Toward a stakeholder-based policy process: An application of the social marketing perspective to environmental policy development

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Abstract. This article suggests that the application of social marketing principles to the public policy process can facilitate the efforts of governmental policy-makers and non-governmental stakeholders to articulate their policy desires and to encourage the adoption and acceptance of particular environmental policies. A conceptual framework is presented, emphasizing both the influence of stakeholders on environmental policy development and the education of stakeholders as to the potential effects of the policy. The purpose of such a conceptualization is to show how social marketing principles can be applied to the public policy process in order to enhance the likelihood of successful policy development and implementation.

Public policy plays a crucial role in solving environmental problems. Much of the progress in environmental policy in the late 1960s and throughout the 1970s was undone by deregulation imposed by the Reagan administration in the early 1980s (Henning and Mangun, 1989; Portney, 1986). There is currently no comprehensive public policy for environmental protection and regulation in the United States, largely due to the incremental nature of environmental policy formulation in this country.

In the past twenty years there have been considerable changes in public attitudes toward the environment, and in the relative importance of specific environmental issues (e.g., increased seriousness of landfill overflow, ozone depletion, wetlands protection). Numerous public opinion polls show that public environmental concern is extremely high (Opinion Research Corporation, 1990). However, there is still resistance to the implementation of certain environmental policies. A gap apparently exists between the development of environmental policy by governmental policy-makers (e.g., the President and Congress) and the receptiveness of those non-governmental stakeholders (e.g., citizens, environmental interest groups, and industry) for whom such policy is designed to provide benefits, and on whom it imposes constraints.

The purpose of this analysis is to propose a conceptual framework of the policy process that emphasizes increased stakeholder involvement. This analysis suggests that the application of social marketing principles to the public

policy process can facilitate the efforts of policy-makers and stakeholders to articulate their policy desires and to encourage the adoption and acceptance of particular environmental policies. Following a brief discussion of the traditional conception of the public policy process, the proposed stakeholder-based public policy process is presented. This new conception of the policy process emphasizes both the influence of stakeholders on environmental policy development and the education of stakeholders on the potential effects of the policy. The environmental policy context is appropriate for this type of conceptual framework because of the diversity of stakeholder interests involved, including citizens, environmental interest groups, and various industries.

Traditional public policy development

In general, traditional conceptions of the public policy process involve a straightforward path from problem definition through policy implementation and evaluation (Starling, 1988; Portney, 1986; Dye, 1981; Lindblom, 1980; Anderson, 1979; Jones, 1977). While the details of these conceptions vary, they all have several elements in common. The first stage of the traditional policy process, 'problem definition,' involves the emergence and recognition of some problem or crisis situation. 'Policy formulation' is the second stage where various governmental and non-governmental actors, such as legislators, executive branch officials, the courts, citizens, and interest groups come together in order to examine proposals that address specific problems. Specific policy proposals are articulated in the third stage through 'policy adoption.' The fourth stage, 'policy implementation,' concerns the execution of the adopted legislation by an administrative unit. Finally, in the 'policy evaluation' stage, policy-makers determine whether the policy has achieved its goals sufficiently enough to merit its continuation.

While traditional conceptions of the public policy process have evolved and become more complex over time, they have failed to place adequate emphasis on the roles played by non-governmental stakeholders at each stage of the policy process (Peters, 1993). Discussing non-governmental stakeholders only in terms of the policy formulation stage is not sufficient. A broadening of the traditional policy process is needed in order to highlight additional stages where non-governmental actors can influence and be affected by the policy process.

A stakeholder-based public policy development process

The stakeholder-based policy process, presented in Figure 1, replaces the traditional policy process, and extends the traditional conception through the addition of stages in the policy process that emphasize the roles of stake-

PUBLIC HEARINGS DECIDE **FORMULATE** AND EVALUATE COMMUNICATE **ALTERNATIVES** LEAD Social Marketing Perspective CONSULT POLICY INVOLVE STAKEHOLDER IMPLEMENTATION INVOLVEMENT ACCOMODATE -- Education of policy makers about stakeholder needs and policy effects -- Education of stakeholders **PROBLEM** about policy issues MONITOR DEFINITION AND ADJUST AND AGENDA SETTING POLICY

A STAKEHOLDER BASED POLICY PROCESS

Fig. 1. A stakeholder-based public policy development process.

REDESIGN

holders. This change in the way the policy process can be viewed takes into account the efforts of policy-makers to design better policy by increasing stakeholder involvement in the process.

