*, MCI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Ministry of Culture and Information (MCI) 2010b, *The annual report for ministry activity for fifth year from the eighth five-year national plan 2005 to 2010*, MCI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Ministry of Culture and Information (MCI) 2011a, *Saudi press agency section*, MCI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, viewed 13 Dec 2012, <http://www.info.gov.sa/SectDetails.aspx?id=4>
- Ministry of Culture and Information (MCI) 2011b, *Saudi radio section*, MCI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, viewed 13 Dec 2012, <http://www.info.gov.sa/SectDetails.aspx?id=19>
- Ministry of Culture and Information (MCI) 2011c, *Saudi television section*, MCI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, viewed 13 Dec 2012, <http://www.info.gov.sa/SectDetails.aspx?id=3>
- Ministry of Economic and Planning 2007, *Population and housing characteristic in KSA*, Ministry of Economic and Planning, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Ministry of Health 1995, *Annual health report*, Ministry of Health, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Ministry of Health 2013, *Annual health report*, Ministry of Health, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2000, *The general strategy for national media comprehensive campaign for security and traffic awareness (first phase)*, Directorate of Public Security, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2001, *The general strategy for national comprehensive campaign for security and traffic awareness and outline of implementation (second phase)*, Directorate of Public Security, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2002, *The general strategy for national comprehensive campaign for security and traffic awareness and outline of implementation (third phase)*, Directorate of Public Security, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2003, *The general strategy for national comprehensive campaign for security and traffic awareness and outline of implementation (fourth phase)*, Directorate of Public Security, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2005, *Annual statistics report for 2005*, General Directorate of Traffic, MOI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2006a, *Annual statistics report for 2006*, General Directorate of Traffic, MOI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2006b, *Enough campaign report*, Directorate of Public Security, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2007, *Annual statistics report for 2007*, General Directorate of Traffic, MOI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2008, *Annual statistics report for 2008*, General Directorate of Traffic, MOI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2009, *Annual statistics report for 2009*, General Directorate of Traffic, MOI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2010, *Annual statistics report for 2010*, General Directorate of Traffic, MOI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2011, *Annual statistics report for 2011*, General Directorate of Traffic, MOI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2012, *Annual statistics report for 2012*, General Directorate of Traffic, MOI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Interior (MOI) 2013, *Annual statistics report for 2013*, General Directorate of Traffic, MOI, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Ministry of Labour 2010, *Annual statistics book*, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

- Ministry of Labour 2012, *Annual statistics book*, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA) 2009, *Saudi Arabia*, MOIA, viewed 14 February 2014, <http://moia.gov.in/pdf/Saudi%20Arabia.pdf> .
- Moffit, TE, Caspi, A, Dickson, N, Silva, P & Stanton, W 1996, 'Childhood-onset versus adolescent-onset antisocial conduct problems in males: Natural history from ages 3 to 18 years', *Development and Psychopathology*, no. 8, pp. 399-424.
- Morley, D & Brunsdon, C 1999, *The Natiowide television studies*, Routledge, London & New York.
- Mueller, B 1991, 'An analysis of information content in standardised vs. specialised multinational advertisements', *Journal of International Business Studies*, vol. 22, no. 1, pp. 23-35.
- Murray, JP, Stam, A, Lastovicka, JL 1993, 'Evaluating an anti-drinking and driving advertising campaign with a sample survey and time series intervention analysis', *Journal of. American Statistical Association*, no. 88, pp. 50–56.
- Myers, G 1999, *Ad worlds, brands, media, audiences*, Arnold Publishers, London.
- Nassif, A & Gunter, B 2008, 'Gender representation in television advertisements in Britain and Saudi Arabia,' *Sex Roles*, vol. 58, no. 11-12, pp. 752-760.
- National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) 2007, 'Traffic safety facts,' in M Papakosmas, *Parental communication and involvement with young drivers*, unpublished thesis, University of Wollongong, NSW.
- National Road Safety Council (NRSC) 2011, *National road strategy: 2001-2010*, NRSC, Canberra, Australia.
- Nationmaster.com 2003, *Radios (most recently) by country*, viewed 10 Dec 2011, http://www.NationMaster.com/graph/med_rad-media-radios
- Nelson, P 1974, 'Advertising as information', *Journal of Political Economy*, vol. 82, no. 4, pp. 729-754.
- Newstead, A 2000, 'Telecom 2000: In retrospect', *Telecommunications Journal of Australia*, vol. 50, pp.11-17.

- Newton, JD, Newton, FJ, Turk, T & Ewing, MT 2013 'Ethical evaluation of audience segmentation in social marketing', *European Journal of Marketing*, vol. 47, no. 9, pp.1421 – 1438.
- Nightingale, V & Ross, K 2003, *Critical Reading: Media and Audiences*, Open University Press, Berkshire, England.
- Nofal, FH, Saeed, AA & Anokute, CC 1996, 'Aetiological factors contributing to road traffic accidents in Riyadh City' *Sage Journals Online*, viewed 24 June, 2012, <http://rsh.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/116/5/304>
- Noth, W 1988, 'The language of commodities: Groundwork for a semiotics of consumer goods', *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, no. 4, pp.173-186.
- Nuessel, F 2012, 'The semiotics of communication', *Semiotica*, no.189, vol.1/4, pp. 271 – 285.
- O'Keefe, DJ 1990, *Persuasion: Theory and research*, Sage, Newbury Park, CA.
- Onwuegbuzie, AJ & Leech, NL 2007, 'Validity and qualitative research: An oxymoron?' *Quality & Quantity: International Journal of Methodology*, no. 41, pp.233–249.
- Ozkan, T, Lajunen, T, Chliaoutakis, JE, Parker, D & Summalaa, H 2006, 'Cross-cultural differences in driving skills: A comparison of six countries', *Accident Analysis and Prevention*, vol. 38, pp. 1011–1018.
- OzTAM Metro & Regional TAM 2012, *Quarterly establishment survey (ES) Q1 2012*, North Sydney, New South Wales.
- Perloff, RM 2010, *The dynamic of persuasion, communication and attitude in the 21st century*, 4th edn, Routledge, New York.
- Petrilli, S 2009, 'Semiotics as semioethics in the era of global communication', *Semiotica*, vol.1/4, no.173, pp. 343–367.

- Petty, RE & Cacioppo, JT 1986, 'The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion', *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, vol. 19, pp. 123-183.
- Petty, RE, Schumann, DW, Richman, SA & Strathman, AJ 1993, 'Positive mood and persuasion: Different roles for affect under high- and low elaboration conditions', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 64, no.1, pp. 5–20.
- Phillips, RO, Ulleberg, P, Vaa, T 2011, 'Meta-analysis of the effect of road safety campaigns on accidents', *Accident Analysis and Prevention*, vol. 43, no.3, pp. 1204-1218.
- Pincas, S & Loiseau, M 2006, *A History of advertising*, Mundocom Publicis Groupe, Paris, France.
- Plant, BRC, Reza, F & Irwin, JD 2011, 'A systematic review of how anti-speeding advertisements are evaluated', *Journal of the Australasian College of Road Safety*, vol. 22, no.4, pp. 17-33.
- Pollay, RW 2000, 'Targeting youth and concerned smokers: Evidence from Canadian tobacco industry documents', *Tobacco Control*, vol. 9, Summer, pp. 136-47.
- Pope, C & Mays, N 1995, 'Reaching the parts other methods cannot reach: An introduction to qualitative methods in health and health services research', *British Medical Journal*, vol. 311, pp. 42-45.
- Potter, SJ & Stapleton, JG 2011, 'Bringing in the target audience in bystander social marketing materials for communities: Suggestions for practitioners', *Violence Against Women*, vol.17, no. 6, pp. 797-813.
- Rashed, AA 1981, *Advertisement*, Dar Alnahda Alarbia, Beirut, Lebanon.
- Reardon, KK 1981, *Persuasion: Theory and context*, Sage Publications, Beverly Hills, Calif.
- Redshaw S 2005, 'Aggressive driving in advertising', paper presented at the 2005 Australasian Road Safety Research, Policing and Education Conference, Wellington, New Zealand, November 2005.

