

CRITICAL SOCIAL MARKETING: ASSESSING THE CUMULATIVE IMPACT OF ALCOHOL MARKETING ON YOUTH DRINKING

A PhD by publication submitted to the University of Stirling for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

By

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knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published nor material which to

a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma of the

university or other institute of higher learning, except where due acknowledgement has

been made in the text.

This thesis includes papers for which I am the lead but not sole author that are contained

within the body of the thesis text. My role was to lead the day to day running of the

project, and I was involved in designing the research and data analysis, conducting

fieldwork and writing publications. I was however assisted by my co-authors. Statements

on the contributions made by co-authors and book/journal publisher permissions are

included in Appendix A. In addition to the body of work published from the Assessing

the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking project contained within

this thesis, Appendix B includes a list of eleven publications on which I am a contributing

author, further demonstrating my contribution to the social marketing, and alcohol

research fields. These additional publications are also referred to within the thesis text.

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ABSTRACT

Alcohol related harm is one of the major public health and societal concerns in the UK. Per capita alcohol consumption has risen considerably over the last twenty years and binge drinking has increased. Alcohol related harms including crime and social disorder, lost productivity, family breakdown and health harms such as rising incidence of liver disease and increases in alcohol related hospital admissions, are considerable. Particular concern has focused upon alcohol and young people, with levels of youth binge drinking in the UK among the highest in Europe and alcohol related hospital admissions of young people increasing. Furthermore, youth drinking behaviours are strong predictors of alcohol dependence in later life and contribute to long term health harms. As a result there has been an increased focus on factors that may potentially influence youth drinking behaviours including alcohol marketing. The evidence base on the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking has developed since the topic was first examined in the early 1980s. Recent systematic reviews have suggested a causal link between alcohol marketing and youth drinking behaviour. However gaps in the evidence base remain. The research project presented in this PhD contains six publications which aim to address these gaps, being the first two-stage cohort consumer study on the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking in the UK. The study used a critical social marketing framework to assess the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking, with findings intended to help upstream social marketing efforts, inform policy and regulation and targeted behaviour change interventions. The project examined the impact of alcohol marketing across a comprehensive range of communications channels including less well researched areas such as new media and sponsorship.

The project involved three discrete stages of research. First, a brand website and press audit of contemporary alcohol marketing communications in the UK was conducted, supplemented by interviews with key informants from the marketing profession and regulatory bodies. Second, qualitative focus group research was conducted with young people to explore the role and meaning of alcohol in their lives and their attitudes towards alcohol marketing. Third, a two wave cohort study design featuring a questionnaire survey was conducted to assess the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking. The survey consisted of a two part interviewer administered and self completion questionnaire in home with 920 second year school pupils at baseline, and follow up of a cohort of 552 in fourth year.

The audit revealed that alcohol marketing is ubiquitous in the UK with most brands having a dedicated website featuring sophisticated content that appeals to youth including music, sport and video games. The press audit found that alcopop brands concentrated advertising in youth magazines, and that supermarket advertising of alcohol was considerable in the printed press. Focus group research revealed a sophisticated level of awareness of and involvement in alcohol marketing among respondents across several channels. Marketing activities often featuring content with youth appeal seemed to influence young people's well developed brand attitudes. Cross sectional regression analysis found significant associations between awareness of, and involvement with alcohol marketing and drinking status and future drinking intentions. Bivariate and multivariate analysis at wave two indicated that alcohol marketing was associated with youth drinking behaviour, including initiation of drinking, and increased frequency of drinking between wave one and wave two. The implications of these findings for theory, practice and public policy are discussed.

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Preface

The PhD presented here is based upon a single research project, utilising a 'critical social marketing' conceptual framework, which can be defined as 'critical research from a marketing perspective on the impact commercial marketing has upon society, to build the evidence base, inform upstream efforts such as advocacy, policy and regulation, and inform the development of downstream social marketing interventions' (Gordon, 2011). The study is entitled the 'Assessing the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking' study. The primary research consisted of extensive exploratory research, and a two-wave cohort questionnaire survey. The PhD thesis layout and process was informed by university guidelines, a wealth of sound advice, examples of other PhDs by publication and informative articles on the subject (Phillips and Pugh, 2000; Gannon 2006; Robins and Kanowski, 2008; Davies and Rolfe, 2009). The thesis contains six publications relating to the study, to which the thesis author was the lead author. The publications are included within the thesis text and consist of one book chapter (chapter three) and five journal articles (chapters five, seven, eight, ten and twelve). A narrative (chapters one, two, four, six, nine, and eleven) links these together. This material is supplemented by an additional eleven publications (see Appendix B), which demonstrates the author's contribution to the field of social marketing, and alcohol research. Where appropriate this additional body of work is referenced within the thesis text.

The thesis begins by defining social marketing, reviewing its development and expansion and introducing the concept of the critical dimension of social marketing. Chapter two then explores critical social marketing as a conceptual framework and a research approach by reviewing critical work on tobacco marketing, upstream social

marketing, and the critical paradigm. Chapter three contains the first publication of the thesis, which develops the conceptual framework for this research project by examining the critical role of social marketing, including empirical cases. Chapter four examines the issues of alcohol, young people, and alcohol marketing and the need for research on the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking. Chapter five contains the second publication, which is a review of the evidence base on the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking and helps demonstrate the research need for this present study. Chapter six explores and explains the research methodology, and development of the research model and hypotheses. Chapter seven contains the third publication, which details the findings of exploratory research with stakeholders and young people. Chapter eight contains the fourth publication reporting the findings from wave one of the questionnaire survey containing cross sectional data. Chapter nine describes the process of reviewing wave one of the survey and changes made in preparation for wave two. Chapter ten features the fifth publication reporting the longitudinal findings from the questionnaire survey data examining the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking. Chapter 11 presents conclusions by assessing the validity of the research model and hypotheses and the critical social marketing conceptual framework applied by the author to guide the research, and the implications of the findings for policy, research, stakeholders and the marketing discipline. The final chapter acts as a postscript to the research and contains the sixth and last publication in the form of a journal article which offers a definition, considers the application, and locates the domain of the critical social marketing conceptual framework used for the study. To begin the narrative it would seem prescient to examine what social marketing is?

CHAPTER ONE: WHAT IS SOCIAL MARKETING?

Social Marketing Concepts, Application and Criticisms

1.1 Defining and the Development of Social Marketing

Social Marketing has developed considerably since Wiebe (1951) posed the question, can brotherhood be sold like soap? Although examples of marketing applications beyond commercial gain have existed since the emergence of the discipline (Wilkie and Moore, 1999), the second half of the 20th century saw the emergence of a dedicated sub discipline of marketing social good, for example to promote merit goods, encourage a society to avoid demerit goods, and promote society's well being as a whole.

The application of marketing principles and practices to advance social good, 'social marketing', has grown and been applied to a wide range of social issues. One of the most commonly cited definitions of social marketing is offered by Kotler and Zaltman (1971) "the design, implementation and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution and marketing research" (p5).

Kotler and Zaltman were the first to formalise a definition of the use of marketing for social change, an application developed by a number of people during the 1960s, including Paul Bloom, Karen Fox, Dick Manoff and Bill Novelli (MacFadyen *et al.* 1999). Early examples of social marketing involved the use of commercial marketing techniques applied to health education, and interventions and programmes in developing countries (Ling *et al.* 1992; Manoff, 1985). In Sri Lanka, family planning

programmes moved away from clinical approaches to examine the distribution of contraceptives through pharmacists and small shops (Population Services International, 1977). Similarly, oral re-hydration projects in Africa began to take a more consumer focused approach to their development. Important interventions for social marketing in the developed world included the Stanford Heart Disease Prevention Programme (Flora *et al.* 1993), the North Karelia Project (Puska *et al.* 1995) and the Pawtucket Heart Health Program (Carleton *et al.* 1995). Although many of these programmes were predominantly exercises in community health, social advertising or social communication, they were important staging posts in the development of social marketing. At the time, these programmes were not being described as social marketing. However, reviews have shown that these programmes display characteristics of social marketing benchmark criteria (Stead *et al.* 2007a).

The last twenty years have resulted in a consolidation of theory and concepts that influence social marketing (Dann, 2010). There is no single identifiable and exclusive social marketing theory. Rather social marketing acts as a conceptual cluster offering a structural framework for behaviour change (Stead *et al.* 2007a). Social marketing is influenced by several other disciplines including sociology, psychology, anthropology, behavioural theory and communications theory. Examples of theories and models that influence social marketing are presented in Appendix C.

These examples are not an exhaustive list of theories and models that influence social marketing. Other constructs such as diffusions of innovation (Rogers, 1962), organisational change theory (Jones and George, 2008) and community organisation (Ross, 1955), can also be used to inform a social marketing approach.

The common theme across the various definitions of social marketing is the use of marketing principles and practice to encourage voluntary behaviour change, resulting in health or social good. Two key constructs in this process are consumer orientation and exchange theory. Consumer orientation is a central component of all forms of marketing. In social marketing, the aim is to ensure the consumer is an active participant in the change process, and that a relationship and understanding is developed and maintained through formative, process and evaluative research. Marketing also requires two or more people each with something to exchange (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971). In marketing, exchange is defined as an exchange of goods, services, resources or values between two or more parties with the expectation of some benefits that will satisfy needs (Bagozzi, 1975; Houston and Gassenheimer, 1987). Normally an exchange will involve the exchange of goods or services for money, but can also involve offering a vote in return for tax breaks, or vaccinations in return for protection from disease. In social marketing exchange is invariably voluntary, the emphasis is on voluntary behaviour. To encourage voluntary exchange social marketers need to offer something people actually want. This can be difficult if the benefits are abstract or long term, such as improved long-term health from living a healthy lifestyle or active citizenship through voting in elections. Therefore, social marketers often look to innovative ways in which to encourage voluntary exchange.

Andreasen (1995) developed an updated definition of social marketing to further clarify the concept. He states: "Social marketing is the application of commercial marketing technologies to the analysis, planning, execution, and evaluation of programs designed to influence the voluntary behavior of target audiences in order to improve their personal welfare and that of the society of which they are a part"

(Andreasen, 1995, p7). An even more recent definition considers social marketing is "the adaptation and adoption of commercial marketing activities, institutions and processes as a means to induce behavioural change in a targeted audience on a temporary or permanent basis to achieve a social goal" (Dann, 2010, p151).

Table 1.1: Social Marketing Benchmark Criteria

Benchmark	Explanation
1. Sets Behavioural	Social Marketing Interventions should have a clear focus
Goals	on behaviour, based on a strong behavioural analysis,
	with specific behavioural goals.
2. Uses consumer	Developing a clear understanding of the audience,
research and pre-	based on consumer research using data from a variety
testing	of sources helps develop a consumer-oriented approach.
3. Makes judicious	Interventions benefit from being based upon behavioural
use of theory	theory, and are informed by and should draw from an
	integrated theoretical framework.
4. Is insight driven	Focus should be on gaining a deeper understanding of
	what moves and what motivates the consumer.
	Identification of key factors and issues relevant to
	positively influencing behaviour allows actionable insights
- A 1' ' ' I	to be developed.
5. Applies principles	Avoiding blanket approaches, segmentation and targeting
of segmentation and targeting	allows interventions to be tailored to specific audience segments.
6. Makes use of the	Interventions consider the best strategic application of the
marketing mix beyond	marketing mix consisting of the four Ps of 'product',
communications	'price', 'place' and 'promotion'. Other Ps might include
	'policy change' or 'people' for example delivering training
	to intervention delivery agents
7. Creates attractive	Intervention considers what motivates people to engage
motivational	voluntarily with the intervention and offers them
exchanges with the	something beneficial in exchange. The offered benefit
target group	may be tangible (rewards/incentives for participation or
	making behavioural changes) or intangible (e.g. personal
8. Addresses the	satisfaction, improved health and wellbeing). Forces competing with the desired behaviour change are
competition to the	analysed and the intervention considers the appeal of
desired behaviour	competing behaviours. Strategies that seek to remove or
accirca scriaviour	minimise the competition are used.

(Source: Adapted from French and Blair-Stevens, 2006; and, Stead et al. 2007a).

Academics in the 1980s and 1990s defined social marketing programmes as containing the following elements: consumer orientation (Lefebvre and Flora, 1988; Andreasen, 1995), exchange (Lefebvre, 1996; Leather and Hastings, 1987) and a long term planning approach (Andreasen, 1995). This was further developed by Andreasen (2002), who identified six benchmarks for genuine social marketing interventions: 1) behaviour change, 2) consumer research, 3) segmentation and targeting, 4) use of the marketing mix of product, price, place, and promotion (McCarthy, 1960), 5) exchange, and 6) consideration of competition. The National Social Marketing Centre (NSMC) in the UK then subsequently expanded upon these benchmark criteria to eight elements (French and Blair-Stevens, 2006), see Table 1.1

The Child and Adolescent Trial for Cardiovascular Health (CATCH) project in the USA (Elder et al. 1996; Luepker et al. 1996; Nader et al. 1999), illustrates the application of the benchmark criteria. The CATCH programme was conducted with 5106 third grade (ages 8-9) school students, from 56 intervention schools and 40 control elementary schools in California, Louisiana, Minnesota and Texas. The intervention aimed to improve the diet and levels of physical activity, and reduce levels of smoking, among school students. It was a multi centre field trial, with cluster units, using a randomised control trial design. The two-year intervention included school based and family based components. These included a classroom curriculum, physical activity classes, a home activities programme, and a family fun night. The intervention was based on organisational change and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1988). The CATCH intervention met the social marketing benchmark criteria as follows:

- 1. Behavioural Change The intervention aimed to increase daily vigorous physical activity and improve diet, and to reduce levels of experimentation with smoking.
- 2. Consumer research and pre-testing The programme was developed from research that tested theory based methods. Empirical data informed the development of the intervention. Pilot and process evaluation of programme elements was conducted prior to the main intervention.
- Theory based The intervention design and implementation process was based upon organisational change, and social cognitive theory.
- 4. Insight driven The intervention approach was based around insight generated from research with, and learning from, existing insights about the target audience.
- 5. Segmentation and targeting The intervention was multi-ethnic but focused on specific target audiences with adapted intervention strategies: Caucasian, African American and Hispanic schoolchildren of all ages.
- Marketing mix The intervention featured school environment and classroom curricula components. Teachers were provided with training.
- 7. Exchanges Rewards, prizes and incentives formed a part of intervention activities.
 The programme included motivation efforts targeting anticipated outcomes of behaviour.
- 8. Competition Children received training in perceptions of threats and coping procedures. The intervention encouraged self-regulatory processes such as selfmonitoring of behaviours, as part of the education programme.

The CATCH intervention proved to be successful, resulting in increased intensity of physical activity among the intervention group, compared to the control group. Intervention students reported significantly more daily vigorous activity, 58.6 minutes,

than controls, 46.5 minutes (Luepker *et al.* 1996). Furthermore, several schools adopted smoke-free policies, with the proportion of schools with policies increasing from 45% to 78% in intervention schools during the CATCH programme (Elder *et al.* 1996).

The CATCH programme demonstrates how using a systematic social marketing approach can promote positive behaviour change. Indeed, as social marketing has developed, attention has focused on proving its effectiveness. Systematic reviews of social marketing interventions effectiveness in substance misuse, nutrition and diet, and physical activity have demonstrated the utility of the approach (Gordon *et al.* 2006; Stead *et al.* 2007a). Scholars have outlined the importance of strengthening the evidence of social marketing effectiveness, and of including an evaluation component in interventions (Stead and Gordon, 2009).

1.2 Social Marketing: Expansion

As the value of social marketing as a behaviour change approach has developed, it has enjoyed a period of expansion in the UK and beyond. This growth has included increased funding and capacity for research, a stronger practitioner skills base, and the development of professional standards in social marketing under the auspices of the Marketing and Sales Standards Setting Body (White and French, 2009). Social marketing has also engendered political support with the UK Government embracing social marketing in the 'Choosing Health' white paper which espoused "the power of social marketing and marketing tools applied to social good being used to build public awareness and change behaviour" (Department of Health, 2004, p21). Government support for social marketing in the UK culminated in the formation of the National

Social Marketing Centre (NSMC), a collaboration between the Department of Health and Consumer Focus, designed to build capacity and skills in social marketing at strategic and operational levels.

In Scotland, social marketing developments have followed a slightly different path. In the 1980s and 1990s, the Health Education Board for Scotland (HEBS) funded pre and post testing of mass media health campaigns, such as the Be All You Can Be campaign, which introduced social marketing principles. The successor body NHS Health Scotland commissioned research to inform the development of a social marketing for health improvement strategy (Stead *et al.* 2007b). Interventions such as the West of Scotland Cancer Awareness Project used social marketing to increase awareness of bowel and oral cancer (Eadie and MacAskill, 2007). As capacity has increased, social marketing agencies have emerged in Scotland, and an annual social marketing conference has been held since 2007. However, the level of political buy-in has been limited by the lack of development of formal social marketing strategies.

In the United States, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) has endorsed social marketing as a core public health strategy CDC, 2005). In New Zealand, the Health Sponsorship Council (HSC), founded in 1990, is a crown entity that uses social marketing to promote health and encourage health lifestyles, with an annual budget of NZ\$15,539,713 in 2008 (HSC, 2008). However, a change of government in New Zealand in 2008 resulted in some funding being withdrawn. Social marketing research and teaching centres have emerged in the UK at the University of the West of England, Brunel University, the University of Huddersfield, the Open University and the University of Stirling; in the United States at Georgetown

University and the University of South Florida; in Canada at Carleton University and the University of Lethbridge; in Australia at the University of Wollongong, Curtin University and Griffith University; and in New Zealand at the University of Otago.

As social marketing has generated attention its scope and application has broadened beyond public health behaviour issues such as tobacco, alcohol, nutrition and physical activity. Indeed the ability for social marketing to demonstrate applicability beyond public health has been identified as one of the key tasks on the agenda for the future of the field (Gordon *et al.* 2008a).

A range of social issues to which social marketing can be applied have been examined, including climate change and sustainability (McKenzie-Mohr and Smith, 1999; Marcell *et al.* 2004; Gordon *et al.* 2011) energy efficiency (Kennedy *et al.* 2000), public transport use (Cooper, 2007), citizen engagement (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002) and gambling (Messerlain and Derevensky, 2007; Powell and Tapp, 2008; Gordon and Moodie, 2009).

1.3 Social Marketing: Criticisms

Although social marketing enjoys increasing prominence, criticisms have emerged. Social marketing developed at a time when some within academia espoused a broader concept of marketing, one which encompasses wider societal issues (Wiebe, 1951; Kotler and Levy, 1969; Lazer and Kelley, 1973). However, critics within the mainstream marketing discipline objected to the broadened concept, preferring a more orthodox view (Luck, 1969; Laczniak and Michie, 1979). Luck (1974) argued that replacing products or services with an idea or values threatened the concept of

economic exchange. Further, in the earlier days of its development accusations were made that social marketing lacked theory and rigour (Rothschild, 1979; Andreasen, 2003). Yet it should be noted that marketing focuses on understanding, and changing human behaviour, using recognisable concepts, principles and practices (Kotler, 1972). Taking the American Marketing Academy (2007) definition that "marketing is the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large" it is apparent that the same parameters apply in the case of social marketing (Andreasen, 1994; Rothschild, 1999; Dann, 2008). This supports the view that social marketing is a viable framework for behaviour change, and research. Social marketers have also acknowledged the requirement to incorporate theory and practice rigour in the field, which was lacking in its infancy (Bloom and Novelli, 1981; Hastings, 2007). Another criticism is that social marketing is too positivist in nature (Dholakia and Dholakia, 2001), and lacks reflexivity and critical discourse (Tadajewski and Brownlie, 2008).

Critical discourse in relation to social marketing has tended to focus on social marketers defending the discipline from external criticism. Given the lack of acceptance for social marketing within the marketing discipline, and scepticism within the public health field in which it has mostly operated, it is unsurprising that scholars have been protective of social marketing and espoused its virtues with a missionary zeal (Witkowski, 2005). Certainly this is an area in which social marketing is lacking, and further critical discourse would be welcome. The criticism that social marketing lacks reflexivity certainly holds some truth. This may be partly down to a matter of reporting on such matters. It could be posited that social marketers are cognisant of the

some of the reflexive considerations within their domain. Rather, it would seem that an academic discourse within the social marketing literature is lacking. This is perhaps unsurprising. Social marketing is a relatively new field, seeking acceptance and an established domain within academia. Establishing a literature on the topic of reflexivity in social marketing offers one among a number of avenues for disciplinary development. Furthermore, efforts to encourage reflexivity in social marketing are being made in relation to practice (NSMC, 2007; Ong and Blair-Stevens, 2009). Tadajewski and Brownlie's (2008) dismissal of social marketing on these grounds appears somewhat harsh. Perhaps a more reasonable description would be that currently there is a lack of literature concerning reflexivity in social marketing, rather than a complete lack of the aforementioned per se.

There is also discourse on the ethical dimensions of social marketing. It has been argued that social marketing uses manipulative subterfuge to trick consumers into performing desired behaviours without challenging underlying causal influences (Buchanan *et al.* 1994). There have been criticisms of some of the social marketing programmes in the developing world, such as birth control interventions which involve the distribution of free condoms, without tackling structural issues such as exploring the underlying reasons for poor birth control (Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada 1989). Further, the ethics of using marketing to influence social issues and behaviours, especially those that are controversial, has been questioned. Laczniak *et al.* (1979) suggest that social marketing could be regarded as thought control by the elite, with marketers operating as 'neopropogandists' without consideration of ethical concerns. The use of fear campaigns in some social marketing programmes has been criticised as unethical by scaring audiences into changing their behaviour, practice that would be

unacceptable in commercial marketing (Hastings *et al.* 2004). Therefore, ethical considerations should be a key focus for social marketers.

Within the health promotion field, criticisms of social marketing include that it is essentially a form of health promotion rebadged (Buchanan *et al.* 1994; Hill, 2001), or that it re-labels practice in other fields (Tones, 1996). Furthermore, public health professionals have often misunderstood social marketing (Wisner, 1987; Grier and Bryant, 2005), or been reluctant to embrace it, due to the focus on 'marketing' which is regarded as a force for evil (Fraser and Restrepo-Estrada, 1989; Kotler and Roberto, 1989; Grier and Bryant, 2005).

Certainly, it is important to acknowledge these criticisms, and consider issues such as reflexivity, ethical concerns, and the identity and domain social marketing holds within the marketing paradigm. However, as the discipline has developed social marketers have responded to some of these issues, for example by addressing ethical concerns (Hastings *et al.* 2004; Andreasen, 2001), applying theory and rigour (Sutton, 1996; Jones *et al.* 2005), or by improving cognisance of what social marketing is and what it is not (O'Shaughnessy, 1996; Grier and Bryan, 2005; Dann, 2010). There are undoubtedly areas in which social marketing could better address these criticisms, for example, by encouraging greater reflexivity. Nevertheless, the validity of social marketing is supported by its increasing profile and application in research and practice, and support for the concept by major marketing figures such as Kotler, Rothschild and Andreasen.

1.4 The Two Sides of the Social Marketing Coin

The majority of social marketing interventions, techniques, and applications relate to downstream interventions targeting individual behaviour change. Certainly, according to the Kotler and Zaltman definition of social marketing, this is to be expected. However, in 1973 Lazer and Kelley offered an alternative and wider reaching definition of social marketing that has proved influential in shaping the work of many social marketers and indeed the focus of this PhD.

"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 analysis of the social consequence of marketing policies, decisions and activities." (p. ix emphasis added)

Lazer and Kelley argued that while concerning the use of marketing principles and practices to engender social good, social marketing should also involve the examination of the impact of commercial marketing on society and help to address any ills caused by it (Hastings, 2007a). This perspective is less well defined and used within the social marketing field. Furthermore, others within social marketing remain sceptical about the critical agenda and its place within social marketing. Andreasen states that Kotler and Zaltman's original definition of social marketing created confusion, and made social marketing difficult to distinguish from what he terms 'socially responsible marketing', which aims to mitigate commercial marketing practices that are damaging to society (Andreasen, 2003). According to Andreasen, the Lazer and Kelley reference to analysing the social consequences of marketing does not

belong within social marketing, but instead socially responsible marketing. Dann (2010) argues that Lazer and Kelley's text represented the foundation of critical marketing, rather than a social marketing definition. Yet for Lazer and Kelley an important function of social marketing activity is to provide control and social audit (Lazer and Kelley, 1973). Whether the views of Lazer and Kelley supported by Hastings are more legitimate than Andreasen and Dann is a subjective argument, and in some ways a moot point. Arguing over semantics and labels distracts from the fact that however this activity is defined, it is certainly marketing related and has social consequences. This critical dimension of social marketing can be questioned in terms of definition and location with the conceptual continuum, but it cannot be ignored and the concept warrants examination.

Critical studies of the impact of commercial marketing on society have been conducted since the emergence of the discipline (Wilkie and Moore, 2003). Whilst less attention has focused on 'the other side of the social marketing coin', the use and application of what might be termed 'critical social marketing' has began to carve out a distinct paradigm.

The research project, which forms the basis for this PhD thesis, could be accurately termed critical social marketing, as it uses a framework based on the critical dimension of social marketing to examine the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking. Prior to expanding on this theme, it is appropriate to examine what critical social marketing exactly means.

CHAPTER TWO: CRITICAL SOCIAL MARKETING

Critical Social Marketing - Critical Theory and Critical Marketing

Chapter two introduces the critical social marketing conceptual framework used in this study. From Lazer and Kelley's definition, it is clear that critically examining the impact of commercial marketing lies within the jurisdiction of social marketing research and practice. Social marketing academics have subsequently used this approach in their work to examine issues such as tobacco marketing (Hastings and MacFadyen, 2000a). The area of tobacco control was the first area in which a critical social marketing approach was applied.

2.1 Social Marketing and Tobacco

Since the devastating health impacts from tobacco smoking were first widely identified in the 1950s (Doll and Hill, 1950; Hammond and Horn, 1954), much focus has been on limiting its damaging impact upon society. This has included various tobacco control efforts, such as changing policy, regulation, and law. Other activities include efforts to change people's behaviour, by stopping, or not starting to, smoke. Furthermore, attention turned to factors that may contribute to people smoking, such as tobacco marketing (Pierce *et al.* 1999).

During the 1980s and 1990s many studies on the impact of tobacco marketing on smoking behaviour were conducted, examining its extent, breadth and nature, as well as its impact on behaviour. Social marketers, using a critical approach to research the phenomenon, conducted some of these studies (MacFadyen *et al.* 2001; Anderson *et al.* 2006). Social marketing researchers used their knowledge of marketing theory and

practice to inform research on the topic. A large proportion of these studies focused on the issue of tobacco marketing and its impact on youth smoking behaviour, allowing for assessment of the impact on initiation into smoking. Examples of how the tobacco industry marketed to young people include the use of cartoon images in advertising such as 'Reg', or 'Joe Camel'; or through the use of sponsorship of sports and events appealing to youth (Hastings *et al.* 1994; Hafez and Ling, 2005; Gordon *et al.* 2008b). A strong evidence base has developed, with recent systematic reviews finding that tobacco marketing does influence smoking behaviour (DiFranza *et al.* 2006; Davis *et al.* 2008).

Social marketers involved in this area did not stop at analysing the impact of tobacco marketing. Several became active in 'upstream social marketing' efforts such as advocacy, and policy and regulation forums. In the UK a report involving critical social marketing research analysing internal documents from the tobacco industry's advertising agencies, was commissioned by the House of Commons Health Committee. The findings were discussed during the committee's investigation entitled the 'Tobacco Industry and the Health Risks of Smoking', and the lead author, a social marketing academic, was used as a special advisor (Hastings and MacFadyen, 2000b; House of Commons Health Committee, 2000). The research examining tobacco industry marketing documents demonstrated that the UK tobacco industry used a wide range of communication channels to create powerful and evocative marketing campaigns, to encourage people to start and continue smoking. It was found that vulnerable groups such as the poor and young people were specifically targeted by tobacco marketers, through the creation of value brands, or the use of communications appealing to youth.

In addition, evidence of strategies for undermining tobacco control policy was also found. An apparent lack of ethical and moral concern and a single-minded pursuit of profit and market share were discerned. The tone of the report was encapsulated by its title, taken from how one creative director signed off a letter to a tobacco client: 'Keep Smiling, No-one's Going to Die'. The evidence led the committee to conclude that the UK Government should tighten tobacco advertising controls. Such activity, complemented by the wider efforts of the tobacco control lobby, and general political and societal concern, resulted in a ban on most forms of tobacco marketing in the UK with the introduction of the *Tobacco Advertising and Promotion Act 2002*.

The case of tobacco demonstrates that critical social marketing research can aid understanding of the effects commercial marketing can have on society, but can also be used to inform efforts to change policy and regulation for social good. Indeed research has demonstrated that the tobacco marketing ban has resulted in significant public health improvements in the UK (Harris *et al.* 2006). Importantly the learning from the social marketing research into tobacco marketing was also used to inform the development of social marketing interventions to change individual smoking behaviours (MacAskill *et al.* 2002). This demonstrates that a critical social marketing framework, can help advance knowledge and understanding, and contribute to the downstream and upstream social marketing domains.

2.2 Upstream Social Marketing

Upstream social marketing emerged as a response to calls within the discipline to focus beyond the narrower confines of individual behaviour change (Wallack, 1990; Novelli, 1996). During the 1990s a gradual shift in emphasis within the social

marketing discipline occurred towards a focus on upstream applications (Wells, 1993; Andreasen, 1995; Goldberg, 1995). Social marketers acknowledged that rather than solely focus on downstream individual behaviour change, social marketing could influence behaviour at the upstream level, targeting decision makers, policy makers and regulators. Operating upstream often involves research to inform regulation and policy, and involvement in media advocacy and lobbying. The example of tobacco offers a good demonstration of upstream social marketing. Research evidence was presented, tobacco control activists lobbied policy makers and regulators, public relations work was carried out in the media, and eventually policy change occurred. Crucially, upstream social marketing requires recognition that managers, regulators and politicians are a target audience, with specific behavioural goals, influences, needs and motivations, just like anyone else. The electoral cycle, political agendas, the views of the electorate, good public relations, and prestige, are all areas of interest to policy makers, and upstream social marketing acknowledges these influences.

Examples of critical social marketing research are not restricted to tobacco marketing. A report on the impact of food marketing to children found evidence of 'junk food' marketing targeting children (Hastings *et al.* 2003), and evidence and advice submitted to a House of Commons Health Committee inquiry on food industry marketing practices are examples of critical marketing research. Furthermore, research examining the impact of alcohol marketing (Gordon and Hastings, 2007a), has been fed into the upstream arena (see chapter 11). Nevertheless, upstream social marketing remains a less well-developed stream of social marketing. In engaging with upstream activities on a range of behaviour change issues related to the environment, citizen engagement and mental health, social marketers are well placed to influence the policy arena.

Moreover, by applying marketing thought to engender behaviour change among policy makers, the likelihood of successful outcomes may be increased.

2.3 The Critical Paradigm

As the critical dimension of social marketing has developed, debate has arisen as to how to define and conceptualise this activity. For some, the similarities and parallels between the critical side of social marketing and critical marketing appear a good fit (Hastings and Saren, 2003). Critical social marketing activity and critical marketing has been used almost as interchangeable terminology (Hastings, 2007b).

Critical marketing emerged as a result of radical social, economic and political changes over many years that resulted in some marketing scholars calling for a critical appraisal of marketing theory and practice (Brownlie *et al.* 1994; Thomas 1999). Critical marketing is strongly influenced by critical theory, a social theory informed by several concepts including Marxist theory and deconstruction theory, aimed towards critiquing and changing society (Horkheimer, 1937). The critical theory approach emanated from the Frankfurt school of social philosophers led by Max Horkheimer, and later Jurgen Habermas. Using this theoretical framework, critical marketing aims to alter marketing theory and practice through critical analysis, thus facilitating alternative marketing systems. The critical marketing project has been legitimised by its identification as one of the paradigmatic approaches in marketing and consumer research (Murray and Ozanne, 1991; Lowe *et al.* 2005). However, the critical marketing paradigm has generated differences in interpretation and understanding (Saren *et al.* 2007; Tadajewski and Brownlie, 2008). It has been identified as an

esoteric and rarefied pursuit (Tregear *et al.* 2007). These issues emerge when considering how social marketing and critical marketing may coincide.

Some critical marketers have criticised social marketing for displaying little evidence of critical self-reflection (Tadajewski and Brownlie, 2008), as discussed in chapter one. Indeed when social marketing has been criticised (Buchanan *et al.* 1994), the response has been largely defensive rather than acknowledging and introspective (Hastings and Haywood, 1994). These tensions have resulted in debate over the parameters of critical marketing (Brownlie and Hewer, 2007), and the location of social marketing within the paradigm. Proponents of the view that social marketing is not critical marketing often prefer a narrower Critical Theory School of Marxist Thought based definition of critical marketing (Bradshaw and Firat, 2007). Dann (2010) posits that Lazer and Kelley's focus on the critical agenda marked the foundation for critical marketing. Therefore it is apparent that a divergence of views has emerged. Critical marketers such as Brownlie do not regard the critical dimension of social marketing as belonging within critical marketing, yet others such as Saren believe that social marketing does fit within its domain (Saren *et al.* 2007).

It is not easy to resolve these tensions and divergence of thoughts. However, the critical dimension of social marketing should not be ignored, nor assessed as unrelated to critical marketing. Perhaps a more accurate term for this kind of activity is 'critical social marketing' (Hastings, 2009a), a distinct sub-discipline influenced by social marketing and critical marketing constructs. This approach acknowledges the influence of both social marketing and critical marketing, but avoids laying claim to territory that is perhaps more narrowly defined. It was upon reflection of this

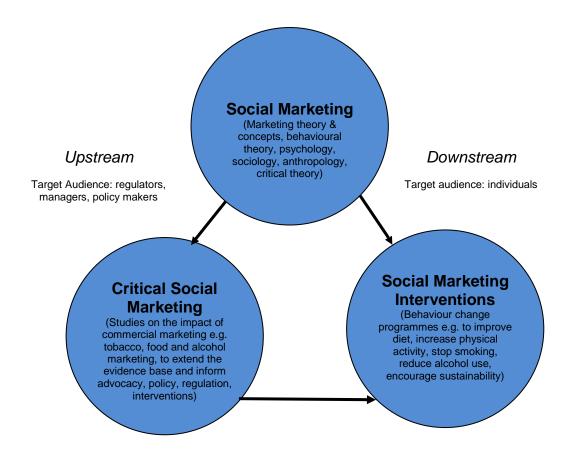
discourse, scoping the literature, and examining the critical social marketing approach to research into tobacco marketing, that the author chose this approach as suitable for the study into alcohol marketing and youth drinking. Therefore in the context of this PhD reference to this activity will be henceforth termed 'critical social marketing'.

2. 4 Critical Social Marketing

For this PhD critical social marketing is defined as 'critical research from a marketing perspective on the impact commercial marketing has upon society, to build the evidence base, inform upstream efforts such as advocacy, policy and regulation, and inform the development of downstream social marketing interventions'. This definition, formulated by the author, is based upon consideration of the critical marketing, and social marketing literature, as well as critical social marketing studies. With respect to alcohol marketing, a critical social marketing framework would involve research on the impact of alcohol marketing on drinking behaviour to: contribute towards the scientific evidence base; inform upstream efforts such as advocacy, policy and regulation; and inform alcohol related social marketing interventions (see Figure 2.1). This framework guided the author's approach to the study. A critical social marketing framework appears an appropriate conceptual framework for conducting this research on the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking.

The knowledge, expertise and understanding of commercial marketing activity and its impact, gained from a social marketing perspective is valuable when conducting research of this nature. Furthermore, this framework facilitates a critical theory based

Figure 2.1: Schema of Social Marketing Activity



approach to the deconstruction of the impact of commercial alcohol marketing on youth drinking, therefore examining not only any negative effect it may have upon society, but seeking to generate solutions mitigating these effects. Importantly, this conceptual framework proposes that research findings are produced and then acted upon. Through upstream social marketing activity, the study results will potentially help inform policy and regulation. Finally, the critical social marketing framework proposes that the study findings can be used to inform the development of targeted social marketing interventions tackling youth drinking, through engagement with public health organisations and delivery agents.

Having discussed the critical dimension of social marketing, and established the author's conceptual framework for this PhD thesis, chapter three more closely examines the paradigm. The chapter features the first publication from the thesis entitled 'The Critical Role of Social Marketing' published in the book *Critical Marketing: Defining the Field* in 2007.

The chapter discusses widespread criticisms of commercial marketing, necessitating an examination of its sustainability in its current form. However, to be effective in any form of critique, solutions to problems should also be offered. How social marketing acts as a construct for providing effective solutions to some of mainstream marketing's challenges is discussed. The contribution of social marketing to the critical marketing paradigm is explored, and some examples of the application of critical social marketing are offered. The ability for such research to contribute to the evidence base, policy and regulation is also explored. Finally how social marketing offers a coherent framework for changing marketing for the better is presented.

<u>Chapter Three: The critical role of social marketing (Publication One)</u>

Gordon, R., Hastings, G., McDermott, L., Siquier, P. (2007). The Critical Role of Social Marketing. In Saren, M. (Eds.). *Critical Marketing: Defining the field (Chapter 11, pp 159-177).* Butterworth Heinemann: London.

Criticism of conventional marketing is growing and well justified. However to be effective any critique should not just find fault with the current situation, but identify ways forward – it should offer solutions. This chapter argues that <u>social marketing</u> does this by a) suggesting a socially beneficial use for marketing techniques and ideas and b) enabling the control and regulation of conventional marketing.

In the first section we discuss the nature of marketing, its influence on human behaviour, and examine criticisms that have arisen both from within and outside of the discipline. We then introduce the idea of social marketing and explore its contribution to the critical marketing debate. Here we discuss the need to (i) critically examine the effects of commercial marketing on the health and welfare of society, and (ii) apply these same tools and techniques to the resolution of social and health problems. In the third section of the chapter we argue that critical studies of commercial marketing can inform policy decision-making. However, before policymakers can act, they require a sound evidence base on which all parties agree. We show - through three different case studies – how social marketing offers new insights to the task of building an evidence base for policymakers.

We conclude by arguing that, if marketing is to survive the attacks which it finds itself under, and prosper as a serious and viable discipline it must change: commercial marketing has to be moderated and its powers adapted and utilised to effect positive

behavioural outcomes for society. Social marketing provides a coherent framework for achieving these changes.

3.1 Introduction

Marketing has a bad name (Jobber, 2001). The discipline has been attacked internally and by external critics to the degree that as Alvesson incisively observes, "*Marketing is used almost as a pejorative term*" (Alvesson, 1994, p291).

Marketing is fundamentally about behaviour change; marketers are extremely good at getting us – the consumer - to do things. Yet not all behaviour change is desirable for society. Many societal problems – from alcohol fuelled anti-social teenagers to pollution-inducing gas-guzzling SUV drivers – are essentially matters of human behaviour. Moreover, many of these problems are perpetrated by marketers.

3.1.1 External Criticism

External criticism of the marketing discipline has emanated from a variety of sources such as Klein, Bakan, Monbiot and Chomsky. Klein attacks the corporate obsession with creating brands rather than producing tangible products. This creates a new wave of organisations whose "work lay not in manufacturing but in marketing" (Klein, 2000, p4). The explosion in marketing activity that fed the creation of massive global brands is described by Klein: "they seize upon every corner of unmarketed landscape in search of the oxygen needed to inflate their brands. In the process, virtually nothing has been left unbranded" (Klein, 2000, p8). The world is being rapidly commercialised to the point that "advertising is now inescapable, whether on our television or computer screens, huge outdoor billboards and electrical signs, wrapped

around buses and subway cars, museums, concerts, galleries and sporting events" (Bakan, 2004, p129). This focus on creating uberbrands has led to widespread corporate abuses that infringe labour and human rights (Klein, 2000). Marketers have left no stone unturned in attempting to find vehicles for marketing activity including sports, youth culture, cityscapes, and even controversial ventures involving children, schools and education (Klein, 2000).

Joel Bakan in The Corporation is also critical of corporate abuses arguing that "the corporation is a pathological institution, a dangerous possessor of the great power it wields over people and societies" (Bakan, 2004, pp1-2). The image Bakan constructs is of the corporation as a person that relates to others only superficially via false identities of it created by marketing consultants. Corporations use branding strategies to "create unique and attractive personalities for themselves" (Bakan, 2004, p24) which enables them to create intellectual and emotional relationships with consumers, policy makers, regulators employees and shareholders. This often irrational emotional connection which marketers aim to make with their target audience is demonstrated by Bakan through examples of 'pester power', where marketing strategies manipulate children to pester parents or their family members to purchase unrequired goods or services. Bakan describes a time when his son nagged him to buy Labatt beer during the Ice Hockey playoffs so he could get a replica Stanley Cup trophy that came with the promotion. Bakan argues that "Labatt must have known that young children would be watching the playoffs with their parents...and that most adults would not abandon their preferred brand of beer to obtain a Stanley Cup replica" (Bakan, 2004, p56). Bakan is left with no doubt that "part of the company's aim was to get my son to get me to buy its beer – which it did" (Bakan, 2004, p56). The impact of the nag factor on

consumer behaviour is considerable; an estimated 20-40% of all purchases would not have occurred unless a child nagged their parents or guardians. (Bakan, 2004)

The effects of food advertising on children's behaviour have also been widely noted (Monbiot, 2006; Bakan, 2004). Attention has been drawn to the fact that British children are exposed to more adverts than any others in the European Union (EU), "an average of 17 per hour on children's TV" (Monbiot, 1998). The resulting 'pestering' that is generated often causes tension in child-parent relationships and can lead to "exasperated purchases of items against a parent's better judgement" (McDermott et al. 2006, p514).

Specific targeting of children by the marketing industry has even led to accusations of using schools "as an advertising medium" (Monbiot, 2001). The criticism of food advertising to children has led to calls to increase regulatory controls in the UK, despite Ofcom's claims that stricter regulation would cost the industry too much. Yet the public health benefits of increased regulation could be as much as £990 million per year compared with Ofcom's estimated cost to the broadcasting industry of up to £290 million (Which, 2006).

Such criticisms lead to a questioning of the effectiveness of the current advertising regulations which are built around a system of co-regulation but in reality is largely self-regulated. Monbiot argues that "both the ITC and ASA are weakly constituted and reluctant to use their limited powers" (Monbiot, 1998), whilst he accuses Ofcom of canoodling with the food industry (Monbiot, 2006). The penalties for misdemeanours are often weak: "sanctions against advertisers who break codes of practice in Britain

are ineffective" (Monbiot, 2001). Questions exist over the effectiveness of the regulatory system which governs not only food advertising (Hastings *et al.* 2003) but other forms of marketing such as alcohol marketing (Jackson *et al.* 2000).

Other marketing techniques criticised include viral campaigns - one example is organisations using false identities, e-mail addresses and postings on web sites to attack green campaigners or scientists publishing findings on environmental harms. Companies have been accused of "creating false citizens to try to change the way we think" (Monbiot, 2002). Monbiot balances his criticisms by questioning the wisdom of instances of false advertising by environmental groups such as Greenpeace and Friends of the Earth. Claims and counter claims over who maintains good ethical practice leads to the "intractable problem...of trying to separate good guys from bad guys" (Fahy, 2000, p116). Yet the activities of environmental groups indulging in misinformation are small fry compared to the activities of organised industry, often supported by the media meaning "the corporate interest and national interest often seems to be confused" (Monbiot, 1995). The 'politics of advertising' creates a situation in which "the regulation of advertising in Britain ensures that we are allowed to hear only what is good about a product or activity, and expressly forbidden to hear what is bad." (Monbiot, 1999) Marketing is also used for political expedience with elections in Western Democracies fought using expensive and sophisticated marketing campaigns. "Elections are run by the same guys who sell toothpaste" (Chomsky, 2005) and can also be used to forge an artificial image of political figures or systems in the nation's psyche (Chomsky, 2004).

3.1.2 Internal Criticism

Criticisms of marketing have also emerged from within the discipline itself. The managerialist ideology which dominates marketing thought and practice is inexorably linked with the system of (neo)-corporatism that has emerged as one of the dominant features in free market capitalist societies. Marketing – a core element of corporatism – is therefore subject to criticisms of corporate excesses. Michael Thomas describes the problem as corporatism out of control:

"We have unleashed a monster that no one can control, even that minority that profits from it. Unashamed self interest is a vice, not a virtue. We must recognise that the usefulness of an activity is not necessarily measured by its profitability, and that what someone earns is not an indicator of their talents and abilities, still less their moral stature." (Thomas, 2002, p10)

Marketing academics have formed an emerging stream of critical marketing scholarship, which claims that the basis of its contribution is in its capacity to encourage considered reflexivity within the marketing discipline through pedagogy and research which builds up a pervasive evidence base. This critical approach to marketing theory developed during the 1970s in the USA as a response to the changing social, economic and political landscape of the time (Burton, 2001). Academics and analysts began to question the 'positive' effects of marketing on society and whether it could provide any tangible benefits. Critical marketers have adopted various critical approaches such as sustainability (Fuller, 1999), ethics (Crane,

1997), feminism (Catterall *et al.* 1999a), discourse analysis (Brownlie and Saren, 1997) and postmodernism (Firat and Venkatesh, 1993).

The dominant critical marketing position finds its roots in the work of Jurgen Habermas (1984) who conceptualised a critical theoretical approach. Habermasian critical theorists see the potential for the emancipation of the discipline through "a reinvigoration of the Enlightenment project of creating a culture of reason" (Lowe et al. 2005, p194) revealing the possibility of emancipation and rational-critical communication embedded in modern liberal institutions. This school of thought aims to challenge the dominant managerialist ideology in marketing with an alternative approach to marketing theory and practice, allowing citizens to be freed from the excesses of a mass consumerist society (Alvesson, 1994). This view has had a degree of impact on marketing theory and its ideas form much of the basis of the 'critical imagination' project (Murray and Ozanne, 1991). Although an alternative and more radical approach to critical marketing has been espoused (Hetrick and Lozanda, 1994) under the influence of other Frankfurt school theorists adopting a more pessimistic outlook, this has failed to make any profound impact within the marketing discipline.

Therefore the contribution that critical thought can make to marketing theory is uncertain and its impact on marketing practice has been limited because of the gulf that exists between marketing academics and practitioners. Rather, the focus has been on criticising current marketing processes and outcomes. However critical theory should not just be about criticism for its own sake but should move towards solutions, "a significant task of critical theory is to simultaneously critique contemporary society while envisioning new possibilities" (Burton, 2001, p276). One of the identified

weaknesses of critical theory has been the lack of potential solutions, "many of these critiques can seem to consist of criticising everything without offering solutions" (Catterall et al. 1999b, p347). Any solutions that are proposed are often too grandiose and unworkable (Monbiot, 1995, 1999, 2001).

This is where social marketing can help. The next section will describe social marketing and argue that it can help tackle the challenges and criticisms facing the marketing discipline in two ways:

- 1.) By enabling the control and regulation of conventional marketing
- 2.) By providing a socially beneficial use for marketing techniques and ideas: the opportunity of behaviour change.

3.2 What is Social Marketing?

So what exactly is social marketing? Well, like generic marketing, social marketing is not a theory in itself. Instead, it is a framework that draws upon various other bodies of knowledge including sociology and psychology to develop an understanding of human behaviour and how it can be successfully influenced (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971). Varied definitions of social marketing exist, but one of the most useful was proposed by Lazer and Kelley (1973) during the early days 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 analysis of the social consequence of marketing policies, decisions and activities." (p ix)

This definition is especially useful because it conveys both sides of the social marketing 'coin'. On the one hand, social marketing encourages us to use our skills and insights as marketers to progress social good. On the other, it facilitates the control and regulation of conventional marketing through critical studies of its impact on the health and welfare of society.

Both dimensions are of equal importance as together they demonstrate the contribution that social marketing can make to the critical marketing debate. Though well known critics of commercial marketing highlight its deficiencies, they disappointingly stop short of offering any kind of solution. Social marketing can help here because it encourages active debate about the role that marketing should play in modern society. Marketing has often had an unwanted impact but it has also brought about great social benefits. In essence marketing is arguably amoral - so quite how it is used really becomes a question of ethics. Social marketing can help us get the balance right by ensuring that the potential for harm is monitored and controlled and that we also harness the power of marketing to improve our societal wellbeing.

By studying the impact of commercial marketing on human behaviour, social marketers can gain crucial insights that will enhance their abilities to use marketing for the greater good. The very power of commercial marketing and its influence on human behaviour has been documented in countless critical studies of its impact on society. Aside from all else, this simply underlines its potential to affect behaviour in other

more socially desirable areas. Over the past thirty or so years, social marketers have systematically applied concepts from commercial marketing – concepts like consumer research, segmentation and targeting, the marketing 'mix', competitor analysis and, more recently, branding and stakeholder marketing – to topics as diverse as cancer prevention, domestic recycling and road safety.

Critical marketing also makes social marketers aware and able to take account of the competition. We, like our commercial counterparts, need to recognise legitimate sources of competition and the factors that may inhibit our target audience from adopting the very behaviours that we are promoting. Clearly there will be various potential sources of competition to a social marketing campaign, which will depend on the behaviour being promoted. One form of competition that we cannot ignore is the potential detrimental impact of commercial marketing in the very areas in which we are trying to change behaviour. Our ability to get children to eat a better diet will be vastly improved if we can move upstream and tackle some of the wider environmental factors that are making it difficult for them to consume the kinds of foods we would like them to. Encouraging policymakers and legislators to ban junk food advertising to children, or retailers to stock healthy foods as opposed to confectionary at check-outs, are just two examples of how we might achieve this. Good social marketing embraces this idea of going 'upstream' and tackling not only the behaviour of individuals, but also that of professionals, organisations and policymakers (Goldberg, 1995; Lefebvre, 1996; Goldberg, 1995).

Critical marketing is not necessarily something to be feared by the business community. Indeed it may offer numerous gains. Firms' efforts to successfully build

brands and develop strong enduring relationships with their customers will prove considerably more challenging if key branches of marketing – like advertising and sales promotion – are continually being called into question. No one is better placed than we, as marketers ourselves, to use our understanding of the subject to advance not only the commercial bottom line, but also to identify marketing's worst excesses and guide policymakers in their efforts to set reasonable limits. In areas like social welfare and public health, marketing could switch from reactively defending itself against accusations of being part of the problem, to proactively contributing to the solution.

The following section will demonstrate how critical studies of commercial marketing can inform policy decision-making thereby enabling regulation.

3.3 Enabling Regulation

Changes in the marketing environment can be achieved by enforcing regulation of marketing activities. However, policymakers need a clear, rigorous and consensual evidence base before they can act, not least because policy-relevant research findings can influence decisions "involving millions of people and billions of dollars" (Franke, 2001, p186). For evidence to be convincing a consensus among experts is crucial and corporations will not willingly accept restrictions on their activities if they feel that the evidence base does not support them. In short, when business and social interests clash, everyone – citizens, policy makers and the business community - would benefit from a more rigorous, transparent and consensual way of measuring the impact of marketing on society.

Reaching consensus can be achieved in a number of ways. Various methods exist for appraising and synthesising evidence. These methods include systematic review, primary research and documentation analysis. Three examples of how these methods have applied to critical marketing research are now provided.

(i) Systematic review & food marketing to young people

Like marketing, the medical community has also faced dilemmas in terms of reaching a consensus about the nature of evidence. Medicine has responded to this problem with the idea of 'evidence-based decision making', with its emphasis on rigorous methods for reviewing existing research on a topic (Mulrow, 1994). The 'systematic review' (SR) is central to this new thinking (Boaz et al. 2002). Essentially, it is a method of literature review that is used to identify, assess and interpret all of the available evidence on a given topic. It usually relies only on the highest quality evidence and all of its procedures, from literature searching right through to study selection, appraisal and synthesis, are both rigorous and transparent. SR pretty much rules out any possibility for bias because it makes explicit the criteria for selection (Petticrew, 2001), thus overcoming reviewers' natural tendencies to favour certain studies over others. While the idea of reviewing secondary evidence itself is not new, SR is pioneering because of its insistence on meeting agreed standards and adopting transparent and replicable procedures. For these reasons, SR offers built-in quality control that can allow policymakers and legislators to proceed with confidence. Despite some challenges (e.g. dealing with different types of evidence), the principles of evidence-based decision-making and SR are increasingly being taken beyond medicine into fields as diverse as education, social welfare, criminal justice and health promotion, where policy options are also actively debated and the balance between professional and public interest has to be determined.

Recently, SR methods were applied for the first time to a marketing problem. A key site of particularly topical conflict in marketing is the debate concerning the promotion of food to children, and its possible contribution to rising levels of childhood obesity. To clarify the role of commercial food marketing in children's diets, in 2002 the UK Food Standards Agency (FSA) commissioned a SR on the extent and nature of food promotion to children, and any effect on their food knowledge, preferences and behaviour. Because of the controversy surrounding the topic it was crucial that the review was as rigorous and transparent as possible. A team of researchers from four leading UK universities was selected through peer review to conduct the SR. The research found that food promotion was having a detrimental impact on children, particularly in terms of their food preferences, purchase behaviour and consumption (Hastings *et al.* 2003).

As well as adhering to systematic procedures, the review was scrutinised by relentless peer review. Nearly 40 academic experts from a range of institutions and disciplines refereed some aspect of the project. In addition, an independent advisory panel, with representatives from industry, public health and academia, provided regular guidance and scrutiny. The review also had to withstand critiques from commercial marketers. This included an alternative review of the evidence that was funded by an advertising trade organisation (Young, 2003). Unlike the SR, this review relied on conventional literature review methods (i.e. it was not explicit about how sources had been identified and searched or what procedures were followed to appraise the quality of

studies). It reached the opposite conclusion, finding that there was no evidence that food promotion influenced children. In an effort to reconcile these conflicting reviews, the FSA convened a meeting of senior academics who were asked to examine and compare the reviews and reach some kind of consensus. The expert panel questioned the grounds on which Young had selected and appraised studies and deemed the SR procedures to be more reliable than the conventional review methods used by Young. In the end, the SR findings were strongly endorsed by the panel (Food Standards Agency, 2003).

Because the review withstood scrutiny, it was shown to be both comprehensive and rigorous. It is now widely regarded as the definitive piece of research on food promotion to children and its robustness has given policymakers the confidence to proceed. The SR findings were formally ratified by the FSA Board and have been accepted by the Ministry responsible for telecommunications (Department for Culture, Media and Sport). It has also directly informed government policy on the issue. The recent Public Health White Paper states that "there is a strong case for action to restrict further the advertising and promotion to children of those foods and drinks that are high in fat, salt and sugar" (Department of Health, 2004, p35). The review has also informed Ofcom's (the government body responsible for regulating broadcast advertising in the UK) recent consultation on regulating food promotion to children (Ofcom, 2006). Further related policies have also been announced by the government (including bans on unhealthy vending machines in schools).

(ii) Primary research & alcohol marketing to young people

Similar requirements for a comprehensive evidence base are found in the area of alcohol marketing. The last decade has seen a 20% increase in alcohol consumption in the UK (ISD, 2004) and recent research indicates that alcohol consumption amongst young women has risen steeply to a point where there is now almost complete convergence with young men's alcohol consumption (Richards *et al.* 2004). Accompanying these trends has been a growth in binge drinking with young girls now reporting higher levels than their male counterparts (Currie *et al.* 2002). The UK now has one of the highest recorded rates of binge drinking and associated harm in the whole of Europe (Hibell *et al.* 1999). Alcohol consumption is associated with a broad range of social and health problems in the UK, at both personal and societal level (Klingemann and Gmel, 2001; WHO, 2002).

Alcohol is currently a major topic given the considerable health and social impact generated by problem drinking (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2004). This has led to significant interest in the factors which potentially influence drinking behaviour. One such factor that has been identified is alcohol marketing – but there is no consensus on its role, if any, in the problem. The alcohol industry has persistently argued that alcohol marketing has no effect on drinking behaviour but merely affects brands choice (Henry and Waterson, 1981). Meanwhile the health lobby generally take the view that alcohol marketing communications increase consumption of alcohol and are influential in the recruitment of new, often under age, drinkers.

The evidence on alcohol marketing and consumption comprises two types of evidence:

(i) econometric studies that have used time series data to examine the relationship

between aggregated alcohol consumption and supply variables such as advertising expenditure (Duffy, 1990; Lee and Tremblay 1992; Calfee and Scheraga 1994) and (ii) consumer studies examining the relationship between drinking behaviour and psychological effects such as recognition and appreciation of, and rewards derived from, alcohol advertisements (Aitken *et al.* 1988a). Though both types of studies have demonstrated links between alcohol advertising and behaviour, doubt remains over the strength and comprehensiveness of the evidence base, certainly in the minds of policy makers:

"There is no clear case on the effect of advertising on behaviour. One recent study suggests that such an effect may exist, but is contradicted by others which find no such case. So the evidence is not sufficiently strong to suggest that measures such as a ban on advertising or tightening existing restrictions about scheduling should be imposed by regulation." (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2004, p32)

This demonstrates the necessity of constructing a strong evidence base through primary research. There are undoubtedly gaps in the evidence base on the impact of alcohol marketing on drinking behaviour; there has been no longitudinal research carried out in the UK, no studies have looked at the impact of new media and viral marketing, there has been no attempt to examine the cumulative impact of marketing communications and branding, and no one has checked for any differential effect in terms of gender and inequality.

Research that commenced in 2006 at the Institute for Social Marketing (ISM) will aim to address some of the gaps in the evidence base and the lack of research carried out

on the issue in the UK. The project, 'Assessing the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing Communications on Youth Drinking' will use a tried and tested research design adapted from the field of tobacco control research; with the inclusion of a two-stage survey component and study cohort to provide an assessment of causal links between marketing communications and under-age drinking. The study will address the gaps in the evidence base as longitudinal research on the topic has not been carried out previously in the UK and previous studies have not assessed the cumulative impact of the whole marketing mix on youth drinking. The study along with similar research about to commence in New Zealand will add to the evidence base and allow for more informed policy decisions.

(iii) Documentation analysis & the marketing of prescription-only medicines In recent years, the marketing practices of the pharmaceutical industry have also been subject to scrutiny and criticism. One key area of concern is that inappropriate marketing may lead to the medicalisation of society and an increase in the risk of drug-induced illness. In the UK, prescription-only (PO) medicines cannot be marketed directly to the public, and marketing to health professionals is self-regulated by the

Association of the British Pharmaceutical Industry's Code of Practice.

Very recently, and as part of its inquiry into the influence of the pharmaceutical industry, the House of Commons Health Committee commissioned a study of internal marketing documents that it had obtained from five UK pharmaceutical companies (Devlin *et al.* 2005). Each company was instructed to provide all promotional and product support material for specific brands or programmes. The Committee requested a range of documents, including: contact reports between clients and agencies, client

briefs, creative briefs, media briefs, market research reports, details of public relations activity and any other documents relating to promotion and product support. A total of 49 boxes were obtained. It is impossible to know what proportion of the requested documents were sent, and if any were withheld. It is also possible that documents may have been lost or destroyed before the investigation. In addition, three of the five companies provided a very limited set of papers (for example, one company provided 21 boxes of documents for two products, while another provided only three boxes to cover the same amount of activity). These problems meant that the research was limited to a small selection of marketing material, and that, if anything this was likely to understate any problems.

