

Doctoral Thesis

*Creating value through relationships: a critical contribution
from Social Marketing*

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Author's note

This thesis is written in the first person of plural, which reflects a stylistic choice of the author. Naturally, the author takes, individually, the full responsibility for the content of the thesis.

*The process of creating value through relationships:
a critical contribution from social marketing*

ABSTRACT

Relationship marketing provides a new foundation for thinking, genuine change in values and ethics and a new logic that sees consumers as the prime drivers of the value creation process. It seems to have a lot to offer to social marketing, however, despite its potential, the social marketing field is responding slowly to relational thinking. This research demonstrates that relationship marketing helps social marketing and that its absence seriously undermines the field. Our examination is critical because it deconstructs the transactional paradigm and shows how its logic is incapable of responding to the complexities of contemporary pluralist societies.

From the literature, we have identified the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing that are transferable to social marketing. Further, we have identified the challenges and implications of that transference, given the particular characteristics of social marketing.

To empirically examine the potential of relationship marketing in social marketing, we have conducted a process evaluation and developed a specific framework that incorporates and reflects relationship marketing principles, processes and constructs. This research makes an important methodological contribution because it goes beyond current frameworks and suggests alternative evaluation components. The process

evaluation was applied through an explanatory, holistic and single case-study design. The case was a parent drugs prevention programme and to examine it we have predominantly used a mix of qualitative methods and a research design which enabled triangulation.

Through the application of process evaluation to the case we have de-constructed the dominant paradigm of the programme and examined its consequences. The findings indicate that the programme did not widely applied the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing. Despite having successfully applied relationship marketing in specific parts of the programme, these correspond to technical rather than strategic aspects of relationship marketing and worked as isolated parts rather than as a whole. More fundamentally, rather than seeing consumers as partners, the programme saw consumers as targets, not recognizing them as the main drivers of the value creation process. The programme was therefore shaped by a transactional perspective which affected its assumptions and undermined its design and implementation.

The main conclusion is that, despite its theoretical potential, it is challenging and difficult to transfer relationship marketing to real live social marketing programmes. In particular, social marketing needs to be more reflexive and self-critical in order to de-construct its prevailing paradigm and start re-constructing an alternative. This demands not only a new attitude, new values and new assumptions but also a focus on resources, competences and new and more flexible organizational structures.

Key words: relationship marketing, social marketing, value pluralism, value creation

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This introductory chapter contextualizes the research area and explains its relevance, theoretical assumptions, research objectives and the thesis outline.

This research examines the potential of relationship marketing in social marketing. In order to be critical, this examination needs to go beyond marketing itself and see marketers as social actors that relate to the broader social context. In line with Bagozzi (1975) and Popper (1963), we don't see ourselves as students of some subject matters but students of human and social problems because problems *often cut right across the borders of any subject matter or discipline*. Therefore, before going into the more specific objectives of the study, we start with an analysis of the broader context in which the research was developed. This broader context refers to the value pluralism of contemporary societies and the objective of this contextualization is to establish that relationship marketing can potentially help social marketing to re-position itself in the value pluralist society.

1.2. CONTEMPORARY SOCIETIES AND VALUE PLURALISM

The late years of the 20-th century became an era of radical reconsideration of the basic foundations of modernity (Goubman, 1998): the triumph of formal rationality and calculative approach towards the universe; the alliance between science and technology seen as the main tool of comprehension and conquest of the world. Some call this epoch as "post-modern" whereas others see it as a climax of the previous period of the

new age history. Post-modern theorists (Lyotard, 1979; Vattimo, 1985) see modernity as an historical period in which, despite the world being understood as complex, those perceptions were organized through totalizing theoretical systems. Those systems looked for predictability, objectivity and scientific progress. According to post-modern theorists, we live in an historical period in which the world is understood as fragmented, complex and unpredictable. As a result, it is no longer possible to describe the world through scientific discourses unified around a meta-language. Instead, post-modern knowledge is made of small narratives, multiple narratives about a multiple world.

The theorists of reflexive modernization (Beck, Giddens and Lash, 1995) agree that a new pattern of reflection is emerging but they don't see it as an historical discontinuity that justifies the demarcation of a new epoch. Social transformations in course correspond, in their perspective, to a second moment of Modernity itself. Beck, Giddens and Lash don't see the contemporary world as chaotic or fragmented. In their opinion, there is always a form of social cohesion in action, even if this form changes through time and its logic is not recognized by the members of society. Giddens (1995) emphasizes the perception that each member of society has about the global risks and how these risks change their values and social bonds. He believes that contemporary individuals are capable of reflecting consciously about the social conditions of their existence.

This epoch of a new pattern of reflection, whether called post-modernity or high modernity, is characterized by value pluralism and the subsequent conflict of values.

1.2.1. Value Pluralism

The idea of a typology of fixed values as separate and stable elements has gradually been abandoned in favour of the notion that each individual creates a very personal and flexible hierarchy out of the values available in culture (Woodwall, 2003). Currently values are conceived of as guiding principles in life which transcend specific situations, may change over time, guide selection of behaviour and which are part of a dynamic system with inherent contradictions. This shift in thinking about the nature of human values has been largely influenced by the work of Rokeach (1973) who defined the value concept as an “enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence”(p. 5). Therefore, values are generalized, relatively enduring and consistent priorities for how we want to live: they may be more or less articulated, more or less conscious.

Modern Anglo-American moral and political theory has experienced the emergence of a value-pluralist movement which accepts that there is a plurality of equally final, equally reasonable goods and moral ends which are incompatible, incomparable, and incommensurable with one another. The modern idea of value pluralism as articulated by Berlin (1969) restates the work of Max Weber and Friedrich Nietzsche, who insisted upon the irreducible plurality of value spheres.

Value pluralism is contrasted with all forms of monism. Monism supports the expectation that all genuine moral values must somehow fit together into a single harmonious system. From such a system, supposedly, we can derive a single correct

answer to any moral problem. This would make possible a perfect society in which there would be universal agreement upon a single way of life. In opposition, value pluralism is not compatible with such view.

1.2.2. Reasons for Value Pluralism

The reasons for value pluralism lie, as put by Chang and Jun (1998), in three inter-relative aspects: commodity economy as economic basis, democratic politics as superstructure, and individualism as ideology. Individualism as an ideology, in spite of its shortcomings, adapts to commodity economy and democratic politics, and promotes their development. It is not their ideological guarantee, but the ideal prerequisite for value subjects to transform from unity into plurality. Individualism considers individuals as fundamental, and maintains that individuals should be independent and autonomous. The emphasis is placed above all on self-expression, on respect for internal freedom and expansion of personality. In this context, what is imposed from above is often branded as paternalistic (Pattyn and Liedekerke, 2001). It is difficult to combine the urgent need to sort social problems with the respect for individual freedoms. That is why some are pointing to the dangers of politicization of individual behaviour that, through the rhetoric of “support”, reproduces and self-legitimizes manipulative logics (Furedi, 2004).

1.2.3. Consequences of Value Pluralism

The conflict of values is not the unique phenomenon of our times. The traditional conflict of values occurred largely in the moral realm, and its essence lays in the conflict between individual and whole interests. Traditional morality was double-valued

morality of good and evil, and only the requirements benefiting the whole or others were evaluated as moral. Since the end of the 19th century, however, the conflict of values has become a universal phenomenon. Chang and Jun (1998) point four distinguishing characteristics of the contemporary conflict of values:

a) Extensiveness: the contemporary conflict of values has gone far beyond the moral realm and extended into every realm of human life. Contemporary society is a legalized society, whose greatest difference from moralized traditional society is that such society merely regulates the starting point, not all of people's action, and it does not regulate people's ideology.

b) Complicatedness: now there appear divergences, contradictions, opposites or conflicts of values because different systems of value, which were isolated from each other in the past, now continuously get in touch with each other due to the strengthening of the international contact.

c) Profoundness: the contemporary conflict of values occurs not only in the process of choice and decision, but also in the depth of ideology. It is difficult for people to form clear and definite concept about what has value and what is more valuable.

d) Continuousness. The contemporary conflict of values occurs continuously because it is difficult to be solved, and people are often confronted with it because it takes place in every realm.

This conflict of values has several consequences. Heavily building from Luckmann (1996 and 2006) and Giddens (1991), those will now be discussed.

1.2.3.1 The meaning budget of society

In archaic societies, religious and moral institutions controlled the production and transmission of meaning, establishing a consistent hierarchy of meaning. The meaning of what constitutes good life was imposed as an unquestioned norm. However, as explained by Luckmann (1996), the situation is quite different in modern societies and this has considerable consequences for what could be called the moral order and the meaning budget of society. Modern societies are multi-option societies. As Luckmann explains, within an open market logic, a number of suppliers competes for the preference of a public that is confronted with the possibility, and the necessity, of choice between alternative sets of meanings, beginning at the level of material consumption and ending at conceptions of the good life. Modernisation implies the radical transformation of most objective conditions of human existence. Beyond the law and the “ethics” of particular areas of activity, individuals are left to their own devices and they are forced to daily redefine the meaning of their existence. Pluralism forces people to choose and, Luckmann emphasizes, most people feel insecure in a confusing world full of possibilities.

The loss of the taken for granted is most pronounced in the sphere of religion. Modern pluralism has undercut the monopoly enjoyed by religious institutions. Furthermore, it has invented new institutions for the production and communication of meaning – different sorts of psychotherapy, professional counselling, self-help literature, special courses in adult education, several areas of social work and the mass media. Gehlen (cit by Luckmann, 1996) describes all these institutions as “secondary institutions”: they are not central as they perform highly specialized functions. They function as intermediary

institutions in the sense that they mediate between the individual and the patterns of society. It has to be noted that true intermediary institutions don't impose meaning and don't treat the individual as a passive object. Instead, true mediating structures see the individual as an active producer of meaning, values and world views. Secondary institutions are then suitable to help individuals overcome orientation and, at the same time, prevent alienation.

1.2.3.2 The socialization deficit and personal identity

Reasonable stable world views with a concrete core of values are no longer transmitted consistently in primary and secondary socialization. The transformations of the social structure, institutional specialization, and modern pluralism left the formation of personal identity to the family without providing either concrete models or social support. And, as emphasized by Luckmann (2006), many times the modern family is not capable of doing the job alone. As a consequence, stabilization of personal identity has become a private enterprise, which poses tensions and difficulties on the level of the self. Giddens (1991) identifies and discusses four major dilemmas that have to be resolved in order to preserve a coherent narrative of self-identity.

a) Unification versus fragmentation

As far the self is concerned, the problem of unification has to do with protecting and reconstructing the narrative of self-identity. In a modern (post-traditional) order, the wide range of possibilities "open the world" to the individual but, according to Giddens (1991), it would be wrong to see contextual diversity as simply promoting the fragmentation of the self. It can just as well promote its integration: for example, "a

person may be more familiar with the debate over global warming than with the tap in the kitchen which leaks”(p. 188).

b) Powerlessness versus appropriation

The lifestyle options made available by modernity offer opportunities for appropriation but also generate feelings of powerlessness.

c) Authority versus uncertainty

In modern times, some forms of traditional authority, including religion, continue to exist. However, the difference is that forms of traditional authority become simply authorities among others, part of an indefinite pluralism of expertise. In circumstances in which there are no final authorities, the reflexive project of the self must steer a way between commitment and uncertainty.

d) Personalized versus commodified experience

Modernity opens up the project of the self, but under conditions strongly influenced by the commodity capitalism and its standardising effects. As pointed by Giddens (1991), the project of the self becomes translated into one of the possession of desired goods and the pursuit of artificially framed life styles. The consumption of ever-novel goods becomes to a certain extent a substitute for the genuine development of the self. Not only lifestyles but self-actualization (self-help books) is packaged and distributed according to market criteria.

1.2.3.3 A new fault line

The new fault line came about because a significant section of the population feels excluded from “official” society: people who have been unable to connect their life stories with the story that is considered desirable by the successful dominant group. In order to be successful in today’s society a person’s educational level has become extremely important. Success in life is no longer seen as a question of luck but of personal effort so the education level becomes a major factor in determining one’s position with respect to the new fault line. This division along the new fault line (different education levels) constitutes a threat to the democratic project (Pattyn and Liedekerke, 2001).

After discussing the reasons and consequences of value pluralism, we will now examine possible ways of handling the contemporary conflict of values.

1.2.4. How to handle the conflict of values

The ways of handling the conflict of values include achieving several important balances: between conflict and social harmony, between the best and the suitable values and between individualism and collectivism.

Rather than seeing the conflict values as abnormal and as historical retrogression, it must be noted that it has its historical necessity and represents an historical progress in contrast with the traditional unified system of values (Chang and Jun, 1998). The contemporary conflict of values has in fact brought about new dynamic social harmony.

Traditional order was fragile because society was excessively unified and social relations were over-tight: a contradiction in these relations would make society fall into crisis. On the contrary, modern society is sufficiently strong not to shake with contradictions and conflicts. This view is consistent with the reflexive modernization theories (e.g. Giddens, 1995).

In concrete conflicts, people should not simply choose the best value but the value that suits them and can be acquired by themselves. The best value, strictly speaking, first should be the most suitable value (Chang and Jun, 1998).

All conflicts of values represent conflicts between the whole, entire, long-term interests and individual, partial, short-term interests (Chang and Jun, 1998). The whole should not impose some views, ideas and standards of value on individuals by compulsory means, but can direct and influence people's views and ideas of value only by public opinions and policies. Similarly, individuals should not impose their own system of value on the whole or on other individuals.

The argument that we need to go beyond the conventional distinction between individualism and collectivism is being emphasized by contemporary authors (e.g. Bellah, 1985; Gergen, 1991; Purser and Montuori, 2000; Brewer, 2007). As argued by Bellah (1985) and colleagues, we need to recognize that it is only in relation to society that the individual can full fill himself and that if the break with society is too radical, life has no meaning at all" (p. 144). The individualist can only achieve real recognition of individuality through others. These ideas challenge the assumption that the individual

is a simple unity, whole and indivisible. Instead, it is suggested that the individual is complex, "polycentric" and involved in a web of constitutive relationships.

Value pluralism and its consequences have implications for marketing. We will now explain them.

1.2.5. Implications for (relationship) marketing

We live in a world where we can't derive a single correct answer to any moral problem. This is a world of moral conflict, disagreement and dilemma in which there will be no universal agreement on a single way of life. Marketers have to be aware of these facts and continuously re-question their assumptions about what their customers want, need and value. As relationship managers, they have to permanently reflect and re-define their role in society and try to respond to the following questions:

- How can marketers contribute to the meaning budget of society?
- How can marketers help individuals to overcome disorientation without contributing to alienation?
- How can marketers contribute to the genuine and reflexive project of the Self?
- How can marketers manage the balance between the best and the suitable values?

These issues concern both commercial and social marketers. The definition of marketing adopted by the American Marketing Association, in August 2004, places *value* and the *management of relationships* in the centre of marketing activity:

Marketing is an organizational function and a set of processes for creating, communicating and delivering value to customers and for managing customer relationships in ways that benefit the organization and its stakeholders. This definition makes the need to create value explicit but, in our view, is still limited to respond to the challenges raised by value pluralism. We feel more comfortable with the definition of Tzokas and Saren (1997) who see relationship marketing as “the process of planning, developing and nurturing a relationship climate that will promote a dialogue between a firm and its customers which aims to imbue an understanding, confidence and respect of each others’ capabilities and concerns when enacting their role in the market place and in society” (p. 106). They argue that dialogue moves us beyond the individual to a focus on the larger social and cultural context in which we live: it works to bring integration and wholeness perspective into the day-to-day decisions we make. Similarly, Gumesson (1994) calls to view relationships as they develop in the market place and society, as a whole, and their interdependence. Such an approach allows relationship marketers to expand the bases of consumer satisfaction by addressing consumers’ attributions to value.

The perspective of marketing as a dialogue will inform the way this research has been conceived and developed. Dialogue means fostering openness (Senge, 1990) which will imply questioning the deeply ingrained assumptions that influence how marketers understand the world. Because these assumptions have an enormous impact in action, dialogue is not only about deepening understanding but also about making positive changes in the world (Bakhtin, 1981).

Next, we will explicitly formulate the research objectives.

1.3. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research starts with Gummesson's perspective on relationship marketing: "I believe RM offers more common sense in marketing and that it makes important phenomena visible in a confusing world in which marketers search for meaning" (Gummesson 1997, p. 271). In line with this thinking, we conceive this research as a place of clarification and (re)examination of what seems evident without being so. The common sense of relationship marketing will therefore be made visible.

We see relationship marketing as a paradigm shift in the sense it provides a new foundation for thinking and a new logic to deal with complexity that sees the customer as the main driver of value creation (Gummesson, 1997, 2002a). Social marketing has particular characteristics that make relationship marketing potentially applicable: the absence of the profit motive; the focus on high involvement decisions; complex and multifaceted behaviours; changes that take a long time; the relevance of trust and the need to target the most needy and hard - to - reach groups in society (Hastings, 2003). However, social marketing is being slow to respond to relationship marketing. This research will help filling that gap.

Building from the literature, we make some assumptions and derive that relationship marketing potentially has a lot to offer to social marketing through its principles, processes and constructs. The purpose is not to build a specific social marketing successful model of relationship marketing. Instead, the objectives are to examine how relationship marketing can transfer to social marketing and to explain the challenges and implications of that transference. This examination intends to be critical in two

ways: the prevailed paradigm in social marketing – transaction marketing – will be deconstructed; furthermore, we will demonstrate how relationship marketing can help to re-contextualize social marketing in society. Following, we make explicit the research objectives:

- To identify what potential there is for RM ideas to work in a SM context. More specifically,
 - to examine whether the key RM principles, processes and constructs transfer.
- To study how that potential works in practice. Specifically, in a live SM case,
 - to examine whether the presence of the principles, processes and constructs help or their absence hinders it and
 - to examine which aspects of relationship marketing are easier and which are more challenging to apply.
- To explain how relationship marketing might improve the design, implementation and evaluation of social marketing programmes.
- To contribute for critical thinking and practice. Specifically,
 - to demonstrate how relationship marketing can increase the critical power of evaluation (methodological contribution) and
 - to explain how relationship marketing can help to reposition social marketing in society.

In the next section we present the thesis outline.

1.4. THESIS OUTLINE

The thesis comprises seven chapters summarized in the figure above (Fig. 1.1).

Fig. 1.1. Thesis outline

C1 - INTRODUCTION
Research context, research objectives and thesis outline
C2 – RELATIONSHIP MARKETING
RM principles, processes and constructs that are transferable to social marketing
C3 – SOCIAL MARKETING
The context of transference Challenges and implications of relationship marketing for social marketing
C4 - METHODOLOGY
Epistemology, ontology and process evaluation design
C5 - FIELDWORK
Case study, triangulation, methods, data collection instruments, sampling and data analysis procedures
C6 - FINDINGS
Analysis of empirical data Whether and how relationship marketing's potential was explored Explanatory framework
C7 – DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS
Discussion of key findings Implications for theory and practice and suggestions for further research

The first chapter aims to describe a starting point to the reader; the second chapter establishes the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing that are potentially transferable to social marketing; the third chapter characterizes the context of social marketing to explain the challenges and implications raised by the transference

of relationship marketing; the fourth chapter explains the strategic methodological decisions, including the epistemological and ontological assumptions and the evaluation design; chapter five explains the fieldwork, the choice of case-study and its operational aspects, including methods, data collection instruments and sampling; the empirical findings are analysed in chapter six and finally, in chapter seven, findings are discussed, conclusions are presented and implications, limitations and suggestions for further research are formulated.

2. RELATIONSHIP MARKETING

2.1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter we characterized the value pluralist society to establish that relationship marketing can help to re-position social marketing in the centre of the broader social context. This particular chapter identifies the key principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing that are transferable to social marketing.

We establish that relationship marketing represents a very important paradigm shift and a new logic to deal with complexity. Particular emphasis is given to the Nordic School of relationship marketing to demonstrate that its principles and processes potentially have a lot to offer to social marketers. The debate around the service logic and how it relates to the value creation process is also examined to make explicit important ideas. As far as it concerns the relationship marketing constructs, we review several models of “successful relationships”. The objective was not to model successful relationships in social marketing. Instead, the purpose was to extract those constructs that are most applicable and relevant for social marketing.

This chapter starts with an examination of what is relationship marketing and why it can be considered a paradigm shift.

2.2. RELATIONSHIP MARKETING: WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

Relationship marketing (RM) identifies, establishes, maintains and enhances relationships with customers and other stakeholders, at a profit, so that the objectives of all parts involved are met, and that is done by mutual exchange and fulfilment of promises (Gronroos, 1994). Morgan and Hunt (1994) posit that relationship marketing refers to all marketing activities directed toward establishing, developing and maintaining successful relationships.

In the literature there is no agreement on a definition of relationship marketing. Different authors have different perspectives (Christopher et al, 1991; McKenna, 1991; Kotler, 1992; Sheth, 1994) however, as Gumesson (1997) points out, no definition of relationship marketing will ever be precise and all inclusive, as they can only be used as vehicles for thought, as perspectives or as indications of essential properties of a phenomenon. Gumesson's perspective (1994) sees relationship marketing as a marketing approach that is based on relationships, interactions and networks. As he explains, the shift in the marketing paradigm means that the 4P's develop their role from being founding parameters of marketing for one of being contributing parameters to relationships, networks and interaction. Gumesson (2002a) argues that his definition of relationship marketing is not a clear delimited construct or a box and that the more we know about RM the easier it will be to make a short definition, capturing the essence of RM. His approach is more inclusive and draws more heavily on a variety of theories.

Currently there are wide variations in definitions of and approaches to RM. Using Coote's (1994) contribution, Payne (2000) identifies three broad approaches to

relationship marketing: the Anglo-Australian approach (e.g. Christopher, Payne and Ballantyne, 1991); the Nordic approach (e.g. Gronroos, 1994a, 1994b, 1996, 2000a, 2004; Gumesson, 1994, 1996, 1997, 1998, 2002a) and the North American approach (e.g. Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995; Parvatiyar and Sheth, 2000). Some see relationships as solely concerned with the customer-supplier dyad, others expand beyond customer relationships to include other specific markets or stakeholders. In general, the Anglo-American and the Nordic groups define RM more broadly whereas the North American argues for a narrow definition at the customer-supplier dyad level. We will now examine the specificities of the different approaches.

2.3. APPROACHES TO RELATIONSHIP MARKETING

2.3.1. The North-American approach

Parvatiyar and Sheth (2000) argue that for an emerging discipline it is important to develop an acceptable definition that encompasses all facets of the phenomenon and also effectively delimits the domain so as to allow focused understanding and growth of knowledge in the discipline. They criticize the definition of Morgan and Hunt (1994) for being too broad and inclusive, and argue that RM has the greatest potential for becoming a discipline and developing its own theory if it delimits its domain to the firm-customer aspect of the relationship. They define relationship marketing as the ongoing process of engaging in cooperative and collaborative activities and programmes with immediate and end-user customers to create or enhance mutual economic value at reduced cost.

According to Sheth and Parvatyar (2002), it is necessary to agree on a definition that will articulate the uniqueness of the concept with its own distinct properties: it is a one-to-one relationship between the marketer and the customer; it is an interactive process, not a transaction; it is a value added activity through mutual interdependence and collaboration between suppliers and customers.

For Sheth and Parvatyar (1995) there is an implied assumption of the exchange theory that the seller and the buyer (marketing actors) have well defined roles, that they independently create values and there is a place and time of transaction that can be easily articulated for exchange. However, in the era of RM the roles of producers, sellers, buyers and consumers are blurring. Although some authors still label this type of cooperation as a form of exchange and call it relational exchange (Gundlach and Murphy, 1993; Morgan and Hunt, 1994) the cooperative relationship amongst marketing actors are not always for the purpose of exchange. It is instead, as explained by Sheth and Parvatyar (2000), a process of value creation through cooperative and collaborative effort. Therefore an alternative paradigm is needed: value creation instead of value distribution; focus on the processes of relationship engagement and not on the outcome or consequence of relationship.

2.3.2. The Anglo - Australian approach

Christopher, Payne and Ballantyne (1991) emphasize three issues: relationship marketing strategies are concerned with a broader scope of external “market” relationships which include suppliers, business referral and “influence” sources; RM also focuses on the internal (staff) relationships critical to the success of (external)

marketing plans; improving marketing performance ultimately requires a resolution (or realignment) of the competing interests of customers, staff and shareholders, by changing the way managers “manage” the activities of the business. They posit that marketing is concerned with exchange relationships between the organization and its customers and quality and customer services are key linkages in this relationship. The challenge to the organization is to bring these three critical areas into closer alignment. As a result of this lack of alignment the RM concept is emerging as the new focal point integrating customer service and quality with a market orientation. Christopher et al (1991) explain each of these three components:

- The role of customer service: their view of customer service is concerned with the building of bonds with customers and other markets or groups to ensure long term relationships of mutual advantage. The provision of quality customer services involves understanding what the customer buys and determining how additional value can be added to the product or service being offered.
- The role of quality: they argue that the typical approach to quality is moving from one of final inspection to one of assessing whether critical processes are in control and giving guidance to others in the techniques involved. Quality, from a relationship marketing perspective, must be perceived from the viewpoint of the customer.
- The role of marketing: Christopher et al (1991) argue that the basic four Ps model does not really capture the full extent and complexities of marketing in practice, neither does it explicitly recognize the essential inter-relationships between the elements of the mix. They suggest an expanded marketing mix that enables the complexity associated with RM to be addressed: the traditional four

Ps of product, price, promotion and place plus three additional elements of people, processes and provision of service need to be considered. They posit that in the broader context of RM the provision of customer service, which creates a clearly differentiated and superior value proposition, becomes a central focus on which to consider the other marketing mix elements.

Christopher et al (1991) point out some important differences between transaction marketing and relationship marketing:

- Transaction Marketing:
 - Focusing on single sale
 - Orientation on product features
 - Short time scale
 - Little emphasis on customer service
 - Limited customer commitment
 - Moderate customer contact
 - Quality is primarily a concern of production
- Relationship Marketing:
 - Focus on consumer retention
 - Orientation on product benefits
 - Long time scale
 - High customer service emphasis
 - High customer commitment
 - High customer contact
 - Quality is the concern of all

These differences are in convergence with Parvatyar and Sheth (2000) who explain the emergence of RM practice with the growing de-intermediation process due to the advent of sophisticated computer and telecommunication technologies; the growth of the service economy; the total quality movement; the hyper-competition and consequent need of customer retention and loyalty; and the rapid change of customer expectations and globalization.

The comparison between transaction and relationship marketing elaborated by Christopher et al (1991) is useful but we think that the Nordic School approach points more clearly to the fundamental differences. These are discussed next.

2.3.3. The Nordic School approach

The main role and contribution of the so-called Nordic School of Services and of Nordic authors (e.g. Gronroos, 1994a, 1994b, 1996, 2000a, 2004; Gumesson, 1994, 1996, 1997, 1998, 2002a) has been in helping to extend the notion of relationship marketing from service marketing to general marketing to the point of defining RM as the new marketing paradigm. In the 1990s the Nordic school has developed into a RM school of thought. The term *relationship marketing* was first introduced by Berry (1983). Although services marketing, according to the Nordic school approach, has always been relationship oriented the term was not used until the end of 80s. During the latter part of the 80s the Nordic school researchers realized that the introduction of services marketing into business relationships (industrial marketing) was the beginning of a major shift in the marketing paradigm. Another similar line of development is the interaction and network approach to the management of business relationships -

Industrial Marketing Purchasing (IMP group) - that stresses that networks of concepts are the dominant concept with relationships as a sub-concept that explains the development and management of networks (Ford, 1976; Hakansson and Snehota, 1995; Easton, 1996).

As Aijo (1996) explains, it is easy to see why the circumstances that gave birth to the concept of RM first became evident in service marketing: the customer is an integral part of the marketing and delivery process and this demands a close relationship between the service provider and the customer. An integral part of services marketing is the fact that the consumption of a service is a process consumption rather than outcome consumption. Thus, service consumption and production have interfaces that are always critical to the consumer's perception of the service and to his/her long-term purchasing behaviour (Gronroos, 2000a).

Nordic school sees also marketing more as a marketing-oriented management than as a separate function. Hence, managing services is at the core of relationship building and maintenance. RM is supported by other factors like, for example, the development of customer databases and direct marketing techniques but these alone are not sufficient. Relationship marketing requires much more than that. Gronroos (2000a) emphasizes that common mistakes when discussing RM follow from a failure to understand the philosophical shift. It represents a new foundation for thinking, a new logic to deal with complexity and a genuine change in values and ethics (Gumesson, 1997). It's a new paradigm, not just a new model, and it has the following strategic implications (Gronroos, 1996):

- defining the firm as a service business and focus on the competences and resources in the relationship;
- managing the firm from a process management perspective;
- developing partnerships and networks.

Defining the firm as a service business

A key requirement in a relationship marketing strategy is that the supplier knows the long-term needs of customers better. Customers do not only look for goods or services, they demand a much more holistic service offering including information, delivering, updating, repairing...Competing with the core offering is not enough. Instead, firms have to compete with the total service offering. The transition from the product as the dominating element of the offering to management of human resources, technology, knowledge and time for the firm to create successful market offerings is evident. This important strategic implication of relationship marketing is further elaborated in section 2.5.

A process management perspective

An ongoing relationship with customers, where customers look for value in the total service offering, requires internal collaboration among functions and departments which are responsible for different elements of the offering: e.g. the core product itself, advertising the product, delivering the product, taking care of complaints...The whole chain of activities has to be coordinated and managed as one total process. A process management perspective is very different from the functionalistic management approach based on scientific management. Functionalistic management allows for sub-

optimization because each function and corresponding department is more oriented towards specialization within its function than collaboration between functions. This creates sub-values but not total value.

Partnerships and networks

Relationship marketing is based on cooperation with customers, other stakeholders and network partners. This means firms will not view one another from a win-loose perspective but will rather benefit from a win-win situation, where the parties work as partners. This demands trust and commitment. The link between these key principles and social marketing will be further analysed in the next chapter.

Besides pointing the main strategic implications of relationship marketing, one of the main contributions of the Nordic school researchers is their conceptualization of relationship marketing as a value creation process that combines and integrates several key processes. In the next section we discuss it in detail.

2.4. THE NORDIC SCHOOL AND THE RM PROCESSES

The relationship marketing perspective is based on the notion that on top of the value of products and/or services that are exchanged, the existence of a relationship between two parties creates additional value for the customer and also for the supplier or service provider (Gronroos, 2000a). The relationship itself becomes the focus of marketing and four areas are vital for the successful execution of a relationship marketing strategy (Gronroos, 2000a, 2004):

- an interaction process as the core of RM;
- a communication and a dialogue process supporting the development and enhancement of relationships;
- a value process as the output of RM.

The Nordic school emphasizes that RM is essentially a process (an interactive process). The focal relationship is between a supplier of goods or services in consumer or business markets and a buyer and consumer or user of these goods or services. However, in order to facilitate this, other stakeholders in the process may have to be involved.

2.4.1. The core: the interaction process

The relationship, once it has established, proceeds in an interaction process where various types of contacts occur over time. These contacts may be very different depending on the marketing situation but, instead of focusing on the differing nature of these contacts in the interaction process (depending on whether consumer goods, services or business relationships are studied), Gronroos (2000a) examines more closely the nature of the interaction process. In order to understand the interaction process one must divide it into logical parts. In the context of services it has been studied in terms of acts (moments of truth), episodes (social encounters; interrelated acts), sequences (interrelated episodes) and relationships (e.g. Liljander, 1994). As Storbacka (2000) explains, episodes are events that represent complete functions from the customer's point of view. Example of an episode is a visit to a restaurant. The word relationship implies that the link between the provider and the customer lasts longer than one

episode. A long term relationship with one provider can be described as a string of episodes and the total benefit or value that the customer receives during the relationship is not provided in one episode. Rather, the benefits are delivered in “smaller portions” during the relationship. Some relationships are built from series of discrete episodes in which customers make repetitive purchase decisions. There are, however, also relationships that are continuous, in which customers make contracts (implicit or explicit) with providers and receive offerings on demand. In a continuous relationship context customers by definition use a large variety of different episode types, ranging from simple routine episodes to complex episodes.

2.4.2. The dialogue process

In this context, the Nordic School follows the view of the integrated marketing communication process of the 90s regarding what is part of the communication process. If relationship marketing is to be successful, an integration of all marketing communications messages is needed to support the establishment, maintenance and enhancement of relationships with customers. The interaction and planned communication processes indeed parallel one another, which mean they should support and not counteract one another. Duncan and Moriarty (1997) divide the possible sources of messages into four groups, namely:

- planned marketing communication;
- product and service messages: messages created throughout the interaction process;
- unplanned messages: stories, worth of mouth.

The characteristic aspect of marketing communication in a RM context is an attempt to create a two-way or sometimes multi-way communication process. The communication support to relationship marketing is called a dialogue process. This process includes a variety of elements: sales activities, mass communication activities, direct communication and public relations.

A dialogue can be seen as an interactive process of reasoning together (Ballantyne, 1999/2000) so a common knowledge platform is possible. The intent is to build shared meanings and get insights in what the two parties can do together and for one another. Customers should feel that the firm which communicates with them shows a genuine interest in them and their needs, requirements and value systems. They should see that the firm appreciates feedback and makes use of it. Therefore, planned communication messages *per se* do not lead to a dialogue (Gronroos, 2000b, 2004). They may initiate it but interaction-based messages are required. Furthermore, the dialogue process starts before the interaction process: this is the stage in which the relationship is established. Only the integration of the dialogue and the interaction processes into one strategy that is systematically implemented creates RM.

As examined in the previous chapter, the relevance of dialogue is emphasized by Tzokas and Saren (1997) to the point of defining relationship marketing as “the process of planning, developing and nurturing a relationship climate that will promote a dialogue between a firm and its customers which aims to imbue an understanding, confidence and respect of each others’ capabilities and concerns when enacting their role in the market place and in society” (p. 106). They posit that one of the challenges faced by contemporary organizations has to do with the development of mechanisms to

assist organizations-wide learning about their customer base: this can be conceived as organizational learning about how customers perceive or attribute value and their attributions. As they explain, in the relationship marketing field the consensus is drifting from the view that individual actors know their full interest to the view that is only by recognizing their mutual dependence that the actors can define their distinct interests and that marketing role is to encourage the recognition of mutuality and the definition of particularity. From a relationship marketing management perspective, they view dialogue as an opportunity for value transformation and an avenue for competitive advantage. By creating unique inter-experiences and a new way of being in a relationship, dialogue transforms perceptions about what constitutes value for both the firm and its customers.

Relationship marketing researchers (e.g. Gumesson, 1994) have approached dialogue as a means of appreciating the broader dimensions in which actors from the production and consumption system are associated. As Elinor and Gerard (1998) suggest “dialogue moves us beyond the individual to a focus on the larger social and cultural context in which we live: it works to bring integration and wholeness perspective into the day-to-day decisions we make”(p. 14). Similarly, Gumesson (1994) calls to view relationships as they develop in the market place and society as a whole and their interdependence. As noted in the previous chapter, such an approach allows relationship marketing firms to expand the bases of consumer satisfaction by addressing consumers’ attributions to value.

2.4.3. The value process

In the interaction process a value base is transferred to and also partly created together with customers and in the final analysis the ultimate perceived value for them is emerging in the customer processes. It is not enough to understand the needs of customers, one must also know how they strive to achieve the results required to fulfil these needs. This can be labelled the customer's value generating process (Gronroos, 2004).

Value is not present until an offering is used for something and experienced as satisfying a need for somebody (Gumesson, 2002a). Because a relationship is a process over time, value for customers is also emerging in a process overtime. The Nordic authors argue that it is easy to see how the value of the core of the offering becomes highly questionable if the additional services are missing or not good enough. In a relationship context the offering includes both a core product and additional services.

On top of the value created by singular episodes (for example exchange of information) customer perceived value can be expected to include an explicit value component related to the mere fact that a relationship with a service provider/firm exists (compare Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995 and Bagozzi, 1995) This value component includes, for example, a feeling of security and a sense of trust.

Rather than being understood as a goal orientated, utility seeking decision maker, the consumer is represented as having many different motives, behaviours and agendas (Tzokas and Saren, 1997). Consumer competition and collaboration is, first and

foremost, concerned with the construction and maintenance of one's identity, that is, the sense in which we as individuals can distinguish ourselves from others in one hand and become associated with preferred groups on the other. Consumption decisions can be re-contextualized as value creating rather than value acquisition. Consumer competition and collaboration is the driving force of the consumers' attributions of value in products and services.

A successful RM strategy requires that all processes are integrated: interaction process is the core; dialogue is the communications aspect of RM, value is the outcome of RM.

We think the Nordic School of thought of relationship marketing is the one that best captures the essence and strategic implications of a paradigm shift and in that sense it has a lot to offer to social marketing. Furthermore, it contextualizes relationship marketing in society as a whole and stimulates critical thinking through its emphasis on the need to re-examine marketers' assumptions.

We will now further examine the relationship between the service logic and relationship marketing. This debate shows that marketers are aware and trying to deal with many of the issues analysed in the previous chapter: markets as social constructions, social dynamism and need of renewal, sustainability and betterment of society, wide view of consumption, pluralism of interpretations of value, need of a genuine understanding about consumers and need to re-examine what is taken for granted through dialogue. Furthermore, the debate deepens our understanding of the concepts of interaction and value creation. This debate is very important and transferable to the social marketing context.

2.5. SERVICE LOGIC AND RELATIONSHIP MARKETING: A DEEPER EXAMINATION

Vargo and Lusch (2004) challenged the usefulness of the service sub-set criteria - intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability, perishability - and introduced their own service-dominant (S-D) marketing logic. They extended their service orientation much further: service value is determined at the time of its use, as value-in-use. Therefore, the time logic of marketing exchange becomes open-ended, from pre-sale service interaction to post-sale value in use, with the prospect of continuing further, as relationships evolve. They define service as the application of specialized competences (knowledge and skills) through deeds, processes, and performances for the benefit of another entity or the entity itself. For Vargo and Lusch, the application of specialized skills and knowledge is the fundamental unit of exchange.

They use the singular “service” to indicate a process of doing something for someone rather than the plural “services” implying units of output as would be consistent with goods-dominant (G-D) logic. The idea of service being the foundational concept of marketing has important normative implications (Vargo and Lusch, 2004):

- a very different kind of purpose and process for marketing activity and for the firm as a whole; organizations exist to integrate and transform micro-specialized competences into complex services that are demanded in the market place;
- an investment in people (operant resources); long term relationships; quality service flows, symmetric relations, transparency, ethical approaches to exchange and sustainability.

These arguments are analysed, expanded and elaborated by several authors. Gronroos (2006) recognizes that the S-D logic embraces the idea that value creation is a process of integrating and transforming resources which requires interaction and implies networks; he also recognizes that the central S-D logic notion of co-creation of value is an interactive concept. Nonetheless, Gronroos points the need to make this connection more explicit. His main argument is that, as a construct, exchange, and relational exchange, points at transactions and draws the researcher's and practitioner's attention away of what is essential for service marketing, namely process and interaction.

2.5.1. Focus on interactions instead of exchange

As Gronroos (2006) explains, the production of services is an “open system” for the consumer and the consumption of services is an open system for the service provider. The two characteristics of services – their process nature and the fact that customers consume the service while it is produced and hence are involved in the service production process – have had a profound impact on the concepts and models of service marketing that have been developed by Nordic school researchers.

Service marketing challenged the idea that facilitating exchange is the objective of marketing and emphasized the need to make the management of the consumption process part of service marketing. The argument is that a first exchange may occur but without successful interactions continuous exchanges will not take place. Moreover, as services are processes, rather than objects for transactional exchange, it is impossible to assess at which point in time an exchange would have taken place (Gronroos, 2006).

A focus on interactions by the Nordic School researchers has led to a view that marketing is not one function but several functions- a traditional external function and an interactive marketing function – and to the concept of part-time marketer. How well they do is dependant on the knowledge, skills and motivation of the part-time marketer to handle interactions with customers in a marketing fashion.

2.5.2. Service as activities and service as a marketing logic

Gronroos (2006) agrees with Edvardsson, Gustafsson and Roos (2005) who conclude that “service is a perspective on value creation rather than a category of marketing offerings” (p. 18). As emphasized by Gronroos (2006), perspective seems to mean a way of thinking, or a logic. Hence, he argues, another starting point for defining a service is to consider what a service should do for the customer, in other words, a marketing logic. Traditionally, value is viewed in the literature as embedded in the product that is exchanged, the value-in-exchange notion. According to a more recent view in the literature of how value for customers emerges, value is created when products, goods or services are used by customers. This is value-in-use notion (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996; Vargo and Lusch, 2004). According to this view, suppliers and service providers do not create value in their planning, designing and production processes. The customers do it themselves in their value-creating processes, in other words, in their daily activities when products are needed by them for them to perform activities. Suppliers only create the resources or means required to make it possible for customers to create value for themselves. In this sense, at least when suppliers and customers interact, they are engaged in co-creation of value. However, as

Gronroos (2006) explains, customers are also sole-creators of value. Goods are resources and the firm makes them available for money so that the customers in their own processes will be able to use them in a way that creates value for them.

2.5.3. Service logic versus goods logic

Goods marketing is to make customers buy goods as resources to be used in their value-creating processes, in other words, as resources that support customers' value generation. Services, on the other hand, are value-supporting processes. Service marketing, therefore, is to invite customers to use the service processes by making promises about value that can be expected to be captured from the service and to implement these processes in a way that allows customers to perceive that value is created in their own processes (promise keeping through value fulfilment). Gronroos shares Korkman's (2006) suggestion that one could understand a service logic as a way of empowering consumption as a practice so that value emerges for the customer from that practice.

Goods are seen as one type of resource alongside others such as people, systems, infrastructures and information. The service is the process where these resources function together with each other and interact with the customer in his or her capacity as a consumer and as a co-producing resource.

2.5.4. An extended consumption concept

Gronroos (2006) considers two conceptually different aspects of value creation that from a marketing point of view have to be kept apart: suggesting or proposing value – making a value proposition or suggestion about the future value to be expected by the customer – and being actively involved in value fulfilment through interactive marketing efforts (keeping promises). According to Gronroos (2006), a widened view of the consumption process means that all aspects of consumption can be handled as part of marketing: interactive marketing. Customer value is not created by one element alone but by the total experience of all elements. The more content there is in the customer interface, the more complicated it probably is for the firm to manage the whole value-creating process.

2.5.5. A triangulated view of value creating activities

Ballantyne and Varey (2006) extend and elaborate on Vargo and Lusch (2004) to seek a deeper understanding of the potential for creating value-in-use through marketing interaction. They propose a triangulated view of value creating activities:

- relationships to give structural support for the creation and application of knowledge resources (relating);
- communicative interaction to develop these relationships (communicating);
- knowledge needed to improve the customer service experience especially when co-created through dialogue and learning together (knowing).

Ballantyne and Varey (2006) argue that the way to manage a relationship is a consequence of learning together over time. Relationships that are beneficial to all parties provide structural support and sustain further value creating activities. To develop the relationships, they propose three types of communicative interaction: informational (informing); communicational (listening and informing) and dialogical. Like the Nordic authors, Ballantyne and Varey see dialogical interaction as an advanced form of communication. It is built on trust, it is inherently relational, open - ended and discovery oriented. They argue that the test for dialogical authenticity is whether interaction brings opportunities for learning together. The third element is knowledge. They argue that tacit knowledge (know how) is very important and that knowledge renewal – the generation, sharing and application of knowledge – is the fundamental source of competitive advantage. An effective knowledge renewal strategy demands open interaction and dialogue, in order to re-examine what is taken for granted: a self-sustaining knowledge renewal system.

2.5.6. Overcoming the limitations of the marketer perspective

One of the main implications of a triangulated S-D exchange logic is sustainable betterment. Ballantyne and Varey (2006) see service as a kind of social interaction which aims to improve the situation of a person and, as such, is a valued route to the betterment of quality of life. This evolution to a form of marketing logic that is capable of providing sustainable well-being for all would require a change in values and a need to see beyond ownership of material possessions. This macro-marketing view is also proposed by Peñaloza and Venkatesh (2006). They suggest that researchers need to work from the perspective of the social scientist in studying the marketing phenomena.

This means marketers have to re-center consumers in the contexts of their lives in order to better understand the subjective meanings and values of consumers. Marketing is under considerable pressure to become more socially responsible and many have taken steps to respond. Yet, according to Peñaloza and Vankatesh (2006), much of this work does not question basic assumptions about marketers, consumers and market development in developed and developing societies. According to them, one of the dangers of the marketing worldview has been the gradual replacement of a social unit of analysis with an individual one. Therefore, they suggest that markets are re-situated within social life and contrast it with the instrumental view of consumers and marketers as individuals, as a means to a market exchange. These arguments reinforce the line of thinking exposed in the introductory chapter.

2.6. RELATIONSHIP MARKETING: A TRUE PARADIGM SHIFT?

Some authors argue the term relationship is being over used in marketing. They caution against a “one size fits all” marketing theory and suggest that relationship marketing should not be regarded as a binary substitute for transaction marketing. Rather, they suggest that relationship marketing and transaction marketing are concurrently practised and that firms adopt mid-range positions appropriate to the context in which they operate (Zolkiewski, 2004; Palmer, Lindgreen and Vanhamme, 2005). Similarly, it is argued that relationship marketing will not be appropriate in all situations and with all customers: customers do have different relational orientations and not all customers in all situations are willing to accept a relationship (Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Gronroos, 2004) and even relational consumers can be more active (seeking contact) or more passive (satisfied to know the marketer is there if needed) (Gronroos, 2004).