Redshaw, S 2006, 'Dangerous gender performances: "hydraulic masculinity" as a norm for young male drivers', paper presented at Australasian Road Safety Research Policing Education Conference, 25-27 October.

Redshaw, S, 2008, 'Gender, age and motor vehicles - which combination is highest risk?' paper presented at Joint ACRS-Travelsafe National Conference, Brisbane, 18-19 September.

Rice, G, 2004, 'Doing business in Saudi Arabia', *Thunderbird International Business Review*, vol. 46, no.1, pp. 59–84.

Rissel, C, McLellan, L, Bauman, A 2000, 'Factors associated with delayed tobacco uptake among Vietnamese and Arabic youth in Sydney', *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health*, vol. 24, no. 1, pp. 22 – 8.

Rizvi, F 1988, 'Multiculturalism in Australia: the construction and promotion of an ideology', *Journal of Education Policy*, vol. 3, no. 4, pp.335-350.

Roads and Maritime Services (RMS) 2012a, *Annual report 2010-2011*, RMS, New South Wales Government, Sydney.

Roads and Maritime Services (RMS) 2012b, *Driver fatigue, Advertising campaign, RTA*, viewed 19 Apr 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/fatigue/campaigns/index.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 1991, *Review of 1990 pedestrian safety campaign*, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 1992, *Driver fatigue awareness campaign April 1992*, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 1999a, *Drink Driving campaign July-August 1999*, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 1999b, *Evaluation of the road safety education program in the NSW department of education and training schools, November 1999*, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 1999c, *Identifying ethnic communities and ethnic media for road safety and traffic management campaigns report*, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 1999d, *Speed enforcement campaign: December 1998-January 1999 report*, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2002a, *2001-2002 review of road safety campaigns tracking and evaluation*, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2002b, *New South Wales driver & vehicle statistics 2001*, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2005, *Crash statistics 2005*, New South Wales Government, Sydney.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2006a, *Crash statistics 2006*, New South Wales Government, Sydney.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2006b, *RTA thematic: A component of the rta heritage and conservation register*, 2nd edn, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2007a, *Advertising submission budget committee of cabinet*, internal document, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA). 2007b, *Crash statistics 2007*, New South Wales Government, Sydney.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2008a, *Annual report*, New South Wales Government, Sydney.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2008b, *Crash statistics 2008*, New South Wales Government, Sydney.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2009a, *Annual report, 2008-2009*, NSW, RTA New South Wales Government, Sydney.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2009b, *Crash statistics 2009*, New South Wales Government, Sydney.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2010, *Statement of affairs 2009-2010*, New South Wales Government, Sydney.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011a, *About the center*, RTA, NSW, viewed 28 Nov 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/aboutthecentre.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011b, *Annual report 2010-2011*, New South Wales Government, Sydney.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011c, *Clip every trip campaign*, RTA, NSW, viewed 3 Dec, 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/seatbelts/campaigns/index.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011d, *Conference*, RTA, NSW, viewed 27 Nov 2012, http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/2009_conference.html

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011e, *Country speeding advertising campaign*, RTA, NSW, viewed 3 Dec 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/speedandspeedcameras/campaigns/countryspeeding.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011f, *Don't rush campaign*, RTA, NSW, viewed 28 Nov 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/speedandspeedcameras/campaigns/index.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011g, *Motorcycle safety advertising campaign*, RTA, NSW, viewed 3 Dec 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/motorcyclesafety/campaigns/index.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011h, *P plate campaign*, RTA, NSW, viewed 3 Dec 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/speedandspeedcameras/campaigns/pplatespeeding.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011i, *Paranoia campaign*, RTA, NSW, viewed 3 Dec 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/alcoholdrugs/campaigns/rbt/index.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011j, *Point to point campaign*, RTA, NSW, viewed 28 Nov 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/speedandspeedcameras/campaigns/point2point.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011k, *Seatbelt outdoor billboard and slogan campaign*, RTA, NSW, viewed 12 Oct 2011, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/seatbelts/campaigns/outdoorbillboardandslogan.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011l, *Statistics*, RTA, NSW, viewed 28 Nov 2012,

<http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/statistics/index.html?plid=crashstats>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011m, *The brain campaign*, RTA, NSW, viewed 3 Dec 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/alcoholanddrugs/campaigns/brain.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority RTA 2011n, *The notes campaign*, RTA, NSW, viewed 3 December, 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/youngdrivers/campaigns/index.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) 2011o, *The 'pinky' campaign delivery*, RTA, NSW, viewed 19 Apr 2012, <http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/roadsafety/speedandspeedcameras/campaigns/pinkie.html>

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) n.d.a., *Youth speeding campaign 'Pinkie'*, minister briefing note, internal document, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) n.d.b, *'Pinky' campaign delivery strategy*, internal document, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) n.d.c, *'Pinky' campaign evaluation - Key results*, internal document, RTA, NSW.

Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) n.d. d, *Speeding. No one thinks big of you*, internal document, RTA, NSW.

Roberts, S & Winters, J 2013, 'Linguistic diversity and traffic accidents: Lessons from statistical studies of cultural traits', *PLoS ONE*, vol. 8, no. 8.

Roche, A, Ober, C 1997, 'Rethinking smoking among Aboriginal Australians: the harm minimisation – abstinence conundrum', *Health Promotion Journal of Australia*, no.7, pp.128–33.

Romano, EO, Peck, RC & Voas, RB 2012, 'Traffic environment and demographic factors affecting impaired driving and crashes', *Journal of Safety Research*, vol. 43, pp.75–82.

Rooijers, T 1988, 'Effects of different public information techniques in reducing driving speed' in *Road user behaviour: theory and research*, eds T. Rothengatter, & R. de Bruin, Van Gorcum, Assen/Maastricht, pp. 589–594.

- Ross, K & Nightingale, V 2003, *Media and audiences: New perspectives*, McGraw-Hill Companies, London.
- Rothengatter, JA 1994, 'Young people in difficulty', in *Road safety education for young children and teenagers*, ed ECMT, The European Conference of Ministers of Transport, Paris, pp. 89-96.
- Rothschild, M 1999, 'Carrots, sticks, and promises: A conceptual framework for the management of public health and social issue behaviors', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 63, pp.24-37.
- Rundmo, T 1999, 'Perceived risk, health and consumer behaviour', *Journal of Risk Research*, no. 2, pp. 187–200.
- Ryan, P & Soule, M 1995, 'Gray literature', paper presented to The Battelle/DTIC "sumMIT", Battelle Memorial Institute, Columbus, Ohio, August 10.
- Saeed, AA & Algammas, AS 1997, 'The role of the general department for traffic in traffic awareness field', paper presented at the First Conference for Road Safety, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 20-23 December.
- Samiee, S & Jeong, I 1994, 'Cross-cultural research in advertising: An assessment of methodologies,' *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, vol. 22, no. 3, pp. 205-217.
- Salmon, C 1989, 'Information campaigns: Balancing social values and social change', *Sage Annual Review of Communication Research*, no. 18, pp.19–53.
- Sandelowski, M 2011, "'Casing" the research case study', *Research in Nursing & Health*, no. 34, pp. 153–159.
- Saudi Arabia Monetary Agency 2010, *46th Annual report 2010*, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Saudi Arabia Monetary Agency 2012, *48th Annual report 2012*, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Schaw, C, Sheeran, P & Norman, P. 2007, 'Simulating behaviour change interventions based on the theory of planned behaviour: Impacts on intention and action', *British Journal of Social Psychology*, no. 46, pp. 43–68.
- Schooler, C, Basil, MD & Altman, DG 1996, 'Alcohol and cigarette advertising on billboards : Targeting with social cues', *Health Communication*, no. 8, pp. 109-130.