A qualitative analysis was undertaken on the documents to examine the provision of drug information and promotion, and assess the influence of the industry on prescribers, patients, consumers and the general public (House of Commons Health Committee, 2005). The aim of the analysis was to examine whether the marketing of PO medicines contravened the specifications outlined in the Code of Practice. Analysing such a large body of data qualitatively is best conducted using key themes (Silverman, 1995) and this process has been used previously to analyse industry documents in the areas of tobacco and food (Hastings and MacFadyen, 2000a; McDermott and Angus, 2003). The documents were therefore analysed around four key themes taken from the Code of Practice:

- 1. Patients and the general public should not be targeted
- 2. Promotion to health professionals should be objective and unambiguous

- 3. Companies must take full responsibility for their public relations activity and the payment of 'reasonable' honoraria is permitted
- 4. Promotional activity should be transparent

The research highlighted considerable concerns about how the current ABPI Code of Practice is working. It has shown that, on occasions, the marketing of PO medicines transgresses the Code. Specifically, it is clear that:

- The general public and patients *are* seen as deliberate targets for marketing communications for PO medicines, and clever use is made of phenomena like channel and source effects and emotional drivers to maximise audience susceptibility. These campaigns are tied in to the performance of specific brands.
- Campaigns targeting health professionals use emotional drivers, irrational constructs and branding strategies that are far removed from the Code's requirement for communications to be "accurate, balanced, fair, objective and unambiguous".
- Public relations and paid 'key opinion leaders' are used to counter bad publicity (especially about product safety), and the treatment of these issues does not appear to be objective or balanced.
- Brand marketing is disguised and the need for new brands is artificially created prior to launch.

This examination clearly highlights huge contradictions between the Code of Practice and what is actually happening in reality. Documentation analysis is capable of revealing these kinds of discrepancies because it allows us to examine commercial marketing practice from an inside perspective. Clearly this provides us with much deeper and more reliable insights into marketers' activities; insights that would be lost if we were able only to rely on what we were told. Furthermore, this kind of research is capable of having a very direct bearing on both practice and policy as it highlights very specific cases where the Code of Practice just simply is not working. On the basis of this research, recommendations were made – not simply to strengthen the apparent weaknesses in the Code – but to radically overhaul the entire regulatory framework.

Documentation analysis has also been used extensively in the field of tobacco control to inform research and decision making surrounding tobacco marketing, examining tobacco industry documents to assess how their products are marketed to consumers. (Pollay, 2000; Cummings *et al.* 2002; Anderson *et al.* 2006).

In the following section we demonstrate how social marketing can provide solutions by effecting behaviour change in a variety of areas.

3.4 Changing Behaviour

Marketing is about changing behaviour and although much of the focus of marketing is geared towards consumption, and social marketing towards health behaviour change there are many very useful forms of behaviour change that society needs beyond mere consumption. Social marketing can be used to effect a wide range of behaviour changes in many different spheres; societal (e.g. introducing the Euro), political (e.g. promoting the E.U), environmental (e.g. recycling) and health (e.g. smoking cessation, healthy eating). Very recently, a series of systematic reviews demonstrated the ability

of social marketing to improve diet, increase physical activity and tackle substance misuse (McDermott *et al.* 2005; Stead *et al.* 2007a).

Consideration of two case studies of social marketing influencing behaviour change can demonstrate this point; the Euro Introduction in France between 1997 and 2002 and the 'Help' anti smoking campaign funded by the European Commission which started in 2005.

The introduction of the Euro in France

The first example relates to the introduction of the Euro in France which occurred in 2002. A social marketing campaign was launched by the EU to ease the transition to the Euro by informing and improving people's attitudes towards the single currency in France which was ambivalent during the 1990s (Merriman, 2002). The main purpose of the campaign was to raise awareness amongst the French population of the impending changes and to effect behaviour change during the switch to the Euro in 2001-2002. Importantly the campaign sought to construct the correct social marketing mix in much the same way as the principals of commercial marketing, through the correct integration of, and coordination with all the relevant stakeholders such as The Finance Ministry, Education Ministry, Central Bank, NGOs, Employers Organisations, Consumer Organisations and the Trade Unions.

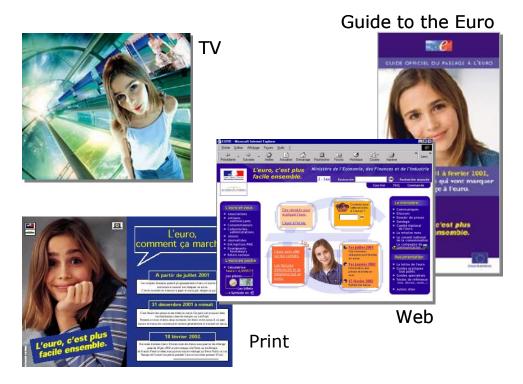
Challenges facing the campaign included addressing the public perception of the EU and Commission in France, public opinion surrounding currency change, discourse amongst consumer organisations and civil society around purchasing power, and reconciling the various messages emanating from the European institutions.

Phase 1 of the campaign was targeted at the population at large but was also segmented and targeted the private sector, school children, the elderly, disabled people and the poorest populations. The programme was aimed at the public at large through campaigns on TV and in the print media, at school children through information booklets and exercise books, the private sector through print media campaigns and information booklets and the elderly through posters and accounting booklets.

A key theme during the campaign and indeed with all social marketing interventions is the requirement to maintain message consistency. Often target audiences demonstrate apathy in terms of response to social communication messages, therefore a long term view is required and messages need to maintain consistency over time. This can often be despite frequent pressures for change from a variety of political, commercial and societal sources.

Message consistency in the social marketing campaign for the introduction of the Euro into France was successfully maintained through the six-year programme. This was achieved in the most part through the creative concept of phase 2: the main campaign protagonist Lise. Lise was an adolescent girl who featured in campaign communications such as TV adverts, a Guide to the Euro, print media communications and on the web. The character was constructed to symbolise proximity, the future, simplicity and solidarity (see figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1: Euro Campaign Materials



The social marketing campaign designed to help with the transition to the Euro in France was a success with analysts commenting on a "successful transition"...which "was so much easier than that which occurred at the beginning of the Fifth Republic" (Merriman, 2002), with the successful introduction of the Euro demonstrating that "a decade of social marketing by European governments could succeed" (Holden, 2001, p1). This was despite forecasts of bleak and insurmountable problems by a variety of prominent economists (Dornbusch, 1996; Feldman, 1997; Friedman, 1997). During the lifecycle of the campaign representative population samples were asked "your opinion about the Euro is..." The Opinion Barometer showed mostly positive opinions highest during the apex of Phase 1 and then again at Phase 2 demonstrating the impact of the campaign on public opinion, peaking at a high of 74% during February 2002 (see Figure 3.2)

Opinion Barometer for the Euro 97-04 80 70 60 50 mostly positive mostly 40 negative 30 20 10 Feb.98 Sep.00 Sep.97 Sep.98 Sep.99 Feb.00 Feb.02 Feb.99 Feb.01 Sep.01

Figure 3.2: Opinion Barometer for the Euro

The EC Help anti-smoking campaign

Tobacco is the largest single cause of preventable death, accounting for one in every seven fatalities, or over 650,000 deaths every year in the 25 Member States of the EU (ASPECT, 2004). As part of its tobacco control strategy, the European Commission has implemented an antismoking campaign across all 25 Member States (2005 Memo 05/68). The Help campaign builds upon previous EC anti-tobacco campaigns but is the first to be implemented in all 25 Member States. Their combined population of over 450 million and the campaign's €72 million budget makes it one of the biggest ever social advertising campaigns.

The campaign aims to highlight the harmful effects of both active and passive smoking, encourage smokers to quit, and promote a tobacco-free society. Its key component is a series of television adverts featuring the same visual content but equivalent voiceover messages in the native language of each Member State. That said the campaign is much broader than just advertising. Support activities include a road-show which visited each of the 25 capitals prior to the first wave of advertising, PR activity, a website that is especially tailored to young people (www.help-eu.com), and

links to existing smoking quit lines. The campaign has utilised several key principles of a social marketing approach including consumer research (comprising both extensive qualitative pre-testing of the campaign and quantitative post-test research across Europe), segmentation and targeting (by focusing on young adults and accounting for cultural difference between countries), and branding.

Stakeholder marketing is also a crucial component of the campaign. A diverse range of individuals and organisations have a vested interest in the campaign including the European Commission, the tobacco control community, the media, the respective health ministries in the Member States, and the general public. Great efforts have been made to get these stakeholders 'onside' in order to maximise the impact of the campaign.

The research undertaken on the campaign to date shows that it is having a positive effect, especially on young people. Telephone interviews conducted with over 25,000 individuals across Europe revealed that over half (55%) of Europeans aged under 25 had been exposed to at least one of the three Help television adverts.

The two cases examined here demonstrate that social marketing offers a framework for effecting behaviour change in a wide variety of fields, not just in health but in the political and wider societal spheres also. Furthermore, social marketing behaviour change campaigns have been used and have proved successful in environmental as well as the more traditional health behaviour change uses.

3.5 Conclusion

Marketing is under threat from both external attacks and internal reservations and "the dominance of marketing by the amoral scientism of the logical empiricists has led to material enslavement of modern societies" (Lowe et al. 2005, p198) The marketing discipline needs to be reclaimed, rescued and requires "to promote a slowing down of frenetic consumption and to reduce the speed of global material greed and instant gratification" (Lowe et al. 2005, p198). If it is to survive as a serious and viable academic discipline it has to change: its use as a commercial tool has to be moderated and its powers brought to bear on more socially desirable goals; social marketing provides a coherent framework for achieving this.

CHAPTER FOUR: SOCIAL MARKETING AND ALCOHOL

Alcohol, alcohol marketing, and young people

The first three chapters have examined the role and contribution that critical social marketing can make to social issues. Having done so, it was important for the author to develop a firm understanding of alcohol issues, and review the alcohol literature before conducting empirical research. This would enable the conceptual framework for the study selected by the author to be properly applied. First, a literature search was conducted. Constructing an appropriate literature search design ensures that a search is structured, and more likely to identify relevant material (Fellow and Liu, 2003). A search strategy was devised, with searches conducted in the following databases; Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Pubmed and ISI Web of Knowledge. The strategy involved searching for material published in the UK during the last 15 years (1995-2010). Combinations of the following search terms using Boolean logic (AND, OR, NOT) were used in the search strategy.

Alcohol, drinking, consumption, booze, binge, culture, social, policy, regulation, harm, health, marketing, advertising, media, communications, adolescents, teenagers, young people, youth.

From the above database searches a total of 35201 hits were obtained. Further refinement achieved by combining more search terms generated 9752 hits. Abstracts were then obtained and downloaded to Reference Manager 11, a reference management software package. The abstracts were then reviewed and irrelevant material removed. From this 311 journal articles were obtained and read. This data was supplemented by a search for grey literature using the same parameters on Google web search, a selection of leading

books on alcohol, and reference chasing and cross-referencing when appropriate. From this search a range of key texts were identified, read and reviewed to develop the narrative for this review of the alcohol literature. Relevant literature also informed the review of the literature in relation to alcohol marketing and young people, described in chapter five.

4.1 Alcohol and the UK

Alcohol plays an important role as a social lubricant in many countries including the UK, is associated with various celebrations, business, social and sport functions, and is consumed in religious and cultural ceremonies, as well as festive and transitional rituals (Heath, 1995; Wilson, 2005). Drinking alcohol serves as an expression of comradeship and solidarity, and it is widely used to facilitate social interaction and bonding (Heath, 1995). In the UK alcohol is a major part of the cultural fabric, and forms part of the social mores of British society, with the majority of adults consuming alcohol on occasion (Kloep *et al.* 2001). However, it should be recognised that alcohol is a toxic, addictive, teratogenic and carcinogenic drug, which has a considerable effect on society (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010).

People in the UK appear to hold a somewhat ambivalent attitude towards alcohol. Generally, British attitudes to drinking are favourable; however, issues such as problem drinking generate disapproval. Nevertheless the vast majority of people in the UK use alcohol, most on a regular basis (Robinson and Lader, 2009), with only 12.2% abstainers (WHO, 2004). For young people a major part of the socialisation process, and the rite of passage that represents the transition to adulthood, involves drinking alcohol (Sharp and Lowe, 1989; Foxcroft, 1996). Young people learn about alcohol early in life given its

ubiquitous nature, the fact that it is heavily marketed, and the fact that since most adults drink, they are exposed to consumption at home or in other environments (Plant, 1995; Eadie *et al.* 2010). Changes in consumption patterns and drinking cultures in the UK, as in many other countries, have increased concern about alcohol related problems in society (Pincock, 2003). Indeed alcohol has been identified as no ordinary commodity, and one that should be controlled carefully (Babor *et al.* 2003; Babor *et al.* 2010).

A broad distinction has been made between 'wet' and 'dry' drinking cultures found within and across countries (Anderson, 1979). Wet drinking cultures are characterised by high per capita alcohol consumption, and young people are socialised into drinking at an early age (Gamella, 1995; Medina, 2001). Wine is traditionally consumed in wet cultures (Peele, 1997). Dry drinking cultures traditionally have lower levels of per capita alcohol consumption, although when it is consumed it is more likely to lead to intoxication (Bloomfield *et al.* 2001). In dry cultures alcohol does not feature as heavily in the socialisation process (Heath, 1995). It is also suggested that dry cultures tend to have a history of temperance movements (Levine, 1992). Beer and spirits are the preferred drinks consumed in dry cultures (Peele, 1997).

The UK has been typically defined as a 'dry' drinking culture, with countries such as Spain and France identified as 'wet' cultures. However, the last twenty years have brought changes in drinking cultures and the way alcohol is consumed. In the majority of countries in Europe alcohol consumption has been steadily falling (WHO, 2009). Nonetheless, binge drinking has increased in several countries, and there have been changes in the types of drink consumed, with wine becoming more popular in 'dry' countries, and beer and spirits more popular in 'wet' countries. Contributing factors

include socio-demographic changes including urbanisation, female emancipation, globalised media and marketing influences, and increased homogeneity of legislation and regulation (Gual and Colom, 1997). These developments have generated discussion on whether drinking cultures have become homogenised, necessitating that the 'wet-dry' classification be replaced by a typology based upon the regularity of drinking, and extent of drunkenness (Room and Mäkelä, 2000).

4.2 Alcohol Consumption and Related Harm

4.2.1 Alcohol Consumption Trends

These changes in drinking cultures and consumption typologies have been particularly marked in the UK. Alcohol consumption in the UK has been rising steadily since the 1950s, rising from 3.9 litres of pure alcohol per capita to a peak of 9.4 litres in 2005 (See Figure 4.1). This increase in consumption has been especially evident during the last decade with a 23% increase in consumption (HM Government, 2007). Since 2005 there has been a slight tailing off on the increase in per capita consumption levels to 9.1 litres in 2006, 9.2 litres in 2007 and 8.9 litres in 2008, a 6% drop since 2004 (HMRC, 2008; BBPA and HMRC, 2009). Yet this does not account for unrecorded consumption from illicit alcohol supplies and home brewed alcohol. A recent estimate of the illicit alcohol market showed an increase in 2008, for example spirit's from 5% to 6% (HMRC, 2009). The UK has one of the highest recorded rates of binge drinking and associated harm in the whole of Europe (WARC, 2004; Hibell *et al.* 2009). Using a proxy for the number of people who drank over double the recommended daily guidelines of 3-4 units for a male and 2-3 units for a female, it was estimated that 5.9 million adults drink above this level in the UK (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2004).

Figure 4.1: UK Per Capita Alcohol Consumption

(Source: HM Government, 2007)

These trends have been particularly prevalent among young people. The level of youth drinking in the UK rose considerably during the 1990s to 28% of all 11-15 year olds in 2001, before levelling off in the last few years, to 21% in 2006 (Fuller 2009). In Scotland there was a 60% increase in reported drinking among 15 year olds, and more than a 100% rise among 13 year olds during the period 1990-2002 (ISD, 2004). However, it is not only an increase in consumption that causes concern, but the way that people consume alcohol. Binge drinking has increased dramatically in the UK, especially among younger people. This has led to the UK being labelled as 'Binge Britain' (Plant and Plant, 2006). Using a five-drink, 30-days definition, more than half of 15-16 year olds in Britain binge drink; the fourth highest level in Europe, and 57% report intoxication in the last 12 months (Hibell *et al.* 2009). Although overall rates of consumption have fallen slightly since 2004, the amount consumed by those aged 11-15 that do drink has increased in recent years (See Figure 4.2), from 5.3 units per week in 1990 to 14.6 units in 2008 in England (Fuller, 2009), with the equivalent figure in Scotland 14.5 units in 2006 (Maxwell *et al.* 2007). The latest data in Scotland shows a slight decrease in the amount of alcohol in

units consumed by adolescents per week. This takes into account adjustments made for the new conversions factors for calculating consumption, which were introduced in 2008. For 15 year olds the average number of units consumed was 18 in 2008 (14 units using the old conversion factors), compared to 16 units in 2006. For 13 year olds the corresponding figures are 16 units per week in 2008 (12 units using the old conversion factors) compared to 13 units per week in 2006 (Black *et al.* 2009).

Figure 4.2: Mean Alcohol Consumption by School Pupils 1990-2008

Mean alcohol consumption in the last week by pupils who had drunk, by sex and age: 1990-2008												
Pupils who drank alcohol in the last week												
Age	Year											
	1990	1994	1996	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007*	2008*
	Mean units of alcohol											
Boys												
11-13	n./a	5.2	6.2	8.3	5.5	7.3	7.7	8.1	8.6	11.9	8.3	10.9
years	n/a	6.7	12.3	9.5	10.0	10.7	9.4	10.1	11.1	10.1	13.7	18.0
14 years	n/a	8.8	12.9	14.5	13.8	14.3	12.9	13.9	13.1	13.9	15.0	17.4
15 years	5.7	7.4	11.3	11.7	10.6	11.5	10.5	11.3	11.5	12.3	13.1	16.0
Girls												
11-13	n./a	3.0	6.4	4.6	5.7	6.3	6.4	7.3	7.9	8.4	8.1	13.4
years	n/a	5.5	8.1	10.1	9.3	10.0	8.7	9.7	9.5	11.7	12.8	12.3
14 years	n/a	6.6	9.7	11.2	10.7	11.4	9.8	12.1	10.5	10.9	14.4	13.5
15 years	4.7	5.7	8.4	9.1	8.9	9.6	8.5	10.2	9.5	10.5	12.4	13.1
Total	,											
11-13	n./a	4.1	6.3	6.4	5.6	6.8	7.1	7.8	8.2	10.1	8.2	12.0
years	n/a	6.1	9.9	9.8	9.6	10.3	9.0	9.9	10.3	10.9	13.2	15.1
14 years	n/a	7.7	11.5	12.9	12.3	13.0	11.3	12.9	11.8	12.3	14.7	15.5
15 years	5.3	6.4	9.9	10.4	9.8	10.6	9.5	10.7	10.5	11.4	12.7	14.6

*N.B: alterations were made to the way units were measured in 2007. (Source: Adapted from Fuller, 2009).

4.2.2 Alcohol Related Health Harms

Alcohol use is associated with significant health harms. An estimated 3.8% of all global deaths and 4.6% of global disability adjusted life years are attributable to alcohol (Rehm *et al.* 2009). In the UK alongside these changes in adolescent drinking patterns, there has been a 20% increase in alcohol related hospital admissions among youth, the equivalent of 20 per day (Hospital Episode Statistics, 2007), and a 57% increase in alcohol related deaths among young people aged 15-34 between 1991 and 2007 (Department for Children Schools and Families, 2008). These youth drinking trends cause concern given

the evidence that regular recreational consumption in adolescence is a strong predictor of alcohol dependence in adulthood (Bonomo *et al.* 2004). Binge drinking by young people is also a strong predictor of alcohol dependency in later life (Jefferis *et al.* 2005), and is associated with a range of longer term health harms including coronary heart disease, liver cirrhosis and stroke (Gutjahr *et al.* 2001, Leon and McCambridge, 2006; Britton and McPherson, 2001). Excessive binge drinking among adolescents can also have an adverse neuro-developmental effect (Lisdahl Medina *et al.* 2008).

4.2.3 Other Alcohol Related Harms

Social problems associated with youth drinking are also considerable. Approximately half of all 10-17 year olds who drink regularly have admitted to some sort of criminal activity or disorderly behaviour (Home Office, 2004). It is also estimated that alcohol is present in half of all crime (Crime and Society Foundation, 2004). Indeed, the UK records the third highest rate of youngsters aged 11-15 years experiencing problems related to alcohol use in Europe, such as personal problems, relationship problems, sexual problems and delinquency (Hibell *et al.* 2009). Youth drinking is also implicated in violence and criminal injury (Forsyth and Lennox, 2009).

The financial costs of alcohol related problems to the UK, and in particular Scotland, are extremely high. In England alcohol related harm was estimated to cost the National Health Service (NHS) £2.7 billion in 2006-2007 (Department of Health, 2008), with the total cost to the UK economy, including crime and lost productivity estimated to be as much as £25.1 billion per year (Cabinet Office Strategy Unit, 2003). In Scotland alcohol related problems were estimated to cost £2.25 billion during 2006-2007; £405 million to the NHS, £170 million to Social Work Services, £385 million to Criminal Justice and

Fire Services, £820 million in Wider Economic Costs and £470 million in Human/Social Costs (Scottish Government, 2008a). The extent of alcohol related harms have led alcohol to be described as more harmful than heroin (Nutt *et al.* 2010). However, although the topic of this thesis is to investigate the topic of alcohol marketing and any association with youth drinking, excessive and binge drinking is a concern throughout UK society, especially among adults. Therefore, the author does not subscribe to an identification of young people as the vanguard of alcohol related problems in society.

4.2.4 Interventions to Reduce Alcohol Related Harms

The extent of alcohol related harms has led the WHO (World Health Organisation) (WHO, 2004), the UK government and a range of stakeholders in the UK (Her Majesty's Government, 2007; Scottish Government, 2008b; British Medical Association, 2008) to identify alcohol, and in particular alcohol use among young people, as a major issue nationally and globally. However, a divergence of views about alcohol exists between the public health field, and other stakeholders such as the alcohol industry. For many health professionals alcohol is a global public health concern that requires strong and urgent action at a population based level (Beaglehole and Bonita, 2009; Casswell and Thamarangsi, 2009). From this perspective alcohol itself is a problematic commodity, and requires control across the whole population (Babor *et al.* 2003, 2010). This view is reinforced due to the significant numbers of adults and young people drinking regularly, drinking to excess and suffering associated harms as a consequence.

Using a population level approach to alcohol problems, controls such as reducing availability and increasing price are considered measures able to reduce alcohol related harm (Anderson *et al.* 2009a). Public health professionals have called for a more coherent

and comprehensive alcohol control policy agenda to be developed (BMA, 2009; Gilmore; 2009). Indeed the idea of a global framework convention for alcohol control has been suggested (Lancet, 2007). This would aim to introduce cost effective measures to reduce alcohol related harm including reducing availability and affordability of alcohol, and restrictions on marketing (Casswell and Thamarangsi, 2009). However, there appears to be little support from the WHO or member states for a global framework convention on alcohol control similar to the one for tobacco (Beaglehole and Bonita, 2009). Barriers to more effective alcohol control policies include lack of political will, the role of the alcohol industry and retailers in the policy process, and the limitations imposed by free trade regulations (Casswell and Thamarangsi, 2009). These barriers could be addressed through good organisation, effective lobbying, high quality research and intelligent activism.

The alternative view, commonly espoused by the alcohol industry, supports a targeted intervention approach. The targeted intervention approach posits that it is not alcohol the product that is the problem, but that there is a problem with how some people use and abuse it, namely those who drink to excess or endanger themselves through excessive drinking. It is argued that rather than punishing the entire population, who (they claim) drink responsibly, with whole population measures such as increasing alcohol pricing, targeted interventions aimed at problem drinkers and alcoholics are more effective. Despite evidence suggesting population based measures are most effective at reducing alcohol related harm (Babor *et al.* 2003; 2010; Anderson *et al.* 2009a), supporters of this view argue that such measures cannot distinguish between problem drinkers and the large proportion of drinkers who drink moderately and cause no harm (ARA [Industry Association for Responsible Alcohol Use], 2008).

Targeted interventions can be used to tackle issues such as drink driving, drinking and pregnancy, social norms programmes, information and drinking guidelines, and early identification and brief intervention strategies. These interventions can be targeted and delivered appropriately to segments of the population. Whilst there is some validity in the need for population segmentation and targeting, this would arguably be better placed within a multi-factorial alcohol control strategy in which population based measures can be introduced to engender behaviour change, with targeted interventions used to support this strategy. Essentially this is not an either/or argument. However, population based measures have the ability to make a relatively large impact within a short timescale, with a role for targeted interventions to complement these policies. Nevertheless, activists within the public health field prefer to prioritise the introduction of population-based measures for alcohol control (The Lancet, 2007; Casswell and Thamarangsi, 2009). What cannot be denied is that there is considerable debate around alcohol policy in the UK.

As concern over alcohol related harm has increased (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010) attention has focused on factors that may causally influence drinking behaviour. Alcohol marketing has been identified as a potential factor (Babor *et al.* 2003; 2010), thereby opening up the potential for social marketing research to play a role.

4.3 UK Alcohol Policy

Alcohol policy in the UK is heavily influenced by political and environmental factors. The UK and Scottish Government have both published national alcohol strategies in the last decade. The UK Government's first ever national alcohol strategy, 'The Alcohol Harm Reduction Strategy' was introduced in 2004 (Prime Minister's Strategy, 2004). In 2007 an updated national alcohol strategy was published entitled 'Safe. Sensible. Social'.

(HM Government, 2007). Both strategies proposed that working in partnership with the alcohol industry towards reducing alcohol related harm was a desirable approach. The alcohol industry appeared to exert considerable influence over the 2004 strategy according to Stevens (2007), as the strategy "adopted the ideas and language of the alcohol industry (and was a) clear example where external pressure on government by a powerful group has influenced the use of evidence in policy" (Stevens, 2007, p30). Safe. Sensible. Social. asserted that most people drink responsibly, and stated that alcohol can play an important and positive role in British culture. The policy document targets the supposed minority of problem drinkers that contribute to alcohol related harm. Although the strategy did commission a review into population based alcohol control policies such as minimum pricing, the majority of action points refer to targeted interventions. Furthermore, as discussed in chapter three, the UK Government did not regard regulatory change in relation to alcohol marketing as necessary or supported by the evidence base. The UK Government alcohol strategy has been identified as being framed in terms of tackling alcohol related crime and disorder, and of scapegoating young people and young problem drinkers. Criticisms of the framework, and its focus on youth alcohol related crime and disorder have emanated, with some commentators believing that the strategy did not serve the public interest (Plant, 2004; Anderson, 2007). Adult drinking, which has been shown to be a major public health, and social problem, has received less attention from alcohol policy measures.

In Westminster, the UK Government has actively embraced big business and corporations over the last decade (Heath *et al.* 2001). Resultantly, alcohol industry stakeholders are well placed to influence the policy agenda (Harkins, 2010). This is demonstrated by the fact that retailers such as Tesco can gain direct ministerial access.

Furthermore, the nature of politics and the political system has an influence over alcohol policy. In the Westminster village compartmentalism (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984), departmental competitiveness, and a lack of holistic government (6, 2002) often put limitations on a strategic policy response. For example the Home Office may regard crime and disorder as the priority while the Department of Health would prioritise public health concerns. Moreover a fear of further disenchanting the electorate, particularly given the general election held in 2010, and indeed the political system which often creates a powerful and often unchallenged executive, elected under the first past the post system, might have contributed to a dilution of the strength of the policy response to alcohol. Recently the UK Government rejected calls for minimum pricing of alcohol to be introduced (Prime Minister's Office, 2009), despite evidence suggesting it would reduce consumption and alcohol related harms (Purshouse et al. 2010), and would have a limited impact on moderate drinkers (Record and Day, 2009). This may have been due to a reluctance to ostracise voters during an economic recession by increasing the price of alcohol. In 2004 the Alcohol Harm Reduction Strategy stated that there was a lack of evidence to suggest alcohol marketing influence youth drinking and that existing regulations would merely be tightened (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2004).

Scotland's first alcohol strategy the 'Plan for Action on Alcohol Problems' was launched by the devolved Scottish Government (Scottish Government, 2002). The strategy's key aims were to reduce binge drinking and harmful drinking especially among young people. The majority of measures proposed to do this involved targeted interventions such as behaviour change campaigns, treatment services and alcohol education initiatives. The updated strategy was launched in 2009 'Changing Scotland's Relationship with Alcohol' (Scottish Government, 2009). The strategy recognised the failures of previous policy to

reduce alcohol related harm and proposed population level measures to reduce alcohol consumption, binge drinking and associated harms. This change was partly in response to the continuation of worrying trends in terms of increasing binge drinking and alcohol related harm. The Scottish Government has accepted that for "a large section of the Scottish population their relationship with alcohol is damaging and harmful" and that the people of Scotland are drinking too much (Scottish Government, 2009, p6). Accordingly the strategy document proposes an introduction of minimum alcohol pricing, an end to price promotions, a discussion over increasing the minimum purchase age for alcohol, and monitoring the effectiveness of measures within the licensing laws for controlling the availability of alcohol. The policy response in Scotland is now beginning to move in line with calls from the public health field to recognise that alcohol is a population level problem and requires an appropriate multi-faceted policy response.

In Scotland, the political situation is somewhat different. The electoral system in Scotland, the Additional Member System, which is a form of proportional representation, results in a weaker executive often governing in coalition with other parties. This results in more consensus based politics under which arguably the common interest can be more easily reached (Keating, 2005). Furthermore, there is a more favourable disposition towards the public sector and government intervention in Scotland (McGarvey and Cairney, 2008). This is demonstrated by the fact that Scotland implemented a ban on smoking in public places in 2006 with great success prior to England doing so in 2007, and also by the fact that the Scotlish Government proposed to introduce minimum pricing on alcohol (Scotlish Government, 2009); albeit the policy was defeated during the new alcohol bill's final reading in parliament (Scotlish Parliament, 2010). However, it should be noted that some areas of alcohol policy are Westminster reserved powers. These

include taxation, advertising and some other forms of marketing, and drink driving legislation (*Scotland Act 1998*).

In terms of overall effectiveness of alcohol policy in the UK, the country has an Alcohol Policy Index ranking of 20th out of 30 countries, suggesting there is room for improvement (Brand *et al.* 2007). Despite calls for alcohol policy in the UK to be evidence based (Marmot, 2004), this has not always been the outcome (Anderson, 2007). This demonstrates that the links between research evidence and policy are not always clear and linear. The policy agenda is an often fragile and misunderstood process with several factors influencing outcomes (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984). Policy makers often trust instinct, use prior knowledge, or partisan influences in making their decisions. Policy making and political decisions are often incremental and use subjective judgements – what Lindblom refers to as 'muddling through' (Lindblom, 1979); rather than being rational and fully informed using the scientific evidence available (Simon, 1965). Therefore, researchers need to be mindful of the fact that evidence base policy may be a utopian ideal (Black, 2001).

4.4 The Alcohol Market and Alcohol Marketing

The global alcohol market is big business (Jernigan, 2009), and it is estimated that 236bn litres of alcohol was sold in 2008 (Euromonitor, 2009). Recent years have witnessed major changes within the alcohol industry including marketplace consolidation, emergence of global companies and brands; and as a consequence in many cases bigger marketing budgets (Jernigan, 2009). In the UK the drinks market was estimated to be worth a total of £41.92 billion in 2009 (Keynote, 2009). Alcohol marketing plays a substantial role in the global, and UK alcohol industry, and is a key component of the

business. Indeed across eight EU countries: Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Spain, Sweden and the UK, alcohol advertising expenditure across six channels (TV, Newspapers, Magazines, Outdoor, Radio and Cinema) totalled €1430.32 million (European Association of Communications Agencies, 2008). In the UK the total alcohol advertising spend was £202.5 million in 2004 (AC Nielsen, 2006), and the estimated total marketing spend is over £800 million (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2003). This clearly demonstrates that alcohol marketing makes use of many other channels other than advertising, and is a good demonstration of the breadth of the marketing mix (see Figure 4.3).

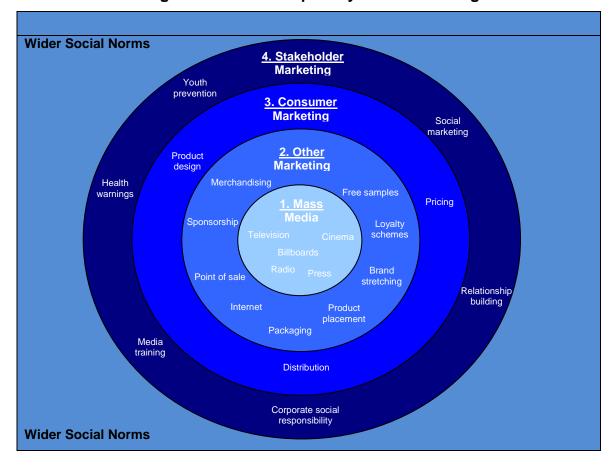


Figure 4.3: The Multiple Layers of Marketing

(Source: BMA, 2009).

Alcohol marketing is sophisticated, multi-faceted, and operates across an ever increasing range of channels: including advertising (television, radio, cinema, press), sponsorship,

new media (web pages, mobile SMS, social networking sites, pop-ups, email), branding, product design and packaging, new product development, price promotions and other promotional activity, branded merchandising, product placement, point of sale, distribution, experiential marketing and more (Casswell, 2004; Jernigan and O'Hara, 2004; McCreanor *et al.* 2005). To demonstrate how alcohol is marketed in the UK, the following section presents examples collected during the stage one audit of marketing communications (see chapter six), periodical searches on Google images, brand websites and Visit4info.com - a database of advertising campaigns in the UK.

4.5 Types of Alcohol Marketing

4.5.1 TV and Cinema Advertising

TV advertising remains the most overt way of marketing alcohol, and a greater share of total marketing spend is still spent in this channel despite the range of other communication outlets available. TV advertising involves the screening of adverts during commercial breaks in programmes, marketing a product often featuring characters, scenes or imagery and some sort of basic plotline or message. Campaigns are often related to certain themes and can run for a period of months. Cinema advertising uses largely the same techniques as TV advertising but screened prior to feature films. In 2006 49% of a total alcohol advertising spend of £202.5 million in the UK was on TV advertising (AC Nielsen, 2006; House of Commons Health Committee, 2010), and there was an increase in the number of commercial spots aired on TV between 2004 and 2006 from 367,000 to 442,000 (AC Nielsen Media, 2006). Television advertising is regarded as a very powerful, successful and pervasive form of marketing, especially on children (Enis *et al.* 1980). However rising costs of advertising space, with costs tripling over the last two decades, plus the inability of TV advertising to target specific, and hard to reach

audiences, might explain why some alcohol marketing spend has shifted into other channels (Shimp, 1997). Nevertheless in the UK there have been several popular and evocative alcohol marketing campaigns from the 'chin-head's McEwan's Lager adverts in the 1980s, to the popular Carlsberg adverts of recent years and the risqué and somewhat controversial WKD adverts of the past nine years. Given the explicit nature of television advertising this tends to be the most regulated marketing channel. Still shots from prominent TV alcohol advertising campaigns are displayed in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4: Examples of TV Advertising



(Source: www.visit4info.com)

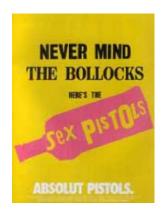
(Source: www.visit4info.com)

4.5.2 Press Advertising

Another traditional form of alcohol marketing is press advertising. Advertising in newspapers and magazines or other press medium, collectively known as 'press advertising', can encompass everything from media with a broad readership such as national newspapers, to the more narrowly targeted outlets such as local press or trade journals covering specialised topics (Young, 2005). However there can be issues with poor reproductive quality, difficulties with buying advertising space, and a lack of selectivity in audience criteria (Kitchen, 1999a). The press holds the largest share of the media in many countries including the UK, with a share of 40%, equating to £7.716

billion in 2007 (WARC, 2008). Press alcohol advertising is widely used in the UK by retailers such as big supermarkets and is often linked with price promotions available in stores. This demonstrates the integrated nature of marketing communications (Holm, 2006). The following examples show alcohol press advertising including a magazine advert, and supermarket price promotions appearing in newspapers (see Figure 4.5).

Figure 4.5: Examples of Press Advertising







(Source: www.magazine-ads.com) (Source: Daily Mail 26/2/10) (Source: Daily Record 26/2/10)

4.5.3 Billboards and Posters

The use of billboards and posters, often known as outdoor advertising is commonplace in the UK with sites generally chosen to target footfall (pedestrians, car users, users of public transports). Outdoor media campaigns are general in their audience reach, but act as an effective way to publicise a brand (Crosier, 2003). In the case of alcohol marketing, posters can often be targeted to bars, pubs and clubs where a particular target audience frequent. The two examples in Figure 4.6, a poster found in pub and club toilets, and a billboard poster, are for the brand WKD; a popular 'alcopop' brand in the UK that uses irreverent, boyish humour in its advertising.

Figure 4.6: Examples of Billboards and Posters





(Source: www.visit4info.com) (Source: www.Visit4info.com)

4.5.4 Price Promotions

Price promotions are one of the most effective marketing tools to encourage consumption, appealing to price sensitive consumers, impulse buyers, and those seeking good value (Kotler *et al.* 2004). It is one of the key vehicles used in alcohol marketing, especially in the off-trade. Indeed the frequency of loss-leaders and special price promotions has contributed to the fact that the UK has gone from a 70%-30% split in the mid 1980s in terms of overall alcohol sales in the on-trade and off-trade respectively, to a 41.9%-58.2% split in 2010, with the off-trade projected to continue to increase market share (Euromonitor, 2010). Figure 4.7 shows how pubs and supermarkets use price promotions as a marketing tool.

Figure 4.7: Examples of Price Promotions





(Source: www.jdwetherspoon.co.uk)

(Source: www.morrisons.co.uk)

4.5.5 Point of Sale Promotion

Point of sale promotion consists of various forms of display, or other promotional activity in the venue that acts as the place of purchase (Crosier, 2003). It represents an important component of the marketing mix, as it is placed at the point of customer interaction. Its importance is accentuated given that an estimated two-thirds of all purchasing decisions are made in store (Dibb *et al.* 2005). Point of sale forms a key promotional channel for the tobacco industry, especially as until recently it was unregulated, and it has been shown to influence smoking behaviour (Henriksen *et al.* 2010). Point of sale promotion is also an important marketing tool for the alcohol industry, as Figure 4.8 demonstrates.

Figure 4.8: Examples of Point of Sale Promotion



4.5.6 Branding and Merchandising

A brand is a name of the trademark connected with a product or producer. Branding has been recognised as the marketers most advanced emotional tool (Murphy, 1987). Brand strategies are devised to develop branding that builds lasting relationships with consumers to ensure they continue to buy products and services. In the alcohol market, branding is used as a way of generating consumer identity and loyalty (de Chernatony, 1993). Branding is also often used on merchandise, a process known as brand-stretching. This can be seen in Figure 4.9 featuring branded merchandise of two leading alcohol brands in the UK.

Figure 4.9: Examples of Brand Merchandising



(Source: www.drinkstuff.com)



(Source: www.guinness.com)

4.5.7 Sponsorship

Sponsorship often accounts for a sizeable proportion of a company's overall marketing budget. and marketing expenditure on sponsorship is expected to increase (Lee *et al.* 1997; Hoek, 1999). Sponsorship involves a cash or in kind fee paid to a property, typically in sports, arts, entertainment or enterprises, in return for access to exploitable commercial potential associated with that property. It has status as a global communications medium, can reach multiple and disparate audiences, and can transcend languages and culture (Meenaghan, 1996). Sponsorship is a powerful and commonly used marketing vehicle for the alcohol industry, and in particular sports sponsorship, with alcohol brands being the second largest source of sponsorship income in the UK (Keynote, 2007). Sponsorship activity can range from title sponsorship of major sporting or music events such as the Magners League rugby union competition or T in the Park music festival to sponsorship of local sports clubs and community activities (Maher *et al.* 2006). The following examples show how alcohol brands sponsor sports teams, sporting competitions and events, and music events and venues in the UK (see Figure 4.10).

Figure 4.10: Examples of Sponsorship









(Source: tinthepark.com)

(Source: www.bbc.co.uk/sport)

(Source: www.budweiser.com)

(Source: www.magnerscider.com)

4.5.8 Internet/Social Network Sites

The internet is one of the fastest growing marketing communication channels. Indeed a whole branch of marketing practice has emerged known as e-marketing (Strauss *et al.* 2006). Sophisticated web technologies such as internet tracking ad-delivery systems now allow brands to market products at specific target audiences based on their consumption habits or lifestyle choices. The alcohol industry has been at the forefront of the use of new technologies such as the internet, and has made use of the emergence of social networking sites into modern lifestyles. Figure 4.11 shows screenshots taken from alcohol brand websites and social networking profile pages, demonstrating the strong presence of alcohol marketing in this arena, and level of creativity evident in such communications.

Figure 4.11: Examples of Internet/Social Network Marketing



(Source: www.facebook.com)

4.5.9 Mobile/SMS

Mobile phone and SMS text messaging communications are a relatively new channel for marketing. This form of marketing offers direct and personalised communication anytime and anywhere (Watson *et al.* 2000). Branded messages, viral campaigns, games, competitions and applications can all be sent using mobile phone communication systems. Figure 4.12 shows examples of alcohol marketing using mobile and SMS channels. This often involves activities such as interactive text competitions, games (for example the text and win a lap-dance shown), challenges, and mobile applications.

Figure 4.12: Examples of Mobile/SMS Marketing



(Source: www.sidekick-shots.co.uk) (Source: http://mobile.smirnoff.com)

(Source: www.wkd.co.uk)

4.5.10 Product Design /Packaging

Product development and package design are important considerations in marketing, with the need to review and revise products and services offered to the market a recurrent theme (Hart, 2003). New product development and package design are key elements of the marketing mix used by the alcohol industry. Indeed the alcohol industry has been criticised for producing products that may appeal to young people such as flavoured alcoholic beverages (FABs), or shot based drinks that could be interpreted as encouraging excessive consumption (BMA, 2009). Figure 4.13 shows a shot based drink that is designed to clip onto a bottle or glass and therefore be 'chased' down with another drink, a half sugar FAB drink that may appeal to females concerned about body image, and a range of chocolate flavoured shot based drinks.

New
Half Sugar
Blueberry
Available from April 14
with a tell suspens to the super su

Figure 4.13: Examples of Product/Package Design

(Source: www.sidekick-shots.co.uk) (Source: www.thegrocer.co.uk) (Source: www.sidekick-shots.co.uk)

The examples of alcohol marketing given here are by no means exhaustive. There are other elements of the marketing value chain such as distribution, experiential marketing (linking brands to consumer experiences) and cool-hunting (employing trendsetters to market products amongst a particular demographic) (Cova *et al.* 2007). Recently the UK government announced plans to allow another marketing channel, product placement, in programmes shown on commercial television (Department for Culture, Media and Sport,

2009). However, it seems that following pressure from the health lobby and cabinet ministers, alcohol will likely be excluded from product placement activity (Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2010). Research has suggested that alcohol related detritus such as discarded bottles and cans could be regarded as a form of alcohol marketing (Forsyth and Davidson, 2010). The cumulative range of marketing activities to which young people can be exposed are illustrated in Figure 4.14.



Figure 4.14 – The Cumulative Effect of Alcohol Promotion

(Source: Adapted from BMA, 2009)

Having explored the extent and nature of alcohol marketing in the UK it is useful in the context of this research project to examine how it is presently regulated.

4.6 Alcohol Marketing Regulation in the UK

Currently in the UK a system of co-regulation of alcohol advertising operates, which covers broadcast advertising but not sponsorship. Ofcom (the UK communications regulator) contracted out responsibility for the broadcast advertising regulatory system in 2004. The broadcast advertising code is administered by the Advertising Standards Authority (ASA). The ASA's activities include investigating and adjudicating on complaints, and proactive monitoring and compliance work. The Broadcast Committee of Advertising Practice (BCAP) which is an advertising industry populated body writes the code.

The BCAP Code contains specific rules governing alcohol advertising for the protection of children. These include rules prohibiting marketing to children, and state that advertisements for alcoholic drinks must not be likely to appeal strongly to people under 18, or reflect or associate with youth culture. In addition, children must not be seen or heard, and no one who is, or appears to be, under the age of 25 may play a significant role in advertisements for alcoholic drinks. Finally no one may behave in an adolescent or juvenile way (BCAP, 2010).

BCAP also has rules on the schedule of advertising stipulating that alcoholic drinks may not be advertised in or adjacent to children's programmes or programmes commissioned for, principally directed at, or likely to appeal particularly to audiences below the age of 18. Ofcom retains ultimate competency and powers of adjudication over the Broadcast

Advertising Code. TV and radio sponsorship is regulated by the same codes, but those rules are applied by Ofcom. This is because sponsorship is seen as affecting the integrity of programming, so was retained by the programme regulator. Television advertising for alcohol is also subject to a pre-clearance system.

Beyond this, a system of self-regulation for alcohol marketing is in operation. Non-broadcast marketing of alcoholic beverages in the UK is governed by a self-regulatory code of conduct: The British Code of Advertising, Sales Promotion and Direct Marketing, by the Committee of Advertising Practice (CAP). CAP is an industry body that also operates a voluntary copy service for non-broadcast advertisers. The CAP code states that marketing communications should not be directed at people under 18 through the style of presentation, content or context in which they appear. It also stipulates that marketing communications should not be associated with people under 18 or reflect their culture. Furthermore, people shown drinking or playing a significant role should neither be, nor look under 25, and should not be shown behaving in an adolescent or juvenile way (CAP, 2010).

The Portman Group is a wholly self-regulatory body and has a Code of Practice on the Naming, Packaging and Promotion of Alcoholic Drinks. This code applies to marketing practices not covered by the ASA/CAP/BCAP system. It contains provision specific to youth by stating that drink, its packaging and any promotional material or activity should not in any direct or indirect way appeal to under 18s (Portman Group, 2008). The Social Responsibility Standards for the Production and Sale of Alcoholic Beverages is a self-regulatory document, drafted by the alcohol industry and is not a code as such, but

instead offers guidance on best practice on the production and sale of alcohol (Advertising Association *et al.* 2005).

The Responsible Retailing of Alcohol Guidance for the Off-Trade code, produced by alcohol retailers, includes advice on the positioning of alcohol in-store, alcohol promotions and staff training. The code also covers alcohol promotion in broadcast and non-broadcast marketing, and prohibits irresponsible marketing encouraging excessive consumption, appealing to young people, or implying sexual prowess. This covers all marketing, TV, radio and in-store. The code is produced by a consortium of retailers (Association of Convenience Stores *et al.* 2004).

Weaknesses within the current regulatory system have been identified including a lack of comprehensive pre-vetting, monitoring and ineffective penalties that do not act as a deterrent, the reliance on public complaints, the fact that the codes focus on content and not imaging and associations, and a lack of attention on the volume of advertising (BMA, 2009). The UK has been given a zero score ranking in relation to advertising, using the Alcohol Policy Index ranking system for measuring effectiveness of alcohol control policies (Brand *et al.* 2007). This has led to calls for the self-regulatory system to be abandoned and either statutory regulation (Home Office, 2008), or a complete ban on some or all forms of alcohol marketing (Anderson, 2009). Another important observation is that the regulatory system seems to be particularly focused on young people, which may demonise them when adult drinking is a much as, if not more of a problem (MacAskill *et al.* 2008).

4.7 Alcohol Marketing and Drinking Behaviour

The issue of the impact, if any, of alcohol marketing upon drinking behaviour began to be explored in the early 1980s. Since then a growing evidence base has emerged, principally consisting of econometric and consumer studies. Econometric studies are generally population based, and involve the statistical analysis of the relationships between the overall volume of alcohol consumption, most typically in terms of sales, and overall levels of marketing, typically in terms of expenditure. Consumer studies involve research conducted at the level of the individual, and examine how people's alcohol knowledge, attitudes and drinking behaviour vary according to their awareness and appreciation of, and involvement with, alcohol marketing.

Debate surrounding this evidence base has created the opportunity for critical social marketing to play a role, as with tobacco marketing (Hastings, 2007a). Subsequently social marketers have conducted research examining the impact of alcohol marketing on drinking behaviour (MacKintosh *et al.* 1997). Reviews of the evidence base have suggested that alcohol marketing does influence youth drinking (Hastings *et al.* 2005; Anderson *et al.* 2009b; Gordon *et al.* 2010). This evidence base is reviewed in chapter five. The article entitled 'Alcohol marketing and young people's drinking - What the evidence base suggests for policy' (Gordon *et al.* 2010a) was published in the *Journal of Public Affairs* which has a 1* journal ranking (Association of Business Schools, 2009). The article builds upon a previous review of the research published in 2005 (Hastings *et al.* 2005) and examines the implications of changes to the evidence base since then, on policy and regulation in relation to alcohol marketing.

Chapter Five: Alcohol marketing and young people's drinking - What the evidence base suggests for policy (Publication Two)

Gordon, R., Hastings, G., Moodie, C. (2010). Alcohol marketing and young people's drinking - What the evidence base suggests for policy. *Journal of Public Affairs*. 10(1): 88-101.

5.1 Abstract

As the influence of alcohol marketing on young people remains a highly contested topic we review the recent literature to examine if the debate has moved on. The extant literature shows that while many econometric studies suggest alcohol marketing to have a minimal effect on youth alcohol consumption, more focussed consumer studies, particularly recent research employing sophisticated longitudinal designs, demonstrate clear links between alcohol advertising and drinking behaviour. Encouragingly, some of the more recent research studies assess marketing activity beyond advertising; sponsorship, new media, viral marketing, price promotions, new forms of distribution, product development and increased point of sale activity. The literature presents increasingly compelling evidence that alcohol marketing is directly impacting upon young people's drinking behaviour. The implications of this on the current policy debate surrounding alcohol marketing activities and regulation in the UK and beyond are discussed. Furthermore, a research agenda for alcohol marketing for the future is offered.

5.2 Introduction

The influence of alcohol marketing on the drinking behaviour of young people is still a matter of considerable debate despite more than three decades of research. The alcohol and advertising industries have steadfastly contested that alcohol marketing does not influence drinking behaviour, citing econometric data that suggests advertising has a negligible effect on consumption. Public health academics, conversely, reach the opposite

conclusion, but do so by drawing on the broader evidence base. The debate becomes even more complex when other elements of marketing are factored into the argument, such as pricing, distribution, point of sale activity and new product development. Existing reviews of the evidence base suggest that marketing may have an effect on drinking behaviour but stop short of drawing a causal link (Hastings *et al.* 2005). This paper focuses on new research evidence that has emerged since then. The impact of the current evidence base on the policy process will be examined, and the issue of how alcohol marketing can, and perhaps should be regulated is considered.

5.3 Alcohol marketing and young people

The last few years have witnessed growing concern at the rising rates of alcohol consumption amongst the UK population, and in particular young people. The level of youth drinking, between 2000 and 2006, has risen by a disconcerting 43.4% for 11–13-year-old boys to a staggering 82.6% for 11–13-year-old girls. Concomitant with this linear increase in alcohol consumption has been a 20% rise in hospital admissions among youth (Diment *et al.* 2007), equating to 20 children a day due to excessive alcohol use. Given the deleterious health and social impacts associated with problem drinking alcohol is now high on the social, political and public health agenda. The gravity of alcohol-related harm has also sparked a proliferation of research examining which factors may causally influence drinking behaviour. One risk factor identified is that of alcohol marketing.

There has been considerable discourse on the strength of the evidence base and whether it has adequately demonstrated causality between alcohol marketing and youth drinking.

The UK government raised doubts in 2004 over the comprehensiveness of the evidence

base, stating 'There is no clear case on the effect of advertising on behaviour. One recent study suggests that such an effect may exist, but is contradicted by others which find no such case. So the evidence is not sufficiently strong to suggest that measures such as a ban on advertising or tightening existing restrictions about scheduling should be imposed by regulation' (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2004, p32). Since this period however our understanding of alcohol marketing has improved as new evidence has emerged.

The evidence concerning the influence of alcohol marketing on consumption primarily comes from two separate lines of inquiry; econometric studies, which involve a statistical examination of the relationship between overall levels of alcohol consumption (typically in terms of sales) and overall levels of advertising (typically in terms of expenditure) and; consumer studies, which examine how people's drinking knowledge, attitudes and behaviour vary with their exposure to alcohol advertising.

5.4 The evidence base: econometric studies

The majority of econometric studies have focussed on alcohol advertising in broadcast and print media, with alcohol marketing suggested to have little or no effect on aggregate alcohol consumption or on drink demand, when compared to other variables (Duffy, 1989; Duffy, 1991; Nelson, 1999, 2003). Other econometric studies however suggest a link between alcohol advertising and consumption. For instance, a cross sectional econometric study found a significant relationship between alcohol advertising and motor vehicle fatalities (Saffer, 1997). Similarly, time series studies have demonstrated that countries with alcohol advertising bans had lower levels of alcohol consumption, and that alcohol advertising bans do, or could, decrease consumption by up to 24% amongst adolescents (Saffer, 1991, 2000; Saffer and Dave, 2003). Recent years have witnessed a

scarcity of econometric studies on the impact of alcohol advertising on drinking behaviour. However since the Hastings *et al.* (2005) review two further econometric studies have been published.

The first econometric study, similar to that of Saffer and Dave (2003), examined the link between alcohol advertising and adolescent alcohol consumption and found that reducing alcohol advertising can produce a modest decline in consumption, although effects may vary by race and gender, with black men more susceptible to effects (Saffer and Dave, 2006). This updated study used supplemental data from the Monitoring the Future survey of 8th, 10th and 12th graders, and merged data on advertising and prices to individual records. Confounding variables were also controlled for and the datasets were used to design and test an alcohol demand specification which included alcohol advertising. Results suggested that a 28% reduction in alcohol advertising was accompanied by reductions in adolescent monthly alcohol use from 25% to between 24 and 21%, and for binge drinking from 12% to between 11 and 8%.

In contrast to the previous findings, another econometric study, examining the effects of youth readership, price of advertisements and audience size on alcohol advertising in 35 major magazines in the US, found no evidence that alcohol advertising in magazines is targeted towards youth (Nelson, 2005; Nelson, 2006; Nelson and Young, 2008). Unlike previous econometric work, readership demographics (age, income, gender, race), magazine characteristics (sales, number of issues) and type of beverage (beer, wine, spirits) were accounted for in the analyses (regression models with count data). The findings indicated significant effects for price, audience size and adult demographics but did not support claims that alcohol advertisers target adolescent readers. Instead it was

found that alcohol advertisements were less likely to appear in magazines with a high youth readership and that overall ad placements were unrelated to youth readership.

The alcohol industry have used selected econometric findings to bolster their entrenched position that advertising does not influence demand for alcohol, but merely brand choice (Waterson, 1989; Shoup and Dobday, 1990; Mitchell, 1994). In many respects this is akin to the stance unsuccessfully adopted by the tobacco industry. Importantly however, the methodological weaknesses inherent in econometric studies question the contribution they can make to the evidence base. A premise of econometric research is that advertising spend accurately reflects advertising effectiveness, neglecting the importance of creative themes and the media channels used (Strickland, 1982a). The deconstruction of these econometric models also reveals their relative simplicity, given that they have no measure of consumer involvement in the communication process; a vital component of understanding how advertising works (Hastings, 1990; Casswell, 1995; Casswell and Zhang, 1998; Wu, 2001). Data is also incomplete or absent in several of these studies, particularly for advertising expenditure, largely due to issues of commercial confidentiality (Saffer, 1997). Furthermore, the focus on overall consumption figures provides little insight into an individual consumer's knowledge, attitudes or behaviour and, as such, limits our understanding of particular target markets such as youth. Finally, the often exclusive focus on alcohol advertising is at the expense of the other components of the integrative marketing mix. This again limits the power of econometric research given that the majority of alcohol marketing spend does not go on advertising, but on below the line activities such as new media, viral marketing and sponsorship (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2003; AC Nielsen, 2006).

5.5 The evidence base: consumer studies

Consumer studies are an alternative approach to assessing the impact of marketing on consumer behaviour, and the preferred industry option when evaluating the effectiveness of their own marketing activities. These studies use individuals as the unit of analysis and attempt to examine, or predict, the responses of young people to alcohol marketing. Early consumer studies examining the impact of alcohol marketing on young people's behaviour, like econometric studies, predominantly focussed on the effect of advertising. Early consumer research provided support for many econometric findings by suggesting that advertising had a small effect (Strickland, 1982b; Atkin *et al.* 1984; Aitken, 1989; Grube and Wallack, 1994; Wyllie *et al.* 1998a, 1998b), or indeed no effect, on alcohol consumption (Adlaf and Kohn, 1989). The cross-sectional nature and simplicity of the designs employed by these early consumer studies however prohibited a causal link between alcohol marketing and drinking behaviour from being established.

The subsequent emergence of longitudinal consumer studies added considerably to the evidence base. Although early longitudinal studies did find some evidence of causality (Connolly *et al.* 1994; Casswell and Zhang, 1998), it is more recent, and sophisticated, longitudinal consumer studies that persuasively suggest that alcohol marketing influences young people's drinking behaviour.

In 1998 the US National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism funded three such studies. Ellickson *et al.* (2005) followed 3111 students in middle schools in South Dakota (13–15 years old in age) over 3 years using an in-school survey. Drinkers and non-drinkers were compared at baseline and regression models, with multiple control variables, employed to examine the relationship between exposure to alcohol advertising

after 1 year and drinking behaviour after 2 years. It was found that exposure to in-store beer displays predicted drinking onset for non-drinkers after 2 years, and that exposure to advertising in magazines and beer concession stands at sports or music events predicted frequency of drinking after 2 years. No significant predictive effect of exposure to TV advertising was found for either drinkers or non-drinkers. Data did come however from only one US state, and the reliability of self-reported data on alcohol outcomes and predictors is, as with other addictive behaviours, open to question.

The second study in the series used a school-based questionnaire design to examine for effects of television advertising on consumption (Stacy *et al.* 2004). They began with a cohort of 12–13-year olds (N=2250) and, using a combination of exposure and recall variables, found that an increase in viewing television programmes containing alcohol advertisements was associated, a year later, with a 44% increased risk of beer use, a 34% increased risk of wine or liquor use and a 26% increased risk of engaging in binge drinking episodes. Similar methodological limitations apply to this study as with the first study in the series (Ellickson *et al.* 2005) and the authors acknowledge that numerous confounding variables, such as parental monitoring and pro-social extracurricular activities, may explain away the effects of assessed exposure.

The third study in the series was conducted using telephone surveys with 1877 youths aged 15–26 across 24 media markets, up to four times over a 21-month-period (Snyder *et al.* 2006). Multi-level analyses, controlling for covariates, demonstrated a significant link between both self-reported advertisement exposure on four types of media (TV, radio, magazines and billboards) and advertising expenditure on each of these media, and increased drinking. It was also found that both advertising variables were positively

associated with increased drinking over time. The findings are weakened somewhat by several factors; relatively high attrition rates, with heavier drinkers at baseline more likely to drop out; incomplete industry data, used to measure advertising expenditure, in some markets; and failure to examine other forms of marketing that may influence behaviour, such as product placement and sponsorship.

Despite the limitations of the three aforementioned studies, the prospective nature and greater methodological rigour of these studies represents definite progress from previous research, and subsequent research has added to these findings. For example, a school-based survey evaluated the impact of exposure to alcohol marketing on beer consumption amongst a cohort of 1786 grade six students (11–12-year-olds) and found, 1 year later, that 17% reported drinking beer in the past year (Collins *et al.* 2007). The odds ratios from various marketing channels on beer drinking were as follows; ESPN cable network (a 24 hour cable television network dedicated to sports broadcasting and programming) 1.08; other sports beer ads 1.19; other TV beer ads 1.13; magazines 0.96; radio 1.17; beer concessions 1.01; in-store beer displays 1.03; beer promotional items 1.76. The joint effect of exposure to advertisements from all sources was highly significant and also significant from three TV sources (ESPN beer ads, other sports beer ads and other TV beer ads). Twenty per cent of young people with high alcohol marketing exposure at baseline reported past year beer drinking 1 year later, compared with 13% with low exposure at baseline.