It is important to acknowledge these calls for caution however, what we are trying to emphasize is the major difference between transactional and relational paradigms. We share the view of Ballantyne, Christopher and Payne (2003) who see relationship marketing as a defence against mental straitjackets and marketing myopia. As they propose, “whenever traditional boundaries act as constraints to the creation and circulation of value, marketing relationships can act as conduits across those boundaries” (p. 163). They posit that perhaps the “paradigm shift” comes when we recognize that the new scientific world view of chaos and complexity might inform our thinking about the nature of marketing networks and the patterns of relationships within this context. As they explain, any one interaction can affect any other market interaction so any relationship between a firm and a customer will interfere with other relationships.

The really significant contribution of relationship marketing is the emphasis that it puts on the process of value creation through collaboration and cooperation. Therefore, many believe that it has the potential to be the foundation for a theory of marketing (Sheth et al, 1988; Grongroos, 1994a, 1994b; Gumesson, 1997, 2002a; Parvatyar and Sheth, 2000).

2.6.1. Obstacles to the paradigm shift

The implementation of a value creation process can be complex and difficult. As Tzokas and Saren (1997) postulate, the value creation process is incomplete without the consumers active involvement and indeed the consumer, not the firm, is the primer

driver of the value creation process. A dialogue process is needed to achieve mutual understanding, confidence and to assure that consumers' own unique means of value creation are taken into account. However, that does not happen often (Saren and Tzokas, 1998). Similarly, Gumesson (1999) proposes that inadequate basic values and their accompanying procedures – the wrong paradigm – is the biggest obstacle in marketing. Besides the misunderstanding of what a paradigm is, Gumesson (1997) argues that other major obstacles to the paradigm shift are concerned with the absence of ethics, which from a welfare perspective it is unacceptable. He asserts that relationship marketing has to represent genuine change in values and ethics and that means to include the acceptance – in action, not only in rhetoric – of interactive relationships and a *win-win* situation; of both the buyer and the seller and other parties being drivers of a network of relationships; of long-term relationships being advantageous to the parties involved; and of the customer being a co-producer of value and a partner. The ethical dimensions of relationship marketing are salient. Gundlach and Murphy (1993) were the first to acknowledge ethics as a foundation of relationship marketing. Murphy, Wood and Laczniak (1996) equate relationship marketing with ethical marketing. Takala and Uusitalo (1996) propose a conceptual framework for evaluating relationship marketing from an ethical perspective. Kavali, Tzokas and Saren (1999) argue that much more empirical research directly concerned with ethics is needed and Berry (2000) claims for a higher standard of conduct in marketing.

We will now examine the theoretical influences of relationship marketing and the several domains where it is being applied.

2.7. THEORETICAL INFLUENCES OF RELATIONSHIP MARKETING

The theoretical influences of relationship marketing comprise a number of perspectives that have been developed in the fields of economics, law and social psychology (Parvatyar and Sheth, 2000; De Wulf and Odekerken-Schroder, 2001). These include Transaction cost analysis, Relational contracting, Network theory, Power dependency, Interpersonal relations and Social exchange theory (SET). In particular, SET (Homans; 1958; Thibaut and Kelley, 1959; Blau, 1964; Cook and Emerson, 1978), which is one of the most popular theories of relationships, has inspired the work of many authors in the RM literature (e.g. Dwyer et al, 1987; Anderson and Naurus, 1990; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Odekerken-Schroder, 1999). Social Exchange Theory explicitly compares the formation and continuity of a relationship with those of a marriage and places the interaction between people and organizations at the core of relationships (e.g. Dwyer et al, 1987; Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Self-interest and relationship outcome evaluation are at the basis of maintaining and exploiting relationships. As stated by Fisher and Bristor (1994), SET explicitly predicts social relationships to be based on each partner's motivational investment and anticipated social gain. Social exchange theory is often used as a theoretical foundation for commitment and trust in relationship marketing (e.g. Dwyer, Schurr and Oh, 1987; Anderson and Naurus, 1990; Morgan and Hunt, 1994). As Dwyer et al (1987) note, relational exchange participants can be expected to derive complex, personal, non-economic satisfactions. The rewards that partners receive from engaging in social exchange over time aid in developing cooperation, a key relationship characteristic (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964; Dwyer, Schurr and Oh, 1987; Morgan and Hunt, 1994).

Some of the “successful” RM constructs will be further discussed later in the chapter. Before that, we look at the different domains where RM is being applied with a special focus on relationships with consumers and individuals.

2.8. THE SEVERAL DOMAINS OF RELATIONSHIP MARKETING

Several areas and sub-disciplines of marketing have been the focus of relationship marketing. These include issues related to business to business marketing (e.g. Dwyer et al, 1987; Anderson and Naurus, 1991; Wilson, 1995), services marketing (e.g. Berry, 1983; Crosby et al, 1990; Gronroos, 1990; Gwinner, Gremler and Bitner, 1998), marketing channels (e.g. Anderson and Naurus, 1990; Morgan and Hunt, 1994), retailing (e.g. Berry and Gresham, 1986) and consumer marketing (e.g. Gruen, 1995; Sheth and Parvatyar, 1995; Bhattacharya and Bolton, 2000; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). Besides these “business marketing oriented fields”, there are also attempts to transfer RM to non-profit contexts (e.g. Arnett et al, 2003; Bennet and Berkenstjo, 2005).

Its role in business-to-business and services is well accepted nevertheless, in what concerns consumer markets, and particularly mass markets, there are some tensions and divergences in the literature that we will now analyse.

2.8.1. Relationship Marketing in Consumer Markets

Roberts, Varki and Brodie (2003) point important differences between organizational buying behaviour and consumer buying behaviour. Business-to-business relationship theories are based primarily on the assumptions of rational behaviour and mutual

acceptance of reciprocity given the contractual nature of organizational relationships. The interactions are more formal and more intense given the greater customization involved in product and service transactions and the negotiation of contractual obligations between firms (Assel, 1987). This is in contrast to consumer purchases which are more emotionally driven (Stern, 1997) and are often less planned and at prices and terms set by the individual firm. Thus, the key differences between organizational and consumer markets are the degree of necessity of relationships from the purchasing entity's point of view and the social and affective dimensions of such relationships. Furthermore, as emphasized by Roberts et al (2003), the aspect of voluntary participation by the consumer - as opposed to an enforced relationship that often endures between a service provider and customer - is implicit in the notion of relational bonds.

Many authors suggest that relationship marketing is applicable to all markets regardless of the product/service sold or client/market served (Dwyer, Schurr and Oh, 1987; Pels, 1999; Parvatyar and Sheth, 2000). However, others point a number of conceptual and practical problems inherent with the extension to consumer markets (Gruen, 1995; Iacobucci and Ostrom, 1996; Barnes, 1997; O'Malley and Tynan, 1999, 2000). O'Malley and Tynan, (1999, 2000) make a clear distinction between relationship marketing and transaction marketing, direct marketing, database marketing, loyalty and retention because these are tactical while relationship marketing focuses on long-term interaction leading to emotional and social bonds. We agree with the view that caution is needed when extending relationship marketing to consumer markets particularly in what concerns the difference between tactical and strategic issues.

The literature concerning relationship marketing in consumer markets integrates research both about *why consumers engage in relationships* and *how marketers can build successful relationships with consumers*. As we will see, the “why”- benefits and motivations - and the “how”- the nature and quality of relationships - are interrelated, and this is salient in most literature.

2.8.2. Why do consumers engage in relationships?

Sheth and Parvatiyar (1995) argue that the fundamental axiom of relationship marketing is that consumers like to reduce choices by engaging in ongoing loyalty relationship with marketers. Bagozzi (1995) sees the relationship as a mean for fulfilment of a goal.

Fournier (1998) empirically demonstrated that consumers are involved in relationships with a collectivity of brands so as to benefit from the meanings they add into their lives. Some of these meanings are functional and utilitarian; other are more psychological and emotional, but all are purposive and ego - centred and therefore of great significance to the persons engaging them. Apart from Fournier (1998) who studies consumer-brand relationships with a special focus on products, most of research about RM benefits and motivations applies in services (Barnes, 1994; Bendapudi and Berry, 1997; Gwinner, Gremler, and Bitner, 1998; Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, and Gremler, 2000, 2002; Liljander and Roos, 2002).

Bendapudi and Berry (1997) examine customers’ motivations for maintaining relationships and argue that different motivations for maintaining relationships may well lead to very different relationship outcomes. They distinguish *dedication-based*

relationships- individuals are motivated to maintain relationships because they genuinely want - from *constrain-based relationships* – individuals maintain relationships because they believe they have no other option. Implicit in the notion of relational bonds is the aspect of voluntary participation by the consumer as opposed to an enforced relationship. Roberts et al (2003) use the example of cellular phone contracts to illustrate how consumers can be forced to maintain a relationship. Therefore, it is suggested that cooperation, relationship enhancement, identity and advocacy are unlikely to occur in constrain-based relationships (Bendapudi and Berry, 1997).

Drawing on previous work (Bendapudi and Berry, 1997; Gwinner et al, 1998; Hennig-Thurau et al, 2000), Hennig-Thurau et al (2002) integrate research on benefits with research on relationship quality arguing that both concepts are needed to understand relationship success. Liljander and Roos (2002) see relationship benefits as rewards and positive relationship bonds and also integrate them with the concept of relationship quality. They suggest that customer relationships can be described along a continuum, ranging from spurious to true relationships based on relationship benefits, trust and commitment.

Similarly, Berry (2000) proposes three relationship levels relating them with different types of bonds. *Level 1* consists in financial bonds: RM relies primarily on pricing incentives to secure customers' loyalty. *Level 2* refers to social bonds: it relies primarily on social bonds and it attempts to capitalize on the reality that many service encounters are also social encounters; social bonding involves personalization and customization of the relationship. *Level 3* concerns structural bonds: RM relies primarily on structural

solutions to important customer problems. When relationship marketers can offer target customers value-adding benefits that are difficult or expensive for customers to provide and that are not readily available elsewhere, they create a strong foundation for maintaining and enhancing relationships. At this level, the solution to the customer's problem is designed into the service delivery system rather than being dependent upon the relationship building skills of individual service providers.

We consider that the discussion around the difference between voluntary and enforced relationships is very relevant to social marketers. Furthermore, the concept of levels of relationships is also transferable.

In the next section we will summarize relevant contributions from different contexts and will focus on the identification and discussion of key RM successful variables.

2.8.3. How do marketers build successful relationships with consumers/ individuals?

Research about relationship marketing in consumer markets is increasing considerably and the importance of particular relationship characteristics in producing relationship marketing success is context-specific. There is a dominance of a mixed approach, earlier mentioned, which advocates a combination of traditional relationship constructs with context-specific constructs. Most of the empirical work reviewed here is about building measurable models of successful relationship. Our objective is not to build a model to social marketing but the analysis of models applied in other contexts will allow us to identify constructs and conceptualizations that are relevant to social marketers.

The different contexts are retail (De Wulf, Odekerken-Schroder and Iacobucci, 2001); theatres (Garbarino and Johnson, 1999), membership/professional associations (Gruen, Summers and Acito, 2000); non-profit/membership/museums (Bhattacharya, Rao and Glynn, 1995); non-profit/membership/higher education (Arnett, German and Hunt, 2003); non-profit/charities (Bennet and Barkensjo, 2005); services (Sidershmukh, Singh and Sabol, 2002; Hennig- Thurau, Gwinner, Gremler and Bitner, 2002; Roberts, Varki and Brodie, 2003). There is also conceptual work about relationships in consumer markets/memberships in general (Gruen, 2000); relationship marketing in mass markets (Bhattacharya and Bolton, 2000); and consumer-company relationships (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). The mediating structure of most of the models and their basic structure with both psychological and behavioural outcomes has strong precedence in relationship marketing studies (e.g. Wilson and Mummalaneni, 1986; Crosby et al, 1990; Moorman et al, 1993; Morgan and Hunt, 1994).

We highlight two conceptualizations of successful relationships in non-profit marketing that emphasize the importance of social rewards, despite through different angles: one of them focuses on donors (Arnett, German and Hunt, 2003); the other focuses on beneficiaries (Bennet and Barkensjo, 2005). Arnett at all build and test a model in the higher education context. Their rationale is that RM is a viable strategy in such contexts as those involving primarily social exchange (the benefits received are substantially social), consumer/individuals marketing and non-profit marketing. Discussing the nature of social exchange in non-profit marketing, they argue that social rewards are often valued more than economic rewards (Blau, 1968): when donors give money to a non-profit they do not receive any product or service in return. Similarly, when they donate products or services they do not receive monetary compensation. This is

particular relevant to us as we can transfer it directly to social marketing. Further, in social marketing we are talking about a context that, most of the times, involves not primarily social exchanges but pure social exchanges, where the economic dimension of transaction is totally absent.

Bennet and Berkensjo (2005) are the first to examine the use of relationship marketing by charities in respect of their beneficiaries rather than their donors. They posit that helping and caring services are base around personal contacts with beneficiaries and exhibit high degrees of interactivity which makes the charity sector an ideal domain for relationship marketing. According to them, clients of a people charity benefit from its relationship marketing activities in several ways: through the receipt of relevant and useful info about services; a sense of belonging; and feelings of being valued and respected (Bhattacharya and Bolton, 2000). However, as they emphasize, relationship marketing in the people charity context sometimes involves in the first instance a highly proactive organization and a relatively passive client. As a consequence, the organization must take the initiative in starting a relationship. This duality - relevant social rewards/passive clients - is also transferable to social marketing.

The next section will discuss the specificity of the key relational constructs provided by both non-profit and for-profit contexts. It also examines how these constructs link to social marketing, a connection we will examine in more detail in the next chapter.

2.9. KEY RELATIONAL CONSTRUCTS

We examine psychological (relationship quality, trust, commitment, satisfaction, perceived value and identification) and behavioural constructs (cooperation).

2.9.1. Relationship quality

Relationship quality can be considered an overall assessment of the strength of a relationship (e.g. Garbarino and Johnson, 1999). To Roberts, Varki and Brodie (2003), relationship quality is a higher order construct made of several distinct, though related dimensions. Most conceptualizations of relationship quality in consumer markets build on Morgan and Hunt's (1994) theory of trust and commitment by including satisfaction as a key concept (e.g. Crosby et al, 1990; Gruen, 1995; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; De Wulf, Odekerker-Schroder and Iacobucci, 2001; Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner and Gremler, 2002; Roberts, Varki and Brodie, 2003). However, as explained by Roberts et al (2003), there is no formal examination of the extent to which the dimensions relate to each other and too often antecedents have been confused for indicators of constructs. For example, they argue that communication, equity and ethical profile are antecedents rather than indicators of relationship quality.

It is important to distinguish and compare the concepts of relationship quality and service quality. There is a consensus that relationship quality and service quality are different constructs, which means that what people value in a relationship does not necessarily correspond to what people value in a service. Crosby et al (1990) state that service quality is a necessary but not sufficient condition for relationship quality. To illustrate this argument, Roberts et al (2003) explain that one may be very satisfied with

the service provided by the hairdresser, but may not feel that one has a personal relationship with the hairdresser. Nevertheless, they continue, it is impossible for a person to have a relationship with a hair dresser in the absence of a good service as that is the basic foundation for the relationship to exist.

However, there are different views in the literature around this issue. For example, Rosen and Suprenant (1998) and Bennet and Barkensjo (2005) admit that it is possible to have a good relationship with a service provider even if the quality of the service provided by an organization might not, of itself, be satisfactory. Similarly, Gwinner et al (1998) demonstrated that customers might remain in the relationship even if they perceive the core service attributes to be less than superior provided they are receiving important relational benefits.

Roberts et al (2003) suggest that, despite the unavoidable overlap in the operationalization of the two constructs, it needs to be kept in mind that service quality in essence seeks to measure firm performance along transactional dimensions whereas relationship quality emphasizes the intangible aspects of on-going interactions over one-off encounters. But, as proposed by Roberts et al (2003), more research is needed to examine whether it is better to improve the service or the relationship.

2.9.2. Trust

There is a consensus in the literature that trust is a very relevant indicator of relationship quality. Trust has received a great deal of attention in social psychology (e.g. Deutch 1960; Lewicki and Bunker, 1995) sociology (e.g. Lewis and Weigert, 1985) economics

(e.g. Dasgupta, 1990; Williamson, 1993) and organizational behaviour (e.g. Rousseau, Sigin, Burt and Camerer, 1998). In marketing it is considered to have a central role in relationship marketing theoretical and empirical development. It has been studied extensively in business-to-business settings (e.g. Dwyer, Schurr and Oh, 1987; Anderson and Narus, 1990; Moorman, Desphandé and Zaltman, 1993; Ganesan, 1994; Morgan and Hunt, 1994) and relational retail settings (e.g. Dwyer, Schurr and Oh, 1987; Crosby, Evans and Cowles, 1990).

Rousseau, Skin, Burt and Camerer (1998) extracted common themes in the different conceptual definitions of trust to propose a consensus definition as follows: trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on expectations of the intentions or behaviours of another. At the same time, others argue that the resulting conceptualizations are so stretched that they have limited usefulness for conceptual and/or empirical work (Bigley and Pearce, 1998). These authors suggest a shift from what is trust to which trust and when.

Although trust has been interpreted as a relationship benefit or bond by some researchers (Gwinner et al, 1998; Hennig-Thorau et al, 2000, 2002) it is most often posited as an independent construct.

Moorman, Desphandé and Zaltman (1993) argue that it is important to distinguish factors that influence trust from components of trust itself. They focus on factors affecting user trust in a marketing research context and conclude that the interpersonal factors are the most predictive of trust. In the context of market research relationships vulnerability and uncertainty arise for obvious reasons. They define trust as a

willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence (Moorman, Zaltman and Desphandé, 1992). This definition spans the two general approaches to trust in the literature. First, considerable research in marketing views trust as a belief, confidence or expectation about an exchange partner's trustworthiness that results from the partner's expertise, reliability or intentionality (e.g. Blau, 1964; Rotter, 1967; Schurr and Ozanne, 1985). Second, trust has been viewed as a behavioural intention or behaviour that reflects a reliance on a partner and involves vulnerability and uncertainty on the part of the trustor (e.g. Deutch, 1962; Coleman, 1990). This view suggests that, without vulnerability, trust is unnecessary because outcomes are inconsequential for the trustor. Uncertainty is also critical because trust is unnecessary if the trustor can control an exchange partner's actions.

Morgan and Hunt (1994) conceptualize trust as existing when one party has confidence in an exchange's partner's reliability and integrity. This definition parallels that of Moorman, Desphandé and Zaltman (1983). Morgan and Hunt theorize that trust is central to all relational exchanges. Further, they posit that trust influences relationship commitment. Social exchange theory explains this causal relationship through the principle of generalized reciprocity which holds that mistrust breeds mistrust and as such would also serve to decrease commitment in the relationship and shift the transaction to one of more direct short-term exchanges.

Discussing the relevance of the trust construct for consumer exchanges, Singh and Sirdeshmukh (2000) argue that direct translations from related research in other contexts should be avoided. They posit that trust is particularly important in credence based services which are characterised by high performance ambiguity, significant

consequentiality and high interdependence between the parties. They also point vulnerability, which is common in credence-based services, as the main driver of trust (Singh and Sirdeshmukh, 2000).

Sirdeshmukh, Sing and Sabol (2003) examined the behaviours and practices of service providers that built or deplete consumer trust and their conceptualization includes frontline employees behaviours (FLE) and management policies and practices (MPP) as distinct facets. They suggest a multidimensional conceptualization which includes the notions of competence and benevolence. Although not specifically developed for consumer exchanges, other authors have conceptualized trust with similar notions: Ganesan and Hess (1997) and Doney and Canon (1997) suggest credibility and benevolence; reliability and integrity is emphasized by Moorman et al (1983) and Morgan and Hunt (1994).

In Sirdeshmukh et al (2003) view, operational competence is the expectation of consistently competent performance from an exchange partner. In consumer-service provider exchanges this operational focus is appropriate because competence judgements are typically based on observation of FLE behaviours and/or MPPs. Operational benevolence is defined as behaviours that reflect an underlying motivation to place the consumer's interest ahead of self-interest. They extend this conceptualization by including problem-solving orientation as the third dimension of trustworthiness. Their rationale is that consumers are alert to evidence of problem solving orientation throughout the process of service consumption and use this evidence to formulate trust judgements.

Berry (2000) emphasizes the need to leverage trust. As he asserts, RM is built in the foundation of trust, a very powerful marketing tool. Relationship marketers can demonstrate their trustworthiness through a higher standard of conduct, to build genuine relationships. For Gundlach and Murphy (1993) trust is the variable most universally accepted as a basis for any human interaction or exchange. It is one dimension of ethical exchange therefore required for fair and open exchanges to occur.

This moral dimension of trust is also addressed in the organizational behaviour literature (Wicks, Berman and Jones, 1999; Hosmer, 1995). Hosmer (1995) defines trust as “the expectation by one person, group or firm of ethically justifiable behaviour – that is morally correct decisions and actions based upon ethical principles of analysis – on the part of other person, group, or a firm in a joint endeavour or economic exchange” (p. 145). This definition makes trust’s moral duty explicit and puts together organizational theory and moral philosophy. Wicks et al (1999) posit that although rational prediction is clearly an important part of trust it provides an incomplete understanding of trust on its own so other conditions must be present: affect, that is emotion. The affective element has a clear moral element, thus the emotional bond is not just in the relationship but a belief in the moral character of the trustee. Similarly, McAllister (1995) suggests that trust based on emotional states such as care and concern are deeper than trust based primarily on cognitive perceptions of predictable dependable behaviours.

In the RM literature, as Andersen and Kumar (2006) explain, most research on trust formation in relationship marketing has focused on trust building from a cognitive/rationalist viewpoint, inspired by the thinking of social exchange theorists such as Blau (1964) and Emerson (1972). Drawing from organizational behaviour

literature, Andersen and Kumar (2006) propose to focus on how affective states on a personal and group level impact on the formation of trust.

In the charity context, trust is considered to involve the belief that the beneficiary's needs will be fulfilled by the other party, that the charity is credible, reliable, honest and sincere and that the organization is truly benevolent and it has intentions beneficial to the customer (Bennett and Barkensjo, 2005).

Despite different conceptualizations, it seems that there is a consensus that trust is a very complex concept and therefore difficult to research. It is also consensual that if there is no vulnerability and uncertainty, then trust is unnecessary. Further, the moral foundations of trust are considered to be very important. The emotional dimension, which is related to the moral dimension, is also relevant. The fact that social marketing is driven by the desire to benefit individuals and society makes trust and its moral dimensions, a very powerful tool.

2.9.3. Commitment

The general consensus among researchers is that commitment is an important indicator of relationship quality. Commitment is recognized as an essential ingredient for successful relationships and is considered to be central to all relational exchanges between the firm and its various partners (Dwyer, Schurr and Oh, 1987; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Gundlach, Achrol and Mentzer, 1995).

Commitment long has been central in the social exchange literature (Thibaut and Kelly, 1959; Blau, 1964). Cook and Emerson (1978) characterize commitment as a variable that is central in distinguishing social from economic exchange. Drawing on the conceptualizations of commitment in social exchange (Cook and Emerson, 1978) marriage (Thompson and Spanier, 1983) and organizations (Meyer and Allen, 1984), Morgan and Hunt (1994) define relationship commitment as an exchange partner believing the relationship is worth working on to ensure that endures indefinitely. Their definition corresponds to the one developed by Moorman, Zaltman and Desphandé (1992). Equally inspired by social exchange theory, Dwyer, Schurr and Oh (1987) define commitment as “an implicit or explicit pledge of relational continuity between exchange partners” (p.19). It implies a willingness to make short-term sacrifices to realize longer-term benefits (Dwyer et al, 1987). Similarly, Gundlach and Murphy (1993) posit that the characteristics of commitment are thought to be sacrifice, stability, and loyalty.

Gundlach, Achrol and Mentzer (1995) recognize that commitment can provide both benefits and liabilities in exchange, therefore it is important to examine its structure. Their key argument is that it is not the act of initial commitment alone but rather the structure of initial commitment inputs that influences the type of sentiments and social norms that develop the relationship. They posit that the structure of commitment is constituted by its credibility - the magnitude of the parties' combined commitments - and its proportionality or mutualness. Gundlach, Achrol and Mentzer (1995) conceptualize commitment through a three component model:

- Instrumental component: an affirmative action taken by one party that creates a self-interest stake in the relationship; it is like a calculative act.
- Attitudinal component: an enduring intention by the parties to develop and maintain a stable long-term relationship.
- Temporal dynamics: they are at the very heart of the construct and correspond to consistent lines of activity. Two of its important elements are durability and consistency over time. Durability presumes the parties can discern the benefits attributable to the exchange relation and anticipate an environment that will abet continued affective exchange. Consistency is very important because when a party's input levels fluctuate the other party will have difficulty predicting the outcomes from exchange.

Apart from its relevance in business-to-business markets, empirical research shows that commitment is also important in consumer markets (Gruen, 1995, 2000; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; De Wulf, Odekerken-Schroder and Iacobucci, 2001; Hennig-Thorau et al, 2002; Liljander and Roos, 2002). Gruen (2000) posits that commitment has been shown to take multiple forms: continuance, affective and normative (Allen and Myer, 1990; Gruen, 1997). Continuance commitment corresponds to the instrumental dimension of commitment conceptualized by Gundlach et al (1995). Affective commitment is based on an individual's overall positive feelings toward a relational partner. Normative commitment is based on the individual's sense of felt obligation to the relationship. Gruen (1995) sees commitment as a motivational force and, as such, it can provide an explanation for the continuance of relationships when satisfaction and trust would intuitively suggest termination. It is less volatile than satisfaction and, despite no definitive answer in the literature, it is argued that increased levels of

commitment will lead to increased levels of participation and co-production (Gruen, 1995) and loyalty (Gruen, 1995; De Wulf et al, 2001).

In the charity context, commitment is considered to be deeply related with the concept of bonding. Bonding should occur as beneficiaries come to believe that a charity is motivated by a genuine concern for their welfare (Bennett and Barkensjo, 2005).

Various but similar descriptions of loyalty and commitment are found in the literature. In empirical research, the term loyalty often refers to repeat patronage while commitment is used to denote customers' affective preferences (e.g. Oderkerken-Schroder, 1999). As explained by Liljander and Roos (2002), customers in both spurious or true relationships continue to buy the service - to be loyal - and may appear to be equally satisfied based on their satisfaction score. However, the main difference is their degree of commitment expressed as the number of service providers and affective commitment. Affective commitment stems from perceived service superiority compared to alternative providers and a strong preference for the service provider in question. Similarly, Roberts et al (2003) believe that only affective commitment influences the degree to which the consumer wants to maintain a relationship with a firm.

Commitment to the relationship is crucial to social marketing. The complex and long term behaviours addressed by social marketers demand continuity and consistency and without commitment individuals/consumers' involvement and participation will not be genuine.

2.9.4. Satisfaction

Satisfaction is considered to be crucial for organizations that strive for long-term relationships with customers (Oliver and Swan, 1989). Satisfaction is a construct almost absent in business-to-business literature, but considered very important in consumer contexts. Gruen (1995) argues that the psychological construct of satisfaction is a critical central outcome of relationship marketing. Business-to-consumer (BTC) relationships may be more tenuous than business-to-business (BTB), as a result, the construct of commitment is likely to play a lesser role, while constructs like satisfaction and trust will be more important in BTC than BTB. Using social psychology theory as a guide, Gruen (1995) argues that the aspect of a BTC relationship to which the member's satisfaction will be related is the perceived value of the benefits or rewards received from the exchanges with the organization (Thibaut and Kelly, 1959). It is the member's assessment of the relative value of the basic exchanges in relationship. As the services marketing literature continually suggests customers (members) must be satisfied with the basic services of the organization.

Satisfaction is somewhat volatile as it often depends on a member's most recent exchanges with the organization. It has positive effects in trust and in commitment and it is likely to have some impact on retention and co-production (Gruen, 2000).

Bennett and Barkensjo (2005) suggest that the level of client need has the potential to affect satisfaction. In the charity context beneficiaries often place critical dimensions of their lives in a charity's hands and want desperately to be assisted. It might be expected, therefore, that needy people will be more easily pleased.

Garbarino and Jonhson (1999) define overall satisfaction or cumulative satisfaction as an overall evaluation based on the total purchase and consumption experience with a good or service over time. It captures the consumer's general level of satisfaction based on all experiences with the firm. In contrast with more rational outcomes (e.g. Anderson and Narus, 1990), De Wulf et al (2001) define relationship satisfaction as a consumer's affective state resulting from an overall appraisal of his or her relationship with the retailer. In addition, in line with Garbarino and Jonhson (1999), they view it as a cumulative effect over the course of a relationship compared to satisfaction that is specific to each transaction.

Storbacka, Strandvik and Gronroos (1994) propose that customer (cumulative) satisfaction is the customer's cognitive and affective evaluation based on their personal experience across all service episodes within the relationship. Therefore, they argue, a customer who is not satisfied with the service received cannot be expected to have a good relationship with the firm, as the satisfaction of customer needs is at the core of exchange relationships. Similarly, Crosby et al (1990) argue that satisfaction is a summary measure that provides an evaluation of the quality of all past interactions with the service provider, shaping expectations about future intentions.

However, there is some controversy around the question of whether the perception of high service quality is the cause of client satisfaction with the service or vice-versa. Bennet and Barkensjo (2005) argue that satisfaction is the cause of perceptions of high service quality. Their line of reasoning is that perceptions of service quality develop over time, not from a single encounter. If the client is satisfied with every interaction then eventually the person will come to regard the service as being of high quality.

However, other authors argue that service quality is an antecedent of satisfaction. Their assumption is that a service can only be appraised after it has been perceived and interpreted (e.g. Lee et al, 2000).

We argue that relationship satisfaction is also very important to social marketing as an indicator of the quality of relationships.

2.9.5. Customer perceived value

Value is a cornerstone concept in the marketing discipline, however, despite its importance, little research effort has been devoted to examining what this value is, how it is produced, delivered and consumed (Tzokas and Saren, 1999; Woodwall, 2003). Woodall (2003) argues that political economy is limited to understand what value means because it assumes a rational approach to valuation and does not explain how and why individuality and contingency are relevant. Therefore, he suggests that to understand the nature of value fully, a philosophical perspective must also be adopted. As Woodwall explains, the central issue is one of “valuation”, or the personal estimation of the value of a thing: how and why we choose and prioritise available options. Building from Rokeach (1973), he perceives values primarily as motivational that, ultimately, determine the choices we make. He suggests that we all share the same values but to different degrees and each individual sorts and orders these values into a personalized “value system”. Therefore, a combination of political economy and philosophy allow “value” to be viewed as coincidentally personal, contingent and dynamic. He conceives the notion of an aggregated *Value for the Customer* (VC) and

sees it as a gestalt property: a phenomenon that is greater than and/or different from the sum of its individual parts. This led him on to the following definition:

Value for the customer (VC) is any demand-side, personal perception of advantage arising out of a customer's association with an organization's offering, and can occur as reduction in sacrifice; presence of benefit (perceived as either attributes or outcomes); the resultant of any weighed combination of sacrifice and benefit (determined and expressed either rationally or intuitively); or an aggregation, over time, of any or all of these.

Wilson and Jantrania (1994) are among the few to consider the concept of value within relationships. Woodruff (1997) proposes that value needs to be addressed at different levels of the consumer experience with the product itself and at different stages of the relationship with the firm. Another important contribution comes from Ravald and Gronroos (1996) and Gronroos (1997). They have proposed ways of measuring the “customer perceived value of an episode or total episode value” and “customer perceived value”. As explained by Tzokas and Saren (1999) the relevance of that contribution is they bring into the picture the costs and benefits associated with the relationship itself as determinants of the overall value perceived by the customer.

As Ravald and Gronroos (1996) emphasize, the value concept is multifaceted and complicated. They argue that adding value can be done in several ways: one of them might be to reduce the customer-perceived sacrifice by minimizing the relationship costs for the customer. The rationale is if customer satisfaction depends on value then it must depend on the total costs or sacrifice, too. The issue is not what kind of an offering

the company provides; rather, it is what kind of relationship the company is capable of maintaining.

For Ravald and Gonroos (1996) it is of extreme importance that the company realizes the need and significance of continuity in a customer relationship. When considering value as a means of strengthening the bonds to customers the discussion should not be limited to value-adding features in the offering. The customer-perceived value needs to get a deeper understanding, a deeper meaning – a meaning which does not relate only to episodes, but to the expectations of the customer and the responsibility of the company to meet these expectations in a long term relationship. Then, they conclude, the customer perceived value can be increased on an episode level as well as on relationship level.

Another important contribution comes from Ruyter, Wetzels, Lemmink and Mattsson (1997). They used three generic dimensions of value: emotional, practical and logical in order to assess customer perceived value at different stages at the service delivery process within the context of museums. They argue that an overall score of customer value would be misleading. According to them, museum visitors, like consumers of other goods or services, can follow different routes in their museum visits thus building their own unique museum consumption experience which is hard to be pre-determined by marketers. This reinforces the argument that consumers play an active role in the construction of their consumption experience thus acting as co-producers of value.

McDougall and Levesque (2000) demonstrated that core service quality (the promise-what is delivered) and perceived value were the most important drivers of customer

satisfaction. Relational service quality (how it was delivered; customer-employee relationship) was significant but a less important driver. They view value as benefits received relative to costs and argue that more research is needed to establish what role perceived value plays in determining customer satisfaction. Similarly, Roberts, Varki and Brodie (2003) suggest that future research examines whether relationship value, also seen as costs and benefits of maintaining relationships, is a better predictor of outcomes than relationship quality.

For Tzokas and Saren (1997, 1999), customer value is a dynamic and transformational higher level construct which should not be reduced to a low level operational measurement. The continuous interaction between the firm and a customer transforms value into an inherently dynamic concept. Therefore, they explain, measurements of customer value are only partial scores of a higher level construct. Researchers need to address customers' attributions to value rather than simply seeking what they attribute to it. Tzokas and Saren (1997) emphasize that marketing managers need to reach a different level of insight into the consumer experiential space and capture the inherently dynamic nature of customer value.

Perceived value is a very important concept to social marketers. The benefits and costs have to be related with consumers' values, which might be challenging due to their dynamic and contingent nature.

2.9.6. Identification

The phenomenon of identification has been well studied by organizational researchers (e.g. Mael and Ashforth, 1992). These studies have been either of employees of an organization or the alumni of educational institutions. Identifying with organizations is a way to preserve (or enhance) the self concept. Social identity theory maintains that in addition to a personal identity, the self concept is also composed of a social identity (Tajfel and Turner, 1985). Social identification is the perception of belonging to a group with the result that a person identifies with that group (i.e. *I am a member*). With increasing interest in RM strategies there has been growing interest in organizational identification and the way it relates to customer behaviour (e.g. Bhattacharya, Rao and Glyn, 1995; Bhattacharya and Bolton, 2000; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Arnett et al, 2003).

Similar to commitment, identification is considered as a type of bond connecting the individual with the organization. The key difference is that the in identification organizational images are linked to members` self concepts (Battacharya et al, 1995). Gruen (2000) argues that increased levels of identification will lead to increased levels of retention, participation/loyalty and co-production.

Gruen (2000) argues that whereas satisfaction and commitment have been examined in virtually all types of relationship marketing, the concept of identification is generally reserved for situations involving memberships. Bhattacharya et al (1995) suggest that corporate philanthropy and cause related marketing programmes can better enhance identification if they draw consumers inside the organization as members. However,

more recently, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) extended research on social identity (e.g. Tajfe and Turner, 1985) and organizational identification (e.g. Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000), and proposed that identification with organizations can also occur in the absence of formal membership, as with the case of consumers and companies both for and non-profit. They also enlarge the view of the “extended self” (Belk, 1988), suggesting that it seems to stem not only from material possessions or even memberships but also from people` s positive and negative psychological connections with organizations. Identification has both cognitive and affective dimensions (Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000).

Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) suggest that consumers will identify with an attractive company identity only when their interactions with that company are significant, sustained and meaningful enough to embed them in the organizational network. Embedded relationships arise when consumers engage in company-related rites, rituals and routines. It also increases when consumers network with other company stakeholders and other consumers through on and offline communities (e.g. discussions forums hosted by the *American Cancer Society*) or get involved in company decision making. Embedded relationships are more likely to occur when the company and its products/services contribute to the satisfaction of idiosyncratic, important interests and provide opportunities for self-expression. As the authors argue, business-to-consumer companies may benefit more from identification because they are better known to the general public and provide opportunities to direct consumption with concomitant opportunities for self-expression.

Applying identity theory in the non-profit marketing context, Arnett et al (2003) argue that identity theory captures the social nature of an exchange relationship as it explicitly incorporates many of the social benefits that are derived from the relationship: for example, self esteem. Identity theory posits that identities are arranged hierarchically and that salient identities are more likely to affect behaviour than those that are less important. In addition, these identities often compete against one another.

As Battacharya et al (1995) suggest, identification is not simply a bilateral relationship between a person and an organization, isolated from other organizations, but a process in a competitive arena. This argument suggests that it is important to think about identification but also about desidentification. Bhattacharya and Elsbach (2002) discuss this in social marketing initiatives and argue that social marketers need to better understand how both identification and desidentification work. For example: the California Anti-tobacco Coalition tries to influence consumers to desidentify with Philip Morris. Bhattacharya and Elsbach (2002) explain that these do not only lead to individual-level behaviour change but also could lead to related macro changes. Identifying with the focal organization or desidentifying with an opposing organization are both legitimate ways of supporting the focal organization's social change efforts.

Social marketing programmes often challenge existent identities which can create resistances from the target/individuals. Furthermore, the fact that, many times, social marketing programmes involve a collective of people rather than a single organization makes identification particularly challenging but also especially relevant.

2.9.7. Cooperation

Cooperation is considered to be one of the main values of the relationship marketing paradigm and a crucial condition of value creation process (Sheth and Parvatyar, 2000; Gumesson, 2002a; Gronroos, 1994a, 2000a). As a construct, it is normally considered to be a desired behaviour in RM (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Sheth and Parvatyar, 1995; Gruen, 1995).

Morgan and Hunt (1994) propose that cooperation is one of the main indicators of success and it arises directly from both relationship commitment and trust. As they explain, cooperation means working together to achieve mutual goals. Because conflictual behaviour can coexist temporarily with cooperative actions, cooperation is not simply the absence of conflict. Nor is cooperation the same thing as acquiescence. Cooperation is proactive; acquiescence is reactive. Morgan and Hunt (1994) show empirical evidence to posit that trust has the strongest effect in cooperation and suggest further research about possible forms of cooperation that are more conducive to success. One possible form – citizenship behaviours/extra role behaviours - is well studied in the organizational behaviour literature (Organ, 1988). Organ shows that citizenship behaviours can be exhibited in a variety of forms: e.g. altruism, civic virtue, worth-of-mouth. In the beneficiary relationship marketing context, beneficiaries cooperated recommending the charity to other people and engaging in positive word-of-mouth (Bennett and Barkensjo, 2005)

By encouraging cooperation, relationship marketing gives firms access to improved customer information and input from the consumer. Furthermore, this cooperation can

extend to the product development process, involving consumers early on in product development and testing (Roberts et al, 2003).

Sheth and Parvathyar (1995) argue that RM is likely to make marketing practices more effective because on the one hand the individual customer's needs are better addressed, and on the other hand, consumer involvement in the development of the marketing processes and practices leads to greater commitment. Relationship marketing also leads to a greater efficiency because with cooperative and efficient consumer response marketers will be able to reduce many unproductive resources wasted in the system. And, as cooperation develops the consumer will be willing to undertake some of the value-creation activities such as co-production.

Examining business-to-consumer relationships, Gruen (2000) posits that co-production behaviours create value both for the organization and to the members and it can take many forms: e.g. word of mouth and participation in activities of the organization. He sees co-production as a consequence of satisfaction, commitment, identification and member interdependence. Regarding member interdependence, Gruen (2000) explains that a large portion of the value of belonging to a membership organization comes through the relationships that members establish with other members; although the membership organization seeks to provide value to the individual members, they often obtain value through exchanges among themselves, through for example informal networks. Relationship interdependence is viewed as the extent of the mutual value of the exchanges between members. This can be characterized by both the breadth of the network and the quality of exchanges.

Bhattacharya and Bolton (2000) present a similar argument to non-membership consumer markets. As they explain, although extant literature has focused almost exclusively on relational outcomes as a function of the customer, firm and product characteristics, the lateral relationships or networks that develop among groups of users/consumers are important determinants of relational outcomes. This also has some correspondence to the concept of embeddedness, already discussed (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). Cooperation is very relevant to social marketing. The challenge is to develop and stimulate innovative, creative and efficient forms of cooperation.

Trust, commitment, satisfaction, perceived value, identification and cooperation are variables that are at the core of the meaning of relationalism. They are complex and often overlapping and ambiguous concepts (Gundlach et al, 1995), but at the same time full of potential. Social marketers have to address and explore them.

We now present a table with a summary of the key principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing that we consider to be transferable to social marketing (Table 2.1.).

Table 2.1. Relationship marketing key principles, processes and constructs

Key principles	Customer as the main driver of value creation Service logic and resources orientation Process management Partnerships and networks
Key processes	Communication Dialogue Interaction Value
Key constructs	Trust Commitment Satisfaction Identification Perceived value Cooperation

2.10. SUMMARY

In this chapter we have identified what is transferable from relationship marketing to social marketing. We have identified the several schools of relationship marketing to establish that the Nordic School is the most relevant to social marketing. The principles, the processes and the constructs were examined and summarized and it has been established that these capture the fundamental changes involved in the shift from transaction to relationship marketing. The main principles are the recognition that the customer is the main driver of value creation, the service logic and resources orientation, the process management perspective and the principle of partnerships and networks. The main processes are communication, dialogue, interaction and value and

the main constructs are trust, commitment, satisfaction, identification, perceived value and cooperation.

In the next chapter we will examine the implications and challenges involved in the transference of these principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing to social marketing.

4. SOCIAL MARKETING

4.1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter we have identified the key principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing that potentially can be transferred to social marketing. The objectives of this chapter are to characterize the context for transference and to explain the implications and challenges raised by that transference.

In this chapter we reinforce the argument that relationship marketing is relevant for social marketers. Social marketing has particular characteristics that make relationship marketing potentially applicable: the absence of the profit motive; the focus on high involvement decisions; complex and multifaceted behaviours; changes that take a long time; the relevance of trust and the need to target the most needy and hard - to - reach groups in society. Despite this potential, social marketers have shown little interest in relationship marketing, which may reflect the influence of financial drivers in the field and the subsequent focus on behaviour change objectives (Hastings, 2003). It is established that, despite its applicability and potential, relationship marketing raises important challenges. These are analysed throughout the chapter but first, to understand the context of transference, we examine and discuss the specific characteristics of social marketing.

3.2. WHAT IS SOCIAL MARKETING?

As Andreasen (1994) emphasizes, marketing, whether social or commercial, is about human behaviour – changing, reinforcing and encouraging it. Social marketing connotes what is social and what is marketing. The meaning of social marketing – like that of marketing itself – is to be found in the unique problems that confront the discipline (Bagozzi, 1975). Social marketing needs to affirm its identity, so, it is important to focus on the unique contributions social marketing can make about understanding and influencing human behaviour (Andreasen, 2003).

Social marketing is the application of commercial marketing technologies to the analysis, planning, execution and evaluation of programmes designed to influence the voluntary behaviour of target audiences in order to improve their personal welfare and that of their society (Andreasen, 1995). The ultimate objective of social marketing is to benefit target individuals or society and not the marketer (different from commercial and non-profit marketing); the basic means of achieving improved welfare is through influencing behaviour, in most cases bringing about a change in behaviour; strictly speaking it is about influencing behaviour, not necessarily changing it. That is, many social programmes are preventive in character in that they seek to have target audiences not doing something. However, the term behaviour change has come to be accepted shorthand for the truer, broader definition (Andreasen, 2003).

Hastings and Saren (2003) emphasize that social marketing theory and practice are developing towards more complex and ambitious modes of analysis and understanding. They embrace Lazer and Kelly's (1992) definition of the discipline: social marketing is

concerned with the application of marketing knowledge, concepts and techniques to enhance social as well as economic ends. It is also concerned with the analysis of the social consequences of marketing policies, decisions and activities. Hastings and Saren (2003) agree with Andreasen (2003) that the behaviour change agenda will continue to be very important; however, they believe that social marketing can make an enormous contribution in the growing field of critical marketing and this should be considered a relevant dimension of social marketing's identity.

Andreasen (1995) distinguishes social marketing from alternative approaches which can be grouped in the following way: the education approach; the persuasion approach; the behavioural modification approach and the social influence approach. The social marketing approach has features with each of those but it is different in the following aspects (Andreasen, 1995, 2002):

- a consumer orientation: all strategies begin with the customer;
- competition is always recognized;
- need of a framework to understand consumer
- behaviour change is the benchmark used to design and evaluate interventions;
- use of audience research;
- careful segmentation;
- the central element is creating attractive and motivational exchanges with target audiences;
- the strategy attempts to use the 4 P's;

MacFadyen, Stead and Hastings (2002) add that social marketing is often perceived to be concerned only with individual behaviour, but it can also be used to change the behaviour of groups and organizations and to target broader environmental influences on behaviour. Furthermore, recent definitions have begun to discuss the relevance of long-term relationships in social marketing as an alternative to the marketing-mix paradigm (Hastings et al, 2002; Hastings, 2003).

