



business-driven social change

A Systematic Review of the Evidence



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Prepared by
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“Our task is to transform the impact of everyday actions ... into a conscious collective movement of good choices.”¹

¹ Speech by Paul Polman, CEO, Unilever Inc. 2012, October. Presentation at One Young World Conference, Pittsburgh, PA. Retrieved from http://www.unilever.com/images/mc_Paul-Polman-One-Young-World-2012-speech_tcm13-319683.pdf.

Companies can change people's behaviour in order to benefit society and the environment.

Such social innovation fosters goodwill among employees, customers and community members. It can also create new industries and open up new markets.

Business-Driven Social Change

A Systematic Review of the Evidence

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Dear Reader,

I'm pleased to share with you this report on business-driven social change. Businesses no longer see themselves merely as the target of social change, but also as an agent of change. Increasingly, businesses say that for sustainability to happen, civil society needs to be mobilized. They cannot be more sustainable if their customers are not. So, leading organizations are playing an active role in initiating change. For example, business innovated the microfinance to motivate entrepreneurship among marginalized populations, and now offers competitions for youths to generate executable and responsible business ideas.

Many say that businesses are uniquely positioned to change people's behaviour in order to benefit society. Make no mistake, however; businesses are not merely being philanthropic in these endeavours; they believe these social innovations can also add value to the firm by raising profile, attracting new customers, or identifying new markets and opportunities.

This report offers businesses the tools necessary to achieve change effectively. It explains the conditions and actions that can spark change among people and organizations. The report also offers valuable guidance on managing a change effort. I encourage you to start with the "Framework for Creating Social Change" on page 18, which captures these insights in an accessible tool.

This research was authored by a team that included Dr. Ute Stephan, Dr. Malcolm Patterson and Ciara Kelly of the University of Sheffield. This research also benefited from valuable insights from the team's academic advisor, Dr. Johanna Mair (Stanford

University and Hertie School of Governance), and its guidance committee: Debbie Baxter (LoyaltyOne), John Coyne (Unilever Canada), Karen Clarke-Whistler (TD Bank Group), Tim Faveri (Tim Hortons), Brenda Goehring (BC Hydro) and Peter MacConnachie (Suncor Energy).

This systematic review is one of many that form the backbone of NBS. The topics are chosen by our Leadership Council, a group of multi-sector organizations leading in sustainability whose names you will find at the end of this report. This group meets annually to identify the sustainability topics most salient to business. Identifying how businesses can help to change collective behaviour and thus improve society was near the top of their list for 2012. The reports from all their past priorities are available freely on our website at nbs.net.

We are proud of our systematic reviews. Popularized in the field of medicine, they systematically and rigorously review the body of evidence from both academia and practice on a topic. The result is an authoritative account of the strategies and tactics of managing sustainably, as well as the gaps for further research. This review drew on 123 academic and practitioner sources.

I hope this report will help your business engage in social innovation, with benefits to you and to society.



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introduction

Many examples exist of business's positive social impact, and how social responsibility improves the bottom line. This review identifies how business can help change people's behaviours and thus improve society.

Business is often cited in the media for its negative impacts on the environment and society. But we have also witnessed many examples of business's positive social impact, leading to a growing recognition that business can indeed be a force for good. Moreover, both a systematic review (Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003) and case examples (e.g. Porter & Kramer, 2011) demonstrate that when businesses invest in social responsibility, they improve their bottom line. A socially responsible business enjoys a favourable reputation. It is seen as a desirable employer by talent, attracts committed employees and experiences smoother relationships with stakeholders, including existing employees and investors (e.g. Brammer, Millington, & Rayton, 2007; Sen, Bhattacharya, & Korschun, 2006; Turban & Greening, 1997).

Because a large business has much power, it has opportunities to create sustainability not only within its company by improving its products, services and practices but also beyond its company walls. For a business interested in having positive social impact, the critical questions arising are:

- **How can a business help to change collective behaviour and thus improve society?**
- **What mechanisms can a business leverage to help create positive social change?**
- **How can a business organize and launch a successful change project?**

We conducted a large-scale systematic review of academic and practitioner sources to answer these questions.

Examples of Business-Driven Social Change

Danone created a base-of-the-pyramid, social business joint venture with Grameen Group, Bangladesh. Grameen Danone produces nutrient-enriched yogurt affordable by the poorest families in Bangladesh. The yogurt is produced in small-scale, eco-friendly plants using local ingredients and is then distributed by local "Grameen ladies." Grameen Danone thus tackles child malnutrition and health with a minimal negative impact on the environment, while creating local employment and supporting the social inclusion of women (Yunus, 2010).

SC Johnson partnered with a non-government organization (NGO) to set up Community Cleaning Services, a joint venture, in the Kibera slum of Nairobi. The aim was to improve household hygiene and thereby health, while also creating employment for youth entrepreneurs and promoting SC Johnson's cleaning products (Johnson, 2007).

As part of its business sustainability strategy, **Walmart** created 14 sustainable value networks to work with stakeholders to achieve its goals of creating zero waste, using 100 per cent renewable energy and selling sustainable products. To enable its stores to exclusively sell fish caught and processed sustainably, Walmart reconfigured its seafood supply chain by working closely with suppliers and with NGOs such as the Marine Stewardship Council and the World Wildlife Fund (Plambeck & Denend, 2008).

This systematic review summarizes the best available evidence for business to drive wider social change among the public. In particular, this review aims to identify evidence that relates organizational actions to social change. We define social change as changes in the collective behaviour of citizens toward greater sustainability or prosociality (“doing good”). We found evidence of businesses leading wider social change. We further included evidence from researcher-led interventions and evidence from other types of organizations that have a long history of creating social change, such as social enterprises (which combine business and social goals), non-profit organizations and local government. These organizations face increasing financial constraints and have found new ways to combine the creation of social change with revenue generation. As a result, they are often at the cutting edge of creating sustainable social change and thus provide inspiration for business. This review focuses on actions that are easily adopted by businesses.

We included research that measured actual behaviour change, rather than attitudes or intentions. From research that described organizations’ actions to achieve change, we distilled 19 Social Change Mechanisms (see page 23). Our review showed the importance of both the “what” (i.e. the mechanisms) and the “how.” Because social change is complex and uncertain, social change projects must be well run and well organized. We captured this “how” dimension in 13 Project-Organizing Practices to Deliver Social Change (see page 48). The review also outlines Social Change Strategies (see page 71). These strategies inform “when to do what.” That is, they sequence change mechanisms and organizing practices to guide the timing of change projects.

We reviewed academic and practitioner sources on social change published in the past 20 years. Our searches retrieved 10,509 sources (8,054 academic and 2,455 practitioner), which we screened for inclusion (see Appendix A). This review synthesizes evidence on business-driven social change from 123 sources (107 academic and 16 practitioner). It provides unprecedented evidence-based guidelines for business to lead social change.

Key Findings

Overall, our review highlights the following:

1. *Business-driven change is an emerging and fragmented field.*

The academic evidence was dispersed across multiple academic disciplines (including business and management, economics, public health, public policy, medicine, education, psychology, sociology, environmental studies and engineering). Most of the research, particularly within the discipline of business and management, was exploratory, case-based or cross-sectional, thus providing mostly weak evidence.

The practitioner business literature was strongly focused on whether engaging in social change would improve the company’s bottom line. Very little practitioner-led research addressed actions that a business can take to bring about social change. We considered some work by organizations deeply involved with creating social change, including social enterprises, non-profits and local governments, as these approaches may be transferable to business.

2. *Social change has been investigated in four areas.*
 - Environmental behaviour
 - Health behaviour
 - Social and economic inclusion (including issues of violence)
 - Civic engagement behaviour (including volunteering and political engagement)

3. *Social change is complex and requires simultaneous and coordinated interventions.*

Our review sought to identify mechanisms that businesses can use to bring about social change. We found that social change requires more than the application of certain mechanisms. Successful change requires the change project to be organized sensibly. Thus, we present Social Change Mechanisms and Organizing Practices to Deliver Social Change. We integrate the Social Change Mechanisms and the Organizing Practices into our Framework for Creating Social Change (see page 18) and the Social Change Strategies. Change Strategies capture how to use mechanisms and practices in a successful change project.

There is no single body of work on business-driven social change. This report breaks new ground by providing a framework for understanding business-driven social change for both industry leaders and academics.

For industry leaders, we provide a framework for examining current practices and selecting effective change mechanisms and strategies. We hope this framework and the synthesis of the evidence base

will also inspire scholars, particularly in business and management, to research the capacity of business to create social change.

In addition, we believe that organizations, projects or networks interested in creating social innovation and driving positive social change will find inspiration in this report.

How to Get the Most from This Report

Overall Framework for Creating Social Change

“What is ‘Social Change?’” the next section of this report, defines social change in the context of this review and highlights the challenges for businesses that aspire to create positive social change. On pages 18 to 21 we describe a framework for social change. The framework focuses on three components of behaviour change necessary for any social change initiative — motivation, opportunity and capability. We use these three components to group social change mechanisms (pages 23 to 45). We then identify important project-organizing practices (pages 46 to 69), which are also grouped according to the three components of motivation, opportunity and capability. The framework underpins much of the remainder of the report. So, although you may wish to focus on particular sections of the report, familiarity with the social change framework will help your overall understanding of the report.

Specific Actions: Social Change Mechanisms (What to Change) and Project-Organizing Practices (How to Change)

The sections on social change mechanisms (pages 23 to 45) and project-organizing practices (pages 46 to 69) explore individual mechanisms and practices in greater detail. They help you to understand what these mechanisms and practices are, how to use them, and the weight of evidence behind them. These mechanisms and practices are organized around the three components of motivation, opportunity and capability.

Pages 23 to 45 describe the 19 mechanisms for creating social change. We define each mechanism, provide examples of it in action and describe any circumstances that may affect the effectiveness of a mechanism. For each mechanism, we also identify the social change area where it has been studied (i.e. environmental behaviour, health behaviour, social inclusion, civic engagement).

Pages 46 to 69 describe 13 effective organizing practices for social change projects. Similar to our approach with social change mechanisms, we provide examples of each practice in action, describe contingencies and identify the social change areas where the practice has been employed.

Evidence supports the effectiveness of some mechanisms and practices more clearly than others. Therefore, we assess the effectiveness of each mechanism and practice based on the amount and quality of the reviewed research. We also consider

whether the research consistently shows positive findings. Page 20 provides more detail on this assessment.

Social Change Strategies

On pages 71 to 79, we bring together our review findings on mechanisms and practices to describe social change strategies — commonly occurring combinations of change mechanisms and organizing practices that work well in delivering social change. We also outline how different change strategies have consequences for the quality or depth of social change. Finally, we show how to craft a change strategy over time to initiate projects and manage them effectively.

Pages 81 to 84 conclude the report, summarizing our findings and gaps in the evidence-base.

Readers seeking a high-level overview of tackling social change may want to first read “What Is ‘Social Change?’” (pages 12 to 16) the overview of the research in “Framework for Creating Social Change (pages 17 to 21); and then turn to the two chapters that integrate and summarize the findings: “Social Change Strategies” (pages 71 to 79); and “Summary and the Way Forward” (pages 80 to 84). Readers can then refer to pages 22 to 69 for more detail on specific mechanisms and practices.

Appendix A describes how we conducted the review, Appendix B lists all studies included in the review and Appendix C lists additional literature used in the writing of this report.

what is “social change?”

Social change describes a systemic transformation, over time, in patterns of thoughts, behaviour, social relationships, institutions and social structure.

Business can change how individuals and groups act in multiple areas: e.g. related to the environment, health, social inclusion and civic engagement.

Such change can be challenging: it is complex, uncertain and dynamic.

This chapter sets the stage for the review. We first discuss key characteristics of social change, then highlight the overarching challenges a business faces when creating social change. Next, we identify the individuals and organizations that business seeks to change and the main areas (environment, health, social inclusion and civic engagement) where social change takes place.

Defining Social Change

Social change refers to an alteration in a society's social order (e.g. Harper, 1993). It describes a systemic transformation, over time, in patterns of thoughts, behaviour, social relationships, institutions and social structure (Praszkie & Nowak, 2012: 36). Social change can take the form of either formal policy changes that affect a group of people or informal changes in a group's social value, status or power (Louis, 2009). It can be rapid, as when triggered by crisis or breakthrough technological developments, or it can unfold slowly, perhaps reflecting shifts in generational values triggered by economic development (Inglehart, 2008). Thus, social change has been largely understood as change that is “happening” to people. This review shifts the perspective to ask how organizations can actively create social change. It builds on the emerging realization that social change can be created not only by governments and international organizations but also by businesses, both small and large. We focus on positive social change — that is, change that leads to positive impacts on individuals, society and the environment and benefits people or organizations other than those initiating

the change project. Further, we focus on changes in behaviour — i.e. tangible change, as opposed to changes in thought or attitudes, which do not always lead to behaviour change. In sum, this review gathers the best available evidence on how businesses can effect change in the general public's collective behaviour and thereby improve society.

Key Challenges for Business-Driven Social Change

Creating social change is a problem-solving process. It requires understanding society as a complex, self-regulating system, which dynamically responds to interventions (e.g. Doerner, 1990). Humans do not merely react mechanically; rather, they deliberate and respond, sometimes irrationally. Thus, before describing the review, we highlight four key characteristics of social change: complexity, uncertainty, non-linearity and dynamism, and long-term perspective.

- **Complexity** – Creating social change requires intervening in a complex system where many issues, or variables, are closely interconnected through feedback loops.

Implications for business: Bringing about social change requires understanding the status quo and interconnections; otherwise, change initiatives may not go as planned. We provide a gap analysis (see page 25) to help business diagnose the current situation.

Concerted interventions that simultaneously change several variables are likely to be most successful in bringing about change.

- **Uncertainty** – Social change is uncertain, due to the complexity and the multitude of issues involved, which are often not transparent.

Implications for business: For social change to be successful, it requires experimentation, and the involvement of those individuals one aims to change throughout the change process. Uncertainty is reduced by testing, on a small scale, how people react to interventions before scaling up the changes. Co-creating change with the individuals targeted for change relieves the greatest uncertainty: how they will react to the intervention.

- **Non-Linearity and Dynamism** – Most processes in complex systems are non-linear and dynamic. That is, individuals, groups and societies respond to interventions sometimes only after delays. Often responses are not relative to the strength of an intervention (but can be weaker or stronger) and can be exponential in response (just like algae replicating in a pond). Interventions may also seem to develop a life of their own even after the intervention has ceased, when individuals and groups start redefining them and adapting them to their needs. Effects of social change interventions are thus difficult to forecast.

Implications for business: Successful social change interventions need to incorporate feedback loops to identify changes in a trend and adjust actions accordingly (e.g. by measuring key change indicators).

- **Long-Term Perspective** – The characteristics described above mean that social change is unlikely to happen rapidly (barring natural catastrophes or breakthrough technologies). Change will be a longer process for the types of efforts covered in this review – i.e. business driving social change in the general public.

Implication for business: Successful social change requires a long-term commitment of both actions and resources.

Whom Is Business Changing? The Target of Change

Whom precisely is it that social change targets? In its most pervasive form, social change shifts the composition of society. In less pervasive forms, it changes “collectives” or groups of individuals — i.e. families, consumer groups, communities and regions. We can think about collective social change as an aggregation of many simultaneous small-scale changes by individuals, which accumulate to result in wider waves of collective change.

Our review does not focus only on individuals. Organizations can also be the focus of change, as when industry-wide practices or even entire new markets are created (e.g. the field of social investment or the wind energy industry). However, most evidence we reviewed focused on changing individuals. We found no evidence that change strategies differ when individuals or organizations and markets were the target of change,

so we did not separate evidence by target group. To illustrate change strategies, we draw on examples from both domains when available.

What Is Business Changing? The Content of Change

Evidence on social change is broadly distributed across four areas (see Figure 1). We briefly describe each area.

Environmental Behaviour: Activity by individuals or organizations that either protects the natural environment or contributes to a healthy environment. Other terms for environmental behaviour are ecological behaviour, sustainable behaviour or environmentally-friendly behaviour. Examples of social change in the

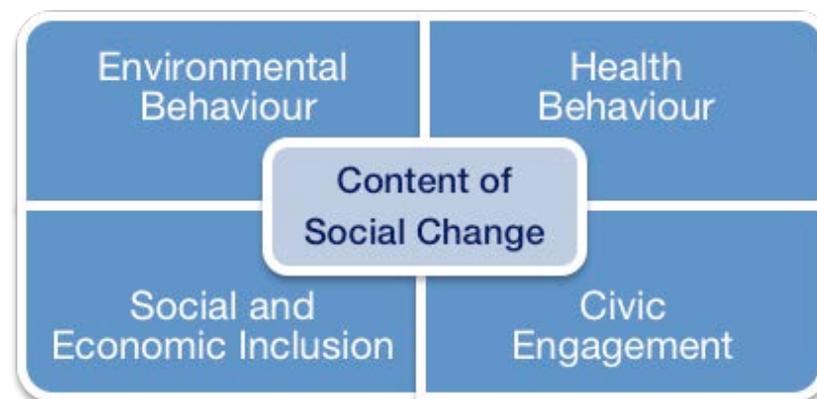
area of environmental behaviour covered in the review include the following:

- Increased energy-saving behaviour and use of alternative energy sources
- Increased recycling behaviour, including curbside recycling and food waste recycling
- Reduced car use and increased use of sustainable transportation options
- Conservation of natural habitats and species e.g. by revitalizing a local river
- Increased consumer purchases of “green” products

Health Behaviour: Actions that prevent disease, prolong life and promote physical and psychological health and well-being. Such behaviours fall into the domain of public health². We did not perform a dedicated search on social change and health behaviours, but nevertheless retrieved a substantial number of publications — typically of high

Figure 1

AREAS OF SOCIAL CHANGE



² Public health is “the science and art of preventing disease, prolonging life and promoting health through the organized efforts and informed choices of society, public and private organizations, communities and individuals” (Winslow, 1920).

quality — which describe how business can drive such change. Examples of social change in the domain of health behaviours covered in this review include the following:

- Reduced risk behaviour (e.g. decreases in child malnutrition, obesity and infant mortality; increases in safe sex practices, such as condom use)
- Increased preventive health behaviour (e.g. exercising and breastfeeding)
- Improved access to healthcare (e.g. micro-health insurance, low-cost standardized health services through walk-in clinics)
- Development of better healthcare (e.g. creation of a cross-institutional AIDS/HIV treatment advocates council)

Social and economic inclusion: The building of more inclusive communities and societies through integrating marginalized groups and alleviating poverty. (Poverty interventions typically interpreted poverty as income poverty, both in developed and developing countries.) Examples of social change related to social and economic inclusion covered in this review include the following:

- Empowerment of marginalized groups and people considered to be in the minority (in terms of ethnic origin, gender or sexual orientation)
- Revitalized neighbourhoods through community interventions
- Micro-credit financing
- Increase of children's educational involvement and reduced drop-out rates
- Reduced number of child soldiers
- Reduced domestic violence and female genital mutilation
- Reduced violence in society

Civic engagement: Individual and collective actions that identify and address issues of public concern. Examples of social change related to civic engagement covered in this review include the following:

- Increased community volunteering
- Increased charitable giving and philanthropy (by both individuals and businesses)
- Increased political participation (voting, petitioning and collaborating with local authorities)

framework for creating social change: mechanisms, practices and strategies

For individuals or groups to change, three conditions are necessary: motivation, capability and opportunity. This framework provides an overview of how businesses can provide these conditions through their change efforts; it also identifies how change efforts should be managed.

Building on the evidence that we reviewed and on work by Michie, van Stalen and West (2011), we developed our framework for creating social change. The framework refers to the elements necessary for individuals or groups to change. Some behaviour change theories emphasize the roles of individual factors, such as motivation and capability, while other theories view individuals as a product of their situation — the societal structures and environments in which they live. We conclude that successful social change of individuals and groups requires that three components be in place simultaneously (see Figure 2). We briefly describe each component.

Figure 2

THE THREE KEY COMPONENTS OF SOCIAL CHANGE



- **Motivation.** Are the actors motivated to change?
- **Capability.** Do the actors have the capabilities to change? That is, do they believe that they can change, and do they know how to change?
- **Opportunity.** Do the actors have the resources and conditions to change?