A randomized control trial study carried out in 63 Chicago schools investigated the impact of exposure to outdoor alcohol advertisements near school premises on alcohol use (Pasch *et al.* 2007). It was found that on average each school had 14.8 alcohol

advertisements within 457m of a school. Of a baseline sample of 2586 students, 2027 (78%) followed-up were non-drinkers. Exposure to alcohol advertisements at grade six did not predict drinking behaviour amongst grade six drinkers or grade eight non-drinkers. However, amongst grade six non-drinkers exposure did predict intention to drink alcohol at grade eight.

Another study using a non-random longitudinal survey investigated the influence of alcohol advertising and promotions on the initiation of alcohol use amongst 1080 nondrinking students in California (Henriksen *et al.* 2008). Twenty-nine per cent of non-drinkers at baseline had initiated alcohol use at follow-up 1 year later. It was found that brand recognition (OR=1.15), brand recall (OR= 1.16) and high receptivity to alcohol marketing (OR=1.77) predicted initiation. When receptivity to alcohol marketing was controlled for however other confounding variables (parental and peer alcohol use, perceived prevalence, peer norms, recall, recognition), no longer significantly predicted alcohol initiation.

A study in the north-east of England surveyed 298 students (aged 17–21 years), from secondary schools and universities, on their alcohol consumption habits: frequency and amount consumed, types of alcohol consumed, exposure to alcohol advertising and other confounding variables (Gunter *et al.* 2009). Multiple regression analyses failed to find a significant relationship between exposure to any type of alcohol advertising and general alcohol consumption. However, exposure to TV advertising for alcopops and ciders in each case emerged as a significant predictor of consumption for each of those types of alcohol. It was concluded that although there was no evidence that alcohol advertising plays a significant role in shaping general consumption patterns among young people, it

does seem to drive consumption of certain types of alcoholic beverage. The finding helps illustrate the limitations of research which focuses only on general advertising or consumption, although the small sample, cross sectional nature of the study and recruitment from educational institutions limits generalisability.

5.6 Other marketing channels

Recent research has begun to look beyond advertising to consider other marketing communications. One study in New England which aimed to evaluate the impact of exposure to alcohol use in contemporary movies and incident alcohol drinking involved a randomized cross sectional school-based design following 2406 non-drinkers for 12–26 months (Sargent *et al.* 2006). Fifteen per cent (N=357) started drinking alcohol during the study period and analysis revealed a curvilinear association between higher exposure to alcohol use in movies and increased risk of prevalent and incident alcohol use.

A non-random prospective cohort study in the US examined the impact of ownership of, or willingness to use, alcohol branded promotional items on initiation of alcohol use and binge drinking (Fisher *et al.* 2007). Of the 3283 girls and 2228 boys, 19% (N=611) and 17% (N=384) respectively, initiated alcohol use within 1 year. Initiation of alcohol use during this period for girls (OR=1.74) and boys (OR=1.78) who owned or were willing to use an alcohol branded promotional item was significantly higher than for those who did not own, or were not willing to use, such an item. It was found that 24% of girls and 29% of boys who drank alcohol engaged in binge drinking. The odds ratio of binge drinking amongst drinkers was 1.79 for girls and 0.87 for boys for those who owned or were willing to use an alcohol branded promotion item compared with those who did or would not.

Another US study examined ownership of alcohol branded merchandise (ABM) upon initiation of alcohol use and binge drinking amongst an adolescent cohort (McClure *et al.* 2009). ABM ownership increased from 11% of adolescents at baseline (an 8-month measurement period) to 20% 16 months later. It was also found that 10% of adolescents tried drinking for the first time and 5% tried binge drinking for the first time during each of the two separate 8-month periods. A reciprocal relationship between susceptibility to alcohol use (three survey items that assessed response to peer offers, intentions and positive expectancies) and ABM ownership was found. Ownership of ABM at baseline did not have a significant direct impact on alcohol initiation at 8 months, on alcohol initiation between 8 and 16 months, nor on initiation of binge drinking between 8 and 16 months, but did have a significant association with initiation of binge drinking at 8 months (HR=1.80). New ownership of ABM at 8 months had a significant direct association with alcohol initiation at 16 months (HR=2.31) and initiation of binge drinking at 16 months (HR=2.22).

One of the first experimental studies examining the portrayal of alcohol in movies and actual drinking behaviour was conducted in the Netherlands (Engels *et al.* 2009) in a naturalistic setting (a bar lab) with 40 young adult male pairs (80 participants). The participants watched a movie clip with two commercial breaks for 1 hour and were allowed to drink non-alcoholic and alcoholic beverages. Two movies from between 2001 and 2002, 'American Pie 2' and '40 Days and 40 Nights', were selected on the basis of relevance to contemporary youth culture. The characters in American Pie 2 were found to drink alcohol 18 times, with alcoholic beverages portrayed an additional 23 times. In '40 Days and 40 Nights' characters consumed alcohol three times and alcoholic beverages were portrayed an additional 15 times. The movie clips were then interrupted after 14 and

then 33 minutes, by a commercial break which contained either exclusively neutral advertisements (e.g. promoting a car or a video camera) or neutral advertisements combined with two alcohol advertisements. Participants were randomly assigned to one of four conditions varying on type of movie (many versus few alcohol portrayals) and commercials (alcohol commercials present or not). The results indicated that, independently, participants assigned to the conditions with substantial alcohol exposure in either movies (F=4.44; p<0.05) or commercials (F=4.93; p<0.05) consumed more alcohol than other participants, controlling for the participant's weekly alcohol consumption. The respondents in the condition with higher alcohol portrayal in movie and commercials drank on average three glasses within a period of 1 hour, double that drank by those in the condition with little or no alcohol portrayal.

With contemporary studies examining the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking in marketing channels other than advertising there is growing evidence suggesting that there may be a cumulative effect (Gordon and Hastings, 2007a). These communications activities are, in turn, just part of the overall marketing effort. Research has demonstrated that other elements of the marketing value chain such as product development (Goldberg *et al.* 1994; McKeganey *et al.* 1996; Hughes *et al.* 1997), price and price promotions (Osterberg, 1995; Godfrey, 1997; Chaloupka, 2004, Wagenaar *et al.* 2009) and distribution and point of sale (Kuo *et al.* 2003) have an impact on drinking behaviour. Other studies have shown a strong link between availability in the form of number of outlets and increased consumption (McGuinness, 1980; Huckle *et al.* 2008), problem drinking (Scribner *et al.* 2000) and alcohol related harm (Kypri *et al.* 2008).

The convergent findings from recent consumer studies are that alcohol marketing impacts upon youth drinking, with three recent systematic reviews concluding that alcohol marketing has a causal effect on youth drinking. The first review which examined only longitudinal consumer research included a total of 13 studies, and concluded that 'alcohol advertising and promotion increases the likelihood that adolescents will start to use alcohol and to drink more if they are already using alcohol' (Anderson *et al.* 2009b, p229). A similar review came to the same conclusion that there is 'evidence for an association between prior alcohol advertising and marketing exposure and subsequent alcohol drinking behaviour in young people' (Smith and Foxcroft, 2009, p7). A third review similarly revealed that the 'available evidence suggests that price promotions do increase binge drinking and that exposure to point of purchase advertising predicts the onset of youth drinking. Consistent with this, evidence suggests that exposure to such interventions as TV, music videos and billboards, which contain alcohol advertisements, predicts onset of youth drinking and increased drinking' (Meier *et al.* 2008, p91).

Findings from recent longitudinal consumer studies and systematic reviews have therefore reframed the debate; from one questioning whether alcohol marketing has an effect on behaviour to one questioning what can be done to regulate the effect of alcohol marketing on behaviour—particularly in relation to young people. This brings the issue of alcohol marketing and regulation very much on to the policy agenda.

5.7 Alcohol marketing and policy

The issue of alcohol marketing and its impact upon behaviour has been the subject of considerable attention in the public policy arena in the UK and further afield recently. The UK government commissioned a report on the impact of pricing and promotions on

drinking behaviour and on associated health harms which included a review on alcohol marketing and drinking behaviour (Meier *et al.* 2008). Furthermore, a separate review of industry self regulatory standards commissioned by the Home Office and conducted by KMPG concluded that the 'review has noted many poor practices. . .going unchecked. . .a new agency or new regulatory body, possibly with enforcement powers and a range of sanctions to oversee and monitor practice within the industry, may offer an independent solution' (Home Office, 2008, p66).

This activity clearly indicates that policy makers are beginning to consider the marketing of alcohol as a live policy issue. Exemplifying this point, following a period of consultation the Scottish Government have announced plans to introduce a ban on alcohol price promotions and the introduction of minimum pricing based on a cost of 45 pence per unit of alcohol (Scottish Government, 2009). Since then, the UK Chief Medical Officer Sir Liam Donaldson has similarly called for the introduction of minimum pricing and a ban on price promotions in his annual report (Chief Medical Officer, 2009). Despite this the Prime Minister rejected the calls claiming that such measures would penalise the responsible, sensible majority of moderate drinkers as a result of the excesses of a small minority. However it seems that this minority appears to be growing (Diment *et al.* 2007). Nevertheless, despite the ever more convincing evidence base restrictions on alcohol marketing cannot be assumed to be forthcoming.

Alcohol marketing is also an important issue at the European level and in 2006 the European Commission (EC) published a strategy to help European Union (EU) member states reduce alcohol related harm (European Commission, 2006). As part of the process more than 40 businesses and non-governmental organizations responded to an initiative

by the EC and signed a charter establishing the European Alcohol and Health Forum (EAHF). The forum meets regularly and is focussed on concrete actions to protect children and young people, and to prevent irresponsible commercial alcohol communications and sales. Within the EAHF a task force on marketing communications, and a task force on youth, have been set up to discuss issues such as the impact of alcohol marketing on drinking behaviour and the nature and effectiveness of regulatory systems governing alcohol marketing. As part of the work of the forum a Science Group was also formed and asked to produce a report on the impact of marketing communication on the volume and patterns of consumption of alcoholic beverages, especially by young people. The report highlighted consistent evidence to demonstrate an impact of alcohol advertising on the uptake of drinking among non-drinking young people, and increased drinking among their drinking peers (Anderson *et al.* 2009c).

As yet there have been no concrete policy decisions made and the exclusive focus of the EAHF, for the time being at least, is on self regulation, given the current problems with member state competency on policy. Nevertheless the very consideration of regulatory change for alcohol marketing within the European policy arena signifies its importance as a live policy issue. With alcohol marketing clearly now on the political and policy agenda the requirement for good quality research to help inform decision making has never been greater. Considering the strength of the current evidence base the pertinent issue is how best to regulate alcohol marketing.

5.8 Regulating alcohol marketing

Policy options for regulating alcohol marketing range from no regulation to complete prohibition, with the on-going dialogue around alcohol marketing tending to cluster around three potential policy options: banning alcohol marketing, statutory regulation and self-regulation. Each of these three options can, and often does, overlap. For instance, bans on advertising certain types of alcoholic drinks can be supplemented by statutory regulation covering other forms of alcohol marketing. In France the 'Loi Evin' includes bans on sports sponsorship, alongside statutory regulation restricting alcohol advertising on television and cinema (STAP, 2007).

Self-regulation is unsurprisingly the preferred industry option, who argue that this represents the most efficient and effective means of regulating alcohol marketing. Self-regulation should enable effective control of inappropriate advertising content, and the involvement of industry and advertising trade bodies is often embraced and welcomed by governments who favour self-regulation as it is a less expensive and time consuming solution than other policy options. However self-regulation can often lack teeth, with penalties for non-compliance often minimal or non-existent. Further, self-regulation cannot control the level of exposure of young people to alcohol marketing; it fails to address the full marketing mix (price, place and product); and it does not limit the quantity of advertising, instead focussing on content and scheduling. In addition, comprehensive evaluation of the effectiveness of self-regulatory systems is generally lacking, therefore clouding the issue of whether or not it actually works.

Politically, self-regulation seems to be the most favourable option as the experiences from the EAHF and the situation in the UK suggest (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2004). Yet this may change at any time, especially given the conclusions reached by the KPMG produced report for the UK Home Office on alcohol industry self-regulatory

standards. If self-regulation is to be the preferred option then appropriate checks and balances need to be in place to ensure the optimal regulatory environment is achieved.

Statutory regulation ensures that the regulatory environment is clear to everyone: industry, marketers, regulators, policy makers and members of the public. It therefore can avoid the confusion often surrounding the enforcement of self-regulatory systems. Also statutory regulation can control the level of exposure by controlling the amount of alcohol marketing in some channels. However statutory regulation can be costly to implement, and needs to be well constructed to be effective. It can often produce complexity and result in the loss of flexibility in the system, particularly relevant in a fast and ever changing domain such as alcohol marketing. Yet given the recent examples of failures within self-regulatory systems, the likelihood of statutory regulation of alcohol marketing is increasing in some countries.

The third option is to introduce outright bans on alcohol marketing. As previously discussed there is some evidence that bans can have an impact upon drinking behaviour (Saffer, 1996). It is the one policy option that we know works, as is clear for tobacco. It can be viewed as a draconian measure, and arguably the reasons for introducing an outright ban for alcohol marketing are less relevant than for tobacco marketing given the general acceptance that any level of smoking can cause considerable health harms. Nevertheless both still seem to appeal to young people, normalise behaviour and encourage initiation. Bans also fail to do anything to promote responsible marketing, or recognize the potential positive contributions of marketing such as social marketing. Nevertheless there is strong support for these measures in the public health community (Anderson, 2009), and a 2006 survey found that three quarters of the EU population

would approve an EU wide banning on alcohol advertising targeting young people (Eurobarometer, 2006).

Whether governments decide to embrace advertising bans such as in Norway, continue with self-regulatory systems such as in the UK, impose statutory regulation such as a ban on advertising products over 2.5% ABV, as in Sweden, or indeed follow plans to introduce minimum pricing, as proposed in Scotland, none of these options in isolation will effectively curb youth drinking. A multifaceted, long-term and comprehensive package of interventions is required to attempt to tackle the problem. No measure can act as a definitive measure to tackle young people's drinking, and regulation should be complemented with other policy levers and interventions, and given adequate time to have an effect.

Key facets of any regulatory system will be independent monitoring to assess the effectiveness of the system and record new marketing techniques and their potential effect. Moreover to prevent any breaches of the rules as much as possible, pre-vetting and copy advice should be available. The involvement of increased numbers of independent lay people on adjudication juries to rule on any breaches of regulation would be sensible.

Further, stronger and more robust penalties for non-compliance, such as bans on marketing products for a specific time period, may prove to be suitable deterrents. Finally, clearer guidance for the public concerning regulatory rules and the complaints procedures would allow for a more balanced assessment of whether regulation works, or indeed bans are necessitated.

5.9 Alcohol marketing: a research agenda

Our review of the recent evidence base and accompanying developments and discourse on policy and regulation generate ideas for a research agenda for alcohol marketing. Although we have argued that there is a need to move on from the debate surrounding causality, additional longitudinal consumer research on the impact of alcohol marketing and youth drinking would further strengthen the evidence base. A key focus would be to conduct such research in markets outside North America where most research hails from. For Europe, in particular, the EAHF has highlighted the startling lack of research emanating from EU member states.

However the EC has funded a research programme, which started in 2009, entitled the AMPHORA project which involves a multi-country (Germany, Italy, Poland, the Netherlands) longitudinal project assessing the impact of alcohol marketing on young people's drinking. Furthermore, a two-stage cohort study is nearing completion in the UK (Gordon and Harris, 2009). These findings will further contribute to the existing evidence base and will also help inform national and EU policy. Future longitudinal consumer research would benefit from examining the below line marketing channels used by the alcohol industry such as sponsorship, social networking sites, experiential marketing, Short Message Service (SMS) and viral marketing, given the paucity of research concerning these marketing channels. Additionally, investigation of the cumulative effect that all forms of alcohol marketing, as opposed to just one or two, have on youth drinking behaviour is an important consideration.

There are other areas in which research is currently lacking. As the focus of most of the existing consumer research is on the content of alcohol marketing and not the level of

exposure. Given that research carried out in the US indicates that young people are being over-exposed to alcohol marketing in a range of media (Jernigan *et al.* 2007; Centre for Alcohol Marketing and Youth, 2008) the extent, as well as the nature and content, of marketing activity is an important concern. The research carried out by the Centre for Alcohol Marketing and Youth has yet to be replicated elsewhere. Therein lays an opportunity for research in this area to make a contribution to learning and understanding, and help shape an optimal regulatory environment.

A third area for prospective research on alcohol marketing consists of the evaluation of the effectiveness of regulatory systems, particularly self, statutory and co-regulation. Academic research on advertising bans does exist, but there is very little in these other three areas. Given the current debates around the regulation of alcohol marketing and the alcohol industry's strong preference for the use of self-regulation, it is important that good quality evaluation research can be carried out to assess whether such systems actually work. Reports such as the ELSA study on alcohol marketing and regulation have attempted to begin mapping the regulation of alcohol marketing and assessing the effectiveness of regulatory systems but there are major gaps (STAP, 2007). There is little detailed evaluation of the effectiveness of alcohol marketing regulation within, and indeed between countries. Certainly there is little evidence currently to support the alcohol industry's view that self-regulation works. Moreover analysis on the effects of changes in marketing laws or regulations would help to assess what can work and what does not. The current situation is exemplified by the fact that there is no reliable evaluation of the effectiveness of the Loi Evin laws and regulations on alcohol marketing in France on consumption levels. Consumption levels in France have been falling from an

admittedly high peak level for almost two decades, yet it is impossible to assess what, if any impact the Loi Evin has had on this trend.

5.10 Conclusion

The evidence base now favours the conclusion that alcohol marketing is having an effect on youth alcohol consumption. That exactly the same conclusions have been drawn for tobacco (Lovato *et al.* 2004; Davis *et al.* 2008) and food marketing (Hastings *et al.* 2003; McGinnis *et al.* 2006) suggests that plausibility is moving to veracity. As such, it is down to policymakers and regulators to shape the direction of alcohol marketing policy and regulation. Furthermore, research in new areas such as examining new channels of communication, the impact of level of exposure to alcohol marketing on youth drinking, and the effectiveness of regulatory systems should be the focus. Attention must now turn more to protecting young people from exposure to, and the effects of, alcohol marketing, by ensuring the issue remains on the political agenda, that optimal regulatory systems are deployed, and by making use of relevant, high quality research.

5.11 Review of Recent Published Research on Alcohol Marketing and Drinking Behaviour

Since chapter five was published, further literature has been published, and this is reviewed here. A participant observation study conducted in eight city centre nightclubs in Scotland found that music policy influenced clientele and their behaviours (Forsyth, 2009). Music policy was observed as operating as a crowd control tool and used as a form of alcohol marketing. This was done through DJs verbally advertising drink promotions over the microphone, often using language that would not be in keeping with the regulatory codes on alcohol marketing in the UK. Essentially in some clubs it was found

that DJs were acting as drinks promoters as well as entertainers. Further, the findings suggested that music could be used as a marketing tool. Several clubs were found to play a limited range of popular songs that would elicit emotional responses among patrons, eliciting what music psychologists refer to as the 'Darling they're playing our favourite tune phenomenon' (Davies, 1978, p69). This phenomenon can induce increased spending at the bar and likelihood of returning to the nightclub in the future (Forsyth, 2009). These findings demonstrate the ubiquitous nature of alcohol marketing and that it can be present in many environments. Forsyth (2009) recommend that the use of music policy in nightclubs as a marketing tool be recognised, and suggested that further research and responsible server training is required.

A study that examined alcohol related discourse across 1200 hours of weekend output from six radio stations in England found 744 alcohol comments were made by 244 presenters (Daykin *et al.* 2009). Alcohol comments were found to be more common on commercial stations, with 77% of all comments initiated by presenters. The majority of comments made were pro alcohol, did not challenge an assumption that alcohol is required to have a good time, and supported drinking in relation to partying and socialising. The findings suggest that alcohol comments play a role in marketing of alcohol and recommended further research to assess any influence radio output may have on youth drinking (Daykin *et al.* 2009).

Another study carried out in the UK considered the effect of sports sponsorship on underage drinking (Davies, 2009). The study used a stratified random sample design involving 322 school pupils, aged 14-15, across five schools in a medium sized Welsh city. The study measured respondents' involvement with sport, drinking behaviours,

intentions and attitudes, and measures of awareness, and perception, of sports sponsorship. Regression analysis revealed that for boys, involvement with sport made them more likely to drink alcohol and get drunk, with awareness of sponsorship enhancing the likelihood of these behaviours. However, girls involved in sport displayed more negative attitudes towards alcohol. Davies (2009) concludes that a ban on alcohol sports sponsorship would have little effect on youth drinking but might be forthcoming due to societal pressures and lobbying from public health. The author also recommended that low-alcohol and non-alcohol brands are preferable for sports sponsorship.

Research in the US investigated the impact of state laws prohibiting alcohol advertising to minors, on alcohol related youth traffic fatalities (Smith and Geller, 2009). Using statistics obtained from the Fatality Analysis Reporting System database, the study compared youth alcohol related single vehicle driver traffic fatalities, compared by state and as a function of whether the state had a law forbidding alcohol advertising that targets minors. It was found that states with such legislation had 32.9% fewer traffic fatalities. The findings suggest that alcohol advertising impacts not only upon youth drinking but also upon drink driving behaviours. The authors estimated that if advertising legislation were introduced in the 26 states that do not prohibit targeting of minors then approximately 400 lives could be saved annually (Smith and Geller, 2009).

A secondary analysis of data from the 2003 European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD) (Hibell *et al.* 2004) examined relationships between alcohol control policies and adolescent alcohol use across 26 countries (Paschall *et al.* 2009). Data was collected from an in school administered survey with adolescents aged 15-17 years. Measures included alcohol control policy ratings based on the API (Brand *et al.*

2007), prevalence of alcohol use, heavy drinking and first drink by age 13 based on national school surveys, and per capita alcohol consumption for each country. Correlational and linear regression analysis examined the relationships between the variables. The results showed that higher API ratings and more comprehensive alcohol availability and advertising control policies were inversely related to past 30 day prevalence of alcohol use, and prevalence rates for drinking three to five times in the past 30 days, and prevalence rates for drinking six times or more in the past 30 days. Alcohol advertising control was also found to be inversely related to the prevalence of past 30 day heavy drinking and having first drink by age 13. The findings demonstrate that more comprehensive and stringent alcohol control policies, particularly those limiting availability and marketing are causally associated with lower prevalence, frequency and age of youth alcohol consumption (Paschall *et al.* 2009). This view is supported by advocates within the public health community (Anderson *et al.* 2009a; Casswell and Thamarangsi, 2009).

Finally, the UK House of Commons Health Committee report on alcohol included research into alcohol marketing. As part of the inquiry, the committee requested special advisor Professor Gerard Hastings to conduct internal marketing document analysis for a number of alcohol brands. The findings revealed shortcomings in the current regulatory codes governing alcohol marketing, especially with respect to protecting young people. Evidence of the promotion of drunkenness, and the linking of alcohol to social and sexual success was found in the internal documents. Furthermore, data showed that alcohol sponsorship activities contained references to youth culture and sporting prowess. Finally, the codes were found to be extremely weak in their treatment of new media marketing which is where increasing marketing spend is channelled. The research report

concludes that "the result is a regulatory system that is impossible to police and vulnerable to exploitation" (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010, p73). After considering a range of comments and expert witness statements the committee concluded that "The current system of controls on alcohol advertising and promotion is failing the young people it is intended to protect. The problem is more the quantity of advertising and promotion than its content. This has led public health experts to call for a ban. It is clear that both the procedures and the scope need to be strengthened" (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010, p79). The report recommends a series of measures to strengthen the regulatory system.

CHAPTER SIX: ASSESSING THE CUMULATIVE IMPACT OF ALCOHOL MARKETING ON YOUTH DRINKING

The research project, design and methodology

The evidence reviewed in chapter five suggests that alcohol marketing is associated with youth drinking behaviour. Gaps remain within the literature however. First, no UK studies have examined whether there is a causal link between alcohol marketing and behaviour. Second, few studies consider the impact of new media, sponsorship and emarketing. Third, few studies have considered the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing across several channels. The research methodology for this study was guided by the application of a critical social marketing framework and the existing evidence base on the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking.

6.1 The Research Funding Scheme and Research Team

The 'Assessing the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking' project was funded by the National Preventive Research Initiative (NPRI) in 2005, and ran from January 2006 to December 2009. The NPRI is an initiative designed to support research, which can identify, and reduce the impact of factors influencing undesired health behaviours. The initiative aims to reduce the incidence of new cases of preventable diseases. This prestigious initiative is supported by a consortium of major research bodies and charities including the Economic and Social Research Council; Medical Research Council; British Heart Foundation; Cancer Research, UK; Department of Health; and the World Cancer Research Fund. Phase one was launched in October 2004 with a call for outlines, from which a total of 250 were submitted. Following assessment in April 2005, the NPRI Scientific Committee invited 44 full proposals to be submitted. These were then peer reviewed and assessed by the Scientific Committee. The NPRI Funding Partners

then awarded funding to 26 projects, totalling £8 million. The research team (see Figure 6.1) for the project was awarded £341,592 of NPRI funding (grant number G0501282).

Figure 6.1: The 'Assessing the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking' Project Research Team.

The research team, based at the **Institute for Social Marketing (ISM)** at the **University of Stirling** and **The Open University** was led by the Principal Investigator, **Professor Gerard Hastings**, who is also the Director of ISM. Professor Hastings was involved in writing the research proposal, was responsible for aspects of strategic decisions making and was actively involved in the dissemination, and upstream activities phase of the project.

Ross Gordon, Research Officer/Associate at ISM was involved in writing the research proposal, including the research design and methodology, and was responsible for the day to day running of the project. He was involved in the design, data collection, coding, analysis and writing during the project; stage one independently, stage two in conjunction with Douglas Eadie, stages three a and three b with Anne Marie Mackintosh and Dr Fiona Harris, and stage four (dissemination) with the rest of the research team.

Anne Marie Mackintosh, Senior Researcher at ISM was involved in writing the research proposal; guided sample frame development, questionnaire design, coding, and ran statistical analysis during stage three, and was also involved in stage four dissemination activities.

Douglas Eadie, Senior Researcher at ISM was involved in writing the research proposal, data collection during stage two (exploratory research), questionnaire development and revisions at stage three a and three b, and in stage four dissemination.

Dr Fiona Harris was involved in guiding and running statistical analysis in particular at stage three a of the project, and in stage four dissemination.

Gayle Tait, formerly research co-ordinator at ISM was involved in facilitating the research process up to stage three a, of the project by assisting in organising fieldwork.

Georgina Cairns, Research Fellow at ISM was briefly involved in the research process acting as acting research co-ordinator during 2008.

Aileen Paton helped facilitate the research process throughout the project in her role as ISM secretary and then latterly as research co-ordinator. Extended thanks must go out to everyone in the research team for their work on the project and for helping to facilitate this PhD.

6.2 Research Paradigms

A core issue for the social sciences relates to the range of approaches and methods available for research in a discipline, and the main cleavages along which they are divided (della Porta and Keating, 2008). Thomas Kuhn (1962) suggested that mature scientific disciplines rely upon a paradigm that defines what to study, why to study and how to study. The presence of a research paradigm therefore allows for the accumulation of knowledge. In the traditional sciences, research paradigms are normally accepted by the whole community of scientists operating within a certain discipline. However, in the social sciences, there is considerable debate about valid research paradigms. Some scholars believe that social science is pre-paradigmatic, and is still in search of unifying principles and standards. Others argue that it is post-paradigmatic, and has shed scientific assumptions that are tied to particular conceptions of modernity. Another position is that social science is non-paradigmatic, and there can never be one hegemonic approach and set of standards, or that it is multi-paradigmatic, with different paradigms competing against each other (della Porta and Keating, 2008). Indeed, the nature of social research, and the social world that researchers seek to investigate and explain, can be understood in multiple ways. The suggestion that social science is multi-paradigmatic seems a reasonable and pragmatic position to take, given the complexity of the social world we seek to understand and explain, and the comparative utility and weaknesses of the various paradigmatic approaches available to us. Strictly adhering to one particular paradigmatic approach may be limiting, and restrict the ability to comprehensively research and explain phenomena.

Research paradigms reflect the view of the world used to inform the framework for a research project. They define the nature of the world, the researcher's place within it, and

the diverse relationships to the world and its constituent parts (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Paradigm comes from the Greek word *paradeiknyai* – literal translation (to show side by side), and is a pattern, picture or example of something. The word presents connotations with the ideas of forming a mental picture or pattern of thought about something. As such, the research paradigm frames the manner in which the researcher's worldview guides the research process. Guba and Lincoln suggest, "Questions of method are secondary to questions of paradigm, which we define as the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p105). Essentially research paradigms define for the researcher what it is they are about, and what falls within and outside the limits of legitimate research. Guba and Lincoln (1994) state that the basic beliefs that define a research paradigm can be summarised by the responses given to three fundamental questions:

- 1. The *ontological* question i.e. what is the form and nature of reality.
- 2. The *epistemological* question i.e. what is the basic belief about knowledge (i.e. what can be known).
- 3. The *methodological* question i.e. how can the researcher go about finding out what s/he believes can be known.

Normally, competing approaches in the social sciences are contrasted on their ontological, epistemological and methodological base (Corbetta, 2003). Researchers are encouraged to consider their research paradigm, and its potential effect on the research early on in the process (Easterby Smith *et al.* 2004). The following section examines the

ontological, epistemological and methodological approach used to guide the PhD research.

6.2.1 The Ontological Question

Ontology is the philosophical study of the nature of being, existence or reality, in addition to basic categories of being and their relations. It is traditionally regarded as part of the major branch of philosophy known as metaphysics, which is concerned with explaining the fundamental nature of being and the world (Gale, 2002). Ontology concerns questions over what entities exist, or can be said to exist, and how such entities can be classified, related hierarchically, and subdivided according to similarities and differences. Ontology is an important consideration when reading for a PhD, as it encourages reflection upon philosophical questions. Indeed, the very name of the qualification 'Doctor of Philosophy' suggests the importance of philosophical enquiry. In research, ontology refers to the logic of enquiry utilised by the researcher when looking at the nature of the world, how it operates, what the researcher can study, and what claims they can make in relation to knowledge. Therefore, it is important to be aware of one's values and worldview, in terms of their influence on the research approach utilised to observe, measure or understand social reality. Although it could be argued that there is only one reality, there are many potential alternative perceptions of it. Therefore, the ontological question is about what we study, that is, the object of investigation.

Heraclitus, a philosopher who lived in ancient Greece (c. 535-c. 475 BC), placed an emphasis on a changing and emergent world (Le Poidevin *et al.* 2009). This is often described as the Heraclitean ontology of *becoming*, and is associated with a more fundamental and elementary ontic plurality (Gray, 2009). Parmenides, another

philosopher in Ancient Greece (c. 515-c. 445 BC), placed a different emphasis on a permanent and unchanging reality. He proposed an ontological characterisation of the fundamental nature of existence, stating that existence is eternal, and is what can be conceived of by thought, created or possessed. As such, the entirety of creation is eternal, uniform, and immutable, and everything that can be apprehended is one part of a single entity (Le Poidevin *et al.* 2009). Traditionally, this approach is known as the Permenidean ontology of *being*. Most of Western philosophy and science has emerged from this view (Gray, 2009). Only relatively recently has postmodern epistemology challenged the *being* ontology with the idea of a *becoming* orientation, and describing the limitations of truth seeking (Chia, 2002). The research conducted for this PhD was very much guided by a philosophy of pragmatism. Therefore, despite the author's identification with the idea of a *becoming* ontology, and a changing and emergent reality, in practice the epistemological and methodological underpinning of the study bears closer identification with the *being* ontology which is dominant in the Western world.

6.2.2 The Epistemological Question

The second consideration in terms of research paradigm, following ontology, concerns epistemology. The etymology of epistemology comes from the Greek words *episteme*, meaning knowledge, and *logos*, meaning explanation. The term relates the nature of knowledge and justification, and concerns how we know want we know (Miller and Brewer, 2003). Identifying a suitable epistemological research paradigm when conducting mixed methods research, such as presented in this PHD thesis can be problematic (Bryman, 2007). This is partly explained by the dominance, and divergence of thought, between the two traditional types of research paradigms involving quantitative research or qualitative research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The

extant research methods literature displays two dominant research paradigms, that presents 'ways of knowing', namely positivism and constructivism (Crotty, 1998).

Positivism is a collection of perspectives and philosophies, which presume that scientific methods offer the best approach to understanding the processes by which physical and human events occur. A positivist ideology therefore proposes that all true knowledge is scientific and that all things are measurable. Therefore, positivism involves the use of scientific methods for studying society, and particularly quantification and a value-free detachment from the 'subjects' being studied. It has been criticised for its universalist nature, by contending that all processes are reducible to physiological, physical and chemical elements. Critical theorists such as Max Horkheimer argue that positivism does not accurately represent human social action, by ignoring the role of the observer and failure to consider the historical and social conditions affecting the constitution of social reality. Furthermore, critical theorists view that the representation of social reality produced by positivism is inherently conservative, dogmatic and focused on maintaining the status quo. Despite the emergence of alternative epistemological approaches, positivism remains a dominant approach to both research and theory construction. This is especially the case concerning the marketing discipline (Bartels, 1983). The majority of articles published in leading journals in the field are positivist (at least to the extent of being quantitative rather than qualitative).

Constructivism rejects the notion of an absolute reality, believing that knowledge or meaningful reality is contingent upon human practices, is constructed through interaction between humans and the world around them, and is developed and disseminated within a social context (Crotty, 1998). The constructivist research paradigm displays preference

for research methodologies that are interpretive and qualitative, assessing multiple contextual and situational realities (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994).

A third research paradigm that has emerged within the literature is critical theory, an approach led by Jurgen Habermas from the Frankfurt School of social philosophers. Critical theory has attempted to develop an approach to inquiry and action in the social sciences, which could describe the historical forces that restrict human freedom and expose ideological justification of these forces. Therefore, critical theory proposes to offer emancipation by offering solutions to these limitations on human endeavour. Critical theorists were critical of earlier research paradigms, as they were not designed to question or transform the status quo. Habermas (1970) postulated three types of interest, which generate three types of knowledge:

- 1. A technical interest concerned with controlling the physical environment, generating empirical and analytical knowledge
- 2. A practical interest focused on understanding the meaning of a situation, generating hermeneutic and historical knowledge
- 3. An emancipating interest concerned with providing growth and advancement, generating critical knowledge and exposition of constraints and domination.

Critical theorists have suggested two different types of research methodology, critique, and action research.

Traditionally research paradigms, ontological, and epistemological approaches have clustered around one (quantitative) or the other (qualitative) research approaches. Howe

(1988) has discussed the incompatibility thesis, which has been supported by purists from either side positing that the qualitative and quantitative research paradigms cannot and should not be mixed. Yet the mixed methods approach used in this thesis has begun to emerge over the past 30 years. Tarrow (1995) set out some ideas on how mixed methods can be combined. He stated that qualitative methods could aid quantitative work, through process tracing or the identification of variables. This was the approach largely employed in this study. In recent years, mixed methods scholars have begun to set out how philosophical questions regarding ontology and epistemology can be addressed (Creswell, 2003).

The nature of the social phenomenon under consideration in this study, youth drinking, required a sophisticated research approach, which utilised different methods of inquiry, cutting across the recognised epistemologies. The requirement to initially explore and understand the role of alcohol in young people's lives, and their cognisance and interaction with alcohol marketing, permits identification with constructivist, interpretive methods of inquiry. The requirement to demonstrate associations between awareness of, and involvement with alcohol marketing, and youth drinking behaviour, necessitated the use of methods of inquiry normally associated with a positivist approach. Furthermore, given that the influence of marketing on youth drinking was under investigation, critical thinking was an important construct for consideration, to allow deconstruction of commercial marketing principles and practices if they are perceived to be harmful to society. This is particularly relevant to the critical social marketing conceptual framework used to guide the research. Given the crosscutting nature of the study, it is not permissible to identify solely with one of the dominant epistemologies. Indeed, the author's position is preference of a pragmatic approach, in that the world is socially constructed, created,

and perceived by individuals, bound by both interactions with others and environmental constraints. However, identification with critical realist ontology, i.e. knowing that things exist out there but recognising that as humans our own presence as researchers influences what we are trying to measure, was also made. Pragmatic ontology and epistemology has enjoyed renewed attention since the 1960's thanks to the work of philosophers such as W.V.O Quine who out forth a revised pragmatism criticising the logical positivism dominant in the UK and USA (Quine, 1960). Under this approach, theory is extracted from practice, and then applied back to practice. This de-limiting approach was attractive to the author, given the demands, and methods of inquiry, required to conduct the current study.

6.2.3 The Methodological Question

In terms of the methodological base used to inform the study, a mixed methods approach was selected. The identification with a pragmatic research paradigm influenced the choice of a mixed methods approach. Mixed methods research has been identified as "the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purpose of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration" (Johnson *et al.* 2007).

Scholars have argued that mixed methods research with its pragmatic approach, is not aligned with a single system or philosophy (Creswell *et al.* 2003). Rather a mixed methods approach tends to be driven by the research question rather than being restricted by paradigmatic assumptions (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Therefore, mixed methods research uses pragmatism as a system of philosophy. Pragmatic inquiry includes

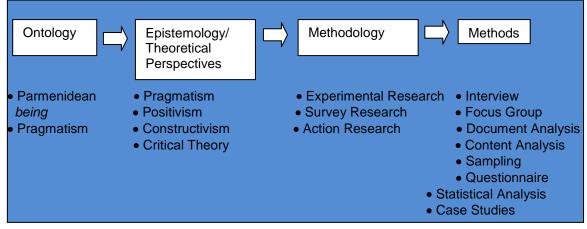
use of induction or the discovery of patterns; deduction, which involves testing theories and hypotheses, and abduction which involves uncovering and relying on the best set of explanations for understanding the results of research (Morgan, 2007).

The use of mixed methods in marketing research received little coverage for many years (Harrison and Reilly, 2011), although this is gradually changing (Bahl and Milne, 2006). When considering the appropriate research paradigm for this PhD research, the focus was on answering the research question concerning the influence, if any, of alcohol marketing on young people. This required use of a range of methods of inquiry. An initial task was to map contemporary alcohol marketing techniques, and canvass the views of experts in the field. Therefore, exploratory research using content analysis, qualitative interview techniques would be required. Further exploratory research with young people was required to explore the nature and role of alcohol and alcohol marketing in young people's lives. Survey research was then required to measure associations between awareness of, and involvement with alcohol marketing, and youth drinking behaviour. During the survey research phases, qualitative techniques were also used to pre-test the instruments. Therefore, a mixed methods approach offers the best description for the methodology used in the current study.

The pragmatic, mixed methods approach also relates to the research paradigm. The author identified with the constructivist and critical theory research paradigms, yet the inclusion of a major piece of survey work would be more normally associated with a positivist approach. Furthermore, the research necessitated use of a range of methods of inquiry, therefore limiting the possibility to identify with one dominant research paradigm. Although each paradigm has corresponding approaches and methods, it is valid

for a researcher to adopt research methods cutting across paradigms as per the research question that is to be answered (Bryman, 2008). This was the somewhat pragmatic approach adopted by the researcher during the process of research for this PhD. Indeed the nature of the research project, focusing on a complicated behavioural phenomenon, requiring a comprehensive and multi-faceted research design, and operating within the sphere of actors that introduces critical consciousness, almost necessitated this cross cutting of research paradigms. Figure 6.2 illustrates the ontological, epistemological and methodological perspectives, informing the study.

Figure 6.2: Ontological, Epistemological and Methodological Perspectives



(Source: Adapted from Crotty, 1998)

6.3 Selecting the Research Design

The selection of an appropriate research strategy should be influenced by the particular needs of the research problem (Kumar *et al.* 1999). The research design is also strongly influenced by other factors including cost, time, resources, and access to an appropriate sampling frame (Hakim, 1987). In choosing a research design for conducting marketing research, it is important to consider what type of research is being conducted, which type of data is required, and what data collection methods are available and appropriate.

Generally, there are two types of social research: exploratory research or conclusive research (Chisnall, 1992). Exploratory research is appropriate when a problem has not been clearly defined or when little previous research has been conducted. It provides insight into, and comprehension of, an issue or situation. Exploratory research can help to determine the best research design, data collection method and sample selection procedure. Therefore this type of research is appropriate for the initial stage of a broader research project and can be used to develop research hypotheses that are later tested (Kinnear and Taylor, 1996). It is normally qualitative in nature and will not normally lead to findings that are generalisable.

Conclusive research draws conclusions and is used to verify insights or hypotheses with results often generalised to the whole population. It is usually quantitative in nature. Conclusive research is often designated as either descriptive or causal (Parasuraman, 1991). Descriptive studies collect data that describe the characteristics of a particular group of respondents, for example, the Office for National Statistics (ONS) omnibus survey of adult drinking behaviour and knowledge describes the socio-demographic characteristics of adult drinkers. Such studies can be carried out as a survey at one point in time to obtain a 'snap shot' of data (a cross-section), or at repeated intervals over time (a cohort). Cohort studies are longitudinal studies that can be used to determine the impact of certain variables on the characteristics of a sample. Conclusive research can also investigate causality, and this might involve survey research or experiments. This type of research aims to explore the causal nature of relationships and test hypotheses. Randomised Control Trials (RCTs) are often held up as the gold standard of experimental research design and involve the random allocation of different interventions, treatments or conditions to subjects (Stead and Gordon, 2009). Survey research can also be used to

determine causality and is usually preferred in marketing research due to lower cost. Conclusive research is appropriate for informing policy, making decisions and testing hypothesis (May, 2001).

The aims of this study necessitated both exploratory and conclusive research. Exploratory research could generate an understanding of alcohol marketing and alcohol marketing communications in the UK, and facilitate an exploration of young people's awareness, experiences and involvement with alcohol marketing. Conclusive research could confirm the extent and nature of the relationship between alcohol marketing and youth drinking.

Generally two types of methodological approach have been developed: qualitative and quantitative (Neuman, 2003). Each approach makes different assumptions about scientific enquiry, and involves different relationships with data and uses different research methods (Brannan, 1992). Choosing between qualitative and quantitative methods is the second major decision to be made when designing a research project.

6.3.1 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research refers to a range of methodological approaches, normally based upon diverse theoretical principles such as grounded theory, phenomenology and social interactionism. Qualitative research is able to explore flexible and changeable concepts, rather than testing hypotheses and measuring relationships between variables (Parasuraman, 1991). This type of research aims to gather in depth understanding of human behaviour and the reasons influencing this behaviour. It investigates the why and how of behaviour and not just the what, where and when (Denzin *et al.* 2005). Normally smaller more focused samples are used in qualitative research. The findings from

qualitative research are not intended to be generalisable to the wider population but are instead used to identify relationships and themes.

The main methods of data collection in qualitative research include ethnography and participant observation, qualitative interviewing, focus groups, discourse and conversation analysis, and document analysis (Bryman, 2008). As a research strategy, qualitative research is inductivist, constructionist, and interpretivist (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). From these perspectives it is assumed that reality is a social construct and individuals act according to meanings derived from their socially constructed reality (Cunningham-Burley, 1999). Therefore, rather than seeking to establish objective facts, qualitative researchers aim to understand how participants make sense of their world and what moves and motivates their behaviour. Qualitative research methods normally focus group or observation research; have been used to examine young people's drinking behaviours (Coleman and Carter, 2005) and their attitudes towards alcohol brands (Hughes et al. 1997). This type of research would be unable to determine the effect of alcohol marketing on youth drinking behaviour but it can be used to help understand how young people engage with alcohol and alcohol marketing, and to generate hypotheses on how these interactions may operate.

6.3.2 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research refers to systematic empirical investigation of quantitative properties, phenomena and variables, and their relationships in a measureable or quantifiable way. It aims to develop, test and employ models, theories and hypotheses relating to the subject area. It normally employs quantitative measurement and the use of statistical analysis. Quantitative research is based upon the methodological principles of

positivism and neo-positivism and adheres to a strict research design developed prior to the research being conducted (Filmer *et al.* 1972; Sarantakos, 1998). The quantitative researcher usually has a relatively distant relationship with their data, and isolates and defines variables to test and frame hypotheses, with the data being obtained via a predesigned instrument such as a questionnaire. Normally the research is conducted with a statistically representative sample of the population using larger sample sizes than in qualitative research.

Data collection methods used in quantitative research include experimentation, analysis of secondary data sources, questionnaires based surveys and structured observation (Bryman, 2008). Quantitative research methods have been used to measure youth drinking trends (Fuller, 2009; Hibell *et al.* 2009) and to measure the effect of some forms of alcohol marketing on youth drinking (Ellickson *et al.* 2005; Collins *et al.* 2007).

6.3.3 Research Design Chosen

This study employed a tried and tested mixed methods research design suitable for conducting media research (Hornig Priest, 1996), which has been successfully applied in the field of tobacco control (MacFadyen *et al.* 2003). The use of qualitative, case study audits, and quantitative research methods were reciprocal, to inform the before and after study design and provided successive triangulation and refinement. The study was conducted in three local authority areas in the West of Scotland, which has the economic diversity and community profiles to match the study sample criteria. In particular, it includes some of the most deprived communities in Europe. This ensured the research met one of the priorities of the NPRI scheme, which was to explore the issue of health and social inequalities. The study was divided into four key stages outlined in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Research Stages and Timetable

		Months
Stage 1	Audit of industry marketing communications → industry strategies and executions	1-3
Stage 2	Exploratory research with children → Research hypotheses and questionnaire development	4-9
Stage 3	Quantitative Research a) Baseline survey → Fieldwork, data coding and analysis, dissemination	10-22
	b) Follow-up survey → Media monitor, up-dating questionnaire, fieldwork, data coding and analysis, dissemination	23-45
Stage 4	Policy development and implementation → Dissemination and policy development	43-48

At stage one of the study a quantitative framework was employed when conducting an initial audit of alcohol marketing communications, sourced from alcohol brand websites, and newspapers and trade magazines. This was supplemented by semi-structured qualitative stakeholder interviews with marketing executives and alcohol industry representatives (see section 6.4). Stage two of the study involved focus groups with adolescents to explore their attitudes towards alcohol and alcohol marketing. This phase was also designed to generate research hypothesis to be tested in the quantitative survey in stage three. Stage three of the study featured a two-stage cohort study of adolescents to measure their awareness of, and involvement with alcohol marketing, and to record their attitudes towards alcohol and drinking behaviours. The final phase, stage four, focused on dissemination with the aim of disseminating the study findings in academic outlets including journal articles and conference papers, as well as to relevant policy makers and stakeholders, through invited presentations, seminars, evidence statements and reports. The mixed methods approach employed was designed to ensure a triangulation of data required to meet the research objectives, with exploratory and conclusive research techniques employed throughout the study.

6.4 Study Aims and Objectives

The 'Assessing the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking' study aimed to address the gaps in the evidence base by using a cohort design to investigate the whole marketing communications mix used by the alcohol industry in the UK. A particular focus was the cumulative impact that these communications have on alcohol initiation, youth drinking and high-risk drinking patterns during the period when most young people start experimenting with alcohol, from ages 13-15 (Currie et al. 2002). Given concerns raised over the links between drinking and health inequalities, and the recent growth in binge drinking particularly among young women, the research explored differences in alcohol marketing awareness and involvement across gender and social grade.

Objectives: The research aimed to examine:

- 1. What marketing communication tools are currently being employed by the alcohol industry in the UK?
- 2. Do alcohol marketing communications predict the onset of drinking and specific drinking patterns and behaviours such as binge drinking and risk taking?
- 3. How does alcohol marketing relate to youth drinking, gender and inequality?
- 4. Which communication tools or combination of tools are responsible for bringing about these behavioural effects, if any?
- 5. What are the implications for policy development and social marketing intervention?

6.5 Study Research Model and Hypotheses

The role and importance of theory, and conceptually driven research cannot be understated. Data without a theoretical framework can be interpreted as a collection of facts that cannot be fully understood (Hartman and Hedblom, 1979). Arguably data only really makes sense within the theoretical context in which it is framed. Theories are models that explain or predict particular phenomena or outcomes. The relationship between research and theory is an important one and is reciprocal in nature. Research is used in an inductive way to develop theories that are then tested deductively and used to develop and refine theory (Hartman and Hedblom, 1979). Whilst this project was not designed nor intended to test a specific theory or model, the critical social marketing conceptual framework, the role of behavioural theories in explaining the effects of marketing on behaviour, and the development of research hypotheses using a research model, all demonstrate the role of theory in the study.

For this research project the research model, and conceptual framework used to develop research hypotheses, was derived from a review of behavioural theories (see Appendix C), the alcohol and alcohol marketing literature (see Chapters four and five), and the exploratory research (see Chapter seven). The audit of alcohol marketing communications enabled the identification of contemporary alcohol marketing techniques, and generated understanding of alcohol marketing. The findings from the qualitative research, at stage two, offered insights into youth drinking behaviours, attitudes towards alcohol and alcohol marketing, and brand awareness. Based upon these findings, the review of the literature on alcohol and the impact of alcohol marketing, and behavioural theories, it is proposed that youth drinking behaviour is related to: 1) awareness of and involvement in alcohol marketing communications, 2) having positive

attitudes about alcohol, and 3) having positive perceptions of alcohol brands. These three groups of variables are hypothesised to be independently related to drinking behaviour. This is notwithstanding controlling for known covariates discussed in section 6.8.4. Figure 6.3 shows a model illustrating these correlates of youth drinking behaviour.

Alcohol Marketing Communications Liking of alcohol advertising Awareness of alcohol marketing Involvement with alcohol marketing Perceptions of alcohol brands Brand image Popularity/appeal **Drinking Behaviours** Recognition/recall Drinking status, initiation, frequency of drinking, amount of alcohol consumed last time had a drink, Attitudes and beliefs towards future drinking intentions alcohol Perceptions of others views on whether it's ok to try drinking Perceived prevalence **Control Variables** Age, Gender, Social Grade, Parents Drinking, Sibling's Drinking, Peer's Drinking, Liking of School, Liking of advertising

Figure 6.3: Hypothesised Model of Correlates with Drinking Behaviours

(Source: Adapted from MacFadyen, 2001).¹

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¹ N.B Not all possible variables could be included in this model due to the sophisticated and complex nature of a social phenomenon such as drinking behaviour. Therefore the most important variables identified in the extant literature and informed by the formative research phases were included.

The review of the alcohol marketing literature in chapter five justifies the inclusion of alcohol marketing in the model. The supposition that awareness of alcohol marketing has an impact on youth drinking is also consistent with the dose-response relationship found in relation to tobacco marketing and tobacco consumption (Davis *et al.* 2008). The literature also supports the inclusion of positive perceptions of alcohol brands as a correlate given that brand recognition, brand recall, and positive brand perceptions have been found to influence youth drinking behaviour (Casswell and Zhang, 1998; Henriksen *et al.* 2008). Branding is a powerful and emotive marketing tool that can influence attitudes and beliefs about a product (de Chernatony, 1993).

The findings of the qualitative research reported in chapter seven, also suggest that brand perception might influence youth drinking behaviour. Alcohol marketing and branding can influence attitudes and beliefs about alcohol. Several studies have demonstrated that if young people like alcohol adverts they are more likely to have positive expectancies about alcohol use, intend to drink or actually drink (Casswell and Zhang, 1998; Austin and Knaus, 2000; Austin *et al.* 2000), and research has found no support for the hypothesis that drinking might generate positive attitudes to alcohol advertising (Wyllie *et al.* 1998a; Wyllie *et al.* 1998b). Therefore alcohol marketing and branding have strong links with the third correlate of youth drinking behaviour that is proposed in the model, positive attitudes and beliefs towards alcohol.

The behavioural models and theories reviewed in Appendix C help explain the role of attitudes and beliefs in behaviour. For example, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) proposes that a person's behaviour is determined by their intention to perform the behaviour. This, in turn, is predicted by their attitude towards the behaviour and also their

subjective norms about how many people engage in that behaviour. There is empirical support for this model, with research showing that positive attitudes towards smoking mediate exposure to tobacco advertising and smoking behaviour (Aloise-Young et al. 2008), and positive alcohol attitudes are associated with intentions to use alcohol and actual consumption (Marcoux and Shope, 1997; Norman et al. 1998). The qualitative research also suggested that attitudes and beliefs about alcohol contribute to youth drinking. However, there are limitations to the model as it overlooks emotional variables such as threat, fear, mood or negative or positive feeling and assesses them in a limited fashion (Dutta-Bergman, 2005). Furthermore, behavioural change theories have been criticised for their emphasis on individual behaviour and a disregard for the impact of environmental factors on behaviour (McLeroy et al. 1988). Nevertheless, behavioural theories have been extensively tested and proven to have the power to predict and alter behaviours.

Finally, the literature suggests that there are many other socio-cultural and environmental factors that influence youth drinking behaviour, including demographics, social grade and peer and parental drinking (Bobo and Husten, 2000). These factors have been found to have a strong influence on behaviour, and several consumer studies investigating the impact of alcohol marketing have included combinations of such variables as covariates in their analysis (see Anderson *et al.* 2009). For the purposes of this study, it is important that the factors listed above be included as control variables (see 6.8.4 for more detail).

The correlates of youth drinking in the model reflect the factors previously discussed (see Figure 6.3). Given that the main focus of this project was to explore whether there is a

causal link between alcohol marketing and youth drinking, the development of research hypotheses reflected this priority.

General Hypotheses: The general hypothesis guiding the research was that awareness of, and involvement with, alcohol marketing is associated with youth drinking behaviour.

Specific Research Hypotheses: Attitudes and beliefs about alcohol and perceptions of alcohol brands were included in the models created in the statistical analysis, as was the role of perceptions of alcohol brands. However further analysis on the latter is intended in the future. Accordingly, after the exploratory research was conducted in stages one and two of the research project, the author developed the following specific research hypotheses. H1-H11 reflects research hypotheses developed to examine associations between alcohol marketing and youth drinking behaviour.

H1 = The greater the number of alcohol marketing channels young people are aware of, the more likely they are to be drinkers.

H2 = The greater the number of alcohol marketing channels young people are aware of the more likely they are to have initiated drinking between wave one and wave two.

H3 = The greater the number of alcohol marketing channels young people who are drinkers at wave one are aware of, the more likely they are to have increased the frequency of their drinking between wave one and wave two.

H4 = The greater the number of alcohol marketing channels young people who are drinkers at wave one are aware of, the more likely they are to increase the amount of alcohol in units they consumed last time they had a drink between wave one and wave two.

H5 = Any involvement with alcohol marketing will increase the likelihood that a young person is a drinker.

H6 = Any involvement in alcohol marketing will make it more likely that a young person initiates drinking between wave one and wave two.

H7 = Any involvement in alcohol marketing will make it more likely that a young person who is a drinker at wave one increases the frequency of their drinking between wave one and wave two.

H8 = Any involvement in alcohol marketing will make it more likely that a young person who is a drinker at wave one increases the amount of alcohol in units they consumed last time they had a drink between wave one and wave two.

H9 = Liking alcohol advertising will make it more likely that a young person initiates drinking between wave one and wave two.

H10 = Liking alcohol advertising will make it more likely that a young person who is a drinker at wave one increases the frequency of their drinking between wave one and wave two.

H11 = Liking alcohol advertising will make it more likely that a young person who is a drinker at wave one increases the amount of alcohol in units they consumed last time they had a drink between wave one and wave two.

To test these research hypotheses and the model outlined in figure 6.3, statistical analysis was conducted on the data collected at wave one and wave two of the study.

6.6 Ethics

Ethics are an important consideration in social research. Research bodies such as the Economic and Social Research Council have developed research ethics frameworks to guide researchers about ethical issues (ESRC, 2010). To ensure high ethical standards are maintained research should be carried out with integrity and quality, with researchers and respondents fully informed about the purpose, methods, and intended possible uses of the findings, what participation in the study entails, and what risks, if any, are involved. Furthermore, the confidentiality of information provided, and anonymity of respondents must be respected. Respondents should only participate in research freely and voluntarily. Harm to respondents must be avoided, and the research should be independent with any conflicts of interest declared.

Ethical issues were a major focus for this study given the sensitive topic area, and that the research was to be conducted with children. This required careful consideration of issues including consent, legal requirements, data protection, confidentiality, data collection processes, the role of gatekeepers and the role of the researcher (Tinson, 2009). Several meetings were held with local authority representatives who acted as gatekeepers to negotiate issues relating to ethics and data protection. Written informed consent from

respondents was obtained at each stage of the study, and when appropriate parental or guardian consent was obtained for respondents under the age of 16. Information sheets were provided to respondents informing them of the nature of the study, their freedom to withdraw from the research at any time, and assuring them of confidentiality and anonymity. To meet data protection requirements legal advice was obtained, invitations to participate in the cohort survey were issued by local authorities who held data permissions, and once respondents had indicated a willingness to participate contact information was coded to ensure anonymity. Data collection procedures were designed to ensure researchers were never left alone with children and to minimise response bias show cards were used to answer questions on sensitive topics, and self completion questionnaires were used to measure drinking behaviours. Access to data was strictly restricted to the research team. Prior to commencing the study full ethical approval was sought, and granted by the University of Stirling, Department of Marketing Ethics Committee (see Appendix D).

6.7 Stage One: Audit of Industry Marketing Communications

Stage one of the study was conducted between December 2005 and April 2006, and utilised secondary and qualitative research to map contemporary alcohol marketing communications. This involved in-depth qualitative interviews with key informants from the advertising industry and industry regulation; and an audit of press (newspapers, magazines and trade journals), and industry web sites (Gordon, in press). This was designed to achieve a triangulation of data (Denzin, 2006) in order to; develop knowledge and understanding of alcohol marketing in the UK; inform the themes to be discussed during the focus groups with young people; and finally to inform the development of the survey questionnaire.

In-depth semi-structured qualitative interviews were conducted using a purposive snowball sampling technique with informants from the advertising industry working on alcohol brand accounts and alcohol marketing regulators. The sample was made up of six commercial marketing executives, two marketing academics and two industry regulators. Depth interviews are defined as "an unstructured personal interview which uses extensive probing to get a single respondent to talk freely and express detailed beliefs and feelings on a topic" (Kinnear and Taylor, 1996, p315).

A discussion guide was developed (see Appendix E), which considered general themes relating to alcohol marketing, and without constraining responses using pre-determined codes of responses (Sapsford and Jupp, 1996). Themes were identified through a review of the literature on alcohol marketing and youth (e.g. Hastings *et al.* 2005) and explored the alcohol market, marketing activities, youth markets, industry regulation and future implications. The questioning process was open and flexible with the opportunity for the interviewer to probe and for respondents to discuss topics as deemed relevant.

All interviews were recorded and transcribed, with prior consent. Respondents were assured of confidentiality, and that personal data would remain anonymous. The findings from the in-depth interviews are presented in chapter seven.

A press audit was carried out across 36 of the most widely read newspapers and magazines in the UK, according to available readership data, and one trade magazine (see Appendix F). The audit was carried out using publications during the week Sunday 4th December to Saturday 10th of December 2005, with a total of 56 newspapers and 21 magazines examined for alcohol advertising, alcohol related advertising or images,

alcohol related editorials or counter alcohol advertising. The framework for the audit (see Appendix F) was taken from previous press audits carried out on tobacco advertising (Devlin *et al.* 2006). Findings from the press audit were subsequently presented in academic conference papers (Gordon, 2006a; Gordon and Hastings, 2007a).

For the web site audit a total of 40 alcohol brand websites were examined, consisting of the top ten brands by sales in the lager, spirits, Flavoured Alcoholic Beverages (FABs) and cider/perry markets. Each site was visited twice across a one-month period and the site features and content was recorded by the author (see Gordon, in press).

6.8 Stage Two: Exploratory Research with Adolescents

Stage two of the research, carried out between April 2006 and July 2006, aimed to explore how adolescents responded to the industry communication strategies (media and creative) identified at stage one, using non-directive, qualitative research techniques. The findings would help inform the development of the survey questionnaire.