Hastings and Saren (2003) list some of the many basic marketing ideas that have been accepted in the social and health sector over the last thirty years: consumer orientation challenged the expert-driven hegemony in the health sector; the notion that advertising has to be combined with a broader marketing mix; ideas about imagery and branding are gaining ground; and the notion that the product is mutable (Stead and Hastings, 1996). This mutability means that health promoters are working with their customer groups to reach a mutually beneficial way forward, not simply seeking to impose their own solutions. However, exchange theory and thinking about relationship building have still to transfer from commercial marketing to social marketing (Hastings and Saren, 2003).

Despite these several common features, there are also important differences between commercial and social marketing (Andreasen, 1996). The quasi-economic and non-economic transactions display a number of unique characteristics:

- non existent demand;
- negative demand;
- intense public scrutiny;

- non literate and extremely impoverished target markets;
- highly sensitive issues;
- invisible benefits;
- benefits are often to third parties;
- benefits are often hard to portray;
- changes that take a long time (very large amounts of basic information will have to be communicated; basic values will have to be changed; a great many outside opinion leaders and support agencies will have to be brought on board);
- limited budgets;
- multiple publics.

MacFadyen, Stead and Hastings (2002) add the following specific issues of social marketing: the products tend to be more complex; consumer involvement is more intense; the competition is more subtle and varied.

Andreasen (2001) considers that concepts and tools from the commercial sector have the potential to affect research and practice in the non-profit sector. The nature and rate of transfer of commercial concepts and tools to the non-profit sector is affected by similarities in organizational mission and the basic exchanges involved. Transfer is slowest where transactions do not involve economic considerations in either side of the exchange. Scholars and researchers need to explore more carefully and extensively the conditions under which transfer is both possible and potentially easy. Given social marketing's unique challenges it is important to suggest ways in which social marketing lessons can be transferred back to the private sector (Andreasen, 2001). There are benefits for commercial and social marketing from this continued cross

fertilization: for social marketing commerce essentially provides a laboratory; for commercial marketers developing their ideas in an often more extreme social environment can provide valuable reciprocal insights (Hastings et al, 2002; Hastings, 2003).

Some authors argue that social marketing needs to go beyond commercial marketing in order to develop the field. Glenane-Antoniadis et al (2003) call for an interdisciplinary approach to the study of social marketing and criticize what they call a neoclassical approach to social marketing, which employs conventional commercial marketing thinking. Similarly, Peattie and Peattie (2003) argue that the differences between commercial and social marketing need to be emphasized; social marketing needs to develop a distinctive theoretical base and to create its own unique tools, theories and vocabulary. Despite these different perspectives, there is convergence about the potential of relationship marketing school of thought for social marketing (Andreasen, 2001; Peattie and Peattie, 2002; Hastings et al, 2002; Glenane-Antonadis, 2002; Hastings, 2003). The relational approach is being advocated in the literature as an alternative to the “intervention mentality” (Hastings, Stead and Mackintosh, 2002). Hastings (2003) argues that to move to relationships is not a rejection of behaviour change as a key social marketing goal but a recognition that progress towards this goal is much more likely to occur if we adopt the inclusive and strategic vision that relational thinking demands. As he explains, this paradigm shift from transactional to relational thinking has deep implications for social marketing and represents a completely new way of thinking about social problems. However, despite its potential, the relational approach has not been widely explored in social marketing.

In the next section, we examine the social marketing context and its specific characteristics more in depth. We build on ideas put forward by MacFadyen et al (2002) in identifying key characteristics of social marketing and we add others that we consider to have implications for relationship marketing's implementation.

3.3. THE CONTEXT OF SOCIAL MARKETING

This section examines those specific characteristics of social marketing that influence the potential of relationship marketing in social marketing. This section starts discussing the non-commercial nature of social marketing and the resulting relational challenges.

3.3.1. The non-commercial nature

Gumesson (2002) develops the "thirty relationships model" - 30R's classification - which involves not only parties but also certain properties of relationships. Besides the classic marketing relationships - analysed in chapter two - there are special marketing relationships and one of those is the non-commercial relationship. This is a relationship between the public sector and the costumers/citizens, but it also includes voluntary organizations and other activities outside of the profit-based and monetarized economy, such as those performed in families. He does not mention social marketing specifically but we consider that this non-commercial relationship has properties that are applicable to social marketing. The non-commercial sector has some fundamental properties which separate it from the commercial sector and give rise to relationships of a partly different character (Gumesson, 2002a). In public services pricing and payment are not part of the same system as production and delivery. It is often not the same person who pays and benefits from the services; and, often, a person pays but only benefits from the services

much later (e.g. paying taxes). Furthermore, the impossibility of choice often happens. For example, a person decides to go to doctor but a particular doctor is imposed. This sort of disconnected relationship may lead to excess consumption or inability to value the services.

The notion of service encounter is also applicable to public sector services. A relevant issue is the authority that public agencies are allowed to exercise. From the individual point of view, there is a positive side when authorities assist them but there is also a negative side to contacts with authorities, a service collision rather than a service encounter. Similar issues are raised by Brenkert (2002). He argues that social marketers face the people they target in an indirect, asymmetric moral relationship that differs from the relationship commercial marketers have with their customers. The social marketer's relation to the people targeted is mediated and paid for by a third group or organization. These third-party groups (rather than the targeted groups) maintain the principal authority and determination in the acts of social marketing. As explained by Brenkert (2002), this creates a different ethical situation for social marketers. Conversely, because the people targeted do not engage in a market exchange with those third-party groups they do not hold an equilibrating power in relation to the social marketer. Accordingly, the targets are dependent on the good will of the social marketers and their funders in ways they are not with commercial marketers.

Hastings (2003) argues that because social marketing it is not driven by profit but a desire to benefit the target audience it has a very different and perhaps morally higher base than commercial marketing on which to build a relationship with its customers.

However, because of the power issues discussed above, it is likely that many do not see it like that.

Next, we will discuss exchange, one of the most controversial concepts of social marketing. Exchange in social marketing has particular characteristics that raise particular challenges for the application of relationship marketing.

3.3.2. The Exchange

Andreasen (2002) emphasizes that the broadening trend in the field in the 1970s is one of the most fundamental changes in the way we understand and study marketing. Bagozzi (1975) work was essential because developed a way of thinking about exchanges as something other than an offer of economic goods or services for a financial payment. One of Bagozzi's (1975) main contributions to the idea of exchange was the inclusion of social relationships under the domain of marketing exchanges. He accounted for the fact that, in some cases, the prime beneficiary of an exchange (especially in the non profit world) was a third party, for example, when recycling benefits not the recycler but the society as a whole. Bagozzi (1975) developed a fundamental framework to account the differing exchange models: different types (restricted, generalized and complex); different media; and different meanings (utilitarian, symbolic and mixed). These are analysed below.

3.3.2.1 Types of exchange

Types of exchange refer to the number of actors involved and the directions of the exchange. Bagozzi identifies the following three types:

- restricted exchange refers to two-party reciprocal relationships;
- generalized exchange denotes univocal, reciprocal relationships among at least three actors in the exchange situation, and the actors benefit only indirectly (receives from someone other than to whom he gave);
- complex exchange refers to a system of mutual relationships between at least three parties - each social actor is involved in at least one direct exchange while the entire system is organized by an interconnecting web of relationships.

The exchange theories of Homans (1958) and Blau (1964) are based on the individualistic assumption of self-interest; however, Bagozzi seems to feel more influenced by the exchange tradition developed by Levi Strauss (cit by Ekeh, 1974) which is not individualistic but rather built on social, collectivistic assumptions associated with generalized and complex exchanges.

3.3.2.2 The media of exchange

The media of exchange are the vehicles with which people communicate to, and influence, others in satisfaction of their needs. These vehicles include money, persuasion, punishment, power (authority), inducement and activation of normative or ethical commitments.

3.3.2.3 Meaning of exchange

Meaning of exchange concerns the reasons for the occurring exchange. These can be grouped in three types:

- In exchanges with utilitarian meanings, goods are given in return for money or other goods.
- Symbolic meanings explain the occurrence of exchanges by transfer of psychological, social or other intangible values. Compared with utilitarian meanings there is a changed focus from the value of the object to the symbolic meaning of the process.
- Mixed exchange involves both utilitarian and symbolic aspects and it is often very difficult to separate the two.

Bagozzi (1975) states that there is most definitely an exchange in social marketing relationships but the exchange is not the simple quid pro quo notion characteristic of most economic exchanges. Rather, social marketing relationships exhibit what may be called generalized or complex exchanges. They involve the symbolic transfer of both tangible and intangible entities and they invoke various media to influence such exchanges. According to Bagozzi, social marketing is the answer to a particular question: why and how are exchanges created and resolved in social relationships? It is important to note that this conceptualization of exchange already includes several notions of relationship marketing: e.g. web of interconnected relationships, activation of commitments, symbolic meaning of the process.

Hastings and Saren (2003) discuss the three levels of resistance met by exchange theory within the social marketing domain. First, they argue that the nature of the exchange is problematic because the benefits consumers can derive are often more ambiguous than in commercial marketing and this can make the job of the social marketer more difficult. Second, health promoters feel this undermines the essentially altruistic basis of health promotion. The third level of resistance is, the authors explain, more difficult to refute and it concerns the balance of power that exchange implies. For example, people in disadvantaged communities may lack the access to fresh fruit and vegetables. However, this does not mean that exchange cannot work in these circumstances just that it presents particular challenges.

Peattie and Peattie (2003) consider that it is regarding “exchange” that the difference between commercial and social marketing is less clear-cut and more controversial. They argue that social campaigns aim to support their targets in moving them towards behavioural change and that the marketer’s contribution is not done “in exchange” for changed behaviour. Therefore, they suggest that the broader concept of interaction and the notion of building relationships are more appropriate to social marketing.

Another characteristic of social marketing is the way it conceptualizes the product. We will now discuss it because the complexity of the social marketing product also raises challenges to the transference of relationship marketing.

3.3.3. The Product

The products in social marketing are complex and this complexity makes them difficult to conceptualize (MacFadyen et al, 2002). The social marketing product is extended from the tangible to encompass ideas and behaviour change. Kotler and Roberto (1989) distinguish different types of social marketing product: under behaviour they distinguish between adoption of a single act and adoption of a sustained practice; another distinction is between adoption of a new behaviour, desistence from a current behaviour and non-adoption of a future behaviour. In practice, the behavioural objective may be some combination of these. Even when the behaviour change involves a tangible object, such as condoms, Kotler and Roberto emphasize that the social marketer is not in the business of selling condoms per se but of selling a change in attitudes (more favourable beliefs about condom use) or behaviour (correct use of condoms). Andreasen (1995) considers four types of action/products: one type actions; repeated but finite actions; permanent lifestyle changes and situational actions.

Rangun et al (1996) do a cost-benefit analysis and use it as the main criterion to distinguish types of social marketing initiatives. As they suggest, there are almost always costs associated with behaviour change which act as obstacles to marketing social change. The costs may be financial, time, embarassement, effort, inertia, pain, perceived social exclusion. The benefits are all non-monetary advantages that individuals or organizations can gain if they adopted the recommended behaviour. These advantages range from physiological benefits and psychological benefits at the individual level to improved corporate image for organizations and environmental or sociological benefits at a societal level. A principal function of the benefit dimension is

to identify the primary beneficiary of any given programme for social change. Rangun et al (1996) argue that there are four broad types of social marketing initiatives according to this cost-benefit analysis:

- low cost and tangible, personal benefits (e.g. to persuade men to be examined for colon cancer);
- low cost and intangible, societal benefits (e.g. recycling programmes);
- high cost and tangible, personal benefits (e.g. smoking cessation programmes);
- high cost and intangible, societal benefits (e.g. reduce chlorofluorocarbon production).

This cost-benefit logic can potentially affect the perceptions of value in the context of relationships.

Peattie and Peattie (2003) consider that social marketers offer propositions, not products. The problems posed by trying to devise a consistent and meaningful concept of a “social product” lie in the variety of social marketing contexts. Some are very close to commercial marketing challenges, some are not. The authors envisage some key dimensions of social marketing propositions and how they can vary between different contexts, largely building on ideas put forward by Andreasen (1995) in identifying the characteristics that are unique to social marketing. The key dimensions are the principal benefit recipient; the benefit timescales; the benefit-behaviour link; the sensitivity; the degree of consensus and the customizability of offering. This emphasis put by Peattie and Peattie (2003) on the need to replace the concept of product by the concept of

proposition is close to the concept of value proposition analysed in the previous chapter on relationship marketing.

Next, we will analyse the issue of high involvement in social marketing because the levels of involvement influence the motivation of consumers to engage in relationships with social marketers.

3.3.4. High involvement

Most of the behaviours that non-profit marketers are asked to influence are much more highly involving than most of those found in the private sector (Andreasen, 2000). Social marketing typically influences high involvement decisions and that is difficult and time-consuming (Andreasen, 1995). Using the example of smoking, MacFadyen et al (2002) make a distinction between different levels of involvement and consider the very high/hyper involvement level: hyper involved smokers are often in a state of defensive denial; high involved smokers are struggling with some success to quit. While high involvement can result in a motivated and attentive consumer, hyper involvement may be associated with feelings of anxiety, guilt and denial, which inhibit attempts to change. At the other extreme, social marketers might seek to stimulate change where there is very low or no involvement. In addition, there may be an additional category of negative involvement amongst those who see the health risks and forbidden nature of tobacco (for example) as part of its attraction. MacFadyen et al (2002) argue that the type of campaign that will address these categories cannot be determined by simply applying marketing's rubric that the greater involvement the greater the need for factual information. For example, as they explain, very low involvement consumers may well

respond well to factual information and hyper involvement consumers to emotional messages offering reassurance and empowerment.

The type of demand, like the level of involvement, potentially affects consumers' passive or pro-active attitude towards relationships. We will now examine it.

3.3.5. Varied demand

The attitudes and behaviours targeted by social marketers are often fundamental to the people targeted, as such, social marketers must often overcome attitudes and values that are central to the person's identity (Alcally and Bell, 2000). In fact, as MacFadyen et al (2002) explain, social marketers must not only uncover new demand but, in addition, must frequently deal with negative demand when the target group is apathetic about or strongly resistant to a proposed behaviour change. Young recreational drug users, for instance, may see no problems with their current behaviour (Andreasen, 1997). Drawing upon developments in sociological and cultural theory, Crossley (2002) argues that in contemporary Western societies the aspirations towards "good health" and the behaviours involved in trying to attain such a condition have come to serve a particular cultural function. Basically, he argues, they symbolise a particular kind of person – one who represents a contemporary moral good – a person who is self willed, independent, determined and expresses a sense of moral fortitude. However, when health becomes synonymous with the moral good in this way this can be problematic for health promoters because it creates potential for resistance. This is in line with the discussion in chapter one.

It is rare for a private sector marketer to be asked to market a product or service for which the target audience has a clear distaste (Andreasen, 2000). Contrarily to commercial marketing, in social marketing the emphasis is, many times, on behaviours that we need but don't particularly want (Peattie and Peattie, 2003). In fact, social marketers are often de-marketing behaviours which people enjoy.

Next, we will examine competition and its own specificities in social marketing. A great part of competition comes from the consumers themselves and their tendency to make short-term choices. This has obvious implications for relationship marketing and its long time orientation.

3.3.6. Competition

MacFadyen et al (2002) consider that the most obvious source of competition in social marketing is the consumer's tendency to continue in his or her current behavioural patterns, especially when addiction is involved. Other sources involve alternative behaviours. Competitive organizations include other health promoters, educators or government organizations. Finally, one of the most serious forms of competition comes from commercial marketing itself.

Expanding Andreasen's concept of desire competition, Peattie and Peattie (2003) frame social marketing as a "battle of ideas". The competing ideas can come from four sources:

- counter marketing, because they are promoting a behaviour that is in direct opposition to that being promoted by commercial marketers;
- social discouragement: this can include prevailing social values, peer pressure or discouragement from significant others;
- the growing forces of cynicism and distrust within society;
- apathy and the individual's involuntary disinclination to change their behaviour.

According to Peattie and Peattie, social marketers should not overemphasize consumers as rational-economic beings because, often, the behaviour requiring change occurs despite the conscious decision-making process. A different argument is expressed by Rothschild (2001a) who presents "behavioural economics" as a paradigm that shows the rationality of short term maximization. As he explains, the benefit of long term health is offered in a market place where there are many alternative choices with short and long term benefits competing for individuals' scarce monetary, time and energy resources. People tend to choose what is best for them in the short run and ignore the long run implications: tyranny of small decisions. One of the most frustrating aspects of public health social marketing is that targets regularly choose short term over long term rewards even when it is clear that the small short term benefit is accompanied by a large long term cost. Rothschild believes that almost everybody does almost everything out of self-interest and that means that behaviour that is rewarded is more likely to recur.

The complexity of behaviour change does also raise particular issues for relationship marketing. Relationship marketing can help social marketers to resolve the tension between the need to achieve individual change and, simultaneously, the need to work for the benefit of society. We will discuss it next.

3.3.7. The complexity of behaviour change

No single theory can account for all of the complexities of behaviour change. Social marketing is not a theory of behaviour change; it is the application of marketing principles and techniques in order to influence behaviour change. Several theories can help social marketers in that purpose. Some more focused on the individual, some are more focused in the wider social context.

Experience and theory tell us that changes in behaviour do not occur overnight. Instead, they involve a series of steps, a process that is both dynamic and precarious (Hastings 2003). For Andreasen (1995), the transtheoretical model of Prochaska and DiClemente (1983) is the most useful model to understand and influence behaviour. The model posits that consumers move through five stages as they go from ignorance/indifference toward some important behaviour to becoming committed to it: precontemplation; contemplation; preparation; action; confirmation. Andreasen (1995) develops its own framework and re-labels the stages to more closely conform to the marketing tasks – pre-contemplation; contemplation; action; maintenance - and suggests that social marketing strategies must be adopted for the different stages. However, it is important noting that, recently, some are starting to discredit Prochaska and DiClemente's model (West, 2005).

A critical step in behaviour change is the step between contemplation and action (Andreasen, 2003). Social marketers need to learn more about how consumers turn intentions into actions (more is known about barriers than about triggers to action). Social marketers also need to understand the nature of the emotional investments

consumers make in their existing behaviours. Andreasen's model has four major cognitive components - benefits, costs, the influence of others and self-efficacy - but, as he suggests, additional factors need to be taken in consideration: environmental constraints, skills, self-standards and, particularly, the role of emotions (Andreasen, 1996).

Andreasen (1996) considers that there is what might be called a "starting change" bias in the field. Social marketers are most attentive to the challenges of getting someone to begin to do something but, as he argues, in a great many social domains it is repeated behaviour - or the maintenance of behaviour - that is ultimately critical to success. And, as he suggests, not all behaviours are alike: starting something is different from stop something; starting something alone (e.g. getting a flu shot) is different from starting something involving others (e.g. family planning).

Other theories can help understand and influence behaviour. *The Health Belief Model* (Rosenstock, 1990) emphasizes communicating information about the risks and benefits of actions so as to change knowledge, attitudes and intentions of target individuals. *The Theory of Reasoned Action* (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) suggests that the person's behaviour is determined by his/her intention to perform the behaviour. *The Behavioural Reinforcement Theory* (Bickel and Vuchinich, 2000) emphasizes the manipulation of rewards and punishments in the environment surrounding desirable and undesirable behaviours. *The Social Learning Theory* (Bandura, 1986) emphasizes, among other things, building up the target's audience's sense of self-efficacy: their belief that they can make the behaviour happen. This and the *Social Cognitive Theory* (Maibach and

Cotton, 1995) also show that social and environmental factors are very important in determining behaviour.

Social and community level approaches to behaviour and behaviour change address the behavioural risk of individuals in the context of their personal networks and social environments: the Diffusion Theory; the Community Mobilization Theory and the Social Network Theory. These take a more social and relational approach to the study of social marketing and deal with factors such as community (McKenzie-Mohr and Smith, 1999); collaboration (Geller, 1989); coalition (Keneddy, 2000); social ecology (Gregson et al, 2001); social identification (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002) and social capital (Glenane - Antoniadis et al, 2003).

Social capital is particularly relevant in terms of relational elements A general agreed upon definition of what constitutes social capital is the good will that is engendered by the fabric of social relations and that can be mobilised to facilitate action (Putman, 1995; Adler and Kwon, 2002). Glenane - Antoniadis et al (2003) consider that social marketing should be seen as the utilization of marketing efforts to achieve individual behavioural change sufficient to effect change and engender goodwill for the benefit of society. As they suggest, a key proposition that stems from this argument is that the fostering of trusting and mutually giving relationships may be the fundamental aim of social marketers and one option for achieving positive social change.

Behaviour complexity implies that different levels of influence need to be considered: individual, social and structural. That is the next step of analysis.

3.3.8. The different levels of influence in behaviour

There is a debate in the field of social marketing about what its role should be in relation to other approaches to social change. As put by Smith (1998), the debate about social marketing's role is also about social marketing's focus: on individual behaviour, on environmental change or on both of them? Smith (1998) and many others argue that they are both needed but emphasize that marketers need to focus harder on addressing upstream influences on behaviour (Murray and Douglas, 1988; Wallack, 1990, 2002; Maibach, 1993; Goldberg, 1994; Hastings, MacFadyen and Anderson, 2000; MacFadyen, 2001; MacAskill, Stead, Mackintosh and Hastings, 2002).

Hastings et al (2000) consider three levels of upstream influences: the immediate environment (local community); the wider social context (society as a whole) and, moving further upstream, a third level (independent environmental improvements). This third level correspond to those influences on people's health outcomes that don't involve the individual in any action at all but do require behaviour change by policy makers. MacAskill et al (2000) identify appropriate interventions and policy responses to the problem of low-income smoking and suggest a long-term support which comprises micro level, community level and macro level initiatives. MacFadyen (2001) emphasizes that tobacco marketing communications can potentially influence smoking behaviour at three levels: individual influences (demographic factors, education, knowledge, expectancies, psychological and other behaviours); immediate influences (peers, family structure, family relationships, parental and sibling smoking and parental attitudes toward smoking) and wider influences (tobacco control policies, media, access and culture). Maibach (1993) shows the importance of macro social communications in

promoting environmental awareness and behaviour change and he distinguishes three targets: governmental officials, organizational/corporate officials and the general public. A structural perspective is advocated by Wallack (1990). He suggests media advocacy as the best approach to influence upstream factors. A cooperation between social marketing and media advocacy is being suggested for different areas such as the combat of health inequalities (Hastings et al, 1998); drugs prevention (Slater et al, 2000; Eadie et al, 2002) and nutrition and physical activity promotion (Alcalay and Bell, 2000). Similarly, social marketers are increasingly being asked to design and implement programmes under conditions of local control and community ownership (e.g. Middlestadt et al, 1992). Based on the example of the Prevention Marketing Initiative (PMI) - a project to address HIV prevention among young Americans - many authors are advocating a participatory social marketing approach and emphasizing that the change process is more likely to be successful when the community is an active participant rather than simply the subject of study (Linderberger, 2000; Kennedy, 2000; Smith, 2000).

In this context of possible relationships between different social change approaches, Rothschild (1999) and Andreasen (2002) also present conceptual frameworks for public health and social issues behaviour management. Both authors focus on the philosophy of marketing to clarify what is the social marketing field. Rothschild calls for a social marketing that is rooted in the philosophy of exchange. He distinguishes marketing, education and law and argues that the appropriateness of a particular type of intervention depends on the motivation, opportunity and ability to act of the target audience. Andreasen (2002) positions social marketing in the growth phase of its product life cycle and sees it as a brand of individual behaviour change. However, he

recognizes that it can be perceived as complementary to, rather than competitive with, community and structural approaches.

Because social marketing programmes need to address individual, social and structural levels they normally involve a large group of people and organizations. This is discussed below.

3.3.9. Social marketing programmes: a collective of people and organizations

Relationship building in social marketing can be complex because there is rarely one single organization involved. Social marketing programmes are normally funded, developed and delivered by different organizations. The delivery, in particular, can get even more complex when it is devolved to numerous organizations (e.g. schools, doctors). Furthermore, some delivery agents may not approve or have any allegiance to the funder or the developer. This raises different sorts of challenges: need to define who is the responsible for the relationship and need to focus on developing consistency and integration of the “collective”. Moreover, this will potentially affect the management perspective of programmes, one of the main strategic issues of relationship marketing, as discussed in the previous chapter.

We have examined the particular characteristics of social marketing that might affect the applicability of relationship marketing. Next, we will discuss the challenges.

3.4. IMPLICATIONS AND CHALLENGES FOR SOCIAL MARKETING

It was shown that relationship marketing is appropriate, relevant and applicable in social marketing. Now, we will discuss the challenges that the transference of relationship marketing principles, processes and constructs might pose.

3.4.1. Overcoming the persuasion logic

Social marketers bear a special obligation to behave in an ethical fashion because they are purporting to act in society's interests and not - unlike commercial marketers - in their own. This role requires that they pay extraordinarily close attention to the ethics of the goals they choose and the means they choose to get there (Andreasen, 1995).

Concerning the goals, Andreasen raises the question of who decides what is good for the individual or society in a social marketing programme. According to him, decisions to proceed with a controversial application of social marketing, wherever possible, should be made by some sort of societally representative collective. This collective could be, for example, an advisory board made up of citizens of diverse backgrounds and interests. Concerning the means, again, there are no simple questions. Social marketers have to reflect not just on whether they are doing things right but also on whether they are doing the right things. Because this is a difficult thing to do, he argues that the focus on the consumer is a good guide. The only way of being honest, trusting and respectful of the individual it is to start with his/her needs and wants. Some argue that a customer-centred approach is unrealistic because many times targets just do not know what is best for themselves. However, Andreasen rejects this argument and criticizes manipulative answers.

Discussing specific challenges for social marketers, Brenkert (2002) argues that, because social marketers target people who may not believe they suffer from a problem, social problems are identified independently of what any particular person or people may or may not believe. Therefore, he suggests that an ethical solution would require marketers to examine various processes and criteria that extend beyond the values of a particular social marketer. In line with Andreasen (1995), Brenkert (2002) suggests that such criteria and standards should result from inviting people to become part of a process of change to enhance their welfare rather than treating them as recipients or targets of efforts to change their behaviours. He recognizes that social problems have a political dimension but emphasizes that social marketing must focus on the social problems of the people who have them, not on the desires of those who hire them. Brenkert discusses the ethical issues of privatization regarding social problems that arise when social marketers act on behalf of governmental agencies or organizations. He points out the difference between attempting to satisfy people's wants and giving people a voice in a process whereby their wants are satisfied: the latter is essential to their self-determination and a democratic society. Sometimes targets are regarded by social marketers as being in need of persuasion, rather than as being engaged in a process, bounded by rights, within which they come to understand that change is needed. Social marketers have to be aware that there is a major difference between the logic of persuasion and the logic of engaging.

For example, parents might not get involved in a drugs prevention programme because they fear stigmatization or lack a perceived need. To deal with this reality, social marketers have to be creative and find alternative ways of engaging parents. One of them might be inserting drugs prevention messages in courses with a wider parenting

remit; another way might be to use to use diverse delivery systems and offer courses in different formats (Velleman, Mistral and Sanderling, 2000). Willingness to change the offer is very important because sometimes marketers have to reposition it in order to change consumers' understanding of the product and its benefits (Andreasen, 1995). Without this type of flexibility social marketing becomes meaningless (Hastings, 2003) and, consequently, unable to establish relationships with consumers.

3.4.2. Overcoming the social service mentality

Social marketing is very different from commercial marketing. As Andreasen (1995) explains, most field practitioners have had little experience with any kind of marketing so they often copy what looks to them like the best practices of the commercial sector without recognizing the premises that drive these practices. Social marketers are often dealing with high-involvement behaviours for which target customers often have very ambivalent or negative feelings. He describes high-involvement behaviours as those about which individuals care a great deal, where they see significant risks, where they think a lot before acting and where they frequently seek the advice of others. Andreasen emphasizes that working at such a deep level demands that social marketers can't risk approaching their task without careful thought about the complex motivations involved (Andreasen, 1995).

However, as Andreasen points out, many organizations are caught up in a social service mentality which sees customers as the problem and it is resistant to marketing research. The right mindset is, he suggests, a customer-centred mindset: the organization is led by its customers and does not try to make customers serve the organization's purpose. The

organization's mission is to meet the target's needs and wants. Rather than thinking the customer is somehow wrong for being reluctant to change, social marketers must recognize that the behaviours marketers want may not be desirable or possible from the consumer's perspective. This parallels the argument - put forward in chapter 1 - that the best values are the most suitable. The assumption is that customers have very good reasons for doing what they are doing; the marketer's challenge is to respond to those reasons. In order to do that, social marketers have to see beyond the product and focus on resources and competences, namely skilled workers with a new mentality.

3.4.3. Balancing the individual and the social

As MacFadyen et al (2002) explain, social marketing is in the business of entrenched, taboo or even illegal behaviours and their resolution may involve the conflicting interests of the social marketing, the consumer and wider society (MacFadyen and Hastings, 2001). Social marketers must decide which behaviours to address, ultimately prioritizing certain issues over others, and, implicit in this, advocating the desirability of certain lifestyles or habits. This is a relevant ethical challenge that social marketers have to face. A complementary ethical challenge is raised by Brenkert (2002). He argues that to be effective, not simply in some temporary manner but in the long run, social marketers must consider the social context of the problem they seek to resolve. He emphasizes that targets must be motivated to change but, for this to be ethically grounded, social marketers must seek not only incentives for those they target but justifications set within the larger contexts they inhabit. Consequently, theories of individual and social change that take a broader, more inclusive perspective may be relevant for social marketing as they understand people's lives in an everyday sense.

Hastings (2003) emphasizes that the behaviours being targeted by social marketers typically fit into a desirable lifestyle that needs long term support and reinforcement. Even when they are one type actions, as individual immunizations, relationship issues such as source credibility and trust will be important. As he explains, long term health improvement is dependent on much more than the short term avoidance of illicit substances; it requires a broadly based positive lifestyle which in turn demands supportive individual knowledge and attitudes and a constructive environment. Multi – component programmes try to get that balance between the individual and the social levels. However, they also raise challenges as analysed next.

3.4.4. Multi-component programmes: overcoming the functionalistic perspective

Multi-component programmes involve a collective of people and organizations which might raise additional challenges. There is the danger that each function/department is more oriented towards specialization within its function than collaboration between functions.

The main argument in support of multi-component interventions is they are theoretically appropriate for the prevention of behaviours that have multiple determinants: individual, peer, social and environmental. These programmes will include different levels of influence and different channels: youth, school, parents/family, community organization, mass media and policy. Multi-component interventions are presumed to produce stronger effects than single component programmes because the different components reinforce or amplify one another and combine to produce a greater and longer lasting effect (Fortmann et al, 1995; Pentz et al, 1997). As explained by Stead

and Hastings (2003), a further strong argument supporting multi-component programmes is that the process of developing and implementing them encourages collaboration between different organizations and sectors. This is very important to assure sustaining intervention effects beyond the formal funding period (Peterson et al, 1992; Pentz, 1996). Therefore, in the case of community-based programmes, it is also necessary to consider theories pertaining to organizational process (the process by which a community can adopt, implement and maintain a programme) and structure (the structure developed to promote and take responsibility for this process). The process management perspective of relationship marketing can play a major role here.

We will now examine the challenge of building partnerships.

3.4.5. Partnerships and networks: prioritizing and handling multi-relationships

Relationships have and can be built with many different stakeholders. Hastings (2003) develops a multi relationship model of social marketing - buyer, internal, lateral and supplier relationships - adapted from Morgan and Hunt (1994):

- Buyer partnerships: an important distinction is between the ultimate consumer (such the smoker) and the funder (such the government health department). Building relationships with the funder enables social marketer to influence the setting of the policy agenda.
- Supplier partnerships: relationships with, for example, market research providers help bridge cultural differences between the private and public sector and ensure that progress is built on matched agendas.

- Lateral relationships: with those that control the social contexts (government, community agencies) and competitors; strategic alliances with competing social marketers can improve competitiveness and prioritize issues which is vital in the current fragmented social marketplace.
- Internal relationships: in order to build the right mindset in the organization as a whole.

The multiplicity of potential relationships presents opportunities as well as challenges: one of them is how to prioritize and handle them. The form relationships in social marketing take may vary - at least in terms of whom the relationship is built with - but, as Hastings (2003) explains, the principle of relational thinking holds true throughout.

As analysed in the previous chapter, relationship marketing operates according to the key processes of the value creation process. We have established that these processes potentially have a lot to offer to social marketing. We will now discuss how challenging might be to explore them.

3.4.6. The value creation and key processes

The value creation process includes and integrates four key processes: communication, interaction, dialogue and the value. The challenge here is to manage each process and, more fundamentally, to integrate them into a whole.

3.4.6.1 The Communication Process

The main challenges in communication are to overcome the fear logic and to use branding as a relational strategy.

An important debate in the literature is about the effectiveness of using fear appeals. MacFadyen et al (2002) criticize the over-reliance on threats as these may be ineffective, disempowering and damaging. Henley, Donovan, and Moorhead (1998) argue that positive appeals are underutilized. Despite some evidence that fear messages are persuasive, Hastings, Stead and Webb (2003) suggest that marketers in both the commercial and social sector should be cautious about their use. As they explain, most studies are laboratorial therefore marketing questions concerning the use of fear in the real world remain unexplored. Long term effects of fear messages and their impact on relationships are important that is why there is a need to compare fear approaches with alternative, more creative approaches (Hastings et al, 2003). If consumers' feelings of self esteem and personal comfort are threatened by fear messages it is likely that they will not be receptive to building long term relationships with the communicator or, if they do, that it will probably be a patronizing relationship rather than one of mutual respect. Alternatives to fear messages include, as suggested by Hastings et al, "empathy strategies", use of humour, irony and supportive messages; positive role models, empowerment and postmodernism (treating the consumer as knowing and worldly wise).

Another relevant aspect of communication is branding. In relationship marketing terms, branding has the potential to communicate in a more positive and empathetic way. With

this in mind, Hastings and Leather (1987) attempted to brand positive health in Scotland during the 1980s. The brand was called “Be all you can be” and the idea was to communicate a general life-style message of empowerment.

Peattie and Peattie (2003) consider that the power of branding and the ability to connect with consumers’ emotions demonstrates an area where social marketing can still learn new and valuable lessons from commercial marketing. Branding may provide an important function in social marketing programmes by helping individuals to communicate and signal to themselves as well others that they are engaging in desirable behaviours so that they are better able to realize more immediate benefits and receive more positive reinforcement (Keller, 1998). Rothschild (2001b) argues that social marketers have been more concerned with telling people how to behave and less concerned with building relationships. Instead, social marketers need to provide unique benefits and meanings that can be extended to the development of social marketing brand images and the enhancement of the target` s self-image. As pointed by Rothschild, one of the challenges is that when asking a target to stop exhibiting a current behaviour, social marketers have to realize that the current behaviour has a relationship to a brand that may have a powerful meaning in the self-image of the target.

Despite the power of branding, some are cautious about its application in the social sector. A strong brand identity can amplify the impact of a campaign but it can also be perceived as authoritarian (Stead and Hastings, 2003). It is also arguable that branding does not always matter: for example, when the source is unpopular. Another issue concerns what should be branded: the idea/the cause or the source of the intervention?

This debate shows that a total transference from commercial marketing is not appropriate. Social marketers have the obligation of going a bit further. Recent neurosciences research (Damásio, 2004) shows that emotions are extremely valuable, but it is the process of “feeling the knowledge that we feel” - the conscience - that assures that the immediate gains of emotions are maintained over time. This implies a deep and long process which social marketers can't ignore. If social marketers want to develop long term relationships they have to help consumers understanding their own process of feeling rather than just appealing to superficial emotional responses. This is in line with the arguments put forward in chapter one, where it is emphasized the need to promote a genuine and reflexive process of the Self rather than perpetuating superficial and artificial identity mechanisms (Giddens, 1990). Genuine relationship marketing has to take this in consideration.

3.4.6.2 The Dialogue Process

The challenge for social marketers is to really see dialogue as a learning process. In a relationship marketing management perspective, dialogue is seen as an opportunity for value transformation - dialogue transforms perceptions about what constitutes value for both the firm and its customers - and an avenue for competitive advantage (Tzokas and Saren, 1997).

Parents, for example, are increasingly being targeted by drugs prevention programmes in recognition of the importance of parenting behaviours in preventing substance use. This view is supported by a number of research studies that see certain parental behaviours as being important protective factors against drug use among young people.

UK surveys have shown that up to 90% of parents believe that young people's drug use derives from the need to conform with their group. This excessive emphasis on peer pressure may lead parents to underestimate their own influence on children (Velleman et al, 2000). In fact, many parents are uncertain about and unconfident about their own role which constitutes an opportunity and a challenge in terms of dialogue.

The study of Velleman et al (2000) about the process of involving parents in drugs prevention in UK illustrates the relevance of dialogue for social marketers. They don't explicitly conceptualize the process as a dialogue but the logic is similar. They explain how parents' needs and wants changed throughout several drug prevention programmes. Project workers noted a difference between parents' needs and their initial wants. Needs (for example, skills in communication) were at first often not recognized by parents. On the other hand, some wants (for example, a simple answer to a problem or reassurance that their children would not become involved in drugs) were requested although parents later often came to view them as unrealistic. As they progressed, their needs became more sophisticated and a great deal of flexibility was necessary.

Through interacting with parents, project workers also opened up their own perspectives. They realized that drug problems do not exist in isolation and prevention should not be pursued independently of wider issues relating to parenting, family life and wider social issues. Therefore, projects had to be seen as instigators of a developmental process. Project workers indicated that if parents saw the relevance of what they were learning they became enthusiastic and wanted to go on further learning or activities. Several project workers commented that this further learning was not necessarily directly related to drugs prevention but formed part of the individual's

personal development. This points to the power of dialogue to re-contextualize specific problems in wider social issues.

3.4.6.3 The interaction process

Managing interaction can be very challenging, particularly in what concerns multi-component programmes. The fact that there are normally a collective of people/organizations involved in social marketing programmes makes the management of interaction much more complex. Often, consumers interact with different deliverers at different parts of the process, which means that integrating the whole can be difficult.

Value creation is a process of integrating and transforming resources and that process requires interaction. Process and interaction are essential to relationship marketing (Gronroos, 2006). In social marketing, because of its very particular characteristics, interaction may play a major role. This role is demonstrated in the study of Velleman et al (2000) who concluded that it proved vital to work with parents, rather than teach drugs prevention to them. All activities with parents tended to be time and human resource intensive. The assessment of parental needs was a very important stage that involved considerable networking and interaction: project workers actively consulted numerous agencies, including: community groups, parents and in particular parents of children with dependent drug problems. As they explain, it would be a mistake to think that a drugs expert parachuted into an area could spend a few months educating parents to deal with their children's drug use behaviour. They see needs assessment as a collaborative endeavour - done with parents not to them. The professional background, skills, empathy, commitment and credibility of project workers was very helpful in

establishing networks (more helpful than ethnic, socio economic or cultural similarity). Furthermore, keeping regular contact over the period between parents' initial interest and the actual start of a course was seen to improve attendance rates.

3.4.6.4 The Value Process

The major challenge is to explore opportunities for value creation which implies that social marketers need to understand and incorporate in their programmes the customers' value generating process (Gronroos, 2004). Consumers build their own unique consumption experience which is hard to be pre-determined by marketers it. For example, parents may opt for different types of engagement in drugs prevention programmes and "build their own programme": drug awareness sessions, volunteer training, (parent) peer education or more intensive courses. Again, this demands a great level of flexibility from social marketers.

Furthermore, according to the value-in-use notion (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996), suppliers and service providers do not create value in their planning, designing and production processes. The customers do it themselves in their daily activities when products are needed by them for them to perform activities. In the study of Velleman et al (2000), at first most parents found it difficult to identify what they needed apart from information about drugs, such as what drugs look like, their effects and how to spot usage. However, project workers felt that information by it self might have limited value unless parents were able to do something with it (value in use). In fact, it is very likely that parents will only see the real value of their learning in a much later stage of their lives.

Like in commercial marketing, it is not easy for social marketers to put in action the principles of the value creation process. It implies a genuine redefinition of social marketers' roles and the recognition that the consumer, not the marketer, is the prime driver of the value creation process. As already discussed in this chapter, the value creation processes demand a change in ethics and values of social marketers.

Next, we analyse the challenges in addressing and exploring the relationship marketing key constructs.

3.4.7. Exploring and making relationship marketing constructs explicit

We will examine the challenges for each of the constructs identified in the previous chapter.

3.4.7.1 Trust

Social marketing is founded on trust (Hastings, 2003). It is not driven by profit but a desire to benefit the target audience. Social marketers are motivated to place the consumer's interest ahead of self-interest. Therefore they are expected to have benevolent behaviours and practices which are often regarded as extra role action and valued by consumers. The affective dimension of trust, and its moral element, is well supported in the literature reviewed in the previous chapter. The affective element is crucial for relationships. All this plays in favour of social marketing but there are issues that pose particular challenges to social marketers: there might be a negative side to contacts with authority (Gumesson, 2002a); many times people are cynical and sceptic about authorities; the relationship is many times indirect and assymetrical (Brenkert,

2003); when health becomes synonymous with the moral good, the potential is created for resistance (Crossley, 2002). Furthermore, as analysed in chapter two, vulnerability makes trust necessary (e.g. Deutch, 1962; Coleman, 1990; Moorman, Desphandé and Zaltman, 1993). In the field of social change the issue of vulnerability is very important however, social marketers have to work with consumers to find ways of dealing with it. Naturally, this is not compatible with a patronizing logic.

3.4.7.2 Commitment

As analysed in the previous chapter, commitment implies a willingness to make short-term sacrifices to realize longer-term benefits (Dwyer et al, 1987). It presumes durability and consistency. In social marketing, the tyranny of small decisions (Rothschild, 2001) raises particular challenges to social marketers. Furthermore, and because of the need to articulate the work of different people and organizations involved in social marketing programmes, it is very important to assure consistent levels of commitment of all relevant actors.

3.4.7.3 Satisfaction

Satisfaction is the assessment of the relative value of the basic exchanges; it concerns the way benefits/rewards are perceived. In social marketing the benefits are many times ambiguous and invisible which makes the job of social marketing difficult. Furthermore, satisfaction is somewhat volatile as it often depends on the consumer's most recent exchanges with the organization (Gruen, 1995). The challenge here Social marketers have to be careful about the expectations they create and make sure they are capable of fulfilling them in a consistent and continuous way.

3.4.7.4 Perceived value

As Ravald and Gronroos (1996) emphasize, the value concept is multifaceted and complicated. They argue that adding value can be done in several ways: one of them is adding benefits; the other might be to reduce the customer-perceived sacrifice by minimizing the relationship costs for the customer. Andreasen (1995) discusses and compares benefit-based strategies with cost-based strategies in the context of social marketing. This comparison refers to behaviour but we believe it can be extended to relationships.

Benefits-based strategies

Andreasen (1995) suggests that the starting point for developing a benefits approach is to ask consumers at the formative research stage two important questions: what positive things do they think will happen if they undertake the desired behaviour (likelihood that it will occur)? How important are these things to them (value)? Some important considerations, he proposes, have to be kept in mind. These are the following:

- Ask about benefits, not attributes. Each attribute must be linked to an underlying benefit (or set of benefits) so that the marketer will know how to make the experience more closely meet the consumer's needs and wants. For example, when thinking about the ideal weight-loss programme, an individual's desire for a small group (attribute) could mean that he or she is seeking any one or several benefits: the chance to make new friends and having more time spent in their problems. Therefore, as Andreasen emphasizes, it is important to ask why he/she wants a small group.

- Link benefits to deeper values whenever possible. Again, the question “why” is very important not only in revealing the benefits that underlie attributes but also in revealing the values that underlie particular benefits. Andreasen identifies with the view that values are “the mental representations of our underlying needs after they have been transformed to take into account the realities of the world in which we live” (Wilkie, 1990, p. 213-214) and believes that behaviours are ultimately means we take to achieve particular ends. Andreasen (1995) suggests that marketers use the technique of laddering (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988) to find the link between attributes and values. He uses the example of Gengler, Oglethorpe and Mulvey (1995) to illustrate how laddering research was used to generate message themes for promoting breast-feeding. For example, the attribute “no bottles” leads to the benefit of “convenience” which in turn is linked to another benefit “saves time” which along with the benefit of “reduces stress” yields an important basic value: “a better family life”.
- Pay more attention to the benefits of the behaviour itself than to the long-term outcomes of that behaviour. For example, someone thinking about joining a group weight-loss programme will probably be thinking more about what is like to go through the process than about how nice it will be if the programme is successful. Thus the benefits that will likely be important are benefits having to do with being in the programme – making friends, being paid attention...This is in line with the concept of social benefits examined in the previous chapter.

Cost-based strategies

Andreasen (1995) builds from Weinstein (1988) to point out that costs - particularly short-term costs - are certain whereas many of the benefits of social behaviours are hypothetical. For example: taking time to go for a drug prevention programme is a very real near-term cost, whereas protecting a child from getting involved in drugs may seem hypothetical. Therefore, prevention campaigns shouldn't ignore short-term costs. Still using the same example of a drug prevention programme, one of the reasons why it is difficult to recruit parents concerns the parents' perceived costs: not only time but also childcare arrangements and fear of stigmatization. In response, some approaches include home visits, meetings at the family's convenience and incentives as free transport, crèche facilities, prize draws and meals. Therefore, in line with Andreasen, it is important that marketers do the following:

- To develop a list of the kinds of costs that consumers may think about when considering a particular course of action. The marketer must be sure to ask target consumers a) to indicate costs related both to the behaviour it self (instrumental costs) and costs related to the outcome, should the behaviour turn out to be permanent (terminal costs) and b) to indicate why each cost is important to them to shed light on the way specific costs are linked to more fundamental values.
- To carry out more formal research with a representative sample of target consumers asking them to indicate for each cost a) how likely they think it is that the cost will occur and b) how important the cost would be to them should it occur.