- Scott-Parker, B, Watson, B & King, MJ 2013, 'If they say go faster or something I'll probably go faster: Peer influence upon the risky driving behaviour of young novice', paper presented at Australasian Road Safety Research, Policing & Education Conference, Brisbane, Queensland, 28–30th August.
- Scott-Parker, B, Watson, B, King, MJ & Hyde, MK 2013, 'My mother would freak out: Understanding the influence of parents on the risky behaviour of their young novice drivers', paper presented at Australasian Road Safety Research, Policing & Education Conference, Brisbane, Queensland, 28-30th August.
- Sebeok, TA 2001, *Global Semiotics*, Indiana University Press, Bloomington/Indianapolis.
- Sekaran, U 1983, 'Methodological and theoretical issues and advancements in cross-cultural research', *Journal of International Business Studies*, pp.61-73.
- Short, TL 1981, 'Semeiosis and intentionality', *Transactions of the Charles S. Peirce Society*, no.17, pp.197–223.
- Sireci, SG & Berberoglu, G 2000, 'Using bilingual respondents to evaluate translated-adapted items', *Applied Measurement in Education*, vol. 13, no. 3, pp. 229-248.
- Slater, MD & Rouner, D 1996, 'How message evaluation and source attributes may influence credibility assessment and belief change', *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, no.73, pp.974-991.
- Special Broadcasting Services 2006, *Code of practice 2006*, SBS, New South Wales, Sydney.
- Staiger, J 2005, *Media reception studies*, New York University Press, New York.
- Stead, M, Gordon, R, Angus, K & McDermott, L 2007, 'A systematic review of social marketing effectiveness', *Health Education*, vol. 107, no. 2, pp. 126-191.
- Summala, H 1996, 'Accident risk and driver behaviour', *Safety Science*, no. 22, pp. 103–117.

- Taubman Ben-Ari, O, Florian, V, Mikulincer, M 2000, 'Does a threat appeal moderate reckless driving? A terror management theory perspective', *Accident Analysis and Prevention*, vol. 32, no.1, pp.1–10.
- Tay, R 2002, 'Exploring the effects of a road safety advertising campaign on the perceptions and intentions of the target and no target audiences to drink and drive', *Traffic Injury Prevention*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp.195-200.
- Tay, R 2005, 'Drink driving enforcement and publicity campaigns: Are the policy recommendations sensitive to model specification?' *Accidents Analysis and Prevention*, pp. 259–266.
- Teasdale, GM 1995, 'Head injury', *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery, and Psychiatry*, vol. 58, pp. 526-539.
- Tiffen, R & Gittins, R 2004, *How Australia compares*, Cambridge University Press, Melbourne.
- Traffic Accident Commission (TAC) 2007, *Young Driver Statistics*, Transport Accident Commission, Melbourne.
- Transport Accident Commission (TAC) 2009, *Young driver statistics*, Transport Accident Commission, viewed 2 September 2012, <http://www.tacsafety.com.au/jsp/content/NavigationController.do?areaID=12&tierID=1&navID=CC348A57&navLink=null&pageID=171>
- Transport Accident Commission (TAC) 2013, *Young driver statistics*, Transport Accident Commission, viewed 10 September 2013, <http://www.tac.vic.gov.au/road-safety/statistics/summaries/young-driver-statistics>
- Triandis, HC 1996, 'The psychological measurement of cultural syndromes', *American Psychologist*, vol. 51, pp. 407-415.
- Ulleberg, P 2002, 'Personality subtypes of young drivers. Relationship to risk-taking preferences, accident involvement and response to a traffic safety campaign', *Transportation Research*, part F, no. 4, pp.279-297.
- Vaughn, R 1986, 'How advertising works: A planning model revisited,' *Journal of Advertising Research*, no 26, pp. 57- 66.
- Wagner, A 2006, 'The rules of the road: A universal visual semiotics', *International Journal for the Semiotics of Law*, vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 311-324.

- Walker, L, Butland, D & Connell, RW 2000, 'Boys on the road: Masculinities, car culture, and road safety education', *Journal of Men's Studies*. vol. 8, no. 2, pp. 153-169.
- Walton, J 1992, 'Making the Theoretical Case', in *What is a case? Exploring the foundations of social inquiry*, eds CS Ragin, & HS Becker, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 121-137.
- Walsh, G, Hassan, LM, Shiu, E, Andrews, C & Hastings, G 2010, 'Segmentation in social marketing: Insights from the European Union's multi-country, antismoking campaign', *European Journal of Marketing*, vol. 44, no. 7/8, pp.1140 – 1164.
- Watsford, R 2008 'The success of the "Pinkie" campaign: Speeding. No one thinks big of you: A new approach to road safety marketing', in *Joint ACRS-TravelSafe National Conference 2008: Non-Peer Reviewed Papers*, Australasian College of Road Safety, pp.390-395.
- Webb, TL, Sniehotta, FF & Michie, S 2010, 'Using theories of behaviour change to inform interventions for addictive behaviours', *Addiction*, no.105, pp.1879–1892.
- Weenig, WH & Midden, CJH 1997, 'Mass media information campaigns and knowledge gap effects', *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, no. 27, pp. 945–958.
- Weerakkody, ND 2008, *Research methods for media and communications*, Oxford University Press, South Melbourne, Vic.
- West, R & Hall, J 1997, 'The role of personality and attitudes in traffic accident risk', *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, no. 46, pp. 253-264.
- Wescott, RW 1971, 'Linguistic iconism', *Language*, no. 47, pp.416-28.
- White, M, Walker, J, Glonek, G & Burns, N 2000, *Re-investigation of the effectiveness of the Victorian Transport Accident Commission's road safety campaigns*, Safety Strategy Transport SA, Adelaide, South Australia.
- White, M & Walker, J 2002, *Update and overview of research on the effectiveness of the Victorian Transport Accident Commission's road safety television advertising campaigns*, Safety Strategy Transport SA, Adelaide, South Australia.

Williams, AF, Kyrychenko, S & Retting, RA 2006, 'Characteristics of speeders', *Journal of Safety Research*, vol. 37, no. 3, pp. 227-232.

Williams, AF 2007, 'Contribution of the components of graduated licensing to crash reductions', *Journal of Safety Research*, vol. 38, no. 2, pp.177-184.

Williams, R 1958, *Culture and Society 1780-1950*, Chatto and Windus, London.

Williams, A, Wells, J, McCartt, A, Preusser, D 2000, 'Buckle Up NOW! An enforcement program to achieve high belt use', *Journal of Safety Research*, vol. 31, no.4, pp.195–201.

Williamson, A 2003, *Why are young drivers over represented in crashes? Summary of the issues, Update of literature review: Literature 2000 to 2003*, NSW Injury Risk Management Research Centre, University of New South Wales, Sydney.

Williamson, J 1978, *Decoding advertisements: Ideology and meaning in advertising*, Marion Boyars Publishers, London.

Wilmshurst, J & Mackay, A 1985, *The fundamentals of advertising*, 2nd edn, Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford, UK.