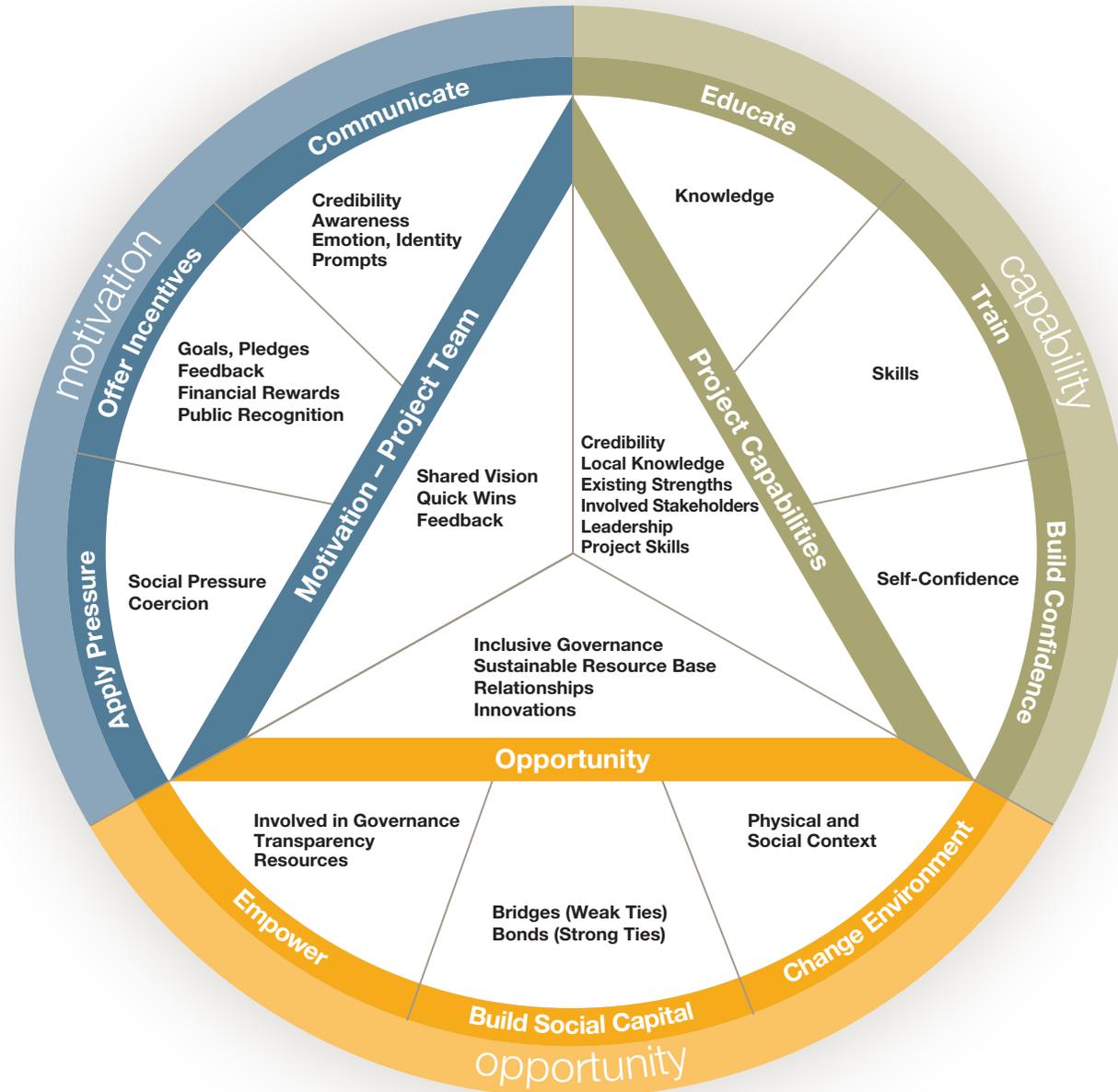
These components are interdependent. Enhancing an individual's or a group's capability to change and providing opportunities for change is likely to reinforce motivation to change (e.g. Michie et al., 2011). Pages 71 to 79 present social change strategies for leveraging these reinforcing effects.

Behaviour change requires the presence of all three components — motivation, capability and opportunity. Individuals and groups will not change their behaviour when they are not energized to change or have no reason to behave differently; when they lack the skills, confidence or knowledge of how to behave differently; or when they face environmental constraints, barriers or lack the resources that would allow them to behave differently. Consequently, successful social change interventions must address all three components of behaviour change simultaneously.

Our Framework for Creating Social Change (Figure 3) is the core of the systematic review. The circle represents Social Change Mechanisms, which can be classified into motivation-based, opportunity-based and capability-based mechanisms. These mechanisms capture what business can do to achieve social change: motivate actors, create opportunities and resources for them, and enable and build their capability to change. Pages 23 to 45 describe the Social Change Mechanisms in detail. Because social

Figure 3

**FRAMEWORK FOR CREATING SOCIAL CHANGE:
WHAT TO DO (MECHANISMS) AND HOW TO DO IT (PROJECT-ORGANIZING PRACTICES)**



change is complex and uncertain, it also matters how social change projects are run and organized. The inner triangle in Figure 3 captures “how” to effect change, i.e. the Project Organizing Practices for delivering successful social change. Similar to the social change mechanisms, the Project Organizing Practices are three-fold: motivation-, opportunity- and capability-based. They address how the change project’s staff and stakeholders can be motivated to deliver social change, how to create project resources and opportunities to deliver social change, and how the project can develop capabilities to deliver social change. Pages 46 to 65 describe these Project Organizing Practices in detail.

Finally, pages 71 to 79 outline Social Change Strategies, which are clusters, or combinations, of social change mechanisms and organizing practices. Change strategies identify commonly occurring combinations of social change mechanisms and organizing practices. We also highlight how to craft a change strategy over time (i.e. “what to do, how to do it and when to do it”).

We begin by describing how we present change mechanisms and organizing practices.

Presentation of Change Mechanisms and Practices

We structure the description of each change mechanism (pages 23 to 45) and practice (pages 46 to 69) as follows:

1. **Description** of the mechanism/practice and examples from the social change areas of environmental behaviour, health behaviour, social inclusion and civic engagement (page 15).
2. **Circumstances.** Under which conditions does this change strategy work better or worse? This section also covers unintended consequences, e.g. when using a certain change strategy might not go as planned. For instance, both monetary incentives and public recognition are effective incentivizing mechanisms that build motivation for behaviour change. However, individuals may donate less when others know that they receive a monetary incentive for doing so — for fear their altruistic public image may be tainted.
3. **State of the evidence.** How confident are we that this mechanism/practice leads to change? This assessment is based on the quality of the reviewed research (similar to Bertels, Papania, & Papania, 2010) and considers whether the existing support is consistent — i.e. whether all studies show a positive effect or whether some show a negative effect. We summarize the available empirical support as follows:

“Weakly supported”: These change mechanisms/practices have been evaluated for effectiveness in creating social change, but the evidence is weak or findings are conflicting.



“Supported”: Strong empirical evidence consistently indicates that these change mechanisms/practices effectively create social change. Thus, these change mechanisms are recommended.

In the insert “Background: What Is Strong and What is Weak Evidence” below we explain in greater detail how we arrived at the label summarizing the evidence base.

Background: What Is Strong and What Is Weak Evidence?

The quality of evidence determines whether we can assume causality: whether we are certain that a particular mechanism or practice leads to social change. We may see high-quality research leading to conflicting findings, in which case we view the evidence for the effectiveness of a certain mechanisms or practice as “weak.” If inconsistent findings occur because mechanisms work only under certain circumstances, then we indicated that a mechanism or practice is “supported” but identified the circumstances under which it is effective.

Strong evidence includes two comparison points, which allow us to assume causality. The first comparison point is a baseline measure taken before and then again after the mechanism or practice was deployed. The second comparison point is a control sample — i.e. a group of individuals or organizations that are not exposed to the mechanism or practice but are similar to the group that is exposed and are observed over the same time span. Ideally, individuals or organizations were randomly allocated to groups. Thus, strong evidence comes from such research designs as randomized control trials, experiments, quasi-experiments and controlled longitudinal studies.

Weak evidence originates from correlational research, including longitudinal studies, cross-sectional studies and often case studies. This research includes no control group/comparison sample and/or does not allow a comparison across time (i.e. before and after a mechanism/practice was introduced) Note, however, that longitudinal case studies which involved matched comparison cases can be included as strong evidence as they provide two comparison points.

social change mechanisms

Businesses can facilitate positive behaviour change through 19 social change mechanisms. This section describes those mechanisms, how to use them and the weight of evidence behind them. It offers details on how to motivate actors to change, enable them to change and create opportunities for them to change.

This review's central goal is to identify mechanisms that facilitate positive behaviour change. The social change mechanisms highlight what businesses can do to achieve social change. We describe the change mechanisms in the following three subsections, which correspond to the three key components of social change:

- Motivate actors to change (page 26)
- Create opportunities for actors to change (page 36)
- Enable actors to change (page 42)

We classify each mechanism according to its primary focus. For example, four mechanisms reflect various aspects of communication. In total, we identified 19 distinct behaviour change mechanisms. These mechanisms are variously targeted at individuals, households, communities, industries and markets, regions or even entire countries, all with the aim of achieving collective social change. The section on Social Change Strategies (pages 71 to 79) illustrates how to sequence these mechanisms to craft a successful change strategy.

Figure 4

WHAT TO DO TO CREATE SOCIAL CHANGE: SOCIAL CHANGE MECHANISMS

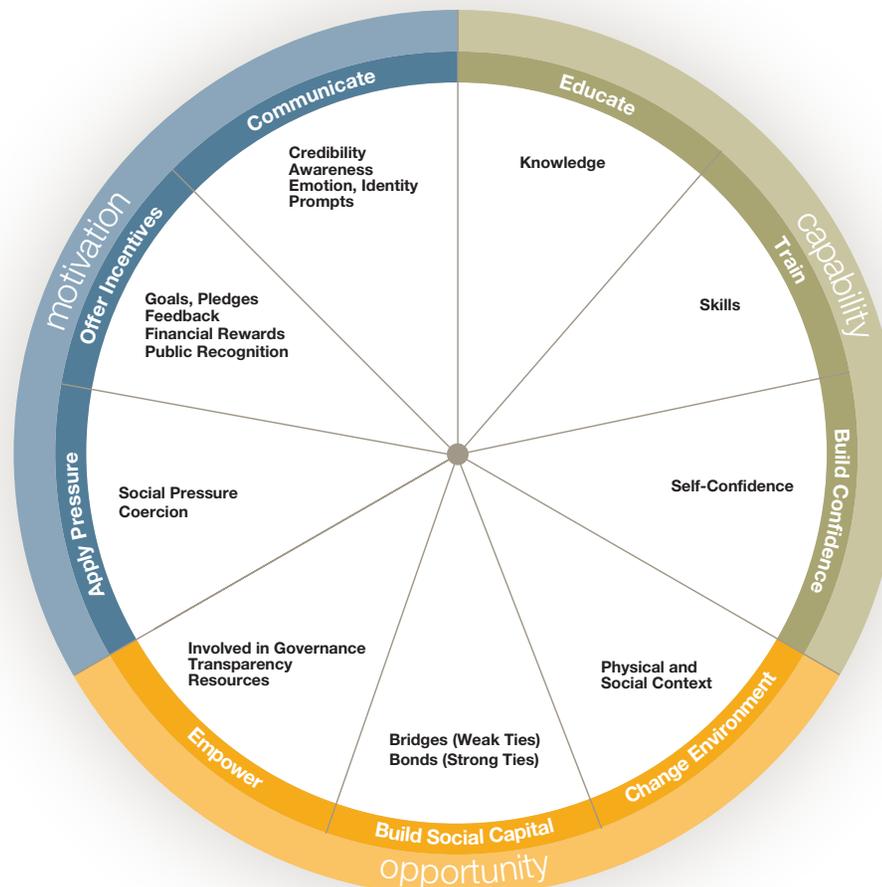
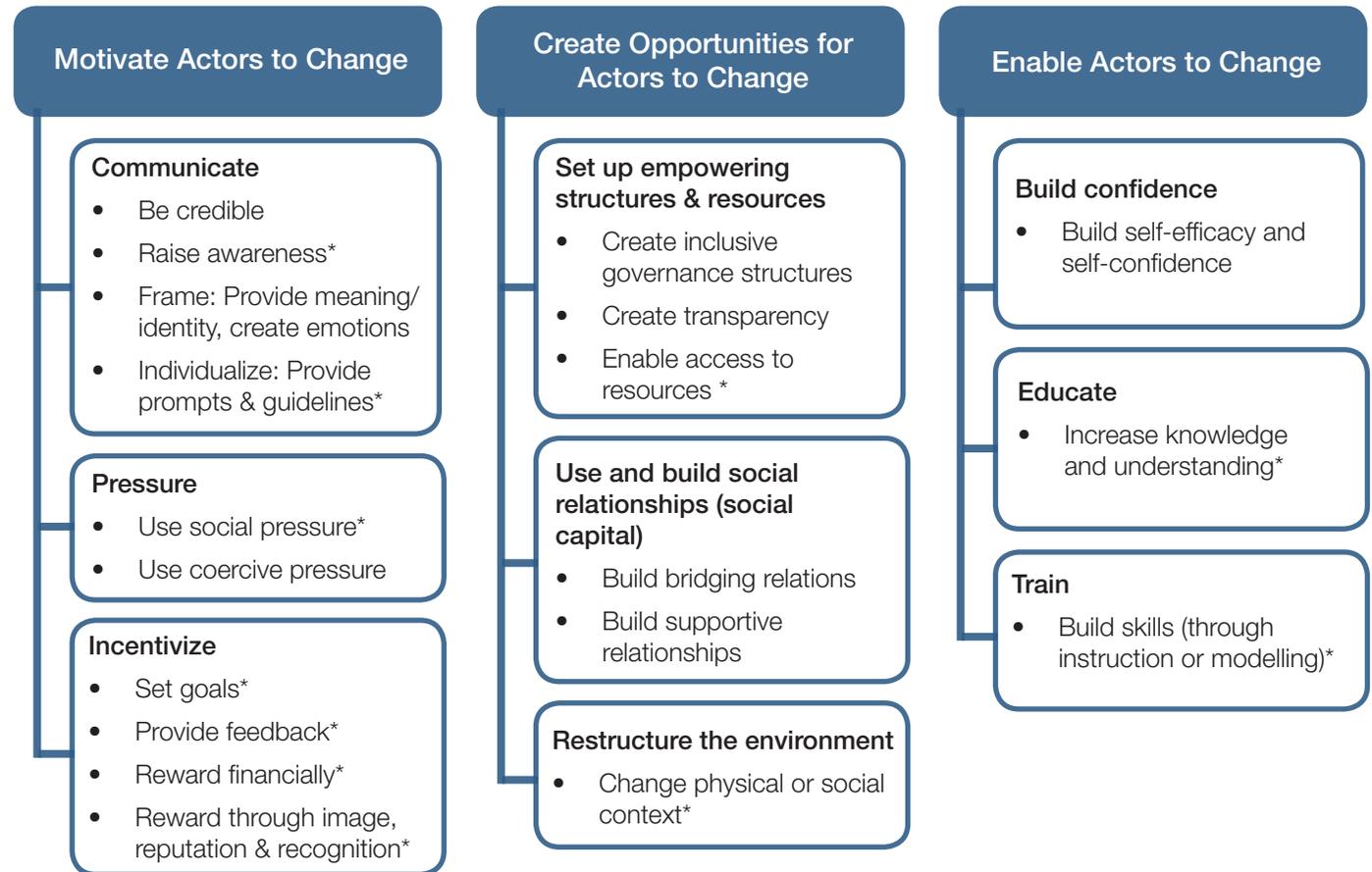


Figure 5

OVERVIEW OF SOCIAL CHANGE MECHANISMS



* Mechanisms most clearly supported by research.

Note that, in some situations, one or two of the key change components may already be in place. For example, for an environmental behaviour such as recycling, people may already have both the capability (they know how to recycle) and the opportunity (recycling bins are easily accessible), but they may

lack the motivation (the incentive to recycle). Thus, we recommend that businesses conduct a gap analysis before launching an intervention. This analysis will ensure that businesses deploy resources where they are needed most. See the “Gap Analysis” guide on the next page.

Gap Analysis of Change Mechanisms: Diagnosing Where You Stand and What You Need

These questions are intended to aid systematic decision-making and prevent the pursuit of unnecessary initiatives.

What is the target behaviour? The target behaviour is the behaviour change that the intervention aims to achieve.

Specific questions regarding the target behaviour:

1. What motivates people to engage in the target behaviour? This is likely a multitude of factors.

- Which motivational factors are currently in place and which are missing?
 - Can the existing motivational factors be strengthened? Can the missing motivational factors be developed?
 - Which factors are most crucial (i.e. have the largest and most lasting behaviour change effects)? Which factors can be tackled most cost-efficiently?
- > Focus on the most crucial factors that can be addressed most cost-efficiently.

2. Which opportunities (e.g. access to resources, physical infrastructure, decision-making structures and social connections) do people need to engage in the target behaviour?

- Which opportunities do people currently have, and which are they missing?
 - Can the existing opportunities be further developed or strengthened? Can the missing opportunities be developed?
 - Which opportunities are most crucial (i.e. have the largest and most lasting behaviour change effects)? Which opportunities can be tackled most cost-efficiently?
- > Focus on the most crucial opportunities that can be addressed most cost-efficiently.

3. Which capabilities do people need to engage in the target behaviour?

- Which capabilities do people currently have and which are they missing?
 - Can the existing capabilities be strengthened? Can the missing capabilities be built?
 - Which capabilities are most crucial (i.e. have the largest and most lasting behaviour change effects)? Which capabilities can be tackled most cost-efficiently?
- > Focus on the most crucial capabilities that can be addressed most cost-efficiently.

Motivate Actors to Change

Communicate

- Be credible
- Raise awareness*
- Frame: Provide meaning/identity, create emotions
- Individualize: Provide prompts & guidelines*

Pressure

- Use social pressure*
- Use coercive pressure

Incentivize

- Set goals*
- Provide feedback*
- Reward financially*
- Reward through image, reputation & recognition*

* Mechanisms most clearly supported by research.

Motivate Actors to Change

Motivation-based mechanisms create the momentum to change and influence whether the behaviour change is sustained. Although psychological factors, such as personality traits, may affect a person's tendency to either accept or resist change, external strategies can enhance an individual's motivation (Greenhalgh, Robert, Macfarlane, Bate, & Kyriakidou, 2004). Motivation refers to both an individual's conscious intentions to change a behaviour and more automatic processes such as emotional responses. We cover three individual motivation-based mechanisms that can positively affect the motivation for social change: communicating, pressuring and incentivizing.

COMMUNICATE

Be credible

Influence attempts do not always bring about behaviour change, in part because of variation in the credibility of those promoting change (Greenhalgh et al., 2004). For example, when a business promotes a "green" agenda, the public must see its environmental values as "real" and credible rather than see the agenda being adopted only for the purpose of improving image, reputation and profit (i.e. "greenwashing"). In a study of environmental initiatives by professional sports organizations, perceived organizational credibility was related to the target audience's engagement in environmental behaviours. The audience's perception of the organization's environmental credibility was found to relate directly to the organization's general credibility, perceived effort in undertaking the environmental initiatives, the perceived impact of the initiatives and

the importance of the cause (Inoue, 2011). Expertise is another important source of credibility. For instance, when Walmart created its sustainability network to green its supply chain, it partnered with NGOs because of both their sustainability-related expertise and their reputation as credible, independent organizations (Plambeck & Denend, 2008). Organizations must convincingly convey knowledge and information: consider, for example, the fight for legitimacy in the ongoing debate on climate change.

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of credible communication has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Environmental initiatives by businesses (Inoue, 2011; Plambeck & Denend, 2008).
- Civic Engagement: Requests for charitable giving require that the donation seeker be a credible and trusted source (John et al., 2011).

State of the evidence: Some case studies support the importance of credibility in the area of environmental behaviour, including stronger evidence from one study on civic engagement.

Raise awareness



Creating awareness or attention around the importance of social change is a first step toward increasing motivation for behaviour change. To change behaviour, actors must first be convinced of the need for change. Awareness can also breed familiarity. For example, an individual may regard a new behaviour as too risky to try out. However, when individuals are familiar with a new behaviour, perhaps as a result of media information and expert opinion, they are more likely to perceive the

behaviour as less risky, and are more likely to try it out, i.e. change their behaviour (Wejnert, 2002). A synthesis of experimental studies on environmental behaviour change revealed that raising awareness is a highly effective change strategy for increasing recycling and the conservation of both water and energy (Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012). Awareness-raising is particularly effective when it elicits “cognitive dissonance,” by first activating a person’s pre-existing beliefs (e.g. by asking “Do you agree that recycling is a good thing to do?”) and then highlighting the discrepancy with the current behaviour (e.g. “Do you believe you recycle all waste that can be recycled?”).

Awareness can be generated through many forms of communication, from social media with its wide reach (Kozinets, Belz, & McDonagh, 2012) to more intimate, face-to-face modes of communication. For example, an effort to change a community’s unsustainable practices used workshops to create awareness about the importance of conservation (English, 2002). Awareness can be raised not only by one-way communication but also through partnering and community involvement.

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “awareness raising”: Increasing awareness is rarely sufficient to trigger behaviour change. For example, a study of participatory democracy in India (Raman, 2006) found that awareness, in the form of disclosing the local government budget process, allowed citizens to participate to a greater degree in civic life. However, these citizens also had access to educational material on the basics of municipal finance, which increased their capability (see page 42).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “raising awareness” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Strong positive effects noted in a synthesis of experimental studies on environmental behaviour change (Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012); NGO-organized workshops and lectures raised community awareness of conservation practices (English, 2002).
- Health Behaviour: A community-based project for promoting physical activity used various media, including a newsletter, to promote walking activity (Suminski, Petosa, Jones, Hall, & Poston, 2009); online website interventions that effectively promote health behaviour change create awareness of health risks (synthesis of mostly high-quality research by Cugelman, Thelwall, & Dawes, 2011).
- Civic Engagement: Citizens were able to contribute more to civic activities after the disclosure of the local government’s budget process (Raman, 2006).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence supports the mechanism of raising awareness in the areas of environmental and health behaviour changes. However, it is difficult to isolate the evidence in support of an awareness strategy specifically because it often forms part of a successful overall strategy (Cugelman et al., 2011; Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012; Raman, 2006). Evidence in other areas is less strong.

Frame: Provide meaning and identity, and create emotions

Meaning describes people’s view of the importance and relevance of an issue to their own lives. Meaning can be a powerful motivator for behaviour change. Meaning is not fixed but can be changed by framing an issue from

a perspective that appeals to individuals or develops their identity in a positive way (e.g. seeing oneself as caring and compassionate when volunteering). Social movements have used framing to create new markets (Rao, 2009). For example, by framing wind energy as solving problems with traditional energy sources, the environmental movement supported the wind energy sector and helped the wind energy industry emerge. Framing wind energy as a value- or belief-driven activity further motivated entrepreneurs (Sine & Lee, 2009). Likewise, the movement for grass-fed meat and dairy products helped position grass-fed cattle as a premium product by framing the market as natural, sustainable and authentic (Weber, Heinze, & DeSoucey, 2008). This strategy helped to develop the identity of a “good” farmer.

Framing can elicit strong emotions in an audience, thereby promoting change. For example, Rao (2009) examined how “market rebels” (activists who challenge the status quo) change industries (e.g. by bringing about new practices). They are effective through emphasizing “hot causes” that arouse intense emotions. A campaign successfully promoted conservation behaviour in an island community by fueling local pride through using an exclusively local animal to symbolically represent the campaign (Boss, 2008).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “framing”: The effects of framing and reframing meaning can vary. Meaning is difficult to change and depends on other factors such as the legitimacy of those seeking to frame the issue.