Combined strategy

In most situations, it is the combination between benefits and costs that it is important.

The target will be looking at both costs and benefits and trading off one for the other.

All these arguments are in line of reasoning with the introduction of this dissertation where it is argued that marketers need to understand consumers in the broader contexts of their lives: it is not enough to know the needs, the benefits and the costs; it is necessary to know how these relate to consumers' values and their fundamental life-objectives.

Identification is another important relationship construct that potentially can be applicable in social marketing. We will now examine the challenges it raises.

3.4.7.5 Identification

Identification with a company occurs when interactions are significant, sustained and meaningful enough to embed them in the network: rites, rituals and routines (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). As discussed in the previous chapter, it increases when consumers network with other company stakeholders and other consumers. Looking at the social marketing context, Glenane - Antoniadis et al (2003) posit that social capital suggests that one way to approach those that have no incentive to participate in exchange is providing access to network benefits. Network benefits are attained through other social actors within the network. Individuals and indeed networks are linked to one another by what Burt (1998) has termed boundary spanners. Glenane - Antoniadis et al (2003) suggest that social marketers need to concentrate their efforts on boundary

spanners: individuals that link others via relational ties. The rationale is that these individuals have the ability to mobilize and influence numerous networks; they promote ideas to other actors and play an important role in disseminating information. In terms of the bonding approach, it encourages the focal individual's outgroup (other individuals following positive norms) to be made more salient and attractive than the individual's ingroup (individuals undertaking negative behaviour) (Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Hogg and Abrams, 1998).

Hastings and Soren (2003) suggest that relational thinking has important critical marketing implications as social marketing research explores ways to deconstruct the phenomena of identity in commercial marketing. This is in line with Battacharya and Elsbach (2003) who argue that social marketers need to better understand how both identification and desidentification work. Simultaneously, a potential risk here is that consumers resist when social marketers challenge existent identities.

We argue that identification can and should occur but, as suggested in chapter one, through a genuine and self-reflexive process (Giddens, 1990). This is also related to the issue of branding, previously discussed in this chapter. It is necessary to decide if the identification should be with the idea/cause or with the source and then assure that there is consistency in the identity of the social marketing "collective". Finally, when assessing social marketing programmes, it is important to examine what kind of initiatives social marketers have developed to stimulate different alternatives of networking.

3.4.7.6 Cooperation

Cooperation is a desired behaviour and a main indicator of a successful relationship (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Cooperation is proactive and can take several forms: citizenship behaviours or extra-role behaviours; word of mouth, participation in the activities of the organization. In contexts of limited funding, as it is common in social marketing, relationship marketing brings more efficiency. And, particularly in social marketing, citizenship behaviours are expected to be expressed not only by consumers but also by marketers. It is important to examine what kind of extra role behaviours are most valued by consumers in order to develop, stimulate and create the necessary conditions to efficient forms of cooperation.

Relationship marketing is not compatible with short timeframes. Therefore, it is important that social marketing timeframes are extended. This can also be challenging.

3.4.8. Longer timeframes

In order to move beyond the “intervention mentality”, social marketing programmes need longer timeframes. According to Hastings (2003), a minimum of five years is needed or more radically as in commerce, an indefinite timeframe. He illustrates this argument with a critical analysis of a drugs prevention programme: *NE Choices* (Stead et al, 2000). It consists of a three year (plus one year pilot and one year of follow up) drugs prevention intervention with explicit drug use prevention, prevalence reduction and harm minimization behaviour change objectives. Hastings (2003) argues that, from a relational point of view, the programme had a lot of potential: much evidence of customer satisfaction in the impact evaluation; young people trusted the programme and

its brand and cooperated with the researchers; meaning and messages were jointly negotiated rather than imposed; comprehensive research ensured that the programme did things with young people rather than to them; a valuable database of a vulnerable group was produced, providing a unique opportunity to develop relationships much further.

All these indicators show that *NE Choices* had the potential to become a long term and trusted source of help for the young people of the Northern England not just on substance misuse but in all aspects of a positive lifestyle. However “there is a very real possibility that a great opportunity was missed with *NE Choices*; that the programme ended just as the line was about to become profitable” (Hastings, 2003, p.11).

Furthermore, the notion of *value in use* is not compatible with short or medium term programmes. Service value is determined at the time of its use, as value-in-use. Therefore, the time logic of marketing exchange becomes open-ended, from pre-sale service interaction to post-sale value in use, with the prospect of continuing further, as relationships evolve.

An additional major challenge concerns critical thinking and the need to de-construct assumptions or taken for granted truths.

3.4.9. Critical marketing

Critical marketers question both the processes and outcomes of marketing. The developments in relational thinking have important critical marketing implications. In particular, the effects of marketing on issues like social exclusion, the creation of false needs and identities affect health and consumer behaviour. Social marketing research explores ways to deconstruct them, bridges the social and commercial world and can bring mutual understanding and help devise solutions when problems are revealed (Hastings and Saren, 2003).

Furthermore, social marketers' legitimacy is greater if social marketers are critical about themselves: their own processes and outcomes but especially about their assumptions or taken for granted "truths". From a critical perspective, the challenge is to make those assumptions explicit so they can be contested on other grounds than are provided for by the prevailing paradigm. As a consequence, space is opened up for seeing that things could be otherwise and for potential change (Eakin, Robertson, Poland, Coburn, and Edwards, 1996). This parallels the call for a self-reflective marketing practice discussed in the previous chapters. Relationship marketing and critical marketing are, indeed, compatible and complementary.

Finally, we will discuss the challenge of changing evaluation and its current frameworks.

3.4.10. Evaluation

Transaction thinking is limited to judge and evaluate social marketing programmes. As argued by Hastings et al (2002), just because a programme does not result in behaviour change it does not mean it failed. The focus on behaviour change needs to be combined with a focus on relationships otherwise programmes that do not result in behaviour change will be labelled as failures. This was the case, already mentioned, of *NE Choices*. The intervention had everything to work: a strong theoretical underpinning (social-influences approach backed by social marketing); a multi-component design (built around a high school drama initiative, with additional community, school governor and parent components); extensive, long term resources; a comprehensive bank of formative, process and impact evaluations to inform its development and implementation; and a quasi-experimental design to measure its effects on behaviour (outcomes). The result was therefore extremely consumer and stakeholder oriented. However, despite all these strengths, it was perceived as unsuccessful. The case of “NE Choices” evaluation demonstrates that social marketers need to change the way programmes are evaluated and attribute much more importance to intermediate measures (Hastings, 2003).

There are already some indicators of relationship marketing in health promotion evaluation literature, particularly in what concerns typical community-based programmes. Some of those indicators are included in the set of main principles of the health promotion initiatives defined by the World Health Organization: empowerment, participation, inter-sectoral collaboration, capacity-building and sustainability. We will now examine these principles.

Empowerment, in its most general sense, refers to the ability of people to gain understanding and control over personal, social, economic and political forces in order to take action to improve their life situations (Israel et al, 1994). Empowerment is being increasingly recognized as a key element in the evaluation of community-based health promotion. It is usually described as a process but some suggest that it may be considered an outcome when capacity building is a major activity of a community intervention (Judd, Frankish and Moulton, 2001). Empowerment encompasses participation, multidisciplinary collaboration, equity, capacity building and social and sustainable development (Hawe, 1994).

Capacity building refers to the problem-solving capacity among individuals, organizations, neighbourhoods and communities (Hawe, 1994). In the context of health promotion workers it refers to their ability to enhance the capacity of a system to prolong and multiply health effects, which represents a “value added” dimension to health outcomes offered by any particular programme (Hawe et al, 1998).

Community practitioners and lay participants often feel that evaluations are imposed upon them and that the evaluation process does not appreciate the uniqueness of their community, its programme, and its resources and skills (e.g. Labonte and Robertson, 1996). However, health promotion is a participatory process: interventions are developed, implemented and evaluated together with different stakeholders. This increases the feeling of ownership which in turn promotes programme maintenance. The mere fact that inter-sectoral collaboration takes place can be considered as a success factor as well as the intention to continue collaboration (Koelen, Vandragher and Colomé, 2001).

These issues are closely related to the sustainability and improvement of programmes and the health of communities served. Sustainability means that networks and activities become a permanent part of the local community structure (Koelen et al, 2001). This emphasis is often juxtaposed with equally powerful notions of evidence-based decision making and accountability in that funders and government decision makers are frequently more concerned with measuring outcomes and defining success (Judd, Frankish and Moulton, 2001).

All these factors contain relational principles and contribute to the redefinition of success of health promotion programmes. However, they are limited in two ways: they do not capture the full content of relationship marketing (a mix of principles, processes and constructs) and are over-specific to programmes implemented under conditions of local control and community ownership.

We will now summarize the specific relationship marketing challenges faced by social marketers (Table 3.1.). The challenges affect the assumptions, design, implementation and evaluation of programmes.

Table 3.1. Key challenges for social marketers

- **Seeing consumers as partners: overcoming the persuasion and the therapeutic logic;**
 - **Focus on resources and competences: overcoming the social service mentality;**
 - **Balancing the individual and the social;**
 - **Overcoming the functionalistic management of programmes (especially in the case of multi-component programmes);**
 - **Establishing priorities for partnerships;**
 - **Integrating the communication, dialogue, interaction and value processes;**
 - **Making relationship marketing constructs explicit;**
 - **Allowing longer time frames;**
 - **Critical marketing implications;**
 - **Evaluation: going beyond current frameworks.**
-
-

Relationship marketing provides a whole new way of thinking about social problems. Therefore, it has to provide unique solutions rather than merely re-labelling familiar concepts (Leather and Hastings, 1987). One of the main contributions of relationship marketing is that it helps to uncover fundamental contradictions in current thinking. For example, despite confirmation that the concept of choice is crucial, the field is dominated by prescriptive interventions (Hastings, 2003). As a strategic logic and a new foundation for thinking, relationship marketing raises important challenges for social marketers. It is fundamental to understand the challenges when exploring the potentialities of relationship marketing.

The challenge of evaluation was faced in this research and it is reflected in the methodology, as explained in the next chapter. We have conducted a process evaluation

that goes beyond the conventional process evaluation frameworks suggested in the literature. Through that evaluation, it has been examined whether the programme worked according to the relational principles, processes and constructs and it has been explained how that affected its assumptions, design and implementation. The evaluation consisted of a critical exercise that de-constructed the prevailing paradigm and its consequences.

3.5. SUMMARY

This chapter characterizes social marketing and explains how its characteristics may affect the applicability of relationship marketing. In light of these characteristics, we have identified the following key challenges in exploring relationship marketing: overcoming the persuasion logic; the social service mentality and the functionalistic management of programmes; balancing the individual and the social; establishing priorities for partnerships; integrating the communication, dialogue, interaction and value processes; making relationship marketing constructs explicit; allowing longer time frames; being self-critical and going beyond current evaluation frameworks. These challenges will help us understand how the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing work in practice and the consequences of their presence or absence.

The next chapter will describe and explain the strategic methodological decisions. In particular, we will justify the choice of process evaluation and will explain how it went beyond current evaluation frameworks.

4. OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The methodology is structured in two chapters. This chapter (chapter four) covers the strategic methodological choices and chapter five explains the fieldwork operational methodological issues. This chapter starts with the research objectives and then it goes on to explain the epistemological and ontological assumptions and the choice for evaluation research, more specifically for process evaluation.

4.2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

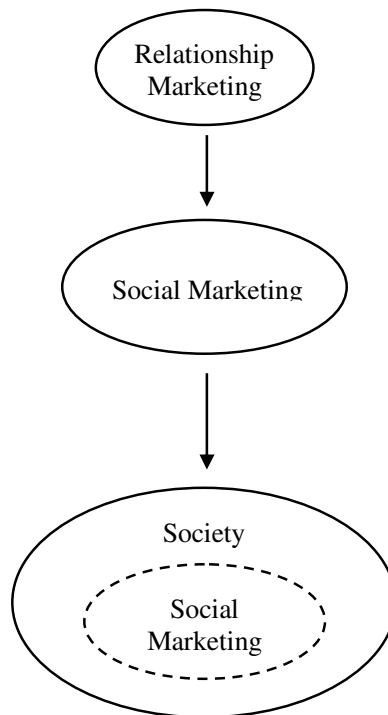
From our discussion of literature in the previous chapters, it is clear that the particular characteristics of social marketing make relationship marketing potentially applicable. However, despite this potential, social marketing is being slow to respond to relationship marketing. The field is still dominated by an intervention mentality and a transactional paradigm which tends to see consumers as targets rather than partners and to over focus on behaviour change objectives (Hastings, 2003). This paradigm doesn't fit in the value pluralist contemporary society so a new foundation for thinking is needed to face complexity. This study helps to move from transactions to relationships through critical examination. The dominant paradigm is de-constructed, the challenges of relationship marketing are explained and the implications are examined.

Building from the literature, we make some assumptions about the potential of relationship marketing and derive the following theoretical propositions:

- relationship marketing potentially has a lot to offer to social marketing through its principles, processes and constructs;
- despite the potential, relationship marketing raises critical challenges for social marketers;
- relationship marketing has implications in the design, implementation and evaluation of social marketing and health promotion programmes;
- relationship marketing can potentially help social marketers to reposition themselves, their programmes and their consumers in the value pluralist society.

To make these propositions clearer we have elaborated a research framework that puts together the three main fields examined in this dissertation: relationship marketing, social marketing and the value pluralist society (Fig. 4.1).

Fig. 4.1. Research Framework



Following, we make explicit the research objectives:

- To identify what potential there is for RM ideas to work in a SM context. More specifically:
 - to examine whether the key RM principles, processes and constructs transfer.
- To study how that potential works in practice. Specifically, in a live SM case,
 - to examine whether the presence of the principles, processes and constructs help or their absence hinders it (for details see Table 4.2, p.147);
 - and to examine which aspects of relationship marketing are easier and which are more challenging to apply.
- To explain how relationship marketing might improve the design, implementation and evaluation of social marketing programmes.
- To contribute, through social marketing, for critical marketing thinking and practice. Specifically,
 - to demonstrate how relationship marketing can increase the critical power of evaluation (methodological contribution) and
 - to explain how relationship marketing can help to reposition social marketing in society.

4.3. METHODOLOGY

The research adopted a realist view of the world. We will discuss its epistemological and ontological assumptions, why it is appropriate for this dissertation and how it fits in with evaluation research. We will then explain why we opted to use process evaluation and will present the evaluation framework applied in the research.

4.3.1. Realism: Epistemological Assumptions

In the literature there is a debate around how relationship marketing should evolve into becoming a discipline. Sheth and Parvatyar (2002) argue that relationship marketing needs to go beyond description into explanation by providing hypotheses and theory and by utilising methodological rigor. Conversely, Gumesson (2002b) argues that a new paradigm requires new scientific attitudes, methods and techniques. He suggests an inductive use of research, in the spirit of grounded theory, as he believes that knowledge isn't necessarily incremental and built on previous knowledge: to learn, he argues, we must unlearn. In his view, "there is currently no general theory of marketing in existence, just reminiscences of outdated microeconomics and fragmented models or concepts, often called theories but out of management context"(p. 588). In fact, when reviewing the literature, it is evident the lack of empirical work on de-constructing the fundamental principles of relationship marketing. This contrasts with a vast empirical work that attempts to create "successful models of relationship marketing" in a deductive, testing theory logic.

We position ourselves somewhere in the middle of those two contrasting epistemological views and adopt a realist perspective. Our purpose is not to build a

specific social marketing successful model of relationship marketing. Instead, our purpose is to explain how relationship marketing can change social marketing in a real life social marketing case. Realism is appropriate to our research because it aims to account for events rather than simply to document their sequence and because it looks for a social process, a mechanism, a structure at the core of events that can be captured to provide a causal explanation of the forces at work.

When discussing methodology it is important that we discuss our beliefs regarding the nature of social reality (ontology) and knowledge (epistemology). These beliefs underpin not only the choice of appropriate methods but also the ways data is collected, analysed and reported. Methodology is deeply related to epistemology. Epistemology is the philosophy of knowledge or of how we come to know; it is the relationship between the researcher and the reality. Ontology is the reality investigated. Methodology is also concerned with how we come to know, but it is much more practical in nature. Methodology is focused on the specific ways – the methods – that we can use to try to understand our world better. It is the technique used to investigate reality (Trochim, 1999; Healy and Perry, 2000).

Our research epistemological and ontological assumptions are, as already mentioned, very influenced by *Realism*. We will now discuss and examine how *realism* differs from other epistemologies.

Miles and Huberman (1994) see themselves in the lineage of “transcendental realism” (e.g. Bhaskar, 1978) and that means they assume that social phenomena exist not only in the mind but also in the objective world – and that some lawful and reasonably stable

relationships are to be found among them. As they argue, the lawfulness comes from the regularities and sequences that link together phenomenon and from these patterns it is possible to derive constructs that underlie individual and social life. Human meanings and intentions are worked out within the frameworks of social structures – structures that are invisible but nonetheless real. Miles and Huberman agree with interpretivists who point out that knowledge is a social and historical product and that facts come to us laden with theory. They affirm the existence and importance of the subjective, the phenomenological and the meaning-making at the centre of social life; however, their aim is to “register and transcend these processes by building theories to account for a real world that is both bounded and perceptually laden and to test these theories in the various disciplines”(p. 4). Those tests do not use covering laws or the deductive logic of classical positivism; rather, their explanations flow from an account of how differing structures produced the events we observed. Realism aims to account for events rather than simply to document their sequence; it looks for an individual or social process, a mechanism, a structure at the core of events that can be captured to provide a causal description of the forces at work. Transcendental realism calls for both causal explanations and for evidence to show that each entity or event is an instance of that explanation.

Realism has become to mean many things and there are different types of realism. Little (1998) has given a succinct “doctrine of *causal realism* for the social sciences”: there are causal relations among social phenomena and causal explanation is the central form of social explanation. This thesis cuts against those who argue that the social sciences are intrinsically hermeneutic and non-causal. Causal relations are not constituted by regularities or laws connecting classes of social events or phenomena. Social causal

relations are constituted by the causal powers of various social events, conditions, structures, and the like, and the singular causal mechanisms that lead from antecedent conditions to outcomes. Accordingly, a central goal of social research is to identify the causal mechanisms that give rise to social outcomes. This represents what we may call "causal realism", as it asserts that social causal mechanisms are real and can be investigated through the normal empirical procedures of the social sciences (Bennet, 1999). In essence, this approach is very similar to the one suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994).

As already mentioned, realism states that there is a reality independent of our thinking about it that science can study. This is in contrast with social constructionists who would hold that there is no external reality and it is also different from positivism. Positivists are also realists but the difference is that post-positivist realists recognize that all observation is fallible and has error and that all theory is revisable. Trochim (1999) considers that one of the most common forms of post-positivist is critical realism, and that means a realism that is critical of our ability to know reality with certainty. Because all measurement is fallible, the post-positivist critical realism emphasizes the importance of multiple measures and observations, each of which may possess different types of error, and the need to use *triangulation* across these multiple error sources to better understand what's happening in reality. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002) consider critical realism a recent variant of the relativist position, which starts with the realist ontology of Bhaskar (1978) and then incorporates an interpretative thread: it makes a conscious compromise between the extreme positions.

Realists believe that there is a “real world” to discover even if it is only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible (Tsoukas, 1989; Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Godfrey and Hill, 1995). They view perception not as a reality, as constructivists might do, but as a window to reality from which a picture of reality can be triangulated with other perceptions (Perry, Alizadeh and Riege, 1997). Realism is one between different paradigms with its own and specific basic belief systems. It is different from Positivism, Critical Theory and Constructivism, as described in the table below (Table 4.1.).

Table 4.1. Basic belief systems of alternative inquiry paradigms

Item	Paradigm			
Ontology	Positivism Naïve realism: reality is real and apprehensible	Realism Critical realism: reality is real but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible.	Critical theory Historical realism: “virtual” reality shaped by social, economic, ethnic, political, cultural and gender values, crystallized over time.	Constructivism Critical relativism: multiple local and specific “constructed” realities.
Epistemology	Objectivist: findings true.	Modified objectivist: findings probably true	Subjectivist: value mediated findings.	Subjectivist: created findings.
Methodology	Experiments/surveys: verification of hypotheses; quantitative methods.	Case studies: triangulation, qualitative and quantitative methods.	Dialogic/dialectical: researcher is a “transformative” intellectual who changes the social world	Hermeneutical/dialectical: researcher is a “passionate” participant.

Source: adapted from Perry, Alizadeh and Riege (1997) and Guba and Lincoln (1994)

The paradigms analysed in the table correspond to “pure” versions of each paradigm. As noted by Easterby-Smith et al (2002), although the basic beliefs may be considerably incompatible, when one comes down to the actual research methods and techniques used the differences are by no means so clear and distinct. Similarly, as Miles and Huberman (1994) argue, although it is tempting in epistemological debates to operate at the poles, in the actual practice of empirical research all researchers – realists, interpretivists, critical theorists – are closer to centre with multiple overlaps. Furthermore, they argue, the lines between epistemologies have become blurred and approaches that conciliate a realist ontology with phenomenological meaning are hard to situate. This help us to understand why Miles and Huberman and others (e.g. Trochim, 1999) advocate pragmatism and emphasize that that research is not a slavish adherence to methodological rules. Each study calls for the researcher to bend the methodology to the peculiarities of the setting. As Patton (2002) explains, a paradigm is a worldview – a way of thinking about and making sense of the complexities of the real world. They tell us what is important and reasonable but, he argues, adherence to a methodological paradigm can lock researchers into unconscious patterns of perception and behaviour that disguise the biased, predetermined nature of their “method” decisions. Because paradigmatic, strategic and theoretical dimensions within any particular approach are both arguable and somewhat arbitrary, he thinks it is more appropriate to focus on distinguishing foundational questions, rather than on paradigms. In the case of Realism, Patton suggests the alternative notion of “truth and reality-oriented correspondence theory”. Its related foundation questions are the following: *What is really going on in the real world? What are plausible explanations for verifiable patterns?* The assumption is that there is a real world with verifiable patterns that can be observed and predicted. This points directly to ontology.

4.3.2. Realism: ontological assumptions

According to realism, we will only be able to understand – and so change – the social world if we identify the structures /mechanisms at work that generate those events and discourses. These structures are not spontaneously apparent in the observable pattern of events; they can only be identified through the practical and theoretical work of social sciences (Bhaskar, 1989). Bhaskar (1978) outlines what he calls the three domains:

- The real: consists of underlying mechanisms, events and experiences;
- The actual: consists of events and experiences;
- The empirical: consists of experiences.

The ontology of realism assumes that the researcher is dealing with complex social phenomena involving reflective people. This social world of realism is not a laboratory (Healy and Perry, 2000). Social phenomena are fragile so causal impacts are not fixed but are contingent upon their environment. Thus, in contrast to positivism research, the purpose of realism research is to develop a “family of answers” that cover several contingent contexts and discover knowledge of the real world by describing generative mechanisms (Perry et al 1999; Healy and Perry, 2000).

Having explained our epistemological and ontological assumptions, next we will explain why we opted for evaluation research and how realism fits in evaluation research.

4.3.3. Realist evaluation

This study is in its essence an evaluation exercise so, before explaining the specificities of evaluation research, it is necessary to explain the difference between research and evaluation. It is not easy to make a distinction between research and evaluation as in health promotion these two concepts are often blurred. While evaluation methods borrow heavily from research methods, the conceptual frameworks which underpin the two activities are different (Learmonth and Mackie, 2000). Patton (2002) explains those differences. Programme evaluation is the systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics and outcome of programmes to make judgements about the programme, improve programme effectiveness and/or inform decisions about future programmes. Research differs from evaluation in that its primary purpose is to generate or test theory and contribute to knowledge for the sake of knowledge. It can inform action but action is not the primary purpose of research. As Patton explains, while research seeks to understand societal problems and identify potential solutions, evaluations examine and judge the processes and outcomes aimed at attempted solutions.

As we have discussed in chapter two, relationship marketing has implications in the design, implementation and evaluation of social programmes. We decided to conduct a relationship marketing evaluation because it is very appropriate to understand and explain how relationship marketing shapes the design and implementation of programmes.

More specifically, the views of Pawson and Tilley (1997) about realist evaluation are applicable to our research. Pawson and Tilley see realist evaluation as a species of theory-driven evaluation and programmes as hypothesis about social betterment. Programmes are shaped by a vision of change and they succeed or fail according to the veracity of that vision. Therefore, evaluation has the task of testing out the underlying programme theories. We feel identified with this perspective: our research examines and de-constructs the vision and logic of change that shaped the programme selected as our case-study. The choice for case study is explained in the next chapter.

For Pawson and Tilley, the nature of programmes comprises the following four key principles:

- Programmes are theories incarnate: they are always inserted into existing social systems that underpin and account for present problems.
- Programmes are embedded in social systems: different layers of social reality make up and surround programmes: individual, interpersonal, institutional and infrastructural.
- Programmes are active: change is produced by and requires the active engagement of individuals.
- Programmes are open systems and self-transformational: unanticipated events, political change, make programmes permeable and plastic.

The concepts of mechanism and context are basic concepts in the explanation and understanding of the programmes. These will now be discussed.

4.3.3.1 Mechanism and context: fundamental concepts

Realist evaluation asks “what works, for whom in different circumstances?”. It is expected that measures will vary in their impact depending on conditions in which they are introduced thus the key problem for evaluation research is to find out how and under what conditions a given measure will produce its mechanisms.

Social programmes aim to produce changes in a regularity. Mechanisms describe what it is about programmes and interventions that bring about any effects and are often hidden. It is not programmes that work but the resources they offer to enable their subjects to make them work. Programme mechanism is this process of how subjects interpret and act upon the intervention. As emphasized by Pawson and Tilley (1997) a measure is not the basic unit of analysis for understanding causation. A measure may work in different ways or may trigger different mechanisms. Similarly, a programme component is not a mechanism. Mechanisms refer to ways in which a component or a measure brings about change: they explain the logic of an intervention.

Mechanisms will be active only under particular circumstances, that is, in different contexts. Context describes those features of the conditions in which programmes are introduced that are relevant to the operation of the programme mechanisms. Realism utilises contextual thinking to address the issues “for whom” and “in what circumstances” a programme will work. Context must not be confused with locality. It does not only relate to place but also to systems of interpersonal and social relationships, economic conditions and so on. As emphasized in chapter 1, programmes

occur in open systems therefore they have to be contextualized in their broader social context.

Realist evaluation has methodological implications that we will now address.

4.3.3.2 Design, methods and the nature of findings in realist evaluation

Realism is a logic of inquiry that generates distinctive research strategies and designs. It has no particular preference for either quantitative or qualitative methods and sees merit in multiple methods. Realist evaluation is applicable in principle to all forms of programme evaluation and to all areas of social and public policy. As emphasized by Pawson and Tilley (1997), the goal is never a pass/fail verdict on an intervention but an understanding of how its inner working produces diverse effects. The intention is to lead to better-focused and more effective programmes. Because programmes are complex, open and active our understanding will always be partial and provisional. A programme may operate through many different mechanisms so sense making is the circumstance of realist approach. Good empirical work should always carry the strategy of developing and adjudicating for rival explanations of programme outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Realism operates at middle range, using concepts that describe interventions at a level between big policy ideas and the day-to-day realities of implementation. Operating at middle range there is much greater opportunity for transferring the findings of evaluation.

Next, we will explain why we opted to use process evaluation and examine its specificities.

4.3.4. Process evaluation

Process evaluation is particularly suited to study relationship marketing because it puts the emphasis on how programmes operate rather than on behaviour change outcomes. The process evaluation was conducted using a relationship marketing perspective. This means that we examined to what extent the relational principles, processes and constructs were applied in a real life social marketing context and their consequences. As explained later in this subsection, the process evaluation suggested in this research goes beyond the framework suggested in health promotion literature and makes it self an important methodological contribution.

Process evaluation is one of the three types of evaluation generally recognized in the health education literature: process, impact, and outcome evaluation (Helitzer, Davis, Gittelsohn, Going, Murray, Snyder and Steckler, 1999):

- Process evaluation examines how a programme was operated, focusing on what the intended intervention was and how it was actually implemented.
- Impact evaluation assesses a programme's effectiveness in achieving desired changes in targeted mediators, such as knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour of the target group.
- Outcome evaluation examines the effects of the programme on health status, morbidity, and mortality.

Until recently, evaluation tended to focus mainly on impacts and outcomes, but the value of process evaluation is now being increasingly recognized. The reasons for this growth are analysed below.

4.3.4.1 The growth of process evaluation: main reasons

By 2000, the design and implementation of process evaluation efforts became quite complex. Several reasons explain this increased recognition (Helitzer et al, 2000; Patton, 2002; Linnan and Steckler, 2002; Saunders, Evans and Joshi, 2005):

- The comprehensive nature of the social and behavioural interventions used in contemporary health education programmes: as the interventions become more complex, it is important to be able to ensure quality of implementation and exact documentation of the intervention in a given programme.
- Projects are often implemented at multiple locations so process evaluation needs to examine whether planned interventions are carried out equally at all sites; interventions are implemented at multiple levels and with multiple audiences.
- Process evaluation can explain positive, modest and insignificant results.
- It provides links to understanding and improving theory-informed interventions: it helps to understand which theoretical constructs make a difference; understanding the mechanisms of how and why these constructs produce or fail to produce change is crucial to refining theory and to improve effectiveness.
- It can help understanding the relationship among programme components and reach the black box of intervention effectiveness; it can help to disentangle the

effects of each component (or elements of each component) and understand their synergistic effect.

- Increasing recognition of the value of qualitative research methods: integrating different methods provide rich detail about study outcomes.

Having examined the reasons why the use of process evaluation is increasing, we now focus on its specific purposes.

4.3.4.2 Purposes of Process evaluation

Much emphasis is placed on outcome evaluation to determine whether a health promotion programme was successful. Process evaluation, which helps us understand why a programme was or was not successful, it is equally important (Saunders, Evans and Joshi, 2005). It does not measure results of programmes, but rather captures how a programme was conducted. The literature points out the main purposes of process evaluation (Steckler, 1989; Windsor, Baranowski, Clark and Cutter, 1994; Helitzer et al, 2000; Patton, 2002; Linnan and Steckler, 2002; Saunders, Evans and Joshi, 2005). The purposes are the following:

- Process evaluation aims at elucidating and understanding the internal dynamics of how a programme operates;
- A process evaluation monitors, describes and documents the details of programme's implementation;
- A programme's lack of success could be attributed to any number of programme-related reasons, including poor programme design, poor or incomplete programme implementation and/or failure to reach sufficient

numbers of the target audience. Process evaluation looks inside the so-called *black box* to see what happened in the programme and how that could affect programme impacts or outcomes;

- Attribution of "no impact" to a programme that was not implemented properly - type III error (Basch et al, 1985) - can be avoided by including a process evaluation component;
- Process evaluation not only looks at formal activities and anticipated outcomes but also investigates informal patterns and unanticipated interactions;
- Process data permit judgements about the extent to which the programme or organization is operating the way it is supposed to be operating;
- Process evaluation is particularly useful for dissemination and replication of model interventions where a programme has served as a demonstration project or is considered to be a model worthy of replication at other sites;
- By describing and understanding the details and dynamics of programmes processes it is possible to isolate critical elements that have contributed to programme successes and failures;
- By identifying the key components of an intervention that are effective, for whom the intervention is effective and under what conditions the intervention is effective.

Besides these broad purposes there are also specific aims. Process evaluation can be formative and/or summative (Devaney and Rossi, 1997; Helitzer et al 2000; Patton, 2002; Saunders, Evans and Joshi, 2005):

- Formative: When the purpose is formative, process evaluation is used to fine-tune the programme and keep the programme on track. The results are used to help monitor and refine intervention components. The aim is to improve programmes. Formative evaluation often relies heavily on qualitative methods. Findings are context specific.
- Summative: When the purpose is summative, process evaluation makes a judgement about the extent to which the intervention was implemented as planned and reached intended participants; this in turn can be used to explain programme outcomes and provide input for future planning; it relies heavily in quantitative data; qualitative data typically add depth, detail and nuance to quantitative findings rendering insights through illuminative case studies.

Our process evaluation of the programme is summative because it makes a judgement about whether the programme operated accordingly to a relationship marketing logic. But it can be said to have a formative dimension as well, as it may help to refine and improve future interventions.

Next, we will introduce the framework that we have developed to guide our process evaluation and explain how it differs from the frameworks suggested in the literature.

4.3.4.3 A framework for process evaluation

As Saunders et al explain (2005), several practical frameworks and models to guide the development of comprehensive evaluation plans, including process evaluation for collaborative community initiatives, have been developed. Included among these are *Prevention Plus III* (Linney and Wandersman, 1991), *Community Coalition Action*

Theory (Bufferfoss and Kegler, 2002) *Getting to Outcomes* (Chinman et al, 2001) and the *CDC framework* (Millstein, Wetterhall and CDC Evaluation Working Group, 2000). Recent advances have occurred in identifying and clarifying the components of a process evaluation. Building from Baronowsky and Stables (2000) and Steckler and Linnan (2002), Saunders, Evans and Joshi (2005) suggest the following components, which constitute what they consider the minimum requirements:

- Fidelity (quality): the extent to which intervention was implemented as planned; the extent to which the intervention was implemented consistently with the underlying theory and philosophy.
- Reach (participation rate): proportion of the intended priority audience that participates in the intervention; often measured by attendance; includes documentation of barriers to participation. It is also important to know which subgroups of the intended target population actually participate.
- Dose delivered (completeness): amount of number of intended units of the component delivered or provided by interventionists.
- Dose received: extent to which participants actively engage with, interact with, are receptive to and use recommended materials or resources (exposure); participant satisfaction with the programme (satisfaction).
- Recruitment: procedures used to approach and attract participants at individual and organizational levels; includes maintenance of participant involvement in intervention.
- Context: aspects of the environment that may influence intervention implementation or study impacts and outcomes (factors in the community, the social, political and/or economic context, or other situational issues that can

affect implementation): in line with a realist evaluation context this is a crucial component.

We include the majority of these components in our evaluation but will approach them according to a relationship marketing perspective which has deep implications. For example, the very concept of “dose delivered and dose received” contradicts, in some extent, the idea of co-creation and value transformation through dialogue and interaction, key processes of a relationship marketing strategy. In our framework, recruitment and delivery are examined as value creation processes, rather than as isolated and straightforward processes. Moreover, rather than just examining satisfaction and treat it as a dose received issue, we suggest to examine satisfaction and five more relational constructs as evaluation components in themselves. Therefore, the nature of our evaluation components and specific evaluation questions is different from the ones suggested in the literature on process evaluation. The objective is to do a holistic examination of the context and mechanisms of change of the programme focusing on the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing. The process evaluation framework proposed in this dissertation makes itself an important methodological contribution to the health promotion literature. The specific evaluation components and questions are described in the table below (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. Evaluation components and questions

Evaluation components	Evaluation questions
Key principles of relationship marketing: Consumers seen as the main drivers of the value creation process Service logic, Process management, Partnerships and networks	What were the main assumptions of the programme? To what extent did the programme assess needs and values? What were the main resources of the programme? How was the programme managed (process versus functionalistic)? To what extent were partnerships developed?
Key processes: communication, dialogue, interaction and value	To what extent were the key processes explored? To what extent were the programme components and sub components integrated and linked? To what extent were opportunities for value creation created and/or explored? How was the programme experienced?
Key constructs: trust, commitment, satisfaction, identification, perceived value and cooperation.	Whether trust, commitment, satisfaction, identification, perceived value and cooperation developed? To what extent? What were the main strengths and weaknesses of the programme? How critical were these strengths and weaknesses to the programme? What were the key contextual factors and how did the programme deal with them?

4.4. SUMMARY

This chapter has identified and explained the paradigm that underpinned this research and how it fits in evaluation research. We have also developed a process evaluation framework and explained how the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing identified in chapter two were reflected in the evaluation specific components and specific questions. The chapter on findings (chapter six) will be structured around those evaluations components and responds to the evaluation specific questions.

In the next chapter we will explain the fieldwork developed, including the choice for case study, triangulation, methods, data collection instruments, sampling and data analysis procedures.

5. FIELDWORK

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter explains the fieldwork developed in the research. It justifies the choice for case-study, the sort of case-study conducted, the logic of triangulation and the choice of observations, document analysis and interviews as the main methods. Further, the data collection instruments, achieved samples and data analysis procedures are explained and described.

5.2. CASE STUDY DESIGN

Case study is a comprehensive research strategy and it comprises an all-encompassing method, covering the logic of design, data collection techniques and specific approaches to data analysis (Yin, 2003; Perry, 1998). We have opted for a case study design because case studies are the preferred strategy when “how” or “why” questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real - life context (Yin, 2003). The case study is especially appropriate when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. These criteria apply to our study. Further, in line with our epistemological and ontological assumptions explained in the previous chapter, our case study is instrumental rather than intrinsic (Stake, 1995). This means that rather than seeing the case itself as the focus, our case is being used to understand something else: to understand the potential of relationship marketing in complex real live programmes.

The case study does not represent a “sample”. In doing a “case study” our goal is to expand and generalize theories (analytic generalization) and not to enumerate frequencies (statistical generalization). Rather than testing the applicability of a theory to a population (the primary concern of positivism) the purpose is to confirm or disconfirm before its generalisability to a population is tested. The use of theory not only helps defining the appropriate design and data collection but also becomes the main vehicle for generalising the results of the case study (Yin, 2003). The prior theoretical propositions formulated in the beginning of the previous chapter guided data collection and analysis. ´

The case selected consists in a drug prevention parent programme. This programme is an integral part of a larger, multi-component drugs prevention programme, named Blueprint (BP). The Blueprint programme has been designed to take account of evidence of “what works” in drugs education and it was based, as explained by Stead et al (2007), on the distillation of key principles of drug education. The design of the parent programme built from the literature on involving families in drug education and the work of Velleman et al (2000) was particularly influential. As discussed in chapter 3, this work incorporates relational thinking and makes an important contribution to social marketing. Therefore, as a modern and complex programme, the BP parent programme constituted an appropriate real life context to examine how the potential of relationship marketing works in practice.

When conducting the case, we have greatly benefited from a rich empirical context. Blueprint was the largest and most rigorous evaluation of a multi-component drug prevention programme done to date in the United Kingdom (Baker, 2006; Stead et al,

2007). The evaluation was designed to examine implementation processes, immediate impacts (e.g. responses to particular activities) and longer-term outcomes (e.g. changes in drug use) across all programme components. A complex multi-method study included a longitudinal cohort study, questionnaire surveys, in depth interviews, monitoring and observation. We have participated in the Blueprint evaluation, more specifically in the parent delivery evaluation exercise. This not only provided us valuable complementary secondary data (both qualitative and quantitative) but also, and more fundamentally, a sense of the whole and of context. This sense of the whole is a major strength of case studies. Moreover, it was a great opportunity to learn and work with an experienced and large team of researchers.

We will now present the case selected, the Blueprint parent programme.

5.3. THE CASE SELECTED: *BLUEPRINT*

Blueprint was a major research programme designed to examine the effectiveness of a multi-component approach to drug education. It was the first attempt to design, deliver and evaluate a multi-component programme on such a large scale in England, and it was intended that the results of the study would guide and inform the development of future drug education. Blueprint was a partnership of three Government departments: the Home Office, the Department for Education and Skills (DfES), and the Department of Health (DH).

The main aims of the programme were:

- to provide evidence of “what works” in educating 11-13 year-olds about the risks of drug use;
- to provide research evidence that can be used in formulating future strategies to reduce the number of young people who become involved in drug misuse.

Evidence from previous evaluations of drug education programmes has suggested that combining school-based education with parental involvement, media campaigns, local health initiatives and community partnerships into a multi-component programme is more effective than simply delivering drug education in the classroom (e.g. Pentz et al, 1989; Johnson et al, 1990; Flynn et al, 1992; Perry et al, 1992). Therefore, in addition to classroom based lessons, the Blueprint programme involved work with parents, media work, LEAs and community and policy work. It implemented five connected strategies for drug prevention focused on changes in practice and capacity across the domains of:

- Schools (including teacher training, a specially designed drug education curriculum, and support from School Drug Advisers and others);
- Parents;
- Media;
- Health Policy;
- Community.

Blueprint was also a ‘universal’ intervention in that it was designed for the general school population. The primary target group was pupils aged 11-13, with secondary targets of parents, teachers and drug prevention professionals. Twenty-nine schools in

four LEAs - Cheshire, Derby City, Derbyshire and Lancashire - took part in the programme: twenty three intervention schools and six comparison schools.

We will now describe the specific parent component.

5.3.1. The parent component

Involving parents in Blueprint was one of the key aims of the programme as a whole. This was based on evidence that drug education programmes with multiple components are more effective than a school only approach and that good parenting can be a protective factor against drug taking (Baker, 2006). The aims of the parent component were:

- To complement and reinforce the classroom component;
- To involve parents in the drug education of their children;
- To increase parent-child communication about substance use and prevention.

The Blueprint parent component was described in early documentation as comprising a range of different elements, including:

- *Drug Facts for Parents* - an information booklet aimed at raising awareness of drugs facts among parents, distributed to parents during spring 2004.
- *Talking about Drugs* – two issues, one each year, of a magazine containing activities and quizzes that parents could do with their children, with the aim of reinforcing the learning from Blueprint lessons, distributed to parents during spring 2004 and 2005.

- *Classroom presentation* – parents were to be invited to attend a presentation given by their child’s class, produced as part of the Blueprint lessons.
- *Launch event* – parents were invited to attend a launch event which included presentations and exercises on drugs and parenting issues and which introduced the parenting skills workshops.
- *Parenting skills workshops* – parents were invited to attend a series of six parenting skills workshops. The workshops involved a range of approaches including group work, role plays and quizzes.
- *School policy on drugs* – in addition, Blueprint aimed to offer parents the opportunity to contribute to the school’s drug policy.

The parent materials were developed by Dixon Collier Consultancies Limited (DCCL), the School Component Contractor. It was the responsibility of schools to invite parents to attend Blueprint classroom presentations and to involve them in the review of school drug policy; these tasks were encouraged, but schools were not mandated to do them.

At the core of the parent component were a series of launch events and parenting workshops, developed and implemented by the Parent Trust, a consortium comprising the Community Education Development Centre (CEDC), the Parenting Education and Support Forum and Adfam. It was intended that a series of six parenting skills workshops would be offered to parents in all 23 Blueprint pilot schools. These would be preceded by a launch event in the school or local community venue, through which parents would experience a ‘taster’ of the workshops and be invited to sign up. It was anticipated that the Parent Contractor would draw on its existing network of parent workshop facilitators where possible, although new trainers might also have to be

recruited, and that all would receive training on drug education and Blueprint. Training was provided to facilitators by Parent Trust - the Parent Contractor - in December 2003-January 2004. It was also intended that a number of 'Community Consultants', trained local parents, would be recruited to help central Parent Trust staff in the recruitment process.

Based on an average of 150 Year 7 pupils per school, equating to approximately 300 eligible parents per school, the Parent Contractor estimated that a maximum of 200 parents per school (two-thirds of parents) would attend the launches. Multiple series of workshops were to be run dependent on parental demand at the launches. Provision was being made for between three and six series of workshops per school, anticipating an average of 12 parents attending each workshop.

Launches and workshops were initially planned for delivery in three phases. The first phase in spring 2004, comprising four schools, was intended as a pilot of the launch and recruitment procedures. This would be followed by a summer 2004 phase (nine schools) and an autumn 2004 phase (ten schools). However, parental attendance at launches was lower than had been anticipated, as was the subsequent workshop participation. A number of revisions were therefore made to the recruitment process, the launch content, and, later on, to the workshop series format. These decisions led to a revised timetable. The planned summer 2004 phase now became in effect a second pilot, of four schools, and a fourth phase in winter 2004/spring 2005 (five schools) was added in order to complete delivery to all 23 schools. In May 2004, the University of Central Lancashire was appointed to advise on and help in the recruitment of black and minority ethnic (BME) parents in the three Lancashire schools with high populations of BME pupils.

It was intended that the workshops were offered as stand-alone sessions, although parents would be encouraged to attend all six in the series, and that drug-specific content would be integrated within the generic parenting content of some of the sessions. The exact order of the workshops could vary according to parents' needs. The titles of the sessions were:

- Bullying: how to help if you think your child is being bullied.
- Hello! Is anybody listening?
- Talking about sex and relationships and drugs.
- Stress and the secondary school pupil.
- Dealing with problem behaviour and setting boundaries.
- Puberty and parenting make you tired! Looking after yourself because your child needs you!

The objectives of the workshops focused on parent-child communication and support skills in three key areas:

- parenting skills to strengthen family relationships and parents' ability to deal with caring, control and conflict resolution;
- improved substance related knowledge and skills and
- skills that support self-confidence in the parenting role.

Furthermore, workshop leaders were expected to cover three aspects:

- in order to talk with your children about drugs or any other concern, you have to be able to talk with your children;

- parents are a more valuable source in preventing and dealing with their child's problems than they often give themselves credit for;
- need to make parents aware that Blueprint materials are available for them and their children

The rationale for the broad range of the workshop topics rather than a narrow focus on drug information was that the aim was to boost general parenting skills and enhance the quality of parent-child relationships, as research evidence suggested that these could act as protective factors against involvement in drug use.