An important contribution that the stakeholder-based public policy process makes is the application of social marketing principles throughout the stages. The purpose of such a conceptualization is not to juxtapose the private-sector marketing process against the public policy process, but rather to show how social marketing principles can be applied to the public policy process in order to enhance the likelihood of successful policy development and implementation. The marketing process is by no means argued to be identical to the public policy process.

Social marketing is 'the design, implementation, and control of pro-

grams seeking to increase the acceptability of a social idea, cause, or practice in a target group(s)' (Kotler, 1976: p. 495). Kotler and Levy (1969) first discussed this notion in the context of transferring traditional marketing principles to the marketing of organizations, persons, and ideas as 'products.' They raised the question of whether the marketing concept, which emphasizes that all strategies and tactics should be directed toward the satisfaction of customer needs, can be applied by nonbusiness organizations:

All organizations are formed to serve the interests of particular groups: hospitals serve the stick, schools serve the students, *governments serve the citizens*, and labor unions serve the members.... Marketing is that function of the organization that can keep in constant touch with the organization's consumers, read their needs, develop 'products' that meet these needs, and build a program of communications to express the organization's purposes (Kotler and Levy, 1969: p. 15, emphasis added).

While such a broadening of the marketing concept was much debated (Arndt, 1978; Enis, 1973; Luck, 1969), current thought acknowledges the usefulness of social marketing principles in non-business and non-profit contexts (Assael, 1991; Pride and Ferrell, 1991). In the context of environmental policy development, a legislative body can be considered an 'organization' whose 'customers' (stakeholders) will have 'needs' regarding the 'product' (viz., environmental policy). It is important to recognize that different stakeholders in this context may have different, and potentially conflicting, 'needs' (e.g., industry interests vs. citizens' interests). This highlights a key difference between the public policy process and private-sector marketing: whereas marketing programs can be targeted toward specific groups by using marketing strategies and presenting products that are intended specifically for those groups, public policies are aimed at specific policy problems within specific policy areas that usually have more than one type of affected group; some groups benefit from the policy, while other groups may experience adverse impacts (sometimes real, sometimes imagined). Thus, in addition to helping policy-makers develop the best possible public policies, social marketing is offered as a strategy to help policy-makers minimize the real or imagined adverse impacts of public policy.

Social marketing has been proposed as a useful tool for long-term behavior-change interventions by environmental interest groups (Geller, 1989). However, this analysis proposes that social marketing has broader applications to the policy process. Both the influence of stakeholders on the environmental policy process and the effects of the process on stakeholders can be addressed by the application of social marketing. As depicted by the stakeholder-based policy process presented in Figure 1, social marketing has implications throughout the various stages.

The first stage of the process is problem definition and agenda setting. While this stage does not differ essentially from the initial stage of the traditional policy process, it is useful to recognize the applicability of social marketing principles at this stage. From the social marketing perspective, this stage involves the establishment and recognition of stakeholder ('customer') needs, defined as the wants, needs, desires, and interests of the various stakeholders. Policy-makers can identify the relevant stakeholders who may be affected by or may influence the policy process. Also, any conflict among stakeholders concerning their needs can be assessed. In addition, policy-makers can face complex combinations of stakeholder groups in which interest groups may represent citizens, institutions, or industry: 'For policy purposes, a problem can be formally defined as a condition or situation that produces needs or dissatisfactions on the part of people for which relief or redress is sought. This may be done by those directly affected or by others acting on their behalf' (Anderson, 1979: pp. 52–53). The complexities of the current public policy environment also require diversity in problem definitions (Ingraham, 1987).

While conflicting needs among stakeholders is a condition that policy-makers often face, a single 'product' (i.e., the policy) is usually 'mass-market-ed' to all stakeholders within a particular policy area. Despite this, there may be potential for policy-makers to 'segment their market' with respect to stakeholder needs, though this is not always the case. Market segmentation involves differentiation of need satisfaction, while mass marketing involves standardization. The challenge in a standardized marketing strategy is to identify a compromised level of need, a type of 'lowest common denominator.' This naturally results in reduced levels of overall need satisfaction; however, a standardized strategy is less costly to develop and implement. On the other hand, a differentiated strategy is more comprehensive in satisfying stakeholder needs, but costs more to implement. By orienting themselves toward the needs of stakeholders, policy-makers can more effectively balance these two strategies from a cost/benefit perspective.