Data was gathered using qualitative focus groups. A focus group is a semi-structured group interview (Steckler *et al.* 1991) in which the focus is on a particular topic, behaviour or activity. It is one of the most widely used qualitative research methods in market research (Hornig Priest 1996; Bryman 2008). Focus groups are well placed to explore people's feelings, motivations and concerns and allow respondents to frame themes and concepts in view of their own experiences and free of the bias of the researcher. Furthermore, they are useful for examining the social nature of people's views, which was of particular interest to this study given the focus on young people's interaction with alcohol and alcohol marketing (Kitzinger and Barbour, 1999). However,

focus groups can be difficult to control compared to individual interviews and depend on the ability and role of the moderator, to ensure the participation of all members of the group and that the discussion is led in a non-directive way, is key (Morgan 1995; McDougall, 1999). Group effects such as the dominance of particular speakers or reticence of some participants to contribute require careful management by the moderator (Krueger, 1998). Focus groups can also be difficult to organise in terms of ensuring participant attendance, especially with young people (Tinson, 2009). In addition, focus group data can be difficult to analyse given that a huge amount of data can be created very quickly (Bryman, 2008). Nevertheless, focus groups research has gained increasing academic respectability (Krueger, 1995). Focus groups were chosen for use in stage two as this method would enable an exploration of young people's awareness of, and involvement with, alcohol and alcohol marketing. The approach was conducted using tried and tested procedures to investigate the topic in accordance with previous research and communication theory (McQuail, 1994).

The focus groups were conducted with 13-15 year olds, segmented by gender, social grade and drinking status. The aim was to promote informal discussion, interaction and probe covert attitudes and beliefs which respondents would otherwise find difficult to articulate (Chisnall, 1992). Focus groups can help generate information, insight and ideas on a topic, and emerged as a natural choice for exploring the attitudes and behaviour of young people with regards to alcohol and marketing (May, 2001). Employing a focus group methodology also allowed for the interaction between young people to be observed, thus offering the researchers insight into the environment and context in which the respondents socialised (Sarantakos, 1998).

Qualitative samples are small and not intended to be statistically significant, their purpose is to generate rather than test hypotheses (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Therefore, non-probability sampling techniques were used to conduct a series of eight focus groups with 64 teenagers aged 13-15. A maximum of eight respondents participated in each group, which is viewed as a manageable number and suitable for the discussion of more sensitive topics such as alcohol (Mendes de Almeida, 1980; Krueger, 1995). The sample composition for the focus groups is detailed in chapter seven.

All participants were recruited by trained market recruiters, using the 'door knocking' technique, who used a short recruitment questionnaire (Appendix G) to ensure prespecified selection criteria relating to age, gender, drinking behaviour and deprivation using postcode Carstairs scores were met. Written parental and respondent consent was obtained prior to participation and confidentiality and anonymity of personal data was assured. All focus groups were conducted in a local amenity such as a local club or centre and lasted approximately 90 minutes. A small fixed financial incentive, a £10 gift token, was offered to recompense respondents for their time and to cover the costs of travel to and from the venue.

A semi-structured discussion guide (see Appendix H) was developed to meet the research objectives and was informed by the review of data from the audit of marketing communications. Key themes included awareness and preference for specific alcohol marketing communications, comprehension of marketing campaigns and exploring the reasons underlying their appeal, preferred alcoholic beverages and brands; drinking contexts and access, and drinking behaviour and patterns of peers, siblings and parents. Visual prompts derived from the audit of alcohol marketing, such as branded items,

drinking vessels and adverts were shown on laptop screens to stimulate discussion and, where appropriate, projective techniques, such as a brand mapping exercise, were used to probe complex issues such as links between product branding and self-image. Such techniques are a useful way to encourage discussion and interaction especially among younger respondents (Hennessy and Heary, 2005).

The focus groups were moderated by the author, and another member of the research team, and recorded on voice-tape and transcribed for thematic analysis. The data was collected and analysed according to the discussion guide and emerging themes and concepts. Qualitative data analysis places an emphasis on identifying and understanding the context of responses. Analysis involves systematically relating the data to key objectives and research questions and identifying patterns and relationships in the themes that are identified. Each section of the transcribed text is indexed and coded in a cyclical process to explore the data and analysis involves continual interaction with the data (Tesch, 1990; Miles and Huberman, 1994).

QSR NVivo software, which facilitates sophisticated thematic analysis (Richards, 1999a; 1999b), was used to identify relationships between the marketing communications mix, social and cultural factors, and alcohol consumption. The software does not conduct the analysis but provides a tool for managing the data and more easily coding and retrieving data analysis. An index of key themes and concepts was created by exploring the data, interpreting the key findings, and exploring their relationships. To achieve this, first the transcript documents were explored and the text coded to key themes known as 'nodes' in the QSR NVivo software. A grounded theory based approach was then used to explore the data, a process in which theory and hypotheses are generated from the data using

deductive and inductive thinking (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). This examined findings relating to the role of alcohol in young people's lives, and their awareness of and involvement with alcohol marketing and brands. The nodes were then analysed to explore and interpret the findings (Bringer *et al.* 2004; 2006). Finally, the relationship between the key concepts was explored using the search and retrieval features of the QSR NVivo software.

6.9 Stage Three a: Baseline Survey

Stage three of the study involved a cohort survey of young people, combining in-home self-completion, and interview administered questionnaire survey techniques. Details of the rationale, research design, methodology, procedure and findings are presented in chapters eight and ten. However, a synopsis of the methodology is also offered here. A two-stage cohort design was chosen due to its ability to identify causal inferences (Bryman, 2008). Using a longitudinal design would enable data to be collected across time points in which important changes would likely occur in young people's drinking behaviours, such as from non-drinker to drinker. From this it would be possible to assess any influence from alcohol marketing on these changes in drinking behaviour. An experimental design was not possible, given that practically every young person is exposed to marketing, meaning the use of a control group with no exposure is not possible. A cross sectional design was inappropriate as this would only serve to identify associations between marketing and drinking behaviour and it would not be possible to determine which direction these associations operated nor whether they are causal in nature.

There are however, some limitations with using a cohort design. First, there is the issue with convincing respondents to take part (Sarantakos, 1998). Second, there is the problem of sample attrition through death, change of address and from subjects withdrawing from later stages of the research (Bryman, 2008). Third, there is little guidance on when the best point is to conduct further waves of data collection. Fourth, there is a suggestion that some longitudinal studies are poorly thought out and result in the collection of large amounts of data with little obvious planning (Bryman, 2008).

6.9.1 Study Sample

The first challenge at this stage of the research was to obtain a sample frame that was large enough to achieve the required sample size that would ensure any research findings would be statistically significant. This proved to be particularly problematic given the relatively large sample size required (n=1761) and also the fact that respondents were to be adolescents. There are many issues that require to be addressed when attempting to conduct questionnaire surveys with children including data protection issues, dealing with consent from parents or guardians as well as respondents, accessing a sample frame through negotiation with various gatekeepers and also the resources in terms of time and costs of materials involved in carrying out a survey (Tinson, 2009). For this project the initial intention was to obtain a sample frame from the local health board. However, it transpired that due to data protection issues this would not be possible. It followed that there were several months of consideration and negotiations with gatekeepers of other potential databases of children aged 13-15 years that could provide a suitable sample frame. Finally it was decided that a sample would be drawn through local authority school rolls.

The original sample design was to be a stratified random sample (Sapsford and Jupp, 1996) of adolescents in second year at secondary school. A random sample is regarded as necessary to ensure representativeness of a population (Bryman, 2008). The school roll of all second year pupils (aged 12-14, mean age 13) registered with a local authority (hereafter referred to as Local Authority A) in the West of Scotland was used as the original sampling frame with opt-in procedures and invitation for participation in the research to be made by direct mail. The school roll database provided the following demographic information: name, date of birth, age, gender and postcode of residence. The postcode of residence provides information about Vera Carstairs' Deprivation Categories (DEPCAT) scores, whereby one represents the most affluent and seven the most deprived (McCloone, 2004). Power calculations were used to calculate a desired sample size at baseline to ensure representativeness (Connolly, 2007). It was anticipated, based on previous experience of using this recruitment methodology using power calculations, a contact sample of 4634 with an anticipated response rate of 38% would yield a representative target sample size of 1761 at baseline. The database contained 5273 second year pupils, and all were invited to participate in the study.

An information pack was sent out directly to the homes of each school pupil in second year that attended a school within Local Authority A, with parental and respondent consent forms included, and an incentive of a gift token offered. However, due to data protection issues there were strict limitations on how the process could be carried out and only once respondents agreed to take part in the research was data passed on to the university. It became clear during this process that the various data protection laws and issues surrounding accessing the data of children as respondents are complicated and it takes time, effort and understanding to negotiate (Gordon, 2009a). In order to maintain

confidentiality and meet data protection rules, Local Authority A wrote to the parents/guardians of all second year pupils on their database, informing them of the survey and inviting participation. An invitation letter, participant information sheet, consent form and freepost return envelope was enclosed. Adolescents were asked to respond by freepost to Local Authority A, indicating whether they were willing to take part in the study. Local Authority A then passed the details of respondents wishing to take part to the University of Stirling, thus ensuring data protection rules were adhered to. Two reminder letters were sent to potential respondents to encourage participation. Furthermore, a press release publicising the study and encouraging participation was issued by the University of Stirling public relations team.

A total of 658 respondents from Local Authority A agreed to participate in the study, representing a 12.5% response rate. This was considerably lower than the expected response rate of 35%. It was therefore necessary to boost the sample by drawing respondents from two neighbouring local authorities (hereafter referred to as Local Authority B and Local Authority C). The school roll for second year pupils in each authority totalled 4071 and 3636 respectively. During another round of negotiations with the two local authorities it transpired that due to logistical issues, such as the lack of a central school roll database, it was not possible to invite participation in the study by direct mail. Therefore, invitation packs containing the same invitation pack as with the original sample were distributed through schools for pupils to take home. Respondents agreeing to take part were asked to reply directly to the University using a pre-paid envelope. Two reminder letters were then distributed to potential respondents to encourage participation. A press release was also issued to the local media, encouraging participation in the study. A total of 198 adolescents from Local Authority B, and 183

adolescents from Local Authority C agreed to take part in the study. This represented a response rate of 5% in Local Authority B, and 5% from Local Authority C. Given the different process for recruitment compared to that in Local Authority A, this lower response rate was anticipated. Overall a total of 12980 second year pupils were invited to take part in the study. A total of 1039 adolescents agreed to take part, which was reduced to an achieved sample of 920 due to interviews not taking place as a result of refusals or the respondent not being available at the appointed time. This represents an overall response rate of 7% based upon the achieved sample. The final total sample size was considerably less than the target sample size of 1761. However, given the resources expended in generating the sample frame and time pressures a final decision was made to proceed with this sample size in place. Detailed sample characteristics are described in chapters eight and ten.

The low response rate may have been caused by the sensitive nature of the research and/or a saturation of research in the study location. This necessitated a rethink of the original stratified random sample design, which was now not possible. Therefore, a convenience sample was used, in which any available respondents agreeing to take part in the research were included. Normally this would mean that the sample could not be regarded as representative (May, 2001). Convenience samples are however commonly used in social research and can offer useful and valid findings (Bryman, 1989).

6.9.2 Questionnaire Design and Development

Now that the sample had been drawn, the next stage of the process was for the author to design the questionnaire. The content of both the self-completion questionnaire and interview schedule were informed by the formative research conducted in stages one and

two of the project and covered three main topic areas: awareness and appreciation of alcohol marketing communications and brands; measures of the young person's drinking and purchasing behaviour by brand and volume; and measures of key confounding variables including parental, siblings and peer group drinking. To aid the development of a template for the questionnaire national surveys such as the Scottish Schools Adolescent Lifestyle and Substance Use Survey (SALSUS) (Corbett et al. 2004) and previous studies of alcohol marketing and youth drinking were examined (Stacy et al. 2004; Snyder et al. 2006). Similar research using a questionnaire survey of tobacco marketing and youth smoking also provided ideas for the questionnaire (MacFadyen et al. 2001). It should be acknowledged that due to the requirements to keep the length manageable, other potential confounding variables which were included in earlier drafts of the questionnaire such as biology, locus of control, non-tobacco drug use, deviance and life events. However, upon consultation of prior surveys examining this area, the current study included considerably more control variables. Included variables focused on those identified as the more powerful predictors of drinking behaviour in the extant literature, and in the earlier research phases.

A questionnaire is an instrument designed for collecting data from a group of respondents and can be used to measure respondents' knowledge, attitudes, opinions, behaviours and characteristics. There are a range of different methods for measuring these features, which can result in differing degrees of accuracy. Errors that can occur as a construct of questionnaire design (often known as measurement error) are often regarded as a significant obstacle in quantitative research (Kinnear and Taylor, 1996). Measurement error can be minimised through careful attention to the types of questions and scales used in a questionnaire.

In any study the development of a questionnaire should be driven by the research requirement (Kinear and Taylor, 1996; Fowler, 2002). Therefore, research aims and objectives should be used to develop a series of information needs, and questions specifically designed to meet these needs. The research objectives and hypotheses guided the questionnaire design. Subsequently the questionnaire was divided into five main sections as follows:

- 1. Marketing in general: Items were employed to examine awareness, appreciation and involvement with marketing in general. This provided important background information on the accessibility of various forms of marketing to young people.
- Alcohol marketing: Items were used to collect data concerning awareness, appreciation and involvement with alcohol marketing.
- 3. Branding: Items were used to examine brand imagery, perceptions of packaging, and awareness and appreciation of marketing for five key alcohol brands. The brands included a premium vodka, a major lager brand, a well known tonic wine drink, a cheap white cider and a well known alcopop brand.
- 4. Demographics: Demographic characteristics were collated to help interpret results and meet the research aims and objectives.
- 5. Attitudes towards alcohol and drinking behaviours: A self completion booklet was used to collect data on young people's drinking behaviour and intentions. This included measures of drinking prevalence, consumption, future drinking intentions, and the drinking behaviour of significant others. Data on confounding variables such as parental and peer influence was also collected.

Having identified the key information needs required from the questionnaire, different question styles and scales were assessed to meet these needs. A process of piloting the questionnaire in which checks and revisions were made to the design was conducted (Parasuraman, 1991). Piloting is an essential process to ensure the acceptability, appropriateness and comprehension of the questionnaire content, and to ensure respondents can accurately reflect their views and experiences without constraining responses (May, 2001).

Two piloting procedures were used during the summer of 2006 with children aged 13-15, not residing in the study area, to assess content and comprehension of the questionnaire, and test question routings. This process involved conducting a series of four focus groups (n=20) and observed interviews (n=12). The piloting was weighted towards C2DE adolescents given the increased likelihood this would identify issues with comprehension (Bryman, 2008). The sample tables for the piloting process are detailed in Tables 6.2 and 6.3.

Table 6.2: Sample for Wave One Piloting Process Focus Groups

Group	Gender	Age	Social Grade	Drinking Status
1	Male	13	C2DE	Non-drinkers
2	Female	13	C2DE	Drinkers
3	Male	15	C2DE	Drinkers
4	Female	15	C2DE	Drinkers

In the groups respondents were guided through the questionnaire and asked to comment on how they understood the questions, how they would answer them and what changes would make them easier to understand. This was done in a group format with a particular focus on the measures of marketing awareness, brand perceptions and drinking behaviours. The show-cards and visuals were also used to generate discussion and feedback.

Table 6.3: Sample for Wave One Piloting Process 1-1 Interviews

Interview	Gender	Age	S-E group	Drinking Status
1	Male	13	C2DE	Non-drinker
2	Female	13	C2DE	Non-drinker
3	Male	13	ABC1	Drinker
4	Female	13	C2DE	Drinker
5	Male	13	C2DE	Drinker
6	Female	13	ABC1	Drinker
7	Male	15	C2DE	Non-Drinker
8	Female	15	C2DE	Non-Drinker
9	Male	15	ABC1	Drinker
10	Female	15	C2DE	Drinker
11	Male	15	C2DE	Drinker
12	Female	15	ABC1	Drinker

The observed interviews involved respondents completing the questionnaire as if taking part in the survey, with an interviewer administering the first part of the questionnaire, and respondents filling in the self-completion part. Following this, the author and colleagues then examined how respondents had completed the questionnaire and conducted a short interview with the respondent to address any issues. These were conducted in two stages to guide questionnaire content (discussed below) and comprehension and test the question routings.

Survey questions can either be open or closed. Open questions allow respondents to answer using their own words, while closed questions provide a pre-determined series of answers. Open questions provide the opportunity for the interviewer to obtain in depth responses and probe for information. However they require coding prior to analysis (Fink and Kosecoff, 1998). In the study questionnaire the number of open-ended questions was

limited to situations where it was difficult or undesirable to offer respondents a list of potential responses. Accordingly, open-ended questions were used when asking questions about recall, awareness and consumption of brands, and types of drink. In all other cases closed questions styles were used.

Closed questions involve offering a question, statement or proposition, followed by a series of pre-determined alternative answers (Fink and Kosecoff, 1998). The design of closed questions is essential to ensure they provide meaningful and relevant answers. Closed questions are normally of two main forms: dichotomous questions that offer two alternatives, for example 'yes' or 'no', or multiple category questions that offer more than two alternative answers (Sapsford and Jupp. 1996). Dichotomous questions were used when asking respondents about their consumption of media, internet access, interactions with alcohol marketing communications, whether they had ever consumed alcohol, risky behaviours associated with drinking, alcohol purchasing ground, source of alcohol consumed, and demographics.

Other questions required more complex responses than simply 'yes' or 'no', using multiple response styles. To explore attitudes, beliefs and perceptions among respondents a range of attitude scales were assessed and used. Likert scales and semantic differential scales were found to be the most appropriate methods for these questions. A Likert scale is a psychometric scale in which a statement is offered which the respondent is asked to evaluate according to any kind of subjective or objective criteria (Likert, 1932). Likert scale categories of items were developed from the exploratory research (see chapter seven) and the literature, and were refined during the piloting process. Respondents were invited to respond to these items according to response categorisations such as strongly

agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and strongly disagree. The items included a range of positive and negative items to avoid suggesting the appropriate response. Likert scales were used to examine general brand awareness, perceptions on brand choice, use of communications and perceived prevalence of drinking.

To assess attitudes towards alcohol sports sponsorship, and brand perceptions semantic differential scales were used. Semantic differential is a type of rating scale designed to measure the connotative meaning of objects, events and concepts, with the connotations used to derive the attitude towards the given object, event or concept (Heise, 2010). Using this scale enabled exploration of responses to pairs of bipolar adjectives (Sommer and Sommer, 2001). To explore brand perceptions respondents were shown a series of five masked alcohol brands to test brand recognition, and then in the following questions were shown the brands unmasked and asked to categorise each brand according to a series of nine statements designed to test brand perceptions, using five point semantic differential attitude scales (e.g. looks boring, looks like a strong drink).

Visual prompts in the form of show-cards (see Appendix I) were tested and used to measure awareness and response to key case study brands. The wave one questionnaires can be found in Appendices J and K.

6.9.3 Data Collection and Coding

After the questionnaire design had been finalised a team of professional market researchers was then briefed, by the author, and duly administered the questionnaire in the home of respondents with parental or guardian consent and presence. Wave one was conducted between October 2006 and March 2007. To limit the potential for bias in

answering the questionnaire due to parental or guardian presence, especially given the sensitive nature of the research, topics show-cards (See Appendix L) were used for much of the interviewer administered questionnaire with alcohol consumption being measured through a self-completion questionnaire which was then placed in a sealed envelope. The interviews were conducted by professional market research interviewers in the respondent's own home. Interviews were conducted according to the Market Research Society standards (MRS, 2008). Three interview attempts were made before potential respondents were removed from the sample. Reasons for removal were recorded where possible. Each interview lasted between 30 and 45 minutes and if possible was conducted in privacy. A self-completion questionnaire measuring drinking behaviour was completed at the same time under the supervision of the interviewer. All respondents were offered a small fixed financial incentive of a £15 gift token as recompense for their time and to optimise response rates.

Once received, all questionnaires were reviewed by the author to check question comprehension, responses given, and to identify any issues with questionnaire wording, response categories and routing. These issues were then noted for attention during the process of preparation for the second wave (see chapter nine). The responses were then examined systematically to construct a coding frame to enable the data to be entered and coded prior to conversion into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) file format. A coding frame was constructed by the author based upon responses given to cover demographic information, general brands and product types, alcohol brands and product types and marketing channel variables. A copy of the coding frame created is detailed in Appendix M. Using the coding frame an Excel look-up table was created to code the responses accordingly. The responses to Q14-19 in the self-completion

questionnaire were used to calculate the number of units of alcohol each respondent had consumed the last time they had a drink. This data was then added as an additional variable to the data file. Once all the data was compiled, prepared, checked and cleaned, it was converted into SPSS file format ready for statistical analysis.

6.9.4 Data Analysis

Based on previous work in the tobacco field using a similar methodology (MacFadyen *et al.* 2001), the survey data was anticipated to comprise a mixture of categorical and scalar data. The data from the baseline survey was to be used to test the hypothesis that 13 year olds who are more aware and appreciative of alcohol marketing communications are more likely be drinkers and to have future drinking intentions.

This hypothesis was to be tested using appropriate techniques by conducting bivariate and multivariate analysis including principal component analysis, and linear and logistic regression analysis (Sarantakos, 1998; Norušis, 2004). Data was analysed using SPSS version 17.0. The choice of analytical techniques is influence by a number of factors, including the nature of measures, the number of groups for comparison and the level of measurement (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 1997). For bivariate analysis, appropriate tests included chi-square and McNemar's test for nominal data, Kruskal-Wallis one-way Anova for ordinal data, and one-way Anova for interval data (Norušis, 2004).

Multivariate analysis is crucial for testing hypotheses and examines several independent variables and one or more dependent variables (Tabanick and Fidell, 2000). A dependent variable is the outcome variable or the one that you are trying to explain, for example

drinking status, in terms of other variables upon which it is dependent. Independent variables are those that are independent of each other but help to explain or produce variance in the dependent variable such as liking alcohol advertising, having friends who drink or being female. Multivariate analysis methods were appropriate given that marketing problems are normally multi-factorial (Kinnear and Taylor, 1996).

Regression analysis is a powerful tool and one of the most widely used statistical methods for examining relationships between a dependent and a set of independent variables (Wetherill, 1986). It is a statistical analysis technique which has been used widely in marketing research and indeed for examining the effect of alcohol marketing on youth drinking behaviour (Moutinho and Meidan, 2003; Ellickson *et al.* 2005; Akinci *et al.* 2007). Regression allows the prediction of variance for an interval scaled dependent variable according to one of more intervally scaled variables (Kinnear and Gray, 1997). It estimates the association between variables and predicts the values of one dependent variable from one or more other independent variables. There are a number of types of regression analysis including linear regression, multiple regression and binary logistic regression analysis.

Linear regression estimates the values of one dependent variable from one independent variable in the form of a linear equation, and is useful for prediction or forecasting (Kinnear and Gray, 1997). The linear regression equation can be expressed as: $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}\mathbf{X}$, where \mathbf{Y} is the dependent variable (e.g. alcohol consumption), \mathbf{X} is the independent variable (e.g. awareness of alcohol marketing communications). The slope of the line is \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{a} represents the intercept (regression constant) i.e. the value of \mathbf{Y} when $\mathbf{X} = 0$.

Linear regression was chosen as an appropriate technique to analyse future drinking behaviour intentions.

Multiple regression estimates the values of one dependent from two or more independent variables in the form of a linear equation (Cohen *et al.* 2003). The equation can be expressed as follows: $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{b_1} \ (\mathbf{X_1}) + \mathbf{b_2} \ (\mathbf{X_2}) + \mathbf{b_3} \ (\mathbf{X_3}) \dots + \mathbf{b_0}$, where \mathbf{Y} is the estimated value of the dependent variable (e.g. alcohol consumption), $\mathbf{b_a}$ is the slope or regression co=efficient, $\mathbf{X_b}$ are the independent variables (e.g. awareness of alcohol marketing communications, have friends who drink etc.) and $\mathbf{b_0}$ is the intercept (regression constant).

Logistic regression is used when the dependent variable is dichotomous, for example whether a respondent is a drinker or not (Cohen *et al.* 2003). Logistic regression is used to estimate the probability that a particular event will occur (e.g. being a current drinker or not) and calculates the changes in the log odds of the dependent variable. The logistic regression equation can be expressed as such: $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{b_1} \ (\mathbf{X_1}) + \mathbf{b_2} \ (\mathbf{X_2}) + \mathbf{b_3} \ (\mathbf{X_3}) \dots + \mathbf{b_0}$, where \mathbf{Y} is the estimated value of the dependent variable (e.g. alcohol consumption), $\mathbf{b_a}$ is the slope or regression co=efficient, $\mathbf{X_b}$ are the independent variables (e.g. awareness of alcohol marketing communications, have friends who drink etc.) and $\mathbf{b_0}$ is the intercept (regression constant). The probability of $\mathbf{Y} = 1$ (e.g. being a current drinker) is the natural logarithm e to the power of a term which is the logistic regression equation.

Model fit is important to consider when conducting regression analysis. Assessment of model fit, or Goodness of Fit (GOF), can include evaluation of the deviance, Pearson chi-square statistic, and where possible a decile based GOF statistic (Hosmer *et al.* 1991).

Careful inspection of the regression diagnostic is also useful in assessing GOF. When conducting statistical analysis in this study, evaluation of model fit, including Pearson chi-square statistics and evaluation of deviance, were computed and model fit was reported where possible (chapter eight and chapter ten).

Another issue to consider when conducting multiple regression analysis is the problem of multicollinearity in correlation analyses. This occurs when two or more variables are highly correlated and seem to have an effect on an outcome, when actually some of the variables in the model are redundant. Multicollinearity does not actually bias results but it produces large standard errors. Bivariate correlation matrices, for example Spearman's Rho of independent variables, can help to test for multicollinearity. If multicollinearity is found, removing variables from the model or combining variables can help address the problem. When conducting the analysis the issue of multicollinearity was carefully considered and appropriate steps were taken to limit the likelihood of this presenting a problem. As Spearman's Rho correlation matrices were obtained during the analyses this demonstrated that there were no significant problems with multicollinearity.

The literature was extensively reviewed to ensure that the regression models used in the analysis contained all the relevant independent variables and no superfluous variables. However, the number of independent variables was reduced as hypothesis testing using logistic regression requires a large sample size to improve accuracy (Cohen *et al.* 2003). Therefore, Principal Component Analysis was conducted to examine ways in which the marketing measures question, Q16 in the main questionnaire, could be reduced into smaller groups of variables. Principal Component Analysis is a method of aggregating variables, which assesses the degree to which various items contribute towards the same

concept or outcome. Therefore, it is used to determine the minimum number of items that explain the maximum amount of variance. The principal component (the 'eigenvector') that explains the most variance (the 'eigenvalue') is extracted first, then the second principle component that is not correlated with the first and that explains the next greatest variance is extracted, and so on (Grimm and Yarnold, 1995). Theoretically the process can be repeated until all of the variance is explained. However, in practice, the aim is to ensure the minimum number of components is extracted. Thus the researcher needs to decide how many principal components to extract. A method for doing this is Cattell's 'Scree Test', which can be requested as part of the SPSS, output and graphs the principal components extracted against their eigenvalues (Cattell, 1966). The results from the Principal Component Analysis are presented in chapter eight.

For the cross sectional data analysis the logistic regression included whether or not the 13-year-old participants have tried alcohol as the dependent variable and measures of alcohol marketing communication awareness and appreciation as independent variables. A range of control variables have been reported in previous research on alcohol marketing and drinking behaviour, such as media exposure (Grube and Wallack, 1994; Connolly *et al.* 1994; Robinson *et al.* 1998), gender (Lex, 1991), social context including parental, family member and peer influence (Petraitis *et al.* 1995; Szalay *et al.* 1996), religion (Engs *et al.* 1990), level of deviance (Ellickson *et al.* 2001), pro-drinking attitudes beliefs and behaviours (Ellickson *et al.* 2005), socio-economic class, and race and ethnicity (Jones-Webb *et al.* 1995). These represent potential confounding variables to be included as covariates in the analyses. This allows the effects of gender and inequality to be assessed.

For each of the logistic regression analyses, variables were entered in blocks using forward likelihood ratio with separate models run in which the control variable in the final block was varied accordingly between: number of alcohol marketing channels aware of, types of alcohol marketing aware of, and involvement in alcohol marketing. This hierarchical approach, in which independent variables entered the models in blocks, enabled the assessment of the contribution of particular variables after other independent variables had already been considered.

Stepwise linear regression analyses was then conducted with future drinking intentions as the dependent variable, with the following independent variables: control variables used in the logistic regression, number of alcohol marketing channels aware of, types of alcohol marketing channels aware of, and involvement in alcohol marketing. Data analysis procedures for wave one are discussed further in chapter seven, publication four.

6.10 Stage Three b: Follow-up Survey

The second wave was conducted 24 months after the baseline using largely the same methodology. For presentation purposes and to ensure a chronological order for the different stages of the study reported in this thesis, details of the process in preparation for the follow up survey are presented in chapter nine.

6.11 Stage Four: Policy Development and Implementation

The study design also incorporated an upstream policy development and implementation element in keeping with the critical social marketing framework of the research. The intention was to feed into policy at two levels: (i) through the development of social marketing interventions to encourage safer drinking among young people, and (ii)

through the regulation of alcohol marketing. The insights into the techniques employed by the alcohol industry can be used to guide and inform the development of harm reduction 'counter-marketing' strategies at both a national and local level. At a national level, the study's implementation partner, NHS Health Scotland, has identified the development of counter-marketing alcohol strategy to be a key outcome of the study. The research also enhances the evidence base for developing the current regulatory mechanisms. Links with national and EU policy makers who have expressed interest in the study have, and will continue to be, exploited, with the findings used to contribute to the appropriate forums. Details of dissemination outputs from the project are discussed in Chapter 11.

6.12 Reflexivity

Reflexivity is often presented as a source of increased insight, perspicacity or awareness. Yet it can be perceived to be a rather abstract construct and difficult to ascertain exactly what is meant by being reflexive (Lynch, 2000). Reflexivity refers to the relationships between cause and effect, and proposes that such relationships are bidirectional. As such, the cause and effect influence one another in a situation, thereby rendering both functions causes and effects. Therefore, reflexivity operates as an act of self-reference where examination or action bends back upon, refers to, and affects the entity instigating the action or examination. This requires an awareness of a researcher's contribution to the construction of meaning in the research process and an acknowledgement of the impossibility of remaining objective and outside of the subject area while conducting research. The role of the researcher has a major influence over the conceptual framework, process, outcomes and interpretations when conducting social research. Two loci for reflexivity can be identified. Personal reflexivity involves reflecting on the ways in which

our personality, experiences, values, interests, beliefs, and political ideology shape the research process. Epistemological reflexivity engages with consideration of issues such as how research questions are defined and limit what can be learned, how the design and method of analysis constructs the data and findings, and how could the research question have been investigated differently?

Reflexivity has been identified in consumer research as a way in which to address the power-control relationships inherent in, and offer useful commentaries on, the research process (Hirschman, 1993; Thomson, 2002). Yet its application in marketing academia remains underdeveloped (Bettany and Woodruffe-Burton, 2009). However, Bettany and Woodruffe-Burton (2009) developed a framework of possible reflexivities for marketing research. They propose four different forms of reflexivity, objectivist reflexivity, experiential reflexivity, perspectival reflexivity and multiplex

Objectivist reflexivity refers to reflection upon the technical choices made when conducting research such as method choice, analytical techniques used, research participants, and sample framework. In this project these technical choices were influenced by the research questions which necessitated a mixed methods approach to gain a deep understanding of alcohol marketing and young people, prior to the survey research measuring any effect on behaviours. Furthermore, the selection of research participants was guided by a focus on adolescents between aged 13 and 15 as this is the period when they initiate drinking. However, the author was aware that this might magnify attention on youth drinking, when alcohol consumption among adults is also a cause for concern. This consideration is reflected in the author's writing about alcohol as an issue in society, which can be found throughout this thesis. The sample framework

was selected out of necessity, as other sample frames were unavailable as discussed earlier in this chapter. Upon reflection, the author, if presented with the opportunity to conduct a similar study in the future, would appreciate more time and resources to consider the sample frame for conducting such a study, as this was one of the major challenges in the entire study.

Experiential reflexivity relates to the researchers own social and personal location vis a vis the research. This involves reflection upon their relationship with respondents and any research outcomes emanating from these relationships, their personal experiences during the research and how they have managed and progressed the researcher/respondent relationship. The author had a prior interest in alcohol issues, and research with adolescents garnered during previous research within academia and the workplace. Therefore, during the research process, this enthusiasm for the subject helped engage not only with the study phases, but the respondents, and the issues presented throughout. During the research phases involving adolescents, the author sought to identify, and engage with, young people. This process was facilitated by the author's own identification with the lifestyles of the young people researched, and the study location, having grown up in the area and encountered many of the same themes and issues.

Perspectival reflexivity relates to consideration of how theoretical frameworks for research carry certain assumptions and views, how knowledge may have been different if other approaches were utilised, how various actors in the research process shape the research, and the assumptions that are made based upon the location of the researcher within existing groups, and what may have been excluded due to these affiliations. This research project was guided by a critical social marketing framework, and given the

adoption of this approach, and the researcher's background as a political scientist and interest in social policy, this obviously influenced the view of the research taken. This shaped the author's view of the various stakeholders, particularly the alcohol industry, encountered during the study, and also the drive to engage with the policy agenda relative to alcohol marketing.

Bettany and Woodruffe-Burton (2009) define multiplex reflexivity as being concerned with numerous and diverse researcher/respondent subjects that emerge during the research process and how these impact on the research, how conflicts and ambivalences are mitigated, which conflicts are suppressed and why, how these dynamics shift and transform during phases of research and in relation to different others, what models of reality are produced, and what are the implications of these outcomes for the research? Relative to this PhD, the author's identification with the respondents, and the desire to try and accurately reflect their realities strongly influenced the thought processes followed during the study. Furthermore, conflicts that emerged, particularly in relation to negotiating with gatekeepers when trying to construct a sampling frame, were approached with a determination to see things through. This focus on moving things along, may at times, have caused difficulties in that it may have presented the impression that the researcher was not recognising the needs or concerns of other stakeholders. Certainly, following the research process employed during this PhD research, the author has learned a lot about thinking about what I am doing, understanding how this affects others, and recognising and responding to the views and wishes of others.

Having discussed how the research design and methodology was selected, and considered the issue of reflexivity, the primary research could be conducted. Chapter seven of this PhD contains the third publication, which is an article detailing the findings from the exploratory research conducted with stakeholders and adolescents as part of the study. The article entitled 'Critical Social Marketing – The Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking: Qualitative Findings' (DOI: 10.1002/nvsm.338) was published in the *International Journal of Non-Profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing* a 1* ranked journal (Association of Business Schools, 2009).

<u>Chapter Seven: Critical social marketing – the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking: qualitative findings (Publication Three)</u>

Gordon, R., Moodie, C., Hastings, G., Eadie, D. (2010). Critical social marketing – the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking: qualitative findings. International Journal of Non-Profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 15(3): 265-275.

7.1 Abstract

This paper presents findings from exploratory qualitative research as part of a critical social marketing study examining the impact of alcohol marketing communications on youth drinking. The findings from stakeholder interviews (regulators and marketers) suggest that some alcohol marketing might target young people, and that marketers are cognisant of growing concern at alcohol issues, including control of alcohol marketing. Focus groups with young people (aged 13–15 years) revealed a sophisticated level of awareness of, and involvement in, alcohol marketing across several channels. It was found that some marketing activities featured content that could appeal to young people and appeared to influence their, well-developed, brand attitudes. The research demonstrates the utility of taking a critical social marketing approach when examining the impact of alcohol marketing. The implications of these findings for research, regulation and policy around alcohol marketing are also examined. The contribution that studies such as this make to the debate around marketing principles and practice, and to social marketing, is also discussed.

7.2 Introduction

The societal costs associated with alcohol misuse such as health harms, crime and disorder and lost productivity have been estimated at up to £25 billion per annum (Cabinet Office Strategy Unit, 2003). Furthermore, the last decade has witnessed a 24% increase in alcohol consumption in the UK (HM Government, 2007). There has also been

an increase in levels of binge drinking, especially amongst young people (Diment *et al.* 2007; Hibell *et al.* 2009). Indeed, the UK now holds the unenviable position of having one of the highest recorded rates of binge drinking and associated harm in the whole of Europe (WARC, 2004).

These trends raise particular health concerns as there is clear evidence identifying regular recreational alcohol use in adolescence as a powerful predictor of alcohol dependence amongst young adults (Bonomo *et al.* 2004). Alcohol consumption is associated with a broad range of social and health problems, at both personal and societal level (WHO, 2002; Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2003). As concern has increased attention has focused on factors that may have a casual influence on drinking behaviour. One such factor that has been identified and investigated is alcohol marketing (Babor *et al.* 2003).

This paper describes the findings from exploratory qualitative research from a study using a critical social marketing framework to assess the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking. The research aimed to examine issues around and the nature of alcohol marketing, and explore the impact it has on the attitudes and behaviour of adolescents. The implications from the findings, including on alcohol marketing policy and regulation are then discussed.

7.3 Literature review

7.3.1 Critical social marketing

There is much debate within the academic marketing discipline as to where such studies fit within the existing literature (Hastings and Saren, 2003; Tadajewski and Brownlie, 2008). One suggestion is that studies on the impact of commercial marketing on society

fit within the critical marketing and social marketing paradigms and can be termed as critical social marketing research (Hastings, 2009). The critical marketing paradigm emerged as a result of radical social, economic and political changes, which lead academics to call for a critical appraisal of marketing and marketing theory (Brownlie *et al.* 1994; Thomas, 1999). Indeed critical theory has been identified as one of the paradigmatic approaches in market and consumer research (Murray and Ozanne, 1991; Lowe *et al.* 2005).

Using Lazer and Kelley's (1973) definition of social marketing it is clear that critical research is very much within the jurisdiction 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 analysis of the social consequences of marketing policies, decisions and activities" (p. ix emphasis added).

Social marketers have responded to the development of critical marketing by outlining the contribution that social marketing can make to the paradigm (Hastings and Saren, 2003; Gordon *et al.* 2007). Goldberg (1995, p347) has argued that social marketing has a part to play in addressing 'the negative or constraining social structural influences on individual behaviour, particularly those that originate as a function of marketing activities'. However, it appears that the critical dimension of social marketing remains less well defined, or indeed ignored, by the most commonly used definitions of social marketing and sits uneasily for some within the critical marketing paradigm (Tadajewski and Brownlie, 2008; Dann, 2010). Nevertheless the critical contribution of social

marketing should not be dismissed and holds considerable potential for improving marketing theory and practice, as well as protecting society from some of the damaging effects of commercial marketing. This type of activity is also identified with upstream social marketing. Indeed an upstream approach also has ties to the critical theory paradigm (Burton, 2001; Lowe *et al.* 2005). Upstream social marketing can involve building an evidence base, media advocacy, policy change, regulation and law making.

Marketing research to inform regulation on such as tobacco (MacFadyen *et al.* 2001), unhealthy foods (Hastings *et al.* 2003; Ofcom, 2006) and alcohol marketing are examples where a critical marketing approach with upstream applications can be taken. Critical social marketing research could therefore be defined as the study of the impact of commercial marketing on society using a critical theory based approach, to generate understanding, contribute to the evidence base, and to inform upstream social marketing, and policy and regulation. The research described in this paper utilised such a critical social marketing framework.

7.3.2 Alcohol marketing and regulation

The UK government has stated that, as yet, there is a lack of evidence of a causal effect between alcohol marketing and drinking behaviour and that more research is required (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2004), hence the need for research such as this. However, since 2004 there have been further developments of the evidence base with several US studies suggesting a small, but significant impact from alcohol marketing on behaviour (Stacy *et al.* 2004; Collins *et al.* 2007; Henriksen *et al.* 2008). Yet there remains a paucity of research carried out in the UK, resulting in a gap remaining in the evidence base. Nevertheless a recent systematic review of the evidence suggests that

alcohol advertising and promotion increases the likelihood that adolescents will start to use alcohol, and drink more if they are already using alcohol (Anderson *et al.* 2009b).

Figure 7.1: Co-regulatory and Voluntary Alcohol Marketing Codes in the UK

Co-Regulatory

- TV Advertising Standards Code: Advertisements for alcoholic drinks must not be likely to appeal strongly to people under 18, in particular by reflecting or being associated with youth culture. Children must not be seen or heard, and no-one who is, or appears to be, under 25 years old may play a significant role in advertisements for alcoholic drinks. No-one may behave in an adolescent or juvenile way.
- Radio Advertising Standards Code: Alcoholic drink advertising must not be aimed at those aged below 18 years or use treatments likely to be of particular appeal to them.
- Broadcast Committee of Advertising Practice (BCAP) Rules on the Schedule of Advertising: Alcoholic drinks may not be advertised in or adjacent to children's programmes or programmes commissioned for, principally directed at or likely to appeal particularly to audiences below the age of 18.

Voluntary

- Portman Group Code of Practice on the Naming, Packaging and Promotion of Alcohol Drinks: Drink, its packaging and any promotional material or activity should not in any direct or indirect way have a particular appeal to under 18s.
- British Code of Advertising, Sales, Promotion and Direct Marketing: Marketing communications should not be directed at people under 18 through the style of presentation, content or context in which they appear. Marketing communications should not be associated with people under 18 or reflect their culture. People shown drinking or playing a significant role should neither be nor look under 25 and should not be shown behaving in an adolescent or juvenile way.

This subsequently raises questions over the nature and effectiveness of the current regulatory system controlling alcohol marketing in the UK. Existing regulation of alcohol marketing in the UK comprises both co-regulatory and voluntary codes in order to protect young people (see Figure 7.1). These regulations will be re-visited following the presentation of the findings from this study to explore their effectiveness.

7.4 Methodology

This study was funded as part of the NPRI and examines the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking during the period when most young people start experimenting with alcohol, from ages 13 to 15 (Currie *et al.* 2002). Research of this kind is important not

only for any associations with the social and critical marketing paradigms, but also for the wider generic marketing discipline. The research described here used qualitative research techniques to explore issues around alcohol marketing. Prior to commencing the study full ethical approval was sought, and granted by the Department of Marketing Ethics Committee, University of Stirling. All interviews followed Market Research Society guidelines. Firstly, one-to-one interviews (n=10) were conducted with marketing and communications professionals working in the alcohol field to generate understanding and explore their attitudes towards current alcohol marketing techniques, and their views on the regulatory environment governing alcohol marketing, using purposive snowball sampling.

Secondly, focus group research was carried out to explore how adolescents respond to the industry communication strategies. The research team have considerable experience of conducting research on sensitive issues, and with specific population groups such as young people. Non-directive, qualitative research techniques that have been previously identified as having value when researching alcohol and young people (Strunin, 2001) were employed. This included interactive activities such as viewing adverts, identifying masked and unmasked brands, and a brand mapping exercise in which participants offered their views on particular alcohol brands. Purposive sampling was used to generate a sample of 64 participants, aged 13–15, who were divided into eight focus groups. Sample composition (see Table 7.1) was weighted towards drinkers to enable exploration of the role of alcohol in their lives and any impact marketing may have on attitudes and behaviour. The focus groups were recorded, with prior consent from participants, transcribed and then analysed thematically using QSR NVivo 7 software. The first stages

of the research reported here have also been used to inform a two-wave survey of a cohort of young people carried out at the next stage of the project (not reported here).

Table 7.1: Demographic Information (Gender, Age and Socio-economic Status) and Drinking Status of Focus Groups

Group	Gender	Age	Socio-Economic	Drinking
			group	Status [*]
1	Male	13	ABC1	Non-drinkers
2	Female	13	C2DE	Drinkers
3	Male	13	C2DE	Drinkers
4	Female	14	ABC1	Drinkers
5	Male	14	ABC1	Drinkers
6	Female	15	C2DE	Non-drinkers
7	Male	15	ABC1	Drinkers
8	Female	15	C2DE	Drinkers

^{*} Drinking status was defined as according to the SALSUS survey 2004 (Corbett et al. 2004).

7.5 Results

7.5.1 Informant interviews

Some marketers indicated that the market was relatively stale and that new product development had been neglected somewhat in recent years. Changes within the alcohol market itself were also highlighted, including the growth of the off-trade and mergers and brand consolidation within the alcohol industry.

'The market is ready for a new category I think. I'm convinced there is something that is not ale and not lager, but something in the middle. It has just got too lager dominated. It has got boring'. (Male, Marketing Account Manager, Scotland)

'The projection is that people are going to be buying more from the off-trade than the ontrade, which is a massive turnaround from the way the market was ten years ago'. (Male, Marketing Agency Directory, Scotland) Interviewees also highlighted changes in alcohol marketing communications with a shift away from traditional brand advertising to more experiential (linking brands to consumer experiences) and new media marketing. Interestingly, a marketing executive stated that some of the tactics used to market alcohol pushed the boundaries of acceptability, and an industry regulator speculated upon marketing activity deliberately targeted at young people.

'I've seen more of a shift . . . away from a reliance on traditional brand advertising . . . I think the major change recently that will continue is much more experiential marketing'. (Male, Marketing Account Manager, Scotland)

'they're using more 'under-the-radar' tactics to target young people'. (Female, Executive Officer, Industry Regulatory Body, UK)

'What often happens in advertising is advertisers try to push the rules as much as they can because obviously that is how you get . . . racier ads and you get a bit of controversy now and then and that has never hurt any brand'. (Male, Marketing Account Manager, Scotland)

The fact that one account manager commented on how marketing activity often pushed the rules to the limit, which certainly flouts the spirit, if not the letter, of the codes, raises concerns about the effectiveness of the current regulatory system. Moreover, if alcohol marketers are willing to test the limits of marketing codes, then this may extend to targeting youth, as suggested by an industry regulator.

Importantly, interviews revealed that marketing practitioners acknowledged the debate around regulation of alcohol marketing. Several interviewees were generally accepting of the fact that restrictions on their creative freedom and tighter controls on alcohol marketing regulation may be forthcoming; as attention on regulation and practice increases.

'The inevitable consequences of sustained binge drinking will be the government will crack down on alcohol advertising and that will follow on the back of no smoking legislation'. (Male, Managing Director, Communications Company, England)

'I think there's going to be quite a lot of pressure on alcohol marketing'. (Female, Communications Officer, England)

'Brand marketers are accepting that we have got to move towards a day when – it will just have to be a different way of getting your messages across'. (Female, Marketing Account Manager, England)

'It is a realistic scenario to say that in five years time alcohol advertising will be banned.

. . everyone has got to behave as an industry pretty impeccably to stop that process

speeding up'. (Male, Marketing Account Manager, Scotland)

This final comment is most revealing and suggests the alcohol industry and marketers acknowledge the need to be more socially responsible. However, another motivation for this may be to safeguard industry interests.

7.5.2 Qualitative focus groups with young people

The findings from the focus group research, carried out for stage 2 of the project, offered insights into the attitudes towards alcohol and alcohol marketing, and brand awareness of young people.

Awareness and attitudes

Several participants displayed a sophisticated level of consumer awareness of alcohol including cost, availability, % alcohol by volume (ABV), brand awareness and brand image. Most knew the cost of a wide range of alcoholic drinks and could identify several of the brands shown to them.

'The two vodkas are dead strong cos they are 37%'. (Male, 13, ABC1, Non-Drinker)

'For the tonic wine its £5.15 for a full bottle and for a half bottle, its £2.89 in my local shop'. (Female, 14, ABC1, Drinker)

In terms of awareness of, and exposure to, alcohol marketing most participants were able to name adverts or forms of alcohol marketing they had seen. Both males and females commonly named TV adverts, football adverts or sponsorship of football teams, including shirt sponsorship, as channels in which they had seen alcohol marketing. Several participants also mentioned exposure to marketing in new media channels, seeing adverts on websites and pop-ups featuring alcohol brands. One group of participants reported the use of alcohol brand logos as 'skins' to decorate mobile phone screensavers or web profile pages. Print media, including newspapers and magazines, was also mentioned, as were price promotions in shops and supermarkets. Some participants were

even able to name specific deals currently available in shops in their area. The findings reinforced the comments made by advertising executives concerning the nature of, and channels involved in, alcohol marketing and the fact that young people were being exposed to such communications. Furthermore, when considering the regulatory codes summarised in Figure 7.1 it is apparent that youth are being reached by a considerable amount of alcohol marketing activity.

'In the Strongbow advert they go round this bar and ask men to drink it and they all say it's great'. (Males, 13, ABC1, Non-Drinker)

'Rangers and Celtic are sponsored by Carling. It would be hard to find someone who didn't know what Carling was'. (Males, 13, ABC1, Non-Drinker)

'On the internet I get pop ups for alcohol, and if you go to the Rangers website, or Celtic then a Carling sign comes up'. (Females, 14, ABC1, Drinker)

Branding

Brand image was important to personal identity and peer acceptance, with some branded vodkas conveying a desirable brand image because of the association with humour, coolness and also due to their strength, and certain alcopop brands viewed as undesirable because of the association with younger drinkers. The marketing of particular brands contributed to their image amongst young participants, with the use of humour and material that appeals to youth being viewed as appealing. This would appear to contravene codes of practice, which forbid any alcohol marketing activity that appeals to under-18s or reflects youth culture. Key issues in brand selection were image, strength

and value for money, with brands with a higher % ABV, i.e. those most likely to offer 'a buzz', being the preferred option. Image was very important in terms of how young drinkers are viewed by their peers, with the selected drink acting almost as an extension of their self-identity. The importance of image cannot be underestimated, with young people claiming that they would not be seen drinking certain brands; they instead opted for desirable brands, which had a good image and fit better with their self-image, self-identity and image amongst their peers. These findings are supported by literature that in recognizing the links between branding and emotion, has demonstrated that emotional messages are better able to gain consumer's attention (Ray and Batra, 1983) and encourage deeper processing of the message (Dutta and Kanungo, 1975). People tend to buy products or engage in behaviours to satisfy not only functional, objective needs, but also emotional, symbolic needs such as self-enhancement and group identification (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Park et al. 1987). Our findings suggest that the participants often favoured brands that appealed to them on emotional levels, and fulfilled aspirations in terms of image and group identification.

Several of the brands preferred had various urban myths or stories attached to them that seemed to be passed around by word of mouth or in Internet chat rooms.

'Smirnoff vodka is cool'. (Female, 13, C2DE, Drinker)

'I prefer WKD to Bacardi Breezer. It's just because most people would probably rather drink that one and be seen with it, it's got a better image. I've seen them advertised, the WKD, the adverts are good, dead funny'. (Females, 14, ABC1, Drinker)

'With Bacardi Breezer it's too embarrassing. It's like walking about with all your friends and you look like an idiot'. (Female, 13, C2DE, Drinker)

'It's just like a tradition thing where you see all these people drinking Buckfast and you think, oh, that must be nice'. (Female, 14, ABC1, Drinker)

7.6 Discussion

Although our findings offer an interesting insight into the issue of alcohol marketing and young people in the UK it must be recognised that qualitative research has some limitations. Given the small sample size, non-random sampling technique employed and the sample bias towards drinkers, it is not possible to make generalisations to the larger population about the findings. Nonetheless our findings are consistent with the existing evidence based on the extent, nature and influence of alcohol marketing on youth drinking behaviour (Meier *et al.* 2008).

The findings from the qualitative research indicate that alcohol marketing is both dynamic and evident across a wide range of marketing channels, which is consistent with existing literature (Jernigan, 2001). The focus group research revealed a high level of awareness of alcohol marketing across several channels by participants, who exhibited well developed brand attitudes. Participants demonstrated clear brand preferences relating to brand image amongst peers, for example, preferring WKD to Bacardi Breezer due to its image and thus demonstrating the importance that brand image holds for young drinkers (Casswell and Zhang, 1998). The participants related the image of certain brands to the way in which they were marketed, for instance, the way that WKD is advertised appeared to influence the brands image. As the WKD brand is marketed using irreverent

'school-boy' type humour its appeal to those under the legal drinking age should come as little surprise. The extant literature suggests that branding is one of the marketers most advanced emotional tools (Murphy, 1987; de Chernatony, 1993). For young people quick and clear brand identification can make the buying and consumption of risky products such as alcohol easier, and branding acts as a guarantee that 'this product is for you' (de Chernatony, 1993). The marketing of a brand such as WKD using irreverent humour and youth language arguably enables this process of brand identification.

Young people had a particularly high awareness of, and exposure to, sports sponsorship. This seemed to impact upon attitudes towards the brands involved in such activities, which generates unease at the role of alcohol in sports sponsorship (Hill and Casswell, 2001). That youth displayed sophisticated consumer knowledge of alcohol marketing demonstrates that they are widely exposed to alcohol marketing and that it influences their attitudes and behaviour (Hastings *et al.* 2005). Brands that use particular marketing strategies that appeal to youth, such as playground humour and use of youth language, were found to generate particularly strong and identifiable brand awareness and image.

From the high levels of awareness of alcohol marketing and the detailed knowledge displayed by participants, some as young as 13 years of age, it is apparent that at least some young people below the legal drinking age are exposed to alcohol marketing and that such marketing could have an effect on their attitudes and behaviour. This is consistent with previous research that suggests a small but significant impact on behaviour (Stacy *et al.* 2004; Snyder *et al.* 2006; Collins *et al.* 2007). Despite these, and similar findings, debate continues on the strength of the evidence base linking alcohol marketing with behaviour. However, there can be no question that these levels of

awareness are disconcerting, with public health experts and lobbyists calling for stronger regulation. Given that some marketing executives interviewed acknowledged that some marketing tactics flout the spirit, if not the letter, of the law, consolidating the regulatory environment would seem an appropriate response. This is reinforced by the focus group findings which demonstrate the high awareness of alcohol marketing across a number of channels by young people, with some of this marketing featuring references to youth culture, or containing adolescent or juvenile behaviour, which youth may find appealing (Aitken *et al.* 1988b; Ofcom and ASA, 2007). Furthermore, much of this alcohol marketing activity occurs in new media channels (Jernigan, 2001), which remain largely unregulated by existing regulatory codes. This suggests that the regulation of alcohol marketing in the UK needs to be re-examined, as it is failing in its goal to adequately protect children (Alcohol Concern, 2007a). These codes, therefore, appear unsatisfactory on three levels:

- 1. They fail to provide effective cover for all forms of alcohol marketing such as new media and sponsorship.
- 2. They do not reflect current alcohol marketing activity and, moreover, lack an appropriate monitoring system, which means that there is little in the way of pre-vetting.
- 3. They fail to act as a suitable deterrent to bad marketing practices, largely a consequence of weak enforcement and lack of stringent penalties (Casswell and Maxwell, 2005; BMA, 2009). This may result in some alcohol marketing activity that breaks both the spirit and indeed the letter of the codes, although proper evaluation of the effectiveness of the current regulatory system is lacking.

For effective regulation of alcohol marketing to be achieved there is a requirement for a strong and sound evidence base to inform the regulatory framework. The findings from critical social marketing research such as this contributes to the evidence base and can inform upstream social marketing efforts to influence and assist policy makers in constructing effective regulation of alcohol marketing. Indeed findings from this study have contributed to discussions in the European Alcohol and Health Forum, and the House of Commons Health Committee in the UK, demonstrating the contribution of critical social marketing research to the upstream environment.

A stronger regulatory framework may be required, one in which young people are protected from exposure to, and involvement with, alcohol marketing (Casswell and Maxwell, 2005; BMA, 2009). Indeed some advertising executives interviewed thought that statutory regulation may be forthcoming. Effective independent monitoring and prevetting of marketing executions, the application of regulations across all marketing channels, not just broadcast media (TV, radio and print), limitations on the amount of exposure to and not just on the content of alcohol marketing and stronger penalties that act as a proper deterrent to breaking the rules such as a ban on marketing brands for a set period for breaches of regulations, are just some suggestions that may strengthen the regulatory system.

7.7 Conclusion

Research findings such as those offered here can and should be used to inform debate and development of policy and regulation around alcohol marketing. It is important for marketers to be involved in this evidential process. If marketers and marketing academics reflect upon research findings such as these then improvements to marketing principles

and practice, such as taking a more socially responsible approach to alcohol marketing, could result. Such a process could be used to develop marketing theory to ensure that the potential societal impact of marketing activity is properly assessed and considered when designing and executing marketing campaigns. The involvement of the marketing sector in this process would correspond with long established marketing academic traditions (Wilkie and Moore, 2003). Critical studies of marketing activity can help to contribute towards the social marketing and critical marketing paradigms and also provide avenues towards finding intelligent solutions (Gordon *et al.* 2007). The research demonstrates that critical social marketing brings an important dimension to the debate surrounding alcohol issues and the regulation of alcohol marketing.

7.8 Linking Narrative

Chapter eight contains the fourth publication from this PhD, which details the findings from the analysis of the data collected at wave one. The article entitled 'Assessing the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing on young people's drinking - Cross sectional data findings' was published in the journal *Addiction Research and Theory* which has an impact score of 0.815 in 2008 (Thomson Reuters ISI, 2009).

CHAPTER EIGHT: Assessing the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing on young people's drinking - Cross sectional data findings (Publication four)

Gordon, R., Harris, F., MacKintosh, A.M., Moodie, C. (2011) Assessing the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing on young people's drinking - Cross sectional data findings. *Addiction Research and Theory*, 19(1): 66-75.

8.1 Abstract

As alcohol marketing remains a highly debated and politically charged issue we examine the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing on alcohol initiation and drinking behaviour among youth (12 to 14 years). Cross-sectional data comes from a cohort of 920 second year school pupils from Scotland. Regression models, with multiple control variables, were employed to examine the relationship between awareness of, and involvement with, a range of alcohol marketing communications, and drinking behaviour and intentions. Marketing variables were constructed for 15 different types of alcohol marketing, including marketing in new media. Drinking behaviour measures included drinking status and future drinking intentions. Significant associations were found between awareness of, and involvement with, alcohol marketing and drinking behaviour and intentions to drink alcohol in the next year. Given these associations our study suggests the need for a revision of alcohol policy: one limiting youth exposure to these seemingly ubiquitous marketing communications.

8.2 Introduction

Alcohol consumption in the UK has been steadily increasing since the mid-1990s (HMRC, 2007), with this trend not confined to adults but extending to youth as well. Indeed, the amount of alcohol young people consumed increased between 2000 and 2006, with increases of 43.4% for 11-13 year old boys and 82.6% for 11-13 year old girls

(Office for National Statistics, 2007). And it is not just the amount of alcohol that youths drink that is a cause for concern, but also the frequency, and concomitant harm. For instance, for 15-16 year olds in the UK the estimated average level of alcohol last consumed, levels of binge drinking and associated harm are among the highest in Europe (Hibell *et al.* 2009).

These alarming trends are invariably accompanied by multiple health and social problems, which elicit high levels of public concern (HM Government 2007). For example, a 20% increase in hospital admissions among youth due to alcohol use has been reported (HES, 2007) and nearly half of all 10 to 17 year old regular drinkers have admitted to some sort of criminal activity or disorderly behaviour (Home Office, 2004). Also, in the longer term, behaviours such as binge drinking among young people is a predictor of alcohol dependency in later life (Jefferis *et al.* 2005) and is associated with coronary heart disease, liver cirrhosis and stroke (Gutjahr *et al.* 2001; Britton and McPherson 2001; Leon and McCambridge 2006).

The extent and nature of alcohol harm in the UK has stimulated a proliferation of research into risk factors potentially influencing adolescent drinking behaviour. One factor identified is that of alcohol marketing (Meier *et al.* 2008). The alcohol market in the UK is considerable, estimated to be worth in excess of 41.6 billion pounds in 2007 (Keynote 2008), with the trend towards consolidation in the alcohol market leading to the emergence of global brands with colossal marketing budgets. This is exemplified by the estimated 300 million pounds spent annually on alcohol advertising in the UK (WARC 2008); with total marketing spend surpassing 800 million pounds per annum (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit 2003). The latter figure shows that much alcohol marketing goes

beyond conventional marketing channels, such as television, print media and outdoor advertising, to 'below the line' channels such as sponsorship, new media and viral marketing (Jernigan *et al.* 2001). However, there is currently a gap in research focusing on these and new electronic forms of alcohol marketing.