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “framing” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Positive meanings were imbued in environmental activity, such as the wind industry, to increase the number of entrepreneurs in the industry (Sine & Lee, 2009; Weber et al., 2008); social movements and organizations presented recycling as a better alternative to incineration to help create the for-profit recycling industry (Lounsbury, Ventresca, & Hirsch, 2003).
- Health Behaviour: Individuals with a personality disorder reframed their problems, not as personal failings, but as issues with their treatments or with the system, providing the motivation for further action (Borkman & Munn-Giddings, 2008).
- Social Inclusion: Immigrant workers organized a successful strike against their employers, partly through support from the community, by framing the strike as a community issue — a fight against sexist, racist employment practices (Johnston, 2004); community conflict situations were reframed into perceived opportunities for learning (Praszkie, Nowak, & Coleman, 2010).

State of the evidence: This mechanism has good-quality, case-based support.

Individualize: Provide prompts and guidelines



Individualization refers to providing tailored, personalized, or customized information that helps an individual to behave in a more sustainable manner in a certain situation. Individualized tools, such as prompts and guidelines, can provide people with simple cues and “nudges”³ (John et al., 2011) to

³ Nudges refer to displaying information or structuring a situation such that it helps people to make choices in a certain manner. The term derives from a book by Richard Thaler and Cass Sunstein which reviews evidence in psychology and behavioural economics and suggests that nudging can be an effective strategy to improve people's choices for greater health and well-being (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008; also John et al., 2011).

act in socially beneficial ways. For instance, waste collection companies can provide simple reminders in the form of notes or stickers reminding people to put out their recyclables (Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012). Because social change is often complex and uncertain, people can suffer from information overload and uncertainty about how to act in a sustainable manner. Individualizing information reduces such information overload. For example, many are confused whether it is more sustainable to buy local food or organic food or whether both foods are similarly sustainable. Simplified rules for sustainable behaviour can make decisions easier for consumers. An example is the pocket guide to sustainable seafood issued by Monterey Bay Aquarium's Seafood Watch program (Kemmerly & Macfarlane, 2009). Social media platforms individualize information further, particularly in online groups, where members share information relevant to their experiences (Kozinets et al., 2012).

Individualized information can also promote action by stimulating individuals to reflect and deliberate. For example, in an intervention that increased voter turnout in a UK election, canvassers used individualized persuasion on the importance and reasons for voting and posed questions that encouraged reflection about voting (John et al., 2011). The personal delivery of the voting message was important, over and above the information it conveyed.

A UK community intervention recruited local businesses to stop using plastic bags and to supply an alternative bag at cost price. This example of environmental restructuring for behaviour change (see page 38) was supported by an effective individual prompt: households received a reusable bag with information on the

campaign (Carrigan, Moraes, & Leek, 2011). Similarly, prompts such as calorie counts on menus facilitate healthy eating (Sallis & Glanz, 2009).

An Australian community intervention that provided people with individualized information on alternative transport options was associated with a reduction in car journeys (Southerton, McMeekin, & Evans, 2011). Such personalized journey planning also increased sustainable transport use in interventions by UK local authorities (House of Lords, 2011). Guidelines are common in printed forms of health behaviour change interventions, and a review of 57 studies (Noar, Benac, & Harris, 2007) showed the effectiveness of individualizing health behaviour change messages.

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of "individualizing communication": It is often unclear how long-lasting the behaviour change effects of providing individualized information are and evidence is mixed in this regard (John et al., 2011). Also, individualized communication must be credible. Finally, individualizing information requires resource investment to research the target group and establish how information needs to be tailored to the situation and needs of that group (Noar et al., 2007).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of "individualizing communication" has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Pocket guide to sustainable seafood (Kemmerly & Macfarlane, 2009); reusable bags (Carrigan et al., 2011); guides to public transport, cycle and walking routes (House of Lords, 2011; Southerton et al., 2011); a reminder tag to hang on household outdoor taps to prompt reduction in water usage (Southerton

et al., 2011); locally-designed direct marketing techniques to generate bookings for household energy evaluations (Parker, Rowlands, & Scott, 2003), positive effect of prompts on environmental behaviour change are supported in a synthesis of experimental studies (Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012).

- Health Behaviour: Providing prompts such as calorie counts on menus to facilitate healthy eating (Sallis & Glanz, 2009); the positive effects of tailoring health information are supported in a synthesis of quasi-experimental studies (Noar et al., 2007).
- Civic Behaviour: Higher voter turnout as a result of personalized information campaigns (John et al., 2011, Chapter 5); council employees asking citizens whether they would like to volunteer when citizens were calling in with complaints (John et al., 2011).

State of the evidence: Robust evidence supports this mechanism in the areas of environmental and health behaviour change; also contributing are two studies in the area of civic engagement.

PRESSURE

Two pressure mechanisms were evident in the review — social normative pressure and coercive pressure.

Use social normative pressure



Social normative pressure, or influence, refers to copying others who are seen as representing the norm (Cialdini, 2003). Social normative pressure can be thought of as following the “wisdom of the crowd”

(Cialdini, 2001): if many individuals or organizations are engaging in behaviour X, then the implication is that engaging in X makes sense. This is not necessarily a conscious decision. In a study of energy-saving behaviour, people did not attribute their behaviour change to normative influence, despite the experiment having shown that normative influence lead to the largest change in energy savings behaviour (Nolan, Schultz, Cialdini, Goldstein, & Griskevicius 2008). Informal industry-wide norms exert pressure on companies, such as when all competitors are seen to make philanthropic donations. Numerous well-designed studies indicate that normative pressure leads people to adopt positive behaviours (John et al., 2011). For instance, when the goal is to have people sign a petition, telling them that many signatures have already been collected has a positive social pressuring and reinforcing effect. A similar pattern emerges for philanthropic and energy-savings behaviours (Nolan et al., 2008). Likewise, people are more likely to register for organ donation when they receive information that this behaviour is a social norm among their peers (together with other prompts, such as celebrity endorsement) (John et al., 2011).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “using social normative pressure”: The social norm information provided needs to be both credible and truthful. In addition, the “wisdom of the crowd” is less convincing when the crowd is small. In the petitioning example described above, providing information about relatively low numbers of people (fewer than 100) who had already signed the petition had a slight negative effect on petitioning behaviour (John et al., 2011).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “using social normative pressure” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Recycling (John et al., 2011); household energy saving (Nolan et al., 2008).
- Health Behaviour: Online interventions that campaign for health behaviour changes commonly use social norms to promote behaviour change (synthesis of high-quality evidence by Cugelman et al., 2011).
- Civic Behaviour: Petitioning and financial donation (John et al., 2011); organ donation (John et al., 2011).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence supports this mechanism in the areas of environmental, health and civic behaviour changes.

Use coercive pressure

Pressure to change can also be exerted using coercive power. Coercion creates the expectation or threat of negative consequences in the form of punishment or cost if change does not occur (Burnes, 2009; Michie et al., 2011). Like normative pressure, coercion is an external influence for change. Coercive pressure may be exercised through regulatory governmental action, such as taxation and legislation, but we focus on non-regulatory interventions. Three examples of coercive interventions emerged, centered on the use of power in supply chain partnerships.

Under supply chain mandates, firms within a corporation’s production network are contractually obliged to adopt verifiable codes of conduct or be

examined by certification institutions; compliance promises future business. For example, major US first-tier suppliers complied with mandates from automakers to adopt formal environmental management systems (EMS) (Hutson, 2006). Similarly, Tesco, a major UK supermarket chain, uses certification as a tool to ensure its suppliers adhere to environmental and fair trade standards, with farmers carrying the cost of these certifications (Muller, Vermeulen, & Glasbergen, (2012). In Walmart’s networks with external stakeholders, the company used various mechanisms to create sustainable supplier practices. For example, to continue as a Walmart partner, fish suppliers were required to become certified by the Marine Stewardship Council (Plambeck & Denend, 2008).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “using coercive pressure”: Coercive pressure should be used with care because it may be counter-productive. Recipients often view such power negatively and resent it, as was the case for South African farmers with Tesco (Muller et al., 2012). Coerced behaviour change is less sustainable than change resulting from social normative pressure, or influence. Organizations and individuals that are coerced to make changes will often opt to behave otherwise as soon as they have the choice to do so (Burnes, 2009). Coercion in supply chains may be less threatening when embedded in a more developmental, collaborative approach. In a study contrasting the business strategies of Waitrose and Tesco (two large UK supermarket chains) to achieve social sustainability in fruit export chains, researchers found that, when promoting positive long-term change, a collaborative strategy was more effective than a prescriptive approach (Muller et al., 2012).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “using coercive pressure” has been studied:
Environmental Behaviour: Supply chain partnering (Hutson, 2006; Plambeck & Denend, 2008). Social Inclusion: Supply chain partnering in fruit industry, which led to both positive environmental effects and community development (Muller et al., 2012).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence exists in two social change areas.

INCENTIVIZE

Behaviour changes may be achieved without incentives, but incentives can work to motivate and reinforce behaviour. Four incentivizing mechanisms emerged from the review: setting goals, providing feedback, offering financial rewards and offering rewards centred on image, reputation and recognition.

Set goals and elicit pledges



Interventions use goal setting to direct individuals' attention toward a desired outcome to promote change. Indeed, goal-setting is one of the most effective techniques for motivating employees within organizations. Results are particularly effective when people set goals for themselves (Locke & Latham, 2002). In an example of pledging, people are asked whether they would agree to conserve energy by turning off lights each evening when leaving the office. A synthesis of experimental studies revealed that such simple pledge requests and the use of more individualized goals (see next paragraph) can effectively increase recycling and the conservation of energy, water and gasoline (Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012).

Goal setting is often used together with feedback (see the next section), especially in attempts to change health behaviour. For example, successful online website interventions for voluntary health behaviour change generally inform users about the consequences of their behaviour, encourage the setting of goals (e.g. “I will exercise each day for at least 10 minutes”), and then prompt participants to track their progress toward those goals while providing feedback on their performance (Cugelman, Thelwall and Dawes, 2011).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of incentivizing through goal setting and pledges: People must accept and commit to goals. Feedback on goal attainment increases the effectiveness of goal setting (Locke & Latham, 2002). Again, key to successful goal setting is credibility of both the message and the organization encouraging the goal setting.

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of incentivizing through goal setting and pledges has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Goal-setting and pledging interventions to lower the consumption of energy, water and gasoline and to increase recycling among households and individuals (synthesis of high-quality evidence, Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012).
- Health Behaviour: Online interventions for voluntary health behaviour change (synthesis of high-quality evidence by Cugelman et al., 2011).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence supports this mechanism in two out of the four behaviour change areas (environmental and health behaviour change).

Provide feedback



Feedback is information provided to individuals, groups or organizations about their performance or behaviour. Feedback may include a simple overall evaluation (e.g. positive or negative) or more specific information about the level of performance or the nature of the behaviour. Incentives are implicit in feedback. Positive feedback that reinforces feelings of confidence, pride and satisfaction can sustain positive behaviour change and encourage further improvements. Feedback is common in initiatives to change health behaviours. For example, many software applications motivate people through providing feedback to increase their physical activity, take breaks from work or eat healthily (Colineau & Paris, 2011). Feedback through energy usage meters (or “smart meters”) supports households in reducing their energy use. These meters allow households to try out different energy conservation techniques and to track progress, thereby enabling behaviour change (Darby, 2006). Overall, feedback is more effective than general information (as in educational programs) because people can see the results of their behaviour change.

Although feedback may often be provided by an external source (as in the use of smart meters), it may be also be intrinsic to the task (DeNisi, 2005). For instance, a project in the Philippines aimed at alleviating poverty and reforesting the landscape provided relatively quick visible feedback (extra fodder and firewood), which acted as an incentive for the community to continue its actions (Brown, Dettmann, Rinaudo, Tefera, & Tofu, 2011). Similarly, support for a coastal conservation program in the Philippines was strengthened when community participants began to

see the benefits (English, 2002). New change projects should seek quick wins to keep individuals motivated (see page 52).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “providing feedback”: Feedback generally improves performance but the effects of negative feedback are more variable. Reactions to feedback depend on the credibility of the source (Darby, 2006). General research on feedback finds that it is more effective when provided in a timely and regular manner, when the recipient sees improvement and when it is combined with goal setting (DeNisi, 2005). However, feedback does not always work as intended. For example, studies on smart meters in households used a comparison with other households’ energy consumption as a form of feedback. This dual information (one’s own energy use and neighbourhood energy use) can sometimes have negative effects (Friedrich, Amann, Vaidyanathan, & Elliot, 2010). When individuals’ behaviour exceeds that of others (e.g. less energy use), they are less inclined to work hard to conserve more energy because they feel that they are already doing their fair share (cf. John et al., 2011).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “providing feedback” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Household energy meters (Darby, 2006; Friedrich et al., 2010); community programs to promote environmental change (Brown et al., 2011; English, 2002); waste flow management in Brazilian apartment buildings (Fehr, 2009); interventions to lower consumption of energy, water and gasoline and to increase recycling among households and individuals

(synthesis of high-quality evidence, Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012).

- Health Behaviour: Applications to record and monitor health behaviours (Colineau & Paris, 2011); promoting healthy behaviours to prevent chronic disease (White, Agurto, & Araguas, 2006); online interventions for health behaviour change campaigns combining feedback with goal setting to promote behaviour change (Cugelman et al., 2011).
- Social Inclusion: Community poverty alleviation and environmental change program (English, 2002).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence supports this mechanism in two social change areas (environmental and health behaviour change).

Reward financially



The review focused on the effectiveness of direct financial rewards for adopting positive social behaviours. For example, a consumer energy-efficiency intervention gave rebates to people who purchased vehicles with low CO₂ (carbon dioxide) emissions (Friedrich et al., 2010). Contentious off-shore wind energy development projects were more easily accepted in Denmark when a scheme was introduced promoting community-based energy businesses that offered tax-free shareholdings to people in the local area along with a government-guaranteed return on the shares (Southerton et al., 2011). Financial rewards are increasingly used to motivate healthy lifestyle behaviour: e.g. incentivizing breastfeeding by offering gift vouchers; however, the impact of financial incentives on breastfeeding is unclear (Thomson, Dykes, Hurley, & Hoddinott, 2012). Although many initiatives use financial incentives, we found few studies investigating the impact of direct financial rewards.

Many initiatives offering the indirect promise of a financial payoff to motivate behaviour change also seem effective. For example, households with energy-monitoring devices used less energy (Friedrich et al., 2010), which may have been motivated by financial or environmental benefits. An industrial symbiosis initiative both reduced waste and added value by bringing together organizations that could use each other's waste products (Paquin, 2008). Also, some organizations, with an eye on financial returns, adopt sustainability practices that are publicly visible or recognized (e.g. through certification).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of "financial rewards": The disadvantage of using financial rewards is that their effects are not always predictable. People think about their behaviour and rewards in light of many factors, including their goals, self-perceptions, fairness and the opinions of others (Arnold & Randall, 2010). For example, because individuals care about their public image, they might not want to be seen as adopting a particular behaviour in exchange for a monetary reward (Ariely, Bracha, & Meier, 2009; see also the following subsection, "Reward: Recognition, reputation and image"). Behaviour change is more likely to be lasting when people rationalize that they are changing for their own reasons, not for external rewards (Arnold & Randall, 2010; Geller, 2001).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of financial rewards has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Rebate on the purchase of a vehicle with low CO₂ emissions (Friedrich et al., 2010); financial incentives to promote windfarms (Southerton et al., 2011); financial rewards to lower the consumption of energy, water and gasoline

and to increase recycling among households and individuals (synthesis of high-quality evidence, Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012).

- Health Behaviour: Use of financial incentives to increase breastfeeding is inconclusive (Thomson et al., 2012).
- Civic Engagement: Use of monetary incentives to encourage charitable giving (Ariely et al., 2009).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence supports this mechanism in two areas (environmental behaviour change and civic engagement) albeit depending on circumstances. The inconsistent results in the area of health behaviour change are likely due to failing to consider circumstances.

Reward: Recognition, reputation and image



Compared to financial rewards, incentives based on recognition, reputation and image do not incur costs to the organization seeking to stimulate change. These mechanisms can motivate behaviour change in organizations and individuals.

Recognition positively reinforces individual behaviours, for example by enhancing feelings of self-esteem and goal achievement. Image motivation refers to individuals' pursuing social approval by exhibiting behaviours they believe others will view positively (John et al., 2011: page 79). Ariely et al. (2009) argued that people's pro-social behaviour is enhanced when it occurs in public rather than in private. For example, pledging and donations to charity are more likely when the behaviour is made public (Ariely et al., 2009; John et al., 2011: page 79). Similarly, organizations are more

likely to adopt sustainable practices when doing so is recognized publicly through certification or membership in credible institutions such as Business for Social Responsibility (Tashman & Rivera, 2010).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of recognition, reputation and image-based rewards: The choice and mix of appropriate incentives is crucial. Ariely et al. (2009) found that using both monetary incentives and public recognition deterred people from making public donations because it jarred with their altruistic personal image. Monetary incentives did not, however, affect privately made donations.

Behaviour change areas where the reward mechanisms of recognition, reputation and image have been studied:

- Civic Behaviour: The combination of pledging and donating with public recognition (Ariely et al., 2009; John et al., 2011); the overall likelihood of business to engage in corporate social responsibility (Tashman & Rivera, 2010).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence supports this mechanism in one of the four social change areas (civic engagement).

Create Opportunities for Actors to Change

Set up empowering structures & resources

- Create inclusive governance structures
- Create transparency
- Enable access to resources*

Use and build social relationships

- Build bridging relations
- Build supportive relationships

Restructure the environment

- Change physical or social context*

* Mechanisms most clearly supported by research.

Create Opportunities for Actors to Change

Opportunity-based mechanisms target the situation or context where people and organizations act. Behaviour change is more likely when the situation makes it easier for people to behave differently. Opportunity-based mechanisms enable behaviour change by removing constraints and barriers, providing resources (both tangible, such as financing, and intangible, such as information and social relationships) and structuring the environment to “nudge” people into changing their behaviour. Enhancing opportunities for behaviour change has a positive effect on the motivation to change.

SET UP EMPOWERING STRUCTURES AND RESOURCES

Create inclusive governance structures

Participation is a potent tool to empower individuals. Inclusive governance structures⁴ allow individuals and organizations to participate in decisions that impact them and ensure that their participation affects the outcomes of those decisions. For instance, Walmart created the sustainability network to green its supply chain. It then built an inclusive governance structure for this network including its suppliers, Walmart staff and NGOs, such as the Marine Stewardship Council (Plambeck & Denend, 2008). In another example, a government-supported community initiative (Sure Start) to promote social inclusion and help disadvantaged

children created local partnership boards, which included representation from the municipal council and parents. These boards decided on resource use and oversaw the implementation of new initiatives (Bagley & Ackerley, 2006). Inclusive governance structures are particularly important where positive social change arises from linking individual change to collective action (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006), as individuals must help set the change agenda if they are to enact it. Social media can create bottom-up, inclusive virtual platforms to drive social change (Kozinets, Belz, and McDonagh, 2012).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “creating inclusive governance structures”: Inclusive governance structures incorporate empowerment into social change projects. However, people also need to have the skills to exercise this decision-making authority, which is why the Sure Start initiative trained parents in committee skills before setting up the local partnership boards.

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “creating inclusive governance structures” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Walmart’s sustainability networks (Plambeck & Denend, 2008); a community-led deforestation and carbon-sequestering project in Ethiopia succeeded after a community cooperative was formed, jointly owning the land for the project (Brown et al., 2011); local community ownership of water sources enables their sustainable use (Partzsch & Ziegler, 2011).
- Social Inclusion: Sure Start community program (Bagley & Ackerley, 2006; Hutchings et al., 2007;

⁴ We use the term governance to refer broadly to the bodies and processes that have the power to yield authoritative decisions for a group of people, project or organization.

NESS, 2010); community organizations that empower and legally represent economically marginalized individuals and neighbourhoods (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006).

- Civic Engagement: Community organizations that organize and educate local residents for effective political participation (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006).

State of the evidence: Weak supportive evidence in three of the four social change areas (environmental behaviour change, social inclusion and civic engagement).

Create transparency

Transparency is created when relevant information is communicated about the change processes, the status quo and the future goals (e.g. Spreitzer, 1996). Transparency is a powerful tool for empowering people and organizations to change, particularly when inclusive governance structures are not possible. Access to information allows individuals to see the “bigger picture” and improves both their understanding of their situation and the impact of their actions — in short, information sharing empowers people to act. For instance, the shareholder activism movement enabled greater transparency and thereby strengthened investor rights (Rao, 2009). Transparency is closely related to feedback and education; but, while feedback provides specific, personalized information relative to a standard (“how one did”), transparency has a broader application and is not personalized. Transparency differs from education by providing information on how decisions are made, rather than informing people on a certain societal issue.

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “creating transparency”: Some information, particularly personal and sensitive information, cannot be shared (Searce, Kasper, & McLeod Grant, 2010). When powerful people share information, they may lose some of their negotiation power. Thus, transparency requires that the more powerful party change its mindset. For instance, Walmart’s supply chain initiative required the retail giant to disclose information on its internal processes, thereby weakening its position in relation to its suppliers (Plambeck & Denend, 2008).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “creating transparency” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Walmart shared information with its network of suppliers and non-profit organizations in its efforts to green its supply chain (Plambeck & Denend, 2008); creating transparency about supply chains and the sourcing of produce via open-source web platforms motivated businesses to change their procurement practices (Bonanni, 2010); transparency empowered consumers to make more sustainable choices (Bonanni, 2010; Kozinets et al., 2012).
- Social Inclusion: Advocacy-based organizations stimulated social change by making information publicly available (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006).
- Civic Engagement: Citizens were provided with information about the municipal budget process and the background of municipal finance to increase civic engagement in Bangalore, India (Raman, 2006).

State of the evidence: Weak supportive evidence in three of the four social change areas (environmental behaviour change, social inclusion and civic engagement).