Moreover, in cases where policy-makers are unable to segment their market, social marketing strategies become useful for minimizing adverse impacts of a policy and for increasing the likelihood that disaffected groups will still accept the policy. Such situations come about by taking into account different stakeholders, making tradeoffs and compromises, and then forming a consensus around one policy available and applicable to all. This outcome steps outside the boundaries of the marketing process in its purest form, where there are not only different products for different market segments, but where not all market segments are necessarily served. There are some policies (e.g., distributive and constituent policies) that may be able to be targeted toward and impact only one specific group (Kingdon, 1984), but his is often not the case with environmental policy where both environmental groups and industry frequently see the process as a zero-sum game.

Problems concerning environmental issues began to emerge in the late 1960s. Growing concern over the use of lethal pesticides and increased levels of air and water pollution led to the creation of the environmental movement in the United States (Portney, 1986). Public perception of the dangers posed to human health and safety have a tendency to act as a strong political influence on governmental action toward dealing with environmental problems (Henning and Mangun, 1989). Over the past few decades, a myriad of environmental groups (e.g., Natural Resources Defense Council, Environmental Defense Fund, Sierra Club, National Wildlife Federation) have acted on behalf of citizens in order to seek relief from and redress for various environmental threats facing Americans. In addition to persisting environmental problems from the past, several problems (e.g., overflowing landfills, nuclear waste disposal, deforestation, the greenhouse effect) have become more serious and are subject to greater public awareness. As in most 'markets,' the needs of stakeholders are not static but dynamic: they change over time due to both external (e.g., through the influence of the media and public opinion) and internal (e.g., personal and attitudinal) factors.

As problems become salient issues, and as individuals or groups begin to take action, legislators place the problems on the policy agenda. Political leadership may also be an important influence on agenda setting because 'political leaders, whether motivated by considerations of political advantage, concern for the public interest, or both, may seize upon particular problems, publicize them, and propose solutions' (Anderson, 1979: p. 57). For example, the Water Pollution Control Act of 1972 was adopted by Congress as a result of the efforts of the chairman of the Senate Subcommittee on Air and Water Pollution, Senator Edmund Muskie (Rosenbaum, 1973).

In addition, the media plays an important part in the agenda setting process by bringing issues of concern to the attention of citizens and politicians, or by putting more emphasis on issues already on the agenda (Bacot, Fitzgerald, and McCabe, 1991; Henning and Mangun, 1989; Anderson, 1979). In sum, a great many factors combine to result in a complex set of stakeholder needs that are, with varying degrees of completeness, placed on the general policy agenda.

Consult, involve, accommodate

This stage represents one of the most important differences between the proposed policy process and traditional conceptions. Traditional policy processes move directly from problem definition to the formulation of policy alternatives. However, with increasing complexity in problems facing policy-makers, and increased numbers of stakeholders in the policy process, it has become important for policy-makers to allow stakeholders a more active role in the policy development process. Environmental policy has to address an extremely complex set of problems. In order to better deal with varying per-

ceptions and myriad solutions, policy-makers can give environmental interest groups and industry interest groups an opportunity to interact with legislators and, more specifically, with the congressional committees and subcommittees responsible for environmental legislation (Henning and Mangun, 1989; Portney, 1986; Anderson, 1979).

Whereas the first stage addressed the formation and definition of general stakeholder needs, this stage addresses the process of communication through which policy-makers actively include stakeholders in the policy process and elicit from them specific interests, concerns, and information. As mentioned earlier, environmental policy often involves conflicting interests that require standardizing the stakeholder needs or providing differentiated policy to address the conflicts. Policy-makers can attempt to balance stakeholder interests through direct, interactive consultation (as opposed to adversarial confrontation) with environmental interest groups, representatives of relevant industries and social institutions, and concerned private citizens.

At this stage, the relevant social marketing activity employed by policymakers is 'marketing research,' which often uses survey research and opinion polling, focus groups, in-depth interviews, and consumer analysis to minimize uncertainty in product development. By determining stakeholders wants; needs, and desires through techniques such as public opinion polling and consumer analysis, legislators are better prepared to develop policy that meets stakeholder needs (Starling, 1988; Kotler, 1975). Moreover, by consulting the various stakeholders potentially affected by a particular policy, legislators can make use of the information and expertise that these entities may possess, thus improving the quality of the available alternatives and choices (Starling, 1988). Public participation is often the only way that certain types of information, evaluation, and public support can be obtained for environmental problem solving and decision making (Henning and Mangun, 1989). Active consultation with stakeholders, as well as a prior knowledge of stakeholder attitudes and desires, may also lead to a reduction in litigation to solve policy problems because the various interests can be accommodated before the policy is formulated. In essence, this information gathering and communication process is the mechanism by which the previously discussed 'problem definition' can be more efficiently facilitated.