5.3.2 The rationale of the parental component's design

Blueprint aims to raise the awareness of parents in support of their children's learning and increase the quantity and quality of communication between children and parents on drug issues. The design of the parental component drew much from the report for the Home Office by Velleman, Mistral and Sanderling (2000). Their review indicates the importance of involving parents and families in drug prevention work as a way of reinforcing and ensuring consistency with drug prevention messages delivered through other channels. It can harness parents' concerns about drugs; increase their confidence in talking to their children about drugs; and modify the behaviour of children. However, as they explain, serious difficulties have been found in recruiting and retaining families; some parents tend to get very little involved with schools and training programmes appear to be disproportionately available to white families. Participation rates may be as low as 10% and may rarely include parents whose offspring are at the highest risk of drug use (e.g. Cohen and Linton, 1995). A particular emphasis was placed, therefore, in

designing the Parent Component on a systematic approach to opportunities and barriers to recruitment and retention.

As already mentioned, research into the role of parents in drug prevention suggests that good parent-child communication and generally strong family cohesion are key protective factors against a child's future involvement in drug misuse (e.g. Cohen et al, 1994; Ialongo et al, 1999; Abbey et al, 2000; Stronski et al, 2000). Prevention programmes which seek to target and involve parents tend not solely or primarily to focus on substance use but to address a broad range of behaviours and attitudes such as attachment to school, quality of family relationships and aggression. Some are universal interventions, targeting all parents of a particular school population, whilst others are selective, targeting specific parents deemed to be at high risk of the problematic behaviours in question (e.g. Dishion et al, 1996; Kumpfer, 1997; Abbey et al, 2000).

Despite the importance of involving parents, there is a dilemma for prevention planners and practitioners in that Mallick et al (1998) conclude that parents rate drug education as important but predominantly want their children to be taught the 'just say no' message. Parents often underestimate the extent of their own influence, believing peer influence to be the decisive factor in their child's drug-related behaviour. At the same time, they lack basic knowledge about drugs and confidence in communicating with their children (Velleman et al, 2000).

We will now explain why we opted to develop an explanatory, single, holistic and qualitative case study.

5.4. THE SORT OF CASE STUDY

5.4.1. Explanatory case study

Our case is not exploratory or merely descriptive. It is explanatory, not in the sense of investigating mechanistic cause-effect relationships, but because its purpose is to explain the presumed causal-tendencies or powers (Bhaskar, 1978) in a real-life complex intervention: the Blueprint parent programme. It attempts to explain to what extent relationship marketing was applied, the challenges involved and how this affected the programme.

5.4.2. Holistic Single-case study design

One of the rationales for using a single case is the representative or typical case. Blueprint is a typical programme in the sense it can illustrate the complexities and challenges involved in social marketing programmes. It is therefore an information rich case from which we can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of our inquiry (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2003).

The case is holistic because it examines the global nature of the programme (embedded units were not selected) and because relationship marketing constitutes a new logic, a vision that is of a holistic nature itself.

5.4.3. Qualitative case study

The holistic approach assumes the whole is understood as a complex system that is greater than the sum of its parts. Our objective is to search for the totality or unifying nature of the programme - the *Gestalt*. Because our objective is to seek gestalt units and holistic understandings, we have opted for a qualitative research (Patton, 2002). Our assumption is that the complexities and major factors of the programme can not be oversimplified nor quantified. Instead, we see each event, issue or process as a window into the whole.

Within major traditions of theory-oriented qualitative inquiry - realism - qualitative methods are not just for exploratory purposes. They are also the methods of choice in extending and deepening the theoretical propositions and understandings that have emerged from previous field studies. In fact, since the late 1970s qualitative research methods have gained recognition for their potential contribution to the assessment of health promotion programmes (Cook and Reichart, 1979; Guba and Lincoln, 1981; Patton, 1981). As pointed by Steckler and colleagues (1992), today the issue no longer is whether to use qualitative or quantitative methods but rather how they can be combined to produce more effective evaluations (Patton, 1981; Grubb et al, 1983). We benefit of this combination in our research. As explained in the beginning of this chapter, our empirical context is particularly rich because it allows access to secondary data – quantitative and qualitative – gathered by a wide evaluation exercise.

In real world practice, methods can be separated from the epistemology out of which they have emerged, however, there are always some implications (Patton, 2002).

Realism epistemology has practical implications for qualitative inquiry:

- it means using the language and concepts of mainstream science to design naturalistic studies, inform data collection, analysis and judge the quality of findings;
- concern about validity, reliability and objectivity (these are discussed in section 5.5.2.4);
- triangulation and analytical perspectives to increase accuracy;
- establish causality;
- inform programme improvement and policy decisions from patterns established and lessons learned.

In line with their realist approach to qualitative data, Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that qualitative data are a source of well grounded, rich descriptions and explanations of processes in identifiable local contexts. With qualitative data one sees precisely which events led to which consequences and derives fruitful explanations. Then, good qualitative data help researchers to get beyond initial conceptions and to generate or revise conceptual frameworks. More specifically, Miles and Huberman list the following strengths:

- qualitative research is naturalistic research: they have local groundedness, because the data are collected in close proximity to a specific situation. The

emphasis is on a specific case, a focused and bounded phenomenon embedded in its context;

- they are rich and holistic with strong potential for revealing complexity; such data provide “thick descriptions” that are vivid, nested in a real context;
- qualitative data, with their emphasis on people’s “lived experience” are fundamentally well suited for locating the meanings people place on the events, processes and structures of their lives;
- qualitative data often have been advocated as the best strategy for discovery, exploring a new area and developing hypotheses. In addition, they have a strong potential for testing hypotheses, seeing whether specific predictions hold up;
- finally, qualitative data are useful when one needs to supplement, validate, explain or reinterpret quantitative data.

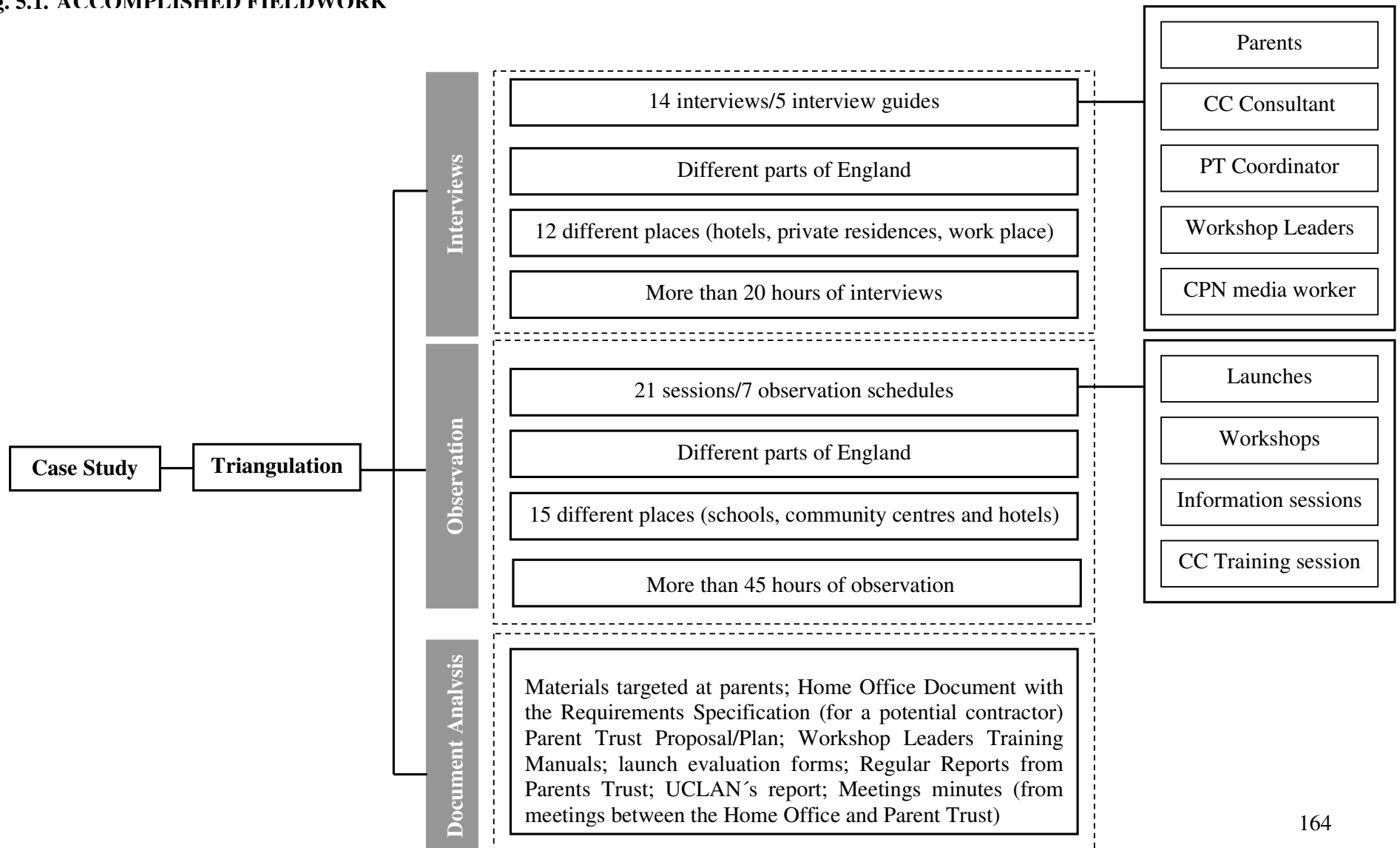
From this list of features we highlight the power of qualitative data to conciliate description with explanation, meanings with causal mechanisms. This is what we aim to do in this research. Furthermore, qualitative data is particularly appropriate for studying process (Patton, 2002) for several reasons:

- depicting process requires detailed descriptions of how people engage with each other;
- the experience of process typically varies for different people so their experiences need to be captured in their own words;
- process is fluid and dynamic so it can’t be fairly summarized on a single rating scale at one point in time;
- participants’ perceptions are a key process consideration.

Finally, qualitative data tells what is going on the programme, how it has developed and why and how programmes deviate from initial plans and expectations. It is also appropriate to compare the official theory (what should happen) of the programme with the theory in use (what really happens). The ideal-actual comparison can support development to improve effectiveness (Patton, 2002).

At this stage of the chapter, it is appropriate to summarize the accomplished fieldwork (Figure 5.1, p. 164). In the next sections, we will explain the fieldwork conducted, including triangulation and methods, research instruments and sampling.

Fig. 5.1. ACCOMPLISHED FIELDWORK



5.5. METHODS

This section explains why triangulation is appropriate to our research and justifies the choice of specific methods: observation, interview and document analysis.

5.5.1. Triangulation

A major strength of case studies is the opportunity to use multiple perceptions about reality and this multiplicity is a fundamental criterion to judge the quality of research within the realism paradigm (Healy and Perry, 2000). Triangulation attempts to explain more fully the richness and complexity of human behaviour using a variety of methods and sources of evidence, including, sometimes, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. It strengthens a study and contributes to verification and validation of analysis (Patton, 2002), by:

- checking out the consistency of findings generated by different data collection methods (methodological triangulation);
- checking out the consistency of different data sources within the same method (data triangulation).

As pointed by Patton (2002), a common misunderstanding about triangulation is that the purpose is to demonstrate result consistency: however, understanding inconsistencies can also be illuminative. Furthermore, the logic of triangulation is based on the premise that no single method ever adequately solves the problem of rival explanations. We used both types of triangulation in our research. Triangulation is a strategy for reducing systematic bias and distortion during data analysis. It increases the credibility and

quality of research by countering the concern that a study's findings are simply an artefact of a single method, a single source or a single investigator blinders. As far as it concerns the investigator triangulation (a third type of triangulation), we emphasize that, due to the rich empirical context in which we worked, the research benefited from an intensive and close interaction with a large and experienced evaluation team. Several researchers contributed with commentaries, made suggestions and reviewed our work at several stages: choosing the methods, building the data collection instruments and analysing and reporting the data.

In case studies, multiple perspectives are needed to look beyond the official version of reality (Patton, 2002). Multiple sources of information are sought and used because no single source of information can be trusted to provide a comprehensive perspective on reality. A participant's perception is not reality but a window to reality through which a picture of reality can be triangulated with other perceptions (Healy and Perry, 2000). In line with this, we have used a combination of observations, interviews and document analysis. Each of these has strengths and weaknesses therefore triangulation is needed to increase validity, as the strengths of one approach can compensate for the weaknesses of another approach (Marshall and Rossman, 1989; Gillham, 2000; Carson et al, 2001). Next, we explain each method, individually.

5.5.2. Observation

Naturalistic observations take place in the field. For evaluators, the field is the programme being studied. Many terms are used to refer to field-based observations including participant observation, fieldwork, qualitative observation, direct observation

and field research. All these terms refer to the circumstances of being in or around and on-going social setting for the purpose of making a qualitative analysis of that setting (Lofland and Lofland, 1995).

Observational research is appropriate to study whether the activities, processes and structures involved in the programme were implemented in accordance with a relational vision. Our field notes combined data from personal, eyewitness observation with information gained from informal, natural interviews with relevant actors of the programme. Observation helped us in several ways:

- to understand and capture the context within which people interact; understanding context is essential to the holistic perspective we are looking for;
- to gain an insider`s perspective and a firsthand experience with the setting;
- gave us the opportunity to see things that may routinely escape awareness among the people in the setting;
- gave us the chance to conduct informal interviews;
- allowed us to learn things that people would be unwilling to talk about in an interview;
- gave us the opportunity to move beyond the selective perception of others.

Observation is the systematic description of events and behaviours in their actual social setting. It is very powerful and facilitates the generation of “thick descriptions”. Despite these advantages, and particularly in evaluative observation, caution is needed: evaluative observation requires us to make an inference and a judgment from the behaviour, so it is very important to back up the judgements with evidence.

Observational methods vary in several ways (Patton, 2002). We will now discuss how those variations apply to our research.

5.5.2.1 Observer involvement

At one end of the continuum is the complete participant, moving to the participant as observer, thence to the observer as participant and finally to the complete observer. The mid points of this continuum strive to balance involvement with detachment, closeness with distance, familiarity and strangeness. The role of the complete observer is typified in the one-way mirror, the video cassette, the audio cassette and the photograph, whilst complete participation involves researchers taking on membership roles (overt or covert). A complete observer doesn't typically try to become a participant in the context, which constitutes a more detached attitude. These features contrast with the situation of ethnographic research strategy/method, where the researcher becomes totally immersed in the research context. The particular involvement in this research was *observer as participant*. This means the observer was not a complete onlooker and was not acting as a member, either. However, there were a few situations where the observer participated in "pair discussions" during a workshop session.

The challenge was to combine an *emic* with an *etic* approach, to balance participation and observation and being capable of understanding the setting as an insider while describing it to and for outsiders.

5.5.2.2 Overt versus covert observations

A traditional concern about the validity and reliability of observation data has been the effect of the observer on what is observed, as further discussed below (section 5.2.2.4). The question is how explicit to be about the purpose of the fieldwork. Our observation was overt but, as suggested in the literature (e.g. Patton, 2002), we have downplayed our evaluation role and described it as a “researcher interested in studying the programme”. The introduction at the launches and, again, at the workshops was as followed: *“My name is Susana and I am a Blueprint researcher. First of all I would like to tell you that I feel very pleased and privileged for being here with you this evening. I am a mother as well – I have two little girls – therefore this is being a great learning experience. In terms of the research, I am interested in what happens in workshops and launches. In order to do that, I have sit at some workshops at different schools. Similarly, I would like to sit in at some of the workshops here in -- school”*. Furthermore, confidentiality was discussed with parents. In the beginning of the fieldwork, a few workshop leaders did not accept very well the idea of being observed and expressed condescending attitudes towards parents. However, this resistance has been overcome.

5.5.2.3 The level of structure of the research instruments

The kind of observations available to the researcher lies on a continuum from unstructured to structured, responsive to pre-determinate (Cohen et al, 2000). In most of the cases, we have opted for semi-structured schedules. A semi-structured observation has an agenda of issues but will gather data to illuminate these issues in a far less pre-determined or systematic manner than in the case of highly structured observation. The

specificities of the different schedules used in the research are further explained below (section 5.6.1.).

A highly structured observation knows in advance what it is looking for (i.e. pre-ordinate observation) and has its observation categories worked out in advance. However, a problem with structured observations is the thirst to operationalize concepts and constructs can easily lead researchers to provide simple indicators of complex concepts. Further, it neglects the significance of contexts – temporal and spatial – thereby overlooking the fact that behaviours may be context specific and overlooking behaviours which may have significance. This contrasts with the unstructured observation, which is far less clear on what is looking for and will therefore have to go into a situation and observe what is taking place before deciding on its significance for the research.

We will now discuss the issues of reliability and validity in observational methods in the context of case-study and realism research.

5.5.2.4 Validity and reliability in observational methods

Trustworthiness, credibility, balance, diversity of voices, rather than objectivity and subjectivity, are more appropriate terms for qualitative data (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Patton 2002). Within realism paradigm, the discussion about validity and reliability of observational data is relevant but there are more specific criteria that can be used to judge the quality of research (Healy and Perry, 2000). These will now be examined and compared to the traditional criteria.

Trochim (1999) states that validity is the best available approximation to the truth of a given proposition, inference or conclusion. Establishing validity necessitates demonstration that the propositions generated match the causal conditions that exist in human life. There are two types of validity: internal and external. They can be described as it follows:

- internal validity: do researchers actually observe or measure what they think they are observing and measuring?
- external validity: are the results applicable across groups?

The claim of observation to high internal validity derives from data collection and analysis techniques: deep and rich, natural settings; and analysis incorporates reflexivity and self-monitoring. However, within realism, internal validity matters and a way of enhancing it is using triangulation. Healy and Perry (2000) propose the alternative criteria of *contingent validity* to judge qualitative research within realism paradigm. This concept refers to the fundamental principle of covering several contingent contexts and different participants which, again, demands the use of triangulation and its principle of multiple perceptions. This was applied in our research.

In what concerns external validity (generalizability), it can be described as the extent to which the study's findings would also be true for other people, in other places, and at other times (Trochim, 1999). In observational research, it is a fact that findings may only reflect a unique population. However, because the purpose of a case study is to theoretically generalize its findings rather than generalizing to a population, the concept of external validity doesn't really apply. Instead, the criteria of *analytic generalization*

is more appropriate, as already noted above in section 5.2 (Yin, 2003; Healy and Perry, 2000).

Reliability refers to the extent to which observations can be replicated. Reliability is based on two assumptions: the first is that the study can be repeated; the second is that two or more people can have similar interpretations. Limitations of observations include the possibility that the observer may affect the situation being observed in unknown ways; programme staff and participants may behave in some atypical fashion when they know they are being observed; and the selective perception of the observer may distort the data (Patton, 2002). As explained by Fassin (1982), in observation behaviour the human being is an important component of the representational mechanism. If one always needs a representational mechanism to mediate reality it follows that the representation is at least partly dependent on the representational mechanism. Perception, which plays a decisive role in the observation of behaviour, is one such mediation process. Therefore, he argues, there is the possibility that errors may occur in the mediation process and that the resulting representation is false. These issues affect the reliability of observational data.

Kirk and Miller (cit by Stafford and Stafford, 1993) see objectivity (as portioned into its component attributes of reliability and validity) as the essential basis of all good science, be it quantitative or qualitative. Their argument is that without objectivity, the only basis for accepting research findings would be on the authority of the individual author of the research. This contrasts with the view of constructivists who favour richness at the expense of reliability (Desphande, 1983) and who tend to see reliability as a fit between what it is recorded as data and what actually occurs in the setting

understudy, rather than the literal consistency across different observations. Within realism research, reliability matters (Patton, 2002). When there is only one observer in the field, as it is the case of this study, it is not possible to correlate results from different observers, which can undermine reliability. Therefore, we have used triangulation to avoid over - idiosyncratic data and to increase reliability. Healy and Perry (2000) propose the alternative concept of *methodological trustworthiness*, which is broader than the positivism's reliability criteria and similar to the constructivism's concept of dependability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). This is achieved by, for example, describing data collection and data analysis procedures and by using relevant quotations and matrices that summarize data, like we do in chapter six, on findings.

Further limitations are that observations are often constrained by the limited sample of activities actually observed and focused only on external behaviours – the observer can not see what is happening inside people. To overcome this and the other limitations of observation analysed above, we have complemented observation with interviews.

5.5.3. Interviews

We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe. (Patton, 2002). The issue is not whether observational data are more desirable, valid or meaningful than self-report data. The fact is that we cannot observe everything. We cannot observe behaviours that took place at some previous point in time. We cannot observe situations that preclude the presence of an observer. We cannot observe how people have organized the world and the meanings they attach to what goes on the world. We have to ask people about those things.

As explained by Patton (2003), the purpose of interviewing is to allow us enter into the other person's perspective. Qualitative interviewing begins with the assumption that the perspective of the others is meaningful, knowable and able to be made explicit. We interview people to gather their stories. As put by Kvale (1996), at the most basic level interviews are conversations. He defines qualitative research interviews as attempts to understand the world from the subjects' point of view, to unfold the meaning of peoples' experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations. This openness contrasts with closed questionnaires used in quantitative studies.

Kvale (1996) emphasizes the difference between interviews for research or evaluation purposes and other kinds of interviews. While interviews for research or evaluation purposes may also promote understanding and change, the emphasis is on intellectual understanding rather than on producing personal change (Kvale, 1996). In qualitative programme evaluation, open-ended responses to questions provide the evaluator with quotations, which are the main source of raw data. The task for the qualitative evaluator is to provide a framework within which people can respond in a way that represents accurately and thoroughly their point of view about the programme (Patton, 1987).

In-depth interviewing is a type of interview that researchers use to elicit information in order to achieve a holistic understanding of the interviewee's point of view or situation; it can also be used to explore interesting areas for further investigation. This type of interview involves asking informants open-ended questions, and probing wherever necessary to obtain data deemed useful by the researcher. As in-depth interviewing often involves qualitative data, it is also called qualitative interviewing.

Patton (1987) suggests three basic approaches to conducting qualitative interviewing. We have opted for using guided interviews/semi-structured interviews in most cases: we prepared a guide with a group of relevant topics to be covered but at the same time we remained open to discover and identify emergent issues. These are further explained on section 5.6.2. We now discuss and compare the three possible types of interview.

The informal conversational interview

The informal conversational interview resembles a chat, during which the informants may sometimes forget that they are being interviewed. Most of the questions asked will flow from the immediate context. Informal conversational interviews are useful for exploring interesting topics for investigation and are typical of ‘ongoing’ participant observation fieldwork.

The general interview guide approach (commonly called guided interview)

When employing this approach for interviewing, a basic checklist is prepared to make sure that all relevant topics are covered. The interviewer is still free to explore, probe and ask questions deemed interesting to the researcher. This type of interview approach is useful for eliciting information about specific topics. As Wenden (1982) explains, the general interview guide approach is useful as it “allows for in-depth probing while permitting the interviewer to keep the interview within the parameters traced out by the aim of the study.” Topics and issues to be covered are specified in advance in outline form; interviewer decides sequence and wording of questions in the course of the interview. This guided interview corresponds to what many identify as semi-structured interviews (e.g. Bogdan and Bikley, 1998). Its strengths are the following:

- the outline increases the comprehensiveness of the data and makes data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent;
- logical gaps in data can be anticipated and closed;
- interviews remain fairly conversational and situational.

Guided interviews also have some weaknesses: important and salient topics may be inadvertently omitted. Furthermore, interviewer flexibility in sequencing and wording questions can result in substantially different responses from different perspectives, thus reducing the comparability of responses.

The standardised open-ended interview

Researchers using this approach prepare a set of open-ended questions which are carefully worded and arranged for the purpose of minimising variation in the questions posed to the interviewees. In view of this, this method is often preferred for collecting interviewing data when two or more researchers are involved in the data collecting process. Although this method provides less flexibility for questions than the two mentioned previously, probing is still possible, depending on the nature of the interview and the skills of the interviewers (Patton, 1987).

While the three strategies vary in the extent to which the wording and sequencing of questions are predetermined, no variation exists in the principle that the response format should be open ended. The purpose of qualitative interviewing is to capture how those being interviewed view their world, to learn their terminology and judgements, and to capture the complexities of their individual perceptions and experiences (Patton, 2002).

As far as it concerns interview data limitations, these include possible distorted responses due to personal bias, anger, anxiety, politics and simple lack of awareness since interviews can be greatly affected by the emotional state of the interviewee at the time of the interview. Interview data are also subject to recall error, reactivity of the interviewee to the interviewer and self-serving responses (Patton, 2002). Because of these limitations, we have crossed interviews with observation and document analysis.

5.5.4. Document analysis

Documents provide a behind the scenes look at the programme that might not be directly observable and about which the interviewer might not ask appropriate questions without the leads provided by the documents (Patton, 2002). However, documents and records also have limitations because they may be incomplete or inaccurate.

In our research, document analysis played a very important role in several ways: the documents provided us the “big picture” of the parent programme; they provided us key leads which helped us design the data collection instruments; they were used to triangulate data analysis and they were critical in helping us understanding and contextualizing important findings.

The main documents analysed were:

- Materials targeted at parents;
- Home Office Document with the Requirements Specification (for a potential contractor);
- Parent Trust Proposal/Plan;

- Workshop Leaders Training Manuals;
- Launch invitation;
- Regular Reports from Parents Trust;
- UCLAN' s report;
- Meetings minutes (from meetings between the Home Office and Parent Trust).

After having explained the choice of methods we will now explain the choice and design of the specific data collection instruments.

5.6. DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

The access and examination of relevant documents helped us designing the data collection instruments. Moreover, several researchers from the BP evaluation team contributed with very useful commentaries and suggestions. The first and pilot wave of parent launches and workshops delivery, in Spring 2004, in four schools, provided an opportunity to develop and pre-test some of the evaluation tools. Parent launches were observed and discussions held with some workshop leaders and the Parent Trust Coordinator, to guide this process. It was not possible to formally pre-test all data collection instruments, namely the observation schedule for the community consultant training session and the interview guides concerning Porter Novelli and community consultant interviews. To compensate this weakness, these instruments were intensively discussed and revised by several BP researchers. As a result, several instruments were developed as summarized in the following table (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1. Data Collection instruments

Observation Schedules	7 observation schedules: <ul style="list-style-type: none">- information sessions- launch: original and revised format- workshops: first, mid and last sessions- community consultant training session
Interview Guides	5 interview guides: <ul style="list-style-type: none">- workshop leaders- Parent Trust Coordinator- Porter Novelli media worker- parents- community consultant

We will now briefly describe each of the data collection instruments used in our research (for details see appendixes A-L, which contain the twelve research instruments applied).

5.6.1. Observation Schedules

A set of observation schedules was developed. The objectives of the schedules were to examine how the information sessions, launches, workshops and the community consultant training were delivered to parents, whether opportunities to create value were explored, whether opportunities to create value were missed and how parents responded and experienced them. The schedules differed to reflect the different nature and format of the four types of activities. The community consultant training session corresponded to around five hours of observation. As far as it concerns the information sessions, launches and workshops, single two-hour sessions, in different locations, were observed from March 2004 to February 2005.

Information sessions

Because the anticipated format of the information sessions was likely to be relatively unstructured and flexible, a largely open-ended schedule was designed for documenting these sessions. It covered the following issues: key messages about Blueprint; key messages about the parent component and links to the launches and workshops (appendix A).

Launch

The checklist that guided the observation of the original-format launch covered the following main issues:

- how the launch is introduced;
- key messages about Blueprint;
- key messages about the parent component of Blueprint and link to BP parent materials;
- links to the workshops;
- activities: type of activities, whether parents understand the activities; whether they participate and engage with other parents and the workshop leaders;
- whether parents seem to have enjoyed the launch.

The launch schedule had to be altered when the launch format was changed after the first pilot launches. The revised schedule was more structured to reflect the fairly standardised format of the launch events. Besides the issues included in the above

described checklist, the schedule also covered a sequence of key messages concerning the drug-specific content of the revised launch (appendixes B and C).

Workshops

Three schedules were developed to be applied in three types of workshops: first, mid and final workshop (appendixes D, E and F). The workshop schedule included both structured and open-ended elements, to reflect the intended format of the workshops: workshop leaders drew from the same set of materials and activities but were also encouraged to pick and mix from these according to the perceived needs of each group of parents. The schedules covered the following issues:

- introduction to the workshop;
- whether workshop leaders made parents aware of the BP parent materials;
- activities: content, methods and materials; whether parents understood and enjoyed the activities;
- feed-back and summing up the session.

The first workshop schedule's specificities were the following:

- introduction to the course;
- key messages about Blueprint and the parent component;
- links to the school component and parents' materials. The final workshop schedule's specificities were as listed below:
- summarizing what has been covered;
- feed-back on parents about the course and their learning;

- progression routes.

The more “structured” parts of the schedules were heavily drawn from the training guides and from the workshop leaders training manual which provide explicit orientations about delivery (content, methods, activities, style and tone and key procedures).

Community consultants training session

The schedule for the observation of the community consultant training session was relatively unstructured (appendix G) and covered the following issues:

- introduction and learning objectives;
- content and activities;
- key messages;
- contextualization of CC’ s role.

5.6.2. Qualitative Interview Guide

The interviews were conducted between November 2004 and February 2005. Except for one interview with a parent, all interviews were tape-recorded with the explicit consent of the interviewees.

Parents

A qualitative interview guide was developed to inform interviews with parents who had attended launches and workshops (appendix H). Interviews focused on the experience of their participation in the launches and workshops. We have also interviewed the only community consultant recruited by Parent Trust. This interview was much more focused on recruitment. The interviews were conducted in places and time convenient for parents and lasted between an hour and an hour and a half. The parents' interview guide included parents' perceptions about several issues:

- motivations to get involved;
- opinions about the information sessions, launches and workshops;
- engagement and relationships with other participants and workshop leaders,
- trust, commitment, satisfaction, identification, perceived value and cooperation;
- gains from the workshops.

Community Consultant

The interview was conducted in places and time convenient for the community consultant and lasted about an hour. The community consultant interview guide included the following issues (appendix I):

- motivation to become a CC;
- opinions about the training;
- describing CC's role;
- main opportunities and challenges in recruitment.

Workshop leaders

The focus of the interviews with workshop leaders was on examining workshop leaders' perceptions of the delivery of launches and workshops (appendix J). The interviews were conducted in places and times convenient for them and lasted about an hour and a half. The interview with one workshop leader took about two hours as there were, apart from delivery, recruitment issues to be covered. This workshop leader was highly involved in recruitment in BME schools. The interviews were carried out using a topic guide which covered the following areas:

- their understanding of the programme;
- their training;
- recruitment methods;
- opinions about the launches;
- delivery of workshops: challenges and opportunities;
- interaction and relationships with parents;
- benefits for parents;
- strengths and weaknesses of Blueprint;
- suggestions for future programmes.

Parent Trust Coordinator

The objective of the interview with the project manager was to examine perceptions about the recruitment process (appendix K). Two interviews were conducted with the project manager and they lasted around two hours each. The interviews were conducted

at times and places convenient for the project manager and were carried out using a topic guide which covered the following areas:

- recruitment strategy and methods;
- key resources;
- relationships with potential partners;
- main difficulties with recruitment;
- strengths and weaknesses of Blueprint;
- key lessons and suggestions for future programmes.

Porter and Novelli media worker

The broad objective of the media component of Blueprint was to raise awareness and to motivate and encourage pupils, teachers, parents and drug professionals to actively participate in Blueprint (appendix L). The focus of the interview was on examining the role of media in engaging parents in the programme. The interview took around an hour and a half, at a time and place convenient for the interviewee. The interview was carried out using a topic guide which covered issues like the strategy used, key messages, main opportunities and challenges.

In the next section we will explain the sampling strategy used for observations and interviews.

5.7. SAMPLING

We have designed a single and holistic case which means that the parent programme is our unit of analysis. This also means that we didn't select embedded units of analysis. However, we did sample the information sessions, launches and workshops to be observed and the parents to be interviewed.

As already mentioned, following the pilot delivery phase, the Parent Trust made substantial revisions to the delivery timetable for the remaining parent launches and workshops. A second pilot over the summer, in another four schools, was proposed, following which there would be two larger delivery blocks comprising ten schools in autumn and five schools in winter. The winter delivery wave would include the three Blueprint schools with high proportions of black and minority ethnic (BME) parents. The initial samples and fieldwork timetables for the case study observations and parent interviews were revised in light of this changed delivery timetable.

Our sampling strategy for observations and interviews had to be articulated with the sampling strategies used by the Blueprint research team in the context of their multiple evaluation exercises. To avoid an overburden of research, strategies were negotiated and streamlined.

5.7.1. Observations sample

We used a maximum variation (heterogeneity) sampling strategy which aims at capturing and describing the central themes that cut across a great deal of variation (Patton, 2002).

The original observation sample comprised 8 launch observations and 27 workshop session observations, distributed across 10 schools. The sample selection criteria were:

- to ensure representation of the 3 LEAs;
- to include schools with different socio- economic characteristics;
- to include one school with a high BME population;
- to include sessions from the 4 delivery stages (Summer, Autumn, Winter 2004; Spring 2005);
- to ensure a diversity of workshop leaders;
- to ensure a diversity of workshops themes;
- to include first, mid and final sessions.

Due to problems with the parents' recruitment, and the significant decrease of the number of workshops delivered by the Parent Trust, the achieved observation sample of launches and workshops was lower than planned: 6 launches and 12 workshop sessions, distributed across 7 schools. Despite the lower than planned sample size, all the sample selection criteria were met with the exception that it was not possible to observe a session during the Summer 2004 delivery stage. This was because the workshops were cancelled in the one school available for observations (the other three schools acting as a sample frame for other Blueprint evaluation exercises with Parents). Three additional observations were conducted: two BME parents information sessions, and a community consultants' training session. The achieved observations are presented below, in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2. Achieved parent delivery observations

Launches	6 different schools	6
Workshops	7 different schools 8 different workshops Leaders 12 sessions	12
Information Sessions	2 sessions	2
Community Consultant Training	1 session	1
	Total	21

Two information sessions (out of the nine sessions delivered) were observed. Six launches events (out of the 23 launches delivered, which corresponds to 24%) were observed. One of those six launches followed the original format, whereas the other five followed the revised format (stronger emphasis on drugs awareness content) (Table 5.3). The original format launch was largely run by Parent Trust staff, while the revised format was introduced and closed by Parent Trust staff, with the remainder of the session being led by a drugs expert.

Table 5.3. Launch observation sample

Schools	Format
School 3	Original format
School 8	Revised format
School 10	Revised format
School 11	Revised format
School 13	Revised format
School 18	Revised format

Twelve workshop sessions were observed. This represents 21 % of the total number of sessions delivered (58 sessions). The sample covered a range of schools, six different workshop sessions/themes, a mix of first, mid and final sessions, eight different workshop leaders (on two occasions, however, leaders worked in pairs). The table below (Table 5.4.) lists the characteristics of the observed workshops and the number and characteristics of the participants.

Table 5.4. Characteristics of observed workshops

Workshop leader	Schools	Workshop session title	Workshop session number (out of 6 or 3)	Number and characteristics of participants
A + B	School 2	Setting Boundaries	5	3 women
A + B	School 2	Setting Boundaries	5	5 women
C	School 3	Stress and the secondary school pupil	4	4 (1 man+3women)
C	School 3	Setting boundaries	5	2 (1man+1woman)
D	School 1	Setting boundaries	5	4 (1man+3women)
D	School 10	Listening	1	6 (1man+5women)
D	School 10	Bullying	2	5 (1man+4women)
D	School 10	Taking care of yourselves	3 and final	4 (1man+3women)
E	Schools 13 + 14 combined	No title	1	1 woman
F	School 17	Listening	1	7 women
F	School 17	Bullying + sex education	3 and final	3 women
G + H	School 22	Drugs	3 and final	4 women

Note: The first 5 observed workshops were delivered when it was intended that six workshops in a series would be run; the remaining observed workshops were delivered after it had been decided that only three workshops would be offered to each group.

5.7.2. Interviews sample

In total, 14 interviews were conducted. We interviewed parents, workshop leaders, the Parent Trust Coordinator and a media worker from Porter Novelli (the media Contractor).

5.7.2.1 Parents sample

The original interview sample comprised between 10 and 12 parents, to be selected according to the following criteria:

- Attendance at the launch and between 4-6 workshop sessions.
- Attendance at the observed sessions.
- Personal characteristics: gender; one vs. two parent family; number and age of children in the household.

It was also planned that one quarter of the interviews would be with parents who were also Community Consultants. The number of schools from which parents were to be recruited was limited by the need to reserve certain schools to act as the sampling frame for the other Blueprint evaluation exercises.

The achieved parent sample did not include any men (very few men attended the sessions). As only one community consultant was active in the programme it was not possible to interview any more than one. However, all the interviewed parents had a moderated or high level of engagement, attending more than 50% of the sessions (information session, launch and workshops).

5.7.2.2 Other interviews sample

Three interviews were conducted with workshop leaders, two interviews with Parent Trust Coordinator and one interview with CPN media worker. With regard to workshop leaders, we interviewed those that we have also observed in order to maximize the benefits of triangulation. Concerning the Parent Trust Coordinator and the media worker, they were chosen through the *key informant sampling strategy* (Miles and Huberman, 1994). These two interviewees were especially knowledgeable persons that gave us rich and valuable information. In particular, the interviews conducted with the Parent Trust Coordinator provided us the fundamental sense of the whole and context, so important in case-studies. The achieved interview sample is outlined below (Table 5.5.).

Table 5.5. Achieved interviews sample

Parents	Workshop leaders	Parent Trust Coordinator	CPN media worker	Total
8*	3	2	1	14

** including one community consultant*

Ideally, it would have been relevant to interview a sample of school representatives involved in Blueprint and, also, a sample of school drug advisors as these would have allowed data source triangulation, in particular with the data gathered through interviews with the Parent Trust Coordinator. However, this was not possible because schools and schools drug advisors were involved in an over-load of work related with the delivery of BP and they were also involved in other evaluation exercises. To

compensate this weakness, secondary data, gathered by the BP evaluation team, was used in the analysis.

Data analysis procedures will be explained next.

5.8. DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

The case data consists of all the information we collected: interview data, observations data and documentary data, impressions and statements obtained through informal interviews and contextual information, including secondary data from the Blueprint evaluation exercise.

We have employed content analysis to reduce and make sense of the data and to identify core consistencies and meanings (Patton, 2002). These meanings correspond to patterns or themes and to identify them we went through a previous process of manual coding. This coding – data labelling process - started prior to the fieldwork but remained opened to redefinition grounded on more empirically driven-labels (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

We have used a combination of inductive and deductive research. Instead of entering the field with a “completely blank slate”, we have used the literature derived concepts to sensitize us throughout the research while remaining opened to discovering concepts and hypotheses not accounted for in the original formulations (Patton, 2002). A sensitizing concept is a starting point in thinking about the class of data of which the social researcher has no definite idea (van den Hoonaard, 1997). From the literature, we

have identified the key principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing that are transferable to social marketing (chapter one); we then characterized the context for transference and explained the challenges and implications of that transference (chapter two). The literature derived concepts helped us organizing and analysing the data.

5.9. SUMMARY

This chapter explained the choice of a case-study design and how it was conducted, including the triangulation logic, methods, data collection instruments, sampling and data analysis procedures. In the next chapter we will analyse and present the research findings.

6. FINDINGS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The case study evaluation examined the extent to which the Blueprint parent programme applied the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing and how that affected the programme. The analysis is structured around relational principles, processes and constructs that together, as a whole, explain how the programme worked and its dominant logic. The analysis follows the logic of explanation building, stipulating a presumed set of causal mechanisms (Yin, 2003). That process of explanation building is grounded on the strength of triangulation, as explained in the previous chapter.

We start with an analysis of the principles, we then analyse the key processes and after that we examine the key constructs. Finally, we summarize the main strengths and weaknesses of the programme and build an explanatory framework to explain how those principles, processes and constructs affected the programme` s assumptions, design and implementation.

The structure of analysis is as following:

6.2. THE RELATIONSHIP MARKETING PRINCIPLES

- 6.2.1. Approach to consumers: persuading versus working with customers
- 6.2.2. Product versus service-dominant logic
- 6.2.3. Functionalistic versus process management perspective
- 6.2.4. Partnerships versus adversarial relationships
- 6.2.5. A summary

6.3. THE RELATIONSHIP MARKETING PROCESSES

6.3.1. The communication Process

6.3.2. The dialogue process

6.3.3. The interaction and value processes

6.3.3.1. Delivery of information sessions

a) Exploring opportunities to create value

b) Value experienced

c) Missing opportunities to create value

6.3.3.2. Delivery of launches

a) Exploring opportunities to create value

b) Value experienced

c) Missing opportunities to create value

6.3.3.3. Delivery of workshops

a) Exploring opportunities to create value

b) Value experienced

c) Missing opportunities to create value

6.3.4. A summary

6.4. KEY RELATIONAL CONSTRUCTS

6.4.1. Trust

6.4.2. Commitment

6.4.3. Satisfaction

6.4.4. Identification

6.4.5. Perceived value

6.4.5. Cooperation

6.4.6. A summary

6.5. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF THE PROGRAMME

6.5.1. Main strengths

6.5.2. Main weaknesses

6.6. CONTEXTUAL FACTORS

6.6.1. The broader context

6.6.2. Specific contextual factors

6.7. AN EXPLANATORY FRAMEWORK

We start with an examination of the programme's approach and main assumptions.

6.2. THE RELATIONSHIP MARKETING PRINCIPLES

6.2.1. Approach to consumers: persuading versus working with customers

Building from Velleman et al (2000), the Home Office (HO) explicitly included in their "*Specification of requirements*" document a rationale for the parental component of Blueprint. The lack of perceived need and confusion of wants and needs were listed in that document as obstacles to engagement. However, one of the key issues addressed by Velleman et al (2000) - the need to do an effective needs assessment - was not included in the *Specification*.

The Home Office designed and proposed the "launch and workshops" format and the Parent Trust (PT, the Parent contractor) designed their specific contents. However, evidence and assumptions behind the HO's decision on that concept were not made clear. Parent Trust positioned itself as "experts and experienced" in the area of adult and parenting education, assuming that the workshops would appeal to Blueprint parents because the approach had worked in the past. Blueprint didn't conduct any prior research with parents to understand how they perceive their role as parents, how they perceive the extent of their influence, their feelings about participating in such

programmes, their reaction to the concept of parent workshops, what barriers exist to attendance and what would motivate them to attend. Needs and values were not assessed which indicates that, rather than being regarded as partners, parents were regarded as being in need of persuasion.

Apart from the launch and workshops format no other formats or models for delivering skills development were provided. Parents were targeted in only one way. However, secondary data from a Qualitative Research Exercise with parents suggests that the launch and workshops were not suitable for everyone. Many parents reported that they did not enjoy working in groups and they felt some discomfort about having to participate in role-playing and to socialise with other parents. These findings suggest that there might have been some resentment of the implication that parents were in need of help with parenting.

In our interviews with workshop leaders, they commented that parents may have feared that the workshops would be judgemental. It was also felt that the concept of workshops may have been perceived by parents as somewhat threatening.

“So I think parents are scared, they are scared of being exposed, scared of having to accept that they are not good enough parents.”

(Workshop Leader)

“People might think it might be judgemental, even though they don’t know what it is going to be. Or may be they are frightened of being in a group, they can’t envisage what it will be like. Perhaps their experiences were bad at

school. And for some people, to sit in a group it is very scary.”

(Workshop Leader)

The Home Office and the Parent trust did not anticipate this could happen which suggests an over-reliance on their expertise and experience. Contrarily to the positive estimations of the Parent Trust, attendance at launches and workshops was extremely poor (6% and 4% of the parents invited, respectively).

Despite these problems, a positive aspect that needs to be acknowledged it is the concern of the programme with diversity issues. This concern led to the decision of designing and implementing a specific recruitment and delivery strategy with black and minority ethnic (BME) parents. Following the advise of The University of Central Lancashire (UCLAN) Centre for Ethnicity and Health (CEH), additional information sessions were designed specifically to BME parents and offered, prior to the launch, in order to generate interest in the launch and subsequent workshops However, again, the model of delivery was not discussed or pre-tested with parents.

6.2.2. Product versus service-dominant logic

In Blueprint the launch and workshops were seen as the dominant element of the offering. As a result, the management of relevant resources like time, people and knowledge were not seen as a priority.

The fact that the parent component started later than other parts of Blueprint resulted in a compressed timetable for its delivery. This delay did not allow enough time to assess needs and to conduct research to pre-test the concept of the launch and workshops, as

noted above. Furthermore, it also limited the period of time to groundwork and networking with schools and local agencies. The assessment of needs is a process that involves time and engagement from skilled project workers, however, in Blueprint recruitment was largely carried out by the Parent Trust Coordinator (PCT) who was appointed in March 2004, for twelve months. The Parent Trust Coordinator perceived groundwork as a time-consuming and demanding task. She felt she should have been in post several months earlier which would have allowed her sufficient time to map existing opportunities, agencies and networks in each community.

“If I had been in post twelve months earlier I could have worked much more closely with these local groups, because to engage a lot of these parents is a much more long term, it is building up confidence and I feel that we didn’t have sufficient time to do that.”

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

There would have been an opportunity to learn from local agencies’ experience, explore alternative routes of communication with parents and become less dependent on schools.