Enable access to resources



Behaviour change often requires that individuals have access to resources. Most studies focused on access to financial resources. The prime example are microfinance programs, which enable access to finance by using social collateral as the basis of credit extended mostly to women living in poverty, helping them to engage in business activities and eventually reduce (income) poverty (e.g. Bernasek, 2003; Mosley & Rock, 2004). Micro-health insurance enables social change indirectly by providing insurance against costly health risks to people living in poverty. Examples from the developed world include community interventions, such as the UK-based government-supported program (Sure Start) that funded local councils and communities to work together to develop tailor-made interventions for increased social inclusion. Sure Start targeted health behaviour changes, parenting and antisocial behaviour in order to support disadvantaged children (Bagley & Ackerley, 2006; Hutchings et al., 2007; NESS, 2010).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of enabling access to resources: Microfinance research shows that providing resources cannot, on its own, create social change. The other two determinants of behaviour change, motivation and capability, also need to be present. Although microfinance borrowers are usually motivated to change (i.e. to create a business), many lack the capabilities to do so. Microfinance programs achieve the best results when combined with capability-building (i.e. education, training and building self-efficacy) (e.g. Bernasek, 2003). Research findings suggest that the very poorest people might not benefit from microfinance as much as those who are less poor.

The poorest people need both more flexibility in the way the credit is supplied and more capability development (e.g. Milgram, 2001; Mosley & Rock, 2004).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “enabling access to resources” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: When a community banned plastic bags, a free reusable bag was sent to every household (Carrigan et al., 2011).
- Health Behaviour: Provision of micro-health insurance and low-cost standardized health care to those in need (Christensen, Baumann, Ruggles, & Sadtler, 2006).
- Social Inclusion: Provision of microfinance to people living in poverty (e.g. Bernasek, 2003; Milgram, 2001, 2005; Mosley, 2001; Mosley & Rock, 2004; Seelos & Mair, 2006); the UK’s Sure Start program united local councils and communities to address health behaviours, parenting skills and antisocial behaviour (Bagley & Ackerley, 2006; Hutchings et al., 2007; NESS, 2008, 2010).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence supports this mechanism in two of the four behaviour change areas (health behaviours and social inclusion).

USE AND BUILD SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS (SOCIAL CAPITAL)

Social capital is the ability to access resources through social relationships. It arises from the goodwill that social relationships build (Adler & Kwon, 2002). We discuss two types of social capital: building bridging relationships (so-called weak ties) and building supportive and cohesive, bonding relationships (so-called strong ties).

Build bridging relationships (weak ties)

Building bridging relationships, or building social capital with weak ties, enables contact and collaboration among diverse and previously unconnected people (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Granovetter, 1973). It is closely related to issues of diversity and tolerance of others — in other words, building an inclusive society. Creating joint projects gives groups previously at odds a reason to cooperate and thereby creates weak ties and societal integration (Praszkier, Nowak, and Coleman, 2010). For instance, community projects in Poland overcame generational conflicts, and Jewish–Arab conflicts eased in a community after a highly desirable school allowed the two ethnicities to bond over information technology (IT) education. Social media are a potentially powerful, although largely untested, tool for connecting individuals from diverse backgrounds. Participation is made easier because social media can transcend socioeconomic boundaries (Kozinets et al., 2012; Searce et al., 2010).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “building bridging relationships”: A potential drawback of social media is that they exclude certain disadvantaged segments of the population, such as older people and people living in poverty – although they can transcend other socio-economic boundaries.

Behaviour change areas where the strategy of building bridging relationships has been studied:

- Health Behaviour: A community program to lower rates of teen pregnancy enabled individuals to build new networks across the community and among different community groups, which contributed to the success of the intervention (Goldberg, Frank, Bekenstein, Garrity, & Ruiz, 2011).

- Social Inclusion: Social entrepreneurs connected diverse groups and reduced both ethnic and generational conflicts (Praszkier et al., 2010); U.S. community organizations achieved social change by shifting existing networks among individuals to create new ties across groups (Wolfe, 2006).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this mechanism in two of the four social change areas (health behaviour change and social inclusion). Evidence on the effects of social media is conflicting.

Build supportive, bonding relationships (strong ties)

Building bonding relationships, or building social capital with strong ties, refers to the creation of cohesion and trust within small groups (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Granovetter, 1973). This type of social capital enables social support among group members, making social change possible and sustaining it. Successful microfinance initiatives build mutual support and trust among the those in the borrowing group (e.g. Bernasek, 2003). Members support each other on multiple issues, from how to best run their businesses to their children’s education and nutrition, thereby indirectly stimulating social change. Cohesive groups can also become a financial resource, such as when one person has difficulty making a loan repayment. Bonding social capital can also become the source of collective action, as when borrowers directly challenged Russian authorities’ corrupt activities (Mosley, Olejarova, & Alexeeva, 2004).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “building supportive relationships”: Social capital in the form of support networks takes time to create. Consequently,

initiatives that build on pre-existing networks seem to be the most successful (e.g. Mosley et al., 2004). Cohesion can also have a downside: highly cohesive groups may exclude outsiders, and group pressure may disadvantage those group members who are less well off. For instance, microfinance programs seem to be less likely to succeed when borrowers' status differences are not taken into account when forming the groups (Milgram, 2001, 2005).

Behaviour change areas where “building supportive relationships” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Leveraging networks among farmers helped them to support and learn from each other to improve water quality (Blackstock, Ingram, Burton, Brown, & Slee, 2010); a sense of community among farmers helped to create and sustain a movement to raise grass-fed cattle (Weber et al., 2008).
- Health Behaviour: An intervention to introduce safe sex practices among Indian sex workers was successfully sustained due to the sex workers' close-knit and socially supportive relationships (Campbell & Cornish, 2011).
- Social Inclusion: Microfinance initiatives brought borrowers together, building strong relationships and a supportive community (e.g. Bernasek, 2003; Mosley et al., 2004; Seelos & Mair, 2006).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this mechanism in three of the four behaviour change areas (environmental and health behaviour change as well as social inclusion). In particular, research on micro-finance highlights important circumstances impacting the effectiveness of this mechanism.

RESTRUCTURE THE ENVIRONMENT: CHANGE THE PHYSICAL OR SOCIAL CONTEXT



Environmental restructuring refers to shaping the context in which individuals and organizations act to make it easier to engage in sustainable behaviour. That is, these interventions “nudge” individuals into changing their behaviour by making the more sustainable behaviour the easier choice. In one intervention, all local businesses in a community collectively banned plastic bags and instead provided more sustainable bags (Carrigan et al., 2011). Similarly, supermarkets successfully introduced eco-checkouts, which placed recycling containers in prominent places where they were more likely to be used (Santos, 2008). Organ donation registration increased when people were required to opt out of a default option (by un-ticking the voluntary donation option) instead of opting in (John et al., 2011).

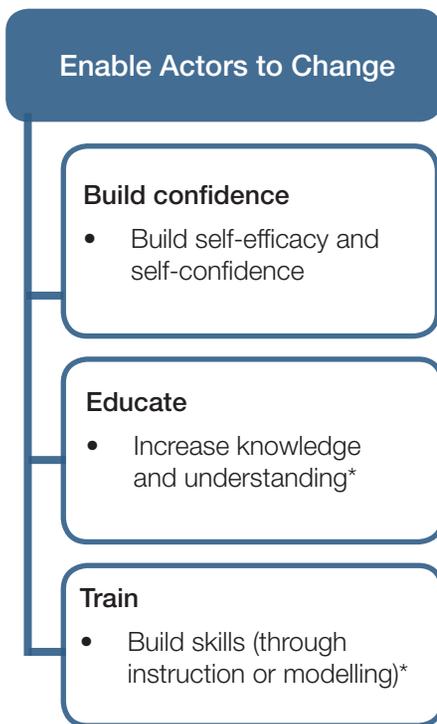
Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “restructuring the environment”: This strategy seems to be particularly effective when the cost of the behaviour to the individual is low and consequently the individual is willing to make a spontaneous decision. Recycling is an easy activity to engage in once the opportunity is provided. Furthermore, the effectiveness of default options (where compliance is assumed, unless the opt-out choice is requested, as in the organ donation example) is likely influenced by the credibility of the organizations providing those options (see also pages 26 and 62). Consumers may trust NGOs or local authorities to provide default options with society's best interests in mind, but may be more suspicious when default options are introduced by businesses.

Behaviour change areas where “environmental restructuring” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Banning of plastic bags (Carrigan et al., 2011); installing eco-checkouts in supermarkets (Santos, 2008); making bikes available for short hires in prominent places encouraged a new category of people to take up cycling (Southerton et al., 2011); an industrial symbiosis project created a suitable local infrastructure to enable the coordination of waste streams (Paquin, 2008); restructuring the environment made it easier to engage in pro-environmental behaviour, successfully lowering energy and water consumption and increasing recycling among households and individuals (synthesis of high-quality evidence, Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012).

- Health Behaviour: Physical environments were designed to encourage exercise (Cornell et al., 2009; Sallis & Glanz, 2009); healthy food options were provided in schools and workplaces (Hunt et al., 2007; Vos & Welsh, 2010). Social Inclusion: Local work opportunities were created for residents of a drug rehabilitation service (Perrini, Vurro, & Costanzo, 2010).
- Civic Engagement: Opt-in and opt-out options were used when asking for donations, but results were mixed (John et al., 2011).

State of the evidence: Robust support supports this mechanism in the area of environmental behaviour. Evidence is weak for the other three areas (health behaviour, social inclusion and civic engagement).



Enable Actors to Change

Capability-based mechanisms ensure that people have the necessary confidence, knowledge and skills to successfully engage in new behaviours. These mechanisms represent an involved, i.e. more participatory and engaged, approach that empowers people to make their own decisions. For example, environmental sustainability programs found that people are more likely to support conservation efforts when they understand the environmental consequences of their previously unsustainable behaviours, such as dynamite fishing (English, 2002). Local buy-in further increases when people acquire the knowledge and skills to use land more sustainably, such as learning the techniques of farmer-managed natural regeneration (FMNR) (Brown et al., 2011) or becoming familiar with alternative income generation such as tourism (English, 2002). Empowering individuals through increasing their confidence, through educating them and through training are the three mechanisms contributing to people's overall capability to change. Training is closely related to empowerment because it builds confidence (page 42). After people have gained the skills to change their behaviour, they are more likely to feel empowered. Training also relates to education (page 43) as understanding and knowledge about issues often comprise part of training and forms a necessary foundation for building skills.

BUILD SELF-EFFICACY AND SELF-CONFIDENCE

People who lack a sense of efficacy, or self-confidence, are unlikely to try new behaviours. Self-efficacy is

a person's belief in his or her ability to successfully engage in a particular behaviour (Bandura, 1977). Thus, self-efficacious people are more motivated to try new behaviours, are less easily put off by barriers and setbacks and see more opportunities to change. Hence, self-efficacy also positively influences individuals' motivation and their opportunities to change (see Figure 3).

The Collaborative HIV Prevention and Adolescent Mental Health Project-South Africa (CHAMPS) used interactive workshops to build self-efficacy in the participants and their families. Participants discussed how to engage in positive behaviours and overcome barriers, thereby strengthening their beliefs that they could handle the necessary actions (Bell, Bhana, McKay, & Petersen, 2007).

Self-efficacy is most effectively enhanced by past experiences of success. Hence, creating quick and small wins builds self-efficacy. Other routes to enhance self-efficacy are modelling and encouragement from others. Modelling refers to seeing others successfully engaging in the desired behaviour. Participants in natural resource management in South Africa learned from a similar community that had crafted resource management solutions (Oetli, Arendse, Koelle, and Van Der Poll (2004).

Encouragement from others can also strengthen self-efficacy. Microfinance programs achieve social change partly by encouraging women to engage in business activities (e.g. Bernasek, 2003). Programs that showcase successful members can boost participants' self-efficacy when they share how to operate a business and how to deal with their husbands to be able to put

the earned income to good use (e.g. children's health, education and family nutrition).

Efficacy can be built through participant ownership and delivery of programmes in their communities as this typically allows participants to gradually develop their skills, observe others and receive encouragement.

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of "building confidence": Attempts to build self-efficacy can stumble when resources or capabilities are not also present. In such cases, people might try the behaviour but fail, which discourages future attempts. Enhancing self-efficacy through modelling is most effective when the model is similar to participants: ideally, their peer.

Behaviour change areas where "building confidence" has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Confidence in being able to perform new sustainability practices (English, 2002; Brown, 2011).
- Health Behaviours: Community HIV prevention programs (Bell et al., 2007).
- Social Inclusion: Microfinance projects (Bernasek, 2003); conflict resolution (Praszkie et al., 2010).
- Civic Engagement: Advocacy for mental health treatments (Borkman & Munn-Giddings, 2008).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this mechanism in all four social change areas.

EDUCATE: INCREASE KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING



Education, typically by providing information, is commonly used to encourage behaviour changes,

especially changes in health and environmental behaviours. Education includes efforts to increase a person's understanding of an issue, such as by explaining the need to recycle and the repercussions of unsustainable lifestyles. This understanding can then guide future decisions and behaviour. Education facilitates proactive and involved decision-making and behaviour. In Bangalore, India, the local government increased its financial transparency, and a community organization promoted civic engagement by educating citizens about the budgeting process (Raman, 2006). Education is particularly important when people cannot clearly see the results of their behaviours. For example, farmers do not see the downstream environmental impact of polluting the waterways (Blackstock et al., 2010).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of "educating": Education alone is rarely successful; it needs to be combined with other interventions, such as providing individuals with the actual skills and confidence to behave differently, increasing their motivation or removing barriers to the preferred behaviour. For example, education campaigns alone were found to have had little or no effect on household energy consumption and could be costly (Darby, 2006). However, education is important when used with other strategies, so that people understand the most effective ways to reduce energy consumption and can see the results of their efforts via feedback.

Behaviour change areas where "educating" has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Waste management in industry through industrial symbiosis where one organization's waste is an input for another

organization's production (Paquin, 2008); sustainable land use in forestry and farming (Blackstock et al., 2010); education on the reasons to engage in environmental behaviour successfully reduced energy and water consumption and increased recycling among households and individuals (synthesis of high-quality evidence, Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012).

- Health Behaviours: Providing facts around prevention of disease including HIV and heart disease (White et al., 2006); education is an effective component of online website interventions to promote health behaviour change in the areas of smoking, drinking, obesity and diabetes (synthesis of high-quality evidence, Cugelman et al., 2011).
- Social Inclusion: Educating microfinance borrowers about finance, entrepreneurship and markets (Bernasek, 2003).
- Civic Engagement: A journalist's guide educating about responsible reporting of domestic abuse (Ryan, Anastario, & DaCunha, 2006); educating about local government spending in Bangalore (Raman, 2006).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence supports the mechanism in two of the four social change areas (environmental and health behaviour change). Weak evidence exists in the other two areas (social inclusion and civic engagement).

TRAIN: BUILD SKILLS



Sometimes people cannot change their behaviour because they lack the skills to make the needed changes. In such instances, training is an appropriate strategy. Training and skill building can also develop

social capital: groups take part, resulting in a shared positive experience and new connections (see page 38). Training can be direct instruction (e.g. workshops or classes) or modelling (where people learn from watching others undertake the new behaviours).

One key ingredient of the positive deviance approach, described on pages 71 to 79 (Pascale, Sternin, & Sternin, 2010), is training in the form of direct instruction (e.g. to fight malnutrition, community members taught others how to create nutritious meals and how to find the ingredients for these meals). Teachers could build on models from within the community, who already display the target behaviours and whose children were better nourished. Such recognition of “positive deviance” is a particularly effective approach for behaviour change.

Modelling can facilitate skills building as well as empower people by building self-efficacy (see page 42). Business for Social Responsibility (BSR), a business association, brought organizations together to improve their sustainability. Members typically are motivated to engage in responsibility but lack the skills to do so. BSR brings members together and showcases firms with strong social responsibility efforts as models for less experienced firms. In another example, an intervention promoting positive parenting skills demonstrated the value of modelling and skill building (Hutchings et al., 2007). The intervention involved role-play exercises, which enabled parents to see others performing positive behaviours and let them practise new skills. The intervention also included videotaping of parents' behaviour, giving them an opportunity for feedback and reflection.

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “training”: Models are most effective when they are similar to the participant and when the participant receives feedback and time for reflection. In addition, resources need to be available for the behaviour to be carried out (as discussed for enhancing self-efficacy). For example, an intervention to encourage health behaviours provided cooking lessons for women in their 50s and asked local food stores to stock healthy ingredients; otherwise, the women would have been unable to exercise their new skills (Cornell et al., 2009).

Behaviour change areas where the strategy of training has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Sustainable farming practices (Oetl et al., 2004); the emergence of the for-profit recycling industry was facilitated by community organizations teaching waste-sorting skills to householders (Lounsbury et al., 2003); instructing and modelling were successful in reducing energy, water and gasoline consumption and increasing recycling among households and individuals (synthesis of high-quality evidence, Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012).

- Health Behaviours: Healthy cooking instruction was used to prevent the spread of disease (Cornell et al., 2009); skill building can be an effective component of online website interventions to promote health behaviour change (synthesis of high-quality evidence, Cugelman et al., 2011).
- Social Inclusion: Microfinance interventions that are accompanied by trainings for entrepreneurial skills (e.g. Bernasek, 2003); conflict resolution (Praszkier et al., 2010); training parenting skills in the Sure Start program to aid social inclusion (e.g. Hutchings et al., 2007).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence exists in three of the four social change areas (environmental behaviour, health behaviour and social inclusion).

effective organizing for social change: project organizing practices

Because social change is complex and uncertain, social change projects must be managed effectively. This section describes best practices for running a social change project. It shows how to motivate project staff and stakeholders and build project resources and capabilities.

We began our review by looking for successful social change mechanisms. While reviewing the literature, it became clear that another aspect of creating social change also deserves attention —how social change projects are organized. Thus, the social change mechanisms described in the previous section indicate what to do to achieve social change, whereas the organizing practices described in this section capture how to achieve social change. Creating social change is a complex and uncertain endeavour (see pages 13 to 16). Thus, how social change projects are organized affects the successful use of social change mechanisms (pages 23 to 45).

We use “project” to refer to any business or other organization. We acknowledge that social change projects vary on many dimensions, including by their size, their instigators, their target populations and their results. We concentrate in this section on the best practices that we found to be common to most social change projects.

Organizing practices for social change can be classified along the same key components as social change mechanisms. That is, organizing practices can be categorized as being motivation-based, capability-based or opportunity-based (see Figure 6). These practices can complement social change mechanisms (pages 23 to 45), but do not need to. For instance, the social change mechanism of education is more effective when the social change project uses a systems approach that considers local knowledge and builds on existing strengths. By using this approach, the individuals targeted in change efforts receive knowledge that is relevant to their local context and that they can put to use because it builds on their existing knowledge.

However, it is vital that project organizing practices simultaneously address all three key components of social change. That is, project practices need to ensure that the staff and stakeholders of the change project are motivated to start and continue the project (page 50). Any change project must have continued access to resources, must create opportunities to deliver social change (page 55) and must be capable of delivering social change (page 61).

Figure 6

ORGANIZING PRACTICES DESCRIBING “HOW” TO DELIVER SOCIAL CHANGE

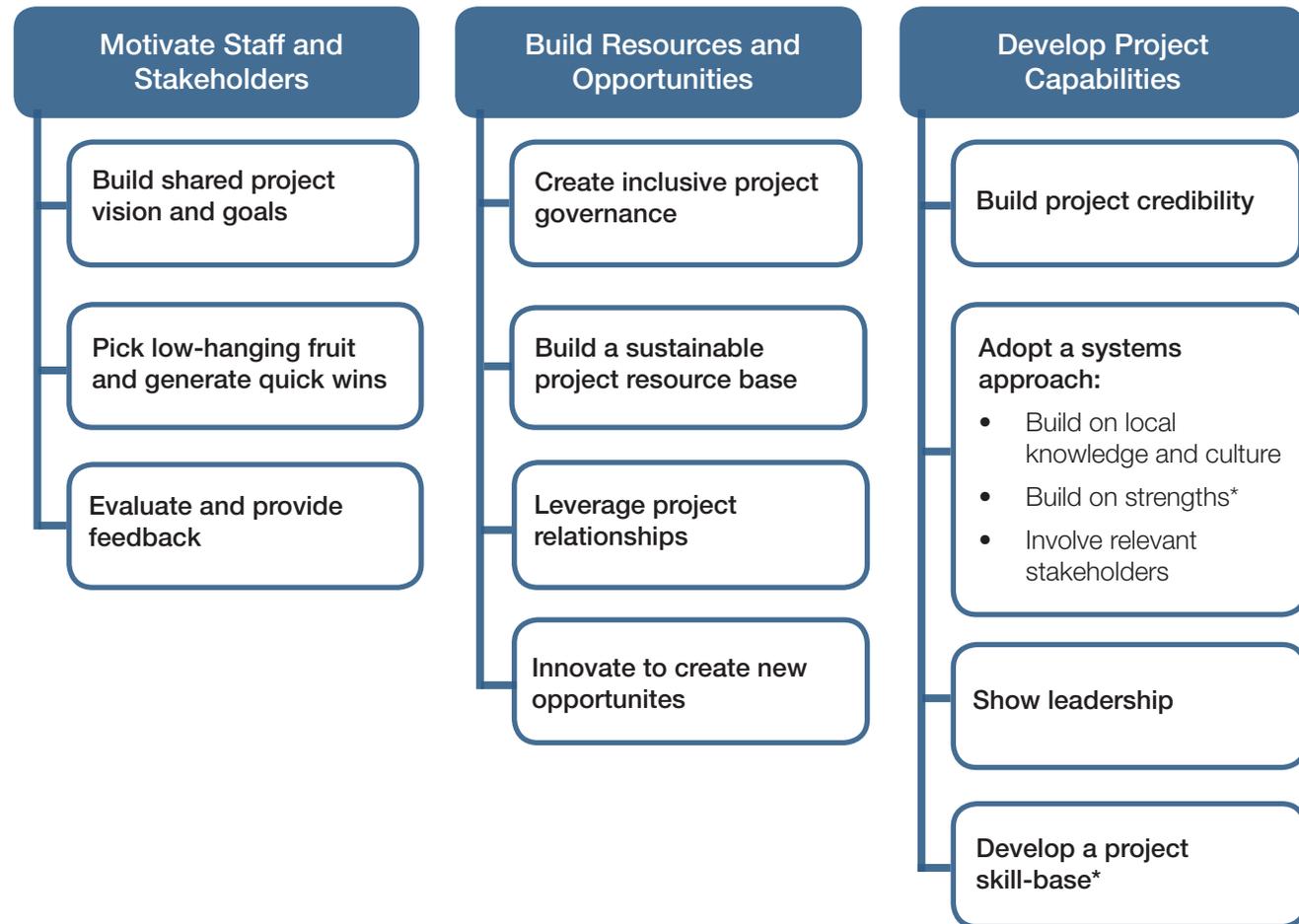


Figure 7 on the following page shows an overview of 13 effective organizing practises for delivering social change. We describe each practice in turn, provide a definition of the practice, then note circumstances

impacting the effectiveness of the practice and summarize empirical support. Please see page 75 for details on sequencing the various project practices and crafting a successful overall social change strategy.