World Development Indicators Database *n.d.*, 'Telephone mainlines by country', viewed 10 Dec 2012, http://www.NationMaster.com/graph/med_tel_mai-media-telephone-mainlines

World Health Organisation 1996, *Global burden of disease*, WHO, viewed 27 July 2012, http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/GBD_report_2004update_full.pdf

World Health Organisation 1999, *The world health report 1999: Making a difference*, WHO, viewed 14 August 2012, <http://www.who.int/whr/1999/en/index.html>

World Health Organisation 2013, *Global status report on road safety 2013*, WHO, viewed 31 Oct 2013, http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/road_safety_status/2013/en/index.html

Wundersitz, L & Hutchinson, TP 2011, 'What can we learn from recent evaluations of road safety mass media campaigns?', *Journal of the Australasian College of Road Safety*, vol. 22, no.4, pp. 40-47.

Wymer, W 2011, 'Developing more effective social marketing strategies', *Journal of Social Marketing*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 17-31.

Yi, MY, Yoon, JJ, Davis, JM, Lee, T 2013, 'Untangling the antecedents of initial trust in Web-based health information: The roles of argument quality, source expertise, and user perceptions of information quality and risk,' *Decision Support Systems*, no. 55, pp. 284–295.

Zhang, DS & Lowry, PB 2008, 'Issues, limitations and opportunities in cross-cultural research on collaborative software in information systems', *Journal of Global Information Management (JGIM)*, vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 61-92.

Appendices

Appendix A: Semi-structured Interview Questions

Note: This version of semi-structured interview questions was modified after field work in KSA was completed to suit the NSW context.

Traffic department

A. Traffic Safety condition:

Thank you very much for giving me this interview opportunity. I greatly appreciate your participation. Let's start with some questions on road safety conditions.

1. What do you think are the major reasons for road traffic accidents in NSW?
2. Is road safety considered a significant issue in Riyadh/NSW? What is the evidence to support your assessment?
3. In your opinion, how safe is the travelling on the roads of the state of Riyadh/NSW?

B. Campaign design:

Many thanks for your opinion on road safety conditions. Let's briefly talk about road safety campaigns.

4. What do you think about the effectiveness of the road safety campaigns?
Prompt" Pinkie or another case study campaign" and how did you assessed this effectiveness – e.g. Increasing of awareness of the issue or actual behaviour change
5. Are you aware whether or not the campaigns target specific audiences?
6. Do you feel some important components are missing in the campaigns? What are those?
7. What involvement have you had in BRSC? How was your company chosen?

C. Audience response:

Thanks for your comments on campaign design. Let's consider the effectiveness of campaigns

8. What are the statistics available on the previous campaigns and the evaluation reports? Prompt could be (recent campaign stats or case studies campaign stats)
9. How do you feel about the level compliance with traffic rules?
10. Who of the driver groups do you think are most compliant to traffic rules and who are the worst performers?
11. Do you think the minority groups are equally compliant as the mainstream drivers or are there any differences?
12. Do you consider that minority groups need more attention when designing road traffic advertisements?
13. Would you express your opinion regarding the evaluation of success and failures of

campaign programs? Do you think it can be done better? Can you give an example from the reports or evaluation you have mentioned earlier?

14. Do you think campaign programs are designed take into consideration the past experience?
15. Do you think some barriers can limit BRSC road safety campaign effectiveness? If yes, can you name them and how do you think these barriers could be overcome in order to produce effective road safety campaigns and advertisements?

Policy makers and Committee Members

A. Involvement in campaign program:

Thank you very much for your participation. Let's start with some questions on your involvement in road safety campaign programs.

1. What campaigns have you been associated with?
 - a. Could you outline your role and responsibilities?
 - b. What were you trying to achieve in those campaigns?
 - c. What was the critical element in the campaign? Why do you think that bit was so important?
2. What processes and organizations are involved in BRSC? Is it mainly 'top down' policy initiatives, or are organizations such as research units, academics and the department officers involved in the process?
3. How are campaigns developed? Who is involved, what type of research is undertaken?
4. What is the role of the Traffic Department (KSA) (formerly RTA, NSW) in proposing campaigns? How campaign programs get going?
5. Are the campaigns programs thought and proposed as part of a plan or are they simply proposed and designed in response to an event or circumstances?

6. Do you run an educational campaign to educate people or to make them aware of new regulation or laws?
7. How do you choose the road safety campaign theme? On what basis?
8. When you are designing a campaign, what do you see as your main objective/s? What are you trying to achieve?
9. How are the campaign objectives decided?
10. Are the objectives measurable?
11. Do you consider specific objectives in relation to specific issues such as speeding, drink driving, new regulations about baby seats etc?
12. Who plays critical roles in deciding campaign objectives?

B. Campaign management:

I would appreciate it if you could give me some ideas on campaign management

13. Is there any specific campaign management committee? If yes, how are the members of the committee selected?
 - a. If there are a number of different campaigns over a year, is there a different committee for each campaign?
 - b. What responsibilities does the committee have?
 - c. Could you show me any statement about the terms of reference for the committee?
 - d. Does the committee request tenders for campaigns?
14. Does the committee contact media companies and take their opinion on the quality of the advertisement?
15. Does the committee negotiate with the media regarding when and how the advertisements will be shown?

16. What guides you in developing the campaign?
 - a. Who do you consult?
 - b. Whose ideas were important
 - c. Did you think back (reflect) on previous campaigns
17. Who are/is responsible for deciding the campaign strategy?
18. How are the relevant departments such as policy makers, traffic police and media people coordinated in developing and implementing campaigns?
19. Do you trial or test ideas and strategies before deciding on how a campaign should run?
20. How long does it take to develop a BRSC once the policy brief has been determined?
21. How long did the committee process take? How many meetings did they have?
 - a. What parts or phases of the campaign take up most time?
 - b. Do you report back to anyone during the development of the campaign?
22. Who has the ultimate authority in finalising any advertisement and its messages?
23. Would you prefer that the road safety programs are run by private contractors rather than government departments? Why/Why not?
24. What are the constraints/barriers you think should be addressed or overcome for more successful campaign programs?
25. According to your consideration what are the success stories in BRSC in Saudi Arabia /NSW and why do you think they were successful?
26. What would count as a campaign success for you?
27. Do you think any campaign was a failure and why it was so?

C. Audience focus:

Let's explore some issues about the audiences for BRSC campaigns.

28. Who did you design your campaign for? Who did you have in mind?

Mass or segmented

29. Do you have sufficient information about campaign audiences before campaigns are designed?

a. If yes, where does this knowledge come from?

b. If no, why not?

30. Do you have any plan in the near future to conduct a road safety campaign focusing on just one theme and targeting one group? What stimulated the decision to develop that campaign?

D. Minority focus campaigns:

There is cultural mix in both Australia and Saudi Arabia. In both the cultures there is a dominant group (mainstream) and there are minority groups. Now let's talk about how the minority groups can be benefitted from safety campaigns.

31. Do you think about majority and minority audiences such as ethnic minority groups or groups like drink drivers, parents with young children, rural drivers, novice drivers in selecting a particular campaign?

If yes, what prompts your interest in minority groups of road users?

32. Do you think the mainstream drivers might respond differently from the minority groups or ethnic origin drivers when reacting to particular BRSC advertisements or messages?

Why do you think so? Do you have any evidence on this issue?

33. Would you think campaigns that target an audience of the dominant culture or the majority citizens are likely to have similar effects on the subgroups of different cultures?

34. Do you have any specific plans to deliver key messages to minority or ethnic origin drivers?

E. Culture and road safety campaigns:

Culture is considered to be an important determinant for how people perceive things and how they behave or react to a message. Now let's talk a bit about how culture could be related to BRSC.