“So I think the project and the parenting is good. I think where we perhaps went wrong was that I was employed too late and a lot more on the ground work needed to be done. I don’t think relying on the schools was the right way to approach the parents.”

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

It was felt that Blueprint lacked knowledge about the communities and that the parent component had not evolved from an examination of needs in each community.

“Blueprint came top down instead of bottom up and that is different from the way we [referring to another organisation which the interviewee works for] normally work. Normally we work with the grass root groups, get the information first in order to decipher what the needs are but that is not what happened with Blueprint. There were gaps. Major gaps.”

(Workshop Leader)

Further, it was felt that rather than suiting the needs of parents and schools, the recruitment process had largely been arranged to suit Parent Trust and Blueprint.

“What it might have been nice to do was start earlier and say ‘when is there a parents evening?’ ‘Can we tie it in with the parent’s evening or so much after the parents evening?’ ‘Is there a community day at the school?’. What we should have done is not what we did with the launches, where we looked at when the providers if you will, we looked at when staff was available, we looked at when the venues were available - we did it from us, as a provider, whether we were free - that’s when they could have it. Perhaps we should have looked at them and thought when is best for them and then we have to fit in with them.”

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

It is important to note that despite those limitations in time, human resources and level of knowledge, changes were made in the programme in order to better engage parents. A number of revisions were made to the recruitment process, the launch content and, later on, to the workshop series format.

Change in the launch content

There was a feeling that parents were disappointed by the lack of explicit drugs content at the launch. Furthermore, the more subtle message that in fact parenting skills and communication are linked to drug education, because they are a protective factor against drug use, seemed not to be getting across at the launches. The launch format was therefore changed to include a formal drugs awareness element, delivered by a drug expert, and a more explicit explanation on good parent-child communications as a protective factor.

The recruitment process

The recruitment methods were intensified. In addition to the letters, phone calls should be used whenever possible to recruit parents for the launches. Furthermore, greater effort was put into raising general community awareness of Blueprint and networking with existing community groups. Publicity work by Porter Novelli - the Media Contractor - put a stronger emphasis on information about the parent component and the benefits parents could get from the workshops.

Number of workshops

It was decided to reduce the number of workshops offered to parents from six to three, with parents being given the choice of which three they would prefer. The rationale was that it would be easier for parents to commit to three instead of six sessions. Furthermore, it was felt that the possibility of choice would make parents feel more involved and listened to.

All these changes were done to improve the offering and better respond to parents' needs. However, these changes did not result in a greater investment in strategic resources. For example, despite the fact a greater effort was put on networking with local agencies and community groups, in practice this didn't result in the allocation of project workers to the job; the Parent Trust Coordinator continued to work by herself.

In section about dialogue (6.3.2), the resources issue is further analysed.

6.2.3. Functionalistic versus Process management perspective

The Home Office emphasized the need for collaboration between the different parts and programme components in order to avoid a functionalistic management of Blueprint. However, there were major gaps between the Home Office requirements and the Parent Trust proposal.

The Home Office's specification made explicit the following delivery link: launch and workshops - BP parent materials - school component (lessons for children). It was clearly explained how it was intended that the launch and workshops would contribute to the overall parent component aims and to the school component. It was specified that the work with parents should complement the school curriculum and include the use of BP parent materials. Doing that, the Home Office not only explained what the deliverers should do but also why.

“The objective of the work is to increase the communication skills of parents in discussing drug issues with their children, including the use of BP programme

materials and other opportunities as catalysts to communication.”

“(…) The work is to be delivered to complement the Blueprint school curriculum. This component is also supported by a provision of a parent fact file to convey information on drug use and talking to teenagers.”

(Home Office specification document)

The HO also made it clear that any additional material to be produced by the workshops provider had to be consistent with the parents’ materials, developed by *Dixon Collier Consultancies Limited (DCCL)*, the School Contractor.

“Dixon Collier Consultancies Limited (DCCL) are required to produce a parent fact pack for year 7 and 8. Any proposals for the parent workshop provider to produce supporting materials must be consistent with the work of DCCL and avoid the risk of parents being targeted with excessive information. However, the contractor will be responsible for the production of a training manual for use with facilitators who deliver the parent components. The aim of this pack will be to familiarise facilitators with:

- the details of the overall BP programme and*
- the specific components and methods of delivery of the parent workshops.”*

(Home Office specification document)

Concerning the training of the workshop deliverers, the HO' s specification also emphasized the critical role of training for implementation and, again, its link to the other elements of the parent component and to the school-component of BP.

“The training element of the BP parent programme is seen as vital to its effective implementation (...). The provider is also required to provide opportunities for the training facilitators to engage with:

- the writers of parent components to enhance shared understanding of the training materials;*
- each other to ensure consistency, coherence and provide feedback;*
- trainers and other personnel who have the responsibility for the delivery and co-ordination of the school-based programme.”*

(Home Office specification document)

However, and despite the explicit specifications formulated by the HO, the Parent Trust' s proposal had major gaps. It did not make explicit how the workshops and launches would link to BP parent materials and to the school component. Furthermore, contrarily to what had been emphasized by the HO, the facilitators' need to engage with the writers of parent component - e.g. BP parent materials - and with the deliverers and coordinators of the school component, was not explicitly addressed in the proposal.

Previous research into protective factors against involvement in drug use underpinned the HO' s decision to make the Blueprint Parent Component workshops broadly focused on generic parenting skills and parent-child communication rather than on drug-specific content. In line with this, PT proposed that drug specific content would be integrated

into some of the workshop sessions but once more, no explicit links to the BP parent materials were made.

“Where it lends itself drugs related themes will be used as illustrative materials in the workshops. For example, in the session of communication, parents have an opportunity to practice listening to the extent of knowledge and the fears or concerns of their child and of explaining their own concerns without seeming blaming or suspicious; it also constitutes a useful contribution to developing parent skills and attitudes.”

(Parent Trust proposal)

One of the issues that seemed to have contributed to a functionalistic management of the programme was the delivering timings and the low synchronicity between the school and the parent component. The Parent Component events only began to be offered in Spring 2004 (around the middle to the end of the Year 7 lesson delivery period), to avoid that schools would feel over-burdened by the introduction of too many components at the same time. This delayed start to the parent component of Blueprint meant that in the majority of schools there was not synchronicity with the Year 7 lessons in the classrooms.

“The parenting sessions should start when the children start, not at the end of it. It is difficult to try and work at something at the end.”

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

“The kids as you know do a presentation, a sort of role play at the school, it might have been an idea to try and somehow do the parents bit at the same time as the kids’

presentation or change the launch so that the kids did the presentation at the launch, because parents will often attend if the kids are doing something, to watch the kids perform. And change the launch so they come to watch the kids, then you have the launch ...that is the sort of thing that could be looked at. Interestingly enough the best attendances were generally earlier on. Now could it be that that was more when it was how shall we put it? Simultaneous with what the kids were doing at school? Could it be that it was earlier, that at the beginning of the year the parents were more interested, whereas as it has gone on it has lost its impetus, it is like parents evening they might be full in September but not in May - I really don't know."

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

This issue of functionalistic versus process management is further analysed in section on delivery of workshops and missed opportunities to create value (5.3.3.3. c)).

6.2.4. Partnerships versus adversarial relationships

In this section we will analyse the relationships between Parent Trust and different potential partners: schools, schools drug advisors, local agencies, University of Central Lancashire (UCLAN) and Porter Novelli (Media Contractor).

Relationship with schools

The Parent Trust explicitly stated in their proposal that the project manager would build a positive relationship with each of the schools – the head teacher, secretaries, home-

school liaison worker and PSHE teachers. However, the nature of the relationship and the way that relationship would be built were not explained by the Parent Trust.

The Home Office provided the Parent Contractor with a list of all Blueprint schools and school Blueprint Coordinators. Parent Trust staff (primarily the Parent Trust Coordinator) phoned or emailed every school to explain about the forthcoming activities and to request information or advice about the number of pupils involved in Blueprint, possible venues for the launches, the name of the Chair of governors and possible ways of contacting parents.

Parent Trust perceived that schools had varied in the extent to which they co-operated with them to support recruitment. For example, several schools sent additional letters or wrote articles in school newsletters encouraging parents to attend.

“[School] did more than anybody. I attended two parents evenings at [school], the school put it in a newsletter, the tutor sent a letter in addition to the newsletter, it was mentioned in assembly. I know that school went out of the way to publicise it, and were incredibly disappointed with 24 attendees.”

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

Although some schools clearly did help with recruitment, Parent Trust felt that other schools were not fully committed to the parent component of Blueprint and did not treat it as a priority. At many of the launches there was no school representation.

“The assumptions were that the schools would be very supportive. In actual fact as you can see from the questionnaires a lot of the schools merely paid lip service to the parental part. You will notice that at many of them we had no school representation at the launches. Some of the schools gave us addresses but only begrudgingly. Some gave us telephone numbers but again begrudgingly and the impression I got overall despite lots of diplomatic hard work was that really the schools were interested in their part and not that interested in the parents. I did actually feel that it was constantly me badgering the schools.”

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

It should be noted that there was some lack of clarity regarding the degree to which schools were expected to help. The Parent Trust perceived that they had themselves received somewhat contradictory messages. On the one hand, they were told to use schools as their main communication channel for contacting parents but, on the other, they were asked not to put pressure on schools as they were being inundated with demands for Blueprint information and help. This made the Parent Trust feel that their “*hands were tied*”: they had to rely on schools as their main recruitment channel but could not expect too much of them.

“I think at the beginning the expectations were possibly that the schools would be a lot more accessible and they would have had a lot more to do with the schools early on, but again the Home Office did at one time say to the Parent Trust, don’t contact the schools because they’re being inundated by all these people contacting them - so

again I think the Parent Trust had its hands tied by being told initially don't go to the schools because it was the schools, they were our channel who we went through to get to the parents, so I think the Home Office didn't help initially. And I think the schools, on a personal note I don't think the schools were the right means to get to the parents but then on the other hand Blueprint had a very, very specific target audience so I'm not really sure how else it could have been done."

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

It was also felt that some negative experiences in some schools to recruit parents discouraged schools from making efforts in the future.

"At – school, they'd recently invited 600 parents to something and only ten had turned up."

"At – school, for example, I said 'do you have a PTA?' and they said 'no we don't bother here because there's no interest, it's like getting blood out of a stone here'. A lot of the schools didn't have PTAs, Friends of the School – they just don't have them because there's no interest."

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

Another possible explanation is that a certain school fatigue, by Autumn and Winter 2004, negatively affected Parent Trust, the last partner on board.

Relationship with Local agencies and School Drug Advisors

The need to build relationships with local agencies and school drug advisors was not addressed in the PT' s proposal. Parent Trust perceived that local agencies and school drug advisors tended to vary in their support for and help with recruitment. Some School Drug Advisers (SDAs) were perceived to have been more helpful than others. Although supporting the Parent Component was listed as one of the SDA tasks, SDAs generally had little involvement in this part of Blueprint. Secondary data from Blueprint evaluation indicates that there was a feeling among some SDAs that their existing expertise in working with parents and local organizations and their contacts were underexploited by Blueprint. Several SDAs emphasized the Blueprint Parent Component should have attempted to link in with this activity, perhaps using the same personnel to recruit for and run workshops or combining with this existing work.

In what concerns local agencies, some were perceived to have made a helpful contribution.

“The PCT put posters out for us, posters were put in various local community venues ...the Sure Start people were all told about it, a couple of other local schools were told about it, there was an article in [local paper], lots and lots of local publicity.”

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

However, there was also a perception that several local agencies had been suspicious of the Blueprint parent work. Some were perceived to have been “antagonistic”, and to feel

that they should have been consulted much earlier about the Blueprint parent work in their community.

*“Sometimes they felt we were encroaching on their patch.
There was some pretty careful negotiations.”*

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

It is very likely that a longer period of groundwork in the community could have created the necessary conditions for cooperation from local agencies. These agencies could have ‘endorsed’ the Blueprint parent component and increased its credibility.

“What was particularly important was that they [local agencies Sure Start, PCT etc] were known on the ground and it was felt that if I could say, well you know such a body recommends this course, a named person, it might help get parents to attend.”

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

There was a general feeling among interviewees that a key factor to a successful recruitment would have been to build up a presence in the communities over a sustained period.

“ Work with established parenting groups, find out who is doing what, build your allies locally and capitalise on the links they have got. And make each programme locally different, not one size fits all.”

(Workshop leader)

Relationships with UCLAN

The University of Central Lancashire - Centre for Ethnicity and Health (CEH) worked alongside Parent Trust on the recruitment for the black and minority ethnic (BME) schools. Parent Trust were mostly responsible for letters and phone calls to recruit for workshops, while CEH focused on raising awareness, network and engaging with the community, although both organisations cooperated on both tasks. Unlike in the other 20 schools, where workshop leaders were not necessarily involved in recruitment, in BME schools the workshop leaders supported recruitment by attending the information sessions and the launches.

Relationships with Porter Novelli

Porter Novelli worked closely with Parent Trust to ensure consistency of approach and message. The Parent Trust helped Porter Novelli in identifying some of the key topics that parents were concerned about and in identifying parents that could speak to the media about their positive experience.

“We spoke to parent co-ordinators to try and find parents down the line who have found the parenting workshops valuable and looked at placing features with those as well.(...)We have got a good relationship with PT”.

(PN worker)

Despite the positive relationships with PN and UCLAN, relationships with schools and local agencies didn’ t consistently develop.

6.2.5. Summary

Relationship marketing principles were not widely applied and this undermined the programme. Parents' needs and values were not assessed; they were persuaded rather engaged and not recognized as the prime drivers of the value creation process. The programme was dominated by a product logic rather than by a service-dominant logic and strategic resources as time, people and knowledge were not treated as a priority. In terms of the management perspective, the programme worked accordingly to a functionalistic rather than a process logic which caused sub-optimization of each element of the parent component programme. The principle of partnerships was also not applied. Cooperative relationships with key potential partners like schools local agencies and school drug advisors didn't develop. Next, the relationship marketing processes are analysed.

6.3. THE RELATIONSHIP MARKETING PROCESSES

This section focuses on the key processes of the value creation process. We start with the analysis of the communication process, followed by the analysis of the dialogue process. Concerning the interaction and the value processes, their analysis is structured around the three types of events delivered: information sessions, launches and workshops. For each of these three events we examine *explored opportunities to create value*, *value experienced by parents* and *missed opportunities to create value*.

6.3.1. The Communication Process

In this section we will analyse the BP parent materials and the media work of Porter Novelli (the Media Contractor). These forms of communication were supposed to complement the recruitment and delivery of the launches and workshops.

BP Parent materials

We have analysed the parent materials (*Drug facts* and *Talking about Drugs*) and we transcribe those parts of the documents that best illustrate the communication style that has been used. In the BP materials in general there was a consistent use of positive messages and branding to communicate with parents in an empathic and supportive way. Communication was not authoritarian, nor patronizing; it did not treat parents as vulnerable and did not provide “magical solutions”, either. It tried to connect with consumers’ emotions promoting, at the same time, a self-reflexive process in parents.

“Young people need to be better informed about drugs in everyday life about drug use and the risks and benefits so that they can make better choices and keep themselves safe.

(...)You may not be able to stop your child using drugs but you can make sure that they know the effects and some of the possible consequences. Help keep them safe by being there for them and listen to them if they want to talk to you.

It is all very well knowing the facts about drugs and their misuse but if your child is misusing legal or illegal substances you may need support and advice.

(see the list of organizations who can give help and advice)

(...) Parents are vital to the success of Blueprint. You can support the programme by being interested in what your child is learning at school and by encouraging him or her to talk with you about the issues raised in Talking about drugs.”

(Drug facts booklet)

“This magazine is intended to support the school lessons. The purpose of the magazine is to help and encourage you and your child to talk about drugs and drug use- subjects that can be difficult to discuss. It is important to be able to talk about drugs with your child. Good communication can make a real difference.

See if you can get them interested in looking at this booklet with you. There are lots of ideas here to help you start a conversation about drug-related issues. Some of the activities are designed for you, others for your child and many for both of you together.

(...) Here is a quick reminder of the messages of Blueprint team has tried to put across in this magazine:

- talk with and LISTEN to your child*
- show interest*
- keep in touch with what the school is doing*
- find out a bit about drugs-no need to be an expert*
- accept that they may not think the same as you*
- understand you can never protect your children fully*
- never be ashamed to ask for help- it is a sign of strength*
- examine your own thoughts and feelings about drugs*

None of us can wave magic wands to protect children from life’s problems. And we can’t – or shouldn’t – “wrap

them up in cotton wool". Would it be right to do that anyway? Young people need to learn about the adult world by watching, listening, talking and reading – and through experience. They try things out, make mistakes, do it better next time. That's growing up. Of course there are things you can do as a parent or a carer.

Don't forget that all this is an ongoing process – one from which both you and your child will gain ideas and information and learn something about yourselves."

(Talking about Drugs Magazine)

Rather than prescribing, these materials emphasize learning as a process and provide parents several opportunities to learn through practicing. The relevance of parents' role is explained and emphasized. Furthermore, parents are given orientation about how to use the materials and the link with their children school lessons is clearly explained. These characteristics indicate that the BP materials had a strong relational potential.

Secondary data from the Blueprint Parents' Postal Survey and from Qualitative research with parents indicates that not all parents recalled receiving the Blueprint booklets and that awareness of them was mixed. *Talking about Drugs 1* (Y7) was the most commonly seen booklet (65% of parents had seen it), followed by *Drug Facts for Parents* (Y7, seen by 52% of parents), and *Talking about Drugs 2* (Y8, seen by 48% of parents). While not all parents recalled receiving the Blueprint booklets, among those who did, opinions were positive. Qualitative Research with Parents found that parents viewed *Drug Facts for Parents* booklet as being targeted at them, whilst *Talking about Drugs* was seen as aimed at their child and confused with the publication *Your Street, Your Story*, which was aimed at pupils. Many parents read the publications by

themselves rather than together with their children, in part because they did not know that they were meant to or because they thought that children had already read them in school.

As it will be analysed later on, in the chapter, the programme did not fully explore the parent materials` potential.

Communicating through the media

The Blueprint Media Component was conceived as a means of supporting and reinforcing “*the primary tools of the programme: the school, parent and community components*” (Media Specification document). The media component contextualized each of the Blueprint components in the overall programme “*linking into all the components to make sure that they are all being covered*”. Three aims were identified for the Media Component: “*raising awareness and understanding of Blueprint, delivering Blueprint’s key messages on norms and shared action in drug prevention, and to motivate and encourage active participation in the programme*”.

The communication strategy used was to make Blueprint personal, relevant and accessible: engage (via human interest), motivate (what is in it for me) and personalise (creating and extending personal experiences of BP).

“All of the coverage has been very positive and we have had personal insights as well. Teachers are being quoted, pupils are being quoted and even just the imagery that they have used with pupils and teachers it all gives it a very personal feel and it feels as if it’s not a case of the

government saying this programme is working because it's actually the people involved in the programme saying I have really enjoyed it, I have learned lots about and this is what I will take away so the fact there is a personal perspective in the media materials you get round that layer of people reading that they really feel it's the truth. It is coming from somebody who is involved in the programme and it is very positive."

(PN worker)

The communication was built around key messages, celebration of programme achievements, case studies on the impact of good quality parenting skills, positive news coverage, reinforcement of positive choice of participating schools, encouraging people to feel proud of the achievements made in their area and encouraging others to get on board.

As explained by PN's media worker in the interview, communication had to anticipate and avoid possible negative attitudes towards government programmes. In Blueprint, it was felt that the strategy had worked and that it had been seen as a positive programme.

"The fact that you are giving pupils information and you are not saying just say no, you are saying here are the facts you make your own decisions, could be seen negatively by the media but they have actually taken the context onboard and it is been very positive.

(...)The one thing about a government programme is that there is always negativity around; there is generally negativity around any government launches, any government programmes, they can quite often been seen

in a negative light so you can quite often be fighting to make sure that it is seen as a positive programme; but as I said with Blueprint we haven't had that issue."

(PN worker)

However, secondary data from the Blueprint Parent Survey and Qualitative research with parents indicates that awareness of Blueprint media coverage was quite modest among parents. Less than one fifth reported hearing about their children's drug education lessons in the press or on television (newspaper 19%, television 18%), and less than a tenth had heard about them on the radio (9%). This indicates that the relational potential of media communication was not maximized.

6.3.2. The dialogue process

In this section we will be looking at those communication methods where a more direct response from parents was sought.

The fact that needs and values were not assessed meant that the first great opportunity to establish a dialogue with parents and set the ground to a relationship were missed. Other opportunities are analysed in this section and further opportunities will be analysed along with the interaction process analysis (section 6.3.3).

Letters and phone calls

The main recruitment methods used were letters and phone calls. Parent Trust sent over 3600 letters to parents of Blueprint pupils at each of the 23 Blueprint schools and over 2200 telephone calls were made to parents of Blueprint pupils at 17 of the 23 schools.

However, it appears that intensifying the recruitment effort made little or no difference to the numbers attending the launches. Secondary data from the Blueprint Parents' Postal Survey indicated that despite the recruitment letters and telephone calls, many parents claimed not to have heard about the parent launches and workshops (only 25% and 34% of parents reported having heard of the launches and workshops respectively).

The finding that numbers did not improve with the use of telephone calls in addition to letters suggests that these methods were inappropriate. In the interviews, one workshop leader felt that there was potentially a lack of consistency and integration between the letters and telephone calls which may have confused parents. Another workshop leader mentioned that there had perhaps been insufficient training for the individuals who were responsible for the telephone calls. This points to the importance of investing in skills, competences and human resources.

“Parents are getting letters from one side, phone calls from other side; we need some consistency here in terms of the way we approach them.”

(Workshop Leader)

“[The phone style] was possibly a bit harsh, and a bit abrasive.... So I think number one you need to have someone who is trained doing it. I think it has got to be a sort of multi approach.....personal invitation, lots of phone calls, that is the way to go.....I think the thing is what you need is someone who is not going to talk to parents but someone who is going to listen to them....I think to recruit someone what you do is you give them a good listen to. And then you find out what their needs are. And then you can say how your products can meet their

needs. It is normal sales stuff. You don't sell what the product does, you sell what they need."

(Workshop Leader)

Another workshop leader felt that a stronger use of face-to-face contacts, and a logic of relationship-building, may have been more successful. This could have involved, for example, "*establishing relationships with parents, talking to them, 'being there', going to the pub*".

Letters and phone calls were the main methods used in the programme and findings suggest that they were not used as true opportunities for project workers and parents learn together. We will now examine whether the launch evaluation forms provided that opportunity.

Launch evaluation forms

Evaluation forms were expected to be filled by parents at the end of the launches. The evaluation forms were divided in two parts: the objective of the first part was to gather information on parents' opinions about the launch; the objective of the second part was to recruit parents to the workshops and different options to respond were given to them:

- if "yes" [parents were interested in attending the workshops], "*would you need additional support to enable you to attend these workshops? Please give details*";

- if “no”, [they were not interested], they were asked why and given different response options: “*time of the workshop; place of the workshop; timing/times; childcare; transport; don’t want this type of support; other-please specify*”.

These evaluation forms could have created an opportunity to dialogue, listening and feed-back on parents. However, in practice, only a few parents indicated their availability and preferences at the end of the launch. It was observed at the launches that many parents seemed reluctant to commit to attending the workshop series. Some parents referred to the potential difficulty fitting the workshops alongside existing commitments and others said they “*needed to think*” before filling out the forms.

We will now look at the role of community consultants to see whether they helped the programme.

The role of community consultants

Parent Trust, in their proposal, considered Community consultants (CCs) to be a crucial and powerful element of the parent recruitment strategy. Community consultants are local parents that recruit, recommend, visit or befriend parents. They are expected to offer reassurance and information to other parents. However, the low attendance to launches limited the potential number of Community Consultants and, in the end, only one was recruited and trained.

Some confusion about the role of Community Consultants was apparent at the Community Consultant training session. The training mainly focused on listening and

negotiation skills but gave limited guidance on how Community Consultants would be involved in Blueprint. Some of the day was spent discussing a project unrelated to Blueprint. Furthermore, it was felt that the session lacked context as it was not explained how the role of CC would contribute and improve the BP recruitment strategy.

The Community consultant, as a BP mother, attended the launch and the workshops. She had a previous working experience on phoning people up regarding *Time Share* property. She also had done a counselling course and she found the workshops and the CC training very counsel related. She emphasized the importance of learning how to be a listener: *to let people come across and finding their own ways of dealing with the problems*. Despite having enjoyed the training session, she felt that most of what she had learned was common sense.

“I think a lot of it is common sense, when you are talking to people. Your mannerisms, the way you talk to people, not to be judgemental with people and try to keep people when you are phoning them not to be higher than them but to be with them side by side”. “The role of listening; not to be judgemental, confidentiality. A lot of it was common sense really.

(Community Consultant)

As a complement to the formal training session, the CC benefited from informal guidance from the Parent Trust Coordinator, but this time more focused in practical issues like who to contact, how to introduce herself and what to say about the launch.

"I was advised by -- not to tell them (parents) too much about the workshops because she said it would put them off going to the launch.

(...) I said I was calling on behalf of Blueprint and said their son or daughter had been doing the project at school.

"I told them it was to do with drugs, and what your child is learning at school, I said "you may have heard about it at school". (...) I said "this is an opportunity for yourself and your partner and your other children if you have them, to go along and see it for yourself."

(Community Consultant)

Most of the work of the Community Consultant consisted in making phone calls from her own home and helping the PTC, who provide her the contact lists.

" I got the list and phoned each parent up. Explained to them what the workshop launch was about. One of the times I was phoning was a time I had been in Nottingham and the launch was going to be at that hotel so that helped when I said them I had been there myself because it made them feel familiar really, that they were going somewhere that I had been. Some of the questions were "can I take so and so with me, my son or daughter?" I said "yes you can take the children with you". That was another thing I made sure with them as well that you could take children along. Because they said "I haven't got anyone to look after the children." I said there were facilities there for that, there was no problem with that. (...)I said it was enjoyable, I said the child wouldn't be

in the same room, a separate room, and there were plenty of things for them to do.”

(Community Consultant)

The community consultant’s work ended up limited to making phone calls and, through them, covering all the LEAs. As a consequence, the local, familiar and face-to-face value of the Community Consultant was potentially lost. More fundamentally, this meant that a great opportunity to dialogue with parents was missed.

6.3.3. The interaction and the value processes

As analysed in the beginning of the present chapter, interaction and dialogue were not implemented as ways of assessing needs and values. Interaction started with delivery and not before that. In Blueprint, the interaction process comprises the information sessions (in the case of BME schools), the launch and the workshops sessions. We analyse delivery of each of these elements and structure it around three dimensions: exploring opportunities to create value, value experienced by parents and missing opportunities to create value.

6.3.3.1. Delivery of information sessions

a) Exploring opportunities to create value

Two information sessions were observed, a women-only session and a general “all welcome” session. Both information sessions observed were facilitated by the same two workshop leaders. Blueprint materials were in evidence at both sessions. At the general session a large Blueprint poster display was in the room, and a launch invitation was

handed out to parents, while at the women-only session there was a table containing Blueprint materials and, again, attendees were given a launch invitation, plus a Blueprint parent booklet. Parents arrived at different times at the general session. The overall format was informal, and parents tended to talk one-to-one with workshop leaders. They were told about Blueprint in general and invited to the launch.

The women only session was similarly informal. The mothers already knew each other through a community women's action group, of which they were all members, and they also knew the workshop leader through this group. The translator was not needed at the session because all the women could speak English. Their main motivation for attending seemed to be that they were keen to learn more about Blueprint and to disseminate information to other women in the community

At both sessions, participants were invited to the launches and told that these would consist in interactive sessions about drugs. They were also given information about the workshops, and told that these would help them communicate with their children about different issues. Next, we will look at how parents experienced the information sessions.

b) Value experienced

Divergent opinions about the relevance of the information sessions were expressed by parents. One mother was quite critical about the information session because she found it irrelevant.

“Because there were only a few of us I thought as if what I would come for I did not really get at that time. At the end we were more chit chatting (...) I thought that everything was happening that day, but it wasn’t, it was like an introduction.(...) I don’t think it was necessary to tell the truth, you could just have done the launch.”

(Mother)

Another mother found it useful and informative.

“If I hadn’t gone there then I wouldn’t have been able to go to the launch and the classes. I didn’t know what Blueprint was first and I thought Blueprint was like just drugs and didn’t know what kind of drugs until I went there so it was and we were given an information booklet and that there so obviously we read that and then we found out more things.”

(Mother)

Not all parents recognized value in the information sessions, which suggests that an opportunity was missed, as explained below.

c) Missing opportunities to create value

Although participants generally seemed interested in the Blueprint events, it seemed that the information content at the launch was not sufficient to fill the full one hour of the session, and the conversation between the workshop leader and the participants moved onto unrelated topics. These information sessions could have worked as an opportunity to establish a dialogue with parents in order to understand their needs.

However, it was limited to providing information and persuading parents to come to the launch. More over, there was limited interaction between parents and the Community Consultant.

6.3.3.2. Delivery of launches

a) Exploring opportunities to create value

The delivery launch format was changed to offer parents a stronger value proposition. Furthermore, value was proposed and created through several ways: the purpose of the launches was emphasized in the introduction to these events; key messages were clearly communicated, interactive activities were implemented and a relational style was used by deliverers.

The delivery format

The original format launch was largely run by Parent Trust staff, while the revised format was introduced and closed by Parent Trust staff, with the remainder of the session being led by a drugs expert.

The Original Format Launch event ran from six to nine pm and comprised four 30-minute sessions. Parents could arrive at any time and this flexible way of organizing the sessions seemed to have worked quite well in terms of maintaining parents' interest and involvement. The launch was fully run by a Parent Trust worker. All four observed sessions were similar in terms of duration, content, key messages and activities.

The revised launch format included a formal drugs awareness element, delivered by a drug expert. The launches lasted two hours, of which the scheduled programme took 90 minutes, with the remaining 30 minutes being allowed for delays at the beginning, refreshment breaks and time to fill in the questionnaires at the end. The last 10/15 minutes of the launch event was delivered by a PT worker which focused on introducing the workshops and inviting parents to attend. Sometimes, the first minutes of introduction were also delivered by that same PT worker. None of the launches lasted more than the two hours, and the various activities and inputs making up the launch programme broadly took a similar length of time.

The format of the two types of launch are presented in Figures 6.1 and 6.2 below.

Fig. 6.1. Original launch format

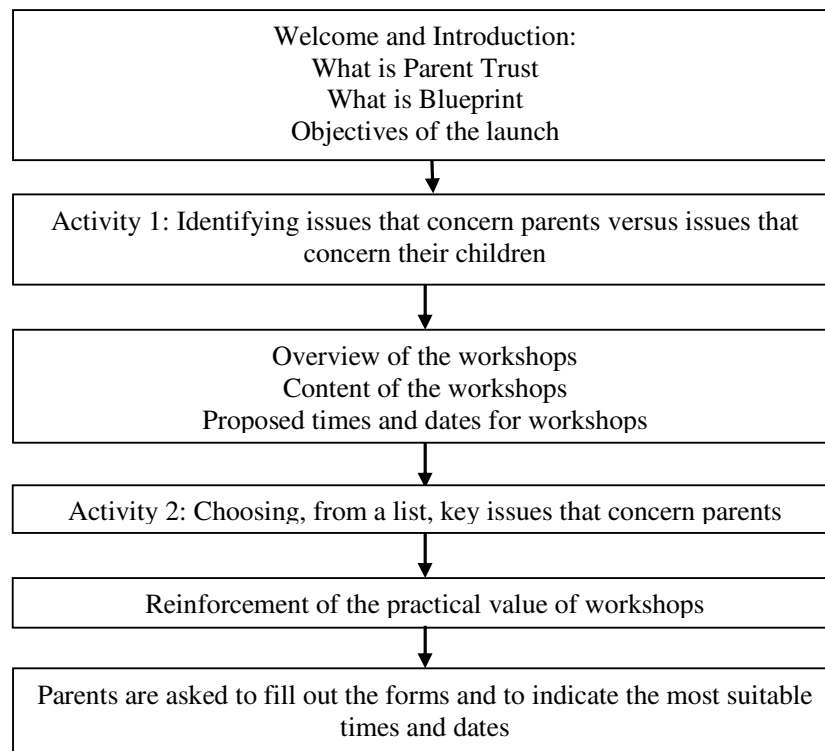
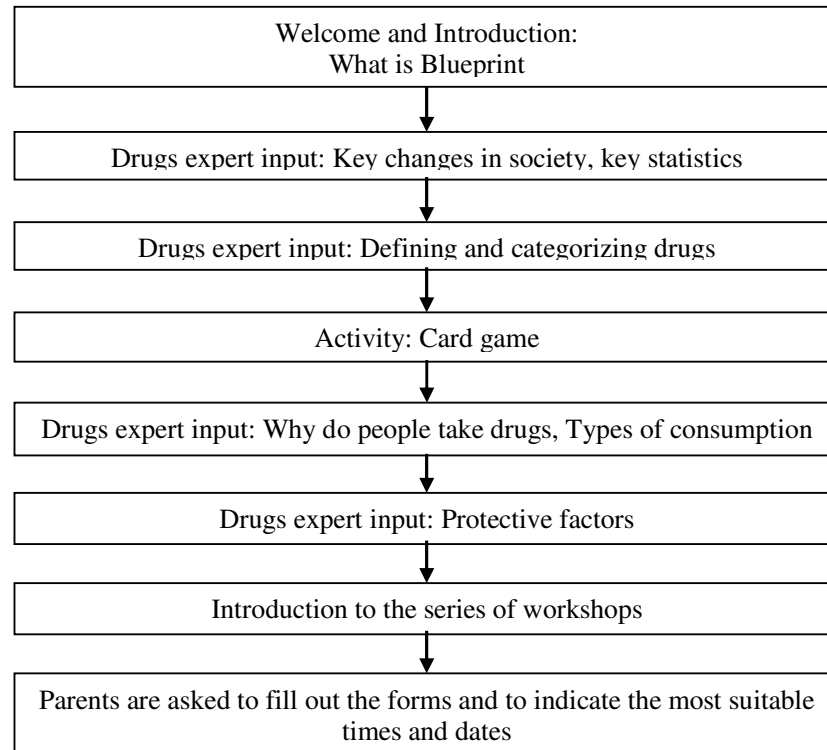


Fig. 6.2. Revised launch format



Introduction to the launch

Blueprint was introduced as an innovative and multi-component drug education programme, to be run in 23 schools. Parents were also told that their children were being targeted by the programme. In the revised format, more effort was put into explaining the link between parenting skills and drug education. More explicit links were made between the parent component and the school component and parents were told they were a very important part of the programme.

“Hopefully you are here to help support your children (...) Understanding by parents it is very important to complement lessons your children have (...) The quality of parenting care is crucial.”

(Parent Trust worker)

The purposes of the launch were clearly communicated to parents: to offer a drugs session and to invite parents to the workshops.

Key messages

The revised format put more emphasis than the original launch on explaining the innovative aspects of Blueprint itself, the thinking behind it, and on providing drugs information. The contextualization of drug issues in broader social issues was much more clearly explained than in the original format launch. A large amount of information was covered in the 90 minute slot, and the time for discussion with parents seemed more limited than in the original format. A number of messages were consistently delivered across the five observed launches:

- Blueprint is an innovative programme.
- Parents' involvement in the programme is very important to complement the lessons their children are having or had at school.
- Parents should have received the BP booklets.
- Society has changed dramatically since parents were the same age as their children; drugs are an important issue.
- A drug is a substance that affects the way we think, feel and/or behave.
- The different types/categories of drugs are stimulants, depressants, hallucinogens and a sub-category of pain killers.
- The easiest way to identify the type/category of drugs is in terms of their effects.
- Drugs are different but the reasons for using them are quite similar. Drug users have different patterns of use.
- The effects of drugs depend on the "triangle" context: Person, Situation, Drug.

- There are several protective factors, one of which is a strong relationship with parents.
- It is not easy to be a parent.
- The workshops are a good opportunity for parents to learn more about how to build strong relationships with their children.

A suitcase with real samples of different types of drugs was also shown to parents at the revised-format launches.

Activities

At the original-format launch, two formal activities were used. The first activity took 8 minutes. Around tables in groups, parents had to position photos of adults (parents) and young people (children) next to five issues according to whether the issues were relevant or not to both of them. The second activity took 4 minutes. Parents had to select from a range of around 15 questions the ones that concerned them most. Parents seemed to have enjoyed the activities and to have participated actively.

At the five revised-launch events, the activities most frequently used were brainstorming in pairs and/or small groups, with parents' inputs being subsequently written in the flipchart, and a card game in which parents were asked to match different types of cards containing drug names, drug pictures and drug effects. The card game lasted around fifteen to twenty minutes. The majority of parents participated actively in both activities. Parents seemed to understand the rules of the card game, but sometimes struggled to find the correct answers. They responded enthusiastically when they did

answer correctly. Discussion between parents tended to be at a general level, with few sharing personal issues or concerns about drugs.

Style of delivery

The drugs experts tried to make parents feel relaxed and reassured. Comments included: *“We don’t want to fright people. Drugs are not a cause, they come along with other issues. That is how this fits with Blueprint. Be aware, don’t be afraid, keep the lines of communication with your kids open”, “I want to send you home not frightened but with lots of questions. At the end I will be here if you need private questions” and “Feel ok that you don’t know everything; that is ok not to be an expert.”*

There were several instances of disclosure by the drugs experts in relation to their own drug experiences and to their role as parents. Comments included: *“Normally people mix different types of drugs. I have done it myself”, “I forced myself to smoke when I was eleven! No one pushed me! I felt violently sick the first time”, and “I have been working with drugs for 20 years but it does not mean my children are less vulnerable”.* Next, it is examined how parents experienced the launches.

b) Value experienced

The majority of parents were pleased with the launch. They found it useful and informative.

“It was good because we obviously got more information about Blueprint there and then we were shown the drugs that were there as well and then we got more leaflets again(...)It was useful.”

(Parent)

“For me it was a real learning curve. I have learned a lot from it. It was excellent.”

(Parent)

“I got some encouragement and some education.”

(Parent)

“Fantastic and wonderful in every aspects: the venue; the childcare; the content and the goody bags.”

(Parent)

One mother was positively surprised with the interactivity of the launch: *“You got people talking in groups, it was not just a lecture. (...) I did not realize it was going to be like that. I thought I was just going to listen to someone talk.”*

Despite having really enjoyed the launch, one mother mentioned that the launch had covered too much information: *“I don’ t think you could digest anymore really. Two mothers reported that they were expecting a much better attendance at the launches.*

“I am surprised there weren’ t more people there.”

(Parent)

“I was expecting lots and lots of people to be there. I thought we were going to have somebody going round

and telling you this drug is this and this. We did have something but it wasn't to that extreme."

(Parent)

One mother also expressed a feeling of frustration with the fact that the launch did not target her child.

"I thought it would be a launch where the child would actually be with you; I thought it was like a family thing; that was the impression I got from the leaflet. I thought it was me and him, so I was a little disappointed. I was expecting me and him together resolving problems and things."

(Parent)

Despite the fact that most parents enjoyed the launches, there were missed opportunities to create value. In particular, there were different perceptions about the logical link between the launch and the subsequent workshops. This will now be analysed in detail.

c) Missing opportunities to create value

The link between the launch and the workshops was confusing. It was suggested several times at the launches that the *"launch was a taste of what parents could have at the workshops"*. Parents were told that each workshop session would be run by an experienced workshop leader and each of the six workshops was briefly explained to them. The workshops were presented as "free and informal" and the practical value of the workshops was mentioned several times. Parents were told that *"there are no black and white answers"* but that the workshops could offer *"practical guidance to deal with*

difficult issues". The workshop leader described his own role as "supporting you to support your kids".

At the revised-format launches, the launch facilitators have also emphasized the role of parents as a protective factor.

"Strong relationships with significant adults helps hugely and that is why we are offering the parenting workshops: to share, to learn..."

(Parent Trust worker)

"Research shows evidence about protective factors. An important factor is you. Research shows how parents are important. We want to formally invite you to the workshops. They are valuable, informal and in small groups."

(Parent Trust worker)

"The workshops are a good learning opportunity."

(Parent Trust worker)

Based on their launch experience, parents were expecting workshops would be about drugs.

"I thought the workshops would still be about drugs but then I realised all the different things you could discuss, like bullying."

(Parent)

"When I went to the workshops I was surprised that it was other things, other than drugs. In the launch it self it didn't really detail that the workshops would be all sorts of things to do with children.(...) The launch wasn't very clear what

the workshops were going to be about (...) I thought when we go to the workshops we were going to cover the drugs in more depth”.

(Parent)

Parents were not totally disappointed with the broad content of the workshops but some suggested that the content of the workshops could have been better explained at the launch.

“I just wanted to go into the drugs thing but when I came to all workshops I thought it was really good because it was not only about the drugs; it was about everything: how we handle our kids, how to be open so they don’t shut out and stop talking to you. I really liked that.”

(Parent)

“Maybe at the launch you could have made clearer about what the workshops were going to be about. Perhaps if you had spent more time at the launch explaining”

(Parent)

“Maybe it might have helped if it was a little bit less on the drugs on the launch, not to say too much, and then to say that more would be discussed at the workshops that would then entice people to be involved in the workshops.”

(Parent)

Another type of expectations concerned the level of attendance of the workshops. This was considered to be much lower than what parents were expecting.

“I thought there would be a lot of people and I thought there would be set into groups and I did imagine there would be more people from the launch at the workshops.”

(Parent)

“At the launch I had a completely different concept of what I thought it was going to be”. I thought it would be completely different from what we got. After the launch it was mentioned that we were going to have the workshops. I thought that at the workshops we were going to be lots and lots of people, lots and lots of groups and somebody leading it. Different people and have something here and something there in different groups and then we would be sort of changed around.”

(Parent)

Workshop leaders pointed some weaknesses in the link launch-workshops and in the format of the launches. One was that there was insufficient linking to the subsequent workshops in terms of explaining their value and purpose and in terms of reassuring parents that the workshops would not be judgmental about parenting.

“I don’t think they [the launches] worked very well; I don’t think they put forth what the workshops were about. I don’t think they gave a clear picture. They missed the mark on enrolling parents.”

(Workshop Leader)

Another view was that launches should have been run by the workshop leaders, which would make the launch more interactive and more similar, in style, to the workshops.

“ The key message is the enrolment thing, that would be my key message. You know, train people on enrolling parents and if you are going to do the launches have them led by the people who are going to lead the workshops. And have them led as more facilitative.”

(Workshop leader)

The workshop leaders also perceived that the notion of good parent-child communication as a ‘protective factor’ against drugs was being insufficiently explained at the launch events.

“I think if anything the problem was that we somehow didn’t communicate clearly enough the message that you can, you can’t stop but you can give a good defence against drugs with the communication. I don’t think the parenting and the drugs and how they tie together, which is quite sophisticated, I don’t think that got through to the parents. The parents wanted to know about drugs and although we said parenting can help, I think that was quite a complex message - that somehow they thought well this is drugs, what has parenting got to do with it? I don’t think that was clear ...People generally see it as two different subjects, like they would say to me ‘well so you are doing drugs’ - well, no, I’m doing parenting. ‘Well, what has that got to do with drugs?’”

(Workshop leader)

Workshop leaders felt that their own perceptions of the purpose of the workshops differed somewhat from the Home Office’s. There was a perception that the Home

Office had wanted the workshops to address drugs more explicitly, whereas the workshop leaders felt that this was not their primary focus.

“I think the launch sometimes was misrepresenting the workshops. And I don’ t know that it needed to be so drugs based.”

(Workshop leader)

“My understanding is the drug side was dealt in another part of the Blueprint programme.”

(Workshop Leader)

The findings suggest that the Home Office and the workshop leaders didn’ t have a common vision about the link between the launches and the workshops. We will now examine the delivery of workshops.

6.3.3.3. Delivery of workshops

a) Exploring opportunities to create value

The workshop leaders proposed value in several ways: asking parents to introduce themselves, asking them about their motivations, hopes and fears, making explicit the ground rules, developing interactive activities, setting homework and adopting a relational delivery style.

Introduction to the Workshops

In the two observed workshops which were introductions to the series of workshops, the workshop leaders began by introducing themselves and asking parents to do likewise. When introducing themselves in the introductory workshops, parents were asked about why they had come to the workshops; in one of the sessions, half of the parents said they were struggling with their teenager children; in the other session, half of the parents mentioned they needed some help and advice.

In one of the introductory workshops, parents were asked about which three they would like to select from the list of six. The idea behind this possibility of choice was to involve parents in the design of the course making it more meaningful to parents. At the beginning parents seemed not to know what to choose so the workshop leader helped them suggesting some alternatives.

Hopes and fears

One of the two observed introductory workshops included an activity in which parents were asked about their hopes and fears for the series of workshops. Concerning hopes, their answers were as follows: *to be able to talk to parents; to be heard; to share experiences; to get skills and guidance; to get tips; to be a better mum; to get support.*

In terms of fears parents mentioned *fear of lack of trust; of being put on the spot; of feeling embarrassed/being judged for being a single parent.* Hopes generally concerned a desire to interact with other parents and the workshop leader, and a wish for support and advice. This was confirmed in the interviews with parents.