Research assessing alcohol marketing and drinking behaviour has taken two principal forms: econometric and consumer research. Econometric studies analyse the relationship between overall levels of alcohol consumption, typically using sales data, and overall levels of advertising or marketing expenditure. Most econometric studies suggest alcohol marketing to have little or no effect on overall consumption levels (Duffy 1991; Nelson 2003). However, econometric studies typically suffer from a number of methodological weaknesses (Hastings et al. 2005) and, importantly, provide little understanding of segmented market groups, such as young people. Consumer studies use individuals as the unit of analysis and examine how knowledge, attitudes and behaviour are influenced by exposure to alcohol marketing. Unlike most econometric data, consumer research does suggest that alcohol marketing influences drinking behaviour, with recent systematic reviews of the alcohol marketing literature confirming this and moving the debate on from one of plausibility to veracity (Meier et al. 2008; Smith and Foxcroft 2009; Anderson et al. 2009b). Research in the United States also suggests that youth are overexposed to alcohol marketing, indicating that the volume, as well as the nature and content of marketing necessitates some attention (Jernigan et al. 2007; CAMY 2008).

Our research addresses two important gaps in the literature. First, it assesses the cumulative impact of all alcohol marketing communications on adolescents' current drinking and future drinking intentions by examining new as well as conventional media.

Second, since most consumer research examining the relationship between adolescent drinking and alcohol marketing has been conducted in the US, this study presents much needed research assessing this relationship in the UK. Our research hypotheses are that the more aware and appreciative of alcohol marketing that young people are, the more likely they are to have consumed alcohol (H1), and the more likely they are to think that they will drink alcohol in the next year (H2).

8.3 Methods

8.3.1 Design

Cross-sectional data is used from the Assessing the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking study, a two-stage cohort questionnaire-based design adapted from a tobacco marketing study in the UK (MacFadyen et al. 2001). The questionnaire was informed by a preliminary research phase, which included an audit of alcohol marketing communications, in-depth interviews with stakeholders and qualitative focus groups with 13-15 year olds (Gordon et al. 2010b). Questionnaire design and development reflected findings from this earlier research phase and involved an extensive, iterative piloting process to ensure the acceptability, appropriateness and comprehension of questionnaire content, and also that respondents could accurately reflect their views and experiences without constraining responses that can be caused due to not understanding questions or response categories (Kinnear and Taylor 1996; Fink and Kosecoff, 1998). Two piloting procedures were used, focus groups with four or five respondents per group (n = 16) and observed interviews (n = 12). These were conducted in two stages to guide questionnaire content and comprehension. The final survey involved an interview-administered questionnaire measuring awareness, appreciation and

involvement with alcohol marketing, and a self-completion questionnaire measuring drinking and associated behaviours.

8.3.2 Sample

An information pack was sent out to the homes of all second year (12 to 14 years, mean age 13 years) pupils attending schools in three local authority areas in the West of Scotland. These packs contained an information sheet and parental and respondent consent forms, with an incentive of a small gift token offered for participation. This generated a sample of 920 respondents. In terms of sample characteristics, the achieved sample was relatively evenly distributed by social grade based on the occupation of the head of the household [46.3% (n = 426) ABC1 (middle class) and 53.3% (n = 491) C2DE (working class)] (Wilmshurst and MacKay, 1999) and gender [52.9% (n = 487) female and 47.1% (n = 433) male]. Sample ethnicity was predominantly White 93.3% (n = 858), with 3.3% (n = 30) identifying themselves as Asian, 1.3% Mixed race (n = 12), 1.2% black (n = 11), 0.1% Chinese (n = 1) and 0.4% other (n = 4). For religious identification most of sample were Christian 62.4% (n = 574) or had no religiosity 32% (n = 294), with 3.7% Muslim (n = 34), 0.5% Sikh (n = 5), 0.2% Hindu (n = 2), 0.1% Buddhist (n = 1) and 0.4% other (n = 4). 2

8.3.3 Procedure

The fieldwork comprised face-to-face interviews conducted in-home, by professional market researchers, accompanied by a self-completion questionnaire to gather more sensitive data on alcohol behaviour. Confidentiality and anonymity of personal data were assured. Parental or guardian permission and participant consent were secured prior to

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² Note that the ethnicity and religion categories were merged to assist with the analysis due to the low numbers within the sample in certain categories.

each interview. To limit socially desirable responses, due to parental or guardian presence and given the sensitive nature of the research topic, numbered show-cards were used for much of the interviewer-administered questionnaire. Alcohol consumption was measured via a self completion questionnaire, which respondents were instructed to place in a sealed envelope following completion and hand back to the researcher at the end of the interview. Ethical approval was obtained from the University of Stirling's Marketing Department Ethics Committee and interviewers adhered to the Market Research Society code of conduct.

8.3.4 Measures

Demographic information

Demographic control variables measured included *age, gender, social grade* (based upon occupation of head of household); *ethnicity* and *religion*.

Drinking behaviour and future drinking intentions

Drinking status was assessed with the question: 'Have you ever had a proper alcoholic drink - a whole drink, not just a sip?' Those who had tried a whole alcohol drink, and not just a sip, were classified as drinkers, and those who had not done so as non-drinkers. Future drinking intentions were assessed via a single item asking: 'Do you think you will drink alcohol at any time during the next year', with the following response categories; 'definitely not', 'probably not', 'probably yes', 'definitely yes' and 'I'm not sure'.

Initiation into drinking was recorded by asking respondents: age of first alcoholic drink (in years). The number of alcoholic units last consumed was calculated by estimating the amount in millilitres of each type of alcoholic drink consumed and the ABV of each

drink, based on responses to the following: type(s) of alcohol consumed (e.g. beer, wine, vodka), drinking vessel used (recorded using a visual), the amount of each drink consumed (more than one full bottle/can/glass, one full bottle/can/glass, 3/4, 1/2, 1/4 or less than 1/4 of a bottle/can/glass).

Awareness of alcohol marketing

Alcohol marketing awareness was assessed across 15 types of marketing, identified from formative research (Gordon *et al.* 2010b), which were grouped using principal components analysis. Respondents were asked if they had seen any alcohol marketing in each of the channels listed (Yes/No/Don't Know) and if so what brands they could recall seeing marketed in this way. Respondents were also given the opportunity to record any other marketing channels not mentioned.

Involvement in alcohol marketing

To assess *involvement* in alcohol marketing, respondents were asked whether they had: received free samples of alcohol products, received free gifts showing alcohol brand logos, received special price offers for alcohol, received promotional mail or emails mentioning alcohol brands, owned clothing or other alcohol branded items, looked at web sites for alcohol brands, downloaded mobile phone or computer screensavers featuring alcohol brands and used social networking sites containing alcohol brands or logos (Yes/No/Don't know).

Control variables

A range of control variables, suggested in the literature, were included in the survey and the analyses. Parental attitudes towards drinking and alcohol consumption were assessed using the following measures: drinking behaviour (whether mother or father drank, or they did not have/see their mother or father); perceived parental drinking approval (whether they thought that their parents would think it was OK to drink alcohol to see what it was like, or they didn't know). Similar questions were asked in respect to siblings drinking behaviour and perceived approval, and also peers' drinking behaviour and perceived approval. Respondents were also asked, as far as they knew, how many of their friends drank alcohol at least once a week ('all of them', 'most of them', about half of them', a few of them', 'none of them' or 'I'm not sure'). The latter variables were recoded as categorical to maximise the sample size for the statistical analyses by retaining cases with responses of 'don't know' or 'not stated' (the categories were 'few or none', 'about half/most/all' and 'don't know/not stated'). Liking of school ('dislike school a lot', 'dislike school a little', 'neither like nor dislike school', 'like school a little' or 'like school a lot') and rating of school work compared to other pupils ('a lot worse', 'a bit worse', 'about the same', 'a bit better' or 'a lot better') were also assessed. Liking of adverts in general and alcohol adverts in particular were also assessed ('I like (alcohol) adverts a lot, 'I like (alcohol) adverts a little', 'I neither like nor dislike (alcohol) adverts', 'I dislike (alcohol) adverts a little' and 'I dislike (alcohol) adverts a lot'). Finally, age was included as a control variable because the year group included adolescents ranged between 12 and 14 years and bivariate analysis revealed a significant association between age and drinking status.

8.4 Analyses

Bivariate analyses were conducted to examine relationships between the data and inform the multivariate analyses. Principal components analyses were performed on (i) whether sibling(s)/parents/friends consider it OK to try drinking to see what it is like, (ii) types of alcohol communications items and (iii) involvement in alcohol marketing.³ The principal components were extracted using varimax rotation with the criteria of having eigenvalues greater than one and factor loadings greater than 0.4, together with consideration of the scree plot. Composite scores were computed, based on the factor loadings, and used in the subsequent logistic and linear regression analyses.

Two logistic regressions were performed with drinking status as the dependent variable. The two models examined the association between (1) drinking status and the number of marketing channels aware of and (2) drinking status and types of alcohol marketing aware of and involvement in alcohol marketing. In each, a wide range of other variables were controlled for. The choice of control variables was informed by both the literature and earlier bivariate analysis. Variables were entered in the following blocks using forward likelihood ratio: (1) how many of their friends drink, whether their mum, dad and sibling(s) drink and perceived prevalence of drinking among 13, 14 and 15 year olds; (2) demographics (age, sex, social grade, ethnicity and religion); (3) whether they thought sibling(s)/parents/friends would consider it OK to try drinking to see what it is like; (4) liking of school, rating of school work, liking of adverts and liking of alcohol adverts; and (5) the number of alcohol marketing channels respondents were aware of (in the first analysis), types of alcohol marketing communications respondents were aware of and involvement in alcohol marketing (in the second analysis).

Stepwise linear regression analyses were then performed with drinking intentions within the next year as the dependent variable and the following independent variables: the control variables used in the logistic regressions, the number of alcohol marketing

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³ It is considered legitimate to perform principal components analysis on dichotomous variables if the underlying correlation matrix consists of biserial correlations.

channels respondents were aware of (linear regression analysis 1), types of alcohol communications respondents were aware of (linear regression analysis 2) and involvement in alcohol marketing. The levels of significance for including and removing a variable were 0.05 and 0.10 respectively.

8.5 Results

8.5.1 Drinking Behaviour

Of the 318 drinkers, i.e. those who reported having had a proper alcoholic drink, the mean age at which they reported having their first alcoholic drink was 11.1 years (SD = 1.7) and the mean number of alcoholic units consumed the last time they drank was 4.6 (SD = 5.3).

8.5.2 Alcohol Marketing Awareness

Table 8.1 illustrates respondents' awareness of alcohol marketing channels. For the entire sample awareness was highest for TV advertising (77%), branded clothing (66%), sport sponsorship (61%) and price promotions (60%). For electronic communications, approximately a quarter of the sample (24%) were aware of mobile phone/computer screensavers. Drinkers indicated higher awareness of alcohol marketing in many of the channels including TV/cinema, newspapers/magazines, in-store, price promotions, sports sponsorship, screensavers, social networking sites and unusual product design, see Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: Adolescents' Awareness of Alcohol Marketing by Drinking Status

	Ads and promotions							
1	TV/Cinema	77	707	82	262	74	439	<.01
2	Posters/Billboards	53	488	56	178	52	307	ns
3	Newspapers/Magazines	32	298	39	123	29	173	<.01
4	In-store	55	510	62	196	52	311	<.01
5	Price promotions	60	554	67	214	57	336	<.01
	Sports-related							
6	Sports Sponsorship	61	565	68	217	58	343	<.01
		Tot	al	Drink	ers	Non-dr	inkers	
		N = 9	920	N = 3	318	N = 594		
								Р
		%		%		%		value
Alc	ohol Marketing Channels*	(valid)	N	(valid)	N	(valid)	N	(X ² test)
7.10	Clothing	66	607	70	223	64	381	ns
,	Electronic communications	00	007	70	223	04	301	113
8	E-mail	5	47	7	21	4	26	ns
9	Websites		60	7	22	6	37	
9		,	60	/	22	O	31	ns
10	Mobile Phone/Computer Screensaver	24	224	31	99	21	124	<.01
11	Social networking sites	12	113	22	70	7	43	<.001
	Arts-related							
12	Music Sponsorship	34	314	34	107	35	205	ns
13	TV/Film Sponsorship	30	278	33	105	29	170	ns
14	Celebrity endorsement	15	136	17	54	14	82	ns
15	Product design	20	180	24	76	17	103	<.05
Mean number (std dev) of marketing channels aware of**		5.5 (2.8)	6.2 (2	.77)	5.2 (2.7)	

^{*}Categorisation of alcohol marketing communication channels was derived from a Principal Components Analysis reported under Multivariate Analyses

8.5.3 Involvement in Alcohol Marketing

The most common type of alcohol marketing involvement was ownership of alcohol branded clothing (45%), free branded gifts (11%) and price promotions (10%), see Table 8.2. Significantly more drinkers reported involvement in each form of alcohol marketing and, correspondingly, more non-drinkers reported no involvement in any form of alcohol marketing.

^{**}One way Analysis of Variance, F (1, 910) =27.511, p<.001

Table 8.2: Type of Promotional Activity Participated in, or Used by, Drinkers and Non-drinkers

	Total N = 920		Drinkers N = 318		Non-drinkers N = 594		
Promotions	% (valid)	N	% (valid)	N	% (valid)	N	P value (X ² test)
Free samples	3	29	6	19	2	10	<.001
Free branded gifts	11	101	14	45	9	56	<.05
Price promotions	10	90	13	42	8	47	<.05
Promotional mail/e-mails	8	71	11	34	6	36	<.05
Branded clothing	45	418	51	162	43	254	<.05
Websites	4	41	7	23	3	18	<.01
Mobile phone/computer screensaver	7	64	10	33	5	31	<.01
Social networking sites	8	72	14	45	5	27	<.001
None of these	40	364	31	100	44	261	<.001

8.5.4 Associations with drinking status

The first logistic regression model examines the association between drinking status and the number of marketing channels adolescents were aware of, after controlling for the effects of the control variables listed in the measures section. It was found that being aware of more alcohol marketing channels and liking alcohol advertisements increased the odds of being a drinker by 12% and 31% respectively, see Table 8.3. Having sibling(s) who drink alcohol, believing that at least half their friends drink alcohol and perceiving that parents/sibling(s)/friends would consider it OK to try drinking alcohol to see what it's like, also increased the odds of being a drinker⁴. The odds of being a drinker were decreased with greater liking of school⁵.

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⁴ Owing to the large number of variables included in the statistical analyses, missing data and some 'don't know' responses reduced the sample sizes. To maximize the numbers of respondents represented in the analyses, 'don't know' responses were included as categories in the analyses where possible.

⁵ The interpretation of some of the results might appear counter-intuitive in relation to whether the OR values are less than or greater than one, owing to the direction in which individual variables were coded in the questionnaire.

Table 8.3: Logistic Regression of Association between Awareness (Amount of) and Appreciation of Alcohol Marketing and Drinking Status

Dependent variable = Drinking status (1= had a proper drink, 0=not had a proper drink)

Base: All respondents

gnificance
grillicarice
<0.05
٧٥.٥٥
<0.01
ns
110
ns
<0.001
< 0.001
ns
ns
ns
ns
ns
ns
<0.001
0.04
<0.01
<0.01
70.01
<0.01

Hierarchical Logistic regression controlled for Block 1 - drinking among siblings, close friends, mum and dad, perceptions of drinking prevalence among 13, 14 and 15 year olds, Block 2 - gender, age, social grade, ethnic group, religion, Block 3 - perceptions of siblings/parents/friends' views on whether ok to try drinking, Block 4 - liking of school, perception of own school work relative to others in their year, liking of adverts in general, liking of alcohol adverts and Block 5 - amount of alcohol marketing aware of. 864 cases analysed, 56 missing cases. Nagelkerke R square = 0.341.

Cases correctly classified = 76.5%. 54% of drinkers and 88% of non-drinkers were correctly classified

In logistic regression model two the total number of alcohol marketing channels of which adolescents were aware was replaced by the types of alcohol marketing channels of which they were aware and involvement in alcohol marketing was also included.

Greater awareness of advertisements and promotions and greater liking of alcohol adverts increased the odds of being a drinker by 137% and 28% respectively, see Table 8.4. However, the confidence interval for awareness of advertisements and promotions was very wide. Involvement in electronic marketing (including having looked at a website for alcohol brands or about drinking; downloaded a mobile phone or computer screensaver containing an alcohol brand name or logo; and used a web home page) increased the odds of being a drinker by 300%. However, the confidence interval for electronic marketing was also extremely wide. Having siblings who drink, having friends (half or more) who drink alcohol, and perceiving that their parents/siblings/friends would consider it ok to try alcohol to see what it is like also increased the odds of being a drinker. Having a better liking of school decreased the odds of being a drinker.

8.5.5 Future Drinking Intentions

Of the 912 who reported their intentions concerning drinking alcohol in the next year, 29% (n=262) indicated that they would definitely not drink, 25% (n=231) that they would probably not, 16% (n=150) that they were not sure, 23% (n=212) that they probably would and 6% (n=57) that they definitely would drink alcohol in the next year. The first linear regression model, examining the association between future drinking intentions and awareness of number of alcohol marketing channels, included 860 respondents, was significant (F = 42.660, F = 42.660, F = 42.660, and accounted for 39% of the variance.

Table 8.4: Logistic Regression of Association between Awareness (Types of) and Appreciation of Alcohol Marketing and Drinking Status

Dependent variable = Drinking status (1= had a proper drink, 0=not had a proper drink) Base: All respondents

	N	Odds Ratio	95.0% for Odds		Significance
Cibling deinking					-O OF
Sibling drinking Sibling(s) do not drink	419	1.00			<0.05
Sibling(s) drink	268	1.651	1.126	2.421	<0.05
No sibling(s)	128	1.134	0.693	1.855	ns
Don't know if sibling(s)	.20		0.000	1.000	
drink	49	0.798	0.373	1.707	ns
Close friends drinking					<0.001
Few or none drink	584	1.000			10.001
About half/most/all drink	127	3.612	2.252	5.793	<0.001
Not sure/not stated	153	0.989	0.633	1.543	ns
Mother's drinking					ns
Mum does not drink	287	1.000			115
Mum drinks	496	1.323	0.897	1.952	ns
Not sure/not stated	73	1.284	0.669	2.466	ns
No mum/don't see mum	8	1.355	0.201	9.128	ns
Ethnic Group					
White	808	1.00			
Asian or Asian	000	1.00			
British/mixed/other	56	0.488	0.182	1.309	ns
Perceptions of others' views on trying					
alcohol (-ve = not ok, +ve = ok)	864	1.439	1.323	1.565	<0.001
1 7 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1					
Liking of school (1=dislike a lot, 5=like a lot)	864	0.834	0.727	0.958	<0.05
	001	0.001	0.727	0.000	νσ
Liking of alcohol adverts (1=dislike a					
lot, 5=like a lot)	864	1.279	1.084	1.508	<0.01
Awareness of alcohol advertising (in					
TV/cinema, press, outdoor such as					
billboards, in-store and special price	001	0.674	4.604	4.000	
offers)	864	2.374	1.301	4.333	<0.01
Participation in electronic alcohol					
marketing	864	4.000	1.485	10.776	<0.01

Hierarchical Logistic regression controlled for Block 1 - drinking among siblings, close friends, mum and dad, perceptions of drinking prevalence among 13, 14 and 15 year olds Block 2 - gender, age, social grade, ethnic group, religion, Block 3 - perceptions of siblings/parents/friends' views on whether ok to try drinking, Block 4 - liking of school, perception of own school work relative to others in their year, liking of adverts in general, liking of alcohol adverts and Block 5 - forms of alcohol marketing aware of and participated in.

864 cases analysed, 56 missing cases.

Nagelkerke R square = 0.351.

Cases correctly classified = 77%. 54.5% of drinkers and 89% of non-drinkers were correctly classified

The more alcohol marketing channels respondents were aware of and the better their liking of alcohol advertisements, the more likely they were to think that they would drink alcohol in the next year, see Table 8.5. A greater intention to drink was also significantly associated with greater perception that others consider it OK to try drinking, having at least half of their friends drinking, having siblings who drink (compared with siblings who don't drink), and being non-religious (compared with being Christian). A greater liking of school was associated with lower intention to drink alcohol in the next year, see Table 8.5.

The second linear regression model, examining the association between future drinking intentions and types of alcohol marketing channel, included 860 respondents, was significant (F = 39.795, df = 14, 846, p<.001) and accounted for 39% of the variance. Better liking of alcohol advertisements and greater awareness of alcohol advertising and promotions (including adverts on television, in the cinema, newspapers or magazines, posters/billboards, signs in shops, and special price offers) were each significantly associated with stronger intention to drink alcohol in the next year.

Additionally, involvement in electronic marketing was significantly associated with greater intention to drink alcohol in the next year, see Table 8.6. As in the first linear regression, greater intention to drink was also significantly associated with greater perception that others consider it OK to try drinking, having at least half of their friends drinking, having siblings who drink (compared with siblings who don't drink), and being non-religious (compared with being Christian). A greater liking of school was associated with lower intention to drink alcohol in the next year.

Table 8.5: Association between the Number of Alcohol Marketing Channels Adolescents were Aware of and their Reported Intention to Drink Alcohol in the Next Year.

Dependent variable = Intention to drink alcohol in the next year (1= definitely will not, 5=definitely will drink) Base: All respondents

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<u> </u>	
	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	-0.178	1.087		-0.164	ns
Perceptions of others' views on trying alcohol (-ve = not ok, +ve = ok)	0.240	0.018	0.393	13.568	<0.001
About half/most or all friends drink	0.467	0.102	0.129	4.594	<0.001
Sibling(s) drink(s)	0.345	0.081	0.124	4.250	<0.001
Doesn't have siblings	0.081	0.103	0.022	0.781	ns
Mother drinks	0.153	0.087	0.059	1.768	ns
Doesn't know if mother drinks	0.206	0.134	0.044	1.529	ns
Father drinks	0.130	0.083	0.049	1.556	ns
Age	0.156	0.083	0.051	1.885	ns
Ethnic group: non white	-0.259	0.149	-0.049	-1.742	ns
Religion: none	0.226	0.075	0.082	3.013	<0.01
Liking of school (1 = dislike a lot, 5 = like a lot)	-0.094	0.029	-0.090	-3.219	<0.01
Liking of alcohol ads(1 = dislike a lot, 5=like a lot)	0.156	0.034	0.127	4.564	<0.001
Number of channels of alcohol marketing aware of	0.054	0.013	0.118	4.290	<0.001

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Table 8.6: Association between the Types of Alcohol Marketing Channels Adolescents were Aware of and their Reported Intention to Drink Alcohol in the Next Year

Dependent variable = Intention to drink alcohol in the next year (1= definitely will not, 5=definitely will drink)

Base: All respondents

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	0.012	1.084		0.011	ns
Perceptions of others' views on trying alcohol (-ve = not ok, +ve = ok)	0.241	0.018	0.395	13.662	<0.001
About half/most or all friends drink	0.456	0.102	0.126	4.475	<0.001
Sibling(s) drink(s)	0.341	0.081	0.122	4.204	<0.001
Doesn't have siblings	0.086	0.103	0.024	0.837	ns
Mother drinks	0.158	0.087	0.061	1.825	ns
Doesn't know if mother drinks	0.216	0.135	0.047	1.605	ns
Father drinks	0.133	0.083	0.051	1.603	ns
Age	0.147	0.083	0.048	1.778	ns
Ethnic group: non white	-0.274	0.149	-0.052	-1.845	ns
Religion: none	0.224	0.075	0.081	2.994	<0.01
Liking of school (1 = dislike a lot, 5 = like a lot)	-0.094	0.029	-0.090	-3.225	<0.01
Liking of alcohol ads(1 = dislike a lot, 5=like a lot)	0.149	0.034	0.121	4.328	<0.001
Awareness of alcohol advertising (in TV/cinema, press, outdoor such as billboards, in-store and special price offers)	0.373	0.121	0.085	3.079	<0.01
Participation in electronic alcohol marketing	0.552	0.211	0.074	2.610	<0.01

8.6 Discussion

The findings support both hypotheses as awareness and appreciation of alcohol marketing was significantly associated with both being a drinker and intending to drink within the next year; consistent with the extant literature. We include channels for which there is very little research such as new media and different types of alcohol sponsorship, with most research typically focusing on advertising in conventional media (TV, radio, print) (Snyder *et al.* 2006) or alcohol branded merchandise (Fisher *et al.* 2007; McClure *et al.* 2009) in isolation. Indeed, of the thirteen studies included in a recent systematic review (Anderson *et al.* 2009b) only two examined the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing across several channels. More specifically, Ellickson *et al.* (2005) considered TV and magazine advertising and in store promotions and Collins *et al.* (2007) considered TV, radio and magazine advertising, in store promotions and ownership of branded merchandise. Our research, albeit cross sectional in nature, therefore helps to illustrate the extent, nature and reach of contemporary alcohol marketing.

The findings also help reveal the breadth of alcohol marketing channels that young people are aware of, or involved with. Importantly, for many of the forms of alcohol marketing, drinkers had higher awareness than non-drinkers. That almost half the sample had alcohol branded clothing (45%) is likely due to ownership of alcohol branded football shirts, with the two major football teams in Scotland sponsored by Carling; who paid many millions of pounds for the privilege. Exemplifying the value of sports sponsorship, which according to internal tobacco industry documents was more highly prized than some forms of mass media advertising (Anderson *et al.* 2006). Carling generated the highest level of awareness amongst our respondents and indeed has now become the most popular lager brand in the UK (Euromonitor 2008). Coors, who own

Carling, has taken the decision to voluntarily remove the name from children's football shirts two years ahead of the deadline set by the Portman Group to do so. Two important points must be noted here however. First, having established the most popular UK alcohol brand Coors have already achieved their primary goal and therefore the removal of the Carling brand name from the Rangers and Celtic team shirts is of little value to those youth who associate Carling, and perhaps alcohol in general, with sport, glamour and wealth. Second, Coors only elected to remove this sponsorship following the Portman Group's decision to do so, which suggests the use of stakeholder marketing, i.e. portraying the company as a responsible organisation concerned with public health, has replaced the more overt marketing communications that enabled the brand to be so successful (Baggot, 2006).

Among the young people in the study, one in ten indicated that they had participated in price promotions for alcohol, which raises further concerns given that our sample was between four and six years below the legal age of 18 for the purchase of alcohol. More robust off sales licensing regulations and test purchasing schemes have been introduced by the Licensing Scotland Act 2005 in September 2009, and could serve as useful countermands. The Scottish Government have also published plans to introduce of minimum alcohol unit pricing which may limit alcohol promotions (Scottish Government, 2009).

That participation in electronic alcohol marketing communications was associated with drinking, albeit with a small effect size, is illuminating given the dearth of research examining alcohol marketing in new media channels, which are less well regulated than more conventional marketing channels (British Medical Association 2009). These

findings provide some disquiet when it is considered that 96% of almost 9000 youth in England reported having used the internet in the past week, according to recent research assessing youth gambling behaviour (MORI, 2009).

Our findings also demonstrated the importance of peer and parental influence as control variables. Peer and parental influence were found to be significant in each of our regression analyses, and this is consistent with the literature examining alcohol marketing and drinking behaviour (Petraitis *et al.* 1995; Szalay *et al.* 1996).

There are some study limitations that must be considered. First, cross sectional findings cannot tell us about any impact from marketing on changes in drinking behaviour over time, or indeed drinking initiation. Although our results suggest an association between awareness of, and exposure to, marketing, and drinking behaviour it cannot assess causality. Second, the relatively small sample size and locality of the study may affect the generalisability of the findings. Third despite including a large number of potential confounding effects in our survey, there may be other variables of which we are not aware, or have not been measured. However, the findings are consistent with the existing evidence (Meier *et al.* 2008) and we will be able to assess causality at follow-up.

8.7 Conclusion

With the current regulatory system focused towards controlling content, our findings suggest the more pertinent issue to be level of exposure. Given that the evidence base suggests an association, and indeed a causal link, between alcohol marketing and youth drinking, current regulation does not seem to afford adolescents adequate protection from

alcohol marketing exposure (Anderson 2009). This suggests that the regulation of alcohol marketing, especially new media channels requires serious examination.

CHAPTER NINE: WAVE ONE REVIEW AND WAVE TWO OF THE RESEARCH.

Questionnaire revisions and data collection procedure

In chapter eight the results from the cross sectional data at wave one were presented. This chapter briefly evaluates the research conducted at wave one and the preparation for wave two. The research design stipulated that the second wave be conducted 24 months after the first, using the same methodology. The interim period offered the opportunity to review the research process and make any necessary changes in order to improve the methodology. Following completion of wave one the questionnaire format was reviewed prior to wave two. This included an examination of the responses given to the questions at wave one to check for any issues with question comprehension, or the response categories offered. This process also enabled the identification of any measurements or variables that were omitted at wave one that could be added to the survey for wave two.

9.1 Questionnaire Adjustments for Wave Two

During the review of the wave one survey no major problems were identified with the format of the interview administered questionnaire. However, within the responses given to Q16, which asked "Have you come across any other ways that companies try to attract attention to alcohol", a number of respondents reported awareness of free samples of alcohol products as a marketing channel. For the iteration of the questionnaire survey at follow up an additional question was asked about this marketing channel (Q16p); "free samples of alcohol given in stores or at events and venues." Very minor wording alterations were also made to a number of questions: Q16m had the words 'pop-ups' added to read "Web sites or pop-ups for alcohol brands or that have alcohol brand logos or names on them"; Q16n was re-worded from "Mobile phone or computer screensavers containing pictures of alcohol products or logos" to "Mobile phone texts or screensavers,

or computer screensavers containing references to, or pictures of alcohol products or logos"; and Q160 was altered slightly to reflect contemporary popular social networking sites by adding Facebook "People's profile pages on sites such as bebo, facebook, msn or myspace containing alcohol brand logos" (see Appendix N).

Concerning the self-completion questionnaire (see Appendix O) the majority of the questions seemed to pose no problems in terms of comprehension, response categories offered, and responses given. However, for Q14-19, which asked respondents about the last time they had a drink, some adolescents had misunderstood that they were only required to complete the follow-on question, Q15-19, if they had consumed more than one type of drink the last time they had consumed alcohol. During the interview process it also became apparent that the separate visual (see Appendix P) showing drinking vessels that was to be used when answering Q14-19 was sometimes not referred to by respondents.

Table 9.1: Sample for Wave Two Piloting Process 1-1 Interviews

Interview	Gender	Age	Social Grade	Drinking Status
1	Male	15	C2DE	Drinker
2	Female	15	C2DE	Drinker
3	Male	15	ABC1	Drinker
4	Female	15	ABC1	Drinker
5	Male	15	C2DE	Drinker
6	Female	15	C2DE	Drinker
7	Male	15	C2DE	Drinker
8	Female	15	C2DE	Drinker
9	Male	15	ABC1	Drinker
10	Female	15	ABC1	Drinker
11	Male	15	C2DE	Drinker
12	Female	15	C2DE	Drinker

As with wave one a phase of piloting was conducted, in three stages, during summer 2008 to test and revise the questionnaire as required. This consisted of interviews (n=12)

with adolescents aged 15 years old, again not residing in the study area, according the sample composition detailed in Table 9.1. The key objective during the piloting phase for wave two was to modify Q14-Q19 satisfactorily to ensure that the question was better understood than appeared to be the case at wave one. A number of ideas and formats were piloted and tested to come up with a satisfactory solution.

It was decided that the separate visual showing drinking vessels was to be incorporated into the actual questionnaire, opposite the question page. In terms of other changes made, bold statements on each page were added to guide completion. On page 10, which contains Q14, a bold statement box was included as shown below:

NOW COMPLETE, AS SHOWN IN THE EXAMPLE, TO SHOW WHAT YOU HAD TO DRINK THE LAST TIME YOU DRANK ALCOHOL. IF YOU HAD MORE THAN 1 TYPE OF DRINK PUT THE 1ST TYPE ON THIS PAGE AND FILL IN Q15 FOR 2ND TYPE OF DRINK YOU HAD AND SO ON

At the bottom of page 10, a further statement box guiding questionnaire completion was included:

IF YOU HAD ANOTHER TYPE OF DRINK THE LAST TIME YOU DRANK ALCOHOL FILL IN Q15

This statement box was repeated at the bottom of each page following Q16, Q17 and Q18 respectively. During the piloting phase it was found that these changes had a positive impact on how the questions were answered and it was decided that this would be the format used for the final questionnaires versions for wave two (see Appendices N and O).

9.2 Study Sample for Wave Two

Following refinement of the questionnaire for wave two, attention then turned to the sample for the follow-up survey. Due to a concordant with the local authorities during wave one, a database check was done on whether the contact details or status of the sample of 920 respondents had altered during the two years between survey stages due to a change of address, or the respondent now being deceased. This enabled the contact details of respondents to be updated accordingly for follow-up. When designing the research project it was expected there would be an attrition rate of 29% (based on previous studies conducted by the research team, see MacFadyen et al. 2001) on a baseline sample of 1761, therefore yielding a target sample size at follow-up of 1250 adolescent aged approximately 15 years old. As discussed in chapter six, difficulties with sampling resulted in the lower figure of 552 respondents participating in both waves. This was due to attrition between waves, non contactable respondents, and refusals. This represented an attrition rate of 40%. Details on the characteristics of the sample who dropped out due to attrition, in comparison to the sample at follow up is discussed in chapter ten. Respondents were again offered a small fixed financial incentive in the form of a £15 voucher to recompense them for their time and to minimise attrition. Sample characteristics are described in chapter 10.

9.3 Data Collection for Wave Two

The fieldwork for the second wave ran from October 2008 until March 2009 and was conducted using the same method as for wave one. Parental and respondent consent was again recorded prior to the in-home interviewer administered questionnaire. Respondent confidentiality was again assured, and the adolescents were informed that any personal data would remain anonymous.

Once the completed surveys were received, the questionnaires were again reviewed to check question comprehension, responses given and check for any issues previously not identified. No further issues with the questionnaires were identified at this stage. The coding frame constructed during wave one was again used to process the data. The intention was to modify and update the coding frame if required, for example due to the emergence of new brands at follow-up or differences in responses for slightly older respondents. However, no alterations to the coding frame were found to be necessary.

Again the responses to Q14-19 in the self-completion questionnaire were used to calculate the number of units in alcohol each respondent had consumed the last time they had a drink. This data was added as an additional variable to the second wave data file. The data was then compiled, checked and cleaned, and then converted into SPSS file format. Following this, the data files from waves one and two were merged by a colleague to create a single file containing all the survey data.

9.4 Data Analysis for Wave Two

The methodology for conducting the longitudinal analysis was largely similar to that used for wave one. The bivariate analysis techniques described in chapter six were again used, followed by multiple and logistic regression analysis. Similarly, the variable groupings for control variables, and marketing measures generated by the Principal Component Analysis, were retained and used in the longitudinal analysis. The analysis for wave two aimed to determine the temporal effects of alcohol marketing communications on young people's drinking and brand related attitudes and behaviours.

The longitudinal nature of the research design enabled further analyses to be performed. Specifically, changes in drinking experience between second year (ages 12-14, mean age 13) and fourth year (ages 14-16, mean age 15) were explored; comparing non-drinkers at fourth year with participants who started drinking between second and fourth year; comparing participants whose drinking behaviour increased between second and fourth year (onset or increased consumption/frequency) with participants whose drinking behaviour decreased or did not change between second year and fourth year.

Data was again analysed using SPSS 17.0. Logistic regression was used to test whether measures of alcohol marketing communication awareness and appreciation at second year (independent variables) were related to changes in drinking behaviour (dependent variable). Firstly, logistic regression was used to examine wave one characteristics that were related with uptake of drinking by wave two. Variables were entered in blocks using forward likelihood ratio, to discern the effects of each block of variables on the model in turn, with each model varying the control variable in the final block as follows: number of alcohol marketing channels aware of, involvement in alcohol marketing, number of alcohol brands recalled and appreciation of alcohol advertising.

Logistic regression was also used to examine wave one characteristics that were related to increased frequency of drinking at two levels: 1) increase to monthly drinking from no drinking at all or less than monthly drinking at wave one; and 2) increase to fortnightly drinking from no drinking at all or less than fortnightly drinking at wave one. Variables were again entered in blocks using forward likelihood ratio with each model varying the control variable in the final block as follows: number of alcohol marketing channels aware of, involvement in alcohol marketing, number of alcohol brands recalled and

appreciation of alcohol advertising.

Multiple regression analysis was then run controlling for demographics, drinking status at wave one, amount of alcohol in units consumed at wave one, and number of alcohol marketing channels aware of, involvement in alcohol marketing, number of alcohol brands recalled and appreciation of alcohol advertising at wave one. Further details on data analysis procedures for wave one are discussed in chapter seven. The longitudinal findings are presented in the following chapter.

Chapter ten presents the analysis of the longitudinal data for the 'Assessing the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking' study. The article entitled 'The Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking Behaviour: A Longitudinal Study' was published in Alcohol and Alcoholism which is a leading journal in the field of substance abuse, with an impact factor of 2.137 in 2008 (Thomson Reuters ISI, 2009).

CHAPTER TEN: (Publication five)

Gordon, R., MacKintosh, A.M., Moodie, C. (2010). The Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking Behaviour: A Two-Stage Cohort Study. *Alcohol and Alcoholism*, 45(5): 470-480.

10.1 Abstract

Aim To examine whether awareness of, and involvement with alcohol marketing at age 13 is predictive of initiation of drinking, frequency of drinking and units of alcohol consumed at age 15.

Methods A two-stage cohort study, involving a questionnaire survey, combining interview and self completion, was administered in respondents' homes. Respondents were drawn from secondary schools in three adjoining local authority areas in the West of Scotland (United Kingdom). From a baseline sample of 920 teenagers (aged 12-14, mean age 13), in 2006, a cohort of 552 was followed up two years later (aged 14-16, mean age 15). Data were gathered on multiple forms of alcohol marketing and measures of drinking initiation, frequency and consumption.

Results Logistic regression demonstrated that, after controlling for confounding variables, involvement with alcohol marketing at baseline was predictive of both uptake of drinking and increased frequency of drinking at follow-up. Awareness of marketing at baseline was also associated with increased frequency of drinking at follow-up.

Conclusions Our findings demonstrate an association between involvement with, and awareness of, alcohol marketing and drinking uptake or increased drinking frequency, and we consider whether the current regulatory environment affords youth sufficient protection from alcohol marketing.

10.2 Introduction

That many adolescents have used or do use alcohol is beyond doubt. In most countries within the European Union (EU) for instance more than 70% of youth (15-16 years) admit to drinking alcohol within the previous year, and over 50% within the past month. Further, in the United Kingdom (UK), levels of youth binge drinking and past-year and past-month drunkenness are considerably higher than in the rest of the EU (Hibell *et al.* 2009). So too are levels of consumption, which have almost doubled between 1990 and 2007 in England (Fuller, 2009). It is these hazardous youth drinking behaviours that represent a major public health concern given the possible injurious consequences (HM Government, 2007), including poor educational performance, risky sexual behaviour and teenage pregnancy (Newbury-Birch *et al.* 2009; OECD, 2009), crime and disorder (Hibell *et al.* 2009; Home Office, 2004) and a range of physical and psychological harms (HES, 2007; Scottish Government, 2010). Additionally, using alcohol at an earlier age is a predictor of future dependency (Bonomo *et al.* 2004; Newbury-Birch *et al.*, 2009).

Many protective and risk factors have been identified for youth drinking uptake and behaviour. Alcohol marketing has been suggested as one of these risk factors (Babor *et al.* 2003), with recent systematic reviews appearing to support this assertion (Smith and Foxcroft, 2009; Anderson *et al.* 2009b). This has led to some within the public health field calling for a complete ban on alcohol marketing, arguing that it is pervasive and linked with youth drinking initiation, consumption levels and continued drinking (BMA, 2009; Anderson, 2009; Godlee, 2009). A recent meta-review however, conducted in the UK on behalf of the Department for Children, Schools and Families, does not even consider marketing among the many risk factors identified (Newbury-Birch *et al.* 2009). Although this seems an important omission there is a paucity of research exploring the

relationship between alcohol marketing and youth drinking behaviour in Europe, and in the UK an absence of longitudinal research - a more powerful design that allows greater confidence when exploring potentially causal links (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2004; Gunter et al. 2009). Highlighting this point, the Anderson et al. (2009b) systematic review of existing longitudinal research found that ten of the thirteen studies identified were from the US, one was from New Zealand and only two from Europe; in Belgium and Germany. The European Commission department concerned with health, DG SANCO, also acknowledged the lack of European studies, and in response to this has recently funded a multi-country EU study called the 'Amphora Project' (European Commission, 2009a) as well as the aforementioned German study (Hanewinkel and Sargent, 2008).

To address this gap in the literature we present findings from a UK cohort study. Funded as part of the National Preventive Research Initiative (NPRI) the study examines the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing communications on youth drinking during the period when most adolescents start experimenting with alcohol, from ages 13 to 15 (Black *et al.* 2009). In addition, and unlike most research in this area, we also examine non-traditional alcohol marketing channels such as new media, sponsorship and e-marketing.

10.3 Method

10.3.1 Design

Data comes from two waves of a cohort study called *Assessing the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking*. The baseline was conducted from October 2006 to March 2007 and the follow-up was conducted two years later, from October 2008 to

March 2009. The study design was adapted from research on tobacco marketing in the UK (MacFadyen *et al.* 2001). Questionnaire development was informed by extensive formative research and pre-testing (Gordon *et al.* 2010b). Cross sectional data from baseline are reported elsewhere (Gordon *et al.* 2011).

10.3.2 Setting and Sample

The study was conducted within three local authority areas in the West of Scotland. The baseline sample was recruited via an information pack (containing an information sheet, parental and respondent consent forms and offering a small gift token for participation) sent to the homes of all second year pupils (12-14 years, mean age 13) attending state secondary schools in each local authority area. In one local authority area the invitations were mailed to respondents' homes. In two local authorities, schools were asked to distribute the packs to pupils to take home. Of the 920 baseline respondents a cohort of 552 were followed up two years later when in fourth year (14-16 years, mean age 15).

Baseline characteristics of sample: The achieved cohort sample was evenly distributed by gender, 50% (n=275) male and 50% (n=277) female (Table 10.1a). Social grade, classified using the National Readership social grading system, was based upon the occupation of the chief income earner. Approximately two-fifths (41%, n=224) were ABC1 (middle class) and approximately three-fifths (59%, n=326) C2DE (working class) (Wilmshurst and MacKay, 1999), which is largely consistent with national (45.6% ABC1, 54.4% C2DE) census data (GROS, 2001). Sample ethnicity was predominantly white 94% (n=515), with 3% (n=19) identifying themselves as Asian, 1% mixed race (n=7), 1% black (n=6), <1% Chinese (n=1) and <1% other (n=1). For religious

identification most of the sample were Christian 65% (n=354) or had no religiosity 31% (n=169), with 3% Muslim (n=19) and 1% other (n=5).

Baseline characteristics of cohort v drop-out sample: Compared with the cohort that was successfully followed up, the drop-out sample had a higher proportion of girls (50% girls in follow-up sample, 57% girls in sample lost to attrition, p<0.05) and a higher proportion of middle class (ABC1) respondents (41% ABC1 in follow-up sample, 55% ABC1 in sample lost to attrition, p<0.001). The cohort did not differ from the drop-out sample in terms of drinking status, age, ethnicity or religion.

10.3.3 Data Collection

Fieldwork comprised face-to-face interviews conducted in-home, by professional interviewers, with an accompanying self-completion questionnaire to gather sensitive data on drinking behaviour. Respondent confidentiality and anonymity of personal data was assured. Parental permission and participant consent were obtained prior to interview at each wave. Numbered show cards were used throughout the interviewer administered questionnaire to maximise privacy and enable respondents to answer freely without fear of conveying their answers to others who may be present in the room. Participants sealed their self-completion questionnaire in an envelope before handing it to the interviewer. Ethical approval was obtained from the University of Stirling Ethics Committee and interviewers adhered to the Market Research Society Code of Conduct (MRS, 2005).

Table 10.1: Baseline characteristics and description of dependent and independent variables included in logistic and multiple regression models

a) Baseline characteristics of independent variables b) Logistic Regression Models 1 to 4 c) Logistic Regression Models 5 to 12 d) Multiple Regression Models 13 to 16 Dependent Variable: Dependent Variable: Uptake of drinking Dependent Variable: Uptake of at least fortnightly drinking 1=initiated drinking (n=165) 0=remained non-drinker (n=184) 1=yes (n=78) 0=remained non-drinker or less than fortnightly drinker (n=435) Dependent Variable: Uptake of at least monthly drinking (Models 9 to 12) 1=yes (n=115) 0=remained non-drinker or less than monthly drinker (n=383) Number in Cohort Valid Model 5 Model 6 Model 7 Model 8 (N=552) % Mean (sd) Model 1 Model 2 Model 3 Model 4 Model 13 Model 14 Model 15 Model 16 and 9 and 10 and 11 and 12 350 64 Block 1 Whether had drunk No (reference category) Block 1 Block 1 Block 1 Block 1 Block 1 Block 1 alcohol at baseline 196 36 Number of units of alcohol consumed at baseline 4.67 (5.31) Block 2 Block 2 186 Block 2 Block 2 Mother's drinking Mum does not drink (reference category) 32 Mum drinks 310 56 DK 55 10 I do not have/ do not see Mum 8 Father's drinking Dad does not drink (reference category) 125 23 Dad drinks 329 60 45 I do not have/ do not see Dad 51 Block 1 Block 1 Block 1 Block 1 Block 2 Block 2 Block 2 Block 2 Block 3 Block 3 Block 3 Block 3 Sibling(s)' drinking Siblings do not drink (reference category) 258 47 Sibling(s) drink 170 31 No sibling(s) 84 15 DK if sibling(s) drink 35 366 66 Friends drinking at Few or none (reference category) least weekly About half/most/all 75 14 DK/not stated 111 20 Gender Male (reference category) 275 50 Female 277 50 552 12.95 (0.39) Age Social Grade ABC1 (reference category) 224 41 C2DE 326 59 Block 2 Block 2 Block 2 Block 2 Block 3 Block 3 Block 3 Block 3 Block 4 Block 4 Block 4 Block 4 Ethnicity White (reference category) 515 94 Asian or asian british/mixed/other 34 6 None (reference category) 169 31 378 69 Perceptions of siblings/parents'/friends/ views on whether it is ok to Block 4 552 Block 3 Block 3 Block 3 Block 4 Block 4 Block 4 Block 5 Block 5 Block 5 try drinking (1=not ok, 7=ok) Liking of school (1=dislike a lot, 5=like a lot) 547 3.48 (1.22) Block 4 Block 4 Block 4 Block 4 Block 5 Block 5 Block 5 Block 5 Block 6 Block 6 Block 6 Block 6

Perceptions of own school work relative to others in own year (1= a lot worse, 5 = a lot better)	545	3.54 (0.891)			
Liking of adverts in general (1=dislike a lot, 5 = like a lot)	546	2.87 (1.15)			
Number of alcohol marketing channels aware of	552	5.44 (2.69)	Block 5	Block 6	Block 7
Number of forms of alcohol marketing involved in	552	0.90 (1.09)	Block 5	Block 6	Block 7
Number of alcohol brands recalled	552	5.58 (2.95)	Block 5	Block 6	Block 7
Appreciation of alcohol advertising (1=dislike a lot, 5 = like a lot)	542	2.36 (1.06)	Block 5	Block 6	Block 7

10.3.4 Measures

The measures employed in this study were based upon a review of the youth drinking literature. Due to constraints in terms of space within the questionnaire and the requirement to include a number of measures assessing marketing awareness and involvement, some measures, such as parental control, were not included in the study.

Demographic and school related control variables

Data were recorded on age, gender, social grade (based upon occupation of chief income earner), ethnicity and religion. Liking of school was rated on a five point scale, from 'dislike school a lot' (1) to 'like school a lot' (5). Rating of own school work in relation to others in their year was also rated on a five point scale, from 'a lot worse' (1) to 'a lot better' (5).

Drinking related control variables

Drinking among parents, siblings and friends was assessed using four self-completion items. Participants were asked whether their mother (father) drinks alcohol nowadays, with four responses to each item: yes; no; not sure; I do not have/don't see my mother (father). Those who indicated they had brothers or sisters were asked whether any of their brothers or sisters drink alcohol: yes; no; don't know. Participants were asked to indicate, on a five point scale, how many of their friends drink alcohol once a week: all of them; most of them; about half of them; a few of them; none of them; not sure. Perceptions of others' views on them trying alcohol was assessed using three self-completion items, which asked whether their brother(s) or sister(s), parents or closest friends would consider it ok or not ok for them to "try drinking alcohol to see what it's like". Response categories were: ok, not ok and don't know, which

were combined following principal components analysis at baseline and are reported elsewhere (Gordon *et al.* 2011).

Drinking behaviour

Drinking status was assessed by asking the question: 'Have you ever had a proper alcoholic drink - a whole drink, not just a sip?' Those answering affirmatively were classified as drinkers, and those who had not done so as non-drinkers.

Uptake of drinking was based on changes in drinking status between waves and was coded (1) for baseline non-drinkers who were drinkers at follow-up and coded (0) for baseline non-drinkers who remained non-drinkers at follow-up.

Number of alcoholic units consumed last time respondents had an alcoholic drink was calculated by estimating the amount, in millilitres, of each type of alcoholic drink consumed and the ABV of each drink, based on responses to the following: brand or name of drink(s) consumed, type(s) of alcohol consumed (e.g. beer, wine, vodka), drinking vessel(s) used (recorded using a visual), and the amount of each drink consumed (more than one full bottle/can/glass, one full bottle/can/glass, 3/4, 1/2, 1/4 or less than 1/4 of a bottle/can/glass).

Frequency of drinking was recorded by asking respondents how often they usually had an alcoholic drink (daily, twice per week, weekly, fortnightly, monthly, only a few times per year, or I never drink alcohol now).

Alcohol marketing

Alcohol marketing awareness was assessed for 15 types of marketing identified from formative research (Gordon *et al.* 2010b). Participants were shown a series of 15 cards with examples of different forms of alcohol marketing (Table 10.2a) and were asked to indicate whether or not they had come across alcohol being marketed in each of these ways. The number of channels through which participants had noticed marketing was calculated by counting the number of positive responses for each of the 15 channels listed in Table 10.2a.

Involvement in alcohol marketing was assessed by showing participants eight cards with examples of different forms of alcohol promotional activities and asking them to indicate whether or not they had participated in each. The amount of alcohol marketing participated in was calculated by counting the number of positive responses for each of the eight forms listed in Table 10.2b.

Liking of alcohol advertising was measured on a five point scale, from 'dislike alcohol adverts a lot' (1) to 'like alcohol adverts a lot' (5).

10.3.5 Statistical Analysis

The analyses looked at four outcome variables – uptake of drinking, uptake of fortnightly drinking, uptake of monthly drinking and units of alcohol consumed at follow-up. For each of these outcomes, four models were run to separately examine their potential association with amount of alcohol marketing aware of, amount of alcohol marketing involved in, number of brands recalled and appreciation of alcohol advertising, all measured at baseline.

Table 10.1 shows the dependent and independent variables used within a series of logistic regression models that were run to examine association between baseline characteristics and uptake of drinking (models 1-4) and uptake of frequent drinking (models 5-12). Table 10.1 also shows the multiple regression models (models 13-16) that were run to examine association between baseline characteristics and amount of alcohol consumed at follow-up. In the logistic and multiple regression models, independent variables were entered in blocks, using forward likelihood ratio, with the marketing variable of interest entered in the final block to examine the potential contribution after important confounding variables had been considered.

Among those who were non-drinkers at baseline (n=350), logistic regression was used to examine which baseline characteristics were associated with uptake of drinking by follow-up. Uptake of drinking was used as the dependent variable (1= started drinking by follow-up, 0 = remained non-drinker at follow-up). In each of the logistic regression analyses, several potentially confounding variables were controlled for and entered in the following blocks: (1) drinking among siblings, friends, mother and father; (2) gender, age, social grade, ethnic group, religion; (3) perceptions of siblings', parents', friends' views on whether it was ok to try drinking; (4) liking of school, perception of own school work relative to others in their year, liking of adverts in general. Four separate models were run. In each case the control variable in the final block was varied as follows: the number of alcohol marketing channels respondents were aware of (model 1); involvement with alcohol marketing (model 2); number of brands recalled (model 3); appreciation of alcohol advertising (model 4).

Logistic regression was also used to examine frequency of drinking. This was examined at two levels: 1) uptake of fortnightly drinking; and 2) uptake of monthly drinking (among those who, at baseline, did not drink at all or drank less than fortnightly or monthly, respectively). Due to the small sample size, these analyses also included uptake of at least fortnightly (or monthly) drinking among baseline non-drinkers rather than just increased frequency among existing drinkers. Independent variables were again entered in blocks to control for potentially confounding variables. The first block controlled for baseline drinking status and subsequent blocks controlled for the same variables included in the analysis of uptake of drinking.

Among those who were drinkers at follow-up (n=342), multiple regression was used to examine the relationship between baseline characteristics and units consumed at follow-up, after controlling for units consumed at baseline (see Table 10.1, Models 13-16). Blocks one and two controlled for baseline drinking status and baseline units consumed, respectively. And subsequent blocks, in Models 13-16, controlled for the same variables as the logistic regression. Four separate models were run, again varying the control variable in the final block; number of forms of alcohol marketing aware of at baseline (model 13); number of forms of alcohol marketing involved in at baseline (model 14); number of brands recalled at baseline (model 15); baseline appreciation of alcohol advertising (model 16).

In the logistic and multiple regression models, cases were excluded if they had missing data on one or more of the variables being assessed in the model. The number of excluded cases in any analyses ranged from 16 to 32 representing a very small portion of the eligible sample in each (5%-6%).

10.4 Results

Alcohol drinking behaviour

At follow-up, 62% (n=342) reported having tried an alcoholic drink. This is lower than the prevalence (81%) from national survey data (Black *et al.* 2009). Mean age for consumption of first alcoholic drink was 13.4 years (SD = 1.44) and mean number of units consumed for last drink at follow-up was 7.12 (SD = 7.37).

Awareness of alcohol marketing

At baseline there was very high awareness of alcohol marketing, with 97% aware of at least one form of alcohol marketing. The sample was aware of, on average, five marketing channels, see Table 10.2a. Awareness was measured across a range of channels including advertisements and promotions, sports related marketing, electronic communications and arts related marketing, with awareness highest for TV/cinema advertising (77%), branded clothing (67%), sports sponsorship (63%), price promotions (59%) and signs or posters instore (58%).

Involvement with alcohol marketing

At baseline, more than half (56%) had participated in at least one form of alcohol marketing. The most common types of alcohol marketing respondents were involved with were ownership of alcohol branded clothing (45%) and free branded gifts (11%), see Table 10.2b.

Table 10.2: Adolescents' awareness of & involvement in alcohol marketing at baseline

Base: all participating at baseline and follow-up	Total	
	N = 552	
	%	
	(valid)	N
(a) Awareness of Alcohol Marketing		
Any alcohol marketing	97	533
Ads and promotions		
TV/Cinema	77	423
Posters/Billboards	52	287
Newspapers/Magazines	31	169
In-store	58	321
Price promotions	59	323
Sports-related		020
Sports Sponsorship	63	347
Clothing	67	368
Electronic communications	01	000
E-mail	4	21
Websites	5	30
Mobile Phone/Computer Screensaver	23	126
Social networking sites	12	65
Arts-related		
Music Sponsorship	33	184
TV/Film Sponsorship	30	163
Celebrity endorsement	13	73
Product design	18	101
1 Todast assign	.0	101
Mean number (std dev) of marketing channels aware of	5.4 (2	2.7)
(b) Participation in Alcohol Marketing		
Any involvement in alcohol marketing	56	308
Free samples	3	15
Free branded gifts	11	58
Price promotions	8	46
Promotional mail/e-mails	7	39
Branded clothing	45	250
Websites	3	19
Mobile phone/computer screensavers	6	35
Social networking sites	7	37
Mean number (std dev) of forms of alcohol marketing involved in	0.9 (1.1)	

Association between alcohol marketing and initiation of drinking

Among the 350 who were non-drinkers at baseline, 47% (n=165) started drinking between baseline and follow-up. Logistic regression demonstrated a significant association between the amount of alcohol marketing that non-drinkers' were involved in at baseline and their uptake of drinking at follow-up (Model 2), see Table 10.3. Involvement with alcohol marketing at baseline increased their chance/risk of initiation of drinking at follow-up (adjusted OR=1.31, p<0.05). Other factors associated with uptake of drinking were having siblings who drink (adjusted OR=1.97, p<0.05 compared with having non-drinking siblings) and holding more positive perceptions that others consider it ok for them to drink (adjusted OR=1.19, p<0.01). Uptake of drinking was less likely among non-white ethnic groups (adjusted OR=0.1, p<0.01). A further logistic regression, (Model 4), indicated that initiation of drinking was also more likely among those with greater appreciation of alcohol advertising at baseline (adjusted OR = 1.272, 95% CI 1.005, 1.610, P<0.05). After controlling for confounders no association was found between uptake of drinking and baseline awareness of alcohol marketing (Model 1) or number of brands recalled at baseline (Model 3).

Among the 513 who were non-drinkers or drank less often than fortnightly at baseline, 15% (n = 78) had taken up more frequent drinking (at least fortnightly) at follow-up. Logistic regression found that uptake of fortnightly drinking was more likely among those with a higher involvement with alcohol marketing at baseline (adjusted OR = 1.43, P < 0.05; Model 6, see Table 10.4).

Table 10.3: Logistic regression of association between amount of involvement in alcohol marketing and uptake of drinking

Dependent variable = Uptake of drinking (1= initiated drinking, 0=remained non-drinker)

Base: All in cohort who were non-drinkers at baseline

		Adjusted			
		Odds	95.0%	C.I.	
	N	Ratio	for Adj Od	ds Ratio	Significance
Block 1					
Sibling drinking					ns
Sibling(s) do not drink	188	1.00			
Sibling(s) drink	78	1.971	1.098	3.538	<0.05
No sibling(s)	47	1.212	0.606	2.426	ns
Don't know if sibling(s)					
drink	21	1.846	0.676	5.042	ns
Friends' drinking					<0.05
Few or none drink	239	1.000			
About half/most/all drink	19	2.664	0.891	7.960	ns
Not sure/not stated	76	0.584	0.325	1.048	ns
Mother's drinking					ns
Mum does not drink	121	1.000			
Mum drinks	174	1.641	0.966	2.789	ns
Not sure/not stated	34	2.206	0.942	5.166	ns
No mum/don't see mum	5	1.198	0.173	8.3	ns
Block 2					
Ethnic Group					
White	303	1.00			
Asian or Asian					
British/mixed/other	31	0.1	0.022	0.462	<0.01
Block 3					
Perceptions of others' views on trying	20.4			4 000	2.24
alcohol (-ve = not ok, +ve = ok)	334	1.195	1.049	1.363	<0.01
Block 5					
Number of forms of alcohol marketing involved in	334	1.310	1.003	1.711	<0.05

³³⁴ cases analysed, 16 cases excluded from the analysis due to missing data on one or more variables tested in the model Note: only variables that entered each block using forward likelihood ratio are shown. See Table 10.1 for full list of variables considered for entry to the model – Model 2.