35. Do you think cultural values would impact acceptance of a particular type of safety advertisements?
36. Prompt '...any examples'
37. Do you think successful campaigns from one part of the world could be easily transferred to another part with the same effectiveness?
38. What is your opinion about whether translating successful campaigns from one language to another will impart same meanings or gestures? Please explain the reasons behind your opinion?
39. The "Pinkie" campaign of NSW (which targeted the behavioural attitude of young male drivers of impressing young women by taking risks, driving fast, being competitive), has been very successful in NSW.
The "Enough" campaign that depicts how the family will suffer emotionally if they lose their mum, and their father became disabled due to car accidents has been successful in Saudi Arabia.
Why do you think this campaign was so effective or successful?
40. How do you think the 'Pinkie' /'Enough' campaign would be received in Saudi Arabia /NSW? Why do you think so?
41. Would the campaign work at the general level? Would it work in terms of its specific imagery, emotional appeals?
42. Would there be any reason to explore whether or not a campaign which represents and ridicules dangerous masculinity behaviours / emotional campaign might be effective in Saudi Arabia /NSW? Why do you think so?

F. Effectiveness of campaigns:

It is a good idea to understand how road safety campaigns have been effective in bringing the desired outcomes. Now let's consider how the campaigns have been effective.

43. How difficult or easy do you think it is to modify driver behaviour through campaigns and advertisements? Evidence?
44. Do you think people see road safety ads? What I mean is – are they aware of them? What do you do to make sure the ads attract people such as putting them in the right place or making them obvious? Do you think this is important in such a media saturated world?Are there any emerging media locations/forms that are being used? (Or growth areas? E.g. billboard advertising?) (areas of decline? / shifts in media expenditure?)
45. How do you think people respond to BRSC? Ads?
- a. Do they think them through?
 - b. Do they relate them to their own experience?
 - c. Do they relate them to their memories?
 - d. Do they respond primarily to the visuals?
 - e. Can you give me some insights into this from your own experience?
46. Do you think the road safety campaigns will be more effective if they are run in collaboration with other public education campaigns such as positive health campaigns? Why?

G. Budget provisions:

Thank you very much for your participation. An appropriate budget is important for designing and implementation of a successful campaign. Let's consider some aspects of budget and budgetary constraints.

47. Do you have a specific budget for campaigns? Is the budget sufficient?
48. Where does the money come from for designing and advertising a campaign?

49. Do you look for any sponsors and how you think the sponsors can be benefited for their contribution?
50. Do the private sponsors contribute to BRSC cost? What proportion of campaign costs do they contribute?
51. Do you think contribution of private sponsors impacts on the quality of the advertisements?
52. Does sponsorship ever get in the way of advertisement objectives?
53. Is there any tension between what a sponsor wants, or how a sponsor wants to be represented in the media, and campaign objectives?
54. Have you had any experience of that?

H. Campaign evaluation:

It may be important to evaluate the campaign outcomes for learning lessons and making campaign programs better in the future. The following questions relate to campaign evaluation.

55. Do you evaluate the success and failure of a campaign and how do you do this?
56. Is there any specific or neutral department responsible for the evaluation process?
57. What mechanisms or instruments do you use for this purpose?
58. "How do you have assessed the effectiveness of a campaign? (measures used/data instruments)
59. Do you link campaign outcomes with the laws and their enforcements?
60. Are the outcomes of any campaign published;
 - a. if published, where are they published and

- b. are they published for administrative purposes or scientific purposes or both?

I. Preservation of documents:

For my research it will be very useful if I can get access to documents which relate to campaign development and management. Could you tell me something about what documents you keep from the campaign process?

- 61. Do you preserve the documents?
- 62. What kind of information do you save and where?
- 63. Are there soft or hard copies?
- 64. How do you maintain information/materials for each campaign programs (soft or hard copies or both)? Are the materials accessible to researchers for learning purposes and references?
- 65. Do you think as a researcher, I can access the previous campaign documents and evaluation exclusively for this study purpose? Who should I see? Do I need a letter of introduction or anything like that?

Law enforcement departments including police force

A. Legal requirements and support:

It is possibly easier to enforce traffic rules in collaboration with the law department. Your opinion will be appreciated in understanding how this works.

- 1. Do you run campaign programs in collaboration with law enforcement authorities? If so, why?
- 2. Do you think some other programs such as setting up speed cameras or mobile police stations would be more effective than just safety advertisements? Please

give reasons behind your opinion.

3. Would you prefer that the road safety programs are run by private contractors rather than government departments? Why?
4. Do you take an interest in audiences (public opinion) when you formulating and implementing traffic and road safety laws?
5. Do the laws also explore and influence media-audience relations?
6. It feels like every day we are swamped with advertising and I wonder if BRSC can be effective, whether they can cut through all the ads about nice houses, mobile phones and so on and impact people. Do you think it is possible? What is required to make this possible?

Media people

A. Involvement of media:

Thank you very much for your participation. Let's start with some questions on your involvement in road safety campaign programs.

1. What campaigns have you been associated with?
 - a. Could you outline your role and responsibilities?
 - b. What were you trying to achieve in those campaigns?
 - c. What was the critical element in the campaign? Why do you think that bit was so important?

It is generally agreed that the media plays a critical role in community education. Therefore it is important to understand how the media play a role in implementation of BRSC.

2. What are the mechanisms in place in involving media in road safety campaign programs?
3. What are the main factors you consider in choosing the media for advertisements?
4. How do you fix the time period for which the advertisements should continue?
5. We are bombarded by so much media images and ads now-a-days. In this context how difficult you think is it to develop a road safety campaign?

6. What chances do you have in overcoming the difficulties?
7. The campaigns have some key messages to be delivered. What role does the media can play in delivering these messages?
8. Would you prefer that the road safety programs are run by private contractors rather than government departments? Why?
9. Who has the ultimate authority in finalising any advertisement and its messages?
10. Do private sponsors contribute to BRSC cost? What proportion of campaign costs do they contribute?
11. Do you think contribution of private sponsors impacts on the quality of the advertisements?
12. Do you think people see and take note of road safety ads? Do they impact the viewers?
13. Do you feel that there could be media-audience relations? How these relations can be explored and influenced?
14. These days every day we are almost swamped with advertising and I wonder if BRSC can be effective, whether they can cut through all the ads about nice houses, mobile phones and so on and impact people. Do you think is it possible? What needed to be done to make this possible?
15. Do the traffic department or campaign management committee contact media and discuss about involvement of media? What is your experience on this?
16. How the relevant departments such as policy makers, traffic police and media people are coordinated in developing and implementing campaigns?
17. Have you been a part of the coordination process? What are you required to do?
18. Do you think that the media could play a better and more effective role? Why do you think so?

19. Have you used Face book and twitter or will it be part of your future plan?

B. Audience focus:

Let's explore some issues about the audiences for BRSC campaigns.

20. Who did you design your campaign for? Who did you have in mind?

Mass or segmented, real or imagined

21. Do you have sufficient information about campaign audiences before campaigns are designed and developed?

- a. If yes, where does this knowledge come from?
- b. If no, why not?

22. Do you have any plan in the near future to conduct a road safety campaign focusing on just one theme and targeting one group? What stimulated the decision to develop that campaign?

C. Culture and road safety campaigns:

Culture is considered to be an important determinant for how people perceive things and how they behave or react to a message. Now let's talk a bit about how culture could be related to BRSC.

23. Do you think cultural values would impact acceptance of a particular type of safety advertisements? Have you had any experience in working with this in mind?
Prompt '...any examples'

24. Do you think successful campaigns from one part of the world could be easily transferred to another part with the same effectiveness?

25. What is your opinion about whether translating successful campaigns from one language to another will impart same meanings or gestures? Please explain the reasons behind your opinion?

26. Do you think visual images, sound as well as text can be effectively translated from one language to another?

27. The “Pinkie” campaign of NSW (which targeted the behavioural attitude of young male drivers of impressing young women by taking risks, driving fast, being competitive), has been very successful in NSW.