Figure 7:

OVERVIEW OF ORGANIZING PRACTICES TO DELIVER SOCIAL CHANGE



* Mechanisms most clearly supported by research.



Motivate Project Staff and Stakeholders to Deliver Change

Motivation-based project practices focus on creating and maintaining motivation among project partners, staff and volunteers, which is essential for the effective delivery of social change projects. Motivation needs to be sustained over the period of time required to create social change. We identified three practices that capture how social change projects can become and stay motivated: by building a shared project vision and goals; by creating opportunities for early successes (quick wins) through targeting “low-hanging fruit” – a strategy that can also be useful to re-kindle motivation throughout the project; and by continuously evaluating project progress and providing progress feedback to project members.

BUILD A SHARED PROJECT VISION AND GOALS

Project members (partners, staff, volunteers) need to share a clear vision of what the project aspires to achieve. Such a vision motivates project members by providing a meaningful overall goal and a sense of a positive collective identity (Kania & Kramer, 2011). Such a sense of common purpose can also lead to efficient coordination within the project and clarity around the specific goals and actions needed to achieve change (Watson-Thompson, Fawcett, & Schultz, 2008). Change projects create shared project visions through negotiation, strategic planning and co-creation by immersion in a project partner’s local context.

Negotiation. A shared vision of the change project may be negotiated between partners. For example, the Grameen Danone social business joint venture resulted from direct negotiation by the two partners’ CEOs (Yunus, 2010). Creating and communicating a shared vision for large and distributed (e.g. web-based) projects can be difficult. A multi-step approach can help to create alliances, as was the case in the creation of the Canadian Treatment Advocates Council (Maguire, Hardy, & Lawrence, 2004).

Strategic planning represents a more formal type of negotiation. For instance, a community change project used a one-day strategic planning workshop and subsequent consultation to clarify its common vision, goals and strategies for reducing crime and poverty and improving housing and youth development (Watson-Thompson et al., 2008).

Co-creation by immersion in one project partner’s local context was a successful strategy for SC Johnson. The company’s staff lived in the Nairobi slum where they planned to build a base-of-the-pyramid venture to support the slum’s citizens. The SC Johnson staff first developed an understanding of the local partners’ context and how they could add value and then worked with the local community to co-create the project and its vision (Johnson, 2007). Similarly, the UK-based supermarket chain Waitrose created the Waitrose Foundation with South African farmers, importers and exporters, who together negotiated a common vision and goals. These shaped how the Waitrose Foundation would create social impact (Muller et al., 2012).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “building a shared project vision and goals”: The shared project vision and goals will be effective motivators only when they are regularly and clearly communicated to all project members. The vision and goals should be consistent and all goals should work together (rather than being in conflict with each other). For instance, short-term measurable goals must be consistent with long-term outcome goals. Vision and goals are communicated most effectively by those with seniority and influence. In effective collaborations, meetings are attended by senior staff, as opposed to attendance by lower-level staff, who have less influence and authority (Kania & Kramer, 2011). Shared vision and goals can also help with other areas of good practice. When diverse groups share a vision, it can be easier to mobilize resources (see also page 55). A review of business-led social change projects found that the projects that failed suffered from a lack of trust - the business partners were not seen to be equally committed to the same social goals as the NGOs (Ashman, 2001).

Vision and goals can change over time. Thus, a project’s vision and goals need to be re-assessed at regular intervals. A crime-reduction program in California drew enthusiasm for changing legislation around gun sales; however, when gang-related violence subsided, the goal was less motivating and the project ceased (Wolfe, 2006)

Behaviour change areas where the strategy of building a shared project vision and goals has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: A project banning plastic bags from a small town created a shared vision among local businesses of a plastic bag-free town (Carrigan et al., 2011); creating a common vision for a cleaner Elizabeth River motivated a cross-sector

cleanup effort (Kania & Kramer, 2011). Health Behaviour: The Canadian Treatment Advocates Council for improving HIV/AIDS treatment was created after a common vision and goals were negotiated through an inclusive process with diverse stakeholders (Maguire et al., 2004); a breastfeeding promotion was more effective where the team had a clear and common focus on delivering the policy and was not distracted by internal change issues (Hoddinott, Britten, & Pill, 2010).

- Social Inclusion: School-community partnerships brought together local stakeholders from diverse sectors to negotiate the partnerships’ visions and work toward mutually beneficial goals (Williams et al., 1996); influencing actions within leading UK supermarkets’ supply chains were more effective when actors took a collaborative, shared-values approach rather than a top-down approach (Muller et al., 2012); strategic planning was used to define community coalitions (Watson-Thompson et al., 2008); despite hardships, a Mexican union stayed strong and united by having a clear vision and goals (Johnston, 2004); a community foundation enabled the negotiation of a shared vision for a community crime reduction program around gun control (Wolfe, 2006); a common vision is effectively developed in business-NGO joint ventures addressing poverty and health issues through negotiation (e.g., clean water for rural areas in Grameen Veolia joint venture, Yunus, 2010; Yunus, Moingeon, & Lehmann-Ortega, 2010) or local immersion and stakeholder negotiation (SC Johnson Kibera joint venture, Johnson, 2007); in the cross-sector

partnership STRIVE, a common “cradle-to-career” vision helped to align partners and stakeholders to improve education in Cincinnati (Kania & Kramer, 2011).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in three social change areas (environmental behaviour, health behaviour and social inclusion).

PICK LOW-HANGING FRUIT AND GENERATE QUICK WINS

Picking “low-hanging fruit” and generating “quick wins” are ways of gaining positive outcomes with relatively little investment of resources or time, thereby creating or rekindling motivation among project members. Quick wins can help to motivate project members in later phases of the project or when the change process seems “stuck,” and they generate momentum for the project in the start-up phase. For example, the community foundation tackling crime in California initially targeted local gun sales legislation. These efforts required small investments, but generated an early project impact. Through the concerted effort of more than 20 cities, 49 local ordinances were passed within a year, and the number of gun retailers dropped from 500 to three (Wolfe, 2006: 132). Similarly, people renovating their houses are “low-hanging” targets for energy-conservation measures, such as insulating walls and attics. Because they are already upgrading their house, little extra effort is required (Cabinet Office Behavioural Insights Team, 2011). Households that have recently moved are ideal targets for public transport information because they have not yet developed other transportation habits (Cabinet Office Behavioural Insights Team, 2011).

Low-hanging fruit can also be found in areas with large margins for potential change. For example, households with relatively high energy usage have more opportunities to reduce their energy use (Friedrich et al., 2010). These households were also more motivated by feedback from smart meters, since small changes made to their energy behaviour resulted in substantial drops in energy use. Positive results in the early phase of a change project motivate project members and strengthen their beliefs that they are on the right track. The importance of such early positive feedback for project members cannot be underestimated. Most social change projects have an inherent uncertainty, making the best course of intervention often unclear and open to debate. Early successes, or quick wins, can align project members and provide needed momentum.

Small pilot studies are another way to generate quick wins, while limiting risk and resource investments. They can also be an effective way to generate innovations and make them “workable” through fine-tuning (see page 60). An interactive web-based supply chain map was tested with a group of small businesses to gain early feedback (Bonanni, 2010).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “picking low-hanging fruit and generating quick wins”: Projects that generate quick wins and target low-hanging fruit increase the motivation of both project members and stakeholders. However, by their very nature, these strategies may be difficult to scale up: increasing a small pilot project to a large-scale change can involve fundamentally different processes.

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “picking low-hanging fruit and generating quick wins” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Targeting high-energy users as low-hanging fruit (Friedrich et al., 2010); generating early feedback for supply-chain technology (Bonanni, 2010); targeting recently moved households for insulation upgrades and sustainable transport use (Cabinet Office Behavioural Insights Team, 2011).
- Social Inclusion: Targeting gun availability as a low-cost quick win to reduce gang violence (Wolfe, 2006).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in two social change areas (environmental behaviour and social inclusion).

EVALUATE AND PROVIDE FEEDBACK

Feedback and evaluation provide information about the progress of the project toward its goals. Ongoing evaluation and feedback have two closely intertwined functions: to motivate project members and to make the project manageable.

1. As a motivating function, evaluation and feedback, in the form of tracking trends, make the changes visible and allow those involved in the project to see the differences they have made. Positive trends should be communicated and celebrated to bolster project members’ motivation.
2. Evaluation and feedback make the project

manageable by helping project organizers to make sense of the often uncertain and complex change process (see pages 13 to 16). By continuously tracking key indicators for achieving change, organizers can receive an early warning that some interventions might not be working and have time to respond appropriately.

In addition, the process of building collective agreement on how to evaluate the project, including which indicators to track, can further clarify the common vision and goals (see page 50); tracking progress further reinforces the shared vision (Kania & Kramer, 2011). For instance, the STRIVE network for improving student education and achievement developed 21 key benchmarks,⁵ which enabled community partnerships to track progress, bringing transparency to the long-term, multiple-stakeholder process and allowing stakeholders to see their contribution.

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “evaluate and provide feedback.” Tracking both qualitative and quantitative indicators is valuable. Qualitative information, such as stakeholders’ opinions and feelings, can provide rich and context-specific information. For example, SC Johnson initiated a new social business together with local community members in Kibera, Nigeria, to provide health and economic benefits (Johnson, 2007). The social business set certain targets, which were not met, but feedback and evaluation provided insights that subsequently led to improvements. One insight was that female front-line staff were more successful, in part because

⁵ STRIVE was first active in Cincinnati (see page 58) and subsequently developed the STRIVE network to allow communities throughout the United States to improve education (see <http://strivenetwork.org/vision-roadmap/key-benchmarks>).

householders trusted them and were comfortable letting them enter their homes. The qualitative evaluation also showed unintended social benefits, such as increasing the employability of the local youth sales force. In their words: “We don’t know what we don’t know, but we do know we are learning a great deal” (Johnson, 2007: 15).

Objective measures, such as energy usage or the income levels of microfinance borrowers, can be used to compare different project sites or graph trends over time. Collecting both qualitative and objective measures also helps to avoid overly focusing on specific targets rather than working toward the overall vision of creating social change. For instance, when measures are overly simplistic or are proxy measures for actual social change (for example, measuring how many people view a web page on environmental behaviours but not measuring their subsequent changes in environmental behaviours), project members risk focusing on that narrow target rather than on the overall desired social change. This kind of faulty measure focus can become problematic when used to control project funding because it disadvantages more complex social change projects where change is difficult to measure (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006). Also, results may not be obvious in the short term but may have strong long-term impacts. Thus, project evaluation must balance qualitative and quantitative approaches and long- and short-term impact measures.

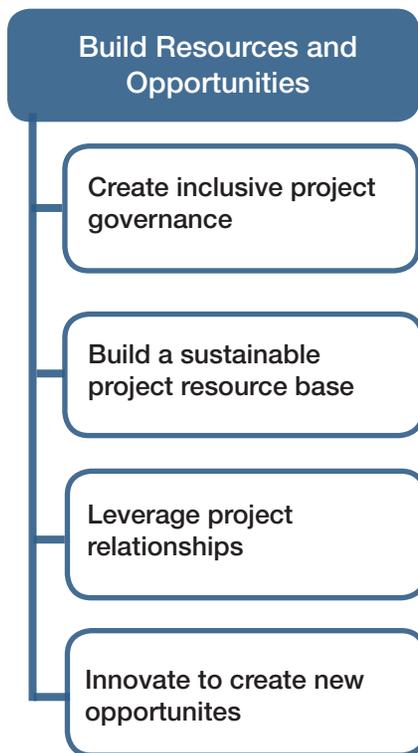
Evaluation and feedback are often bypassed because they can be time-consuming and resource-heavy. However, new web technologies and methods of manipulating data can reduce the burden of collecting

information and provide information in real-time. Finally, evaluation and feedback are useful tools to build the credibility of change projects (see page 60) by signalling that a project is serious about “getting the project right” and achieving social change.

Behaviour change areas where the strategy of evaluating and providing feedback has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Monterey Bay Aquarium’s Seafood Watch program evaluated its strategy to identify those elements that had the greatest impact and subsequently focused the project on these elements (Kemmerly & Macfarlane, 2009); an initiative to reduce the amount of waste that could be diverted from landfills evaluated the success of the project based on the proportion of all residents who separated their waste and on the amount of waste that could be re-used (Fehr, 2009).
- Social Inclusion: Conducting evaluation and gathering feedback helped the SC Johnson-initiated social business joint venture in Kibera, Nigeria, to identify hurdles as well as discover additional, positive and unforeseen impacts on community members (Johnson, 2007); a thorough evaluation of a initiative to prevent family violence clarified the needs of the initiative, provided tools for use within the initiative and provided credibility when applying for future funding (Kaufman et al., 2006).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in two of the four social change areas (environmental behaviour and social inclusion).



Build Project Resources and Opportunities to Deliver Change

Opportunity-based organizing seeks to change the situation or context to remove barriers, secure resources and create opportunities within, and for, the project to achieve social change.

CREATE INCLUSIVE PROJECT GOVERNANCE, LOCAL CO-OWNERSHIP AND CO-DELIVERY OF CHANGE PROJECTS

Social change is rarely achieved by a single actor, project or organization. The complexity of social change requires coalitions across stakeholders who either help bring about the change or are themselves the target of change. In the presentation of individual-level mechanisms (pages 23 to 45), we highlighted the importance of including the targets of change in the planning and delivery of the change process and discussed inclusive governance from the perspective of the change targets (page 36). We now focus on the structure of governance or ownership from the perspective of the project delivering the change.

For instance, some base-of-the-pyramid change projects initiated by global businesses create dedicated joint ventures with local partners; in this approach, the change projects are co-owned and co-delivered with local partners (which also increases the project's credibility, see page 61). For instance, Muhammad Yunus, the micro-credit pioneer and Nobel laureate, designs joint-venture social businesses with such

global businesses as Danone, Adidas, Intel, BASF, Otto GmbH and Veolia (Yunus, 2010). Yunus's organization, the Grameen Group, ensures that the project is embedded in the local context and will meet its social targets. Another example is SC Johnson's Community Cleaning Services (CCS), which was also set up as a social business joint venture with an NGO, in an effort to enable local co-ownership (Johnson, 2007). CCS creates local youth employment and improves hygiene conditions while using SC Johnson products. When leading UK supermarkets used an inclusive governance approach in their global supply chain (by setting up a dedicated, co-owned foundation), they yielded a higher social impact than when using a more coercive strategy, which forced suppliers to pursue sustainability certification at their own cost (Muller et al., 2012).

Similarly, the creation of the AIDS/HIV advocacy and treatment organization Canadian Treatment Advocates Council (CTAC) used skillful political negotiation to include all key actors (victim self-help groups, local HIV community organizations and the pharmaceutical industry). Inclusive governance was sought to make all stakeholders part of the joint organization (CTAC) (Maguire et al., 2004).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of "inclusive project governance, local co-ownership and co-delivery of change projects": Developing inclusive project ownership and governance structures can be a lengthy process. It also requires those in the stronger bargaining position to be willing to give up power and to try new business models. For instance, Grameen Danone is a non-loss, non-dividend, self-sustaining social business (Yunus, 2010; Yunus et al., 2010).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “inclusive project governance, local co-ownership and co-delivery of change projects” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Participatory forest management practices were one form of inclusive governance that helped to introduce sustainable forest management in India (Sinha, 1999).
- Health Behaviour: An inclusive governance approach sought to include all stakeholders in the creation of the CTAC (Maguire et al., 2004).
- Health Behaviour & Social Inclusion: Social business joint ventures by global companies co-owned and co-delivered by local partners, e.g. Grameen Danone providing nutrient-enriched yogurt (Yunus, 2010) or community cleaning service for people living in poverty in Nairobi slum (Johnson, 2007).
- Social Inclusion: Development projects carried out as cross-sector collaborations between businesses and civil society organizations were more successful and sustainable when the partners shared control of the project (Ashman, 2001); in a global supply-chain partnership by supermarkets, an inclusive governance approach (through the setting up of a dedicated, co-owned foundation) to UK–South African fruit supply chains yielded higher social impacts than a more coercive strategy (Muller et al., 2012).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in three social change areas (environmental behaviour, health behaviour and social inclusion).

BUILD A SUSTAINABLE PROJECT RESOURCE BASE

Social change is often a long-term, uncertain process (see page 13). Hence, to successfully achieve its goals, any change project needs to mobilize sufficient funding and personnel. For instance, the effective implementation of a community breastfeeding program was undermined due to, among other factors, lack of resources in the form of staff shortages (Hoddinott et al., 2010). Securing resources can also be a challenge for change projects organized within large companies where top management often seeks evidence of short-term gains to justify its investments. Similarly, short-term results are often sought by funders of grassroots social-change organizations and non-profits (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006). This pressure for short-term results is at odds with the need for collaboration and involvement of local stakeholders to create long-lasting social change. If resource investments are closely tied to upfront change targets, stakeholders may be unable to redefine the change targets or suggest new ones.

There are a number of ways to access project resources, which we discuss in turn: Social media and crowdsourcing, development of specific business models, and collaboration and partnering.

Social media and crowdsourcing: Outsourcing a task can be a cost-efficient way for a social change project to access financial resources, skills and new ideas (e.g. Bonanni, 2010; Searce, Kasper, & McLeod Grant, 2010). For instance, crowd-funding websites, such as kickstarter.com, allow social change projects to access funding for themselves or their beneficiaries.

Similarly, crowdsourcing can attract skilled volunteers (e.g. programmers for websites through an open-source project) and help to create ideas and pool knowledge for social change (as in the 'Education for all' crowdsourcing challenge issued by Nokia, UNESCO and the Pearson Foundation). Although crowdsourcing can be valuable when starting a project, it may not provide a sustainable and predictable source of resources over the long run. Business model innovations have greater potential to align the creation of social change by generating revenue.

A business model provides the logic of how revenue is generated and sustained. Change projects can build a self-sustaining resource base by directly combining the creation of social change with the creation of revenue (Alter, 2006). This idea is behind the movement from corporate social responsibility (CSR) to the exploitation of corporate social opportunities, or strategic CSR (Grayson & Hodges, 2004; Porter & Kramer, 2011). We found several examples supporting this practice for large multinationals' base-of-the-pyramid initiatives (see page 8) (Christensen et al., 2006; Johnson, 2007; Seelos & Mair, 2007; Yunus, 2010; Yunus et al., 2010), for grassroots social change or social enterprise organizations (Perrini et al., 2010; Praszquier et al., 2010; Seelos & Mair, 2006, 2007) and for an Ethiopian environmental restoration project (farmer-managed natural regeneration), which earned income through carbon sequestration and the Clean Development Mechanism⁵ (Brown et al., 2011).

In the next section (page 58), we discuss collaborating and partnering as project-level practices for accessing resources.

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of "building a sustainable project resource base": Financial resources for change projects in particular may come with "strings attached" that hamper change. For instance, Ashman (2001) reviewed capacity-building projects in Brazil, South Africa and India, in which civil society organizations collaborated with large businesses. These collaborations were most successful in creating social change when civic society organizations had a stronger resource base (and expertise) and were less dependent on resources provided by business. A drawback of using social media and crowdsourcing to resource projects is that their often short-lived nature rarely provides a sustainable resource base.

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of "building a sustainable project resource base" has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Open-source software was developed for sustainable supply-chain mapping (Bonanni, 2010); Ocean Conservancy's International Coastal Cleanup used web- and network-based strategies to source volunteers (Searce et al., 2010); a waste disposal organization in Bangladesh achieved sustainability through developing its business model (Seelos &

⁵ The Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), which is outlined in the Kyoto Protocol, allows developed countries to purchase emissions offsets from developing countries. United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), "About CDM," <http://cdm.unfccc.int/about/index.html>, retrieved August 17, 2012.

Mair, 2006); developing its business model allowed a farmer-managed natural regeneration project in Ethiopia to become self-sustainable (Brown et al., 2011).

- Health Behaviour: Lack of resources led to a decline in staff quality and numbers and diminished social impact of a community breastfeeding program (Hoddinott et al., 2010); Grameen Danone social business joint venture sold nutrient-enriched yogurt to communities living in poverty while also creating local employment, i.e. achieved sustainability through developing a business model (Yunus, 2010; Yunus et al., 2010).
- Social Inclusion: Resources, in the form of funding of community organizations, helped to empower and legally represent economically marginalized individual and neighbourhoods (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006); resources helped to fund development projects and social enterprise organizations in the developed and developing worlds (Ashman, 2001; Perrini et al., 2010; Praszkie et al., 2010; Seelos & Mair, 2006); Grameen Phone, through business model development, provided access and infrastructure to give both employment and telephone services to people living in poverty (Seelos & Mair, 2007; Yunus et al., 2010).
- Civic Engagement: Crowd-sourced and media-enabled mobilization of funds and supporters in Obama's 2008 election campaign (Searce et al., 2010); funding of community organizations that organize and educate local residents for effective political participation (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in all four social change areas (environmental behaviour, health behaviour, social inclusion and civic engagement).