Model Summary at Each Block

-	Test of Model Coefficien	Nagelkerke R square		
	Chi-square			
Block 1	32.588	8	< 0.001	0.124
Block 2	16.936	1	< 0.001	0.184
Block 3	8.208	1	< 0.01	0.212
Block 4	No variables entered			
Block 5	4.013	1	< 0.05	0.225
Final Model	61.746	11	< 0.001	0.225

Cases correctly classified = 65.9%. 65.9% of remaining non-drinkers and 65.8% of those who initiated drinking were correctly classified

Table 10.4: Logistic regression of association between amount of involvement in alcohol marketing at baseline and drinking becoming more frequent (drinking at least fortnightly) at follow-up

Dependent variable = whether had become fortnightly drinker (or more frequent) at follow-up (1= yes became fortnightly (or more frequent) drinker, 0=remained non-drinker or less than fortnightly drinker)

Base: All in cohort who were non-drinkers at baseline or drank less often than fortnightly

		Adjusted			Ŭ ,
		Odds	95.0%	C.I.	
	N	Ratio	for Odds	Ratio	Significance
Block 1					
Whether drank alcohol					
at baseline					<0.05
No	332	1.00			
Yes	157	1.849	1.048	3.263	< 0.05
Block 2					
Sibling drinking					ns
Sibling(s) do not drink	239	1.00			
Sibling(s) drink	147	1.805	0.962	3.387	ns
No sibling(s)	75	2.110	1.013	4.398	< 0.05
Don't know if sibling(s)					
drink	28	3.059	1.071	8.737	<0.05
Block 3					
Religion					< 0.05
None	144	1.00			
Any	345	0.573	0.334	0.982	< 0.05
Block 4					
Perceptions of others' views on trying					
alcohol (1 = not ok, 7 = ok)	489	1.184	1.033	1.358	<0.05
Block 6					
Number of forms of alcohol marketing					
involved in	489	1.434	1.146	1.795	<0.01

489 cases analysed, 28 cases excluded from the analysis due to missing data on one or more variables tested in the model Note: only variables that entered each block using forward likelihood ratio are shown. See Table 10.1 for full list of variables considered for entry to the model – Model 6.

Model Summary at Each Block

	Test of Model Coefficie	Nagelkerke R square		
	Chi-square	df	P	
Block 1	19.840	1	< 0.001	0.068
Block 2	8.120	3	< 0.05	0.096
Block 3	6.156	1	< 0.05	0.116
Block 4	6.397	1	< 0.05	0.137
Block 5	No variables entered			
Block 6	9.926	1	< 0.01	0.169
Final Model	50.440	7	< 0.001	0.169

Cases correctly classified = 84.7%. 98.8% of those who remained non-drinkers or less than fortnightly drinkers and 9.1% of those who became fortnightly (or more frequent) drinkers were correctly classified

Other factors associated with becoming a fortnightly drinker were being a drinker at baseline (adjusted OR=1.85, p<0.05) and holding more positive perceptions that others consider it

acceptable for them to drink (adjusted OR=1.18, P<0.05). Those who indicated a religious affiliation were less likely than those with no affiliation to become fortnightly drinkers (adjusted OR=0.57, p<0.05). Further logistic regressions (Model 5) indicated that uptake of fortnightly drinking was also more likely among those with greater awareness of alcohol marketing at baseline (adjusted OR=1.11, 95% CI 1.005, 1.234, p<0.05 (Model 5)) and those with greater appreciation of alcohol marketing at baseline (adjusted OR=1.295, 95% CI 1.002, 1.674, p<0.05 (Model 8)). After controlling for confounders, no association was found between uptake of fortnightly drinking at follow-up and number of brands recalled at baseline (Model 7).

Among the 498 who were non-drinkers or drank less often than monthly at baseline, 23% (n=115) had taken up more frequent drinking (at least monthly) at follow-up. As shown in Table 10.5. Uptake of monthly drinking was more likely among those with a higher involvement with alcohol marketing at baseline (adjusted OR=1.33, p<0.05 (see Table 10.5, Model 10)). Becoming a monthly drinker was also associated with believing that others consider it acceptable for them to try drinking (adjusted OR=1.25, p<0.001), having siblings who drink (adjusted OR=2.06, p<0.01) and having a mum who drinks (adjusted OR=1.88, p<0.05). Those indicating a religious affiliation were less likely than those with no religious affiliation to take up monthly drinking (adjusted OR=0.58, p<0.05). After controlling for confounders, no association was found between uptake of monthly drinking at follow-up and baseline awareness of alcohol marketing (Model 9), number of brands recalled at baseline (Model 11) or baseline appreciation of alcohol advertising (Model 12).

Table 10.5: Logistic regression of association between amount of involvement in alcohol marketing at baseline and drinking becoming more frequent (drinking at least monthly) at follow-up

Dependent variable = whether had become monthly drinker (or more frequent) at follow-up (1= yes became monthly (or more frequent) drinker, 0=remained non-drinker or less than monthly drinker)

Base: All in cohort who were non-drinkers at baseline or drank less often than monthly

		Adjusted			
		Odds	95.0%		
	N	Ratio	for Odds	Ratio	Significance
Block 1					
Whether drank alcohol					
at baseline					ns
No	332	1.00			
Yes	142	1.550	0.936	2.567	ns
Block 2					
Sibling drinking					ns
Sibling(s) do not drink	236	1.00			
Sibling(s) drink	139	2.062	1.202	3.539	<0.01
No sibling(s)	72	1.696	0.877	3.279	ns
Don't know if sibling(s)					
drink	27	1.625	0.583	4.530	ns
Mother's drinking					ns
Mum does not drink	152	1.00			
Mum drinks	263	1.879	1.067	3.309	<0.05
Not sure/not stated or no					
mum/don't see mum	59	1.212	0.534	2.751	ns
Block 3					
Religion					< 0.05
None	137	1.00			
Any	337	0.577	0.354	0.941	< 0.05
Block 4					
Perceptions of others' views on trying					
alcohol (1 = not ok, 7 = ok)	474	1.249	1.109	1.407	<0.001
Block 6					
Number of forms of alcohol marketing					
involved in	474	1.328	1.072	1.644	< 0.05

474 cases analysed, 28 cases excluded from the analysis due to missing data on one or more variables tested in the model. Note: only variables that entered each block using forward likelihood ratio are shown. See Table 10.1 for full list of variables considered for entry to the model – Model 10.

Model Summary at Each Block

	Test of Model Coefficie	Nagelkerke R square		
	Chi-square	df	P	
Block 1	21.343	1	< 0.001	0.066
Block 2	12.954	5	< 0.01	0.129
Block 3	7.104	1	< 0.01	0.149
Block 4	14.425	1	< 0.001	0.190
Block 5	No variables entered			
Block 6	6.803	1	< 0.01	0.208
Final Model	70.825	9	< 0.001	0.208

Cases correctly classified = 77.2%. 94.5% of those who remained non-drinkers or less than monthly drinkers and 22.1% of those who became monthly (or more frequent) drinkers were correctly classified

Alcohol marketing and units of alcohol consumed last time had a drink

Multiple regression analysis, controlling for demographics, baseline drinking status, amount consumed at baseline and other drinking related variables, found no association between units consumed at follow-up and baseline measures of awareness or involvement in alcohol marketing, number of brands recalled or appreciation of alcohol advertising (Models 13-16).

10.5 Discussion

The findings show a small but significant association between awareness of and involvement with alcohol marketing, and youth drinking behaviour, even after controlling for important confounding variables. They also show a small but significant association between appreciation of alcohol advertising and youth drinking behaviour. Marketing is of course only one of a number of variables that can influence youth drinking with other factors such as family drinking and peer influence also significant, often to a greater degree. However, our findings from the UK are consistent with previous research and add further weight to there being an association between alcohol marketing and youth drinking behaviour (Anderson *et al.* 2009b; Meier *et al.* 2008), with higher awareness of alcohol marketing at baseline predicting increased frequency of drinking at follow-up. This dose-response relationship is also consistent with that found with awareness of tobacco marketing and tobacco consumption among young people (Davis *et al.* 2008).

Unlike most previous research we examined the influence of alcohol marketing across a wide range of marketing channels, including new media, sponsorship and e-marketing, helping to demonstrate the extent, nature and reach of contemporary alcohol marketing in the UK.

Indeed, at baseline, young people were aware of an average of five alcohol marketing channels. Previous research has found associations between channels such as TV, print advertising, and in-store promotion (Stacey *et al.* 2004; Ellickson *et al.* 2005; Snyder *et al.* 2006) and youth drinking behaviours. Although the sample size in the current study does not allow sufficient power to detect the effect of individual marketing channels on drinking behaviour some channels are clearly more prominent than others. Almost two-thirds of youth (63%) were aware of sports sponsorship and 45% owned alcohol branded clothing, which is most likely due to ownership of football shirts from the two major football teams in the area, which are sponsored by a beer brand (Gordon *et al.* 2011). This is a relationship which is concerning given the appeal of sport to young people (Stainback, 1997).

At baseline, 12% of the cohort was aware of alcohol marketing on social networking sites, and 7% accessed alcohol marketing through this channel. Interestingly, although not reported in the results, at follow-up awareness of (34%) and involvement with (18%) social networking sites increased markedly, which is testament to the growth of new media as a marketing tool. This is disconcerting, if not entirely surprising, given that a recent report by Ofcom found that approximately half of 11-17 year olds have a social networking profile (Ofcom, 2008). Furthermore, the level of awareness of (23%) and involvement with (6%) alcohol branded mobile phone/computer screensavers at baseline illustrates the reach of alcohol marketing across a range of communication channels. The opportunity to enjoy 24 hour connectivity through mobile web browsing restricts the ability to monitor new media use and control the level of exposure to content such as alcohol marketing. Given that technological advancement in new media develops at such pace regulation tends to lag

behind, which gives rise to concerns over the impact alcohol marketing in new media has on young people (BMA, 2009).

Our findings point to the need for additional research on the impact of new media, and other less researched forms of alcohol marketing such as sponsorship (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010), to help assess the cumulative effect of *all* alcohol marketing on youth drinking (Hastings *et al.* 2005). Our measures of awareness and involvement in alcohol marketing were based on self-report measures modelled on successful approaches used in the tobacco marketing field (MacKintosh *et al.* 2008) and reflect young people's recall of the different forms of alcohol marketing that they may have been exposed to. The approach provides a valuable insight into the extent of awareness of and involvement with different forms of alcohol marketing. However, given that we did not assess volume of exposure e.g. number of hours exposed to TV advertising (Jernigan *et al.* 2007; Chung *et al.* 2010) then further research exploring level of exposure to alcohol marketing and association with youth drinking in the UK would also be welcome. Finally, cohort studies tracking young people through to adulthood would also help provide information on the longer term effects of alcohol marketing once adulthood is reached.

The study is not without limitations. Four main issues limit the generalisability of the findings; 1) the study location, which was confined to the West of Scotland; 2) the small, albeit significant, effect size of alcohol marketing on drinking behaviour featuring fairly wide confidence intervals; 3) the relatively small cohort sample; 4) loss of respondents due to attrition. However, there are reasons to suggest that each of these potential limiting factors

have not had a significant effect on the study findings; 1) despite the study location, awareness of alcohol marketing in conventional and electronic media, and sports sponsorship, is unlikely to differ significantly across the UK; 2) although the alcohol industry criticises research finding only a small causal effect between marketing and drinking behaviour on the grounds that it does not consider other factors influencing alcohol behaviour (ICAP, 2003), we did examine and control for multiple predictor variables within the analyses; 3) despite a relatively small sample our findings are consistent with previous longitudinal research from outside the UK; 4) while the baseline gender and social grade characteristics of the cohort differed from those lost to attrition, these characteristics were controlled for in each analysis and there were no differences, between those followed-up and those lost to attrition in terms of drinking status, age, ethnicity or religion.

Our findings and the existing evidence base have important implications for the regulation of alcohol marketing in the UK, and indeed elsewhere. The current co-regulatory system employed in the UK appears to provide inadequate protection for youth from exposure to alcohol marketing. Co-regulation is incontrovertibly preferable to self-regulation, which has been found to be ineffective for smoking (Saloojee and Hammond, 2001) and gambling (McMillen and Toms, 1998), but it is reliant upon industry co-operation. In the face of research demonstrating the impact of alcohol marketing on youth, and accepting that the primary imperative for alcohol companies is to increase profit and market share, regulators must act accordingly.

Policy options available include more stringent regulation controlling the content and level of exposure to alcohol marketing across all channels, including new media, sponsorship and e-marketing. The 'Loi Evin' in France, for instance, is an example of more robust regulation which restricts alcohol marketing content and exposure, particularly with regards to sports sponsorship (Rigaud and Craplet, 2004). However, such a framework would require explicit guidance on what is allowed, rather than merely stating what is forbidden, in order to avoid ambiguity. Another option is a complete ban on some forms of alcohol marketing (Anderson, 2009; Gilmore, 2009), although even here it would be imprudent to ignore lessons from the tobacco field. Restrictions in some forms of tobacco marketing only have a marginal impact on behaviour as tobacco companies simply reallocate marketing spend to unregulated channels (Davis *et al.* 2008). What is clear is that the evidence and current focus on alcohol marketing as a public health concern suggests that the time for a considered policy response is now (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010).

CHAPTER ELEVEN: CONCLUSIONS

Assessing the Research Model, Hypothesis and Conceptual Framework, and Study Implications.

11.1 Research Model and Hypotheses Validity

This chapter will review the implications of the results for the research model, policy and regulation, the conceptual framework, future research, and the marketing discipline. Study limitations are discussed and a review of the research process is presented, before offering some concluding remarks. Given that the results in chapter ten suggest a small but significant association between alcohol marketing and youth drinking, the main research hypothesis, that that awareness of, and involvement with, alcohol marketing is associated with youth drinking behaviour is supported. With respect to the other hypotheses proposed, the results presented in chapters eight and ten suggested a significant association between several measures of alcohol marketing and youth drinking behaviour. The findings also demonstrated support for the research model (see Figure 6.3), which was influenced by the literature on youth drinking behaviour (Marcoux and Shope, 1997; Casswell and Zhang, 1998; Bobo and Husten, 2000; Smith and Foxcroft, 2009). The model proposed four groups of correlates of youth drinking behaviour: awareness and involvement in alcohol marketing communications, having positive attitudes about alcohol, having favourable perceptions of alcohol brands, and known covariates such as peer or parental drinking. It is important to acknowledge that although the extant evidence, and this study, suggest a small significant association between alcohol marketing and youth drinking, several other covariates can also influence youth drinking, with a number of these variables included in the analysis described in chapters eight and ten.

Considering the specific research hypotheses proposed in chapter eight it is found that H1, H3, H5, H6, H7 and H9 are supported.

H1 = The greater the number of alcohol marketing channels young people are aware of; the more likely they are to be drinkers. SUPPORTED: see chapter eight.

H2 = The greater the number of alcohol marketing channels young people are aware of the more likely they are to have initiated drinking between wave one and wave two. NOT SUPPORTED: see chapter ten.

H3 = The greater the number of alcohol marketing channels young people who are drinkers at wave one are aware of, the more likely they are to have increased the frequency of their drinking between wave one and wave two. SUPPORTED: see chapter ten.

H4 = The greater the number of alcohol marketing channels young people who are drinkers at wave one are aware of, the more likely they are to increase the amount of alcohol in units they consumed last time they had a drink between wave one and wave two. NOT SUPPORTED: see chapter ten.

H5 = Any involvement in alcohol marketing will increase the likelihood that a young person is a drinker. SUPPORTED: see chapter eight.

H6 = Any involvement in alcohol marketing will make it more likely that a young person initiates drinking between wave one and wave two. SUPPORTED: see chapter ten.

H7 = An involvement in alcohol marketing will make it more likely that a young person who is a drinker at wave one increases the frequency of their drinking between wave one and wave two. SUPPORTED: see chapter ten.

H8 = Any involvement in alcohol marketing will make it more likely that a young person who is a drinker at wave one increases the amount of alcohol in units they consumed last time they had a drink between wave one and wave two. NOT SUPPORTED: see chapter ten.

H9 = Liking alcohol advertising will make it more likely that a young person initiates drinking between wave one and wave two. SUPPORTED: see chapter ten.

H10 = Liking alcohol advertising will make it more likely that a young person who is a drinker at wave one increases the frequency of their drinking between wave one and wave two. NOT SUPPORTED: see chapter ten.

H11 = Liking alcohol advertising will make it more likely that a young person who is a drinker at wave one increases the amount of alcohol in units they consumed last time they had a drink between wave one and wave two. NOT SUPPORTED: see chapter ten.

It is important to acknowledge that only key findings are presented here. Future analyses, beyond the scope of this thesis, will examine: the impact of alcohol marketing on risky behaviours associated with youth drinking; the role and influence of specific alcohol brands and their relationship with youth drinking; and the contribution of alcohol marketing to the normalisation of drinking.

For this study, it is important to consider the implications of the results for stakeholders within the alcohol field, public policy and regulation, the context of the critical social marketing framework used for this study, any future research agenda on this topic, and the wider marketing discipline in general.

11.2 The Alcohol Marketing Policy Agenda

11.2.1 UK Stakeholders

11.2.1.1 The UK Government

In addressing the position and role of relevant stakeholders it is appropriate to first begin with the UK Government. The UK Government seems to be sending mixed messages regarding its position regarding alcohol marketing. With the publication of the Alcohol Harm Reduction Strategy in 2004, the Government's position was that the evidence base suggesting a causal link between alcohol marketing and drinking was not consistent enough. The report stated that "there is as yet do definitive proof of the effect of advertising on behaviour" (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2004, p32). However, it was accepted that there was a case for tightening the existing regulations at that time.

Since 2004 the research evidence base has developed, and the UK Government has been involved in some of these developments. There are suggestions that the Department of Health accepts the findings of the Sheffield Review (commissioned by the UK Government), which found that alcohol marketing does influence youth drinking behaviour (Meier et al. 2008). The review also examined the impact minimum pricing on alcohol would have on alcohol related harms and recommended that some form of minimum pricing be introduced. Both the Chief Medical Officer and the National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE) have subsequently supported the introduction of minimum pricing for alcohol (Chief Medical Officer, 2009; NICE, 2009). However, the government has been lukewarm on the idea with the Prime Minister appearing to reject it during a press conference in March 2009: "It is right that we take action which is properly targeted and effective. We do not want the responsible, sensible majority of drinkers to pay more or suffer as a result of the excesses of a small minority" (Prime Minister's Office, 2009). The Government responded with the launch of a consultation on a new mandatory code of practice for pubs, clubs, off-licenses and supermarkets (Home Office, 2009) but largely ignored other forms of alcohol marketing. The new coalition government, elected in May 2010, has however indicated that a public health white paper consultation will consider three key issues in relation to alcohol policy: licensing, pricing and marketing (Department of Health, 2010).

A source of further confusion is that the previous Government was perceived to be moving towards a lighter touch regulatory system for marketing in other areas. For instance, in September 2009 the Department for Culture, Media and Sport announced that product placement in UK television would be introduced having being previously forbidden

(Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2009). A recent development is that the House of Commons Health Committee conducted a report on alcohol, published in 2010, which included examination of the issue of alcohol marketing (House of Commons Health Committee, 2009). Therefore, past government policy on alcohol marketing has been somewhat inconsistent, and it remains to be seen exactly what the new coalition government will do although a ban on selling alcohol below the rate of duty plus VAT was announced in January 2011.

The situation in Scotland is somewhat restricted by the fact that alcohol marketing is predominantly a reserved matter for Westminster. However, the Scottish Government has announced plans to introduce minimum pricing on alcohol, an area in which it possesses devolved powers. The issue was discussed in parliament extensively, and a formal consultation process ensued (Scottish Government, 2009). However, the proposal to introduce minimum pricing in Scotland was defeated during the final reading of the new alcohol bill in the Scottish Parliament.

11.2.1.2 The UK Alcohol Industry and Advertising Representatives

Key actors within the alcohol field include the alcohol industry, which is not one congruent body, but consists of various parts of the value chain including producers, distributors, marketers, retailers, and hospitality sectors. In the UK, major representative bodies for the alcohol industry include the Portman Group, who represent alcohol producers, the Advertising Association, the British Beer and Pub Association, the British Retail Consortium and the British Hospitality Association. Most public relations activity regarding alcohol

Association and some pan European representative bodies such as the European Advertising Standards Alliance (EASA). In terms of the alcohol industry position on alcohol marketing, they do not accept the evidence, which suggests that it has an effect on drinking behaviour. The Chief Executive of the Portman Group has stated that alcohol marketing "causes brand switching, not harmful drinking" (The Guardian, 2009), a view long espoused by advertisers and the alcohol industry in general (Weinberg, 1984; Ambler et al. 1998; Broadbent, 2008; Scottish Beer and Pub Association, 2008).

The alcohol industry has argued that the Sheffield University study examining the effect of price and promotions on alcohol consumption shows that advertising has only a minimal effect on sales and primarily facilitates brand-switching (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010, p66). However the focus of the Sheffield study is on both adults and youngsters (Meier *et al.* 2008), and the lead author told the HSC that the evidence base on advertising effects for adults is smaller and weaker than for youth, which explains why their evidence statements are more cautious than from reviews focusing on under 18s only (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010, p66). Although the authors stated that further research is required on the effects of advertising, especially on new media channels, a small significant effect on youth drinking behaviour is acknowledged.

In a response to the Safe Sensible Social consultation on further action in relation to the regulation of the alcohol industry, price and promotion issued by the UK Government, the Portman Group argued that self-regulation of alcohol marketing can be effective, that there

has been a considerable improvement in responsible alcohol marketing, and that the current self/co-regulatory system is preferable (Portman Group, 2008). Although in some cases there can be a divergence of views, such as the licensed trade supporting minimum pricing due to the effect cheap off sales alcohol has on their business, the general position taken by the UK alcohol industry is that alcohol marketing has little or no effect on drinking behaviour, and that self or co-regulation, rather than statutory regulation or bans, is the most effective policy framework (Casswell and Maxwell, 2005). A recent briefing note issued by the Portman Group again reiterated the position taken by the alcohol industry that questions that alcohol marketing influences drinking behaviour (Portman Group, 2010).

There are however signs of a change in position within the alcohol industry. For instance, the managing director of Tennent's Caledonian announced support for minimum pricing, stating that if implemented appropriately minimum pricing, particularly of high strength products, is one way of addressing alcohol abuse in Scotland. Tennent's therefore supports the proposals to introduce minimum pricing so long as the measures proposed are fair, proportionate and part of an overall programme to reduce the abuse of alcohol (BBC News Online, 2010). Despite this, Tennent's recently signed a three year shirt sponsorship deal with Rangers and Celtic football clubs in Scotland, suggesting that industry remains distant from fulfilling the wishes of the public health field in terms of socially responsibility (BBC Sport, 2010).

11.2.1.3 Non Governmental Organisations (NGO's)

Attention to alcohol marketing has also been forthcoming from NGO's operating within the alcohol policy arena. Organisations such as Alcohol Concern, Alcohol Focus Scotland, the

BMA, and Scottish Health Action on Alcohol Problems (SHAAP) have all recently issued press releases or reports related to alcohol marketing. These NGO's typically agree that alcohol marketing does impact upon drinking behaviour, and call for tougher statutory regulation or bans on alcohol marketing, and increased social responsibility from the alcohol industry (Alcohol Concern 2007b; SHAAP, 2009; BMA, 2009; Alcohol Focus Scotland, 2009).

11.2.2 EU Stakeholders

11.2.2.1 European Governmental Bodies

At the European level there has been considerable interest in the debate around alcohol marketing, its impact upon drinking behaviour, and regulation. In 2006, the European Commission launched a strategy to support Member States in reducing alcohol related harm. As part of the strategy a charter established the European Alcohol and Health Forum (EAHF), which is a platform for stakeholders within the alcohol field to work towards reducing alcohol related harm (European Commission, 2006). Membership of the forum is dependent upon making commitments designed to reduce alcohol related harm.

The EAHF is facilitated by the European Commission DG SANCO, and has included alcohol marketing and regulation as one of its major themes for discussion in the forum. This has resulted in a number of discussions and reports; such as a report by the Science Group of the EAHF on the evidence base on the impact of alcohol marketing on drinking behaviour (Anderson *et al.* 2009c); a report on the link between alcohol affordability, consumption and harms (Rabinovich *et al.* 2009); and mapping reports on self regulation of alcohol marketing,

targeting and non targeting of youth, and alcohol related social marketing interventions, across the EU (Gordon *et. al.* 2009 a,b,c). Although the European Commission largely defers to member state policy in relation to alcohol marketing, it has encouraged discussions around effective regulation, and within its remit has supported calls for minimum standards for self-regulation (European Commission, 2009b). In addition, the Swedish Presidency of the EU, which began in September 2009, featured an expert conference on alcohol and health, at which the issue of alcohol marketing and youth drinking was discussed and identified as an important issue (Gordon *et al.* 2009d; Hastings, 2009b).

11.2.1.2 The European Alcohol Industry and Advertising Representatives

In the European context major alcohol industry representative bodies involved in the alcohol marketing debate include EASA, the European Forum for Responsible Drinking (EFRD), Eurocommerce, the European Spirits Organisations (CEPS), the Brewers of Europe and the European Sponsorship Association (ESA). At the European level, the industry maintains a position largely consistent to that found in the UK - that alcohol marketing has little or no effect on drinking behaviour, and that self-regulation is the optimal regulatory framework (EASA, 2007).

11.2.1.3 European Non Governmental Organisations (NGO's)

A number of public health networks and NGO's also participate in the debate around alcohol marketing at the EU level, such as Eurocare, Association of European Cancer Leagues, European Public Health Alliance and the European Centre for Monitoring Alcohol Marketing (EUCAM). Similar to NGO's in the UK, the consensus among those operating at

the European level is that alcohol marketing does have an effect on drinking behaviour, and that a more restrictive regulatory environment is required.

11.3 Regulation

It is clear that the debate around alcohol marketing is generating considerable attention, and is moving on from one questioning whether it has an impact upon drinking behaviours to one exploring what should be done next to tackle this problem. Given the range of stakeholders involved however it is not surprising to find that common consensus is not easily reached. For the time being alcohol marketing in the UK continues to employ a combined self and coregulatory approach.

Considering the correct policy response to regulate alcohol marketing requires reflection of the context in relation to drinking behaviour and alcohol related harms in general. Babor *et al.* (2003) rate the relative effectiveness and cost effectiveness of policy levers and interventions that could be used to limit alcohol related harms (see Table 11.1). The Alcohol Policy Index (API) rating system developed by Brand *et al.* (2007) is also useful for assessing the effectiveness of intervention approaches across countries. Using the API index Norway ranks as the highest scoring country, of the 30 countries examined, as it has the most robust alcohol control policies aimed at reducing availability, controlling pricing and restricting or banning alcohol marketing (Brand *et al.* 2007). This method of measurement and the policies perceived to be most effective are in general agreement with the work of Babor *et al.* (2003) and latterly Anderson *et al.* (2009a).

Table 11.1 Ratings of policy-relevant strategies and interventions

Strategy or intervention	Effectiveness	Breadth of research support	Cross- cultural testing	Cost to Implement
Regulating physical availability				
Total ban on sales	+++	+++	++	High
Minimum legal purchase age	+++	+++	++	Low
Rationing	++	++	++	High
Government monopoly of retail sales	+++	+++	++	Low
Hours and days of sale restrictions	++	++	++	Low
Restrictions on density of outlets	++	+++	++	Low
Server liability	+++	+	+	Low
Different availability by alcohol strength	++	++	+	Low
Taxation and pricing				
Alcohol taxes	+++	+++	+++	Low
Altering the drinking context				
Outlet policy not to serve intoxicated patrons	+	+++	++	Moderate
Training bar staff and managers to prevent and	+	+	+	Moderate
better manage aggression				
Voluntary codes of bar practice	0	+	+	Low
Enforcement of on-premise regulations and legal	++	+	++	High
requirements				· ·
Promoting alcohol-free activities and events	0	++	+	High
Community mobilization	++	++	+	High
Education and persuasion				
Alcohol education in schools	O_p	+++	++	High
College student education	0	+	+	High
Public service messages	0	+++	++	Moderate
Warning labels	0	+	+	Low
Regulating alcohol promotion				
Advertising bans	+ ^c	++	++	Low
Advertising content controls	?	0	0	Moderate
Drinking-driving countermeasures				
Sobriety check points	++	+++	+++	Moderate
Random breath testing (RBT)	+++	++	+	Moderate
Lowered BAC limits	+++	+++	++	Low
Administrative license suspension	++	++	++	Moderate
Low BAC for young drivers ('zero tolerance')	+++	++	+	Low
Graduated licensing for novice drivers	++	++	++	Low
Designated drivers and ride services	0	+	+	Moderate
Treatment and early intervention	++	+++	+++	
Brief intervention with at-risk drinkers				Moderate
Alcohol problems treatment	+	+++	+++	High
Mutual help/self-help attendance	+	+	++	Low
Mandatory treatment of repeat drinking-drivers	+	++	+	Moderate

(Source: Adapted from Babor et al. 2003, 2010).

As Table 11.1 shows, regulating or banning alcohol marketing does not rate particularly highly in terms of effectiveness, but is considered cost effective. However taking a wider view of marketing and including pricing, distribution and availability, it is clear that restrictions on marketing can have a powerful effect on tackling alcohol related harm. It is also important to consider that tackling alcohol related harm will require a comprehensive and multi-faceted intervention approach (Horlings and Scoggins, 2006). Regulating alcohol marketing might not immediately solve the problem of youth drinking, and excessive and

binge drinking among adults, but is one intervention within a tool box of measures to tackle the problem.

11.3.1 Bans on Alcohol Marketing

As previously mentioned, maintaining the status quo in relation to alcohol marketing regulation in the UK is met with resistance. Some within the public health sphere call for a total ban on most or all forms of alcohol marketing (Casswell and Maxwell, 2005; Anderson 2009; BMA, 2009; Godlee, 2009; Casswell and Thamarangsi, 2009). Research has demonstrated that alcohol advertising bans can lower alcohol consumption (Saffer, 1991; 2000; Saffer and Dave, 2003; Anderson *et al.* 2009a). Not all academics working in the field accept this evidence however (see: Smart and Cutler, 1976; Nelson and Young, 2001; Nelson, 2003). Whilst a complete ban on alcohol marketing might be effective in eliminating youth exposure to alcohol marketing, and any subsequent influence on drinking behaviour, it is undoubtedly the most draconian measure available and would take time and money to introduce. In marketing terms, it would also severely restrict creative freedom, and could, in effect, demonstrate an acceptance that marketing cannot be trusted to be socially responsible and be a positive force. Nevertheless, if improvements to regulation are not forthcoming bans may be introduced.

11.3.2 Self Regulation

The alcohol industry consistently lobbies that self-regulation is effective and sufficient to control alcohol marketing (EASA, 2007). However, there is very little good quality evidence on the effectiveness of self-regulation of alcohol marketing beyond the self-reporting offered

by the alcohol industry (Meier *et al.* 2008). Furthermore, there is evidence that the regulatory system in the UK largely based on self and co-regulation is not working (Hastings *et al.* 2010). Mapping reports of regulatory systems show that self-regulation is common across several countries in Europe but there is little knowledge about their effectiveness (STAP, 2007; Gordon *et al.* 2009a).

11.3.3 Statutory Regulation

Given the study findings, and the fact that the evidence base has demonstrated the influence of alcohol marketing on youth drinking behaviour, the current regulatory framework does not appear effective. This would suggest the need for some form of statutory regulation. The recent House of Commons Health Committee (2010) report on Alcohol made a number of recommendations for changes to the regulatory system.

- The regulation of alcohol promotion should be completely independent of the alcohol
 and advertising industries similar to other areas such as the financial services
 industry.
- Young people should be formally involved in the process of regulation, as they are best placed to judge how communications would impact on youth audiences.
- Better coverage of sponsorship, which is a key marketing tool for the alcohol industry.
- Recognition that the emergence of new media marketing activities requires work to improve controls and protection.

- Better restrictions on new media alcohol marketing, including a ban on alcohol
 promotion on social networking sites, and age restriction controls on any website
 containing alcohol promotion such as sports team websites.
- Restrictions on alcohol promotion in places where children are likely to be present, including a ban on billboards and posters within 100 metres of any school, a nine o'clock watershed for TV alcohol advertising, cinema advertising to be restricted to films classified as 18, a ban on advertising on any medium with a more than 10% audience/readership that is under the age of 18, and no event sponsorship if more than 10% of those attending are under the age of 18.
- Alcohol advertising should be balanced by public health messaging, even at a ratio of
 for every five television adverts an advertiser should be required to fund one public
 health advert.

(House of Commons Health Committee, 2010, pp79-80).

11.3.4 An Alternative Regulatory Approach: A UK Loi Evin

Another potential solution would be to introduce a version of the 'Loi Evin' regulatory system that operates in France. The Loi Evin was introduced in 1993 and bans; advertising of all alcoholic beverages over 1.2% ABV on TV and in cinemas; sponsorship of sport or cultural events by alcohol brands; and radio advertising of alcohol between 5pm and midnight. The law also prohibits targeting of minors and 'lifestyle' advertising of alcohol products. Instead, such advertisements can only refer to the actual characteristics of the product such as its brand name, ingredients and provenance, and how it should be prepared and served (Rigaud and Craplet, 2004).

A modified version of the 'Loi Evin' adapted to reflect the cultural context of the UK would perhaps offer a workable regulatory framework for alcohol marketing (Hastings and Sheron, 2011). Some of these proposals are similar to those developed independently and recommended in the House of Commons Health Committee report on alcohol, and reflect the author's preferred approach, based upon analysis of the evidence and policy (see Gordon *et al.* 2010 a, b).

A UK version of the 'Loi Evin', proposed by the author, would involve limiting marketing of alcoholic beverages across all channels (including new media) and ensuring that it does not target minors, use youth appeals or include any reference to youth culture or lifestyle advertising. Specific features of the system would include:

- TV advertising: A ban on alcohol advertising on TV before a 9pm or 10pm watershed
 in the evening would be introduced. Also, reduced advertising frequency, for
 example a maximum of five adverts per hour per channel, which would prevent overexposure.
- 2. Content of advertising/marketing: Any permitted advertising/marketing would only describe basic information about the product such as brand name, source, qualities, ingredients and price. This could prevent some of the more explicit marketing activity found in new media channels.
- 3. Billboards and posters: Billboard and poster advertising would only contain basic product information and would not be permitted within 200 metres of schools.
- 4. Websites: Advertising would only be permitted on clearly alcohol branded websites containing age restriction controls and messages.

- Other new media channels: All other new media marketing such as mobile phone and SMS, social networking, and website pop-ups would not be permitted.
- 6. Sponsorship: Restrictions or complete bans on sponsorship of sport and cultural events especially those associated with young people. Sponsorship would only be permitted for events/activities/organisations with a 100% adult audience/membership/participation. Sports sponsorship and sponsorship of music events attended by those under 18 would be forbidden. However, organisations could be encouraged and assisted to source socially responsible alternative funding.
- 7. Minimum pricing and reduced availability: In 1975, 90% of all alcohol was sold in the on trade; this is now under 50% (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010). Given the growth in off trade sales and at home drinking (UK Government, 2007), and the links between price and availability, and consumption and harm (Meier *et al.* 2008), restrictions on pricing and availability are required. A study modelling the impact of minimum alcohol pricing has suggested that it would be effective in reducing alcohol related harm (Meier *et al.* 2010). Statutory minimum pricing of £0.50 per unit of alcohol would be introduced and price promotions in the on and off trade would be banned. Also, local licensing boards would have some control over outlet density, which would not be permitted to exceed a maximum threshold based upon international evidence. Further, alcohol would only be permitted to be sold in stand-alone alcohol outlets in the off trade.
- 8. Legislation: Given that this proposed framework would involve statutory regulation, it would mean that breaches would no longer result in limited fines, but companies in breach would be breaking the law a powerful deterrent.

- Tough penalties: Complete bans on marketing, or withdrawal of product licenses, would be introduced for brands found to have breached the rules. This would act as a strong deterrent.
- 10. Pre-vetting: A comprehensive pre-vetting service across all channels of marketing to check content is acceptable could help ensure compliance.
- 11. Monitoring: Independent monitoring of alcohol marketing activity using media/marketing experts and importantly young people, who are familiar with the marketing channels, techniques and activities to conduct the monitoring, would be beneficial. Representative regulatory panels featuring communications experts and youth representatives who understand the issues better would also feature.

Such a system (See Figure 11.1), whilst not introducing a complete ban on alcohol marketing, would certainly help reduce exposure, and any effect of alcohol marketing on young people's drinking. Limiting alcohol marketing in such ways could also begin to contribute to a de-normalisation process of alcohol in society. Notwithstanding the issue of whether alcohol marketing directly influences behaviour, it contributes to the ubiquitous and normalised nature of alcohol in society. Therefore, controlling marketing may potentially contribute to a process of de-normalisation of alcohol. The attractiveness of an approach modelled upon the Loi Evin is in its simplicity. It is clearly stated by law, what alcohol marketing activity is allowed. Anything else is forbidden. Resultantly there is no ambiguity over what can and cannot be done, and instances of flouting the spirit if not the letter of the rules can be avoided.

Figure 11.1: Schema of Proposed Alcohol Marketing Regulatory System

Statutory Regulation

- UK version of the 'Loi Evin': All forms of alcohol marketing must only contain basic information on product - brand name, source, ingredients, qualities, price
- TV Advertising: Post 9pm watershed only and restricted to a maximum of 5 adverts per hour on each channel.
- Press Advertising: Permitted on basis of basic product information only
- Billboard/Poster Advertising: As above but no advertising within 200 metres of
- Sponsorship: Only sponsorship of events/organisations with 100% adult audience/attendance/participation is permitted.
- New media: Advertising permitted only on alcohol branded websites with age control restricted entry. All other forms including internet, social networking sites and mobile phone platforms will be forbidden.
- Pricing: Minimum pricing of 50p per unit of alcohol. No price promotions or specials permitted in the on or off trade.
- Availability: Local licensing boards will have power to control outlet density but
 this will not be permitted to exceed internationally recommended guidelines
 based upon the evidence base. In the off trade alcohol will only be allowed to be
 sold in stand alone licenses alcohol outlets.
- Other forms: No other forms of alcohol marketing communications will be permitted

Independent Monitoring Body

Will monitor marketing activity in all channels, especially channels such as new media and sponsorship and any examples of new or less understood examples of marketing such as experiential marketing, cool hunting, and use of music policy.

Any evidence of marketing activity found that is suspected as not being permitted under statutory regulation will be referred to the independent regulatory body.

Membership: Marketing and media experts, culture and society experts, young people and public health professionals.

Independent Regulatory Body

Mandatory pre-vetting of sample of 20% of all advertising communications will take place, plus additional requested pre-vetting.

Copy guidance will be available to marketing executives/brand managers and industry.

Complaints: An easy to access and use complaints procedure will be put in place. An independent complaints panel consisting of marketing, policy and regulation, culture and society experts, youth representatives and public health professionals will adjudicate on complaints.

Penalties: Penalties for breaking regulations will include bans on brand marketing, revocation of product licenses and large fines

Membership: Public health professionals, marketing and media experts, culture and society experts and young people.

Whatever the solution, the status quo is under close examination and failure to address some of the current issues with alcohol marketing and regulation may result in statutory regulation or even a ban being introduced. Key to this debate is the role of the alcohol industry, which is required to demonstrate sincerity in its claims to be socially responsible, and marketers who are required to show consideration of the social consequences of marketing activity.

11.4 A Future Research Agenda for Alcohol Marketing

Although this study and the emergence of other recent studies and reviews of the evidence base suggest that alcohol marketing does have an effect on youth drinking behaviour there are still areas for future research (Gordon et al. 2010a). The proliferation of alcohol marketing in below the line channels such as new media, sponsorship and viral marketing generates opportunities and indeed a requirement for good quality research examining the extent, nature and impact of this activity. For instance, there is little in the current literature examining alcohol portrayals on social networking sites, partly due to issues with privacy controls and ethics. Exploratory research examining the role of alcohol in social networking communications would enrich the knowledge base. Another area that emerged during the current study concerns alcohol sponsorship. In the UK and many other countries, a major component of the alcohol marketing mix consists of sports and music sponsorship. The author is currently actively pursuing funding opportunities to conduct research examining the role and process of alcohol sports sponsorship, and whether it influences consumers' attitudes and behaviours. This would involve mapping current alcohol sports sponsorship, ethnographic research using observation techniques to measure sponsorship activities within sports venues and clubs. Given that much of the annual spend on alcohol marketing in the

UK is shifting towards channels such as new media and sponsorship, there are considerable opportunities for future research in these areas. Indeed, research on areas not traditionally regarded as alcohol marketing, such as the role of music policy and alcohol related detritus, is also warranted.

Aside from this, the focus on alcohol marketing typically centres upon content rather than frequency of advertising. Although there is research in the US which suggests young people can be over exposed to alcohol marketing (Jernigan *et al.* 2007; Chung *et al.* 2009; King III *et al.* 2009), this has yet to be replicated elsewhere and the influence of level of exposure to alcohol marketing on drinking behaviour is largely unexplored. Recently the European Commission has commissioned research on the level of exposure of youth to alcohol marketing across certain media including television and new media, in several EU countries, and the thesis author has been approached to act as an advisor on one funding proposal. Conducting such research would involve interrogating AC Nielsen data to assess reach and potential exposure to alcohol marketing, and survey research with young people, to estimate levels of exposure.

Although recent years have witnessed a proliferation of longitudinal studies examining the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking behaviour, there are still possibilities for further research. Cohort studies measuring data across several time points, including tracking young people into adulthood would be useful, indeed, if funding permitted, the continuation of this particular study would have been desirable. Studies among students have demonstrated the important role alcohol plays in their lives (Piacentini and Banister, 2006).

Therefore tracking research of this nature would be particularly valuable, especially given the dearth of research exploring the impact of alcohol marketing on adult drinking behaviour. In addition to longitudinal consumer studies, scholars such as Meier (2011a; b) and Saffer (2011) have revisited the utility of econometric research on alcohol marketing and youth drinking, suggesting that the recent neuro-economic model of addiction offers an explanatory framework applicable to advertising effects. Therefore, future research could investigate this applicability, potentially leading to a re-evaluation of the validity of econometric studies in this area.

Furthermore, the current study, and indeed future research, could benefit from the inclusion of ethnographic research to help make sense of quantitative findings, and understand the wider social context within which alcohol marketing, and alcohol consumption operates. Ethnographic research can generate greater understanding and insight, particularly on a topic such as alcohol. Furthermore, it can often be carried out in a more naturalistic setting, for example by using observation techniques (Bryman, 2008). A holistic approach to research on factors influencing alcohol consumption, and drinking cultures, utilising expertise from anthropology, psychology, sociology, marketing, biology and public health, could facilitate a more complete understanding of its role in society, and identify interventions that are more informed and policy responses.

Importantly, future research could also consider the role alcohol marketing may play in normalising alcohol in society. Research in the field of tobacco control has demonstrated that in the past, smoking was considered a normal behaviour, and that alcohol marketing

contributed a normalisation effect (DiFranza et al. 2006; Brown and Moodie, 2009; Brown et al. 2010). The literature has now focused on how tobacco control efforts can contribute towards a de-normalisation of smoking (Brown et al. 2009). Survey research analysed using structural equation modelling similar to the work on tobacco, would be useful to assess whether alcohol marketing does have a normalising effect, and whether certain policy and regulatory controls can de-normalise alcohol in society.

There is also a paucity of research on the effectiveness of self-regulation, limiting our ability to rate this approach as a policy response. Studies such as the ESLA project, and internal reports commissioned by the European Commission to serve the European Alcohol and Health Forum, have mapped out regulatory systems. Yet, despite claims by the alcohol industry that self-regulation is effective, there is little evaluation research measuring its effectiveness. Objective and independent comparative research, between countries, to measure the effectiveness of advertising and marketing bans, statutory regulation, and self-regulation, would be very informative and help guide appropriate policy responses.

An important consideration in relation to any suggestion future research on alcohol marketing and young people is the funding environment, the demands and expectations of policy makers, and limitations on research due to data protection and ethics. This section has suggested extended time series studies, as well as comprehensive studies in other areas involving alcohol marketing, that would require considerable funding. Although Meier (2011a) identified that researchers have not come up with the perfect study to examine the impact of alcohol marketing, Jones (2011) has rightly pointed out that the difficulty of

obtaining long-term funding to conduct such research is a barrier. Indeed, the funding environment in the UK for academic research is currently extremely competitive, with considerable restrictions on the amount of research funds available due to cuts in public sector expenditure following the global financial crisis. However, policy makers, and research managers, have the ability to shape the funding environment, so that studies of this type can be carried out. It is therefore imperative that researchers in the field, state their case strongly to support their research proposals. Also, Jones (2011) discusses how rules pertaining to data protection, and privacy laws, and the deliberations of university ethics committees, can obstruct research on areas such as alcohol marketing in new media and social networking. Therefore, it is important to acknowledge that although this section has offered a number of suggestions for future research on alcohol marketing, there are various obstacles that would need to be overcome prior to such studies being carried out.

11.5 Challenges Encountered During the Research Process

The research process for this study also demonstrated some of the methodological challenges and difficulties experienced in conducting research with adolescents, especially when examining sensitive research topics. Issues with gaining access to a suitable sample frame, data protection laws, low response rate and attrition meant that the research design had to be adapted despite adherence to many of the research principles designed to limit such problems. This produces some learning points and some possible directions for future research. The process demonstrated the importance of gaining access to a suitable sample frame and, for this study, a longer period of time for exploring sample frames would have

been beneficial. In terms of sampling, more follow up letters to potential respondents and greater publicity and media relations work may have helped to increase response rates.

The research design also impacted upon the time and resources that could be spent conducting the follow up survey and a higher number of interview attempts for each respondent may have resulted in lower sample attrition. However, in many cases and despite the best efforts of the researchers, such issues still remain. Therefore, research that examines some of the issues with generating large samples of adolescents following a proposed random sampling procedure, dealing with low response rates and high attrition rates and the role that data protection laws play in social research would be welcome. The aforementioned all represent bona fide themes that form an agenda for alcohol marketing research in the future.

11.6 Assessing the Conceptual Framework for the Study

This study successfully demonstrated the validity and utility of the 'critical social marketing' conceptual framework proposed; defined by the author as 'critical research from a marketing perspective on the impact commercial marketing has upon society, to build the evidence base, inform upstream efforts such as advocacy, policy and regulation, and inform the development of downstream social marketing interventions.'

The understanding of commercial marketing offered by a critical social marketing framework, and the knowledge and experience of marketing communications, enabled a comprehensive examination of how alcohol marketing influences youth drinking. This has

also generated findings that tell us how commercial marketing can impact upon society, and has implications for marketing theory and practice discussed in the next section.

11.6.1 Contribution to the Scientific Evidence Base

As previously mentioned, the findings have contributed to the scientific evidence base (Gordon *et al.* 2010b; Gordon *et al.* 2010c, Gordon *et al.* 2011). In addition, the social marketing approach employed has allowed insight into contemporary alcohol marketing across a number of channels, including new media and sponsorship, and examined the impact it has on youth drinking behaviours. Use of an approach influenced by critical theory facilitated a critical deconstruction of commercial alcohol marketing in the UK, which helped to identify unethical or harmful activity such as new media content that is appealing to under-age drinkers.

11.6.2 Contribution to Upstream Social Marketing

In order to achieve intelligent solutions, upstream social marketing activity to inform advocacy, policy and regulation has come out of the study. Researchers have been invited to present findings from the study to a wide range of stakeholders and organisations including the Swedish Presidency of the EU (Gordon *et al.* 2009d), the Scottish Government (Gordon and MacAskill, 2007), the UK House of Commons Health Committee (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010), the National Youth Council of Ireland (Gordon, 2009b), EUCAM (Gordon, 2008a), Eurocare (Gordon, 2008b), Angus DAAT (Drug and Alcohol Action Team) (Gordon, 2006b), EU Alcohol Policy and Youth Network (Gordon, 2008c), the EAHF (Hastings and Gordon, 2008), Renfrewshire Council (Gordon, 2008d), and NHS Greater

Glasgow (Gordon and Hastings, 2007b). Results from the research have also been used in publications by stakeholders such as the BMA (BMA, 2009) and policy makers (House of Commons Health Committee, 2010). In doing so, the critical approach take in this study seeks to offer solutions rather than merely criticism. It does however remain to be seen whether the findings from this and other studies on alcohol marketing, result in recognisable changes in policy and regulation.

11.6.3 Contribution to Downstream Social Marketing Interventions

Information from the study has also been used to inform the development of downstream social marketing interventions on alcohol. As an example the author has been involved in a steering group guiding the development of a social marketing intervention targeting youth drinking in Angus, in Scotland. Findings from the study will also be disseminated to public health bodies such as NHS Health Scotland, to help inform targeted social marketing and youth interventions on alcohol.

11.6.4 Legitimacy of the Conceptual Framework

The critical social marketing approach proposed appears to have offered a legitimate conceptual framework for the research. Importantly, it offers a new dimension to the conceptual understanding of studies of this nature as it departs from the traditional critical marketing and social marketing literature. Previously, research using a social marketing understanding of commercial marketing to investigate the effect it has upon society did not sit easily within the social marketing paradigm (Andreasen, 2003; Dann, 2010). Furthermore, attempts to align this approach with critical marketing have met with resistance (Tadajewski

and Brownlie, 2008; Bettany and Woodruffe-Burton, 2009). This suggests that the critical social marketing approach proposed, and tested in this study, is lacking in respect to definition and does not have a recognisable domain within marketing thought. The conceptualisation, definition and application of critical social marketing and the proposal that it can be considered as a distinct part of marketing thought in itself, therefore offers a path to a more established acceptance of critical social marketing, and may assist those working in this area to locate, and conduct their research. This proposition and definition, application and testing, and apparent legitimisation of the critical social marketing framework therefore aids development and understanding of social marketing research in this area. These thoughts are further elaborated upon in chapter thirteen (Gordon, 2011).

11.7 Implications for Marketing as a Discipline

The findings from this research hold wider implications for the marketing discipline. Clearly there are some issues and concerns with the way alcohol is marketed and this impacts upon not only alcohol producers and commercial marketers, but marketing academics also. Consideration of the impact mainstream marketing theory, concepts and practice can have upon society, for example in encouraging youth drinking, is required, and a need for greater reflexivity becomes apparent. The dominant positivist managerialist stream approach to mainstream marketing needs to be challenged, and alternative ideas, approaches and theories embraced. Although it is not necessarily desirable for the solution to be to simply ban marketing where it can generate unintended effects, marketing has to become more effective and better targeted with reduced negative impact upon society, and become more socially responsible with principles and practices that reflect this. This is not the case currently in

relation to alcohol marketing in the UK (Hastings *et al.* 2010). A socially responsible and more sustainable approach should be found at the core of marketing theory, planning and execution, facilitating a new role for marketing in society. These are not new suggestions, and do not fly in the face of all previous marketing thought (Wilkie and Moore, 1999). Moreover there is a consistent thread in much contemporary literature that argues that marketing must become more benevolent than in the past (Sheth and Sisodia, 2005; Witkowski, 2005; Peattie, 2007; Tadajewski, 2008; Satinder, 2009). It is important that the marketing discipline heeds these calls for change. Sub-disciplines such as critical marketing, social marketing and sustainable marketing, and concepts such as consumer orientation, social responsibility and ethics in marketing have a vital role to play in the future development of the discipline.

11.8 Implications of the Findings for Inter-Disciplinary Research

Alcohol consumption is a sophisticated social phenomenon, and the findings from this current study have implications for inter-disciplinary research on alcohol. Traditionally, alcohol research has focused on epidemiological studies, examining a range of variables that may be associated with consumption, but neglecting marketing (Rehm *et al.* 2009). Sociocultural studies on the role of alcohol in society (Room and Mäkelä, 2000), would benefit from including consideration of alcohol marketing as a variable for analysis. Furthermore, alcohol marketing may potentially be a factor in the interface between alcohol and identity (Wilson, 2005), shaping individuals relationship with alcohol and how it reflects their personality, lifestyle and self identity (de Chernatony, 1993). However, it is important to

acknowledge that a wide range of other socio-cultural variables are associated with drinking behaviour (see chapter 6.9).

11.9 Study Limitations

One of the key limitations of this study is that despite suggesting a relationship between alcohol marketing and youth drinking it cannot unequivocally demonstrate causality. To prove a causal link when examining a sophisticated behavioural phenomenon such as drinking behaviour is perhaps not possible. However, the findings demonstrate the influence that alcohol marketing has on youth drinking behaviour, and are consistent with the alcohol, and indeed tobacco, marketing literature. Limitations also exist with the sampling process; the low response rate, high attrition rate and the failure to employ a random sample. This resulted in a smaller and perhaps less representative sample than originally planned, questioning the generalisability of the findings (Shavelson and Webb, 1991), although checks on our sample did show that it was largely representative of the rest of the population. The research might have benefited from a slightly different design that allowed more time to explore suitable sample frames and negotiate issues with access, gatekeepers and dealing with response rates. Although standard procedures were followed to limit the impact of low response rates and high attrition, arguably these problems may have been avoided, or at least reduced, through more concerted efforts to invite adolescents to take part, perhaps through media work, and also to follow those participants recruited at wave one.

Although the use of a critical social marketing framework has been partly supported, given the considerable upstream outputs from the study, it remains to be seen whether policy and regulation in this area will actually change in any meaningful way. Currently there seems to be a groundswell of opinion that alcohol marketing requires a robust and considered policy response and regulation, but time will only tell if this is forthcoming. Given that one of the key tenets of a critical social marketing and critical theory influenced approach is to change society for the better, and provide solutions to enable such change, it is too early to say whether this study will contribute to this change.

The research model employed may not offer a complete explanation of young people's drinking behaviour and it should be acknowledged that other factors, that are unknown or have not been discussed, might influence such behaviour. Nevertheless, the model used reflects current knowledge. The research hypotheses developed were not all supported and although this is not necessarily a limitation, given that non support for a research hypothesis is a finding in itself, it could be suggested that other researchers may have generated different research hypotheses. Indeed it is important to acknowledge that in any research process there is a degree of bias introduced by the researcher and true objectivity is impossible to attain. Different people might have approached the whole study in any number of different ways. A researcher can only be guided by theory and literature but must determine the actual path that research will take. These issues were navigated using the best available knowledge, interpretation and understanding, but also recognising the role of instinct and personal influence over the research process.

11.10 Pedagogical Reflections

The process of reflecting on the epistemological process whilst reading for a PhD has been discussed and supported in existing literature (Hanrahan, 1999; Tombelin, 1999). Despite rhetoric about the importance of constructivism in gaining knowledge (Driver, 1988; Tobin, 1993), it can be difficult for doctoral researchers to explore the nature and scope of knowledge as part of the process due to the traditional, linear, objective scientific model used in PhD research (Hanrahan, 1999). Displaying a degree of reflexivity on a PhD is however important and, as such, this section presents some pedagogical reflections on the research process that help explore how knowledge was gained and what it means.

At the outset of the PhD process, the author had some limited experience of conducting social research and of academic writing. This experience was valuable and allowed the confidence to conduct and write about the research. However, given the magnitude of the research project, and some of the challenges and complexities that would emerge, the study involved a considerable learning process. Notwithstanding the extensive academic knowledge gained about theory, principles, constructs, marketing, young people, alcohol and policy, the process enhanced other forms of learning such as developing research skills, project management, managing professional relationships and the importance of extensive analysis and critical reflection.

Some of the major challenges inherent in the project such as problems with obtaining the sample, negotiating with gatekeepers, organising and managing the fieldwork, dealing with a low response rate and high attrition rate, and facilitating an effective research team

environment, inevitably often involved lessons in 'crisis management'. These experiences were valuable to develop a more experienced approach, and also to enhance research capability. Furthermore, the challenge of maintaining professional and personal relationships throughout the research process required considerable focus. Operating in a team environment, in which an exchange of ideas was common, resulted in learning about decision-making and consensus building. Also maintaining relationships with team members and supervisors, due to occasional personality clashes, differences of opinion, and alternate views, was at times challenging. This was particularly the case during the occasionally difficult process of writing for publication as lead author whilst part of a multiple member project team, which can require delicate negotiating (Johnson, 2007).

The process could at times become physically, mentally and spiritually demanding, requiring a careful balancing act. Furthermore, the fact that the thesis is a PhD by publication was a challenge in itself given that very few PhDs had been done this way at the University of Stirling, resulting in, at times, a lack of understanding and guidance, and a sense that this was a pioneer thesis for this study route. Indeed, despite extensive literature on the role and nature of PhD supervision (Delamont *et al.* 1997; Wright and Cochrane, 2000; Mullins and Kiley, 2002; Park 2005), there is a suggestion that it can often be an arbitrary and unstructured process that can fail to meet expectations (Haksever and Manisalli, 2000). These difficulties can be compounded when the student is a full time staff member, as was the case of the author, which can limit opportunities for meetings, discussion and administrative tasks.

At times going through the process of reading for a PhD can seem like tackling an assault course blindfolded where one never knows what the next obstacle is going to be – or like jumping through hoops (Trotter, 2003). The impact of these experiences can be quite considerable in shaping the mindset of an academic researcher. At times the author felt that staying in academia could offer the most rewarding career possible, both intellectually and spiritually. At other times a feeling of scepticism, frustration and mistrust pervaded. There has also been a realisation that gaining a PhD is not an end in itself, but a journey that a student goes through, which in some ways never really ends.

Reflecting upon the research paradigm that informed this PhD and the study, a pragmatic approach which utilised mixed methods, featuring elements of positivism, constructivism and critical theory was well suited given the terms of reference for this project. The phases of research using mixed methods were reciprocal, enabling data triangulation and refinement to be achieved. The author does not offer a hardened epistemological standpoint other than a tentative identification with critical theory, internalism, constructivism and fallibism, but a pragmatic approach avoids the restrictions associated with identifying with, and adhering to, a single research paradigm. For the author the PhD process has resulted in thinking about learning and knowledge in a different, more reflective way. This process of gaining knowledge was important in shaping the development of the author as an academic, as a researcher and as a person. Therefore demonstrating a degree of reflexivity is perhaps one of the most important outputs from reading for a PhD (Maxey, 1999).

11.11 Concluding Remarks

In demonstrating that alcohol marketing does seem to have an association with youth drinking among the cohort of respondents, this study contributes to the existing evidence base. Furthermore, the project suggests that research designed using a critical social marketing framework can provide findings of scientific interest, and can be used to facilitate upstream social marketing, and inform the debate around policy and regulation, as well as downstream interventions. The fact that the findings from this study have already fed into the policy debate highlights the applicability of a critical social marketing approach. Overall, this study contributes to scientific knowledge, to marketing and social marketing theory, to policy and regulation, and, as such, to society as a whole.

11.12 Postscript

The final chapter acts as a postscript to the research, presenting an article that considers the critical social marketing conceptual framework used in this study. The article entitled 'Critical Social Marketing: Definition, Application and Domain' (Gordon, 2011) has been accepted for publication in the *Journal of Social Marketing* a new journal in the field supported by a range of leading social marketing academics. The paper presents critical social marketing as a recognised conceptual framework, reviews its application and offers a definition.

CHAPTER TWELVE: (Publication six)

Gordon, R. (2011). Critical Social Marketing: Definition, Application and Domain. *Journal of Social Marketing*, 1(2):

12.1 Abstract

Purpose: This article examines the nature and role of the critical dimension social marketing and its place within marketing scholarly thought. It is posited that such activity can be defined as 'critical social marketing' and a formal definition is offered.

Approach: The ability of critical social marketing to inform the research and evidence base, as well as upstream and downstream activity is discussed. Scholarly debate on the role of critical social marketing within the social marketing and critical marketing paradigms, both of which heavily inform the concept, are reviewed. The application of a critical social marketing framework to the study of the impact of tobacco and food marketing is examined.

Findings: The article demonstrates the utility of a critical social marketing framework in real world environments. Important considerations on who critical social marketers are and where the concept is located within marketing thought are addressed. The article concludes by arguing that critical social marketing is a valid and established sub-set of marketing thought within its own right, and should henceforth be regarded as such.

Value: Offering a definition of critical social marketing formalises its position within marketing thought. Discussing the tensions surrounding the critical dimension of social marketing within the social marketing and critical marketing paradigms demonstrates the

difficulty in locating concepts within existing literature. A review of the application of critical social marketing demonstrates its validity. Positing that critical social marketing should be located as a sub-set within social marketing contributes to the marketing discipline and the organisation of marketing ideas and concepts.