Ground Rules

Ground rules were mentioned in both of the observed introductory workshops. The workshop leaders differed in how they generated the rules. One wrote proposed rules on the flipchart without asking for parents' input; the rules included *non-judgemental; honesty; challenging what someone says rather than the person; no put-downs; it is OK to have silences; monitor/watch your participation*. The other workshop leader asked parents to suggest ideas for ground rules. Parents' suggestions included: *confidentiality; respect for each other opinions and ideas; allow/encourage all to have an equal opportunity to speak and be heard*. Ground rules tended not to be referred to in subsequent workshops, although parents and workshop leaders seemed to follow them.

Activities

Activities were not used in the workshop attended by only one parent. Instead, this session took the form of an informal conversation between the workshop leader and the parent. In most of the sessions observed, a mix of four to five activities were used. The most frequently used type of activity was brainstorming, either in pairs or individually, and parents' inputs were usually noted on the flipchart. Other activities used were listening exercises and other exercises selected from the *Share Plus Manual*. The activities lasted between 5 to 20 minutes, and parents were generally given sufficient time to complete them comfortably. The majority of parents actively participated in exercises and interacted both with each other and with the workshop leader. On some occasions parents were less participative and this seemed to be largely because it was sometimes difficult sustaining interaction with small groups of parents. Interviews with

parents confirmed it. Parents reported that they would have preferred larger groups in order to make the sessions more dynamic and interactive.

“I think because the number seemed to be so small it was getting quite difficult to arrange a group(...) I think you need a certain amount of people to be able to form groups to discuss things, to bounce ideas off (...). You don´ t want to talk to the same person every time. I think you need 10 to 12 people (...). “

(Parent)

“It would have been better if there had been more people on the course to interact with and to have more feed back: 12 or 15 people would be good. There was a time when we were three; there was not much to choose.”

(Parent)

The interviews with workshop leaders re-confirmed the difficulties in working with very small groups. Generally, workshop leaders felt that parent numbers had been smaller than the optimal number for workshops to work well. A small group was perceived to be much more demanding and difficult for workshop leaders.

“With a small group I can chuck a question out and it can just drop like a lead weight and no one picks it up.”

(Workshop Leader)

It had been intended that parents would mostly learn through sharing and discussing ideas with other parents within the group. However, because many groups were quite small, workshop leaders seemed to have felt that they also needed to provide guidance and tips themselves, to maximise parents’ opportunities to learn. Despite the difficulties

in working with small groups, workshop leaders acknowledged that an advantage of small groups was that participants could receive a lot of individual attention.

Homework

Homework was set at most workshops in order to help parents creating the opportunity to apply learning to real life situations. Most parents did not do the homework activities, usually claiming that this was because of a lack of time or opportunity. However, when they did, they found it very useful. For example, one parent described a particular homework activity as having provided a “*real life changing opportunity*”.

Delivery style

Workshop leaders felt that parents had had sufficient opportunity to talk, share and receive individual suggestions and guidance, and they felt there had been the flexibility to spend longer on particular needs where required:

“When parents needed to discuss something, we would not slavishly stick to stuff.”

(Workshop Leader)

Observation confirmed this. In the great majority of sessions, workshop leaders allowed parents enough time to talk about their experiences. They encouraged every parent to participate, and on occasions where one parent appeared to be participating to a greater extent than others, workshop leaders made an effort to involve other parents by asking them directly about their own experiences. The general tone of the workshop was non-judgmental and supportive. Workshop leaders explicitly valued and praised parents’

suggestions and descriptions of how they had tried to put workshop ideas into practice, with comments such as “*you tried and that is good*”, “*you did the right thing, well done!*”, “*that is a very good point*”, “*you should be proud*”. Workshop leaders encouraged parents to develop alternative ways of thinking, and there was a strong focus on practical guidance and advice: “*Have you tried to do this? Why don’t you try that?*”

Several workshop leaders self-disclosed as a way of reminding parents that nobody is perfect.

“I think it is showing that you are human, that you don’t have all the answers, that you can make mistakes. Because I think the tendency is to see you as somebody coming in from outside who is an expert, and you have to kind of quash that, you know, you are there as human being as well.”

(Workshop leader)

Self-disclosure comments included “*I was very criticized as a child and that affected me*”, “*this exercise helped me a lot at home*”, “*I was bullied by teachers*” and “*I save Wednesday evenings to be with my son*”.

Next, we look at how parents experienced the workshops.

b) Value experienced

Participants mostly appeared to be at ease with the workshop leaders and with each other although, not surprisingly, the introductory workshops in each course tended to be

less participatory. It was observed that after this first workshop, parents appeared to open up a lot more, to relax in the workshops, and to become more engaged generally with the issues and ideas involved in the workshops. Parents in general appeared to enjoy the workshops and to feel comfortable giving advice to other parents and receiving it.

The interviews, both with workshop leaders and parents, confirmed this. All three workshop leaders felt that parents bonded together reasonably well in the groups, despite the difficulties of small groups as discussed above. They felt that parents had been able to develop good relationships both with other parents and with themselves. It was emphasised that these relationships were important because the issues being discussed in the workshops were personal and “*risky*”.

In the interviews, the majority of parents expressed their satisfaction with the workshops. Some of them didn't distinguish any workshop in particular whereas others identified the “listening” and “setting boundaries” as the best ones.

“I thought they were very interesting. The first one [listening] specially. I was just impressed by its format (...) The one about “looking after yourself” well we did not learn much from that; the listening one definitely stick on my mind.”

(Parent)

“They were quite fun. You don't know what to say, what to give away. I mean you have to decide how much you want to tell people about yourself. You don't feel comfortable about people knowing. After the first one and

when you heard people telling stories you can trust people and you can say what you want to.”

(Parent)

Despite the overall positive opinion about the workshops, there were a few critical comments. One mother, despite her overall satisfaction, compared the workshops with the launch and pointed the venue and absence of child care as negative points: “*when you got a launch like that it can only go down*”. Only one mother reported not being pleased with the content of the workshops and she also expressed concerns about privacy.

“There was just one session (drugs) that I did not think was bad (...) I wasn’t too happy about the second workshop. “Maybe it wasn’t too related to me (...) Okay, you have your children and you have your problems but how is Blueprint going to help you with that? They (children) are not a public problem, that is how I feel anyway (...) The third one was good. You could find a lot about symptoms.”

(Mother)

Learning from workshops

The observations suggested some evidence of learning among participants, although it was sometimes difficult to perceive how exactly parents were learning from the workshop experience. Some seemed able to relate suggestions and experiences shared within the workshops to their own experiences. Throughout the sessions, several parents described feeling more confident and competent as parents, and said that they now thought more positively.

In the interviews, workshop leaders perceived evidence of parents learning and gaining from the experience. They noted that many parents had managed to try new strategies with their children and had perceived an improvement in their relationships with them as a result. Other benefits were identified by the workshop leaders, as followed:

- parents felt reassured that they were not the only ones having difficulties;
- parents learnt a new practical skill, how to be better listeners;
- parents benefited from being part of a peer support group;
- parents had a boost to their confidence;
- parents felt able to share their experiences with other parents.

The interviews with parents confirmed this. Improved listening and communication skills were the key benefits reported by parents. Sharing experiences with other parents - which corresponds to a relational benefit - was also mentioned by a number of parents. Only one mother reported not having learned much with the workshops.

Developing listening skills

Several parents perceived they had learned listening skills and reported having been able to apply that learning at home.

“I actually sit down and talk to my kids about; I just stop what I am doing and listen to them that is the only thing I do and making time for my kids so they know I am listening to them and they don’t have to go to someone else.”

(Parent)

“I have used what I have learned; I found it useful and also the workshops the way they pointed out things that I knew but I didn’ t realise I knew. It helped me with communication with the children; it also helped me find time for myself and things like that. So it is all round a family thing; it was good”. “It made me more aware; it made me do things I wouldn’ t have done. I would sit with all the children and talk 10 minutes; it is lovely when I can sit and talk for an hour and not ten minutes.”

(Parent)

“I seem to be more patient. I listen to them more; I am not down their throat so much. Sometimes it works, sometimes it doesn’ t. (...) We do sit down and talk a lot more than we used to. I think more how I react to different things.”

(Parent)

Sharing experiences

Several parents found it very useful to share experiences with other parents because that had made them realize they were not alone and that others had similar problems.

“I just feel better myself knowing that I have been somewhere and there are not any other problems with the children and knowing that it is not only me who struggles sometimes. Besides, I explained that by looking for help I was admitting I was a failure. You think you can’ t cope but when you are sitting in a room full of people with them saying their kids have problems and aren’ t perfect and you think you are not the only one.”

(Parent)

Most parents enjoyed the workshops and learned important skills. However, there were missed opportunities to follow up and feed back on parents, to build progression routes and to, more fundamentally, establish a clear and strong link between the workshops, the parent materials and the school component of Blueprint. These are analysed below.

c) Missing opportunities to create value

Follow-up and Feedback

There tended to be limited summing up at the end of workshop sessions, and limited time for any feedback from parents. This was also the case in two of the three observed workshops which were the final one in their series. This follow up and feedback activity could have been used as a dialogue opportunity to make parents think about their learning process and, eventually, to identify progression routes. However, in practice, this did not happen.

Despite not having expressed it at the workshops, in the interview one mother criticized the fact that the workshops “*ended and gone*” and she pointed the “*need to tie up things at the end*”. She suggested that at the end they could have allowed time for a follow up and discussion about what had been covered. Two parents suggested some issues that could have been covered more in depth by the workshop leaders: the issue of accessibility of drugs and the process of finding help.

“I want to know how available drugs are in the community, how easy it is for a child to purchase, or how easy is to find them in an ordinary school” (...) Just

maybe cannabis, how easy is it in your average comprehensive school to buy cannabis?"

(Parent)

"This is my concern, if like one says, if somebody close to you is taking drugs...how, ok you ring them up, how would they help? That is what I wanted to know; if you have someone who needs help; ringing these people up what would they say to you? That kind of information I wanted to know more about; rather than you have got a phone number you can find a phone number in the directory, you have all that in the directory (...)"

(Parent)

Being worried with the accessibility of drugs, a mother expressed a certain scepticism about the value of learning resistance competences.

"I think it would be an idea to have someone working to stop people getting at the children, do you understand? It is easy to say that children have to learn how to resist to drugs. But I as a mother would think that when you say to a child "don't have those biscuits because they are going to be harmful to you" is that going to stop them? It is not going to stop them".

(Parent)

This comment suggests that the link between communication and drug prevention was not understood by all parents. Because workshop leaders didn't feed back on parents they missed the opportunity to labour on that link and make it more explicit.

Continuity and Progression routes

The need to point progression routes has been explicitly included in the design of the parental component. However, in practice, it was not implemented. One workshop leader, at the final workshop, did mention a parenting skills programme – *‘Living with teenagers’* - which, according to her, might be a good opportunity for parents to continue on further learning. The workshop leader told parents she would pass on further information about the course to the Parent Trust Coordinator, however, the PTC did not make further contacts with those parents.

Apart from that brief mentioning of further learning possibilities, a true possible progression route was not suggested to parents. However, in the interviews, all three workshop leaders mentioned continuity as a critical issue in parenting work. They felt that there had been no standard strategy or advice for workshop leaders regarding how they should ‘move parents on’ or offer support to parents at the end of the workshops. One workshop leader felt it would have been helpful if the training had provided more information about what was locally available in terms of agencies which work with parents on drug issues. This information, he felt, would have helped him to direct people on for further support after the workshops had finished.

At the workshops parents did not raise any particular issues to the workshop leaders regarding the future of Blueprint. However, in the interviews, some parents expressed their concerns about what would happen after the workshops.

“I want to know the end results; after it finishes do you keep in contact with these children?”

(Parent)

“BP shouldn’ t just disappear. People should be asked again to re-do some of the things; too good to loose; build on what you have got and make it more accessible.”

(Parent)

“If it is not practised, like repeated again, it will be forgotten.”

(Parent)

“I did Blueprint and when it stopped you feel a little flat.”

(Parent)

Workshops-Blueprint: a poor link

Workshop leaders varied in the extent to which they made explicit reference to, and reinforced the messages of, the Blueprint programme as a whole. At one of the two observed introductory workshops, the workshop leader explicitly set the workshops within the context of the Blueprint programme, he made it clear he was not a drugs expert and explained the conceptual link between the launch and the workshops: *“In order to be able to talk about drugs you need to be able to talk with your children”*. However, at the other observed introductory workshop the workshop leader appeared not to know about the launch content, and did not discuss the importance of parental involvement in Blueprint.

In the remaining observed workshops, Blueprint tended to be mentioned either only occasionally or, in some sessions, not at all. In general, the thinking behind the workshops and the link with the launch were not emphasized. Opportunities to reinforce links between different aspects of Blueprint were not always exploited. For example, at one workshop a mother said she had attended an assembly at school for the Blueprint presentations, but this was not expanded on by the workshop leader. Only one workshop leader used the Blueprint logo on materials used in the sessions and on several occasions workshop leaders used non-Blueprint materials. For example, one workshop leader provided parents with a list of local agencies rather than using the *Help Blueprint* booklet; most of the names and contacts was different from the ones in the booklet. At one workshop, the workshop leader, who worked for a local drugs agency for parents, spent several minutes talking about this agency and encouraging a particular participant to contact it; she also made several explicit criticisms of how the Blueprint parent component had been designed and administered.

The interviews confirmed that the workshop leaders had a limited feeling of ownership of Blueprint and a somewhat detached attitude from the remainder of Blueprint, perceiving their contribution to be limited to the workshops themselves.

“I don’ t know what training the teachers got. I don’ t know what the teachers presented to the kids. So my involvement was very much just the workshops.”

(Workshop Leader)

Where workshop leaders were familiar with other programmes, there was a tendency to feel more comfortable with and committed to these other programmes.

“I suppose because I wrote the material [for other programme] so I know them inside out. Whereas the other [Blueprint] materials, it was all kind of new and I did not know how the exercises were going to go necessarily.”

(Workshop Leader)

This suggests that workshop leaders may have felt more committed to the wider Blueprint programme had they been directly involved in the development of the parent component rather than recruited to it later.

Despite their somewhat limited involvement with Blueprint, workshop leaders were largely positive about the Blueprint materials, perceiving them to be of a high standard, comprehensive and useful.

“I thought the materials were brilliant.”

(Workshop Leader)

However, as perceived through observations, they did not always seem to be familiar enough with the materials to be able to use them in specific and practical ways at the workshops. Contrarily to what was expected from them, the workshop leaders never, excepting once, mentioned the BP parent materials at the workshops. They didn't create opportunities to link to BP materials and to help parents exercise some of the issues raised in *Talking about drugs*, like for example exercises on possible ways of

starting a conversation about drug-related issues. The interviews with parents suggest that drugs were a sensitive and difficult issue for parents to discuss with their children.

“They don’ t want to (talk about drugs) because they think why should we have to talk about it?(...)They think that you only talk about drugs if someone is doing drugs. It doesn’ t concern us they think.”

(Parent)

“We start talking in general and then when I want to get to the point I don’ t actually jump to the point, I talk to them generally and then I start slowly.”

(Parent)

“I don’ t talk with my children about drugs, not on purpose, just as it comes up.”

(Parent)

The interviews with parents confirmed that the notion of good parent-child communication as a ‘protective factor’ against drugs was not sufficiently laboured at the workshops.

It is likely that the limited involvement with Blueprint and limited familiarity with BP parent materials is a consequence of gaps and weaknesses in the Blueprint training. One of the workshop leaders didn’ t do the training for inconvenience reasons. Another aspect that it’ s worthy examining is the content of the materials used to support the training. These materials comprised three main elements: the *Share Plus* training guide for approved trainers; the *Share Plus Facilitators’ guide* and the *Blueprint Parent*

Workshops Facilitators' Manual. The two *Share Plus* resources consist in an already existing model for working with parents. In what concerns the *Blueprint Parent workshops Facilitators' Manual*, apart from the logo in the cover page, Blueprint is not mentioned at all.

In the interview, one workshop leader recognized that Blueprint was not much mentioned during the training.

“I looked at it as two separate things really. I mean the training itself I understood with our role working with parents (...). The Blueprint was not mentioned a great deal during the training.”

(Workshop leader)

6.3.4. Summary

Recruitment and delivery were managed as separate functions rather than as integrated processes. Dialogue was limited to persuasion and several opportunities to learn with parents about their needs and values were missed. There were also missed opportunities to link the launches with the workshops and to link the workshops with BP parent materials and the school component. Furthermore, there was no follow up and feed back on parents and progression routes were not addressed.

Despite these weaknesses, there was some presence of relationship marketing which has helped the programme. BP parent materials were designed according to relational ideas.

Launches and workshops were delivered in a relational style. Parents enjoyed participating in the launches and workshops, they learned important skills and experienced relational benefits. The relationship marketing constructs will now be examined.

6.4. KEY RELATIONAL CONSTRUCTS

The concepts of *trust*, *commitment*, *satisfaction*, *identification*, *perceived value* and *cooperation* are key relational constructs. We will analyse whether and how they were applied in Blueprint and the consequences of their presence or absence.

6.4.1. Trust

We will analyse trust in two different ways: trust from parents who engaged with the workshops and trust from parents in general, schools and local agencies.

Parents who engaged with workshops

The majority of parents who attended the workshops seemed to have trusted the workshop leaders. In the interviews they expressed a very positive opinion about the workshop leaders, describing them as followed:

- Competent
- Experienced
- Non judgemental
- Friendly
- Allowed everyone to talk
- Self-disclosed

“I think he was very competent. I thought he was very well prepared, very intelligent. He knew his subject and obviously quite experienced. Yes, I thought he was very good, very good at getting people relaxed; and to talk to each other. He made them think about things, because he put a little of his experience into it. He didn’t just do it from a text book. He told us about his own life and his experience. He listened to our experiences and then he gave everybody time to talk about their particular problems.”

(Parent)

“He was willing to listen to people but then he got back to track. It is easy for a conversation to go on a different target, he allowed that but then he brought people back and kept them on-line with his agenda.”

(Parent)

“I felt he was full of very good ideas and got himself into it. He was not distant at all. He did have a passion for his work. I really admire him (...) He treated us very compassionately, he was in control the whole time.. (...) He knew what he was doing. He was good because he remembered the names of the children (...)I thought I was being sometimes a little too talkative unlike the other people but he seemed to be able to control that.”

(Parent)

“Everyone was entitled to their own opinion. You didn’t get judged on. You could say what you wanted, everybody would give their advice (...) At first we weren’t

participating but after that he made things to join in with. I really felt at ease.”

(Parent)

“They were great, really friendly.”

(Parent)

“I think she (WL) is brilliant (...) We talked about ourselves and we laughed during the session and it was nice and open and confidential between all of us and it was brilliant. (...)No one felt out, everybody actually opened because the way she handled them it was just so friendly, everyone was so good with her so it was not like we were trapped, we were open with her.”

(Parent)

These comments suggest a belief not only in the competence of the workshop leaders but mainly in their moral character. As a consequence, parents seemed to have based their feeling of trust on emotional states of care and concern.

Only one mother did have a few critical comments about the workshop leaders. She reported they lacked expertise about drugs. *“They were fairly competent but not enough for every topic.”* Furthermore, despite finding the workshop leaders “friendly and approachable” that same mother reported that she would have preferred that the workshop leaders were not known in the community. *“Sometimes you would like to talk to someone you don’t know. And someone that you know it is not involved in the*

community. You don't want such a close relationship. Because then again you feel as if you don't know if you can trust these people."

BP parents in general, schools and local agencies

Parent Trust was specifically created for Blueprint. It was not known locally which might have made parents feel confused or suspicious about it. Secondary data suggests that SDAs, schools and local agencies might have perceived Parent Trust to have been externally imposed by Blueprint, disregarding their own expertise, which didn't help to build trusting relationship.

6.4.2. Commitment

Commitment from parents will be examined first and then commitment from workshop leaders, schools and school drug advisors will be analysed.

Parents

Only a minority of parents committed to the launch and workshops. There was a perception among Parent Trust and others involved in recruitment that parents generally agreed that drug education was important. They were generally pleased that their children were participating in Blueprint, and liked what they had seen of the programme. However, it was possible that they did not particularly find the programme relevant to themselves.

“Parents seemed very happy that the children were learning about drug prevention but I don’t think the parents themselves felt like there was anything for them.”

(Workshop Leader)

“This is what was very interesting, out of all the hundreds and I do mean hundreds of phone calls that I did and all the parents I met at Blueprint parents evenings, every one except two parents were very positive, all the parents without question were saying ‘great project, I wish they were doing it in more schools, good stuff you are doing, I have looked at the book, it is good’. They might not have come to the workshops but when I spoke to them they all said good project, lovely books, the kids are enjoying it, should be doing it more. So they were supportive but passively supportive (...)I think the problem there was that I think a lot of parents are interested but just aren’t interested enough to give up their time.”

(Parent Trust Coordinator)

There was a perception that in the context of busy lives - full time work, looking after other children and so on - many parents wouldn’t commit even if they perceived the launch and workshops to be useful.

The workshop leaders, schools and SDAs

Consistent levels of commitment from the different people and organizations involved in Blueprint did not develop.

The workshop leaders committed but in a partial, rather than in a consistent or full way. They committed to the workshops but it seemed that it was not clearly communicated to them what other forms of commitment were expected from them, mainly in what concerns attendance to the launches, attendance to the training, engagement with the BP parent materials and support to the recruitment process.

The same argument applies to schools and school drug advisors: it was not totally clear how they were expected to commit to the parent component.

6.4.3. Satisfaction

Parents who attended were satisfied with the launch and workshops delivery. However, there was some evidence that parents created somewhat false expectations about the launch and the workshops. Furthermore, as continuity and progression routes were not addressed by workshop leaders, parents seemed to feel worried and confused about the future of Blueprint. This was not anticipated by the workshop leaders.

It is important to point that those parents who were more in need of help and advice - and potentially more vulnerable - seemed more satisfied than those who were mainly looking for practical information about drugs.

6.4.4. Identification

Identification from parents and identification from workshop leaders will be now analysed.

Parents

A few parents thought their children's school had been chosen by the government to participate in Blueprint because it had drug problems.

“I did not know it was government funded, I thought it was covered by the school, and then as I read along I saw the government had picked X. But I do know from local knowledge that school -- has had a drug problem and it is linked to a drug reputation.”

(Parent)

Furthermore, one parent thought BP was already running in schools for a few years and some parents seemed confused about who was really funding and designing Blueprint.

“It was not 100% clear; I did not know until I got there whether it was a government or the school running it. Or whether the government was going to give the school money to put the Blueprint programme going. As it turned out it was completely done by the government it had nothing to do with school. I did wonder if the teachers at school got to know that we went to that meeting.”

(Parent)

These comments suggest that despite all the information sent to parents about Blueprint, they were still confused about Blueprint's identity. Furthermore, the fact that parents did not get involved in mobilizing and developing parental networks to support the programme limited the potential development of feelings of identification and embeddedness in Blueprint.

Workshop leaders

The workshop leaders themselves did not seem to identify with the programme and one of the major reasons seems to be the fact that they were not involved in the design of the programme. They were just concerned with the delivery of workshops.

6.4.5. Perceived value

Blueprint reduced the eventual parents' perceived sacrifice by minimizing relationship costs, in several ways. For example, all launches were supported by the offer of transport to and from the event and a crèche for children aged between 0-15. Furthermore, there was some flexibility in the times offered to workshops. Parents were provided with different possibilities from which they could choose the one that would suit them best. However, these cost reduction strategies were not enough to motivate the great majority of parents to get involved.

As far as it concerns those parents that attended launch and workshops, they seemed quite clear about what they considered to be the positive and negative issues about the launch and each of the workshops. They also seemed able to distinguish what had been

delivered from how it had been delivered. In terms of benefits, they perceived several benefits in learning new skills and, more fundamentally, they also perceived benefits associated with the relationship with the workshop leaders and with the experience of being in the programme. However, as analysed throughout the chapter, opportunities to increase parents' perceived value were often missed.

6.4.6. Cooperation

As already mentioned, the cooperation between Parent Trust and schools, SDAs and local agencies could have been much stronger, particularly at the early stages of the programme. This did not happen, which might also have affected the sustainability of the programme.

Concerning cooperation between Blueprint and the parents, opportunities to stimulate it were not explored by the Parent Trust. The strategy of using community consultants was not implemented, therefore parental networks did not develop. These networks could have worked as an opportunity for parents to create value through relationships between themselves. In practice, this didn't work. Several parents who committed to the workshops recommended them to other parents but it was already too late to start building an active and efficient networking.

In what concerns workshop leaders, and with the exception of those that were delivering at BME schools, they did not cooperate in recruitment and networking in the community. This absence of cooperation seems to have strongly undermined the programme.

6.4.7. Summary

The full potential of relational constructs was not explored. However, those parents who attended the workshops trusted the workshop leaders, they felt committed to the programme, they were satisfied and they perceived value in the launches and workshops.

Next, we will present a summary of the main strengths and weaknesses of the programme, from a relationship marketing point of view.

6.5. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF THE PROGRAMME

Drawing in the data analysis, we will now present a summary of the main strengths and weaknesses of the programme (Table 6.1.)

Table. 6.1. Strengths and weaknesses of the programme

Strengths	Weaknesses
The multi-component nature of the programme.	Parents seen as targets rather than partners: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ assumptions of experience and expertise; ▪ no needs and values assessment; ▪ single delivery model.
Communication process: BP parent materials and their relational approach.	
Interaction process: launches and workshops delivered in a relational style.	Product-logic: limited resources (time, knowledge, people).
Value process: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ parents enjoyed participating in the launch and workshops; ▪ parents learned important skills; ▪ parents experienced relational benefits. 	Weak partnerships and networks with potential key partners.
Key relational constructs: parents who attended the workshops trusted the workshop leaders, they were satisfied and they perceived value in the launches and workshops.	Functionalistic management of the programme and sub-optimization: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ workshops and launches, BP materials and school component seen as specialized functions: sum of isolated parts rather than a whole; ▪ low synchronicity between the parent and the school components.
	Persuasion, not dialogue process: missed opportunities to learn with parents about their needs and values.
	Interaction process as a sum of isolated parts: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ missed opportunities to link the launches with the workshops; ▪ missed opportunities to link the workshops with the BP parent materials and the school component; ▪ poor and inconsistent delivery of BP key messages.
	Value process and missed opportunities to create value: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ no follow up and no feed-back on parents; ▪ continuity and progression routes were not addressed.
	Relational constructs: their full potential was not explored.

Looking at these strengths and weaknesses as a whole, it does seem that the strengths of the programme were insufficient and not maximized, whereas the weaknesses point to critical strategic factors. Apart from this analysis of strengths and weaknesses, that explains the causal mechanisms of the programme, there are also contextual factors that need to be taken in consideration. We will now analyse them.

6.6. CONTEXTUAL FACTORS

Contextual factors refer to those features of the conditions in which programmes are introduced that are relevant to the operation of the programme mechanisms. We analyse two different levels of contextual factors: a broader level that corresponds to the widespread difficulty of engaging parents and a more specific level concerning the programme itself.

6.6.1. The broader context

The broader context of Blueprint, as explained in the previous chapter, in section 5.3., is characterized by a widespread difficulty in recruiting secondary school parents into any kind of school-related or drug prevention activity. As suggested in the literature, there is dilemma for prevention planners and practitioners: parents rate drug education as important but predominantly want their children to be taught the ‘just say no’ message (Mallick et al, 1998). Parents often underestimate the extent of their own influence, believing peer influence to be the decisive factor in their child’s drug-related behaviour. At the same time they lack basic knowledge about drugs and confidence in communicating with their children (Velleman et al, 2000).

6.6.2. Specific contextual factors

In what concerns the more specific factors we analyse *low synchronicity* and *level of disadvantage*.

Low synchronicity

The issue of low synchronicity between the parent and the school component has been identified, in the summary above, as a weakness of the programme. However, we think it can also be seen as a contextual issue as it concerns the need to understand a programme component in the context of the overall programme and its multi-component nature.

It is possible that the higher attendance rates in Spring 2004 were partly also influenced by the launches running at the same time as the Year 7 lessons in school, at a time when parental interest in Blueprint might be expected to be at its highest. The parent component events only began to be offered in Spring 2004 (around the middle to the end of the Year 7 lesson delivery period) to avoid that schools would feel overburdened by the introduction of too many components at the same time. Ironically, data suggests that a feeling of school fatigue with Blueprint might have negatively affected the work with parents.

Level of disadvantage

It is possible that attendance was related to general levels of affluence and deprivation in the community around each school. Secondary data from Blueprint evaluation on the

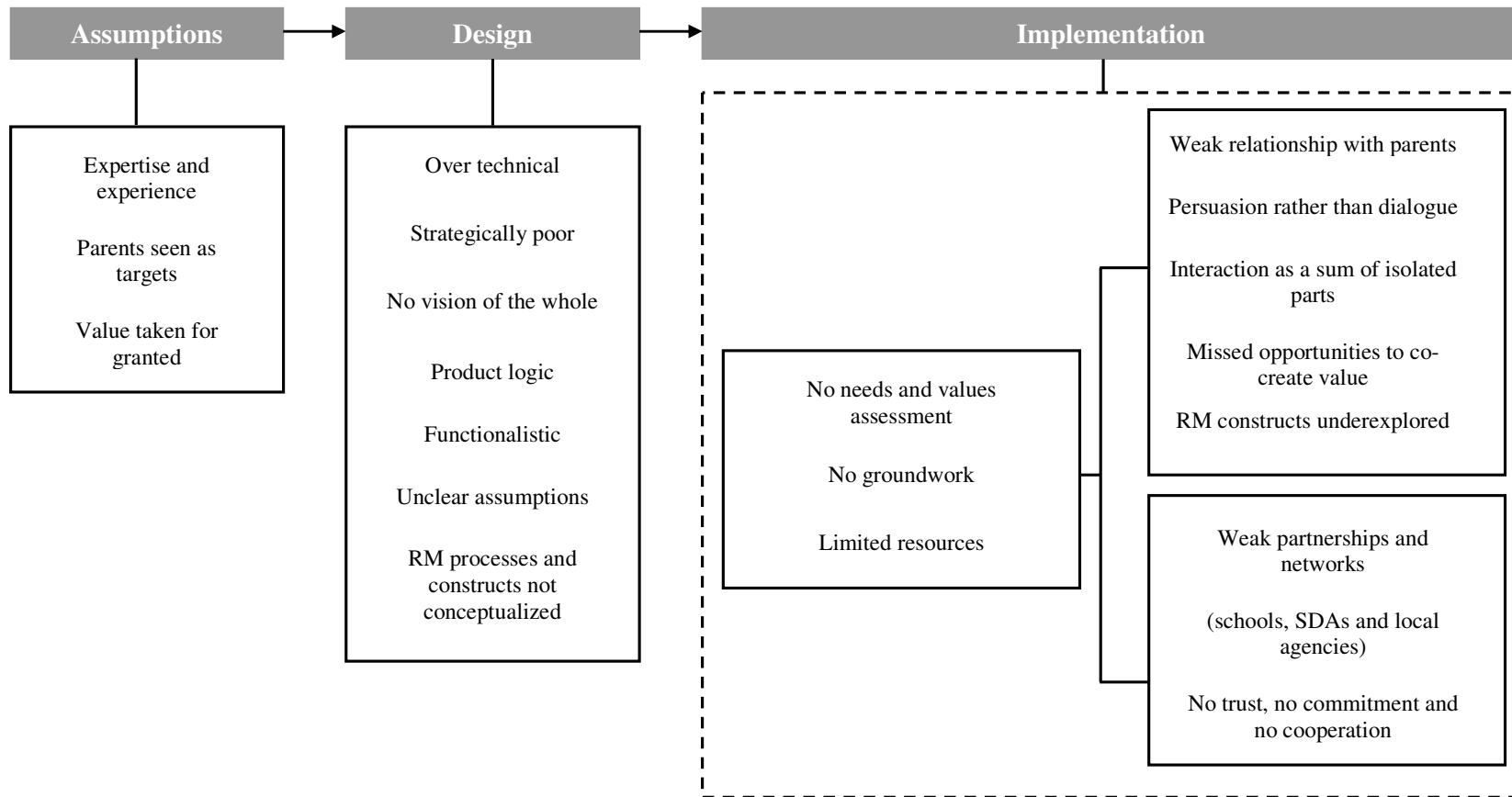
comparison of the level of free school meal entitlement (a recognised marker of disadvantage) with the level of parent launch attendance, show that the school with the highest attendance had the lowest free meal entitlement, while the schools with the highest level of free meal entitlement in contrast all had low attendance (5% or less). However, even among the relatively affluent schools many had very low attendance. Therefore, while the highest attendance was found for the relatively affluent schools, affluence did not guarantee good attendance.

In the next section we elaborate an explanatory framework that graphically summarizes the causal mechanisms of the programme and its contextual factors.

6.7. AN EXPLANATORY FRAMEWORK

We have elaborated a framework to de-construct the dominant – transactional - logic of the programme and explain how it affected its assumptions, design and implementation. Further, the framework demonstrates that the programme was de-contextualized from its broader social context (Figure 6.3.)

Fig. 6.3. Explanatory Framework: The transactional logic and its consequences



CONTEXTUAL FACTORS

<i>Specific</i>	Low synchronicity	Schools over-burned with the other components of the programme	Level of disadvantage
<i>Broad</i>	Parents' fundamental life-objectives	Parents' motivations to engage in drugs prevention programmes	Parents' perceptions of their role

6.8. SUMMARY

This chapter presented the research findings. The analysis was structured around the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing to demonstrate whether and how these were applied by the programme. We have showed that the presence of relationship marketing helped and its absence hindered the programme and we have identified the aspects of relationship marketing that are more challenging to apply. The relationship marketing principles were particularly challenging to explore and this seriously undermined the programme: parents were treated as targets rather than partners, the programme was managed according to a functionalistic perspective, it worked upon a product logic and true partnerships did not develop with potential key partners like schools and local agencies. Concerning the processes, these were only partially applied. The BP parent materials did have relational potential, delivery worked according to a relational style and parents enjoyed participating in the launches and workshops. However, recruitment and delivery were not managed as integrated processes. Several opportunities to dialogue were missed and the links between the launches, the workshops, the BP parent materials and the school component were weak, causing sub-optimization. In terms of relational constructs, these were not fully explored. Parents that attended the workshops trusted, perceived value, were satisfied and felt committed. However, as far as it concerns the great majority of Blueprint parents, workshop leaders, schools and drug school advisors, the constructs were not applied and this absence brought negative consequences to the programme.

A summary of strengths and weaknesses was made to help understanding how the presence or absence of relationship marketing affected the programme and to identify

the aspects of relationship marketing that are more challenging to apply. Further, an explanatory framework was developed to demonstrate the de-constructing logic of process evaluation and to better understand the causal mechanisms of the programme. This framework showed how the absence of relationship marketing affected the assumptions and undermined the design and the implementation of the programme.

In the next chapter we will discuss the main findings, present the conclusions and explain the research implications.

7. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

7.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the main findings, presents the conclusions and explains the research implications. Further, the research limitations and suggestions for further research are formulated.

7.2. DISCUSSION

The discussion section is structured around the research objectives to make the research contributions clearer. As formulated in the introductory chapter, the objectives are the following:

- To identify what potential there is for RM ideas to work in a SM context. More specifically,
 - to examine whether the key RM principles, processes and constructs transfer.
- To study how that potential works in practice. Specifically, in a live SM case,
 - to examine whether the presence of the principles, processes and constructs help or their absence hinders and
 - to examine which aspects of relationship marketing are easier and which are more challenging to apply.
- To explain how relationship marketing might improve the design, implementation and evaluation of social marketing programmes.
- To contribute for critical thinking and practice. Specifically,

- to demonstrate how relationship marketing can increase the critical power of evaluation (methodological contribution) and
- to explain how relationship marketing can help to reposition social marketing in society.

7.2.1 Relationship Marketing's Theoretical Potential

We have identified through the literature the key principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing that can potentially transfer to social marketing. The key principles are the following: customer as the prime driver of value creation; service logic and resources orientation; process management perspective and partnerships and networks. The key processes are communication, dialogue, interaction and value. As far as it concerns the main constructs, we have identified trust, commitment, satisfaction, perceived value, identification and cooperation. The purpose was to fully capture the fundamental changes involved in the shift from transactions to relationships and to make explicit the complexities and strategic implications of relationship marketing.

7.2.2. Relationship Marketing's Potential in Practice

7.2.2.1. Levels of application and consequences

We have de-constructed the dominant, transactional, paradigm of the programme and showed that the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing were not widely applied. There were partial successful applications of relationship marketing, however its full potential was not explored.

Blueprint parent programme had several potential successful elements. Involving parents in the programme was one of the key aims of the programme as a whole. This was based on evidence that drug education programmes with multiple components are more effective than a school only approach and that good parenting can be a protective factor against drug taking (Baker, 2006). In accordance with those objectives, it was intended that the parent component of Blueprint would offer a strong value proposition built around an integrated mix of elements: parent materials, launches and workshops were supposed to complement and reinforce each other. It was clearly specified by the Home Office that the work with parents should complement the school curriculum and that parents should be made aware of the materials that had been specially designed for them.

Further, parent materials had the potential to act as powerful relationship marketing communication tools. Their tone was positive and empathic and their content provided parents several opportunities to learn through practicing. The relevance of parents' role was explained and emphasized. Furthermore, parents were given clear orientation about how to use the materials and the link between the materials and the school lessons for their children was also clearly addressed.

Opportunities to create value were explored in the delivery of launches and workshops. The launches and the workshops were delivered in a relational style and parents enjoyed the activities proposed by the deliverers. Those parents that committed to the workshops felt they trusted the workshop leaders, they had learned important skills, enjoyed the experience of participating in the workshops and their relationship with the workshop leaders and other parents.

However, despite these successful aspects of the programme, relationship marketing was only applied at a micro-level, explored in its technical potentialities and in a fragmented way. Individually, the parent materials, the launches and the workshops worked well. However, they were sub-optimized and constituted a sum of exchanges in isolated transactions. Relationship marketing requires more than this: it requires that the parts are linked, maximized and integrated into a whole (Gronroos, 1996). Relationship marketing is a logic, a perspective, a macro-approach to deal with complexity rather than just a technique, a style of delivery or a sum of individual acts. At this strategic and higher level, relationship marketing was not applied and this seriously undermined the programme. We will now explain how.

7.2.2.2. Challenges

It has been established throughout this thesis that relationship marketing has a lot of potential in social marketing, but that it also raises several challenges. The findings confirmed that argument. The programme faced critical challenges in several domains and we will now discuss each of them.

A persuasion rather than a relational logic

It was assumed in Blueprint that the workshops would be appealing for parents because the approach had worked in the past. Blueprint didn't conduct any prior research with parents and didn't assess parents' needs and values. This resistance to market research indicates that the programme acted upon a "social service mentality" (Andreasen, 1995).

We are not questioning the ends and aims of Blueprint. Instead, our focus is on its means. As research suggests, parents often underestimate the extent of their own influence, believing peer influence to be the decisive factor in their children's drug-related behaviour. At the same time they lack basic knowledge about drugs and confidence in communicating with their children (Velleman et al, 2000). However, a single correct answer to this dilemma cannot be imposed.

The literature suggests that parents should be given the option for different types of engagement in drugs prevention programmes and a chance to "build their own programme": drug awareness sessions, volunteer training, (parent) peer education or living with teenagers courses (Velleman et al, 2000). This demands a great level of flexibility. Blueprint did changes in delivery and gave parents the chance to choose which three workshops they preferred. However, the fundamental problem seemed to be with the very concept of workshops, not with their specific content.

Because no prior research with parents was conducted, Blueprint didn't anticipate that parents might perceive the concept of workshops as threatening and patronizing. It has to be acknowledged that the behaviours wanted might not be desirable or possible from the parents's perspective. As a consequence, a balance is needed between the best and the most suitable solutions (Chang and Jun, 1998).

Finding this balance demands that Blueprint had not only to understand parents' needs but also their values, re-centring parents in the broader contexts of their lives (Tzokas and Saren, 1997; Gumesson, 1997, 2000a). In order to do that, it would have been necessary to examine "*How do parents see their role? What makes them underestimate*

their level of influence? What priorities and objectives do they establish for their lives? What do they do in their lives to achieve their objectives?" This broader contextualization would have helped understanding other more specific issues like: their feelings about participating in drug education programmes, their reaction to the concept of parent workshops, what barriers exist to attendance and what would motivate them to attend.

The fact this re-examination was not done meant that a true opportunity to establish a genuine dialogue with parents was missed. Dialogue, as an opportunity for value transformation (Tzokas and Saren, 1997), would have helped Blueprint developing more meaningful alternatives and, simultaneously, would have helped parents distinguishing between their needs and wants. The assumptions of experience and expertise in working with parents meant that the programme worked accordingly to a persuasion rather than a relational logic: parents were treated as targets rather than partners (Brenkert, 2002).

A relational logic is much more demanding than a persuasion or transactional one: it requires a focus on resources and competences as strongly emphasized in the literature (Gronroos, 1996; Gumesson, 2002a).

A product logic rather than a resources/service logic

Engaging parents in drug prevention activities is a long-term and demanding process. Time is crucial to assess needs and values, to pilot recruitment methods and delivery concepts, to do community mapping and networking, to modify the programme if needed and to build relationships with parents and other partners: schools, school drug

advisors and local agencies. The compressed timetable of Blueprint meant that none of these issues was sufficiently addressed which also affected the sustainability of the programme.

Blueprint confirmed what is suggested in the literature. Engaging parents in drugs education is very challenging because there are many barriers that need to be addressed: underestimation of their role and influence, social difficulties, parent perceptions of drug education, dislike of socialising with other parents and taking part in groups, fear of stigmatization, confusion of wants and needs, time and child care commitments, being unconvinced of the need for or value of participation. Because of these challenges, all activities with parents tend to be time and human resource intensive. For example, the assessment of parental needs demands considerable networking and skilled project workers (Velleman et al, 2000). In Blueprint, however, Parent Trust Coordinator was only appointed in March, the time when delivery started.

Furthermore, Parent Trust opted for centralizing delivery rather than devolving it to local implementers. This decision made success much more dependent on the skills of Parent Trust and particularly of their Coordinator. The literature suggests that the skills of project and social workers are critical to overcome the social service mentality (Andreasen, 1995). However, Blueprint failed this challenge.

A functionalistic rather than a process management perspective

Previous research into protective factors against involvement in drug use underpinned the decision to make the Blueprint Parent Component workshops broadly focused on

generic parenting skills and parent-child communication rather than drug-specific. It was not clear, however, how the workshops would put that message across. Despite the Home Office's requirements, the Parent Trust proposal did not make the following issues explicit:

- how the workshops and launches would link to BP parent materials and to the school component;
- how exactly the drugs specific content would be introduced into the workshops and
- key messages to be delivered.

This indicates that the PT's proposal was designed upon a functionalistic perspective which negatively affected implementation: it was not clearly explained to workshop leaders what they were expected to cover and, more fundamentally, it was not clearly explained to them why.

The decision to phase the introduction of Blueprint components and to start the Parent Component work after the curriculum and teacher training work meant that there was a low synchronicity between the parent and the school component. This contradicted one of the key aims of the parent component - to complement the school component - constrained the opportunity to fully explore the potential value of the parent workshops and reinforced the functionalistic logic of the programme. Multi-component interventions are presumed to produce stronger effects than single component programmes because the different components reinforce or amplify one another and combine to produce a greater and longer lasting effect (Fortmann et al, 1995; Pentz et

al, 1997). This process management perspective was implicit in the Home Office's requirements but not applied in the programme.

Adversarial rather partnerships

As suggested in the literature (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Gronroos, 1994a), the need to establish multiple relationships presents opportunities and challenges. One of them is to establish priorities. In the case of Blueprint, relationships with schools, SDAs and local agencies were weak. The short time frame of the programme and the subsequent limited groundwork affected the potential quality of the relationships with those stakeholders: no trust, no commitment and no cooperation. The Parent Trust seemed to have assumed that these relationships would naturally develop, but that was not the case. They were not seen as a priority and, as a consequence, a knowledge renewal process didn't develop. The *know how* of schools, local agencies and drug school advisors wasn't used and explored (Ballantyne and Varey, 2006). Moreover, Parent Trust opted for centralizing delivery rather than devolving it to local implementers and developing strategic networks. This has obviously affected the programme's sustainability.

Recruitment and delivery rather than dialogue, interaction and value

The literature points three vital areas for the successful execution of a relationship marketing strategy (Gronroos, 2000b, 2004): in the interaction process value is transferred and also partly created by the customer; a dialogue process is needed to support the establishment, maintenance and enhancement of the interaction process; a value process is needed to demonstrate how the customer indeed perceives the creation

and transfer of value over time. However, Blueprint didn't explore the full potential of each of these processes, nor, more fundamentally, the link between them.

- ***Missed opportunities for dialogue***

Dialogue is an advanced form of communication. It is built on trust and the test for dialogical authenticity is whether interaction creates the opportunity for learning together (Ballentyne and Varey, 2006). These opportunities were not genuinely explored in Blueprint. As already discussed, the first missed opportunity was the fact that Blueprint didn't assess parents' needs and their value systems. Recruitment was faced as a persuasion process rather than as an interactive and dialogical process. Letters and phone calls were the main methods and the potential role of community consultants was not explored. To implement a true dialogue it is necessary to invest in resources, namely time and skilled human resources. Other dialogue opportunities were missed. These are discussed next.