The “Enough” campaign that depicts how the family will suffer emotionally if they lose their mum, and their father became disabled due to car accidents has been successful in Saudi Arabia.

Why do you think this campaign was so effective or successful?

28. How do you think the ‘Pinkie’ /‘Enough’ campaign would be received in Saudi Arabia /NSW? Why do you think so?

29. Would the campaign work at the general level? Would it work in terms of its specific imagery, emotional appeals?

30. Would there be any reason to explore whether or not a campaign which represents and ridicules dangerous masculinity behaviours / emotional campaign might be effective in Saudi Arabia /NSW? Why do you think so?

D. Minority focus campaigns:

There is cultural mix in both Australia and Saudi Arabia. In both the cultures there is a dominant group (mainstream) and there are minority groups. Now let’s talk about how the minority groups can be benefitted from safety campaigns.

31. What are your considerations about majority and minority audiences in selecting a particular campaign?

32. Do you think about majority and minority audiences such as ethnic minority groups or groups like drink drivers, rural drivers, parents with young children, novice drivers in selecting a particular campaign?

If yes, what prompts your interest in minority groups of road users?

33. Do you think the mainstream drivers might respond differently from the minority groups or ethnic origin drivers when reacting to particular BRSC advertisements or messages?

Why do you think so? Do you have any evidence on this issue?

34. Would you think campaigns that target audience of dominant culture or majority citizens are likely to have similar effects on the subgroups of different cultures?
35. Do you have any specific plans to deliver key messages to minority or ethnic origin drivers?
36. How do you propose to do that?
37. Do you design a special campaign for minorities to make sure it suits their cultural values or you just translate the campaign that targeting mainstream audiences? If yes, how do you know it is suitable for the minorities' cultural values?

Advertisement experts

A. Campaign and Advertisement Designing

A well thought out and properly designed campaign may be very effective. Let's explore some issues on this matter.

1. How do you choose the road safety campaign theme? On what basis?
2. When you are designing a campaign, what do you see as your main objective?
What are you trying to do?
3. How the campaign objectives are decided?
4. Are the objectives measurable?
5. What guided you in developing the campaign?
 - a. Who do you consult?
 - b. Whose ideas were important
 - c. Did you think back on previous campaigns
6. What are the factors that help you in deciding the key messages of a traffic campaign?

7. We are bombarded by so much media images and ads. We live in a media saturated world. In this context how difficult you think is it to develop a campaign? What chances do you have in overcoming the difficulties?
8. What gave you confidence that the campaign would be effective? Why did you think it would work?
9. What guided you in developing the slogan/approach/words used/images?
10. When you develop a campaign/ad, do you
 - a. Try to link it to previous BRSC?
 - b. Try to link it to the way people generally think and talk about road safety?
 - c. Try to link it to practices/language /popular culture
 - d. Try to make sure that the message is clear and most prominent?
11. Would you recommend using graphic and motion ads more than other types of ads? Could you expand on your preference?
12. If a logo and/or a slogan is selected who is responsible for designing them to make them appropriate for the target audience?
 - a. Is there any contractor for this purpose?
 - b. If so, what is their knowledge / understanding of the target audience?
13. Who has the ultimate authority in finalising any advertisement and its messages?

B. Minority audience:

If an advertisement is focused on a target audience; it might have a better impact. I would appreciate your views and ideas on the relevance of the audience for a road safety campaign advertisement.

14. Do you focus on any specific audiences for a BRSC?
15. What guidelines do you follow in selecting audiences?
16. Who did you design your campaign for; who did you have in mind?

17. Do you have sufficient information about a campaign's audiences before the campaign is designed and developed?
 - a. If yes, where this knowledge comes from?
 - b. If no, why not?
18. How do you know what will attract the target audience? Can you give me examples from your professional experience?
19. What are your considerations about majority and minority audiences in selecting a particular campaign?
20. Do you think the mainstream drivers receive messages differently from the minority or ethnic origin drivers? Why do you think so?
21. Would you think campaigns that target audience of dominant culture or majority citizens will have similar effects on the subgroups of different cultures?
22. Do you have any specific plan in delivering key messages to the minority or ethnic origin drivers? How?

C. Consideration of cultural values on road safety advertisements:

It may be important to consider the cultural context of the target audience when designing an advertisement. Because culture may influence the audience perception and response.. Now let's talk a bit about how cultural relevance to road safety advertisements.

23. Do you think cultural values would impact acceptance of particular type of safety advertisements? Have you had any experience in working with this in mind?
24. Would you consider whether successful campaigns of one part of the world could be easily transferred to the other part with the same effectiveness?

25. What is your opinion about whether translating successful campaigns from one language to another will impart same meanings or gestures? Please explain the reasons behind your opinion?
26. Do you think visual images, sound as well as text can be effectively translated from one language to another?
27. Will you explore whether or not a campaign which represents and ridicules dangerous masculinity behaviours/ emotional campaign might be effective in Saudi Arabia /NSW?
28. The “Pinkie” campaign of NSW (which targeted the behavioural attitude of young male drivers of impressing young women by taking risks, driving fast, being competitive), has been very successful in NSW.
The “Enough” campaign that depicts how the family suffer emotionally from losing their mum and their father became disabled due to car accidents has been successful in Saudi Arabia.
Why do you think this campaign was so effective or successful?
29. How do you think the ‘Pinkie’ /‘Enough’ campaign would be received in Saudi Arabia /NSW? Why do you think so?
30. Would the campaign work at the general level? Would it work in terms of its specific imagery, emotional appeals?
31. Would there be any reason to explore whether or not a campaign which represents and ridicules dangerous masculinity behaviours / emotional campaign might be effective in Saudi Arabia /NSW? Why do you think so?

Academics/Trainers

A. Effectiveness of BRSC:

Your expert opinions on campaign outcomes and effectiveness would be much appreciated. May I ask:

1. Have you been involved in BRSC and in what capacity?

2. Do you take part in consultancy, training or research that relate to BRSC?
3. How difficult or easy you think in modifying driver behaviour through campaigns and advertisements?
4. Do you think BRSC have been effective? Can you please explain why you think so?
5. Can you point to any specific campaigns which were outstanding?
6. Do you think the road safety campaigns will be more effective if they are run in collaboration with other public education campaigns such as positive health campaigns? Why?
7. What would be your advice and guidelines in making the campaign programs more effective and audience focused?

B. Campaign evaluation:

Campaign evaluation is important in designing more effective campaign programs and developing education and training materials. I would like ask a few questions regarding campaign evaluation.

8. Do you evaluate the success and failure of a campaign and how do you do this? What mechanisms or instruments do you use for this purpose?
9. Is there any specific or neutral department responsible for the evaluation process?
10. Do you relate the campaign outcomes with the laws and their enforcements?
11. Are the outcomes of any campaign are published; if published, where are they published and are they published for administrative purposes or scientific purposes or both?
12. According to your consideration what are the success stories in BRSC in Saudi Arabia /NSW and why do you think they were successful.

13. What would count as a campaign success for you?
14. Do you think the BRSC you are aware of have been effective? Can you please explain why you think so?
15. Do you think any campaign was a failure and why it was so?

C. Opinion on campaign materials:

Campaign materials need to be oriented to target audiences. This has also to be easy to understand and attractive to eyes. I would like ask you a few questions in relation to this matter. Perhaps lead in with the comment about media saturated worldthat might be better

16. Do you think people see road safety ads?
17. How do you think people respond to BRSC? Ads?
 - a. Do they think them through?
 - b. Do they relate them to their own experience?
 - c. Do they relate them to their memories?
 - d. Do they respond primarily to the visuals?

What experience do you have of this? Has this been part of your research?