12.2 Introduction

Since the inception of social marketing in the early 1970s, the application of marketing principles and practices to advance social good has witnessed major growth. During the same period social marketing applications have expanded to cover a wide range of social issues including smoking (MacAskill *et al.* 2002), drinking (Perry *et al.* 1996), food and nutrition (Nader *et al.* 1999), physical activity (Huhman *et al.* 2005), problem gambling (Powell and Tapp, 2008) and sustainability (McKenzie-Mohr and Smith, 1999). Consequently, social marketing is now recognised as a bona fide sub-set of marketing thought.

The scope of social marketing is reflected in various definitions emphasising different aspects of the field (Dann, 2010). These typically identify features such as the use of marketing institutions, processes, principles and techniques, and behavioural theories and models, to induce voluntary behaviour change. However, Lazer and Kelley (1973) argue that not only should social marketing be concerned with the use of marketing principles and practices to engender social good, but that it should involve the examination of the impact of commercial marketing on society and help to address any ills caused by it. This is reflected in their definition:

"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 analysis of the social consequence of marketing policies, decisions and activities." (p. ix emphasis added)

Indeed consideration of marketing's 'bright side' and 'dark side' is not a new line of thought but has been around since the formation of the discipline itself (Wilkie and Moore, 1999, 2003). As examples; Cherrington (1920) considered whether marketing performance and associated societal welfare might be improved by examining the underlying functions that marketing activities deliver to, and Galbraith (1958) considered how marketing and consumerism contributed to widening economic inequality. Accordingly the impact of marketing on social outcomes has formed an important stream of thought within the discipline.

Social marketers have described this preoccupation with the social consequences of marketing as 'critical social marketing' (Hastings, 2009; Gordon *et al.* 2010a), with the introduction of a critical dimension ensuring an understanding of both the good and the bad that marketing can bring to society (Hastings and Saren, 2003). However despite such activity being in existence for many years, critical social marketing currently lacks clarity. Some social marketing scholars view such activity as unrelated to social marketing; instead being defined as socially responsible marketing or critical marketing. Indeed in the past the terms 'social marketing' and 'critical marketing' have been used almost interchangeably (Gordon et al. 2007). Critical marketers have also debated this issue often excluding social

marketing from the critical marketing paradigm (Tadajewski and Brownlie, 2008). Much of the discourse relates to a wider debate and tensions around the scope and definition of the general marketing concept.

Arnold and Fischer (1996) propose three strands of marketing thought: *apologists* who favour a narrow definition of marketing limited to the firm, and view it as positive as it helps the economy (Luck, 1969), *social marketers* who believe that marketing should be defined as applying to society as a whole and use its principles and practices to engender social good and address its deficiencies (Kotler and Zaltman 1971; Hastings, 2007), and *reconstructionists* who are critical of marketing concepts and processes as well as its outcomes (Dawson, 1972). The latter are often regarded as proponents of critical marketing which involves the social and reflexive critique of marketing theory and practice. In some ways 'critical social marketers' are caught between the social marketers, and deconstructionists. This situation has roots in the discourse and range of views emerging from the lack of agreement on scope and definitions in the fields of social marketing (Gordon *et al.* 2008 a), and critical marketing (Burton, 2001).

Acknowledging the lack of theoretical development in marketing thought (Dholakia, 2009), particularly with respect to social marketing (Peattie and Peattie, 2003); yet recognising the importance of theory in the discipline (Lee and Greenley, 2008), this conceptual paper defines and identifies the domain for what is termed 'critical social marketing'. The broadening of the marketing concept to social marketing is considered, with a particular focus on the critical dimension of social marketing which involves examining the impact of

commercial marketing on society. Such activity has been identified with mainstream social marketing, upstream social marketing, socially responsible marketing and critical marketing. However, confusion remains over how to define, apply and locate what may be termed 'critical social marketing' within marketing thought. Indeed no formal definition or domain has been identified for this approach. This paper reviews some of the scholarly debate and tensions in this area, before assessing case studies on the application of critical social marketing to tobacco and alcohol marketing demonstrating its utility as a conceptual framework. A definition of critical social marketing is then offered, before questioning who critical social marketers are, and considering the location of the field within the academic marketing domain.

12.3 Social marketing and critical social marketing

The majority of social marketing discourse has focused on the delivery of individual level behaviour change interventions. The most commonly cited definition is offered by Kotler and Zaltman in their seminal 1971 article in the Journal of Marketing entitled 'Social Marketing: an approach to planned social change.' They defined social marketing as "the design, implementation and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution and marketing research" (p5). Although their work formed part of the stream of marketing scholars broadening the concept of marketing, this definition did not overtly consider the critical dimension of social marketing. Furthermore, all but Lazer and Kelley's definition offered subsequently; narrowly focused on downstream behaviour change (Dann, 2010). This perhaps explains why most social marketing activity has been restricted to this

domain, and the critical dimension of social marketing espoused by Lazer and Kelley has been marginalised.

Some within social marketing remain sceptical about the critical agenda and its place within social marketing (Wells, 1997). Kotler and Zaltman's original definition of social marketing has been credited with creating confusion and making social marketing difficult to distinguish from 'socially responsible marketing' which aims to regulate commercial marketing practices that are damaging to society (Rangun and Karim, 1991; Andreasen, 1994). According to this view the Lazer and Kelley reference to analysing the social consequences of marketing does not belong within social marketing but societal marketing (Fox and Kotler, 1980) or socially responsible marketing (Andreasen, 2003). Dann (2010) argues that Lazer and Kelley's proposition represented the foundation of critical marketing rather than being related to social marketing. This identification with critical marketing is discussed later on. Yet Lazer and Kelley believed that an important function of social marketing activity is to provide control and social audit (1973). This view has found support among scholars using a critical social marketing approach (Hastings, 2007; 2009; Gordon *et al.* 2010b).

French (2009) describes critical social marketing as an aspect of social marketing that critically reviews commercial marketing practices that have a negative impact upon society. He goes on to highlight that it is a tool for understanding part of the competition that exists in most behavioural change arenas. Competitive analysis forms an important part of marketing strategy in the commercial world (Wensley, 2003). Moreover, addressing the competition

has been established as one of the benchmark criterions for delivering social marketing interventions (Andreasen, 2002; French and Blair-Stevens, 2006). Critical social marketing research can therefore play an important part in informing competitive analysis in social marketing programmes (Rothschild and Miller, 2006).

Andreasen (2003) and others fail to fully acknowledge the obvious synergies between critical social marketing and upstream social marketing. Upstream social marketing emerged following calls by social marketing scholars for a focus not only on downstream individual behaviour change -such as interventions designed to reduce smoking, but influencing behaviour at the upstream level – changing the behaviour of stakeholders such as decision makers, policy makers and regulators to produce positive social outcomes such as regulation or banning of tobacco marketing (Goldberg, 1995; Andreasen, 1995). Crucially this involves the application of marketing principles to this activity and a realisation that managers, regulators, civil servants and policy makers are a target audience with specific behavioural goals, influences, barriers, needs and motivations just like anyone else. A key facet of a critical social marketing approach is to use research findings to inform upstream activities such as advocacy and policy and regulation.

Therefore, despite a range of opinions and views within the field it is apparent that critical social marketing has many synergies and associations with its social marketing hinterland. The other area which critical social marketing borrows heavily from is critical marketing.

12.4 Critical marketing and critical social marketing

Critical marketing scholars are also somewhat divided on the critical dimension of social marketing. Critical marketing emerged as a result of radical social, economic and political changes over a number of years that resulted in scholars calling for a critical appraisal of marketing theory and practice (Brownlie *et al.* 1994; Thomas 1999). Critical marketing is strongly influenced by critical theory, a social theory informed by several streams of thought such as Marxist theory and deconstruction theory aimed towards critiquing and changing society (Horkheimer, 1937). The critical theory approach emanated from the Frankfurt school of social philosophers led by Max Horkheimer and further developed by Jurgen Habermas (1983). This approach has been widely debated and applied in a range of disciplines including sociology (Scambler, 1996), cultural studies (Gunster, 2004), criminology (Sheley, 1985), politics (Dubiel, 1985), religious studies (Kim, 1996), archaeology (Shanks and Tilley, 1987) and medicine (Waitzkin, 1989).

The critical approach has also begun to be applied in the marketing discipline. Using this theoretical framework, critical marketing aims to influence the change of theory and practice through the critical analysis of marketing, and the facilitation of alternative marketing systems. However, critical marketing is also influenced by, and has informed several other streams of thought including sustainability (Fuller, 1999), ethics (Crane, 1997), feminism (Maclaran *et al.* 2009), discourse analysis (Brownlie and Saren, 1997) and postmodernism (Rolling, 2008). Legitimacy to the critical marketing sub-discipline is offered by the fact that it has been identified as one of the paradigmatic approaches in marketing and consumer research (Murray and Ozanne, 1991; Lowe *et al.* 2005). In recent years definitions of critical

marketing have been discussed (Saren *et al.* 2007) with common themes of a critical theory based approach, theoretical pluralism, methodological pluralism, and a commitment to ontological denaturalisation, epistemological reflexivity and a non-performative stance, emerging (Tadajewski and Brownlie, 2008). However a clearer definition remains somewhat illusive leading Burton (2001) to describe critical marketing as a conceptual cluster rather than a singularly defined concept.

The critical marketing paradigm has generated differences in interpretation and understanding (Saren *et al.* 2007; Tadajewski and Brownlie, 2008) and has also been identified as an esoteric and rarefied pursuit (Tregear *et al.* 2007). Furthermore it could be suggested that critical marketing lacks engagement with practice. If one of its aims is to encourage a rethink of marketing then this process would benefit from the contribution of marketing practitioners. These issues emerge when considering how social marketing and critical marketing may coincide.

Over the years some critical marketers have criticised social marketing for displaying little evidence of critical self-reflection (Tadajewski and Brownlie, 2008). Indeed when social marketing has been criticised (Buchanan *et al.* 1994) the response has been largely defensive rather than acknowledging and introspective (Hastings and Heywood, 1994). This suggests critical reflexivity is somewhat lacking in social marketing. Debate over the parameters of critical marketing (Brownlie and Hewer, 2007) has included consideration of the location of social marketing within the critical marketing paradigm.

Some proponents of the view that social marketing is not related to critical marketing prefer a narrower definition of critical marketing adhering to the Critical Theory School of Marxist thought (Bradshaw and Firat, 2007). Other critical marketers regard the critical dimension of social marketing as not related to critical marketing due to a perceived lack of reflexivity (Tadajewksi and Brownlie, 2008), or that social marketing is merely a self serving adaptation of the existing marketing system to be treated with scepticism (Bettany and Woodruffe-Burton, 2009; Tadajewski, 2010). However, Saren *et al.* (2007) include contributions from social marketing in their book 'Critical Marketing: Defining the field' though do comment that it has not conventionally been regarded as 'critical.' They chose to include examples of 'critical social marketing' due to their 'perspectives of critique on both marketing concepts and practices in social and environmental terms' (Saren *et al.* 2007, p. xix). Furthermore, Hastings and Saren (2003) propose that social marketing can make a critical contribution to marketing thought and practice by offering critique and solutions.

It is not easy to resolve these tensions and reconcile this divergence of thought. This does not mean that the critical dimension of social marketing can be ignored or assessed as having no links with critical marketing. Perhaps a more appropriate term for this kind of activity is 'critical social marketing' (Hastings, 2009), a distinct concept separate from social marketing and critical marketing but strongly influenced by both constructs. This approach acknowledges the influence of both social marketing and critical marketing but avoids laying claim to territory that is perhaps more narrowly defined. To help understand how critical social marketing functions let us consider the application of the framework as applied to the topics of tobacco marketing, and alcohol marketing.

12.5 Critical Social Marketing and Tobacco

Since the devastating health impacts from tobacco smoking were first widely identified in the 1950s (Doll and Hill, 1950; Hammond and Horn, 1954) much focus has been given to limiting its damaging impact upon society. This has included various tobacco control efforts such as changing policy, regulation, and law, and efforts to change people's behaviour by stopping, or not starting to, smoke. Furthermore, attention turned to factors that may contribute to people smoking including tobacco marketing (Pierce *et al.* 1999).

During the 1980s and 1990s many studies on the impact of tobacco marketing on smoking behaviour were conducted, examining its extent, breadth and nature, as well as its impact on behaviour. Social marketers, using a critical approach to research the phenomenon (MacFadyen et al. 2001; Anderson et al. 2006), conducted some of these studies. Social marketing researchers could use their expert knowledge of marketing theory and practice to inform research on the topic. A large proportion of these studies focused on the issue of tobacco marketing and its impact on youth smoking behaviour, allowing for assessment of the impact on initiation into smoking. Examples of how the tobacco industry marketed to young people include the use of cartoon images in advertising such as 'Reg', or 'Joe Camel'; or through the use of sponsorship of sports and events appealing to youths (Hastings et al. 1994; Hafez and Ling, 2005; Gordon et al. 2008b). Over the years the evidence linking tobacco marketing with smoking behaviour developed, with the Cochrane systematic review finding that tobacco marketing does influence smoking behaviour and "that tobacco advertising and promotion increases the likelihood that adolescents will start to smoke" (Lovato *et al.* 2003, p1).

Social marketers involved in this area did not, however, stop at producing evidence of the impact of tobacco marketing. Several became active in 'upstream social marketing' efforts such as advocacy, and policy and regulation forums. In the UK, a report based upon critical social marketing research which involved an analysis of internal documents from the tobacco industry's advertising agencies was commissioned and discussed during the House of Commons Health Committee investigation entitled the 'Tobacco Industry and the Health Risks of Smoking', and one of the authors, a social marketing academic, was used as a special advisor to the committee (Hastings and MacFadyen, 2000; House of Commons Health Committee, 2000). The research demonstrated that the UK tobacco industry used a wide range of communication channels to create powerful and evocative marketing campaigns to encourage people to start and continue smoking. Vulnerable groups such as the poor and young people were specifically targeted by tobacco marketers through the creation of value brands or the use of material holding appeal to youths in marketing communications. Evidence of strategies for undermining tobacco control policy was found. An apparent lack of ethical and moral concern and the single-minded pursuit of profit and market share were deduced. The tone of the report was encapsulated by its title, taken from how one creative director signed off a letter to a tobacco client: 'Keep Smiling, No-one's Going to Die.' The evidence led the committee to conclude that the UK Government could not maintain the view that a tightening of tobacco advertising controls would be unlikely to contribute to a reduction of smoking prevalence in the UK. Such activity, complemented by the wider efforts of the tobacco control lobby, and general political and societal concern, resulted in a ban on most forms of tobacco marketing in the UK with the introduction of the *Tobacco Advertising and Promotion Act 2002.*

The example of tobacco therefore demonstrates that research which has a critical social marketing perspective has the ability to not only help us understand the effects commercial marketing can have on society, but can be used to inform efforts to change policy and regulation for social good. Indeed research has demonstrated that the tobacco marketing ban has resulted in significant public health improvements in the UK (Harris *et al.* 2006). Importantly the findings and learning from the social marketing research into tobacco marketing were also used to inform the development of downstream social marketing interventions designed to change individual smoking behaviours (MacAskill *et al.* 2002). This demonstrates that a critical social marketing framework generates knowledge and understanding, and can contribute to the downstream and upstream social marketing domains.

12.6 Critical Social Marketing and Alcohol

A critical social marketing approach has also been applied to the study of alcohol marketing and its impact on society. The deleterious effects of problem drinking and alcohol related harm is well documented. Alcohol related health harms are considerable with an estimated 3.8% of all global deaths and 4.6% of global disability adjusted life years are attributable to alcohol (Rehm *et al.* 2009). Problem drinking is associated with a range of long term health harms including coronary heart disease (Gutjahr *et al.* 2001), liver cirrhosis (Leon and McCambridge, 2006) and stroke (Britton and McPherson, 2001). Furthermore alcohol is estimated to be present in half of all crime (Crime and Society Foundation, 2004), contributes to lost productivity and is often implicated in family breakdown (Prime Minister's Strategy Unit, 2003). Hazardous youth drinking is correlated with a range of

health harms, poor educational performance, risky sexual behaviour and teenage pregnancy (Hibell *et al.* 2009; Newbury-Birch *et al.* 2009; OECD, 2009). Furthermore, alcohol use at an earlier age is a predictor of future dependency (Bonomo *et al.* 2004). This has generated attention on potential contributory factors to drinking behaviours including alcohol marketing (Babor *et al.* 2003).

A range of studies on the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking behaviour have been conducted since the issue was first researched in the early 1980s (Hastings et al. 2005). Recent systematic reviews of the evidence base have suggested a causal link between alcohol marketing and youth drinking behaviour (Anderson et al. 2009; Smith and Foxcroft, 2009). Social marketers have contributed to this evidence base applying a critical social marketing framework to the research. One study, albeit in the mid 1990s, examined the influence of designer drinks (often known as alcopops) on young people (Hughes et al. 1997; MacKintosh et al. 1997). The study found that designer drinks had particular characteristics that were appealing to young people. It was also found that the consumption of designer drinks was associated with drinking in less controlled environments, heavier drinking and drunkenness. Another study conducted as part of the National Preventive Research Initiative in the UK examined the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking. The study used a two-stage cohort design and found a significant association between involvement with alcohol marketing and uptake of drinking and increased frequency of drinking; and between awareness of alcohol marketing and increased frequency of drinking (Gordon et al. 2010c; Gordon *et al.* 2011).

The results of these and other studies have been fed into the upstream advocacy and policy arenas by social marketers (Hastings and Gordon, 2008; Gordon *et al.* 2009; House of Commons Health Committee, 2010). In doing this the research evidence base has helped stimulate and inform the debate around the regulation of alcohol marketing (BMA, 2009; Godlee, 2009; Hastings *et al.* 2010). Furthermore it could be expected that the competitive analysis offered by critical social marketing studies on alcohol can inform social marketing interventions targeting youth drinking. The examples of the application of critical social marketing to tobacco and alcohol demonstrate the utility of the concept and the contribution it makes to the research and evidence base, the upstream arena and downstream behaviour change efforts. The validity of critical social marketing suggests that it deserves formal recognition within the marketing literature.

12.7 Discussion

Having reviewed the scholarly discourse relating to critical social marketing and its application it seems appropriate to offer a formal definition. Whilst acknowledging the influence of social marketing and critical marketing on the concept of 'critical social marketing' upon examination of the extant literature it becomes apparent that existing definitions of social marketing, (see Kotler and Zaltman, 1971), or that offered by Dann: "the adaptation and adoption of commercial marketing activities, institutions and processes as a means to induce behavioural change in a targeted audience on a temporary or permanent basis to achieve a social goal" (Dann, 2010, p151), do not readily acknowledge critical social marketing. Moreover, critical marketers have registered unease at the location of critical social marketing within their domain, and critical marketing itself arguably forms a

conceptual cluster rather than a singular paradigm (Saren *et al.* 2007). The distinct nature of critical social marketing, though informed by both streams of thought, and its existence as a distinct, singular concept, necessitates its own definition.

The author proposes that critical social marketing can be defined as 'critical research from a marketing perspective on the impact commercial marketing has upon society, to build the evidence base, inform upstream efforts such as advocacy, policy and regulation, and inform the development of downstream social marketing interventions'. Table 12.1 summarises the definitions of social marketing, critical marketing and critical social marketing to help illustrate the distinctions and any crossovers in the domains.

Table 12.1: Definitions of social marketing, critical marketing and critical social marketing.

Social Marketing	Critical Marketing	Critical Social Marketing
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 analysis of the social consequence of marketing policies, decisions and activities.	Critical marketing is a conceptual cluster which involves the social and reflexive critique of marketing theory and practice. Critical marketing is strongly influenced by critical theory (a social theory informed by streams of thought such as Marxism & deconstruction theory), and other sustainability, ethics, feminism discourse analysis and postmodernism.	Critical research from a marketing perspective on the impact commercial marketing has upon society, to build the evidence base, inform upstream efforts such as advocacy, policy and regulation, and inform the development of downstream social marketing interventions.

Critical social marketing can be used by social marketing researchers to utilise their knowledge, expertise and understanding of commercial marketing activity to assess its impact upon society. Furthermore, using this framework allows a critical theory based approach to the deconstruction of commercial marketing, therefore examining not only any

negative effect it may have, but seeking to generate solutions to problems – for example research on the impact of tobacco marketing influenced the development of regulation and the ban on most forms of tobacco promotion. Importantly, this conceptual framework ensures that the research findings are not merely produced and then not acted upon but can be used to inform activities including reports such as 'Under the Influence – The Damaging Effect of Alcohol Marketing on Young People' produced by the British Medical Association in 2009. Through upstream social marketing activity, the application of a critical social marketing framework can help to inform policy and regulation by feeding into debates, policy forums and stakeholder activities - for instance much of the current research on alcohol marketing is discussed in the European Alcohol and Health forum organised by the European Commission. There is also an applied nature of critical social marketing. Through examining the activities and impacts of commercial marketing practice, and by engaging with marketing practitioners, the process offers insights to generate better practice – for instance marketing managers working on alcohol accounts have described changes in practice due to societal concerns (Gordon et al, 2010a). Finally a critical social marketing framework ensures that research findings and key learning points can be used to inform the development of targeted social marketing interventions which is achieved through engagement with, and dissemination to, public health organisations and delivery agents. For instance, analysis of how tobacco companies marketed to low income consumers produced valuable learning points to inform smoking cessation interventions. At this stage it is important to retain critical reflexivity of the process, acknowledging that some social marketing approaches may require deconstruction and adaptation - for example behaviour change interventions may have unintended consequences, be too positivist in nature or have

unrealistic goals. This process also holds potential to aid theory development in social marketing (Peattie and Peattie, 2003).

Importantly, proposing a definition and explanation of the critical social marketing concept might aid social marketers working in such areas to more easily classify their activity and structure research accordingly. The critical social marketing framework espoused here could be used not only to investigate areas such as tobacco and alcohol marketing, but also food marketing (Hastings *et al.* 2003), gambling promotion (Powell and Tapp, 2008; and Gordon and Moodie, 2009) and even areas such as car marketing, where there may be unintended or negative impacts upon society such as encouraging speeding or impacting upon carbon footprint. Figure 12.1 introduces a step by step guide as to how a critical social marketing framework might be applied to research.

Having defined critical social marketing, discussed some of the tensions and debates around its place within the literature and reviewed its practical application it is important to reconsider its location within marketing thought. There are two serious questions to address to enable critical social marketing to find a natural home within the marketing discipline. The first concerns who critical social marketers actually are? A reasonable supposition is that critical social marketers are researchers using a marketing perspective to research the impact that marketing has on society. Yet there can be many different approaches and perspectives when conducting research and it is important to recognise this. Often studies that examine the outcomes marketing has on society, for example in relation to alcohol (Stacy *et al.* 2004) or tobacco (Sargent, 2000) are not carried out by marketers.

Figure 12.2: Step by Step Schema of Critical Social Marketing

STEP 1 - Research: Using a marketers perspective to perform research which conducts a critical analysis of the impact of commercial marketing on society.

Including marketing strategy, executions, techniques and principles applied. In the case of alcohol marketing this might involve documentary analysis of internal alcohol marketing strategy documents, an audit of alcohol marketing activity, stakeholder interviews, formative consumer research, survey research to assess impact of alcohol promotion on individual behaviours and impact upon others (associated harms).

STEP 2 - Dissemination:

Production of peer reviewed conference papers and journal articles presenting the findings from research that contribute to the evidence base.

Other activities that involve engaging with academic audiences such as workshops, inclusion of study findings in teaching materials etc.

STEP 3 - Upstream Social
 Marketing: Advocacy, lobbying, informing policy & regulation.

Achieved through presentation of findings to stakeholder organisations & policy makers such as industry representatives, government departments & supranational institutions (e.g. Portman Group, Dept. of Health, European Commission), media & PR activity (newspaper articles, blogs), stakeholder reports (e.g. BMA reports, BMJ opinion pieces), industry stakeholder groups (advertisers, marketing executives, industry representative bodies). Should involve also include critical reflexivity of commercial marketing systems and approaches.

STEP 4 - Social Marketing
Interventions: Engagement with
relevant stakeholder organisations
to inform social marketing
programmes.

Liaison with organisations such as public health bodies to make use of research findings (e.g. youth attitudes towards alcohol, effective channels of communication) to influence the design and delivery of targeted behaviour change interventions, for example to combat under-age drinking. Should involve reflexivity of social marketing systems and approaches chosen to help adapt and refine interventions and drive theory development.

These studies normally use a non-marketing perspective (such as psychology or public health) and are mostly focused on the behavioural influence of marketing activity. Nevertheless, marketers also conduct research in these areas, including social marketers who are able to use their expertise and knowledge of marketing to inform their research and activity emerging from it. The dual understanding that critical social marketers have of marketing's potential and the good and bad effect it can have on society offers unique insight and skill-sets for conducting research. Therefore it is important to recognise a distinct social marketing perspective has emerged to research on the impact commercial marketing has on society. Accordingly it can be posited that critical social marketers, are marketing scholars using a framework influenced by social and critical marketing, as well as other social science influences, to assess the impact commercial marketing has on society.

The second question to consider relates to where critical social marketing can be located within the marketing literature. As mentioned before the concept does not readily sit within existing paradigms – at least not without considerable debate and tensions. The critical social marketing approach has the ability to inform not just the evidence base and research field, but also upstream activities such as advocacy, policy and regulation, and downstream behaviour change interventions. This distinguishes critical social marketing research from other research perspectives. Like many other streams of marketing, critical social marketing borrows from other sources of thought. It is heavily influenced by social marketing and critical marketing, both of which are informed by their progenitor marketing discipline. However critical social marketing does not sit comfortably within either concept. This suggests that attempting to locate critical social marketing within one or the other is erroneous. Consequently it is proposed that critical social marketing be

regarded as a sub-set of social marketing in its own right. Figure 12.2 maps out how critical social marketing might fit within the marketing and social marketing disciplines.

Establishing critical social marketing in such a way recognises the distinct perspective it brings, acknowledges the contribution of social marketing and critical marketing, yet avoids some of the nuances associated with locating it within these paradigms. This article offers a formalised definition of critical social marketing, demonstrates its utility for assessing the impact of marketing on society and facilitating solutions, and locates the concept within the marketing discipline. In doings so, it is hoped that this will enable critical social marketing to established a more recognised presence, and assist social marketers working in this area to conduct their research.

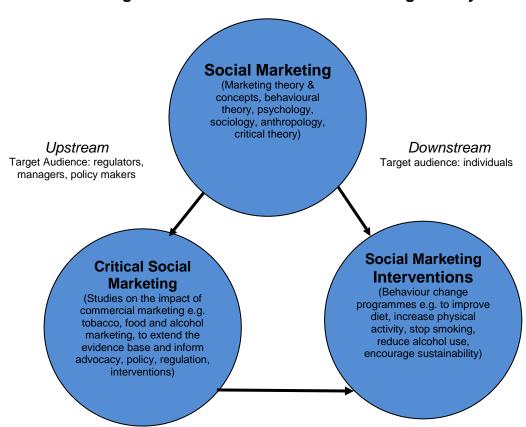


Figure 12.2: Schema of Social Marketing Activity

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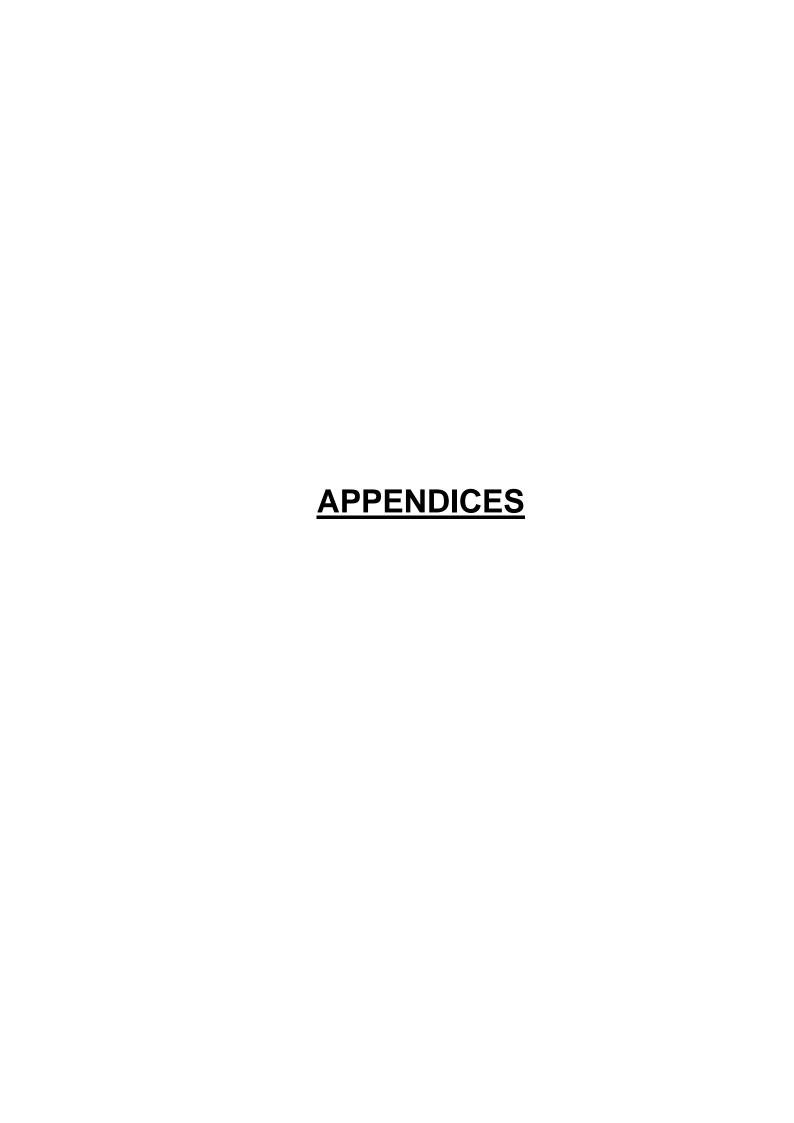
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APPENDIX A: STATEMENTS OF AUTHORSHIP/CONTRIBUTIONS FROM CO-AUTHORS





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7th December 2010

To whom it may concern,

For the four publications detailed below, which are included in the PhD thesis of Ross Gordon, my role as a supervisor was to review each draft and offer advice and/or slight revision. Ross Gordon however was the lead author on each paper and responsible for writing each of these articles.

Publications

Gordon R, MacKintosh AM, Moodie C (2010). The Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking Behaviour: A Two Stage Cohort Study. *Alcohol and Alcoholism*, 45(5): 470-480.

Gordon R, Hastings G, Moodie C, Eadie D (2010). Critical Social Marketing - The Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking: Qualitative Findings. *International Journal of Non Profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 15(3): 265-275.

Gordon R, Hastings G, Moodie C (2010). Alcohol Marketing and Young People's Drinking: What the Evidence Base Suggests for Policy. *Journal of Public Affairs*, 10(1): 88-101.

Gordon R, Harris F, MacKintosh AM, Moodie C (in press). Assessing the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing on young people's drinking - Cross sectional data findings. *Addiction Research and Theory*.

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To whom it may concern,

For the publications detailed below, which are included in the PhD thesis of Ross Gordon, my contributions were as follows:

Gordon R, Hastings G, Moodie C, Eadie D (2010). Critical Social Marketing - The Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking: Qualitative Findings. International Journal of Non Profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 15(3): 265-275.	Significantly involved in the conceptualisation and design of the research study Minor involvement in paper writing - reading and discussing drafts
Gordon R, Hastings G, Moodie C (2010). Alcohol Marketing and Young People's Drinking: What the Evidence Base Suggests for Policy. <i>Journal of Public Affairs</i> , 10(1): 88-101.	This is builds on an earlier article (Hastings G, Anderson S, Cooke E and Gordon R (2005). Alcohol marketing and young people's drinking: A review of the research. <i>Journal of Public Health Policy</i> , 26: 296-311.) on which I was lead author. Beyond this, my role in this paper was to comment on drafts.
Gordon, R., Hastings, G., McDermott, L., Siquier, P. (2007). The critical role of social marketing. In Saren, M., MacLaran, P., Goulding, C., Elliott, R., Shankar, A., Catterall, M. (eds.). <i>Critical marketing: Defining the field.</i> London: Elsevier; 159-73.	Had a significant input to the content and structure.

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To whom it may concern

I can confirm that my contribution to the following two papers, included by Ross Gordon in his PhD by publication, consisted of:

Paper 1 – Gordon R, Harris F, MacKintosh AM and Moodie C. (in press). Assessing the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing on young people's drinking: Cross sectional data findings. *Addiction Research and Theory*.

- Providing advice and guidance on the research methodology, data collection and data processing.
- Collaborating with Dr Fiona Harris on devising the analysis plan, running the analysis and interpreting the results.
- Revising the results section and accompanying tables following comments from reviewers.
- Reading and commenting on drafts of the paper.

Paper 2 – Gordon R, MacKintosh AM and Moodie C (2010). The impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking behaviour: A two-stage cohort study. *Alcohol and Alcoholism*. 45(5): 470-480.

- Providing advice and guidance on the research methodology, data collection and data processing and conducting the process of matching data across the two waves.
- Contributing to decisions on the content of the paper.
- Devising the analysis plan, conducting the analysis and writing the results section of the paper.
- Making revisions to the results section in response to comments from reviewers.
- Reading and commenting on drafts of the paper.

Yours faithfully

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To whom it may concern,

I can confirm that my contribution to the publication listed below that has been included in this PhD by publication consisted of assisting with qualitative fieldwork, offering advice and reading drafts of work, and that the main authorship of the material belongs to the student Ross Gordon.

Gordon, R., Moodie, C., Hastings, G., Eadie, D. (in press). Critical Social Marketing – The Impact Of Alcohol Marketing On Youth Drinking: Qualitative Findings. *International Journal of Non-Profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*.

Sincerely

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Dr Fiona Harris Lecturer in Management Open University Business School Milton Keynes MK7 6AA 01908 560 023 f.harris@open.ac.uk

26/04/2010

To whom it may concern,

I can confirm that my contributions to the publication listed below that has been included in this PhD by publication consisted of offering advice and guidance on fieldwork, conducting statistical analyses of wave 1 survey data, contributing to the reporting of the analyses and results sections and reading and commenting on drafts of work, and that the lead authorship of the material was by the student Ross Gordon.

Gordon, R., Harris, F., MacKintosh, A.M., Moodie, C. (in press). Assessing the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Young People's Drinking: Cross Sectional Data Findings. Addiction Research and Theory.

Sincerely,

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8th December 2010

To whom it may concern,

For the publication detailed below, which is included in the PhD thesis of Ross Gordon, my role as a co-author was to contribute towards writing sections of the book chapter, to review drafts and offer comments. Ross Gordon however was the lead author and the main person responsible for writing the book chapter.

Gordon, R., Hastings, G., McDermott, L., Siquier, P. (2007). The critical role of social marketing. In Saren, M., MacLaran, P., Goulding, C., Elliott, R., Shankar, A., Catterall, M. (eds.). *Critical marketing: Defining the field.* London: Elsevier; 159-173.

Signed:

Laura McDermott

APPENDIX B: ADDITIONAL PUBLICATIONS ON SOCIAL MARKETING CONTRIBUTED TO:

- B1: Stead, M., Gordon, R., Angus, K., McDermott, L. (2007). A systematic review of social marketing effectiveness. *Health Education*, 107(2): 126-140.
- B2: Gordon, R., McDermott, L., Stead, M., Angus, K. (2006). The effectiveness of social marketing interventions for health improvement: What's the evidence? *Public Health*, 120(12): 1133-1139.
- B3: Stead, M., Gordon, R. (2009). Providing evidence for social marketing's effectiveness. In French, J., Blair-Stevens, C., McVey, D., Merritt, R. (Eds.). Social marketing and public health: Theory and practice. Oxford University Press: Oxford; 81-96.
- B4: Gordon, R, McDermott, L., Hastings, G (2008). Critical issues in social marketing: A review and research agenda. In Sargeant, A, Wymer, W. (Eds.). *The routledge companion to non-profit marketing*. Routledge: London; 333-346.
- B5: Gordon, R., Carrigan, M., Hastings, G. (2011). A framework for sustainable marketing. *Marketing Theory*, 11(2): 143-164.
- B6: Gordon, R., Moodie, C. (2009). Dead cert or long shot: The utility of social marketing in tackling problem gambling in the UK? *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, Volume 14(3): 243-253.
- B7: Gordon, R., Hastings, G., McDermott, L., Evans, D. (2008). Building brands with competitive analysis. In Evans, D., Hastings, G. (Eds.) *Public health branding: Applying marketing for social change.* Oxford University Press: Oxford; 73-90.
- B8: Hastings, G., Anderson, S., Cooke, E., Gordon, R. (2005). Alcohol marketing and young people's drinking: A review of the research. *Journal of Public Health Policy*, 26(3): 296-311.
- B9: Anderson, P., De Bruijn, A., Angus, K., Gordon, R., Hastings, G. (2009). Impact of alcohol advertising and media exposure on adolescent alcohol use: A systematic review of longitudinal studies. *Alcohol and Alcoholism*, 44(3): 229-243.
- B10: Gordon, R. (in press). An audit of alcohol brand websites. *Drug and Alcohol Review*.
- B11: Gordon, R. (2009). Case study: Assessing the cumulative impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking. In Tinson, J. Conducting research with children and adolescents: Design, methods and empirical cases. Goodfellow: Oxford; 202-208.

Appendix C: Theories and Models Influencing Social Marketing

Exchange Theory

Exchange theory in marketing is based upon social exchange theory - a social psychological and sociological perspective that explains that social change and stability as a process of negotiated exchanges between people (Homans, 1958). Social exchange theory directs that all human relationships are formed through the use of subjective costbenefits analysis and the comparison of alternatives. The theory has its roots in economics, sociology and psychology. Bagozzi (1974, 1975) adapted this thinking and identified marketing as an organised behavioural system of exchange. In marketing, exchange involves the transfer of tangible or intangible goods, services or values between two or more social actors (Bagozzi, 1979). It is suggested that five pre-requisites are required for exchange to take place: 1. There are a minimum of two parties, 2. Each party has something of potential value to the other party, 3. Each party is capable of communication and delivery, 4. Each party is able to accept or reject the offer, 5. Each party believes it is appropriate or desirable to deal with the other (Kotler, 2000). Key to these assumptions is the notion that the exchange should be mutually beneficial. The process can involve a utilitarian exchange of tangible goods or services or symbolic exchange featuring transfer of psychological, social or other intangible benefits. The latter forms of exchange are more common though not mutually exclusive to social marketing. Exchange in social marketing is discussed further later in this chapter.

Communications Theory

Communications theory is a range of theories and constructs that explain the how everything living communicates. It borrows heavily from other social sciences. Communication theory is based upon the premise that communication is central to human experience and involves understanding how people behave when creating, exchanging and interpreting messages. The understanding of various realms of communication such as media processing and effects, media and society, mass communications, culture, discourse and interaction, developing relationships, message production and message processing makes important contributions to social marketing. Relational theory can help engage consumers with interventions, culture communications theory can ensure programmes are culturally specific and sensitive, mass media communications can be used to reach target audiences and promote behaviour change and so on.

Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory posits that a person's acquisition of knowledge can be related to their observation of others within the context of social interactions, experiences and outside media influences. It was developed by Albert Bandura from work in the area of social learning theory. The idea is that people learn by watching what others do with the environment, behaviour and cognition all key factors in influencing development. These factors are not mutually exclusive or static. Witnessing a behaviour can change a person's way of thinking, the environment in which a person is brought up can influence their behaviours and a parent's mindset (cognition) can determine the environment in which their children are raised. Human functioning is viewed as the product of the interplay of these personal, behavioural and environmental influences. Therefore focus is placed on the reciprocal interaction between these factors. Self efficacy theory (perceived ability to perform a behaviour) is also an important contributor to social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1988).

Social Ecological Model

The Social Ecological Model (SEM) is a framework that examines the multiple effects and correlations of social elements in an environment. It can provide a theoretical framework to analyse various contexts and in multiple research applications – most commonly qualitative research. The most utilised version of SEM was developed by Brofenbrenner (1977, 1979), who proposed four types of nested environmental systems of influence:

- Microsystem: immediate environments (family, school, peer group neighbourhood)
- Mesosystem: A system of connections between immediate environments (such as a child's home or school)
- Exosystem: external environmental settings which only indirectly affect development (e.g. a parent's workplace)
- Macrosystem: The wider cultural context (East vs West, national economy, political culture, sub-culture)

Later a fifth system was added:

- Chronosystem – Patterns of environmental events and transitions over the course of life

Each system contains roles, norms and rules that shape psychological development. The Center for Disease Control and Prevention uses a four-level SEM, to identify areas for prevention activities: societal, community, relationship and individual. Each of the levels have obvious synergies with social marketing which can act in each arena (Alcalay and Bell, 2000). The model has been used in interventions on adolescent physical activity which used social marketing (Elder *et al.* 2007).

Health Belief Model

The health belief model (Rosenstock, 1966) is a psychological model used to predict health behaviours. The model is based on 4 constructs of the core beliefs of individuals, based upon their perceptions.

Perceived susceptibility (a person's view on their risk of getting the condition)

Perceived severity (a person's view of the seriousness of the condition and the consequences)

Perceived barriers (a person's view of the factors that facilitate or discourage adopting the promoted behaviour)

Perceived benefits (a person's view of the positive consequences of adopting the behaviour)

Constructs of mediating factors can also be added to the model including demographics (age, gender, ethnicity), socio-psychological variables (socio-economic status, personality), perceived efficacy (ability to successfully adopt the behaviour), cues to action (external influences such as persuasive communications and personal experiences), health motivation, perceived control and perceived threat.

The prediction of the model is the likelihood of the person concerned to undertake the recommended health behaviour. The model has been used in youth substance misuse interventions to encourage health behaviours (Ellickson and Bell, 1990).

Stages of change/Transtheoretical model

According to this model behavioural change is a five step process. These five steps or stages of change need to be negotiated when trying to encourage a new health behaviour. The model has its roots within health psychology. The five stages are as follows:

- Pre-contemplation: People are not intending to take action for the foreseeable future
- Contemplation: People are intending to take action in the next 6 months
- Preparation: People are intending to take action in the immediate future
- Action: People have made changes to their lifestyles in the past 6 months
- Maintenance: People are trying to prevent relapse to previous behaviour(s)
- Termination: Person has fully adopted the new behaviour and will not return to the old behaviour

The concept of relapse is also acknowledge in which people may return to an earlier stage (Prochaska, 2005)

Theory of Reasoned Action

This theory deals with the relationship among: beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behaviours (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). It assumes that to change a given behaviour requires changing the cognitive structure that underlies the behaviour. The theory has 4 hypotheses:

- 1. At the first level it is assumed that a person's behaviour is the result of their intention to perform the behaviour.
- 2. Intention is a function of a personal factor (the person's attitude to the behaviour) and a social factor (the norm associated with the behaviour). The norm is the person's perception of what others think about the behaviour.
- 3. Underlying the personal factor is a combination of beliefs about whether the behaviour will result in certain outcomes
- 4. The underlying social factor is a complex range of beliefs about what individuals or groups think about the behaviour and the person's motivation to comply with the perceived norm.

Theory of Planned Behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour is a psychology theory about the link between attitudes and behaviour and was developed as an extension to the theory of reasoned action. Human behaviour is governed by three kinds of consideration, behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs. Behavioural beliefs produce a positive or negative attitude towards a behaviour, normative beliefs result in subjective norm and control beliefs give rise to perceived behavioural control.

Together attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control lead to the formation of a behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991). Perceived behavioural control is presumed to impact behaviour directly and indirectly through behavioural intention. The more favourable a person's attitude towards a behaviour and a subjective norm, and the greater the perceived behavioural control, then the greater the likelihood of the person performing the behaviour will be. Given a degree of control over the behaviour people are expected to carry out their intentions when the opportunity arises. The theory of planned behaviour has been used in social marketing based interventions such as the Foolsspeed road campaign (Stead *et al.* 2004)

Applied Behavioural Analysis

This analysis involves examining a behaviour, discovering recurring patterns and deducing from those observations what rules govern these actions. The theory proposes a multiple step process for examining a problem, examining the way they act and separating the behaviour into parts to learn about their nature, proportion and relationship. The analysis carries the acronym ABC.

A stands for the antecedent of a behaviour or what occurred prior to the behaviour.

B stands for the behaviour.

C is the consequences of the behaviour it's results, outcomes or effects.

From this 3 laws have been identified.

- 1. People are more likely to do next time the thing that worked this time (reinforcement).
- 2. People are less likely to repeat a behaviour if the outcome is undesirable or unpleasant (punishment).
- 3. People are likely to stop performing a behaviour if it doesn't result in any reaction at all (extinguished behaviour)

The model has been used in various projects such as changing environmental behaviours (Geller, 1989).

APPENDIX D: ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER





DEPARTMENT OF MARKETING

To	Ross Gordon, ISM
From	lan Fillis Co-Chair of the Joint Research Ethics Committee, Department of Marketing and Department of Management and Organisation
Date	18 September 2006
Subject	Research Ethics Committee

NPRI Alcohol Marketing and Youth Drinking Project

I write to confirm that the above project has received ethics approval from the Ethics Committee, Department of Marketing.

Good luck with the proposal.

Ta Sillis

IF

APPENDIX E: STAKEHOLDER INTERVIEWS DISCUSSION GUIDE

Topic Areas for S1 Interview

Background Information.

- how long worked in field of marketing/advertising/health
- provide a brief outline of career history / (other) business interests (roles, positions etc) PROBE:
 - o areas of expertise
 - o experience in youth marketing
 - o experience alcohol marketing
 - o experience in 'new media'
 - o examples of campaigns been involved in
 - o role in developing/managing these campaigns
 - o links with the alcohol industry

The Alcohol Market: Trends & Main Drivers.

- who are the main players in the UK alcohol market / how is this evolving?
- what are the main alcohol brands / how evolving
- what significant have the retail sector
 - o off trade (supermarkets)
 - o on trade (super-pubs/theme pubs etc)
- what are the implications of consolidation in the market place, e.g. many alcohol brands owned by a few global companies. PROBE:
 - o bigger companies?
 - o bigger marketing budgets?
- expected growth areas / areas of decline in the UK alcohol market.
- what are the main drivers bringing about these changes
- what are the implications for the alcohol market and the marketing sector?

Impact of These Trends on Marketing Activities.

- how important is targeting becoming PROBE:
 - o how is the market being defined / segmented
 - o niche marketing
 - o youth segments
 - o gender
- what is the importance of branding in the drinks sector?
- what methods are modern marketers using to develop their brands?
- what types of communications agencies are the alcohol manufactures working with PROBE:
 - o conventional ad agencies
 - o agencies specialising in electronic media,
 - o agencies specialising in brand development
 - o how are agencies adapting to meet the needs of clients in this sector?
- what are the main aims of current alcohol marketing activities. PROBE:

- o maintain brand loyalty (protection)
- o encourage brand switching (growth)
- o entice new consumers (growth)
- o normalise drinking culture (protection)
- what impact is the health lobby having in this area. PROBE:
 - o binge drinking
 - o government / statutory controls the youth market where most of the energies for drinks marketing is channelled?

The Importance of Youth Markets.

- How important is the youth market to the drinks industry why / how would you define this market?
- What kinds of product are young people drinking and why?
- How is the industry seeking to cater for this market?
- What are the strategies they are using to market these products? PROBE:
 - Media choice
- Which strategies do you think are proving particularly effective at capturing youth audience / how are these strategies evolving? PROBE:
 - o branding
 - o POS
 - o new media (texting, web etc)
- What are the important things to consider when creating a brand that appeals to young people?
- Do brands attempt to associate themselves with youth culture such as sport or music.
- How is this done?
- Can you give specific examples (key brands/campaigns)
- Any copies of campaigns/ reports etc.
- Examples of innovative (award winning) campaigns that appeal to the youth market.
- How should brands fit in with/ relfect the lifestyles of young people?
- How is the youth market researched, how do marketers find out what appeals to young people?
- How often is research such as this carried out (keeping up with the latest trends)

Industry Regulation.

- What has been the alcohol industries reaction to changes in the licensing laws?
- 24 hour drinking in England and Wales.
- What has been the advertising/marketing sector's reaction?
- How do you feel about the current situation regarding licensing? Adequate, too soft, too harsh.
- What has been the alcohol industry's response to changes in the regulations governing alcohol marketing. Ofcom tightening up of media advertising?
- How has the marketing sector reacted to these changes?
- Limits to scope of marketing activities, restricts scope of creativity, changes that have come about due to regulatory changes.

- Has tightening of regulations by Ofcom impacted upon adverts etc?
- How do current marketing communications fit in with existing regulations?
- What was your impression of the situation before the changes, were marketing activates okay or did some activity break the spirit of the codes?
- Can you give examples of activities that attracted controversy or sailed close to the wind?
- How do you feel about the current situation regarding advertising regulation? Adequate, too soft, too harsh.

Final Remarks.

- What are your expectations / predictions for the future in alcohol marketing?
- What will drive these changes?

APPENDIX F: PRESS AUDIT CODING FRAME

Coding Frame

Publications

- 1. sun
- 2. mirror
- 3. daily mail
- 4. express
- 5. telegraph
- 6. times
- 7. guardian
- 8. independent
- 9. news of the world
- 10. mail on Sunday
- 11. Sunday mirror
- 12. Sunday express
- 13. Sunday times
- 14. Sunday telegraph
- 15. observer
- 16. independent on Sunday
- 17. what's on TV
- 18. radio times
- 19. TV times
- 20. TV quick
- 21. smash hits
- 22. private eye
- 23. take a break
- 24. woman's own
- 25. hello
- 26. Bella
- 27. more
- 28. inside soap
- 29. cosmopolitan
- 30. Marie Clare
- 31. good housekeeping
- 32. ideal home
- 33. FHM
- 34. loaded
- 35. max power
- 36. maxim
- 37. The Grocer

Day of Publications (newspapers only)

- 1. Sunday
- 2. Monday
- 3. Tuesday
- 4. Wednesday

- 5. Thursday
- 6. Friday
- 7. Saturday
- 88. Not applicable (magazines)

Category

- 1. tabloid daily main newspaper
- 2. tabloid daily accompaniment
- 3. tabloid Sunday main newspaper
- 4. tabloid Sunday accompaniment
- 5. broadsheet daily main newspaper
- 6. broadsheet daily accompaniment
- 7. broadsheet Sunday main newspaper
- 8. broadsheet Sunday accompaniment
- 9. magazine weekly main magazine
- 10. magazine weekly accompaniment
- 11. magazine fortnightly main magazine
- 12. magazine fortnightly accompaniment
- 13. magazine monthly main magazine
- 14. magazine monthly accompaniment

Type

- 1. alcohol advertising
- 2. alcohol related advertising / images
- 3. alcohol related news / editorial
- 4. counter alcohol advertising

Size

- 1. full page
- 2. half page
- 3. quarter page
- 4. less than quarter page
- 5. double page

Position

- 1. back cover
- 2. front cover
- 3. inside front
- 4. inside back
- 5. middle spread
- 6. left facing
- 7. right facing
- 8. double facing

Brand

- 1. Carling
- 2. Stella Artois
- 3. Foster's
- 4. Carlsberg
- 5. John Smith's
- 6. Guinness
- 7. Kronenbourg 1664
- 8. Tetley's
- 9. Budweiser
- 10. Tennent's
- 11. Smirnoff Ice Red
- 12. WKD
- 13. Bacardi Breezer
- 14. Vodka Reef
- 15. VK Vodka Ice
- 16. Red Square
- 17. Archer's Aqua
- 18. Smirnoff Ice Black
- 19. Caribbean Twist
- 20. Red Star Plus
- 21. Smirnoff Red
- 22. Bell's
- 23. Bailey's Irish Cream
- 24. Famous Grouse
- 25. Gordon's
- 26. Bacardi
- 27. Glen's
- 28. Teacher's
- 29. Jack Daniel's
- 30. Whyte & Mackay
- 31. Strongbow
- 32. Blackthorn
- 33. Woodpecker
- 34. Scrumpy Jack
- 35. White Lightning
- 36. Lambrini
- 37. Diamond White
- 38. Olde English
- 39. Frosty Jack's
- 40. Country Manor
- 41. Magners
- 42. Blossom Hill
- 43. Jacob's Creek
- 44. Stowells
- 45. E & J Gallo
- 46. Kumala
- 47. Hardy's Stamp
- 48. Lindemans
- 49. Banrock Station
- 50. Piat d'Or

- 51. Paul Masson
- 52. Holsten Pils
- 53. Glenfiddich
- 54. Australian Wines
- 55. Theakston's
- 56. Morrison's Supermarket
- 57. Remy Martin
- 58. Burgundy Wines
- 59. Cointreau
- 60. Lidl Supermarket
- 61. Greene King IPA
- 62. Sunday Times Wine Club
- 63. Freixenet
- 64. Bordeaux Wines
- 65. Courvoisier
- 66. Laithwaites
- 67. Martell
- 68. Tesco Supermarket
- 69. Asda Supermarket
- 70. Sainsbury's Supermarket
- 71. Somerfield Supermarket
- 72. Waitrose Supermarket
- 73. Old Speckled Hen
- 74. Glenlivet
- 75. Drambuie
- 76. San Miguel
- 77. Sagatiba
- 78. Turner Road Wine
- 79. Glenfarclas
- 80. Laurent Perrier
- 81. Co-op Supermarket
- 82. The Balvenie
- 83. Daily Express Wine Club
- 84. Isle of Skye Whisky
- 85. Telegraph Wine Club
- 86. Averys Wine Merchant
- 87. Bargain Booze
- 88. Glengoyne
- 89. Corkers Wine Club
- 90. Old Pulteney
- 91. Marstons Pedigree
- 92. Bombay Sapphire
- 93. Abbott Ale
- 94. Beck's
- 95. Ruddles Ale
- 96. Taylor's Port
- 97. Slate 20
- 98. Newcastle Brown Ale
- 99. Highland Park
- 102. Not applicable

Description

Alcohol Related Adverts / Images

- 16. Sponsorship (e.g. pictures of Football or rugby)
- 17. Alcohol in non-alcohol adverts pictures
- 18. Pictures of people drinking (celebrities, normal people, TV characters etc), pictures of alcohol/glasses/drinking establishments
- 19. Humour / cartoon (e.g. animals drinking, cartoon characters drinking etc)
- 20. Adverts for alcohol related products
- 21. Alcohol related ads/images other

Alcohol Related News / Editorials

- 22. Letters from readers
- 23. Brief reference to alcohol
- 24. Pro-editorials (article coverage pro-alcohol, people in interviews pro-alcohol etc)
- 25. Other alcohol related editorial
- 26. News Health
- 27. News Policy / Legislation Licensing
- 28. News Policy / Legislation Marketing
- 29. News Policy / Legislation Sponsorship
- 30. News Policy / Legislation Taxation
- 31. News Policy / Legislation Distribution
- 32. News Industry related (e.g. manipulative practices)
- 33. News Smuggling / black market
- 34. News Finance (e.g. stock market)
- 35. News Other

Counter Alcohol Advertising

- 36. Reduce consumption/ stop drinking adverts
- 37. Counter Alcohol other
- 38. Letter from reader (anti-alcohol)
- 39. Editorial debate (pro and anti)

Alcohol Adverts

- 40. The Bottle to be different (Holsten Pils)
- 41. Inspiring Great Conversation Since 1887 (Glenfiddich)
- 42. Mail Order Wines etc.
- 43. Peculierly Fine Company (Theakston's)
- 44. Supermarket Alcohol Ads
- 45. There is only one choice (Remy Martin)
- 46. Burgundy Wines Pinot Noir
- 47. Be Cointreauversial (Cointreau)

- 48. Reader Competition
- 49. Half of me (Bacardi Breezer half sugar)
- 50. The India Pale Ale that never made it to India (Greene King IPA)
- 51. The best nights out always involve going out (Freixenet)
- 52. Filtered through Charcoal for purity (Smirnoff)
- 53. Miscellaneous Alcohol Advert
- 54. Luckily it costs nothing too look. (Courvoisier)
- 55. Let the conversation flow (Martell)
- 56. A most gratifying ale (Old Speckled Hen)
- 57. Taste the secret (Drambuie)
- 58. Cerveza de Passion (San Miguel)
- 59. Unmistakable Character (The Balvenie)
- 60. News Drink Driving
- 61. Celebrity with Alcohol Problems
- 62. News -Alcohol related crime
- 63. Inspired (Bombay Sapphire)
- 64. Jake & Dinos Chapman's Beck's Label (Beck's)
- 65. Tatsuo Miyajima's Beck's Label (Beck's)
- 66. Serious Country Flavour (Ruddles Ale)
- 67. The world's greatest wines are easy to recognise (Taylor's Port)
- 68. Rock it (Strongbow)
- 69. Best wine under the sun (Hardy's)
- 70. You do the football we'll do the beer (Budweiser)
- 71. It's the thought that counts and the receipt, Uri (Smirnoff Ice)
- 72. New VK Vodka Tropical Mix (VK Vodka)
- 73. Tracey Emin's Beck's Label (Beck's)
- 74. Brown Humour, not to everyone's taste (Newcastle Brown Ale)

APPENDIX G: FOCUS GROUPS RECRUITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

ISM Institute for Social Marketing

A collaboration between the University of Stirling and The Open University



Institute for Social Marketing
University of Stirling
Cottrell Building
STIRLING FK9 4LA
Tel: 01786 467390

NPRI Alcohol Marketing and Youth Drinking – Recruitment Questionnaire May 2006.

INTRODUCTION.

Hello / good evening etc. I am doing some research on behalf of the University of Stirling about young people and alcohol marketing. Can you help me by answering a few quick questions?

Interviewer	
Name of Respondent	
Address	
Post Code	
Telephone Number	

<u>Sex</u> Male Female	() 1 2	
Age of Respondent 13 14 15	() () 1 2 3	
Occupation of Head of Household		
Social Class ABC1 C2DE	() 1 2	l

1.	1. Which of the following best describes you? (Please tell me the letter which matches your answer) SHOWCARD 1						
			()				
	I drink alcohol at least once a week	X RECRUIT AS DRINKER	1				
	I drink alcohol at least once a month	Y RECRUIT AS DRINKER	2				
	I drink alcohol at least twice a year	Z RECRUIT AS NON DRINKER	3				
	I drink alcohol once a year or less	A RECRUIT AS NON DRINKER	4				
	I never drink alcohol	B RECRUIT AS NON DRINKER	5				

APPENDIX H: FOCUS GROUPS DISCUSSION GUIDE

1. Introduction

Introduce ourselves; explain the purpose behind the research methodology. Explain the purpose of the research and clarify topics for discussion. Confirm moderator role in this. Offer reassurance about confidentiality, provide opportunity to ask questions.

2. Background Information/ lifestyle

Aim: To gain understanding of adolescent sub-culture/values.

What is it like to be young in your area? Discuss school, sport, leisure activities, and places to hang out.

How do they spend their time during the week, weekend.

Who are their friends who do they hang about with? Boyfriends/girlfriends. What kind of people are they, what clothes do they wear, music do they listen to, shops they visit, things they talk about.

Description of a typical day or night out with friends.

Who do they look up to, aspire to, celebrities, football players, movie or music stars. What do they want to do when they're older?

Shopping: favourite shops, what do they spend money on, do they have their own money, where do they get it from.

Internet/mobile phone access: Do you have access to the internet? Where (home, school, friends), how often to you access the internet? Daily, twice weekly, weekly, occasionally, never. What kind of websites do you visit?

Do you have a mobile phone? Pay as you go or contract. How much do you spend? How often do you use it? What do you use it for? Keep in touch / arrange things with friends, let family know what you are doing, because everyone else has one, emergencies only.

3. Brand awareness and sensitivity.

Aim: understand how knowledgeable and sensitive adolescents are to brands in general. Identify the types of brands important to them and why.

Awareness: Brand matching exercise.