It should be emphasized here, however, that 'accommodation' at this stage does not mean that policy-makers give in completely to the demands of the various interest groups. Policy-makers should be intent on selecting what appears to them to be the most effective policy choice. However, by allowing affected groups more access to the policy process, it is possible to create better policy based on more complete information. This is especially true for environmental policy because it requires a level of expertise, technical skill, and understanding which may not be found in the consensus building expertise of the legislature (Ingraham, 1987).

Advocates for various interest groups spend a considerable amount of time attempting to structure the ways in which policy-makers process information

about consequences and interpret various policy options. This can be observed at the federal level: 'Presentations are made at every stage of the congressional process, beginning with the drafting of a legislative proposal before its introduction into the House and Senate and ending with the final floor vote on the proposal' (Smith, 1984: p. 47). By allowing this type of group involvement in the policy process, legislators can alleviate some of the deadlock caused by discontented stakeholders, and acquire information that has the potential to improve the quality of proposed legislation. The process will not be perfect, nor will it completely satisfy all stakeholders' needs. Nevertheless, a process of consulting, involving, and, to varying degrees, accommodating stakeholder interests through the application of social marketing principles may result in the formulation of more effective and efficient policy in the long run.

Formulate and evaluate alternatives

Having been made aware of the problems, having placed them on the agenda, and having consulted the various stakeholders, policy-makers concerned with environmental policy formulate possible alternatives and determine those most effective for solving the environmental problems. Based on the information presented to them by outside stakeholders – as well as by aides, advisors, and executive officials – legislators weigh the options and determine the best course to take (Anderson, 1979; Anderson, Brady, and Bullock, 1978). Formulating and evaluating alternatives can be seen as two types of activities: (1) deciding what should be done about the particular problem, and (2) drafting the legislation. The written form of a bill can have a significant impact on the administration and actual content of the public policy (Anderson, 1979).

From a social marketing perspective, formulation and evaluation of alternatives involves the determination of 'product attributes' – the specifications of the policy itself. For example, the research and development function of a car manufacturer consults with the marketing function to determine what options the customers want, then designs the cars correspondingly. Legislators, keeping in mind the need to build support for the proposed policy, determine the provisions of the policy to be included and those to be excluded. By carefully applying social marketing principles in the first two stages, legislators can anticipate which parts of the policy proposal will be most likely to gain favor and adoption. Through this anticipation, legislators may also be influenced by what they think may happen during the administration of the policy (Anderson, 1979).

Public hearings

Stakeholders can also influence the environmental policy process at the public hearing stage. Citizens and various interests groups (both environmental and industry groups) have an opportunity to comment on the actual legislation drawn up in the previous stage. Involvement in this stage usually takes place through presentations or testimony made before the various congressional committees and subcommittees. This is another opportunity for the stakeholders to influence the decision makers by reinforcing information about consequences, and by getting legislators to reconsider information that may have been previously overlooked (Smith, 1984). Whereas this stage was not as important in the past, today, with the proliferation of various environmental groups, this stage of the policy process has become more important because groups are playing a greater participatory role. By becoming involved in public hearings, citizens and groups take advantage of their right to be active in the policy process.

From a social marketing perspective, the public hearing stage can be used as an opportunity for 'pre-launch publicity,' such as the advance publicity generated by Apple when introducing the Macintosh in 1984. At this stage there is an actual piece of legislation to which stakeholders can react, whether favorably or not. This stage is also important because of the valuable feedback that policy-makers can get from the various stakeholders. In the context of environmental policy, this stage may not be voluntarily carried out by the legislative body; indeed, public hearings are a requirement of the policy process.

Decide, communicate, lead

This stage involves deciding on policy specifications, communicating that decision, and doing so in a way that depicts strong leadership. Generally, the decision to approve a particular alternative involves 'building majority support for a policy proposal in Congress' (Anderson, Brady, and Bullock, 1978). The use of mass media is extremely important to communicating this decision to the public. Once a policy alternative is chosen, its success or failure at the implementation stage often depends upon whether or not the stakeholders accept the legislation. A better public understanding of what the policy entails can facilitate acceptance by stakeholders.