18. What are the constraints/barriers you think should be addressed or overcome for more successful campaign programs?

D. Culture and safety campaigns:

Cultural values may influence campaign outcomes. However, it is not always easy to understand and address cultural issues. I would like to seek your opinions in this matter..

19. Do you think cultural values would impact acceptance of particular type of safety advertisements?
20. Would you consider whether successful campaigns of one part of the world could be easily transferred to the other part with the same effectiveness?

21. What is your opinion about whether translating successful campaigns from one language to another will impart same meanings or gestures? Please explain the reasons behind your opinion?

22. Will you explore whether or not a campaign which represents and ridicules dangerous masculinity behaviours/ emotional campaign might be effective in Saudi Arabia /NSW?

23. The 'Pinkie' campaign of NSW (which targeted the behavioural attitude of young male drivers of impressing young women by taking risks, driving fast, being competitive), has been very successful in NSW.
 The "Enough" campaign that depicts how the family emotionally suffer of lose their mum and their father became disabled due to car accidents has been successful in Saudi Arabia.
 Why do you think these campaigns were so effective or successful?

24. How do you think the 'Pinkie' /'Enough' campaign would be received in Saudi Arabia /NSW? Why do you think so?

25. Would the campaign work at the general level? Would it work in terms of its specific imagery, emotional appeals?

26. Would there be any reason to explore whether or not a campaign which represents and ridicules dangerous masculinity behaviours / emotional campaign might be effective in Saudi Arabia /NSW? Why do you think so?

E. Minority focus campaigns:

There is cultural mix in both Australia and Saudi Arabia. In both the cultures there is a dominant group (mainstream) and there are minority groups. Now let's talk about how the minority groups can be benefitted from safety campaigns.

27. Do you think about majority and minority audiences such as ethnic minority groups or groups like drink drivers, rural drivers, parents with young children, novice drivers in selecting a particular campaign?
 If yes, what prompts your interest in minority groups of road users?

28. Do you think the mainstream drivers might respond differently from the minority groups or ethnic origin drivers when reacting to particular BRSC advertisements or messages?
Why do you think so?
29. Would you think campaigns that target audience of dominant culture or majority citizens are likely to have similar effects on the subgroups of different cultures?
30. Do you have any specific plans to deliver key messages to minority or ethnic origin drivers?

About you:

We are towards the end of the interview. I would appreciate if you could give me some personal information. May I ask:

1. Your age group is: 18-25 26-35 36-45 Above 45
2. The highest qualification that you have achieved is: High School Diploma Bachelor Master PhD
3. You are a citizen of: Australia Saudi Arabia Other (Please specify):
4. How long have you been here in Riyadh/NSW?
5. Your training in road traffic matters is: At the basic level At an advanced level No training Other (please specify)
6. Your position in the company: At the basic level At the medium level At an advanced level Other (lease specify)
7. Your major responsibility is: Determining policy Developing road safety campaigns Determining campaign type and style Running campaign programs Evaluating campaigns Others (please specify)

Final note: Your participation in this interview is greatly appreciated. I thank you very much for your attention and cooperation.

The following may be asked after the formal interview is completed and after checking the participant details, particularly to the participants who are responsible for data and document preservation and maintenance such as people in administration:

Do you think as a researcher, I can access the previous campaign documents exclusively for this study purpose?

Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet

Project Title: The Imagined Audience in Road Safety Campaigns:
A Comparative Study of Saudi Arabia and Australia

Researcher: Mr. Faiz Aldalbhi

Department: School of Social Science, Media and Communication
Faculty of Arts
University of Wollongong

Contact Details:

In Saudi Arabia:

+966505475428

In Australia:

1102 B A/ 8 Cowper Street
Parramatta, NSW, 2150

Phone: 61 4 31551922

Email: fma912@uowmail.edu.au

Supervisors: Professor Philip Kitley,

Email: pkitley@uow.edu.au

Phone: 61-2-4221-4184 Mobile.

0418733132

Dr Tanja Dreher Email tanjad@uow.edu.au

Phone 61-2-4298-1219 Mobile

0417464030

Funding Body: Saudi Arabia Government and University of Wollongong

Project Summary and Aim of the Research: You are invited to participate in this research which aims to better understand various aspects of road safety campaigns in Sydney, New South Wales (NSW), Australia and Riyadh, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). This research is important because road traffic accidents are major causes of unnatural deaths, severe bodily injuries leading to disabilities and major national financial loss. This research

may provide a guide for road safety campaign designers helping them to design more effective road safety campaign programs which will contribute to minimizing road traffic accidents and their impacts.

Mr. Faiz Aldalbhi, under the guidance of Professor Philip Kitley and Dr Tanja Dreher, is conducting this research. Faiz Aldalbhi is studying for a PhD at the University of Wollongong. Apart from the public benefit, the findings of this study will contribute to Faiz Aldalbhi's degree.

Your Participation: You will be invited to respond to face to face interview questions. The questions asked will be limited to road safety campaign matters. You will have the opportunity to express your ideas and views independently and freely.

Time Involvement: I expect our interview will take approximately one hour. I hope that you will be able to arrange your schedule so our interview is uninterrupted. The interview will be conducted at the place of your choice such as your office if that is convenient.

Review of the interview: The audio record will be listened to carefully and the notes taken during interview will be consulted to write a version of the interview which to our understanding would best represent your responses. In case of any confusion, you will be contacted either by phone or email (as you prefer) for further clarification.

Follow up Interview: Please note that some participants will be randomly selected and invited to participate in a follow up interview which will use stimulus material to test reception of selected road safety ads cross culturally. If you are selected you will be contacted for your permission for this follow up interview. If you are willing to participate I will arrange a mutually convenient time and place for our interview. I expect that the follow up interview will take 45-60 minutes.

Your Rights: Please note that your participation is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw from participation at any time. This will not cause any penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You have the right not to answer any question(s). You have the right to ask any question (s).

Risks: Generally speaking, there are no obvious risks for you as a participant. We call this as a low risk research project. It does not interfere with your welfare, rights, beliefs, perceptions, customs and cultural heritage either at an individual or at a collective level. However, you may feel upset in responding to some questions because of your prior experience of an accident or trauma to yourself or a family member. If you feel upset by any

question or discussion you will be able to withdraw from the study at any moment. Your withdrawal will not disadvantage you in any way. Disclosing sensitive or unpublished information might put at risk as a government employee. However, all information will be de-identified through the use of participant numbers and you will have the opportunity to review their contribution and to not approve the use of information you find in conflict with your work obligations.

Benefits: You need to be aware that there is no direct benefit for you for participating in this project. Your satisfaction may be that you are supporting a public interest project, which may be of great community benefit.

Recording and Preservation of the Materials: The interview may be audio-recorded or recorded in writing as a memory aid for Faiz Aldalbhi. The materials will be preserved at the University of Wollongong for up to 10 years, before they are disposed of in an appropriate way. Only I have access to this information. I will only use your first name or another name you give me, and when I type up the interview I will not use real name if that your preference. Once the recording has been typed up, the tape will be erased.

Confidentiality: The information collected from interview will be published or reported. The report may involve oral or poster presentations in conferences, published as journal articles or chapters in PhD thesis. Your personal information is strictly confidential. You will not be identified individually in any published and written data resulting from the study. At all times you will be anonymous if you wish and your personal detail will not be revealed to anyone else except the people directly involved with this research.