LEVERAGE PROJECT RELATIONSHIPS; COLLABORATIONS, PARTNERSHIPS AND INFLUENCE NETWORKS

Involving and working with local stakeholders is an important project capability for delivering social change (see page 63). Closely related are collaborations, partnerships and influence networks that the project builds or can access. These relationships can remove barriers by overcoming resource constraints and opening up new opportunities for creating positive social change, two functions that often go hand in hand.

Project-level collaborations, partnerships and influence networks make social change a concerted effort by multiple partners, thereby increasing the scale of social change that can be achieved. Coordinated intervention efforts, often involving cross-sector collaborations, are most effective in bringing about positive social change (House of Lords, 2011; Kania & Kramer, 2011). Once a behaviour change has been triggered, it is more likely to be maintained when the actors involved are exposed to the same message through multiple channels and with coordinated support efforts. An example is the Cincinnati initiative to improve education and student achievement (the STRIVE initiative discussed on page 66). A consistent message and coordinated support were possible as a result of the collaboration of more than 300 diverse local organizations from

private and corporate foundations, city government, school districts, universities and community colleges, non-profits and advocacy groups. Consequently, an effective intervention package was delivered “from cradle to career” to improve every stage of a young person’s life, resulting in higher educational attainment rates (Kania & Kramer, 2011). Similarly, Wolfe (2006) provides case studies of U.S. community foundations focused on building socially inclusive communities. The community foundations brought about change by using their relationships: connecting previously unconnected people and organizations.

Relationships and networks can also help a project to access needed resources such as expertise and funding, as happened with a successful natural resource management project in South Africa (Oettl et al., 2004). Similarly, grassroots organizations’ support of community and political leaders enabled a U.S. community health program to access needed resources (Cornell et al., 2009). Notably, some project relationships helped access resources directly, while other relationships helped the project to gain credibility and legitimacy in the eyes of other resource providers. Brown et al. (2011) describe a resource-mobilization strategy whereby the project collaborated with local authorities at multiple levels to gain their endorsement, which provided access to resources both directly and indirectly. (For a more detailed discussion of project credibility see page 61). Finally, influence networks can also help drive social change, such as when social change organizations influence policy makers to work toward policy changes on behalf of their constituents (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “leveraging relationships”: Collaborations often fail; creating working collaborations, particularly across sectors, can be a long-term process. Successful collaborations are characterized by trusting and respectful relationships among the partners, by mutual agreement on common goals (which may need to be revisited at regular intervals, see also page 49), by a willingness to learn from each other and a readiness to continuously improve the collaboration process and the process of delivering change. Partners should ideally have complementary strengths and engage in mutually reinforcing activities (e.g. House of Lords, 2011; Kania & Kramer, 2011). Collaboration can be inhibited by resource constraints and by organizational egos, which may hinder agreement on goals and values or (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006).

Behaviour change areas where the mechanism of “leveraging relationships” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: A project to clean the Elizabeth River of toxic waste was successful through creating long-term cross-sectoral partnerships (Kania & Kramer, 2011); the Green Deal UK program promoted energy improvements to homes, it relied on effective partnerships working across sectors to create and implement the program (House of Lords, 2011); a carbon sequestration project and farmer-managed natural regeneration in Ethiopia was successful as it focussed from the outset on collaboration between multiple authorities and the community through conducting participatory rural appraisals (Brown et al., 2011); a natural resource management project in South Africa succeeded in part because it could

leverage the networks of the project initiators to access expertise and funding (Oettl et al., 2004).

- Health Behaviour: The Change4Life campaign for healthy living was endorsed and promoted by major supermarkets, government bodies, cancer charities and others (House of Lords, 2011); Shape-up Sommerville initiative to alleviate childhood obesity through cross-sector partnering (Kania & Kramer, 2011).
- Social Inclusion: The success of Cincinnati's community coalition led by STRIVE to improve education and student achievement rests in part on its ability to bundle resources across many partners and sectors, and leverage partners' relationships to provide a concerted intervention (Kania & Kramer, 2011); community foundations worked toward inclusive communities (e.g. reducing violence and increasing income equality) through collaborations (Wolfe, 2006); schools worked closely with parents, feeder elementary schools and local businesses to bundle resources, which allowed them to address issues such as gang violence and teenage mother school drop outs more effectively (Williams, 1995).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in three social change areas (environmental behaviour, health behaviour and social inclusion).

INNOVATE TO CREATE NEW OPPORTUNITIES

Much social change research addresses innovation as a means to creating social change. A particular focus is business model innovation — that is, finding novel ways of aligning social change and financial surpluses (see discussion above on page 56). Experimentation is an essential source of radical business model innovation,

as such innovations require deviating from what is known and thus are unlikely to be uncovered in market research of existing customers (Yunus et al., 2010). Small-scale pilot projects (see page 20) are one way to efficiently experiment.

Other innovations address products, services or processes. Projects can also create new opportunities to deliver social change when they develop innovative technologies and products, such as tele-health, or smartphone-supported health services, which deliver health care to rural people living in poverty (Hecht, 2008; Yunus, 2010). Online games and mobile phone applications (apps) present an intriguing example of how social change projects can broaden their approach (McGonigal, 2011). In one instance, after playing the World Without Oil game, players adopted more sustainable behaviours in their daily life. Similarly, service and process innovations extend services such as health or education to a wider range of people, including the poor and marginalized groups, thereby leading to more inclusive societies. Examples are U.S. medical walk-in clinics that provide low-cost, highly standardized basic health services (Christensen et al., 2006), telephone services for people living in poverty (Seelos & Mair, 2007) and micro-health insurance for people who otherwise could not afford healthcare (Hamid, Roberts, & Mosley, 2011).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “innovating to create new opportunities” has been studied:

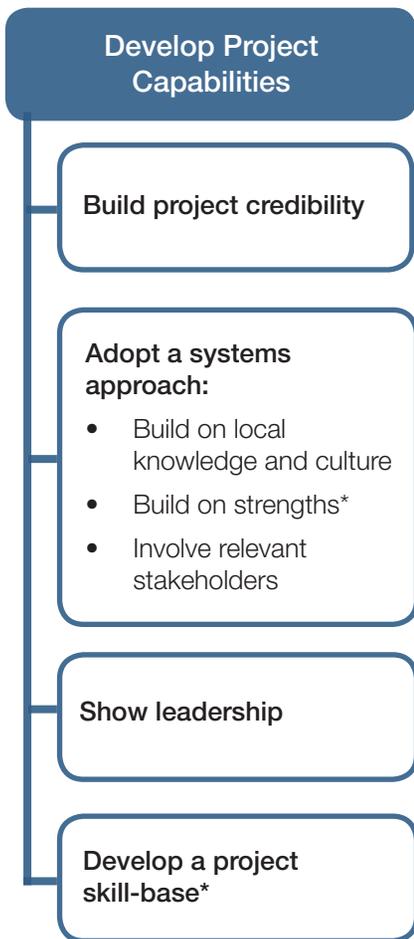
- Environmental Behaviour: New processing technologies were developed for integrated waste management across businesses in a region (Paquin, 2008); games focusing on sustainable

topics led to more sustainable behaviour in daily life (McGonigal, 2011).

- Health Behaviour: Tele-health, or smartphone-supported health services provide healthcare access (Hecht, 2008; Yunus, 2010); micro-health insurance for those who otherwise could not afford healthcare (Hamid et al., 2011); medical walk-in clinics in the United States (Christensen et al., 2006).
- Health Behaviour & Social Inclusion: Nutrient-enriched yogurt provides sustenance for those living in poverty while creating local employment in the

Grameen Danone joint venture (Yunus, 2010; Yunus et al., 2010); a community cleaning social business evolved from immersion in the local impoverished community and involving that community in its design (Johnson, 2007); the Grameen–Veolia joint venture produced and distributed clean water for rural areas while creating local employment (Yunus, 2010; Yunus et al., 2010).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in three social change areas (environmental behaviour, health behaviour and social inclusion).



* Mechanisms most clearly supported by research.

Develop Project Capabilities to Deliver Change

Project capabilities can make the difference between a well-intentioned project with little social impact and one that leads to long-lasting social change. Developing credibility is a pre-condition to creating social change. Projects should adopt a systems approach, show effective leadership, and empower and train their workforce and stakeholders.

BUILD PROJECT CREDIBILITY

Credibility is an important prerequisite for any project that aims to gain support and influence behaviour. Without credibility, change projects and efforts may be seen as illegitimate by the people targeted for change, which can make it difficult to bring the necessary stakeholders on board. Credibility, or legitimacy, can stem from having the perceived competence to successfully deliver a project (expertise-based credibility) and from the perceived effort or investment exerted by the project leaders. Credibility also rests on the perceived intentions behind a project. For example, a company may attempt to encourage environmental behaviour by providing sustainable products, but efforts that are seen as self-interested (e.g. as a ploy to increase profits) are less likely to have the intended impact. Walmart’s attempt to introduce green products in the early 1990s was unsuccessful as some “green” products were only environmentally friendly in small ways (Plambeck & Denend, 2008). The Home Depot

pursued a different tactic. They invested in changing their procurement practices and ensuring that all wood products came from sources certified by the Forest Stewardship Council (FSC). The home-improvement retailer waited before promoting the certification to consumers as it wanted to be seen as a major lumber supplier, not a “green-only” supplier. Only after FSC-certified lumber became more mainstream and a positive competitive advantage did Home Depot indicate the sustainable origin of its wood products (Hitchcock & Willard, 2009).

Companies seem more credible in their social change efforts when they practise what they preach — e.g. by running their own operations sustainably. A change project can also gain credibility through partnering with people, collectives or organizations that are seen as being especially valid or competent actors in a particular area. A scheme encouraging homeowners to have the energy efficiency of their homes assessed recruited partners from local universities and NGOs, which bolstered peoples’ trust and confidence in the project (Parker et al., 2003). Involving stakeholders in change projects also increases credibility (see page 62). Also conferring credibility and legitimacy on a change project are certifications and labels that are issued by well-established NGOs or NGO-industry alliances, such as for sustainable fishing or fair-trade products. This strategy is now pursued by Walmart in its sustainability efforts (e.g. Plambeck & Denend, 2008). In another example, a project that aimed to encourage environmental building provided educational certificates to builders (Friedrich et al., 2010).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “building project credibility”: Credibility needs to relate to the nature of the organization or the change project. Where a non-profit organization may need to demonstrate its financial savvy, professional management and performance management practices (Kaufman et al., 2006), a for-profit organization needs to demonstrate that it is capable and credible in terms of delivering the social side of change. Credibility is also linked to industry sectors; credibility is more difficult to build in extractive industries, such as the mining and oil sectors. Project credibility can also be built by pursuing the organizing practices presented in this report, which include adopting a systems approach, building inclusive project governance (both of which demonstrate a longer-term commitment to a change project) and measuring the project outcomes.

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “building project credibility” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: The credibility of a company is positively related to change in customers’ environmental behaviour following environmental campaigns (Inoue, 2011); Walmart involved credible outside certification to support its supply-chain changes (Plambeck & Denend, 2008).
- Health Behaviour: Involving organizations run by people with HIV/AIDS gave the Canadian Treatment and Advocacy Council credibility, both in the eyes of outsiders (e.g. government) and the HIV/AIDS community (Maguire et al., 2004).
- Social Inclusion: A program for preventing domestic violence relied on its credibility to gain funding (Kaufman et al., 2006); effective conflict resolution was made easier because of the credibility of the groups’ project leaders (Praszkier et al., 2010);

Mexican unions’ boycott was successful in part because it made a credible case for tackling broader societal issues, such as racism and sexism (Johnston, 2004).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in three social change areas (environmental behaviour, health behaviour and social inclusion).

ADOPT A SYSTEMS APPROACH

Behaviour does not happen in a vacuum. Individuals and collectives are embedded in wider regional and social systems. Hence, it is important to understand and, ideally, to build on, the system where the targeted behaviour change occurs. A systems approach can be achieved in three ways: Understanding and building on local knowledge and the local culture, building on existing strengths and involving relevant stakeholders.

Understand and build on local knowledge and culture

We are often tempted to believe that there is “one best way” to solve a problem; however, projects that are successful in one context can fail elsewhere when they are simply mechanically transferred. For example, an American HIV prevention scheme was applied in a South African context. However, project organizers adapted the approach to consider the effects of unresolved grief resulting from the community’s high AIDS death rates (Bell et al., 2007). Local authorities have been more effective than the central government in delivering initiatives that address social inclusion or sustainable transport because they have a greater understanding of local knowledge and needs and tend

to tailor their services accordingly (House of Lords, 2011).

Project organizers can build an understanding of the local knowledge and culture by interviewing key stakeholders, spending time in the community to observe it first-hand (ethnography) or involving members of the local community in the program delivery (e.g. Boss, 2008; Yunus, 2010).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “understanding and building on local knowledge and culture”: Not all local knowledge and need can be easily observed or communicated by the community. A partial solution is to involve relevant stakeholders; most effective is providing the local community with true opportunities for engagement (see page 54).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “understanding and building on local knowledge and culture” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Implementing conservation practices by identifying and marketing an indigenous species as worth preserving, through local NGO leaders (Boss, 2008); encouraging the use of sustainable transport and cycling (House of Lords, 2011).
- Health Behaviour: HIV prevention that is tailored to the local context (Bell et al., 2007).
- Health Behaviour & Social Inclusion: Building on local knowledge when designing and refining social businesses catering to the poor, such as Grameen Danone’s nutrient-enriched yogurt, which built on local knowledge by working with Grameen as the local partner as well as with the local community to manufacture and distribute the yogurt (Yunus,

2010; Yunus et al., 2010); other examples of social businesses benefiting the poor are SC Johnson’s community cleaning service (Johnson, 2007), Grameen Phone and Grameen–Veolia (Yunus et al., 2010); see also page 8.

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in three social change areas (environmental behaviour, health behaviour and social inclusion).

Build on existing strengths



Building on existing strengths is a project practice that is a specific application of the “Understand and build on local knowledge and culture” practice. Sometimes solutions already exist within communities, and they “only” need to be scaled up, which is the premise of the positive deviance approach (Pascale et al., 2010). This approach looks within a community or population for novel ways that people who have the same resources available as everyone else have effectively coped with a widespread challenge. This type of solution does not involve major changes to the system because the solution has been derived from within the culture and by using resources available to everyone within that context.

This principle can also be applied when companies are seeking to identify social change projects. Most rewarding for the company and its staff are change projects that are closely aligned with an organization’s core business and its area of expertise. Such projects are regarded as more credible by company stakeholders and the actors the company is aiming to change. They also yield the potential for the company to develop new capabilities and skills that can be applied

in its wider business interests. An example is Tim Hortons' coffee partnerships with coffee farmers, non-profit organizations and exporters, intended to improve those businesses and the lives of coffee farmers. Coffee is a core product for Tim Hortons and an area where it has expertise, i.e. a "strength." Similarly, all Grameen social business joint ventures with global companies leverage those companies' core business: yogurt with Danone, shoes with Adidas, information technology with Intel and water treatment with Veolia (Yunus, 2010; Yunus et al., 2010).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of "building on strengths." Much time may be needed to build up enough knowledge about a situation to be able to identify the inherent strengths that can then be used to craft solutions. However, taking the time for this step will save resources in the long run.

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of building on existing strengths has been studied:

- Health Behaviour: Positive deviance approach to lower child malnutrition in Vietnam and enhance hospital hygiene in the US by changing behavioural practices (Pascale et al., 2010).
- Health Behaviour & Social Inclusion: Social businesses that leverage partners' existing strengths while delivering health and employment benefits to the local population living in poverty (Johnson, 2007; Yunus, 2010; Yunus et al., 2010); positive deviance approach to reduce female genital mutilation in Egypt (Pascale et al., 2010),
- Social Inclusion: Positive deviance approach to lowering rate of child soldiers (Pascale et al., 2010).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence supports this practice in two of the four behaviour change areas (health behaviour and social inclusion).

Involve relevant stakeholders

A stakeholder is any person, group or organization that is affected by either a problem or its proposed solution. Including diverse stakeholders provides a project with more complete knowledge (e.g. Johnson, 2007; Ryan et al., 2006), can increase the credibility of proposed solutions and of the change initiative (Johnson, 2007; Plambeck & Denend, 2008) and it can build interest in and acceptance of the change initiative within the wider community. Involving relevant stakeholders can take many forms; here, we focus on relatively loose involvement and less formalized partnerships with the purpose of developing the project's capability to deliver social change. We discussed other, albeit closely related, forms of including stakeholders as "co-owners" directly in the governance of the project (on page 55), as well as using collaboration and partnership as a means to create opportunities for social change or access to resources (discussed on page 58).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of "involving stakeholders." Involving a representative group of stakeholders can be difficult because of conflicts between different stakeholders or mismatched perspectives and goals; yet, their involvement is vital. Involving stakeholders needs to be skillfully managed, especially when power differences exist between stakeholders. Stakeholder participation may not be effective when stakeholders' representatives are seen

as tokens — that is, without having a true say in the decision process, such as when a multinational involves small instead of large international NGOs. See also the discussion under circumstances on pages 55 and 58.

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “involving relevant stakeholders” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: The Baltic Sea survival initiative used shared values as a mobilizing tool to involve stakeholder from all sectors to work toward a cleaner Baltic Sea (Ritvala & Salmi, 2010); the banning of plastic bags in a community involved stakeholders across sectors (Carrigan et al., 2011).
- Health Behaviour: An AIDS prevention program was designed to meet community needs through involving key local stakeholder (Bell et al., 2007); health promotion initiatives in schools were successfully implemented by schools together with local community and local agencies (Williams et al., 1996).
- Social Inclusion: Services for preventing domestic violence were improved by involving care providers (Kaufman et al., 2006); best practices in domestic violence reporting were communicated by publishing a handbook based on input from research and multiple stakeholders, both reporters and victims (Ryan et al., 2006); businesses were created with very low socio-economic groups through immersion in and involving the local community in design (Johnson, 2007).
- Civic Engagement: Community-specific volunteer offerings were developed by community members and the local council co-designing volunteer opportunities (John et al., 2011); online forums debated community cohesion and youth anti-

social behaviour with the aim of developing policy guidelines for local and national authorities (John et al., 2011).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in all four social change areas (environmental behaviour, health behaviour, social inclusion and civic engagement).

SHOW LEADERSHIP

Leadership here focuses on influencing others to attain social change goals. Effective leadership for social change involves (1) connecting and (2) motivating and coordinating as well as (3) being able to transfer leadership altogether.

1. Connecting leadership skills reach beyond the project itself and help to form “alliances” or networks for change by connecting actors. Partnerships are essential to creating change (see also the importance of building relationships both on an individual level, page 38, and on a project level, page 58). They also enable change to spread. For instance, research on many community change initiatives emphasized the need for projects to build connections across diverse community actors, including local businesses, religious groups and educational institutions (Suminski et al., 2009). The STRIVE education initiative demonstrated connecting and facilitative leadership by creating an alliance of more than 300 organizations (Kania & Kramer, 2011).
2. Motivating and coordinating people and resources are necessary for a project to maintain positive momentum and achieve its goal (Williams, 1995).

For larger-scale change projects that cut across many different community actors, strong leadership by one organization is critical. For instance, STRIVE brought together and coordinated actors across Cincinnati to improve education and student achievement (Kania & Kramer, 2011).

Web- or social media-based change projects require connective and coordinating leadership in creating, extending and moderating online networks. They must coordinate resources and create and safeguard authentic and trusting relationship among actors to prevent disengagement (John et al., 2011; Scarce et al., 2010).

3. Finally, some change projects involve eventually transferring leadership to indigenous or local organizations, also termed empowering leadership (Praszkier & Nowak, 2012). This strategy is particularly effective when change projects are not part of the community or collective they are trying to change, a common situation for businesses. RARE, an international NGO working for environmental conservation, has perfected this type of leadership transfer. It developed a change strategy (termed RARE Pride), which includes training and educating indigenous leaders so that they can adapt and execute the program in their local area (Boss, 2008). Thus, transferring leadership is closely related to other successful practices, such as involving stakeholders and local co-ownership of projects (see page 55 and 63).

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “showing leadership”: Connective and facilitative leadership is difficult when resources are scarce and actors compete. Even among social change organizations and non-profits, connective leadership can be hindered by competition for resources and funders’ emphasis on distinct projects with short-term benefits (Chetkovich & Kunreuther, 2006).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “showing leadership” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Protection of endangered species and national conservation through RARE Pride (Boss, 2008); project to clean the Elizabeth River of industrial, toxic waste was created through connective leadership and involved the long-term coordination of over 100 stakeholders across all sectors (Kania & Kramer, 2011); connective leadership by a firm to bring about change toward more environmentally friendly logging practices in the British Columbia coastal forest industry (Zietsma, 2003).
- Health Behaviour: A school–community initiative to promote physical activity (Suminski et al., 2009); Shape-up Sommerville initiative built a broad cross-sector partnership to alleviate childhood obesity, demonstrating both connective and coordinating leadership (Kania & Kramer, 2011); leadership was important for two community-based public health interventions to manage HIV/AIDS (Campbell & Cornish, 2011) and breastfeeding (Hoddinott et al., 2010).
- Social Inclusion: Community-based social change organizations achieve social change through connective leadership (Chetkovich &

Kunreuther, 2006; Wolfe, 2006); school–community partnerships in Chicago included local businesses and banks to reduce the fear of gang violence and reduce rates of young mothers dropping out of school (Williams, 1995); Cincinnati community coalition led by STRIVE improved education and student achievement (Kania & Kramer, 2011); multiple cases of US-based community foundations adopting facilitative and connective leadership approaches and working as intermediaries with other public and private entities to enhance social inclusion (e.g. reduction of violence, increasing income equality) (Wolfe, 2006).

State of the evidence: Weak evidence supports this practice in three social change areas (environmental behaviour, health behaviour and social inclusion).

DEVELOP THE PROJECT SKILL BASE



Each project team or organization needs certain sets of skills and knowledge. For social change projects, the skills required from employees and volunteers can be complex. Appropriate training is therefore crucial to building the project’s skill base, especially when community members who are the targets of change also co-own and co-deliver the project. In these situations, projects have successfully provided training to targeted community members (Boss, 2008; Oettl et al., 2004). Sometimes this takes the form of consultants who work with the community partner to identify the appropriate social change projects to pursue; an example is the Waitrose Foundation’s initiatives in South Africa (Muller et al., 2012). It is particularly important to train collaboration skills, particularly when cross-sector partnerships are involved (Ashman, 2001), so that all

partners “speak the same language” and can work together effectively.