In this stage, then, the involvement of stakeholders differs from that of the earlier stages. Instead of being influenced by stakeholders, the legislative body communicates the elements of the policy to the stakeholders. In the environmental policy context, this communication can be difficult: 'Conveying the need for environmental policies is problematic in that benefits are not easily demonstrated and resulting costs often lead citizens to question the policy's purpose' (Bacot, Fitzgerald, and McCabe, 1991: p. 1). Proper use of the mass

media by policy-makers can soften the blow that a particular policy may have on a group of stakeholders. As a result, stakeholders may be more likely to abide by the provisions of the legislation, and thus the policy implementation process may be more successful.

In addition, the mass media functions as a communication device for governmental actors. Legislators can rely on the mass media to voice their policy concerns and decisions to other agencies of government. The media can influence public perceptions throughout the policy process, as citizens evaluate the success of polices offerd as solutions to specific problems or issues (Bacot, Fitzgerald, and McCabe, 1991).

Such 'informational advertising' is a useful social marketing tool for policy-makers. In social marketing, the goal of promotional efforts is to use a variety of media to communicate a consistent informational message; e.g., the American Red Cross uses informational advertising to encourage blood donation. In a policy context, the goal of such promotion is to educate stakeholders, especially in the area of environmental policy where complex and technical information can potentially be misinterpreted and misunderstood. Most environmental policies attempt to change the behavior of various stakeholders from behavior that is harmful to the environment to behavior that is beneficial to the environment. Unless the stakeholders understand the problems, they will be less likely to undertake the necessary changes. In addition, without education, the affected parties will not know that the possible options are for implementing behavior change (Hutton and Ahtola, 1991).

Policy implementation

At this point the specific policy alternative has been chosen, the choice is made public, and the policy is put into action. Policy implementation involves the administration of policy by government agencies. From a social marketing perspective, the continuation of the communication efforts undertaken in the 'decide, communicate, lead' stage is also a crucial aspect of the policy implementation stage. In addition, an evaluation of the effectiveness of those efforts in that stage can lead to important revisions in the implementation stage.

Those agencies most responsible for the implementation of environmental policy and regulation are the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) and the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). It is especially the job of the EPA to enforce the environmental legislation of Congress by writing and issuing federal rules and regulations which carry the force of law (Portney, 1986).

The amount of discretion given to an agency implementing a particular policy can have a strong influence on the implementation of the policy. To some extent, policy can be made at the administrative level. Implementation is complex: 'Agencies often have much discretion in carrying out the policies under their jurisdiction. They do not automatically apply whatever the legis-

lature or other policy adopters decide although at one time it was widely assumed they did' (Anderson, 1979: pp. 92–93).

Social marketing principles can be employed at this stage through the use of a 'test market,' where product related outcomes and acceptance are assessed prior to full scale implementation. Thus, implementation of government policy is executed on a limited basis. For example, the federal government may provide funds for the development of wastewater treatment plants for the purpose of improving water quality, but may only provide such funds to a select number of localities in order to determine the effectiveness of such a program on a small scale. Problems with the policy can be assessed and alleviated before the policy is implemented on a large scale.

Monitor and adjust

Following implementation, the level of 'customer satisfaction' with the policy can be assessed. In a marketing context, customer satisfaction refers to the degree to which customers perceive that their needs have been met. Policy-makers, interest groups, and other affected groups attempt to determine whether or not the policy has worked by evaluating the content of the policy and its effects (Anderson, Brady, and Bullock, 1978). Whether the monitoring of the 'product performance' is conducted by governmental agencies such as the EPA and CEQ, or by private organizations such as the Environmental Defense fund or the Sierra Club, some actor in the policy process seeks to determine whether or not a particular policy is accomplishing what it was intended to accomplish. In addition, a thorough monitoring of policy effects will consider both active (potentially influential) and passive (e.g., natural environment, flora, fauna) stakeholders (Petkus and Woodruff, 1992).¹

The monitoring stage can result in both demands for change in policy and support for the continuation of policy. For example, the enactment and administration of the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 has given rise to various demands for its repeal, modification, and continuation (Anderson, 1979). Monitoring and evaluating policy provides feedback for policy-makers. As a result, they can respond in several different ways; including continuation, legislative amendment to strengthen or weaken the policy, adjustments in its administration (such as strong or lax enforcement of given provisions), changes in the amount of funds to support its administration, challenges to its meaning or constitutionality in the courts, and repeal of the statute. It is more likely that some type of policy redesign will take place because it is highly unlikely that major policies or programs will be repealed or terminated (Anderson, 1979). Marketing research strategies similar to those utilized in the 'consult, involve, accommodate' stage can be extremely useful in determining the extent to which policy design changes are needed.