Questions and Concerns: In case of any concerns, queries or complaints or if you consider that there was any injury because of participation in this study, please contact Faiz Aldalbhi Email. fma912@uowmail.edu.au Mobile No in Australia. + 61 431551922 Mobile No. in Saudi Arabia 00966505475428 or contact the Complaints Officer, Human Research Ethics Committee, Research Services Office, University of Wollongong on rso-ethics@uow.edu.au or +61-2-4221 4457

Appendix C: Consent Form

Project Title: The Imagined Audience in Road Safety Campaigns:

A Comparative Study of Saudi Arabia and Australia

Researcher: Mr. Faiz Aldalbhi

School of Social Science, Media and Communication, Faculty of
Arts, University of Wollongong

Supervisors: Professor Philip Kitley & Dr Tanja Dreher

CONSENT: By signing this form or giving my verbal consent I agree to participate as an interviewee in the above project. I agree further that

- I have read and understand the Participant Information Sheet.
- The nature of the study has been explained to me and I understand it.
- Any questions I asked were answered.
- The interview may be audio recorded or recorded in writing
- The information I provide can be used for research purposes and publications keeping my personal information and identity confidential.
- Possible harm and discomforts that may happen as a result of participation have been explained to me which may include emotional response to questions about road safety because of prior experience of an accident or trauma to a family member or work problems due to disclosing sensitive or unpublished information.
- I shall not get any direct benefit for participating in this study.
- I am fully aware that my participation is voluntary and it is my right to withdraw from this study at any time without any penalty or harm, and my withdrawal will not affect my relationship with anyone.
- I am free to ask any questions about the study at any time.
- I hereby give informed consent to participate in this study.
- I know that the verbal consent will have the same impacts as the written consent.

Full name, date and signature of the interviewee:

Full name, date and signature of the witness

For any further questions, concerns, or complaints about the study please contact:
Complaints Officer, Human Research Ethics Committee, Research Services Office,
University of Wollongong on rso-ethics@uow.edu.au or +61-2-4221 4457

Appendix D: Ethics Approval and Renewal

University of Wollongong



INITIAL APPLICATION APPROVAL

In reply please quote: HE11/171

Further Enquiries Phone: 4221 4457

JML:CJ

27 May 2011

Mr Faiz Aldalbhi
fma912@uowmail.edu.au

Dear Mr Aldalbhi,

Thank you for your response dated 20 May 2011 to the HREC review of the application detailed below. I am pleased to advise that the application has been approved.

Ethics Number: HE11/171

Project Title: The Imagined Audience in Road Safety Campaigns: A Comparative Study of Saudi Arabia and Australia

Researchers: Mr Faiz Aldalbhi, Professor Philip Kitley

Approval Date: 26 May 2011


Expiry Date: 25 May 2012

The University of Wollongong/ISLHN Social Sciences HREC is constituted and functions in accordance with the NHMRC *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*. The HREC has reviewed the research proposal for compliance with the *National Statement* and approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with this document. As evidence of continuing compliance, the Human Research Ethics Committee requires that researchers immediately report:

- proposed changes to the protocol including changes to investigators involved
- serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants
- unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

You are also required to complete monitoring reports annually and at the end of your project. These reports are sent out approximately 6 weeks prior to the date your ethics approval expires. The reports must be completed, signed by the appropriate Head of School, and returned to the Research Services Office prior to the expiry date.

Yours sincerely,


A/Professor Garry Hoban
Chair, Social Sciences
Human Research Ethics Committee

Cc: Professor Philip Kitley, School of Social Science, Faculty of Arts

Research Services Office University of Wollongong NSW 2522 Australia
Telephone: +61 2 4221 3386 Facsimile: +61 2 4221 4338
research_services@uow.edu.au www.uow.edu.au/research
CRICOS Provider No: 00102E

Continue Appendix D-Ethics renewal

RENEWAL APPROVED

In reply please quote: HE11/171

22 June 2012

Mr Faiz Aldalbhi

School of Social Science

Faculty of Arts

University of Wollongong

Email: fma912@uowmail.edu.au

Dear

Thank you for submitting the progress report. I am pleased to advise that **renewal** of the following Human Research Ethics application has been **approved**.

Ethics Number: HE11/171

Project Title: The Imagined Audience in Road Safety Campaigns: A Comparative Study of Saudi Arabia and Australia

Researchers: Mr Faiz Aldalbhi, Professor Philip Kitley

Date Approved: 21 June 2012

Renewed From: 26 May 2012

New Expiry Date: 25 May 2013

Please note that approvals are granted for a twelve month period. Further extension will be considered on receipt of a progress report prior to expiry date.

This certificate relates to the research protocol submitted in your original application and all approved amendments to date. Please remember that in addition to completing an annual report the Human Research Ethics Committee also requires that researchers immediately report:

proposed changes to the protocol including changes to investigators involved

serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants

unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

Yours sincerely

A/Professor Garry Hoban

Chair, Social Sciences

Human Research Ethics Committee

Ethics Unit, Research Services Office University of Wollongong NSW 2522 Australia Telephone (02) 4221 3386
Facsimile (02) 4221 4338 Email: rso-ethics@uow.edu.au Web: www.uow.edu.au

Appendix E: List of KSA Interviewees

Name	Position	Date of Interview
Retired Brigadier: Ameen Saeed	Manager of Central Media Committee previously	29-5-2011
TD 1	Riyadh Traffic Department	30-5-2011
LE 1	Riyadh Traffic Department	30-5-2011
TD 2	Riyadh Traffic Department	2-6-2011
Professor Abdullatif Alawfi	Professor of communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University	6-6-2011
LE 2	General Traffic Department	2-6-2011
TD 3	Riyadh Traffic Department	4-6-2011
LE 3	General Traffic Department	4-6-2011
Mr. Ali Algammas	Head of Awareness Section in Department of Public Relations and Media	8-6-2011
Dr. Major General: Mohammed Almaroul	Manager of Department of Public Relations and Media	7-6-2011
Dr. Colonial Ali Alrasheedi	Manager of Safety Division in General Traffic Department	5-6-2011
Major: Mohsen Alsharani	Head of Media Section in Department of Public Relations and Media	8-6-2011
Lieutenant Colonial: Saad Alasmary	Department of Public Relations and Media	8-6-2011
Professor: Baker Ibraheem	Professor of Communication, Faculty of Arts, King Saud University	13-6-2011

Mr. Taiseer Almufarreg	Manager of PI media Production Company	12-6-2011
Mr. Ibraheem Algohani	PI media Production Company	12-6-2011
Mr. Rasheed	PI media Production Company	12-6-2011
Dr. Khaled Albisher	Naif Arab University for Security Sciences	21-6-2011

Appendix F: List of NSW Interviewees

Name	Position	Date of Interview
Mr. Ian Faulks	Partner, Safety and Policy Analysis International	31-5-12
Commander: John Hartley	Command Traffic services, NSW Police	22-5-12
A Fokes	NSW Police	22-5-12
Wayne John McLachlan	NSW Police	22-5-12
Dr Ioni Lewis	Centre for Accident Research & Road Safety-Queensland (CARRS-Q), Queensland University of Technology	9-6-2012
Dr. Sarah Redshaw	Research Fellow Sociology-Macquarie University	21-6-12
Deborah Lanson	NSW Police	22-5-12
Dr Soames Job	Executive Director National Road Safety Council (Australia) and former manager for NSW Centre for Road Safety in RTA (RMS now)	15-6-2012
Mr. Malcolm Stewart	Manager of Customedia Company	30-4-2012
Mr. Jordaan Knapp	Customedia company	15-5-2012
Mrs. Lori Mooren	Senior Research Fellow at	9-5-2012

	Transport and Road Safety Research (TARS) at UNSW	
Mr. Ryan O'connell	Advertisements Experts	11-5-2012
Mr. John Bruton	Advertisements Experts	16-5-2012
Tina Gallagher	Transport for NSW	24-9-12
Dr Julia Irwin	Director of Undergraduate Studies, Department of Psychology, MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY	18-6-2012