Circumstances impacting the effectiveness of “developing the project skill base”: Recognizing partner organizations’ skills and knowledge — rather than developing them internally — can be an effective use of resources. A review of business collaborations aimed at providing positive social outcomes through the interactive involvement of businesses and civil society organizations (CSOs) — as opposed to traditional philanthropy — found that projects were more successful when businesses valued the unique capabilities of the CSOs (Ashman, 2001).

Behaviour change areas where the effectiveness of “developing the project skill base” has been studied:

- Environmental Behaviour: Training local project leaders to deliver natural resource conservation projects (Boss, 2008); in a project aimed at building sustainable farming methods for improved environment and community well-being, community members were trained to run the project so that it would be more sustainable (Oettle et al., 2004).
- Health Behaviours: Training community/hospital members to co-deliver positive deviance interventions to treat child malnutrition in Vietnam and lower infection rates in US hospitals (Pascale et al., 2010).
- Social Inclusion: Training in collaboration skills was provided to improve cross-sector partnerships (cf. Ashman, 2001); training neighbourhood groups in strategic planning to increase the number of community change projects (Watson-Thompson et al., 2008); community members were trained

to reduce the prevalence of child soldiers through positive deviance intervention (Pascale et al., 2010); on-the-job training of community partners in the Waitrose Foundation supported the sustainability of social change projects connected with the supermarket's UK–South Africa supply chain (Muller et al., 2012).

State of the evidence: Strong evidence supports this practice in two of the four behaviour change areas (health behaviour and social inclusion), with weak evidence supporting the effectiveness of this practice in the area of environmental behaviour change.

social change strategies

Certain combinations of change mechanisms and project organizing practices are particularly effective.

Widespread and long-lasting change occurs when a business works closely with the people whom it is trying to change, letting them help shape the social change effort.

This chapter highlights social change strategies — that is, clusters of change mechanisms and project organizing practices — that stood out in the review as the most promising strategies to deliver effective social change. We first discuss the nature of change brought about by different change strategies (page 69). We then turn to how organizations can craft a change strategy (page 73), focusing on the timing of change.

Achieving Deep Versus Surface-Level Change

As highlighted on page 18, successful social change strategies involve a coordinated intervention in all three components driving behaviour change: motivation, capability and opportunity. In other words, no single change mechanism on its own will bring about change in individuals or groups. However, change strategies differ in terms of how pervasive they are. Pervasive strategies create widespread and long-lasting change. High-involvement change strategies lead to more pervasive change. Such change strategies engage closely with the targets of the change and involve them throughout the process, including in the co-creation of the change intervention. Such high-involvement change strategies lead to long-term, deep-level change by changing opportunity structures (opportunity) and underlying assumptions (motivation) and by empowering and enabling the change targets (capability). Figure 8 provides a summary.

We now highlight examples representing a surface-level change strategy (nudging) and a deep-level change strategy (positive deviance approach). We choose these examples as they are supported by high-quality research and receive widespread public attention. Table 1 shows each example and its corresponding change mechanisms and organizing practices.

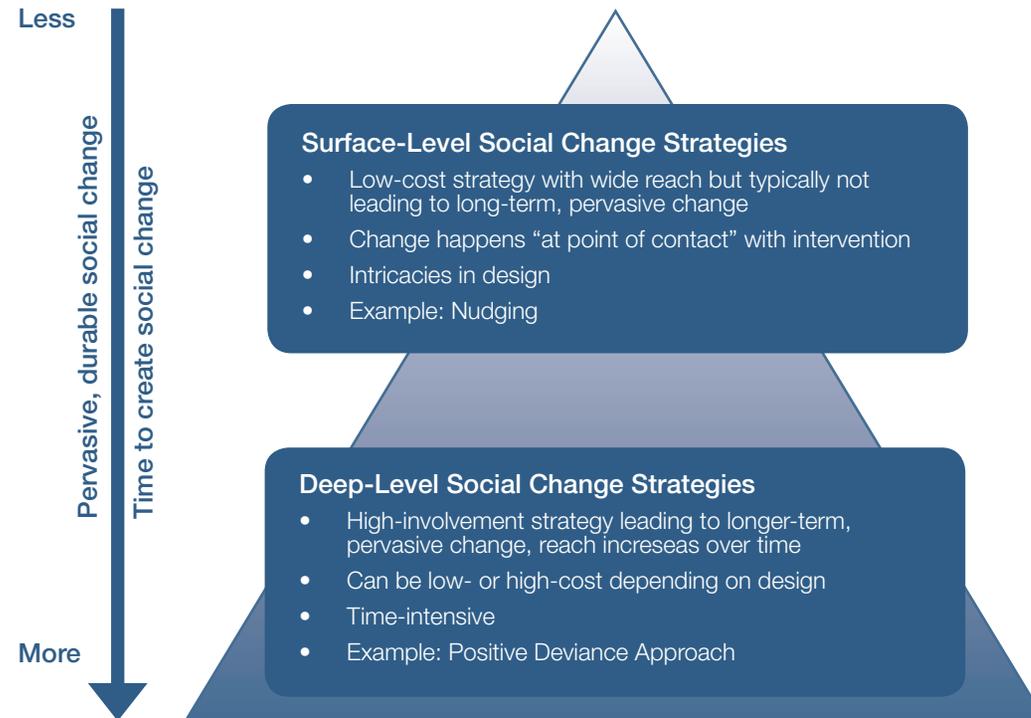
People interested in developing new strategies suited to their circumstances may wish to view mechanisms and practices in light of the criteria for surface and deep-level approaches reviewed in Figure 8. For crafting a deep-level change strategy we provide further guidance in the next section.

Example 1: Nudging as a surface-level change strategy

Nudging (John et al., 2011; John et al., 2009; Thaler & Sunstein, 2008) builds on the insight that people are not entirely rational decision makers, as they lack the time and energy to search for and process all relevant information. Thus, people use heuristics, or shortcuts, for most decision-making. Nudging proposes behaviour change mechanisms that draw on such heuristics by, for example, structuring the way information is displayed to include images (which people process better than words) and information on peers' behaviour (thereby suggesting that the proposed behaviour is “right,” i.e. socially accepted, and creating social pressure to follow that model). Nudging also structures decision choices so that the most beneficial choice for society is the default option (the option people are most likely to choose when they trust the information source).

Figure 8

DEEP- AND SURFACE-LEVEL SOCIAL CHANGE STRATEGIES



Nudge interventions are most effective when the behaviour is easy to change because people already possess the skills and capability to perform the behaviour. Examples of such easy-to-perform behaviours are recycling, reducing energy use, using more sustainable transport options, voting, donating books and registering as organ donor. Often people then only need an additional motivating trigger and the opportunity to engage. Nudge interventions are most successful when people must make one-time choices (such as signing up for a pension plan or registering as an organ donor).

In nudge interventions, the devil is in the details. Small changes to the information provided and the way in which feedback is given can lead to a completely opposite effect. For instance, providing information on what others are doing (the social normative pressure mechanism) works only when this information is credible and when a sufficient number of other people are involved. It also depends on where the target individual stands relative to others. For instance, people were less likely to sign a petition when fewer than 100 other people had signed it (John et al., 2011). Similarly, people reduced their energy-saving

efforts when they received feedback that they were already conserving more than their neighbours. Nudge interventions can also have the opposite effect when people sense that they are the subject of persuasion (Feiler, Tost, & Grant, 2012), which they view as an infringement on their autonomy, leading to their refusal to engage in the desired behaviour (a phenomenon known as reactance).

Generally, nudge interventions work when the nudge is present, but they are unlikely to lead to long-lasting behaviour change after the nudge is removed (e.g. after feedback on energy use ceases or after the reminder card about recycling is discontinued). Evidence suggests that more personalized interventions such as door-to-door canvassing (in contrast to providing online information) produce potentially longer-lasting behaviour change, but no study to date has tracked behaviour change for more than three months (John et al., 2011). This has led to the idea of using “think strategies” to extend nudge strategies (John et al., 2009, 2011). Think strategies stimulate citizens’ thinking about a topic, thereby shifting their assumptions, which then leads to behaviour change. Think strategies require higher individual involvement than nudge strategies and are thereby likely to lead to more durable behaviour change (cf. Figure 8). Individualized interventions represent similar thinking. For example, health behaviour change interventions tailored to each person are more effective than generic messages in changing behaviour (Noar et al., 2007). People typically engage more with a message and are more likely to examine its arguments when they see it as personally relevant.

Example 2: The positive deviance approach as a deep-level change strategy

The Positive Deviance Approach (PDA) (Pascale et al., 2010) recognizes that some individuals or groups have uncommon behaviours and strategies that enable them to find better solutions to problems than their peers, whilst having access to the same resources and facing similar or more difficult challenges than their peers. PDA is a high-involvement change strategy that motivates and enables the community to identify its positive deviants, distills their knowledge and then has the community share this knowledge among its members. PDA is a slow, multi-step process that creates long-term social change by simultaneously building individuals’ motivation, capability and opportunity to change (see Table 1).

PDA also uses project organizing practices (see Table 1) to deliver the approach in an organized, bottom-up way, building on and extending the community’s knowledge and skills. For instance, PDA always uses a measurement system to establish a baseline (e.g. for the degree of malnutrition in a community) during the project preparation phase. In the change phase of the project, this baseline helps to establish whether the intervention works and creates quick feedback when changes to its delivery are required.

Table 1

EXAMPLES OF DEEP-LEVEL (POSITIVE DEVIANCE APPROACH) AND SURFACE-LEVEL (NUDGING) SOCIAL CHANGE STRATEGIES

CHANGE STRATEGY	CHANGE MECHANISM (INDIVIDUALS)	ORGANIZING PRACTICES (PROJECT-LEVEL)	EVIDENCE FOR EFFECTIVENESS
<p>Nudging (John et al., 2011, 2009; Thaler & Sunstein, 2008) A surface-level change strategy leveraging decision-making shortcuts.</p>	<p><i>Motivate Actors to Change</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication: Awareness raising, framing and tailored (individualized) information from credible sources • Social normative pressure • Incentivize: Feedback <p><i>Enable Actors to Change</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individuals are assumed to be able to perform the target behaviour <p><i>Create Opportunities for Actors to Change</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Restructured environment (mainly through choice architecture, i.e. the way choice options are presented, particularly the design of default options) 	<p>As a surface-level strategy, project-level practices play only a limited role if any for nudging; project practices are not explicitly discussed in the literature</p>	<p>High-quality evidence: Effective in achieving temporary change.</p> <p>Tested in the following change areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environmental behaviour • Health behaviour • Social inclusion • Civic engagement
<p>Positive Deviance Approach (Pascale et al., 2010) A deep-level, high-involvement strategy and community-driven approach building on existing strengths (“positive deviants”) in the community.</p>	<p><i>Motivate Actors to Change</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication: Awareness raising, providing meaning, individualized communication • Incentivize: Feedback <p><i>Enable Actors to Change</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Educates, trains and empowers, i.e. builds skills and self-efficacy for behaviour change <p><i>Create Opportunities for Actors to Change</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create empowering structures (inclusive governance, transparent project processes) • Increase social capital in a community, which supports change 	<p><i>Motivate Staff & Stakeholders</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Require a shared vision and clear goals • Develop measurement system (for evaluation and feedback) <p><i>Develop Project Capabilities</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use a systems approach • Develop a project skill base • Build credibility through its use of a systems approach and community leadership <p><i>Build Resources & Opportunities</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Build inclusive project governance (community leadership) • Build sustainable resource base through community leadership 	<p>High-quality evidence: Effective in achieving positive social change in different settings (in both the developed and developing world)</p> <p>Tested in the following change areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health behaviours • Social inclusion <p>Other application areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Innovation in pharmaceutical industry

Crafting a Change Strategy

The majority of the research that we reviewed involved deeper-level, high-involvement change strategies (positioned in the middle and bottom part of the pyramid in Figure 8), which are more complex to deliver than surface-level change interventions. Hence, we now discuss the timing of implementing a high-involvement change strategy and review the steps business should take in different phases of the project. In doing so, we draw on two sources: (1) patterns of timing in the change interventions we observed in the

evidence; and (2) more general literature on creating and managing change. Evidence from the first source, on timing in social change interventions, was scarce (e.g. Johnson, 2007; Pascale et al., 2010; Rao, 2009; Wolfe, 2006), leading us to draw on the more general literature on change (e.g. Burnes, 2009; Elrod & Tippett, 2002; Lewin, 1952). In their review of the literature on change processes across multiple disciplines, Elrod and Tippett (2002) concluded that specific change models differ, but always contain the three change phases first proposed by Lewin (1952). We observed a similar pattern in the evidence that we reviewed. Figure 9 summarizes this pattern.

Figure 9

TIMING OF INTERVENTIONS TO CREATE POSITIVE SOCIAL CHANGE



Social Change interventions have three phases: Prepare, Change and Maintain (see Figure 9). Each phase includes actions in each of the three change components (motivation, capability and opportunity) on both the individual and the project level (i.e. both outside and inside the triangle in our Social Change Framework, see Figure 3). We first describe actions on the project level (i.e. how to organize for social change interventions) and then address actions at the individual level (i.e. what mechanisms to leverage in each stage of a change intervention). We focus in particular on how to launch change interventions, i.e. the Prepare phase. Not all steps described will fit each behaviour change area and behaviour change project. However, the descriptions reflect common trends in the evidence we reviewed and are compatible with the wider literature on how to create behaviour change.

Timing at the project-level: Sequencing project practices

Prepare

At the start of a change intervention, the project needs to ensure that it is credible (see page 62). In which areas does the business have expertise? Who might be a credible partner (e.g. a grassroots social change organization, an NGO or a local authority)? How can the project be structured credibly and build expertise (e.g. by adopting a systems approach and by creating inclusive governance structures)?

Any high-involvement change project aiming to create lasting social change needs to first understand the

system it is trying to change and build on the existing knowledge and culture (see page 63). Credibility and knowledge come from project members immersing themselves in the system and working closely with stakeholders. The Positive Deviance Approach and businesses that work with the poor (base-of-the-pyramid ventures) have shown that solutions created from within a community are more successful, because they are more acceptable to the change targets than externally-imposed solutions.

Adopting a systems approach will typically improve understanding of the social change's aims and who should be involved in delivering the project. The project should then leverage relationships to define partners (based on their expertise, resources or credibility, page 63) and start working with partners, stakeholders and project members to develop a shared vision of the project and its short- and long-term goals (see page 50), which can motivate project staff and stakeholders. This phase also includes decisions about how to structure the project governance (see page 55) and its leadership (see page 66). Simultaneously, the project needs to identify how it will mobilize resources (both financial resources and human resources, such as expertise and skills) over the longer term to be able to draw on a sustainable resource base (see page 56). Project members' skills need to be developed for the purpose of delivering the change project (see page 68).

After the project has achieved these practices, it needs to develop the key performance indicators against which the project will evaluate its progress (see page 53). This step will enable the project to keep its

members motivated and to intervene should the project not develop as expected. Finally, small-scale pilot projects or experiments (see page 52) can be used to test and fine-tune the intervention strategy before rolling it out on a larger scale. Successful pilot projects will boost project members' motivation.

Change

In the Change phase, the project is rolled out. The motivation of project members, including stakeholders and partners, must be maintained in this phase. The biggest drains on motivation result from the nature of social change to be long term and to first lead to worse conditions before improving. This dynamic occurs because change involves uncertainty and those targeted must often develop new skills (Elrod & Tippett, 2002). Any successes (as measured by the evaluation system, page 53) should be shared with all project members and celebrated. Quick wins can also bolster motivation. One way to achieve quick wins is to target individuals or collectives that have large potential for successful change (such as targeting high-energy users for energy-savings interventions, see page 52). The project vision and goals should be regularly revisited by all project members to remind them of why they are engaged (which may also provide a motivational boost) and to update and adapt vision and goals when circumstances change.

The Change phase can be hampered when projects lack capabilities such as leadership (see page 66) or the necessary skills (see page 68), both of which can be learned. Finally, the Change phase requires opportunity development to maintain the social change over the

long term. This development can involve leveraging the project relationships to spread the change (e.g. through influence networks, page 58), and gradually transferring governance to the group that the project aims to change (page 55). It can also entail developing innovative new business models, services, products and processes (page 60) to create a long-term sustainable resource base (page 56), which allows scaling the impact of the project.

Maintain

The task in the final Maintain phase of a change project is to motivate project members to continue to engage. Project members may feel that their job is done. However, withdrawing support for change too early may result in a relapse to old behaviours. Thus, the Maintain phase is critical. On the capability side, preparations are likely made for leadership to be fully transferred to the change targets. Efforts around the opportunity side focus on building relationship and resource structures that become institutionalized so that outside support is no longer needed.

Timing of individual-level change mechanisms

Prepare

As on the project level, the preparation phase requires a concerted effort in which individual motivation, capability and opportunity to change are built up simultaneously. A change initiative that did not pay attention to such alignment was led by a UK council that used an information campaign to promote the use of public transport (House of Lords, 2011). However,

the promotion occurred as public transportation experienced severe funding cuts, leading to a deterioration in service. Thus, motivation was built but opportunity was reduced (most people know how to use transport, so building capability was not needed). Consequently, those who tried to use public transport instead of their cars were frustrated. These individuals are less likely to try sustainable transport in the future.

Communication (page 26) is particularly important in the preparation phase of motivation to raise awareness around the behaviour change. As with the project level, those who provide information need to be seen as being credible. Communication is more attention-grabbing when it appeals to the emotions and identity of the change targets and when it is tailored or individualized to their specific situation. Communication is the primary motivation mechanism for generating voluntary, deep-level change. Pressure, both coercive and normative (page 30), is less suited to achieving such change, as change targets are likely to experience pressure as an infringement on their free choice and, thus, respond by resisting engagement (Brehm, 1966; Wicklund, Smelser, & Baltes, 2001).

As motivation is built, the change targets' capabilities also need to be strengthened so that they can successfully engage in the new behaviours and do not experience them as threatening, frustrating or even impossible to achieve. Building capabilities is likely to involve a combination of education (page 43) and training (page 44), both of which help to build a sense of empowerment (i.e. the change targets' confidence that they can successfully perform the new behaviours, page 42).

Opportunity-based mechanisms are relevant because adopting new behaviours should be made as easy as possible. Individuals must have the resources to be able to engage in the new behaviour (page 36) and a physical or social environment that supports the change and may even incentivize the change (environmental restructuring, page 41). An example is supporting healthy eating by moving healthy food to eye level in cafeteria shelves.

Change

As outlined above in the description of project practices, a great challenge in the Change phase is its slowness, the difficulty of identifying successes and the fact that performance typically gets worse (as new behaviours take time to learn) before it improves again. Providing feedback (page 32) to increase certainty about performance can be highly motivating. The use of financial rewards and image-based and reputation-based rewards is less straightforward and its successful use depends on the individual situation (see pages 4 to 35 for more detail).

Performance suffers initially in part because new behaviours often require new skills. Change targets' capabilities can be built through training and education and by fostering a sense of empowerment (page 42).

Building supportive relationships can encourage change targets to master the new behaviours and overcome challenges. Stimulating the forming of new ties across groups (bridging social capital) will help spread the change (page 38). Other opportunity-based mechanisms are valuable: Increasingly involving change

targets directly in the governance of the change project supports their empowerment, as does providing transparent information on the change project (page 36).

Maintain

Ideally, the path to maintaining the behaviour change is set in the Change phase through feedback and recognition for the adoption of the new behaviour. Thus, a self-reinforcing dynamic is created whereby change targets are incentivized to continue the new behaviour (see page 32). Similarly, opportunities that institutionalize the change (such as empowering structures and, in particular, inclusive governance, page 36) can already be shaped in the Change phase. Finally, ongoing support or refreshers may be needed in the Maintain phase to ensure that change targets have the capability to continue engaging in the new behaviour.

summary and the way forward

Businesses are most credible and successful when they pursue change projects that are aligned with their core competencies.

Managing change projects is a realistic goal for business. While complex, such projects are not necessarily difficult. Still, more evidence is needed on the role of business as a driver of change as research to date has primarily studied change initiated by social enterprises and non-profits.

A review of 123 sources drawn from academic and practitioner literature revealed that positive social change requires three behaviour change components:

1. Motivation
2. Capability
3. Opportunity

Successful behaviour change interventions address all three components of behaviour change simultaneously. We found 19 social change mechanisms that business can act on to bring about social change in individuals and groups:

- Motivation-based mechanisms, which motivate actors to change:
 - Communicate
 - Be credible
 - Raise awareness
 - Frame: Provide meaning and identity and create emotions
 - Individualize: Provide prompts and guidelines
 - Pressure
 - Use social pressure
 - Use coercive pressure
 - Incentivize
 - Set goals and elicit pledges
 - Provide feedback
 - Reward financially
 - Reward through image, reputation and recognition
- Opportunity-based mechanisms, which create opportunities for actors to change:
 - Set up empowering structures and resources
 - Create inclusive governance structures
 - Create transparency
 - Enable access to resources

- Use and build social relationships (social capital)
 - Build bridging relationships (weak ties)
 - Build supportive relationships (strong ties)
- Restructure the environment
 - Change the physical or social context
- Capability-based mechanisms, which enable actors to change
 - Build confidence
 - Build self-efficacy and confidence
 - Educate
 - Increase knowledge and understanding
 - Train
 - Build skills

We also found that just as important as the mechanisms (i.e. what to do to achieve change) is how to go about achieving change. Creating social change is a complex and uncertain endeavour; therefore, how social change projects are run can affect the successful use of social change mechanisms. We address how to successfully run social change projects through the following 13 project organizing practices:

- Motivation-based organizing practises, which capture how to motivate project staff and stakeholders to deliver change:
 - Build a shared project vision and goals
 - Pick low-hanging fruit and create quick wins
 - Evaluate and provide feed back
- Opportunity-based organizing practices, which capture how to build project resources and opportunities to deliver change
 - Create inclusive project governance
 - Build a sustainable project resource base
 - Leverage project relationships
 - Innovate to create new opportunities

- Capability-based organizing practices, which capture how to develop project capabilities to deliver social change:
 - Build project credibility
 - Adopt a systems approach: Understand and build on local knowledge and culture
 - Adopt a systems approach: Build on existing strengths
 - Adopt a systems approach: Involve relevant stakeholders
 - Show leadership (connect, coordinate, empower)
 - Develop the project skill base

Our Framework for Creating Social Change (page 18) summarizes the social change mechanisms and organizing practices.