Policy redesign

Policy change usually takes place through incremental steps (Henning and Mangun, 1989; Portney, 1986; Anderson, Brady, and Bullock, 1978). Because environmental issues are often complex, it is safer for policy-makers to move slowly when seeking solutions to certain problems. In addition, the United States system of separation of powers and federalism leads to a fragmentation of power that can weaken policy because of attempts to assuage all actors in the political system through bargaining and compromise. Again, this presents a key area where the policy process and the marketing process differ: successful implementation of public policy relies heavily on bargaining and compromise, whereas private-sector marketing strategies can promote different products for different market segments, or not all market segments need necessarily be served. Nevertheless, social marketing principles are useful for enhancing the process of bargaining and compromise in the public policy process.

Policy-makers may also want to create policy in order to meet the immediate demands of the public. In the rush to meet such public demand, what often results is a solution that is less than ideal. Furthermore, stakeholders affected by the policy and government agencies administering the policy may be resistant to sweeping change and prefer to maintain the status quo. Therefore, effective changes may tend to be made incrementally. Finally, incremental change is not as disturbing or unsettling as far reaching change, and thus it is less likely to produce conflict (Anderson, Brady, and Bullock, 1978).

As public policies are implemented and evaluated, new problems arise, new stakeholders enter the policy arena, and the need for policy to be redesigned in order to accommodate new situations is realized. For example, the Water Pollution Control Act of 1977 was adopted as a response to the inadequacies of the Water Pollution Control Act of 1972, and the 1987 Clean Water Act was adopted to further improve water quality. The policy process is dynamic, with a feedback loop leading back to the problem definition and agenda setting stage, essentially beginning the process over again (Portney, 1986; Lindblom, 1980). The application of social marketing principles can facilitate this feedback process. As needs change, 'product reconceptualization' (revisions corresponding to changing needs) is necessary to meet new needs and concerns uncovered in the 'monitor and adjust' stage, thus perpetuating the cycle of the stakeholder-based policy process.

Conclusion

This analysis outlines a stakeholder-based public policy process, which emphasizes the active role of stakeholders such as citizens, interest groups, and industry, and uses examples of environmental policy development as a backdrop for this conceptual framework. It also seeks to demonstrate the

contributions that social marketing principles can make in the public policy by enhancing the development and implementation of such policy. The conceptual framework presented in this analysis extends traditional conceptions of the policy process by advancing social marketing as the 'hub' around which the policy process revolves (see Figure 1). This analysis does not attempt to draw parallel lines between the policy process and the marketing process, but rather tries to show how social marketing principles can be applied to the public policy process in order to develop better and more successful public policies. Environmental policy represents a current area of concern that appears particularly appropriate for this conceptual framework because of the diverse array of stakeholder interests that are involved. Of course, this conceptual framework could be applied to other public policy contexts as well.

Another goal of this paper is to stimulate future research. The application of social marketing principles to the policy process, along with the added emphasis on the role of stakeholders, suggests a new way to view the policy process. While the conceptual framework has been presented in a prescriptive fashion, based on what is already known about the increasing complexity of the policy process, empirical research will likely be most useful in demonstrating the utility of this analytical approach. Some general questions to be investigated include:

- 1. What are the specific needs and interests of stakeholders that can be addressed through environmental policy?
- 2. How can conflicting needs among stakeholders be balanced by policy-makers in the formulation of a 'mass-marketed' or standardized policy, or managed in a 'segmented' or differentiated policy?
- 3. To what extent does the consultation and active involvement of stake-holders in the policy development process enhance the results of environmental policy?
- 4. To what extent does the communication of environmental policy issues to stakeholders enhance the results of that policy?
- 5. To what extent does the monitoring of the performance and satisfaction associated with environmental policy result in re-design of the policy?

A program of research that examines these and other questions concerning the various stages of the policy process can contribute to both the marketing and public policy literature. The value of relating social marketing to public policy is to be found in the ability of the resulting conceptual framework to outline a process that produces better public policy while providing a paradigm to improve research on the policy process.

Acknowledgement

We would like to thank Michael Fitzgerald for his assistance in developing the conceptual framework for this article.

Note

1. Such inclusiveness may, of course, raise the question of what would not be considered a stakeholder in the public policy process. The question highlights the fact that the decisions and actions of humans can have such far reaching influences on a wide array of non-human interests. See Stone (1974).

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