- ***Interaction process: a sum of isolated parts rather than a whole***

Only the integration of dialogue and interaction onto one strategy that is systematically implemented creates relationship marketing (Gronroos, 2000a, 2000b, 2004). In Blueprint this integration was weak. Despite the fact that the information sessions, the launches and workshops were delivered in a relational style, opportunities to listen, feed-back on parents and open up perspectives were missed. Several situations illustrate this. For example, the opportunities to dialogue with parents at the end of the launches (when they were filling the evaluation forms) and at the introductory workshops (when

parents were to be asked about their preferences) were somewhat limited to the exchange of information, rather than fully explored as learning opportunities.

An additional challenge was to build a strong and consistent value proposition. As indicated in the literature, the fact that there is a collective of different people and organizations involved in the design and delivery of multi-component programmes, makes consistency a critical challenge. In Blueprint, different people and organizations were involved in the design and delivery of different parts of the programme:

- design of BP parent materials;
- design of launch and workshops;
- recruitment;
- delivery of launches;
- delivery of workshops.

Blueprint is a good illustration of how challenging it is to manage interaction as a whole rather than as a sum of isolated parts. This functionalistic management meant that there weren't strong links between the "parts" which limited the opportunities to co-create value with parents:

- confusing link between the launches and the workshops;
- poor links between the workshops, the BP parent materials and the school component;
- poor and inconsistent delivery of BP key messages.

Data suggests there were critical gaps in the design and implementation of the programme. As already discussed, the design didn't make explicit to the workshop leaders that links were important and why. This lack of clarity affected the content of the workshop leader's training and the subsequent delivery of workshops. The training was supposed to make links explicit but data suggests the contrary: Blueprint key messages were not identified and it was not made sufficiently clear to workshop leaders that they were expected to make parents aware of the BP materials. The interviews and, more fundamentally, the analysis of the training manuals, confirmed this: they lacked context and didn't mention Blueprint.

As a result, the parent materials, the launch and workshops ended up working as fragments rather than as a whole. This had direct implications in the value propositions' content.

These findings also suggest the need of a well organized and continuous internal marketing process (Gronroos, 1996). In the case of Blueprint this would demand that recruiters and deliverers perform in a customer-oriented fashion and commit to a true relationship marketing strategy.

- ***Missed opportunities to create value***

Parents did enjoy the launches and workshops, they perceived to have learned important skills and reported having experienced relational benefits. However, additional opportunities to co-create value with parents were missed. The fact that workshop leaders didn't provide parents any guidance about how to use the BP parent materials was probably the most evident missed opportunity. Other opportunities also need to be

discussed. At the interviews, a few parents pointed issues that could have been covered more in depth by the workshop leaders: the accessibility of drugs and the process of finding help. However, the workshop leaders didn't follow up and ask for feedback from parents, missing the opportunity to make them reflect about their learning process and, eventually, to build different alternatives in terms of progression routes with them. Workshop leaders felt there was not a clear strategy to "move parents on" which, again, suggests that training didn't explicitly cover an important issue: "what happens next?" This concern was expressed by some parents in the interviews.

It does seem from the wider literature that the parent element of a drug prevention programme is often longer, more substantial and intensive than the Parent Component of Blueprint (Kumpfer, 1997). This reinforces the need to address the issue of continuity because if Blueprint was not sufficiently long and intensive it would be expectable that parents would feel a need for further learning. This expectation was expressed by several parents in the interviews.

In the commercial marketing literature the issue of continuity is deeply related with the concept of structural bonds (Wilson, 2000; Berry, 2000; Liljander and Roos, 2002). Structural bonds are forces that create impediments to the termination of the relationship. The idea is to offer value-adding benefits that are difficult or expensive for customers to provide and that are not readily available elsewhere. However, it seems this concept cannot be directly transferred from the commercial to the social sector. As illustrated by Blueprint, continuity could only be addressed if parents were given guidance about progression routes through alternative programmes and organizations. But, despite its importance, the issue of continuity was not addressed in Blueprint.

Continuity is also deeply related with the concept of *value in use* addressed in the literature (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996; Vargo and Lusch, 2004). The customers create value themselves in their value-creating processes, in other words, in their daily activities when products are needed by them for them to perform activities. This open-ended time logic is not compatible with short or medium term programmes, as Blueprint, and reinforces the relevance of continuity.

Under exploitation of relational constructs

An integral part of the value creation process is the development of relationship marketing constructs. Building from the literature, we have identified those that we consider to be the most relevant to social marketing. Some of these constructs are appropriate in both organizational and consumer relationships – trust, commitment and cooperation – whereas others are more specific to relationships with consumers - perceived value, satisfaction and identification. As suggested in the literature, consumer relationships contain a more affective dimension than organizational relationships (Roberts, Varki and Brodie, 2003) and the evaluation of Blueprint confirmed this difference. Data also suggests that the full potential of these concepts was not maximized. We will now discuss each of them.

- *Trust*

The majority of parents that attended the workshops trusted the workshop leaders, based on the feelings of care and concern. It is worthy reminding that most of these parents came to the launch and workshops because they were in need of help and advice.

However, the great majority of Blueprint parents did not engage with Blueprint. It was suggested that the implication that they were in need of help might have created resistances in parents to the concept of workshops. Literature points customer vulnerability as the primer driver of trust (e.g. Deutch, 1962; Coleman, 1990; Moorman, Desphandé and Zaltman, 1993; Sirdeshmunkh at al, 2003) but social marketers have to know how to deal with it and avoid a patronizing approach.

Parent Trust was specifically created for Blueprint and it was not known locally, which may have made parents feel confused or suspicious about it. It is also possible that schools drug advisors, schools and local agencies perceived Parent Trust to have been externally imposed by Blueprint, disregarding their own expertise, which didn't help to build trusting relationship. Relying on experience and expertise, Parent Trust did not anticipate any problems and the limited groundwork and networking in the community legitimized those perceptions.

- ***Commitment***

Those parents that engaged in the workshops obviously committed. However, the great majority of parents, despite their positive perceptions about Blueprint, didn't find the launch and workshops sufficiently valuable.

Gruen (1995) argues that commitment can provide an explanation for the continuance of relationships when trust is weak and he distinguishes between affective commitment (overall positive feelings towards the relationship) and normative commitment (sense of obligation to the relationship). As far as it concerns workshop leaders, schools, SDAs

and local agencies, it was not clearly communicated to them how they were expected to commit to Blueprint. PT seemed to have taken for granted that, particularly schools, would, at least, normatively commit, but that was not the case.

Consistency is a very important aspect of commitment. In Blueprint, the inconsistent approach of Parent Trust legitimized, in a certain way, the lack of commitment from key potential partners.

- ***Satisfaction***

Research in the charity beneficiary context suggests that the level of client need has the potential to affect satisfaction and that it might be expected that needy people will be more easily pleased (Bennett and Barkensjo, 2005). Blueprint seems to confirm this but over-reliance on this logic raises ethical challenges that social marketers cannot ignore (Brenkert, 2002). Simultaneously, social marketers have to be cautious about the expectations they create, making sure they are capable of filling them in a consistent and continuous way.

- ***Perceived value***

Those parents that committed perceived value in the workshops: they learned important skills and enjoyed the relationship. However, the low engagement of most parents suggests that they didn't see clear benefits in the launch and workshops. Data suggests that protecting a child from getting involved in drugs may have been seen by parents as hypothetical rather than a real benefit.

As pointed by Andreasen (1995), individuals make choices between sets of benefits and sets of costs. To market benefits and de-market costs it is necessary, first, to understand how they relate to parents` values. The Parent Trust just assumed that the benefit of communication as a protective factor would be valued by parents, but this was not the case.

- ***Identification***

The identity of Blueprint was clearly communicated through the parent materials and the media. However, as suggested in the literature, this was not enough. Identification mainly occurs when interactions manage to integrate the consumer in the organization and when consumers interact with other consumers (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). The intended network of community consultants might have worked as an opportunity for developing identification. But this was not implemented. Moreover, because social marketing programmes involve a mix of organizations the challenge is that the identity is clearly and consistently communicated. This also has implications in branding.

- ***Cooperation***

Cooperation is proactive and can take several forms: citizenship behaviours or extra-role behaviours; word of mouth, participation in the activities of the organization (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). In Blueprint, cooperation from parents, workshop leaders, schools and local agencies was very limited. Again, it seems that it was just assumed that they would all cooperate. The compressed timeframe and over-reliance on the value of the programme distracted the Parent Trust from activating and stimulating different forms of cooperation.

We will now discuss the influence relationship marketing can have in the assumptions, design, implementation and evaluation of programmes.

7.2.3. Assumptions, Design, Implementation and Evaluation

The process evaluation conducted in this research, done according to the RM principles, processes and constructs, allowed us to identify the vision that shaped the programme and understand how that vision affected its assumptions, design and implementation. The findings suggest that the programme was oriented and shaped by a transactional approach which affected its assumptions and undermined its design and implementation.

Rather than seeing consumers as partners, it saw consumers as targets, not recognizing them as the main drivers of the value creation process. It was assumed that the Parent Trust's expertise and experience would be sufficient to make the programme work. This led to the assumption that the launch and workshops would be appealing to parents and that parents would just need to be persuaded to participate. Assumptions are very important because they influence the way we understand and see things and the way we act. Blueprint is a very good illustration of that.

Assumptions influenced the design and the implementation. The assumption of success made the design over technical and weak from a strategic point of view. Issues like key resources, the appropriate management perspective and the need to establish partnerships were not addressed in the PT's proposal. Moreover, the design lacked a vision of the whole, clarity and explanatory power. It wasn't explicit about the link

between the launch, the workshops, the parent materials and the school component. Further, the design didn't explain why things were the way they were. This is even more important if we take in consideration that the design of BP materials, the design of the launch and workshops, the recruitment, the delivery of the launches and the delivery of workshops were all in the hands of different people. In such a context, a clear design is critical so that funders, designers, deliverers and implementers share the vision of the programme.

In Blueprint, the relationship between design and implementation is evident. Despite the poor implementation of specific issues included in the design - like the intention to use community consultants – and the influence of contextual factors, the problems with implementation seem to reflect the lack of vision and strategic thinking of the design.

Concerning evaluation, this research demonstrates the implications of relationship marketing through the methodology itself. Therefore, one of the main contributions of this thesis is methodological. We have designed and applied a process evaluation to look inside the so-called *black box* and see what happened in the programme. Our evaluation incorporates many evaluation components from process evaluation literature, however, it examines them from a different angle. The evaluation itself incorporated the relationship marketing vision, its principles, processes and constructs.

Next, we will discuss the contribution of this research to critical thinking and practice, one of the objectives of the research.

7.2.4. Critical Thinking and Practice

This research contributes to critical thinking in two ways. First, through the evaluation exercise, we have de-constructed the programme's dominant paradigm - the transactional paradigm - and made its assumptions explicit in order to contest and compare it with alternative paradigms (Eakin et al, 1996).

Second, we have examined the extent to which the programme is centred in the broader context of society. The Home Office included a social contextualization for Blueprint in the *Specification Document*, acknowledging that parents often underestimate their level of influence and that is very difficult to recruit parents for drug prevention programmes. However, in contradiction, Blueprint didn't assess parents' needs and values. Our evaluation uncovered this inconsistency and its consequences. Parents are not just parents. They are social actors that live in a complex and pluralistic society. To help parents understanding their role, the starting point is re-centring them in the broader context of their lives.

We will now formulate the research conclusions.

7.3. CONCLUSIONS

This study can help filling the gap identified in the introductory chapter. The gap is that social marketing is being slow to respond to relationship marketing and the field is still dominated by the transactional paradigm. This study demonstrated that the absence of relationship marketing principles, processes and constructs seriously undermines social

marketing programmes and confirmed that despite its potential, relationship marketing raises critical challenges to social marketers.

As a new foundation for thinking, relationship marketing is radically different from transactional marketing. The principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing have a lot to offer to social marketing. However, this research showed that the transference of relationship marketing to social marketing requires deep changes in social marketing thinking and practice. The key challenges are the following: to overcome the persuasion logic and really see consumers as the main drivers of the value creation process; to overcome the product logic and invest in resources and competences; to move from a functionalistic to a process management perspective and find more flexible organizational structures; to develop networks and identify priority partnerships. Additional challenges are to recognize that relationship marketing is not a “lip service” and to see beyond its technical potentialities. This implies that recruitment and delivery are re-conceptualized as dialogue, interaction and value creating processes which, in turn, will optimize the integrative potential of relationship marketing. Relationship marketing is much more than a sum of exchanges in isolated transactions and it is much more than a set of techniques. It is a new foundation for thinking that requires strategic vision and a sense of the whole.

This research demonstrated that the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing have major implications in the assumptions, design, implementation and evaluation of social marketing programmes. One way of understanding these implications is to first de-construct the prevailed paradigm to then re-construct an

alternative. We have shown that evaluation can be used as a critical exercise of deconstruction, making things explicit, visible and opened up to discussion.

Finally, to fully accomplish the research objectives, we need to go back to the issues raised in the introductory chapter concerning the value pluralist society and its implications for marketing. This study showed that the transactional paradigm is not capable of responding to the complexities of the value pluralist society. It was demonstrated how urgent is that social marketing programmes are re-centred in society, that marketers re-examine their roles and that consumers are seen as active producers of meaning, values and world views.

Following, we will explain the implications and limitations of this research.

7.4. IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The implications of this research are intended to be generalizable not only to programmes involving parents but also to a whole variety of complex, multi-component programmes.

7.4.1. Implications for theory

Social Marketing definition

The transference of relationship marketing to social marketing has implications in the definition of social marketing. Behaviour change is the ultimate goal but the process of building social relationships has to be incorporated.

Social marketing and its theoretical base

The transference of relationship marketing demands a broader and multidisciplinary theoretical base. Social marketing will continue to learn with commercial marketing but also needs to learn more with sociology and philosophy, particularly in regard to knowledge about values and their role in human behaviour.

Critical marketing

The present research shows that what seems evident, it is not. Thus, it can be said that one of the main theoretical implications of the study is to contribute to a more reflexive and self-critical social marketing. Social marketing has to turn to itself, de-construct its own contradictions and face its challenges.

Health promotion evaluation

Relationship marketing has implications in the health promotion evaluation frameworks, particularly in process evaluation. Process evaluation has to evolve and reflect the complexity and strategic dimensions of relationship marketing.

Next, we will formulate the implications for practice.

7.4.2. Implications for practice

Understand needs and values

In Blueprint it was just assumed that the programme would work. However, data suggests that over-reliance on expertise and experience can be dangerous because it leads to misconceptions about the marketers' role. Instead, marketers have to re-question their assumptions and taken for granted truths and re-centre consumers in the context of their lives. This implies that it is not enough to understand their needs; it is fundamental to know how they strive to achieve the results required to fulfil their needs. Consumers' values and consumers' valuation processes have to be researched, understood and incorporated into the programmes.

Allow long timeframes and invest in resources

Blueprint's timeframe and human resources were limited. However, relationship marketing is long-term oriented and resources-based. Engaging parents of secondary school aged children in drug prevention programmes seems to be a much longer-term and resource-intensive process than was envisaged in Blueprint. Sufficient time and resources need to be allowed to assess needs and values, to groundwork, do community mapping and networking, to modify the programme if needed and to implement the key relationship marketing processes.

Make assumptions explicit and design clear

The lack of clarity in the design of Blueprint affected the potential value propositions of the programme and limited opportunities to value creation with parents. Blueprint

design lacked clarity, context and a vision of the whole. For example, it seems that the Parent Trust didn't clearly explain to workshop leaders how and why the workshops would link to the launches and the parent materials. However, because value creation works upon an integrative logic, it is essential for implementers and partners to understand the nature and purpose of programme activities and how it is intended that these contribute to the overall value proposition.

Exploit synergies, consistency and integration

A key part of the rationale for multi-component programmes is the potential for different components to reinforce and enhance other components, so that the whole has a greater effect than the sum of its parts. However, data suggests that one of the main weaknesses of Blueprint was that the elements of the parent programme worked as a sum of isolated parts. Therefore, implementers have to be fully committed to the programme and deeply understand the full range of elements and components, not only the ones that concern them more directly. This also points to the need to emphasize and harness internal marketing: implementers have to be motivated to perform in a customer-oriented fashion. Another problem in Blueprint - that undermined integration - was the low synchronicity between the school component and the parent component. Having started the parent component later than the school component reduced the burden on schools but, on the other hand, reduced opportunities for value creation. The decision to phase delivery has therefore implications that need to be carefully examined and balanced.

Integrate dialogue, interaction and value

In Blueprint, recruitment and delivery were seen as separate and straightforward processes, rather than integral parts of a broader, complex, dynamic and transformational value creation process. Contrarily to what happened in Blueprint, interaction is much more than a sum of isolated deliveries; dialogue is much more than a sum of letters and phone calls; value is not just what is delivered: value is co-created with consumers and sometimes even solely created by consumers in their daily lives. The implications are that social marketers have to understand the power of dialogue as a process of learning; to interact with consumers since the very beginning of the programme; to be flexible, offer different routes of engagement, address continuity and build alternative progression routes and opportunities for further learning with consumers.

Develop appropriate structures and organization

Relationship marketing demands not only new values and attitudes but also appropriate organizational structures. Blueprint suggests that it is challenging to manage a collective of people and organizations as a whole. It is crucial that funders, designers and implementers share the vision, purpose and understanding of programmes. Furthermore, if recruitment and delivery are integral parts of the value creating process rather than segregated processes, it is necessary to make sure that the integration logic is reflected in the organization structure developed for programmes: it will have to be flexible and horizontally structured rather than rigid and vertically structured.

Another organizational issue concerns deciding whether a central or a devolved delivery is more suitable to relationship marketing. The Parent Trust opted for a central delivery but it is likely that the alternative approach of devolving delivery to local parenting organisations – and work through existing structures and networks – might have been more able to implement the relationship marketing key processes. Decisions about structure and organization affect the sustainability of programmes, which is a fundamental principle of relationship marketing.

Prioritize relationships

In Blueprint the explicit need to address and build multi-relationships was not formulated. It was just assumed that schools, local agencies and drug school advisors would cooperate but this was not the case. Social marketers have to identify, prioritize, invest time and resources in relationships with strategic partners. Further, it is necessary to enhance the synergetic effect of multi-relationships.

Address RM constructs

The potential of trust, commitment, satisfaction, perceived value, identification and cooperation was under explored in Blueprint. These constructs are very important and normally develop when relationship marketing principles and processes are applied. However, social marketers cannot fall in the temptation of assuming that these constructs will develop without much effort, given that social marketing is driven by the desire to benefit society rather than by profit. Further, data suggests that the more “in need” parents developed trust based on feelings of care and concern. However, caution

is needed when dealing with issues of vulnerability: relationship marketing logic is not compatible with the rhetoric of support and its therapeutic logic.

The next section examines the limitations of the research and formulates suggestions for further research.

7.4.3. Limitations and suggestions for further research

One of the limitations of this research is its single-case design. As advised by Yin (2003), multiple-case designs may be preferable to single-case design because they make the research less vulnerable, bring more analytical benefits and strengthens external validity of the findings. Therefore, a suggestion for further research is to conduct multiple-cases about the potentialities and challenges of relationship marketing in different programmes: some allowing direct replication and others dealing with contrasting conditions (theoretical replication).

The implications and learning from this research are intended to be applicable to a whole variety of complex, multi-component programmes in the area of health promotion. However, further research is needed to examine the applicability of relationship marketing in other areas of social marketing like, for example, criminal justice and road safety.

In addition, an important research area relates to the development of an evaluation framework that incorporates the principles, processes and constructs of relationship marketing. Our research gives some steps towards this end but a lot of work still needs

to be done. The process of developing a more relational-oriented evaluation will need to be interactive and collaborative and to involve policy makers, funders, designers, deliverers, researchers and participants.

Further research should also examine and compare the potential of relationship marketing in the four different areas identified in the literature (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Hastings, 2003): buyer, internal, lateral and supplier relationships.

Additionally, there is a need to understand, through a longitudinal design, the potential of relationship marketing in contexts where marketers are addressing permanent life-styles behaviours like, for example, quitting smoking.

Taking in consideration the opportunities and challenges in exploring the relationship marketing constructs, further research is needed to refine and operationalize trust, commitment, satisfaction, perceived value, identification and cooperation in social marketing.

Finally, an area that needs further research is related to the question of “with whom is the relationship?” Because social marketing programmes often involve a collective of people rather than a single organization, it is necessary to understand this from the point of view of consumers: do they see their relationship to be with the funder, with the deliverers, with the programme or with the cause/behaviour? This also points to further research in the area of branding and identity in social marketing.

Relationship marketing provides a completely new way of thinking about social problems, it helps to uncover fundamental contradictions in current thinking and it can change a field that is still dominated by prescriptive interventions and behaviour change objectives (Hastings, 2003). Its transference to social marketing opens new opportunities and challenges and has deep implications for theory and practice. It is our belief that the future of social marketing will depend on how social marketers see themselves: as behaviour change experts or as relationship managers.

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APPENDICES

INFORMATION SESSIONS (BME SCHOOLS) – OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

Venue: _____
 School(s): _____ LEA: _____
 Date of observation: _____
 N° of parents _____ Men _____ Women _____
 Start time: _____ Finish time: _____

- Describe the setting.
- Who is present at the beginning/end of the launch.
- How is time managed throughout the session?
- Whether an informal and welcoming atmosphere is created? How?
- Introduction to the information sessions
 - How is the information session introduced?
 - What is said about Blueprint?
 - What is said about the different components of Blueprint?
 - What is said about the Blueprint parent component?
 - What is said about BP parent materials?
- Introduction to the launch and subsequent workshops?
 - How are the launches introduced?
 - What is said about the launches?
 - format
 - content
 - where and when
 - What is said about the workshops?
- What key messages are delivered throughout the session?
- Is the link between communications skills and drugs education made clear to parents?
- Do the information sessions leaders ask parents about their perceptions of drugs education programmes?
- Are parents given the opportunity to raise questions about Blueprint?
- Are parents asked about their intentions to participate in Blueprint?
- Do parents raise questions about Blueprint?
- Do parents raise any particular concerns about the programme?

- Post-observation evaluative judgements
 - How did the information session go?
 - Did parents seem to have enjoyed the information session?
 - Did parents seem willing to attend the launch and the subsequent workshops?

LAUNCH (ORIGINAL FORMAT) – OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

Venue: _____
 School(s): _____ LEA: _____
 Date of observation: _____
 N° of parents _____ Men _____ Women _____
 Start time: _____ Finish time: _____

- Describe the setting.
- Who is present at the beginning/end of the launch.
- Who is leading the session?
- How is time managed throughout the session?
- Whether an informal and welcoming atmosphere is created? How?
- Introduction to the launch
 - How is the launch introduced?
 - What is said about Blueprint?
 - What is said about the different components of Blueprint?
 - What is said about the Blueprint parent materials?
- What key messages are delivered throughout the session?
- Activities
 - Type and number of activities
 - Content, methods and materials used
 - Parents' engagement
 - do parents understand the activity?
 - are they on task?
 - are they interacting with each other?
 - do they ask any questions?
- Link and introduction to the workshops
 - How are the workshops introduced?
 - What is said about the workshops?
 - Format and number of sessions
 - Themes and content
 - Where and when
 - Are parents asked about their intentions to participate in the workshops?
- Post-observation evaluative judgements
 - How did the launch go?
 - Did parents seem to have enjoyed the launch?
 - Did parents seem at ease to raise questions and to participate?
 - Did parents seem willing to attend the workshops?

•

LAUNCH (REVISED-FORMAT) – OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

Venue: _____
 School(s): _____ LEA: _____
 Date of observation: _____
 N° of parents _____ Men _____ Women _____
 Start time: _____ Finish time: _____

- Describe the setting.
- Who is present at the beginning/end of the launch?
- Who is leading the session?
- How is time managed throughout the session?
- Whether an informal and welcoming atmosphere is created? How?
- Introduction to the launch
 - How is the launch introduced?
 - What is said about Blueprint?
 - What is said about the different components of Blueprint?
 - What is said about the parent component?
 - What is said about Blueprint parent materials?
- Key messages
 - Whether the following messages and issues are delivered
 - Blueprint is an innovative programme.
 - Parents' involvement in the programme is very important to complement the lessons their children are having or had at school.
 - Parents should have received the BP materials.
 - Specific facts and stats about drugs.
 - Social change and the issue of drugs
 - Several protective factors: one of which is a strong relationship with parents.
 - Workshops: good opportunity for parents to learn more about how to build strong relationships with their children.
- Activities
 - Type of activities
 - Content, methods and materials used
 - Parents' engagement
 - do parents understand the activity?
 - are they on task?
 - are they interacting with each other?
 - do they ask any questions?

- Link and introduction to the workshops
 - How are the workshops introduced?
 - Whether the explanation on good parent-child communications as a protective factor is made explicit?
 - What is said about the workshops?
 - Format and number of sessions
 - Themes and content
 - Where and when
 - Are parents asked about what they think of Blueprint?
 - Are parents asked about how they perceive their role in drugs education?
 - Are parents asked about their intentions to participate in the workshops?
 - Do parents raise questions about the workshops?

- Evaluation forms
 - Do parents fill the evaluation forms at the end of the launch?
 - Do parents fill the part concerning their intentions to attend the workshops?
 - Do parents raise any questions concerning the forms?

- Post-observation evaluative judgements
 - How did the launch go?
 - Did parents seem to have enjoyed the launch?
 - Did parents seem to have enjoyed the specific drugs content?
 - Did parents seem at ease to raise questions and to participate?
 - Did parents seem to understand the link between communication skills and drugs education?
 - Did parents seem willing to attend the workshops?

1st WORKSHOP OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

School: _____ LEA: _____
 Venue: _____
 Workshop leader: _____ Trainee workshop leader: _____
 Date of observation: _____
 N° of parents _____ Men _____ Women _____
 Start time: _____ Finish time: _____
 Workshop title: _____

WORKSHOP SETTING (seating arrangements)

--

WHO IS PRESENT AT THE BEGINNING/END OF THE SESSION

BEGINNING	END
------------------	------------

INTRODUCTION AND GROUND RULES	Start time	Finish time
--------------------------------------	-------------------	--------------------

Does the workshop leader create an informal and welcoming atmosphere?	YES 1	NO 2
HOW?		

Does the workshop leader introduce himself / herself?	YES 1	NO 2
HOW?		

Does the workshop leader invite parents to introduce themselves? YES 1 NO 2

Does the workshop leader tell parents that they are a valuable resource in preventing and dealing with their child problems? YES 1 NO 2

Does the workshop leader ask parents about how they see their role? YES 1 NO 2

Does the workshop leader explain the thinking behind Blueprint?		YES 1	NO 2
HOW?			

Does the workshop leader explain the link between launch and the workshops?		YES 1	NO 2
HOW?			

Does the workshop leader make parents aware of Blueprint materials?		YES 1	NO 2
HOW?	Which aims are identified?		

Does the workshop leader explain the link between the parent component and the school component? YES 1 NO 2	
HOW?	

Does the workshop leader outline the aims of the course? YES 1 NO 2	
HOW?	Which aims are identified?

Does the workshop leader say a bit more about what the course can offer and explain that it will involve parents supporting and learning from one another? YES 1 NO 2

Does the workshop leader make it clear that he does not have all the answers? YES 1 NO 2

Does the workshop leader ask parents to say something about their hopes and fears for the course? YES 1 NO 2

Does the workshop leader feed back and list their expectations on a flip chart?	YES 1	NO 2
Which expectations are identified by parents?		

Does the workshop leader give parents the opportunity to ask questions about the course? YES 1 NO 2	
HOW?	Parents' Inputs and Responses

Does the workshop leader reassure parents that they are not expected to be perfect parents? YES 1 NO 2

Does the workshop leader ask parents what would help them feel safe in the group? YES 1 NO 2

Does the workshop leader write parents' ideas on the flip chart?	YES 1	NO 2
Which ideas?		

Does the workshop leader explain the following ground rules:

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------|------|
| - using a non-judgemental approach? | YES 1 | NO 2 |
| - acceptance of differences? | YES 1 | NO 2 |
| - confidentiality? | YES 1 | NO 2 |
| - listening without interrupting? | YES 1 | NO 2 |
| - other rules? Specify: | | |

INTRODUCTION TO THE WORKSHOP	Start time	Finish time
------------------------------	------------	-------------

Does the workshop leader introduce this specific workshop?	YES 1	NO 2
--	-------	------

HOW?

Does the workshop leader list and explain the specific learning objectives of this session? YES 1 NO 2	
--	--

HOW?	Which learning objectives are identified?

ACTIVITY 1	Start time	Finish time
Narrative	Workshop leader	
Content	Does the workshop leader allow parents enough time for them to talk about their experiences?	YES 1 NO 2
	Evidence:	
	Does the workshop leader value parents' inputs and praise their achievements?	YES 1 NO 2
Methods	Evidence	
	Does the workshop leader encourage every parent to participate?	YES 1 NO 2
Materials	Evidence:	

Narrative (activity 1/cont.)	Workshop leader	
Content	Does the workshop leader encourage parents to consider alternative ways for responding to particular situations?	YES 1 NO 2
Methods	Evidence:	
Materials	In case of difficulties to understand the task, does the workshop leader make an effort to make it clearer?	YES 1 NO 2
	Evidence:	
	Does the workshop leader disclose aspects of himself as a person, parent or carer?	YES 1 NO 2
	Evidence:	

Activity 1			
Do parents understand the activity?	All of them	1	Most of them 2 One or two 3
Evidence:			
Are parents on task?	All of them	1	Most of them 2 One or two 3
Evidence:			
Are parents interacting with each other?	All of them	1	Most of them 2 One or two 3
Evidence:			
Are parents enjoying the activity?	All of them	1	Most of them 2 One or two 3
Evidence:			

Activity 1 (cont.)			
Do parents present a range of thoughts/ responses?	All of them	1	Most of them 2 One or two 3
Evidence:			
Do parents feel secure enough to say what they think?	All of them	1	Most of them 2 One or two 3
Evidence:			
Do parents relate potential learning to their own situation?	All of them	1	Most of them 2 One or two 3
Evidence:			
Are parents actively participating?	All of them	1	Most of them 2 One or two 3
Evidence:			

Does the workshop leader ask parents to prepare any activity at home for the next session?	YES 1	NO 2
Which activity?		

OBSERVER'S POST-LESSON EVALUATIVE JUDGEMENTS

- How did the workshop go?
- Did the workshop leader use a non-judgemental approach, promoting group discussion and encouraging parents to come up with a number of options for responding to particular situations?
- Were there any parents who were consistently disengaged throughout the workshop?
- Did the parents seem to have enjoyed the workshop?
- Did parents appear to feel at ease with the workshop leader?
- Did the workshop leader seem to know about the other elements of the programme (e.g. school component, BP parent materials)?

MID WORKSHOPS OBSERVATION SCHEDULE - only the specific parts -

INTRODUCTION AND GROUND RULES	Start time	Finish time
--------------------------------------	-------------------	--------------------

Are there any parents who are new to this group?	YES 1	NO 2
What does the workshop leader tells them?		

Does the workshop leader list the Ground Rules?	YES 1	NO 2
--	--------------	-------------

Does the workshop leader ask parents if they want to share any negative / positive things that they have experienced since the last session?	YES 1	NO 2
Parents´ responses:		

HOMEWORK

Did parents have any homework activity?

YES 1 NO 2

If yes, did parents do it?

All of them 1 Most of them 2 One or two

3

For those who did it:

Does the workshop leader feed back from them about the homework?

YES 1 NO 2

Did parents understand the homework activity?

All of them 1 Most of them 2 One or two

3

Did parents enjoy doing the homework?

All of them 1 Most of them 2 One or two

3

Did parents appear to feel that they learned something relevant with the homework activity ?

All of them 1 Most of them 2 One or two

3

FINAL WORKSHOP OBSERVATION SCHEDULE
--

- only the specific parts -

FEEDBACK AND SUMMING UP	Start time	Finish time
--------------------------------	-------------------	--------------------

Does the workshop leader allow time at the end of the session for a summary of what has been covered throughout the workshops?

YES 1 NO 2

Does the workshop leader refer back to the parents' expectations listed at the 1st session?

YES 1 NO 2

Does the workshop leader feedback from parents about what they found useful or what they would like changed?

YES 1 NO 2

Do parents identify things they have learned?	YES 1	NO 2
---	-------	------

Which things are identified?		

Do parents identify anything about which they would like to learn more?	YES 1	NO 2
---	-------	------

Which things are identified?		

Does the workshop leader help parents to identify support for self for the future?	YES 1	NO 2
HOW?		

Does the workshop leader thank everyone for taking part?

YES 1 NO 2

COMMUNITY CONSULTANT TRAINING SESSION
OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

Venue: _____
School(s): _____ LEA: _____
Date of observation: _____
N° of parents _____ Men _____ Women _____
Start time: _____ Finish time: _____

- Describe the setting.
- Who is present at the beginning/end of the launch.
- How is time managed throughout the session?
- Whether an informal and welcoming atmosphere is created? How?
- Introduction to the session
 - Are parents invited to introduce themselves?
 - Are they asked about their motivations to become a CC?
 - Are they asked about their expectations about the session?
 - What is said about the purpose of the session?
 - What is said about the role of CC in Blueprint:
 - Whether it is explained how and why CCs are important to Blueprint;
 - Whether it is explained to parents what it means to be a CC.
 - How is that role described to parents?
 - Learning objectives:
 - Are the learning objectives identified?
 - What is said about the skills the training is aiming to develop?
- Are parents given opportunity to talk about their experience in Blueprint and their opinions about the programme?
- Are parents given the opportunity to make suggestions about the recruitment strategy and methods?

- Supporting materials
 - What supporting materials are given to parents?
 - Do these include materials about Blueprint?

- Activities
 - Type and number of activities
 - Content
 - Methods
 - Specific materials
 - Parents' engagement
 - do parents understand the activity?
 - are they on task?
 - are they interacting with each other?
 - do they ask any questions?

- Follow up and summing up
 - Is time allowed at the end of the session for a summary of what has been covered?
 - Does the session leader feedback from group members about what they found useful or what they would like changed?
 - Do parents identify anything about which they would like to learn more? Which things are identified?

- Post-observation Evaluative judgements
 - Did parents seem to have enjoyed the session?
 - Did parents seem to have learned new skills?
 - Did parents seem to have understood their role in the programme?

INTERVIEW GUIDE - PARENTS

1. Introduction

- Explain the purpose of the interview
- Explain about tape recorder
- Explain length of the interview
- Discuss confidentiality

2. Background information

- Who they live with, number and ages of children
- What they do for a living

3. Information session (*specific to BME parents*)

- What do they think of the information session?
 - people who run it
 - content
 - venue
- Whether they have been to anything like this before.
- What did encourage them to come?
- What did they get out of it?
 - useful?
 - how did it influence their understanding of Blueprint?

4. The launch

- What expectations did they have about the launch?
- What did they think of it?
 - people who run it
 - content
 - approach and methods used
 - venue
- Whether have they been to anything like this before?
- What did encourage them to come?
- What did they get out of it?

5. The workshops

- After the launch, what expectations did they have about workshops?
- What do they think of the workshops?
- What did encourage them to come?
- Which workshops did they go to?
- Ask them to compare three workshops with six workshops? What do they prefer?
- What do they think about the sequence of workshops that was offered to them?
- Did they enjoy the workshops?

- What do they think about the activities they done at the workshops?
- How did they feel to be in a small group? Whether did they prefer to be in a larger group? If so, how large?
- Was there any workshop that they liked in particular?
- Was there any workshop that they disliked in particular?

a) Benefits/impacts

- What did parents get out of going to the workshops?
 - Meeting other parents?
 - Sharing problems and receiving support?
 - Improving skills in talking with their children about difficult issues?
 - In general
 - More specific. E.g. illegal drugs? Tobacco? Alcohol?
 - Other benefits?
- Whether they talked to their child about the workshops?
- How has the participation affected them personally?
- How has the participation affected them as a parent?
- Was there anything they would like to have learned more about?
- What do they think about the format “ launch and workshops”? Would they prefer a different model of delivery? If yes, how that would be?

b) Interaction/Relationships

- How was the relationship with the workshop leader?
- What do they think about the workshop leader?
 - Whether he/she is competent
 - The way he/she treated parents
 - The way he/she made parents feel
 - Whether he/she valued parents’ inputs
 - Whether he/she encouraged parents’ participation
 - Whether parents feel he/she cares about them
- How was the relationship with the other parents?
- Whether they recommend the workshops to other parents.

6. Parent materials

- Whether they looked at the parent materials
 - Drugs fact for parents
 - Talking about drugs
- What is their general impression?
- How useful were they?
- How did the materials impact in the ability to talk with their children about drug issues?

7. Recruitment process

- How have they been recruited to the workshops?
 - through the launch?
 - phone calls?
 - who contacted them?

- what have they been said about the workshops?
- whether anyone asked them about their preferences/choices in terms of workshops themes?
- How is their relationship with the school?
 - What type of involvement do they have with school?
 - How frequently do they participate in school events?
- What, in their view, explains the low attendance of parents to workshops?

8. Blueprint

- What do they think of Blueprint in general?
- Ask them to identify the different components of the programme.
- Whether they have been involved in any school activities related with Blueprint
 - Presentation in lesson 10?
 - Homework activities?
- What things about Blueprint would they like to learn more about?
- What things about drugs would they like to have learned more?

9. Suggestions

- Is there anything they want to add? Do they have any suggestions for future programmes?

INTERVIEW GUIDE – COMMUNITY CONSULTANT**1. Introduction**

- Explain the purpose of the interview
- Explain about tape recorder
- Explain length of the interview
- Discuss confidentiality

2. Background Information

- Who they live with, number and ages of children
- What they do for a living

3. Involvement with Blueprint

- What was her involvement with BP as a parent?
- Whether she has been involved in any school activities related with Blueprint:
 - Child's Presentation in school
 - Homework activities

4. Decision to become a Community Consultant

- who approached her
- whether she has ever done something similar to a community consultant
- motivations

5. Relationship with school

- How is their relationship with the school?
- What type of involvement with school.
- How frequent is participation in school events.

6. Training

- How did the training help?
- To what extent have they learned the necessary skills?
- Were there any issues that could have been covered in more depth?

7. Describing the role as a CC:

- Ask them to describe their role:
 - which schools contacted
 - who did they contact
 - methods used
 - when
 - for which events: launch? workshops?
 - who did she work with?
 - key messages? How did she motivate/encourage parents?

8. What does she think were the main problems with recruitment?

- Schools level of involvement
- Parents attitudes and perceptions about drugs education programmes
- Recruitment methods
- Low number of community consultants
- Communication strategies
- Timing
- The compressed timetable
- The delivery format/model
- The topic (drugs)
- Other?

9. Opinion about Blueprint

- What does she think of Blueprint in the overall?
 - Aims, approach, components
 - Thinking behind it
 - Main weaknesses and main strengths
- What does she think about the parent component?
 - BP parent materials, launch and workshops, presentation at school
 - Main weaknesses and main strengths

10. Lessons learned and Recommendations for the future

- How could the problems with recruitment have been overcome? What could be done differently?
 - Community consultants recruitment
 - CC Training and course materials
 - Parents recruitment methods
 - Delivery formats
- What are the key lessons?

INTERVIEW GUIDE - WORKSHOP LEADERS

1. Introduction

- Explain the purpose of the interview
- Explain about tape recorder
- Explain length of the interview
- Discuss confidentiality

2. Background Information

- What is their Professional background?
- Do they have any children? If yes, how old are they?

3. Involvement in Blueprint

- When did they first hear about Blueprint?
- When and how did they get involved?

4. Training for Blueprint

- Did they have any training?
- What did it comprise?
- To what extent did the training equip them for delivering the workshops?
- Were there any issues that could have been covered in more depth?

- How did the training influence their understanding of Blueprint?
 - aims and approach of Blueprint as a whole
 - key messages
 - link between the parent component and the school component
 - link between the launch, the workshops
 - link between the workshops and BP parent materials

- What is their opinion about the training course materials?
 - how useful
 - how relevant
 - how easy to use

- How easy or difficult was it to incorporate Blueprint messages into the parent work?

- What is their opinion about the BP parent materials?
 - how useful
 - how relevant
 - how easy to use

5. Launch and Workshops

a) Launches

- How many launches did they attend?
- What is their opinion about the launch?
 - suitability of the venue
 - content and activities
 - style of delivery
 - specific drugs content
 - key messages
 - introduction to the workshops
 - recruiting to the workshops

b) Workshops

- In how many schools did they run workshops? How many workshops did they run?
- Which sequence has been followed? Which themes?
- Who decided the content? Who decided the sequence? Did the content and sequence vary from school to school? What factors determined content and sequence?
- What do they think of the format “*launch + workshops*”?
- What do they think about the number of workshops: 6 sessions or 3 sessions? Ask them to compare both options.
- How did the workshops went, in general?
- Is there any workshop that went particularly well? In what aspects?
- Is there any workshop that went particularly bad? In what aspects?
- Which methods/activities did they use?
- How does the size of the group influence the quality of interaction? How does the size of the group influence the learning outcomes?
- In general, how able they were to:
 - understand the group dynamics
 - give fair hearing

- identify and acknowledge feelings
- value parents inputs and achievements
- be non-judgemental
- self - disclose

6. Benefits for parents

- What do they think motivated parents to attend the workshops?
- What were the main benefits for parents?
 - meeting other parents
 - sharing problems and receiving support
 - improving skills in talking with their children about difficult issues
 - improving skill in talking with their children about drugs

7. Relationship with parents

- Did parents feel at ease with each other? Did parents felt at ease with them?
- How do they describe their relationship with parents?
 - did parents trust them?
 - did parents commit?
 - did parents cooperate?

8. Recruitment

- Were they involved in recruitment activities? If yes, what exactly have they done?
- What were the main problems with recruitment?
 - recruitment methods
 - low numbers of community consultant
 - schools level of involvement
 - parents attitudes
 - communication strategies
 - compressed timetable
 - human resources
 - the launch content
 - using the launch as the main vehicle of recruitment to workshops

9. Comparing BP with other programmes

- What do they think of Blueprint?
- What are main weaknesses and main strengths of the programme?
- Which are the main differences between BP and other drugs education programmes that they know?

10. Lessons learned and Recommendations for the future:

- What recommendations for future programmes?
 - Training and course materials
 - Recruitment strategy and methods
 - Delivery models/formats
 - Resources
 - Time frame

PT COORDINATOR - INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Introduction

- Explain the purpose of the interview
- Explain about tape recorder
- Explain length of the interview
- Discuss confidentiality

2. Background

- Ask about professional background.
- How did PTC become involved in the programme?

3. Describing the role

- Ask PTC to describe and explain role in the programme
 - internal communication
 - contacting schools
 - liaison with workshop leaders
 - networking in the community
 - reporting
 - contacting key partners

4. Key staff

- Who worked on the recruitment?
- When did they start and finish?
- What exactly did they do?

5. Who decided and who implemented

- The recruitment and publicity approach for each launch and subsequent workshops?
- Where to hold the launch and workshops for each school?

6. Departures from the original plans

- Ask to identify key meetings with the Home Office and subsequent decisions to change recruitment and delivery
 - change the launch content/format
 - change the number of workshops
 - change the recruitment process
- What triggered changes? Who triggered them? When?

7. Working with schools

- How was the relationship with schools in general?
- Ask PTC to look and describe work with a specific school? "Tell me in detail about what you did in one of the schools. Take me through the key steps":
 - How was the school contacted?
 - Who in the school was contacted?
 - What sort of negotiation happened?
 - Any difficulties?
 - How did the school help? E.g. did the school advice on contacting parents?
 - How long did the process take?What happened as a result?

8. Working with other people and organizations

- With whom did PTC work with?
 - UCLAN
 - Local agencies
 - Drug school advisors
 - Porter Novelli
 - Other?
- How that helped or hinder the programme?

9. Community consultants:

- How many community consultants were trained? How many actively involved? What explains the low numbers?
- CC training:
 - What were the learning objectives of the training session?
 - To what extent did the training equip parents for being a CC?
 - Were there any issues that could have been covered in more depth?

10. Difficulties in the Blueprint parent programme

- What were the main difficulties in the programme?
 - attitudes of parents
 - attitudes and level of involvement of schools
 - level of disadvantage
 - the choice of venues
 - the recruitment methods
 - delivery format
 - the topic (drugs)
 - the compressed timetable
 - the timing and low synchronicity with school component
 - resources: human, financial...

11. Opinion about Blueprint

- What opinion of Blueprint
 - aims
 - approach
 - thinking behind it
- How different is BP from other drugs education programmes?
- Ask to identify main weaknesses and main strengths of the programme.

12. Recommendations

- What could have been done differently in the programme?
 - Recruitment methods
 - Partnerships and networking
 - Time frame
 - Delivery models
 - Resources
- What are the key lessons from the programme?

INTERVIEW GUIDE – PN MEDIA WORKER

1. Introduction

- Explain the purpose of the interview
- Explain about tape recorder
- Explain length of the interview
- Discuss confidentiality

2. Describing the role of PN

- What was the overall role of PN in Blueprint?
- What was the specific role in the parent programme?
 - When were they brought into help with the recruitment?
 - What did they specifically do to help with recruitment?

3. Strategy and methods

- How did they motivate parents to engage with Blueprint?
- Which methods did they use?
 - Which media did they target?
 - Key messages?
- What were the specificities of recruiting BME parents?

4. Specificities of Blueprint

- How different is working with the media for Blueprint (a non-commercial) from a typical media strategy for a commercial product or service?
 - What difficulties?
 - What opportunities?

5. Working with other people and organizations

- With whom did PN work with?
 - PT
 - UCLAN
 - Schools
 - Other?
- Ask to describe how it went and how it affected this part of the programme.

6. Recommendations for future work

- What could have been done differently/better?
- What are the key lessons from this part of Blueprint?