From pages 23 to 69 of the report, we present detailed descriptions of how to use these mechanisms and practices to create positive social change. We also provide real-life examples from the four social change areas identified in the review: Environmental behaviour, Health behaviour, Social inclusion and Civic engagement.

Finally, on pages 71 to 79, we outline social change strategies, which are combinations of change mechanisms and practices. We highlight that social change can be either at the surface-level and short-term or it can be deep-level change resulting in longer-term changes. Bringing about pervasive and enduring deep-level social change requires business to pursue high-involvement strategies. We discuss the ideal timing of such high-involvement strategies as a three-step

process (Prepare, Change, Maintain), with a specific focus on how to get change projects off the ground.

To sum up, when it comes to business-driven social change:

Do we know what works and what does not?

Yes and no. Yes, we know how social change can be created, but, we have not much strong evidence regarding specifically how business can drive social change. Many social change examples covered in the review stem from social change organizations, including social enterprises, non-profits and community-based groups. These origins are not surprising given that the primary role of these organizations is to create social change. These organizations are at the cutting edge when it comes to creating sustainable social change. Are these examples relevant for businesses that want to drive social change? After examining the evidence in depth, we believe these examples are relevant for businesses, if they carefully build their change project's credibility.

Indeed, high-quality evidence of how business can drive social change is strikingly absent, despite businesses being in a privileged position to build such evidence for their own benefit and with relatively little effort and cost. For instance, systematic experimenting would ensure the delivery of the most cost-effective intervention appropriate to a business's specific context. At the heart of systematic experimenting lies the notion of comparability: i.e. comparing against both a baseline and a location or group that has not (yet) received the social change intervention. For instance, supermarkets

already use test markets when introducing new products. If a supermarket chain wanted to support more sustainable consumption, it could easily test the effectiveness of various strategies (e.g. awareness raising, shelf-display manipulations, pricing strategies) by randomly allocating various strategies to stores in similar locations (e.g. inner-city stores) and by retaining at least one “control” store where nothing is changed. By comparing purchasing data from before the intervention with purchasing data both from after the intervention and from the control store, the organization can understand which strategies work best and are most cost-efficient.

Systematic experimenting could be part of the pilot phase of social change projects, ascertaining whether the intervention works and then fine-tuning it (Davenport, 2009). Thus, systematic experimenting can help to alleviate the inherent uncertainty in social change projects. Systematic experimenting also demonstrates commitment, thereby boosting business’s credibility with stakeholders.

Which change project should a business pursue?

The evidence suggests that businesses are most credible and successful when they pursue change projects that are aligned with their core business and competences: i.e. if they pursue so-called corporate social opportunities. Thus, business should seek change projects that naturally tie in with their business. For example, through Tim Hortons’ coffee partnerships, the company works with coffee farmers, non-profit organizations and exporters to help improve the businesses and lives of coffee farmers in the regions

where they source coffee and to improve the quality of coffee supply for Tim Hortons.

Other than developing social change initiatives on their own, partnering with social change organizations and local government can be a powerful and cost-effective way for business to create social change, particularly when the partnerships leverage complementary capabilities of each partner. Social change organizations are experts in creating social change and can both propose novel change projects and provide needed credibility to change projects. However, such collaborations require trust in the other partner and a willingness to co-develop projects.

Another option open to businesses is to develop change initiatives on their own but seek inspiration through crowdsourcing ideas from social change organizations. We pilot-tested such a mechanism and found that business can access unique ideas that combine social change with income generation through crowdsourcing — and can do so at relatively low cost (Stephan, Huysentruyt, & Van Looy, 2012).

Employees can also be a good source of inspiration for change projects. Businesses that offer employees the resources to pursue change projects reap benefits in terms of greater employee engagement (e.g. Grant, 2012; Grant, Dutton, & Rosso, 2008). Such change projects are also likely to meet with greater acceptance from other company staff.

Is business-driven social change (too) difficult to do?

We emphasized that social change is long-term, complex and uncertain, but it is not necessarily difficult. Incremental, small-step approaches are very successful, as are approaches involving the actors who are targeted for change. Businesses are constantly changing the collective behaviour of the public (e.g. the way we shop, eat, communicate); leveraging this power for the good of society is arguably only a small step. The systematic review highlights what businesses can do to create social change and how they can do it. This closing chapter outlines some ideas for finding inspiration for new projects to create social change.

additional resources

Appendix A describes how the researchers conducted the review.

Appendix B lists all studies included in the review.

Appendix C lists additional literature used in the writing of this report.

Appendix A: Methodological Background of the Review

This appendix provides a detailed description of how the systematic review was conducted, including the review questions, the search strategy and a breakdown of the types of literature identified and included in the review (practitioner vs. academic, grey vs. peer-reviewed).

1. Review questions

The overarching question guiding the review was: What do we know about how business can drive social change among the general public?

The review focused on empirical research that provided evidence on mechanisms and strategies for achieving collective social change.

We reviewed three streams of evidence:

1. Evidence that connects the actions of a business or business conglomerate to social change;
2. Evidence that connects the actions of social enterprises to social change; and
3. Evidence that connects actions of new and recent social movements to social change.

The focus on the first stream of research seems self-explanatory. Initiatives covered in this stream include base-of-the-pyramid strategies pursued by multinational corporations to provide low-cost, no-frills, essential products to the poor (see the examples of Danone and SC Johnson on page 8). The inclusion of streams on social enterprises and social movements warrants further explanation:

We adopted a broad definition of social entrepreneurship, referring to organizations (both non-profit and for-profit) of all sizes that pursue an explicitly social mission, i.e. benefitting the environment and people other than the owners. The domain of social entrepreneurship is not yet clearly defined, which led to our choosing an inclusive definition. In addition to including evidence on the actions of social enterprises, social businesses, non-profits and non-government organizations, we incorporated evidence on civic entrepreneurship, institutional entrepreneurship, environmental entrepreneurship, societal entrepreneurship and the non-regulatory, entrepreneurial actions of local and central governments. Common to this literature is the emphasis on entrepreneurial activity as a means to achieve societal and institutional change, including cultural practices and collective behaviour (e.g. Mair, 2010).

Social change was originally studied by sociologists, particularly as part of their studies on social movements. From this extremely large body of literature, we were selective, focusing on research on new social movements.⁶ Within this literature, we focused on recent reviews, particularly research connecting social movements to business-related issues such as market creation and innovation. Elements of social movement actions may also be usefully adopted by businesses.

We had originally intended to include a fourth stream of literature on social change originating from the influences of minority groups (review question: What

mechanisms and strategies do minority groups use to achieve collective change, (i.e. change of behaviour in the dominant group?). However, the number of sources retrieved and the diversity in the different literature streams led us to focus the review on the three streams of literature described.

2. Search strategy

For each literature stream, we defined search keywords which we reviewed and pilot-tested in scoping searches. The keywords included word stems⁷, semantic synonyms⁸ and synonyms identified in the literature (e.g. social enterprise and civic enterprise). We

Figure 10

SEARCH KEYWORDS

Any of the keyword sets 1 through 4

1. Keywords related to business: business*, business-driven*, base*/bottom* of pyramid*
2. Keywords related to social enterprise: social business*, social entrepren*/enterpr*, institution* entrepren*/enterpr*, civic entrepren*/enterpr*, societal entrepren*/enterpr*, environmental entrepren*/enterpr*,
3. Keywords related to new social movements: social movement*
4. Keywords related to minority influence (later excluded): minority, dissent, deviance, minority influenc*, consistent contributor*, minority dissent, conversion

in combination with

social impact*, behaviour change, behaviour change, collective behaviour change, collective change, societal change, social change, environm* change, culture change, community change, institution* change

and in combination with

mechanism*, how, strategy, strategies, logic

⁶ New and old social movements differ in their goals. New social movements tend to focus more on issues related to the environment, peace, development and human rights (including gay rights, gender equality and civil rights) and less on issues related to political parties, religious movements, professional associations and material inequalities (such as economic well-being and labor relations) (Schofer & Fourcade-Gourinchas, 2001).

⁷ Word stem can be loosely defined as the core of a word that stays the same across all uses, or inflections, of a word. It is typically the core of the word without suffixes and pre-fixes. See examples in Figure 10.

⁸ That is, words with equal meaning.

ran searches combining keywords related to a literature stream with search terms referring to collective social change and keywords referring to mechanisms or strategies of change (see Figure 10).

Next we ran these search strings through a wide set of databases.

Searches of academic databases: We searched diverse databases as we expected evidence on business-driven change to be distributed across academic disciplines (from business studies, management and development economics to sociology and psychology).

The databases included Ovid, in particular EconLit and PsycINFO; Web of Science/Knowledge, in particular Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), Conference Proceedings Citation Index-Science (CPCI-S), and Conference Proceedings Citation Index-Social Science & Humanities (CPCI-SSH); and Scopus and ProQuest, in particular Worldwide Political Science Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Dissertations & Theses A&I: Business, Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts (ASSIA), and International Bibliography of the Social Sciences (IBSS). Table 2 provides an overview of the references retrieved

Table 2

OVERVIEW OF ACADEMIC SEARCHES

DATABASE	BUSINESS-DRIVEN	SOCIAL ENTERPRISE	SOCIAL MOVEMENT	MINORITY-RELATED	TOTALS
Ovid					
PsycINFO 1806-*	225	17	126	155	523
Econlit 1961-	93	4	12	16	125
Web of Science (Social Science Citation Index and Conference Proceedings in Science and Social Sciences, 1956-)	196	30	111	140	477
Scopus 1966-	765	0	283	2	1,050
Proquest: Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts (ASSIA 1987-)	135	94	177	182	588
Further Proquest databases (International Bibliography of the Social Sciences (IBSS 1951-); Sociological Abstracts 1952- ; Dissertations and Theses A&I: Business; Worldwide Political Science Abstracts 1975-)	3,740	3,692	7,047	938	15,417
TOTALS	5,124	3,837	7,756	1,433	18,180
Totals after deleting duplicates and non-English language entries					13,477

*Dates shown are the inception dates of the databases

Searches of practitioner databases: For searches of practitioner materials, we used only keywords related to business and social enterprise and social change. We searched leading practitioner-focused journals, the websites of policy-related organizations (e.g. the World Bank and the UN Global Compact) and websites that aggregate sustainability-related research and practitioner and consultancy websites (both specific to sustainability and websites of leading consultancies).

Table 3 provides an overview of websites searched.

3. What sources are relevant? Making decisions about inclusion in the review

The searches yielded too many sources to include in the review. We narrowed the sources through three steps. Figure 11 provides an overview.

Table 3

OVERVIEW SEARCHES OF PRACTITIONER LITERATURE

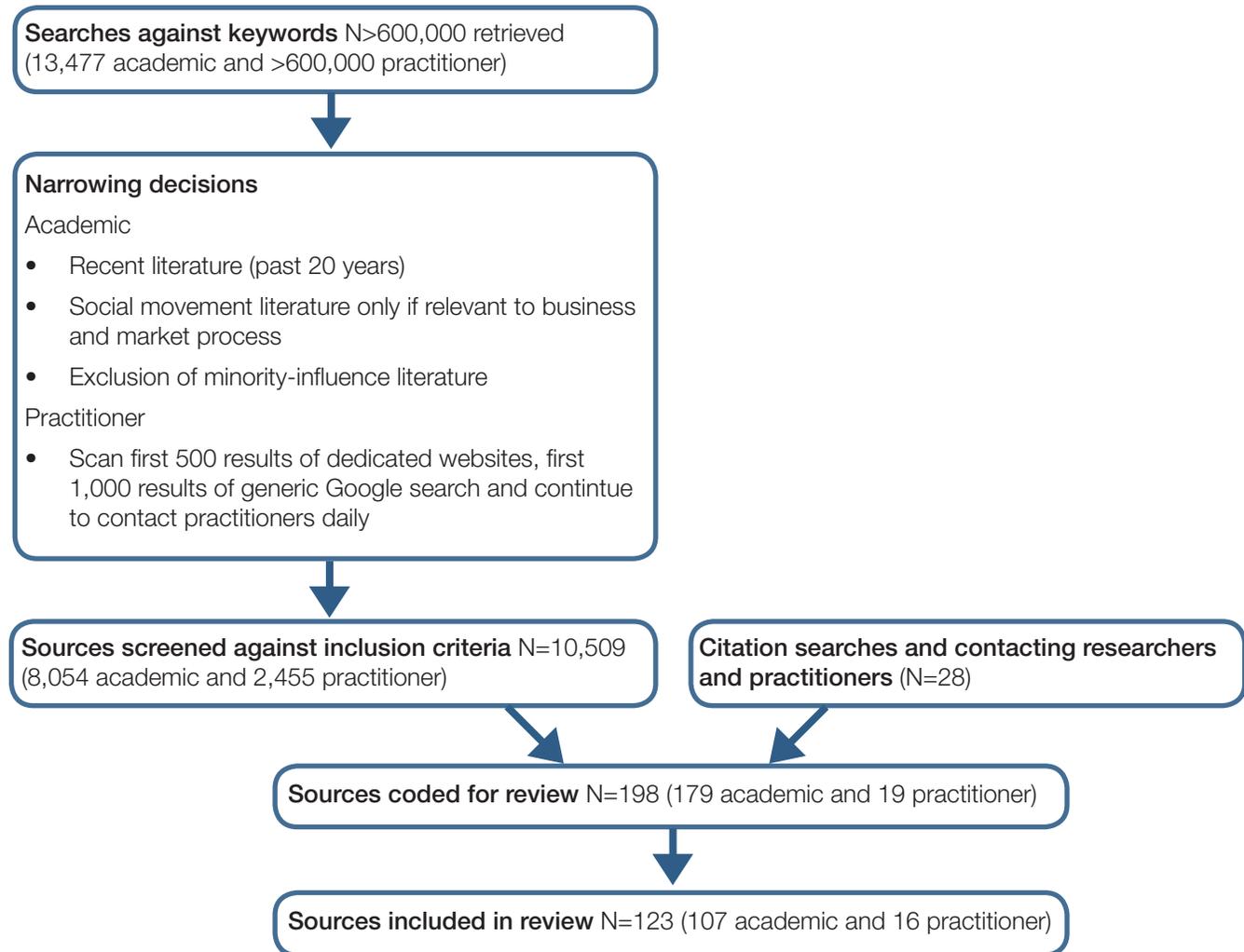
LEADING PRACTITIONER-FOCUSED JOURNALS		POLICY-RELATED ORGANIZATIONS	
Stanford Social Innovation Review	83	www.worldbank.org	1,331
Harvard Business Review	2	www.unglobalcompact.org	2,610
Sloan Management Review	1		
California Management Review	12		
AGGREGATORS OF RESEARCH		PRACTITIONERS AND CONSULTANTS	
www.caseplace.org	276	www.wbcsd.org	108
www.greenbiz.com	279	www.bitc.org.uk	0
www.environmentalleader.com	26	www.businessinsociety.eu	1
www.csrwire.com	45	www.sustainability.com	31
http://3blmedia.com	22	www.deloitte.com	9,810
http://csr-news.net	68	www.pwc.com	5,379
		www.kpmg.com	6,379
		www.mckinsey.com	237
		www.bcg.com	1
		www.accenture.com	3,693
Generic Google search	>600,000		
Total practitioner-focused journal articles excluding generic Google searches			30,730

Step 1, Narrowing: We made a broad set of narrowing decisions, such as including only recent literature (published in the past 20 years), focusing specifically on the social movement literature as it pertains to business and market processes and excluding the minority-

influenced literature. The social movement literature, in particular, was vast, so we concentrated on research relevant to business actions. The minority-influence literature seemed to be a separate and very different body of research that bore little direct relevance to

Figure 11

OVERVIEW LITERATURE SEARCH AND SCREENING PROCESSES



business. We reasoned that interventions derived from the social enterprise and social movement literatures were more directly relevant to the actions of business and, hence, we concentrated on those literature streams. After this first step, we had 10,509 sources to review.

Step 2, Rating for inclusion in the review: We developed a set of inclusion and exclusion criteria (in the form of a decision tree), describing the characteristics of studies to be included in the review, and then screened the abstracts and titles of the 10,509 sources against these inclusion criteria. In summary, our decision criteria were captured in eight key questions, supplemented by a protocol of the clarifications and definitions of key concepts and by a list of most commonly encountered problems in decision-making and suggested resolutions. The eight guiding questions were as follows:

1. Is the study greater than six pages?
2. Is the research empirical?
3. Is the research published after 1991? (If it is a review, is it published after 2001)?
4. Is the research evaluative (e.g. a case study or experiment) rather than purely descriptive (e.g. a biography, scripts of interviews with change makers, description of historical processes)?
5. Does it measure or describe a collective behaviour change?
6. Does it describe positive social change, i.e. a behaviour change that benefits others or the environment?
7. Does it describe mechanisms, strategies and processes of how the behaviour change is achieved?

8. Does it describe the actions of an organization (including social enterprises, businesses, non-profit organizations or sets of researchers), the local government or a new social movement?

We focused on articles longer than six pages as it would be difficult to more briefly describe empirical research in sufficient detail to be useful for our review. We included only empirical research so we would collect only the best available evidence. We also included recent reviews of research (i.e. published in the past 10 years), which we felt would provide useful overviews of past research. Except for the reviews, all original studies needed to have been published within the past 20 years and had to be evaluative (i.e. analyze empirical data) rather than being purely descriptive. All research needed to either measure or describe positive collective behaviour change as an outcome of the actions of organizations, current social movements, a local authority, a local government, a municipality or a researcher and needed to describe how the behaviour change was achieved. If any research team member read a study's abstract and title and was unclear whether the study should be included in the review, a second opinion was sought. If the question of inclusion was still not resolved, the full paper was retrieved for further examination.

Two exceptions were allowed to the decision criteria: First, we decided to include two references on social media and web-based research that were theoretical in nature because this area of research is still underdeveloped, but can have a potentially large impact on social change (e.g. as in the Arab Spring); also, members of the Leadership Council had expressed

their interest in social media research. The second exception relates to articles from leading practitioner journals. We searched these journals despite the articles typically having fewer than six pages. Nevertheless, they were based on original research and provided insightful cases or summaries.

Four researchers engaged in the rating process, dividing the 10,509 sources among them. Before doing so, the reviewers rated 200 abstracts using the inclusion and exclusion criteria and discussed areas of agreement and disagreement. Next, the reviewers rated another set of 100 sources, on which inter-rater reliability (using Kappa) was calculated to determine whether the reviewers agreed in their ratings. Kappa was above 0.70 among all raters, indicating an acceptable level of agreement.

Step 3, Coding studies for the review: After Step 2, we had 198 relevant sources to include in the review. We retrieved all papers and reports and coded multiple aspects of the studies, including study quality, design, sample size and the methods used for data collection and analysis. The coding informed our rating of the strength of the evidence. Further, reviewers coded the mechanism of change, the change outcomes, how the behaviour was measured, whether contingencies of the intervention were tested and whether the intervention led to undesirable effects. This coding, in turn, informed our descriptions of change mechanisms, organizing practices and contingencies. Finally, we collated background information on each study, including the continent and country of intervention and the source of

Table 4

BREAKDOWN OF INCLUDED SOURCES BY TYPE OF LITERATURE

Peer-reviewed literature	95
Journals	88
Books	4
Book Chapters	1
Conference proceedings	2
Grey literature (not peer-reviewed)	28
Books	3
Reports	11
PhD theses	14
Total	123

Table 5

BREAKDOWN OF WHERE SOCIAL CHANGE WAS RESEARCHED AND WHERE IT TOOK PLACE

WHERE SOCIAL CHANGE WAS RESEARCHED	NUMBER OF SOURCES	WHERE SOCIAL CHANGE TOOK PLACE	NUMBER OF SOURCES
Developed countries	98	Individual level including groups of individuals	113
Developing countries	38	Industry or market level	34
Mixed	13	Mixed	2

The main areas of change (i.e. the content of change) are displayed in Table 6. Most research is available in the area of environmental change, which is the change area with the most robust evidence on how to achieve behaviour change. Social and economic inclusion is the second most frequently researched area, followed by health. Health behaviour change was often a secondary area: an intervention created health change while primarily targeting another area (see the last column of Table 6). For instance, the SC Johnson household cleaning business in Nairobi tackled social and economic inclusion (by providing jobs to unemployed youth) as well as health issues (by increasing the level of cleanliness in the slum).

Table 6

BREAKDOWN OF SOURCES BY AREA OF SOCIAL CHANGE

WHAT WAS CHANGED?	NUMBER OF SOURCES	
	Main Area	Secondary Area
Content of Change		
Environmental behaviour	60	5
Social and economic inclusion	55	5
Health behaviour	38	13
Civic engagement	17	1
Other	3	0

Finally, Table 7 summarizes the primary initiator of social change. Most frequently, social change was initiated by what are often termed social change organizations, i.e. non-profits, social enterprises and community-based organizations. Businesses, local government authorities or municipal bodies, and researchers were the next most frequent drivers of social change in roughly equal frequency. Collaboration across actors was relatively common (in 38 sources).

Table 7

BREAKDOWN OF SOURCES BY INITIATOR OF SOCIAL CHANGE

SOCIAL CHANGE INITIATED BY:	NUMBER OF SOURCES
Social change organizations	77
Non-profit organizations	29
Social enterprise	26
Community-based organization	22
Local government authority/municipality	40
Researcher	34
Business	33
Social movement	8
Other	7
Business association/professional body	5

Appendix B: Sources Included in the Review

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