Ask respondents to match the imagery (from different forms of marketing communications) of particular brands with their name. The products would include adult/adolescent brands in clothes, foodstuffs, retailers (including some alcohol) etc.

Appreciation: Brand mapping exercise.

Ask respondents to place brands above on a grid according to like-dislike and for someone like me, not for someone like me. Discuss the positioning of the brands and the criteria chosen. Discuss why they like particular brands and not others.

4. Marketing Communications.

Aim: to move the discussion from brands themselves to how they are communicated. Discuss awareness and attitudes towards different types of marketing communications including alcohol.

Discuss awareness, appreciation, appropriateness (targeting) of: advertising, sales promotions, internet, viral marketing (e-mail or text), sponsorship, competitions.

Advertising:

What do you think of TV and print advertising, do you notice it, what types of adverts do you like and why? Found them funny, liked the people in them etc. What adverts do you not like and why?

Sales promotions:

Have you ever bought something that was on promotion or in a sale, what did you think of the promotion?

Internet:

Have you ever visited the website of any given brand? What did you think of the site, did you like/dislike the site, was it colourful, appealing? What features did the site have? Games, e-mail postcards, wind-ups, downloads of music/wallpapers/screensavers, competitions, prizes and giveaways.

Viral marketing:

Have you ever sent or received an e-mail or text for a brand (e.g. WKD wind-up e-mail or Budweiser Whassup! Text.) Tell me a bit about it, what did it contain, was it funny? Would you send / receive one again.

Sponsorship:

Are you aware of/have seen brands sponsoring things like sports, music, events, TV programmes, films. What brands have you seen doing this and what where they sponsoring. Have you ever been to or took part in an event sponsored by a brand. Do you follow a sport or team sponsored by a brand, do you own a sponsored shirt e.g. football shirt.

Competitions:

Have you ever entered a competition? What sort of competition have they heard of? Do you like them? Would you like to enter one? What was the prize?

Show all forms of alcohol marketing communications.

Have you ever seen anything like this before?

Do you know or have participated in anything like this before?

Who do you think would be interested?

Why are you interested/not interested in something like this?

What kind of thing could marketers' do to make you interested? What would you do if you were in charge?

5. Alcohol brand/type preferences.

Aim: To explore what types of alcohol and brands that young people have tried/like and the reasons for this.

What kind of alcohol do you drink? Why? Taste, cost, easy to get hold of, gets you drunk. Brand image (its cool). Everyone else drinks it.

How did you know type or brand X was the one you wanted to drink? What do other kids at school drink?

Show alcohol brands; find out brand personality of each one. What type of person would drink x, y, z. What would they do for a living, what type of music would they listen to/clothes worn?

6. Drinking behaviour and attitudes.

Aim: examine drinking behaviour in more detail.

When was the last time you had a drink. Tell me about it, what you drank, how much, where did you drink it, and who with, what did you drink it from (drinking vessel). Do you share drink around?

Why did you drink? Friends were drinking, like the taste, to feel more grown up, like the feeling, boredom or nothing else to do.

Source: where did you get the drink from? Parents, bought it yourself, friends bought it, got someone to go into a shop for them, brother or sister bought it for them. In a pub or club at the bar. Is it hard to get hold of alcohol?

First experience: When did you start drinking? What it like was, who were you with, what did you drink, why did you decide to drink. Brand(s) that you drank.

What do you like about drinking? What benefits and drawbacks are there to drinking? Do you encourage other people you know to drink, would you advise it?

How many people your age drink? How many adults drink? Do your parents, family or siblings drink? How many of your friends drink, what do they drink, brands, sharing drinks.

Thank and end groups.

APPENDIX I: ALCOHOL BRANDS SHOW-CARDS





















VISUALS 6-10











6 7 8 9 10

APPENDIX J: WAVE ONE MAIN QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL MARKETING UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING STIRLING FK9 4LA

Tel: 01786 46 7391 / 7390

Alcohol Marketing & Young People's Drinking

2006 Survey

				(1-5)
		Questionna	aire No	
				(6-8)
		Interviewe	r ID No	
			l	
Title: Mr / Miss	First Name (in full):		Surname:	
Address:				
Address.				
		•••••		
•••••	•••••	•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	••••••
		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Postcode:				
<u></u>		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••	
Tel No:				
PARENTAL PERM	MISSION			
Signature:				
,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		••••••	•••••	••••
Relationship to child	1.			

INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL MARKETING UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING STIRLING FK9 4LA

Tel: 01786 46 7391 / 7390

Alcohol Marketing & Young People's Drinking

2006 Survey

		(1-5)
	Questionnaire No	
	<u></u>	(6-8)
	Interviewer ID No	
Interviewer Name	Date	
is interview was conducted in accordance structions given for this survey. The responding confidential.		
Interviewer Signature	Date	

Consumption of Media

Q1 Have you done any of the following in the last 7 days?
OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>DK</u>	
Watched Television	1	2	3	(10)
Read a Newspaper	1	2	3	(11)
Read a Magazine	1	2	3	(12)
Listened to the Radio	1	2	3	(13)
Used the Internet	1	2	3	(14)

Adverts and Shopping

Q2 Can you look at each of these cards and tell me which, if any, of these <u>you</u> have bought in the last 7 days. You just need to give me the numbers that match your answer.

LILAC SHUFFLE CARDS MULTI-CODE POSSIBLE

1.	Chocolate or Sweets	1
2.	Fizzy Drinks	2
3.	Crisps	3
4.	Trainers	4
5.	Clothes	5
6.	Magazines	6
7.	Perfume/Aftershave	7
8.	Cigarettes	8
9.	Alcohol	9
	None of these	0
	DK	X

(15)

Thinking now about adverts that you might come across on television, cinema, radio, posters or anywhere else.

How often, if ever, do you come across adverts for these types of products? SHOWCARD 1
OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

Q3

	Very Often	Quite Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	DK	
Chocolate or sweets	1	2	3	4	6	7	(16)
Fizzy drinks	1	2	3	4	6	7	(17)
Crisps	1	2	3	4	6	7	(18)
Trainers	1	2	3	4	6	7	(19)
Clothes	1	2	3	4	6	7	(20)
Magazines	1	2	3	4	6	7	(21)
Perfume / Aftershave	1	2	3	4	6	7	(22)
Cigarettes	1	2	3	4	6	7	(23)
Alcohol	1	2	3	4	6	7	(24)

Q4

How important or unimportant do you think it is for people to choose a popular, "well known" brand when they are deciding to buy each of the following products? SHOWCARD 2

OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

			Neither				
			important				
	Very	Quite	nor	Quite	Very		
	important	important	unimportant	unimportant	unimportant	DK	
Chocolate or sweets	1	2	3	4	5	6	(25)
Fizzy drinks	1	2	3	4	5	6	(26)
Crisps	1	2	3	4	5	6	(27)
Trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	(28)
Clothes	1	2	3	4	5	6	(29)
Magazines	1	2	3	4	5	6	(30)
Perfume / Aftershave	1	2	3	4	5	6	(31)
Cigarettes	1	2	3	4	5	6	(32)
Alcohol	1	2	3	4	5	6	(33)

Communications

Q5

And now a question about the different ways that people can communicate. I'm going to read out a list of some of the different ways that people can communicate these days and I'd like you to tell me, using this card (SHOWCARD 3), how often, if at all, you usually do each. Please don't worry if you don't use any, your answer is just as important.

SHOWCARD 3

OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

								-
			About 2	A 14	T 41			
			or 3	About	Less than			
	Every	Most	times a	once a	once a			
	day	days	week	week	week	Never	DK	
Use email	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(34)
Use a mobile phone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(35)
Use text messaging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(36)
Use the Internet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(37)

Q6	Do you have access to the internet	? Yes No	(38)
	'YES' GO TO Q7 'NO' GO TO Q9 ON PAGE 5		
Q7	Where do you have access to the i SHOWCARD 4 MULTI-CODE POSSIBLE	In school At home At a relative's house At a friend's house In a library Elsewhere (please write in)	(39) 1 2 3 4 5 6
Q8	What do you use the internet for? SHOWCARD 5 MULTI-CODE POSSIBLE	 To send and receive e-mails To visit chat-rooms/home pages like msn/myspace To visit sports websites, eg. football websites To visit music websites To download music or videos To visit celebrity or fashion websites To buy products or services To help with school work, carry out research For news 	(41) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Marketing	in Ge	eneral
-----------	-------	--------

I'm interested in adverts that you might have seen or heard recently. Can you think of any products that you have seen or heard advertised recently.

PROBE FOR BRAND NAME, PRODUCT TYPE AND WHERE ADVERTISED. REPEAT FOR MAXIMUM OF SIX BRANDS

	Brand name	Product type	Where seen/heard	
1.				(42)
2.				(43)
3.				(44)
4.				(45)
5.				(46)
6.				(47)

Q10 People have different views about adverts. I would like to know what you think about adverts in general. Which of the following (SHOWCARD 6) best describes how you feel about adverts on the whole?

SHOWCARD 6 SINGLE RESPONSE ONLY

	(48)
I like adverts a lot	1
I like adverts a little	2
I neither like nor dislike adverts	3
I dislike adverts a little	4
I dislike adverts a lot	5
DK	6

Q9

Thinking about products in general, can you tell me from this card (SHOWCARD 7) how Q11 much you like or dislike each of the following. SHOWCARD 7 OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

	Like a lot	Like a little	Neither like nor dislike	Dislike a little	Dislike a lot	DK	
Receiving free samples of products	1	2	3	4	5	6	(49)
Receiving free gifts from the shopkeeper or store when you buy a product	1	2	3	4	5	6	(502)
Special price offers on products	1	2	3	4	5	6	(51)
Receiving promotional mail from companies informing you about their products	1	2	3	4	5	6	(52)
Receiving promotional e-mails, wind-up, chain e-mails or joke e- mails linked to a product or brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	(53)
Products that have a well known brand logo on them	1	2	3	4	5	6	(54)

Q12 Still thinking about products in general, can you tell me from this card (SHOWCARD 8) how likely or unlikely you are to do each of the following? SHOWCARD 8

OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

			Neither				
			likely nor	Quite	Very		
	Very likely	Quite likely	unlikely	unlikely	unlikely	DK	
Choose a product							
because it sponsors an	1	2	3	4	5	6	(55)
event, sport or team							
Choose a product							
because of the package	1	2	3	4	5	6	(56)
or container it is in							

	v I'd like you to think just about a	
ı	loesn't matter whether you drink ardless of whether or not they dri	k or not, we want to hear the views of everyone nk.
1	you think of any makes or brands	s of alcohol that you have seen or heard advertised
1	OBE FOR ALCOHOL BRAND XIMUM OF 6 BRANDS.	AND WHERE ADVERTISED. REPEAT FOR
	Brand name	Where seen/heard (eg. Billboard, newspaper)
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
abor feel		ohol adverts. I would like to know what you think following (SHOWCARD 9) best describes how you?
l .	GLE RESPONSE ONLY	I like alcohol adverts a lot

I like alcohol adverts a lot I like alcohol adverts a little

I dislike alcohol adverts a little

I dislike alcohol adverts a lot

DK

I neither like nor dislike alcohol adverts

2 3 4

5

6

Q15

Now I'd like to find out what you think about alcohol companies sponsoring sports. Can you please look at these cards (SHOWCARDS 10-12) and tell me the number which best describes what you think for each statement For example, if you think that alcohol sponsorship is really good for sport you would answer '1', if you think that alcohol sponsorship is really bad for sport you would answer '5' and if you feel less strongly you would give a number in-between.

SHOWCARDS 10-12

OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

SHOW									
CARD								DK	
10	Alcohol sponsorship is						Alcohol sponsorship is		
	really good for sport	1	2	3	4	5	really bad for sport	6	(65)
11	It is the least popular						It is the most popular		
	alcohol brands which	1	2	3	4	5	alcohol brands which	6	(66)
	sponsor sport						sponsor sport		
12	Alcohol companies						Alcohol companies		
	should be encouraged to	1	2	3	4	5	should be discouraged	6	(67)
	sponsor sport						from sponsoring sport		

Now I'd like you to think about other ways that alcohol companies attract attention to or promote their make or brand.

Q16

I'm going to show you some cards (SHOWCARDS 13-27) with descriptions of other ways that companies might try to attract attention to alcohol or where you might see alcohol brands.

For each one can you tell me if you have seen anything like this.

FOR EACH QUESTION IF RESPONDENTS CANNOT REMEMBER NAME OF BRAND PROMPT THEM FOR TYPE OF DRINK

SHOWCARD 13		
a. Adverts for alcohol on television or in the cinema		(68)
	Yes	1
	No	2
	DK	3
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS		
Brands		
		(69)

b. Adverts for alcohol on the street, on large posters, billboards or b the sides of buses and taxis	ous shelters, or on
	Yes No DK
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	2.1
Brands	
SHOWCARD 15	
c. Adverts for alcohol in newspapers or magazines (including inserts	s & flyers)
	Yes No
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	DK
Brands	

SHOWCARD 10	
d. Sponsorship of sports or sport teams by alcohol brands	es (7
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	
<u>Brands</u>	
SHOWCARD 17	
e. Sponsorship of music events, festivals, concerts or venues by alcohol brane	ı
N	es (70) OK 2 OK 3
<u>Brands</u>	

f. Sponsorship of TV programmes or films on TV, and in the cinema brands IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	by alcohol Yes No DK	(78) 1 2 3
<u>Brands</u>		
		(79)
SHOWCARD 19		
g. Signs or posters about alcohol in shops or on shop fronts	Yes No DK	CARD 2 (10) 1 2 3
	No	(10) 1 2
g. Signs or posters about alcohol in shops or on shop fronts IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here?	No	(10) 1 2
g. Signs or posters about alcohol in shops or on shop fronts IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	No DK	(10) 1 2
g. Signs or posters about alcohol in shops or on shop fronts IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS Brands	No DK	(10) 1 2 3
g. Signs or posters about alcohol in shops or on shop fronts IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS Brands	No DK	(10) 1 2 3

h. Clothing including football and other sports tops, t-shirts, hats or items with alcohol brand logos or names on them	
	Yes No
	DK
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	
<u>Brands</u>	
SHOWCARD 21	
i. Special price offers for alcohol	
	Yes
	No DK
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	
<u>Brands</u>	

SHOWCARD 22	
j. Promotional e-mails, chain e-mails or joke e-mails that i	mention alcohol brands
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes No DK
<u>Brands</u>	
SHOWCARD 23	
k. Famous people, in films, on TV, or in music videos that brand of alcohol	show a particular make o
brand of accondi	Yes
	No
	DK
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	

l. Unusual bottle or can designs for alcohol products	Yes
	No
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	DK
<u>Brands</u>	
SHOWCARD 25	
m. Web sites for alcohol brands or that have alcohol brand logos or name (do not include health related sites)	es on them
(10 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	Yes
	No
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	DK
<u>Brands</u>	

n. Mobile phone or computer screensavers containing pictures of a	alcohol products
or logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here?	Yes No DK
PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	
Brands	
SHOWCARD 27	
o. Web home pages such as myspace, msn, profile heaven or bebo brand logos	containing alcohol
branu logos	Yes
	No DK
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	DK .
<u>Brands</u>	

NO SHOWCARD

n	Have you come across any other ways that companies try to attract attention to
p.	alcohol? Yes No DK
IF	YES, ASK: Can you tell me a bit about what you have seen and the brand that it was for?
Dε	escription of what seen Brand(s)
Yo YI	on you look at each of these cards and tell me which, if any, of these <u>you</u> have ever done? Ou just need to give me the numbers that match your answer. ELLOW SHUFFLE CARDS ULTICODE POSSIBLE
	Received free samples of alcohol products
	Received free gifts, showing alcohol brand logos, given out at events such as concerts, festivals or sports events.
3.	Received special price offers for alcohol
4.	Received promotional mail, e-mails or joke, chain, or wind up e-mails mentioning alcohol brands
5.	Owned clothing, such as football or other sports-tops, or other personal items with an alcohol brand name or logo on it
6.	Looked at a web site for alcohol brands or about drinking (do not include health related sites)
7.	Downloaded a mobile phone or computer screensaver containing an alcohol brand name or logo
8.	Used a web home page such as myspace, msn, profile heaven or bebo containing an alcohol brand name or logo
	None of these
	DK

Can you tell me the names of as many ma or heard of?	akes or brands of alcohol that you have either seen	
RECORD UP TO MAXIMUM OF 16		
Make or brand		
1	9	
2	10	
3	11	
4	12	
5	13	
6	14	
7	15	
8	16	
	rinks that have the name covered up on them. For ke or brand you think it is. Please don't worry if	
	ke or brand you think it is. Please don't worry if TIME	
each one I'd like you to tell me what may you don't know the make or brand. VISUAL PROMPTS 1 TO 5 POINT TO EACH PROMPT ONE AT A	ke or brand you think it is. Please don't worry if TIME or brand do you think this is?	
each one I'd like you to tell me what may you don't know the make or brand. VISUAL PROMPTS 1 TO 5 POINT TO EACH PROMPT ONE AT A FOR EACH PROMPT ASK: What make	ke or brand you think it is. Please don't worry if TIME or brand do you think this is? MPT	
each one I'd like you to tell me what may you don't know the make or brand. VISUAL PROMPTS 1 TO 5 POINT TO EACH PROMPT ONE AT A FOR EACH PROMPT ASK: What make OBTAIN RESPONSE FOR EACH PROM	ke or brand you think it is. Please don't worry if TIME or brand do you think this is? MPT	
each one I'd like you to tell me what may you don't know the make or brand. VISUAL PROMPTS 1 TO 5 POINT TO EACH PROMPT ONE AT A FOR EACH PROMPT ASK: What make OBTAIN RESPONSE FOR EACH PROM 1	ke or brand you think it is. Please don't worry if TIME or brand do you think this is? MPT	
each one I'd like you to tell me what may you don't know the make or brand. VISUAL PROMPTS 1 TO 5 POINT TO EACH PROMPT ONE AT A FOR EACH PROMPT ASK: What make OBTAIN RESPONSE FOR EACH PROM 1	Ke or brand you think it is. Please don't worry if TIME or brand do you think this is? MPT	

Q20 And can you tell me whether or not you have ever seen each of these brands of alcohol? Have you ever seen...?

(VISUAL PROMPTS 6-10)

POINT TO EACH PROMPT ONE AT A TIME

FOR EACH ONE ASK: Have you ever seen this one?

Visu	<u>al Prompt</u>	<u>Seen</u>	Not Seen	$\overline{\text{DK}}$	
6.	Buckfast	1	2	3	(46)
7.	WKD	1	2	3	(47)
8.	Carling	1	2	3	(48)
9.	Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	(49)
10.	Frosty Jack's cider	1	2	3	(50)

Q21 I would now like to find out what you think about each of these brands of alcohol (Visual prompts 6 to 10).

There is no right or wrong answer. I just want to know what you think regardless of whether or not you drink. Even if you know nothing about each one try to give an answer based on what each looks like.

Read the statement on both sides of the card (SHOWCARDS 28 to 36) carefully and then give me the number which best matches what you think about each brand. Try your best to give me a number for each one but if you don't really know just say so.

(VISUAL PROMPTS 6-10)

POINT TO EACH PROMPT ONE AT A TIME AND OBTAIN RESPONSE FOR EACH BRAND

SHOWCARDS 28-36

b.

SHOWCARD 28	Looks	boring			Looks fun	DK
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

SHOWCARD 29 Looks like a weak drink Looks like a strong drink				DK		
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

f.

SHOWCARDS 30-33

SHOWCARD 30	Drinkers my age would probably <u>like</u> to be seen with this			Drinker would prol like to be s	DK	
	product			this	product	
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

d.	SHOWCARD 31	Looks like for an exp		f	Looks lik	ke a drink perienced	DK	
		drinker				drinker		
	Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6	(70)
	WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6	(71)
	Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6	(72)
	Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6	(73)
	Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6	(74)

CARD 3 **SHOWCARD 32** Looks like a drink I Looks like a drink I DK e. would like the would not like the taste of taste of Buckfast 2 3 4 (10)6 WKD 2 3 5 4 6 (11)Carling 2 3 5 (12) 4 6 Smirnoff Vodka 2 3 4 5 6 (13)Frosty Jack's Cider 6 (14)

SHOWCARD 33		It's a drink you always see around			lrink you e around	DK
	here				here	
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q21 Continued

SHOWCARDS 34-36

4	T		
- 2	~	•	

SHOWCARD 34	This brand is not at all popular with]	This brand is very popular with people		DK
	people my	y age			my age	
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

SHOWCARD 35	A well known brand An unknow		vn brand	DK		
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

i.

SHOWCARD 36	You ofte brand m	en see this narketed			DK	
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

DEMOGRAPHICS

Now I would like to take some details from you.

Q22 Sex of respondent (35)

Male 1 Female 2

Q23

What age were you on your last birthday?

(36)	(37)

Q24	And	what is your	date of birth	?					
		(38) D	(39) D	(40) M	(41) M	(42) Y	(43) Y	1	
Q25		ou regard you WCARD 37	urself as belo	onging to any	y particular r	religion?			
				Christi		g Church of S			(44)
				Buddh		nd all other (Christian dei	nominations	$\begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\2 \end{bmatrix}$
				Hindu Jewish Muslin					3 4
				Sikh None	1				5 6 7
					her religion	(please descr	ibe)		8
Q26			groups do yo	ou belong?					
	SHO	WCARD 38			Whi				(46)
					Mix Asia	ed an or Asian B	ritish		3
					Blac Chir	ck or Black B nese	ritish		4 5
					Othe				6
Q27	simil	ar questionna				's time and a ontact you to			(47)
	surve	y like this?				Y			(47)
						No Di			3

Q28 Now I would like to give you some short questions to answer by yourself. I will not see the answers you give. When you have finished, please seal it in the envelope and hand it back to me. If you have any questions just ask me, I'll just be doing some paperwork here. **INTERVIEWER:** Guide respondents through instructions on inside page and highlight the separate visual with the drinking vessels on it. Complete Q29 & Q30 with parent/guardian and remember to code parental presence. ASK OF PARENT Q29 Which of these describe you? **SHOWCARD 39** (48)Married 1 2 Living with partner Single (never married and not living with partner) 3 Divorced 4 Separated 5 Widowed 6 Q30 And what is the occupation of the person in the household who has the largest income either from employment, pensions, state benefits, investment or any other sources? Code Social Class of Chief Income Earner INTERVIEWER:

Social Class	(49)
A	1
В	2
C 1	3
C2	4
D	5
E	6

PERMISSION FOR FOLLOW-UP	
If child is willing to take part in similar questionnaire in 2 years tim 'Yes' to Q27) please get signature on permission form for follow-up	
PARENTAL PRESENCE	
Parental presence during interview	(50)
Present all of the time Present some of the time	
Not present	$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$
Notes:	•••••
	(51)
Parental presence during self-completion	
Parental presence during self-completion Present - close to respondent / potential to see answers	1
	1 2

END OF INTERVIEW

INTERVIEWER CHECKLIST

- Have you explained the visual prompt to the respondent when you gave them the self-completion questionnaire?
- If respondent is willing to participate in the follow-up in 2 years time have you got the permission form signed for the follow-up contact?

APPENDIX K: WAVE ONE SELF COMPLETION QUESTIONNAIRE

IN CONFIDENCE

MARKETING MONITOR

2006 Survey

Self-Completion Booklet

We would like to find out about young people's drinking behaviour. These questions are for you to answer on your own. Please answer honestly. We will not tell anyone what your answers are.

Please read the instructions on the next page to find out what to do. If there is anything that you do not understand please ask the interviewer to help you.

Instructions

Please read each question carefully.

Most of the questions ca	an be answered by ticking	the box next to the	answer that applies to you.
--------------------------	---------------------------	---------------------	-----------------------------

Example:		
(Please tick <u>one</u> box only)	Yes ✓	
	No	
Some questions allow you to give more than	one answer.	
Example:		
(Please tick all that apply)	Red ✓	
	Green	
	Yellow ✓	
	Blue	
Sometimes you are asked to write your answer	ver instead.	
Example:		
(Please write in)		
computer games		
Next to the boxes there are arrows and instructions, you should answe	actions. They tell you which question to answer next. If er the next question.	there
Example:		
(Please tick <u>one</u> box only)		
	No ✓ GO TO Q4	
	Yes GO TO Q3	

	<u>General Lifestyle</u>	
Q1	How much do you like or dislike school? (Please tick one box only)	CARD 4
	Dislike school a lot	1 (10)
	Dislike school a little	2
	Neither like nor dislike school	3
	Like school a little	4
	Like school a lot	5
Q2	Do you think your own school work is better or worse compared to other pupils in your year at school?	
	(Please tick <u>one</u> box only) A lot worse	(11) 1
	A bit worse	2
	About the same	3
	A bit better	4
	A lot better	5
	Now I'd like you to tell me a little bit about your friends.	
Q3	Who do you normally hang around with? (Please tick one box only)	
	Friends the same age as me	(12) 1
	Friends younger than me	2
	Friends older than me	3
	Friends of all different ages	4
	Don't hang around with friends / don't have friends	5

	Alcohol	
	We would now like to ask you some questions about alcohol. (Remember that no-one else who knows you will find out your answers).	
Q4	Have you ever had a proper alcoholic drink - a whole drink, not just a sip? (Please tick one box only) Yes ☐ → GO TO Q5	(13)
	No ☐ → GO TO Q20 ON PAGE 15	2
Q5	How old were you when you had your first proper alcoholic drink? Write in the box your age, in numbers not words. I was Years old	(14)(15)
Q6	How often do you USUALLY have an alcoholic drink? (Please tick one box only)	(16)
	Every day or almost every day	1 (16)
	About twice a week	2
	About once a week	3
	About once a fortnight	4
	About once a month	5
	Only a few times a year	6
	I never drink alcohol now	7
Q7	When you drink alcohol are you usually on your own, or with other people?	(17)
	(Please tick <u>one</u> box only) On my own	1 (17)
	With other people	2

Q8	When you drink alcohol with other people, who are you usually with? (Please tick one box only)	
	My girlfriend or boyfriend	1 (18)
	Friends of the same sex as me	2
	Friends of the opposite sex	3
	A group of friends of both sexes	4
	My parents or guardians	5
	My brother, sister or other relative	6
	Other people	7
Q9	And when you drink alcohol, where are you usually? (Please tick one box only) In a pub or bar	(19)
	In a club or disco	2
	At a party with friends	3
	At my home or someone else's home	4
	On the street, in a park or somewhere else outside	5
	Somewhere else	6
Q10	Could you name any brands or makes of alcohol that you usually drink (if you don't know the brand name just write the type of drink it is, for example, beer, vodka etc). (Please write in)	
		(20)
		(21)

	We would now like you to tell us about the <u>la</u>	ast time yo	ou drank any alcohol.	
Q11	When did you last have an alcoholic drink? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only)			(22)
	Today	→	GO TO Q12	1 (22)
	Yesterday	→	GO TO Q12	2
	Some other time during the last 7 days	→	GO TO Q12	3
	1 week, but less than 2 weeks ago	→	GO TO Q13 ON PAGE 7	4
	2 weeks, but less than 4 weeks ago	→	GO TO Q13 ON PAGE 7	5
	1 month, but less than 6 months ago.	→	GO TO Q13 ON PAGE 7	6
1	6 months ago or more	→	GO TO Q13 ON PAGE 7	7
Q12	On which of these days during the last 7 days (Please tick all that apply)	did you ha	ve an alcoholic drink?	(23)
	Monday Tuesday			2
	Wednesday			3
	Thursday			4
	Friday			5
	Saturday			6
	Sunday			7

Q13	The last time you drank alcohol, did any of the following	lowing happ	en to you?		
	(Please tick <u>one</u> box on <u>each line</u>)	1	2	3	
				Don't	
		Yes	No	know	
	I was sick				(35)
	I got into a fight				(36)
	I got into an argument				(37)
	I smashed things				(38)
	I had difficulty walking				(39)
	I got really drunk				(40)
	I forgot what I had done				(41)
	I missed school or work the next day				(42)
	I did something I later regretted				(43)
	I felt ill the next morning				(44)
	I got into an argument				(45)
	I had to be taken to hospital				(46)
	I lost some money or other items				(47)
	My clothes or other items got damaged				(48)
	I got into trouble with the police				(49)
	I got injured or hurt myself				(50)

The next questions are about the <u>LAST</u> time you drank alcohol. We would like you to tell us what you drank. Please read the example below before you answer. There are separate questions for each different drink that you had.

What was the (Please write	name or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff) in)
<i>Si</i>	mirnoff
What type of (Please write	drink was it? (eg. vodka)
Va	odka
Which picture SHEET) (Please write	e best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SEE PICTURI in)
	${\cal J}_{\cdots}$
How much die	d you drink? in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)
	More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)
	One full bottle/can/glass
	About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
	About ½ of the bottle/can/glass
	About ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
	About ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass Less than ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
Did you have (Please tick <u>o</u>	Less than ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time?

	Now please tell us what you drank last time you had alcohol.	
Q14a.	What was the name or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff) (Please write in)	(2)
b.	What type of drink was it? (eg. vodka) (Please write in)	(24
c.	Which picture best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SEE PICTURE SHEET)	(20
	(Please write in)	(2
d.	How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)	
	More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)	(3
	One full bottle/can/glass	(3
	About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	2
	About ½ of the bottle/can/glass	3
	About ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	۷
	Less than ^{1/4} of the bottle/can/glass	5
e.	Did you have any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Yes → GO TO Q15 ON PAGE 10	(32
	No ☐ → GO TO Q20 ON PAGE 15	2

)15a.	What was the name or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff) (Please write in)	(3
b.	What type of drink was it? (eg. vodka) (Please write in)	
c.	Which picture best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SEE PICTURE SHEET) (Please write in)	(.
d.	How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)	
	More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)	(
	One full bottle/can/glass	(
	About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	
	About ½ of the bottle/can/glass	
	About ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	
I	Less than ½ of the bottle/can/glass	ı
e.	Did you have any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Yes	
	No ☐ → GO TO Q20 ON PAGE 15	

Q16a.	What was the name or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff) (Please write in)	(42)
b.	What type of drink was it? (eg. vodka) (Please write in)	(44)
c.	Which picture best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SEE PICTURE SHEET) (Please write in)	(46)
d.	How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)	(40)
	More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)	(48)
	One full bottle/can/glass	(49) 1
	About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	2
	About ½ of the bottle/can/glass	3
	About ^{1/4} of the bottle/can/glass	4
	Less than ½ of the bottle/can/glass	5
e.	Did you have any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Yes GO TO Q17 ON PAGE 12 No One of the property of the pr	(50)

Q17a.	What was the name or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff) (Please write in)	(51)
b.	What type of drink was it? (eg. vodka) (Please write in)	(53)
c.	Which picture best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SEE PICTURE SHEET) (Please write in)	(55)
d.	How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)	
	More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)	(57)
	One full bottle/can/glass	(58) 1
	About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	2
	About ½ of the bottle/can/glass	3
	About ^{1/4} of the bottle/can/glass	4
ı	Less than ^{1/4} of the bottle/can/glass	5
e.	Did you have any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Yes → GO TO Q18 ON PAGE 13 No → GO TO Q20 ON PAGE 15	(59) 1 2

18a.	What was the name or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff) (Please write in)	
b.	What type of drink was it? (eg. vodka) (Please write in)	
c.	Which picture best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SEE PICTURE SHEET) (Please write in)	
d.	How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)	
	More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)	(
	One full bottle/can/glass	(
	About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	
	About ½ of the bottle/can/glass	
	About ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	
I	Less than ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	1
e.	Did you have any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Yes	
	No ☐ → GO TO Q20 ON PAGE 15	

Q19a.	What was the name or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff) (Please write in)	CARD 5 (10)
b.	What type of drink was it? (eg. vodka) (Please write in)	(12)
c.	Which picture best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SEE PICTURE SHEET) (Please write in)	(14)
d.	How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)	
I	More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)	(16)
	One full bottle/can/glass	(17) 1
	About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	2
	About ½ of the bottle/can/glass	3
	About ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	4
1	Less than ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	5
e.	Did you have any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Yes No	(18) 1 2

Q20	Have you personally bought or tried to buy any alcohol in the last 4 weeks? This includes buying alcohol for someone else. (Please tick one box only) Yes GO TO Q21	(19)
Q21	No ☐ → GO TO Q25 ON PAGE 16 In the last 4 weeks, have you personally bought or tried to buy alcohol from a shop,	2
	supermarket or off-licence? This includes buying alcohol for somebody else. (Please tick one box only) Yes → GO TO Q22 No → GO TO Q23	(20) 1 2
Q22	What happened the last time you bought or tried to buy alcohol from a shop, supermarket or off-licence? (Please tick one box only) I bought some alcohol They refused to sell me alcohol	(21) 1 2
Q23	In the last 4 weeks, have you personally bought or tried to buy alcohol in a pub, bar or club? This includes buying alcohol for somebody else. (Please tick one box only) Yes → GO TO Q24 No → GO TO Q25 ON PAGE 16	(22) 1 2
Q24	What happened that last time you bought or tried to buy alcohol in a pub, bar or club? (Please tick one box only) I bought some alcohol They refused to sell me alcohol	(23)

Q25	Have you got anyone else to buy any alcohol for you in the last 4 weeks? (Please tick one box only) Yes No	(24) 1 2
Q26	Have you been given alcohol by any of these people in the last 4 weeks? (Please tick one box on each line) Yes No Given alcohol by parents Given alcohol by brothers or sisters Given alcohol by other relatives	(25) (26) (27)
	Given alcohol by friends	(28)
ı	Given alcohol by other people	(29)
Q27	Have you got alcohol in any of these other ways in the last 4 weeks? (Please tick one box on each line) Taken it from your home (with permission) Stolen it from your home (without permission) Taken it from a friend's home (with permission) Stolen it from a friend's home (without permission) Stolen it from somewhere else	(30) (31) (32) (33) (34)
Q28	If one of your friends offered you alcohol, would you drink it? (Please tick one box only)	(51)
	Definitely not	1
	Probably not	2
	Probably yes	3
	Definitely yes	4
	I'm not sure	5

Q29	Do you think you will drink alcohol at any time during the next year?	(52)
	(Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Definitely not	(52)
	Probably not	2
	Probably yes	3
	Definitely yes	4
	I'm not sure	5
Q30	Do you think you will buy alcohol at any time during the next year? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only)	(53)
I	Definitely not	1
	Probably not	2
	Probably yes	3
	Definitely yes	4
I	I'm not sure	5
Q31	How many people, in each of these age groups, do you think drink alcohol at least once a week? (Please tick one box on each line)	
1	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Very About Almost I'm not	ı
	None few A few half Most all All sure 13 year olds	(54)
	14 year olds	(55)
I	15 year olds	(56)
Q32	As far as you know, how many of your friends drink alcohol at least once a week? (Please tick one box only)	(57)
I	All of them	1
	Most of them	2
	About half of them	3
	A few of them	4
	None of them	5
	I'm not sure	6
- 1		I

Q33	Does your mother drink alcohol at all nowadays? (Please tick one box only)	(58)
	Yes	1
	No No	2
	I'm not sure	3
	I do not have /don't see my mother	5
034		
Q34	Does your father drink alcohol at all nowadays? (Please tick one box only)	(59)
	Yes	1
	No	2
	I'm not sure	3
I	I do not have /don't see my father	5
Q35	Do you have any brothers or sisters? (Please tick one box only)	(60)
I	Yes	1
1	No GO TO Q38	2
Q36	Do any of your brothers or sisters drink alcohol? (Please tick one box only)	(61)
	Yes	1
	No	2
	Don't know	3
Q37	Do you think your brother(s) or sister(s) would consider it ok or not ok for you to do the	
Q37	following?	
	(Please tick one box on each row) Ok Not ok Don't know	
	Try drinking alcohol to see what it's like	(62)
	Get drunk to see what it's like	(63)
Q38	Do you think your parents or whoever looks after you would consider it ok or not ok for you to do the following?	
	(Please tick one box on each row) Ok Not ok Don't know	
	Try drinking alcohol to see what it's like	(64)
	Get drunk to see what it's like	(65)

Q39	Do you think your closest friends would consider it ok or not ok for you to do the following?	
	(Please tick one box on each row) 1 2 3 Ok Not ok Don't know	
	Try drinking alcohol to see what it's like	(66)
	Get drunk to see what it's like	(67)
	We would now like to ask you some questions about smoking (remember that no one else that knows you will find out your answers)	
Q40	Now read the following statements carefully and tick the box next to the one which best describes you.	
	(Please tick one box only) I have never smoked → GO TO Q41	(68) 1
	I have only ever tried smoking once ☐ → GO TO Q41	2
	I used to smoke sometimes but I never smoke a cigarette now ☐ → GO TO END	3
	I sometimes smoke cigarettes now but I don't smoke as many as one a week GO TO END	4
	I usually smoke between one and six cigarettes a week GO TO END	5
	I usually smoke more than six cigarettes a week ☐ → GO TO END	6
Q41	Just to check, read the statements below carefully and tick the box next to the one which best describes you (Please tick one box only)	
	I have never tried smoking a cigarette, not even a puff or two	(69) 1
	I did once have a puff or two of a cigarette, but I never smoke now	2
ı	I do sometimes smoke cigarettes	3
	END OF QUESTIONNAIRE	
	Thank you for answering these questions. Please now seal this in the envelope and hand it to the interviewer.	

APPENDIX L: MAIN QUESTIONNAIRE SHOW-CARDS

Very often
Quite often
Sometimes
Seldom
Never

Very important
Quite important
Neither important nor unimportant
Quite unimportant
Very unimportant

Every day
Most days
About 2 or 3 times a week
About once a week
Less than once a week
Never

In school
At home
At a relative's house
At a friend's house
In a library
Elsewhere (Please state)

- 1. To send and receive e-mails
- 2. To visit chat-rooms or home pages like msn/myspace
- 3. To visit sports websites, eg. football websites
- 4. To visit music websites
- 5. To download music or videos
- 6. To visit celebrity or fashion websites
- 7. To buy products or services
- 8. To help with school work, carry out research
- 9. For news

I like adverts a lot

I like adverts a little

I neither like nor dislike adverts

I dislike adverts a little

I dislike adverts a lot

Like a lot
Like a little
Neither like nor dislike
Dislike a little
Dislike a lot

Very likely
Quite likely
Neither likely nor unlikely
Quite unlikely
Very unlikely

I like alcohol adverts a lot

I like alcohol adverts a little

I neither like nor dislike alcohol adverts

I dislike alcohol adverts a little

I dislike alcohol adverts a lot

Alcohol sponsorship is really good for sport

1 2 3 4 5 od

Alcohol sponsorship is really bad for sport

It is the least popular 1 2 3 4 5 alcohol brands which sponsor sport

It is the most popular alcohol brands which sponsor sport

Alcohol companies should be encouraged to sponsor sport

1 2 3 4 5

Alcohol companies should be discouraged from sponsoring sport

a. Adverts for alcohol on television or in the cinema

b. Adverts for alcohol out on the street, on large posters, billboards or bus shelters, or on the sides of buses and taxis

c. Adverts for alcohol in newspapers or magazines (including inserts & flyers)

d. Sponsorship of sports or sport teams by alcohol brands

e. Sponsorship of music events, festivals, concerts or venues by alcohol brands

f. Sponsorship of TV programmes or films on TV, and in the cinema by alcohol brands

g. Signs or posters about alcohol in shops or on shop fronts

h. Clothing, including football and other sports tops, t-shirts, hats or other personal items with alcohol brand logos or names on them

i. Special price offers for alcohol

j. Promotional e-mails, chain e-mails or joke e-mails that mention alcohol brands

k. Famous people, in films, on TV, or in music videos that show a particular make or brand of alcohol

1. Unusual bottle or can designs for alcohol products

m. Web sites for alcohol brands or that have alcohol brand logos or names on them (do not include health related sites)

n. Mobile phone or computer screensavers containing pictures of alcohol products or logos.

o. Web home pages such as myspace, msn, profile heaven or bebo containing alcohol brand logos

Looks boring

1 2 3 4 5

Looks fun

Looks like a 1 2 3 4 5 Looks like a weak drink strong drink

Drinkers my age would probably like 1 2 3 4 5 to be seen with this product

Drinkers my age would probably not like to be seen with this product

Looks like a 1 2 3 4 5 drink for an experienced drinker

Looks like a drink for an inexperienced drinker

Looks like a drink I would 1 2 3 4 5 drink I would like the taste of

It's a drink you always see around here 1 2 3 4 5 It's a drink you never see around here

This brand is not at all popular with people my age

This brand is 1 2 3 4 5 very popular with people my age

A well known 1 2 3 4 5 An unknown brand

You often see 1 2 3 4 5 You never this brand see this brand marketed marketed

Christian (including Catholic and Protestant)

Buddhist

Hindu

Jewish

Muslim

Sikh

None

Other (Please describe)

White
Mixed
Asian or Asian British
Black or Black British
Chinese
Other

Married

Living with partner

Single (never married and not living with partner)

Divorced

Separated

Widowed

1. Chocolate or sweets

2. Fizzy drinks

3. Crisps

4. Trainers

5. Clothes

6. Magazines

7. Perfume / Aftershave

8. Cigarettes

9. Alcohol

1. Received free samples of alcohol products

2. Received free gifts showing alcohol brand logos given out at events such as concerts, festivals or sports events

3. Received special price offers for alcohol

4. Received promotional mail, e-mails, or joke, chain or wind up e-mails mentioning alcohol brands

5. Owned clothing, such as football or other sports tops, or other personal items with an alcohol brand name or logo on it

6. Looked at a web site for alcohol brands or about drinking (do not include health related sites)

7. Downloaded a mobile phone or computer screensaver containing an alcohol brand name or logo

8. Used a web home page such as myspace, msn, profile heaven or bebo containing an alcohol brand name or log

APPENDIX M: QUESTIONNAIRE CODING FRAME

ALCOHOL MARKETING & YOUNG PEOPLE'S DRINKING – SURVEY

BREAKDOWN VARIABLES & INSTRUCTIONS

Breakdown Variables:

G		A TI		\mathbf{r}	
1 -	н	N	н	ĸ	•

Glasgow Lanarkshire

GENDEK:			
Male	Card 3	Col 35	Code 1
Female	Card 3	Col 35	Code 2
AGE:			
12	Card 3	Col 36-37	Codes 12
13	Card 3	Col 36-37	Codes 13
14	Card 3	Col 36-37	Codes 14
SOCIAL CLASS:			
ABC1	Card 3	Col 49	Codes 1, 2 or 3
C2DE	Card 3	Col 49	Codes 4, 5 or 6
SMOKING STATUS:			
Non-smokers	Card 5	Col 68	Code 1
Tried smoking	Card 5	Col 68 Col 69	Codes 2, 3 or Code 2
Current smokers	Card 5	Col 68 Col 69	Codes 4, 5, 6 or Code 3
Breakdowns Cont'd:			
SAMPLE:			

Card 1

Card 1

Col 1-5

Col 1-5

Code 1-900

Code 901+

PEER DRINKING:

All / Most	Card 5	Col 57	Codes 1 or 2
Half / Few	Card 5	Col 57	Codes 3 or 4
None	Card 5	Col 57	Code 5

SIBLING'S DRINKING:

Yes	Card 5	Col 61	Code 1
No / Not sure	Card 5	Col 61	Codes 2 or 3

PARENT'S DRINKING:

Yes	Card 5	Col 58	Code 1 or,
	Card 5	Col 59	Code 1
No	Card 5 Card 5	Col 58 Col 59	Codes 2 or 3 and Codes 2 or 3

INTENTION TO DRINK ALCOHOL IN THE NEXT YEAR:

Yes	Card 5	Col 52	Codes 3 or 4
No	Card 5	Col 52	Codes 1 or 2

INVOLVEMENT IN ALCOHOL MARKETING:

None	Card 2	Col 32	Code 9
Anv	Card 2	Col 32	Codes $1 - 8$ or

WHETHER EVER DRUNK ALCHOL:

Yes	Card 4	Col 13	Code 1
No	Card 4	Col 13	Code 2

CODING FRAME

Q7.

Variable Name – q7other

In school	1
At home	2
At a relatives house	3
At a friend's house	4
In a library	5
Elsewhere	6
Internet café	7
Youth club/Centre	8
Shop	9
Mobile Phone	10
Workplace	11

Question 9 BRANDLIST

Variable names: q9.1brand, q9.2brand, q9.3brand, q9.4brand, q9.5brand, q9.6brand

118 directory enquiries	1
50/50	2
Abelyis	3
Asda/Asda George/George	4
Audi	5
Avon	6
B&Q	7
Babybel	8
Baby Annabel	9
Baby Born	10
Babyliss	11
Baggit	13
Baileys	14
Barbie/Barbie and Me/Barbie Dolls	15
Barr's/Irn Bru/Barr's Irn Bru/Irn Bru 32	16
Basics	17
Beckham	18
Beck's	19
Bedstore	20
Bella	21
Ben Sherman	22
Berghaus	23
Birds Eye	24
Blockbuster	25
BMW	26
Bonjour	27
Boots	28
Boss/ Hugo / Hugo Boss	29
Bratz	30
British Airways	31
Bryle Cream	32
BT	33
Budweiser	34
Burberry	35
Burger King	36
C2	37
Calvin Klein	39
Capitol One	40
Cash Convertors	41
Casino Royale	42
Celtic	43
Chrysler	44
Churchill	45
Cif	46
Cillit Bang	47
Citroen	48
CK in 2U	49
Clarks	50
Click	51

Coco Pops (Note: please list under kelloggs o/c – see below) 54 Colgate 55 Comet 56 Comfort 57 Confused.com 58 Converse 59 Co-op 60 Cruise 61 Curious 62 Currys 63 Daily Mail 64 Daily Record 65 Davidoff 66 Daz 67 Debehams 68 Dell 69 Delta Force 70 Dettol 71 DFS 72 Dinos 73 Dior 74 Direct Line 75 Disney 76 DKNY 77 Dodge Caliber 78 Dolmio Xpress 80 Domino's 81 Dove 82 Dulux 83 eBay 84 Electronic arts 86 Este Lauder 89
Comet 56 Comfort 57 Confused.com 58 Converse 59 Co-op 60 Cruise 61 Curious 62 Currys 63 Daily Mail 64 Daily Record 65 Davidoff 66 Daz 67 Debehams 68 Dell 69 Delta Force 70 Dettol 71 DFS 72 Dinos 73 Dior 74 Direct Line 75 Disney 76 DKNY 77 Dodge Caliber 78 Dolce & Gabana 79 Dolmio Xpress 80 Domino's 81 Dove 82 Dulux 83 eBay 84 Electronic arts 85 Easy Jet 86 Elle 87 Errickson 88 Estee Lauder
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Sky / Sky Sports/ Sky TV / Sky Plus	274
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Somerfield	280
Sony / Sony Erickson / Sony TV / Sony Walkman	281
SpecSavers	282

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Sprite	284
Sterling	285
Strongbow	286
STV	287
Sunny Delight	288
Sunsilk	289
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Suzuki	292
T Mobile	293
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Tamagotchi	296
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Tesco / Tesco Mobile/ Tesco Store	298
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CIS	349
Danone	350
Grazia	351
J. Lo / Jennifer Lopez	352
Nokia	353
Nuts	354
Top Shop	355
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Yakult	358
Yamaha	359
Airwick	360
Aldi	361
Andrex	362
X Box / X Box 360	363
Land of Leather	370
Reebok	371
Robinsons	372
X – Escape	375
After Eights	376
Apple	377

Bacardi / Bacardi Breezer Overcode for 500 and 501	
Bacardi	500
Bacardi Breezer	501
Cadbury Overcode for 510 – 513	
Cadbury-unspecified variant	510
Cadbury Dairy Milk	511
Cadbury Snaps	512
Cadbury Roses	513
Coca Cola Overcode for 520 – 522	
Coca Cola / Coke	<i>5</i> 20
Coca Cola Zero	<i>5</i> 21
Diet Coke / Diet Cola	522
Kellogg's/Frosties/Special K Overcode for 530 – 532	
Kellogg's-unspecified variant	530
Frosties	531
Special K	532
Coco Pops	54
Smirnoff Overcode for 550 – 551	
Smirnoff	550
Smirnoff Ice	551
Pepsi Overcode for 570 – 571	
Pepsi	570
Pepsi Max	571
All brands / Several Different Brands	994
Other Comment / Description	996
Other Brand	997
CR / DK Brand	998

Q9 Type

Variables: q9.1type, q9.2type, q9.3type, q9.4type, q9.5type, q9.6type

Toiletries/fragrances (overcode for codes below)

Aftershave	1
Bath foam	6
Body spray	12
Bubble bath	19
Conditioner	45
Deodorant	48
Eye mascara	57
Face Cream	59
Fashion & Beauty products	60
Foam	68
Hair dye	80
Hair products	81
Lip gloss	88
Make up	91
Moisturiser	95
Perfume	103
Razor blades	112
Shampoo	118
Shaving gel	119
Soap liquid	121
Toothpaste	136

Household products/cleaners (overcode for codes below)

Air freshener	2
Bleach	9
cleaning products	39
Fabric conditioner	58
H/Hold cleaner	78
Polish	110
Soap powder	120
Washing up liquid	137
Toilet Roll	138
Washing powder	140
Tissue	141

Food/drink (Overcode for codes below)

oucs below)	
Alcohol	4
Baked beans	5
Biscuit	8
Bread	16
Breakfast cereal	17
Burger chain	20
Champagne	21
Caffeine drink	22
Cheese	30
Chewing gum	31
Chickens/ Carrots	32
Chips	33
Chocolate	34
Christmas food	35
Coffee	41
Cooking oil	46
Crisps	47
Easter eggs	52
Energy drink	56
Fast food	61
Fish Dippers	65
Food	69
Gum	77
Holidays / Travel	83
Ice Cream	84
Ice lolly	85
Milk	92
Mince pies	93
Organic Food	98
Oven Chips	99
Pizza	106
Salad Cream	115
Sauce	116
Fizzy drinks	123
Spices	125
Confectionery / Sweets	127
Tea	128
Yoghurt	133

Clothing/footwear (Overcode for codes below)

Boots	15
Clothing	40
Footwear	71
Scarf	117

Financial products/services	s (Overcode for codes below)	
	Car Insurance	25
	Financial products	63
	Insurance	86
	Loans	89
Toys/Games (Overcode for	codes below)	
	Car Toys	26
	Computer game / software	44
	Doll	49
	Drawing mat	50
	Games console	73
	Pogo stick	108
	Toys	134
Medicines (Overcode for co	odes below) Cold remedy	42
	Flu Tablets	67
Communications - phones/below)	broadband etc (Overcode for codes Broadband	18
	Computer	43
	Mobile phones	94
	Phones	104
	Phone company	105
	Ringtones	113
Household items - furniture	e etc (Overcode for codes below)	
	Carpets/flooring	27
	Flooring	66
	Furniture	72
	Sofas	122
	Solar Panels	124
	Tiles	130

Leisure/sports items/services (Overcode for codes below) Bike

Bike	/
Books	13
Camera	23
CD	29
Cinema, movies	38
DVD	51
Films / Movies	62
Firework	64
Football Products	70
Golf clubs	75
Guitars	76
Music player	87
Magazine	90
Paint balling	101
Pay Per View TV	102
Poker	109
Surfboards	126

Electrical items (Overcode for codes below)

Computer	43
Electric Bike	53
Electricals	54
Electronic toothbrush	55
Hair braider	79
Hair Straighteners	82
Televisions	129

Other types (Overcode for codes below)]

3
10
14
24
28
36
37
74
96
97
100
107
111
114
997

Other Comment / Description DK / CR

996 998

Q9/Q13 Where /

Variables: q9.1where, q9.2where, q9.3where, q9.4where, q9.5where, q9.6where Q13.1where, q13.2where, q13.3where, q13.4where, q13.5where

Billboards/Posters/Bus Shelters/Sides of Buses or Taxis	Codes 1, 11, 113, 11315, 1713, 51
Clothing/Other branded items	Codes 2, 213
Email	3
In stores/Shops/Point of Sale	Codes 5, 51, 513
Magazines/Newspapers/Flyers/Leaflets	Codes 7, 713, 715, 1713
Packaging design/size	9
Sports events/stadia/clothing	Codes 11, 1113
TV/Cinema/Radio	Codes 12, 13, 113, 213, 513, 713, 1113, 1315, 1713, 11315
Web Homespages: MSN/Myspace/Facebook/Bebo	14
Internet/Websites/	Codes 15, 715, 1315, 11315
Other Comment Description	96
Other	97
DK/ CR	98

CODING FRAME FOR ALCOHOL BRANDS

(Questions 13, 16, 18, 19 & Self-completion questions 10, 14-19)

All brands/several different brands	94
Description of Vessel	95
Other Comment/Description	96
Other brand	97
DK/CR Brand	98
No Brand Mentioned/None/No	99
Spirits – Overcode for 100-299	
Generic Spirits	100
Absolut Vodka	101
Asda vodka	102
Asda whisky	103
Bacardi	104
Ballantynes	106
Bell's	107
Black Heart Rum	108
Bladnoch	109
Bombay Sapphire	110
Bowmore	111
Bushmills	112
Captain Morgan's	113
Cossack	114
Cutty Sark	115
Famous Grouse	116
Glen Eagles Whisky	117
Glenmorangie	118
Glenfiddich	119
Glen's	121
Gordon's	122
Grant's	123
Havana Club	124
Hennessey	125
High Commissioner Whisky	126
Iona Whisky	127
Isle of Jura	128
Isle of Skye	129
Jack Daniel's	130
Jameson Whiskey	131
Jim Beam	132
Johnnie Walker	133
Larios Gin	134
Martell	135
McCallums whiskey	136
Morgan's Spiced	138
Mount Gay Barbados Rum	139
Scottish Leader whisky	140
Smirnoff Vodka	141
Southern Comfort	142
Speyburn	143
-L-)	3

Sputnik vodka	144
Talisker Whisky	145
Teacher's Whisky	146
Tobermory Whisky	147
Totov spirit	148
Vladivar Vodka	149
Vodkat	150
Whyte & Mackay Whisky	151
Wild Turkey	152
Absinthe	153
Courvoisier	154
Generic Vodka	201
Generic Whisky	202
Generic Gin	203
Generic Rum	204
Generic Brandy	205
Generic Tequila	206
Very small bottles (vodka etc)	207
Spirits All brands/several different brands	294
Spirits Description of Vessel	295
Spirits Other Comment/Description	296
Spirits Other brand*	297
Spirits DK/CR Brand	298
Spirits No Brand Mentioned/None/No	299

^{*} Incorporate any spirit brands above, that have fewer than 1% response, into this. Please do the same for other drink types too.

Beer - Overcode for 300-499

Generic Beer	300
Amstel	301
Arran Blonde	302
Asahi	343
Asda Smart Price beer	303
Avery	304
Beck's	305
Boddington's	306
Brahma	307
Budweiser	308
Caffrey's	309
Carling	310
Carlsberg	311
Castle	341
Castlemaine XXXX	342
Cobra	312
Coors	313
Corona	314
Cruz Campo	315
Duvel	316
Fosters	317
Grolsch	318
Guinness	319
Harp	320
Heineken	321
Holsten Pils	322
John Smith's	323
Kingfisher	324
Kronenbourg	325
McEwan's lager	326
Miller	327
Molsen Canadian	328
Nastro Azzuro	329
Newcastle Brown Ale	330
Peterman's Artois	331
Red Stripe	332
Rolling Rock	333
San Miguel	334
Skol	335
Stella Artois	336
Tennent's	337
Sweet-heart Stout	338
Tiger	339
Toohey's	340
Beer/Lager All brands/several different brands	494
Beer/Lager Description of Vessel	495
Beer/Lager Other Comment/Description	496
Beer/Lager Other brand	497
Beer/Lager DK/CR Brand	498
Beer/Lager No Brand Mentioned/None/No	499

Liquer – Overcode for 500-699

Generic Liquer	500
Advocaat	501
Aftershock	502
Archers	503
Baileys Irish Cream	504
Cointreau	505
Dooley's	506
Drambuie	507
Glayva	508
Irish Meadow	509
Jagermeister	510
Malibu	511
Midori	512
Ouzo	513
Pimms	514
Sambuca	515
Sheridan's	516
Tia Maria	517
Liquer All brands/several different brands	694
Liquer Description of Vessel	695
Beer/Lager Other Comment/Description	696
Liquer Other brand	697
Liquer DK/CR Brand	698
Liquer No Brand Mentioned/None/No	699

Oiden/Permis Oscare de feu 700 000	
Cider/Perry – Overcode for 700-899	700
Generic Cider/Perry	700
Babycham	701
Blackthorn	702
Bulmers	703
Diamond White	704
Electric White	705
Frosty Jack's	706
Magners	707
Merrydown	708
Old English	709
Polaris	710
Pulse	711
Scrumpy Jack	712
Strongbow	713
White Dragon	714
White Lightening	715
White Star cider	716
Woodpecker	717
Lambrini	718
Cider/Perry All brands/several different brands	894
Cider/Perry Description of Vessel	895
Cider/Perry Other Comment/Description	896
Cider/Perry Other brand	897
Cider/Perry DK/CR Brand	898
Cider/Perry No Brand Mentioned/None/No	899
Wine - Overcode for 900-1099	
Generic Wine	900
Alfresco wind	901
Black Tower	902

Alfresco wind	901
Black Tower	902
Blossom Hill	903
Blue Nun	904
Blue Ridge wine	905
Bollinger	906
Bucks Fizz	907
Cabernet Sauvignon	908
Cava	909
Champagne	910
Chardonnay	911
Cristal Champagne	912
Co-op wine	913
Dom Perignon	915
Echo Falls	916
Ernest & Julio	917
Hardy's wine	918
Jabob's Creek	919
JP Chanet wine	920
Julian Galliano wine	921
Kumala	922
Lambrusco	923
Lindemans	924
Moet et Chandon	925

Oyster Bay Pinot Grigio Piper heidsieck Rioja Rose Mount Sangria Saturday Red Wine Sherry Soave Stowells Wolfblas Wines All brands/several different brands Wines Description of Packaging/Vessel Wines Other Comment/Description Wines Other Brand Wines CR/DK Brand Wines No Brand Mentioned/None/No	926 927 928 929 930 931 932 933 934 935 936 1094 1095 1096 1097 1098 1099
Fortified/Tonic Wine – Overcode for 1100-1299 Generic Fortified/Tonic wine Buckfast tonic wine Cockburns wine Eldorado Mad Dog 20/20 Martini Thunderbird Fortified/Tonic Wines All brands/several different brands Fortified/Tonic Wines Description of Packaging/Vessel Fortified/Tonic Wines Other Comment/Description Fortified/Tonic Wines Other Brand Fortified/Tonic Wines CR/DK Brand Fortified/Tonic Wines No Brand Mentioned/None/No	1100 1101 1102 1103 1104 1105 1106 1294 1295 1296 1297 1298 1299
Shots – Overcode for 1300-1499 Generic Shots Side Kick Silly shots Sourz Stiffy's Shots Shots All brands/several different brands Shots Description of Packaging/Vessel Shots Other Comment/Description Shots Other Brand Shots CR/DK Brand Shots No Brand Mentioned/None/No	1300 1301 1302 1303 1304 1494 1495 1496 1497 1498 1499

Alcopops – Overcode for 1500-1699

Generic Alcopops	1500
Archers Aqua	1501
Bacardi Breezer	1502
Big Beastie	1503
Bliss	1504
Blue Square Vodka	1505
Caribbean Twist	1506
Hooch	1507
Metz	1508
Quinn's	1509
Vodka Red Square	1510
Reef	1511
Smirnoff Ice	1512
WKD	1513
Vodka Kick	1514
Alcopops - All brands/several different brands	1694
Alcopops - Description of Packaging/Vessel	1695
Alcopops - Other Comment/Description	1696
Alcopops - Other Brand	1697
Alcopops - CR/DK Brand	1698
Alcopops - No Brand Mentioned/None/No	1699

Coding Frame for q16p des Variables: q16pdes1, q16pdes2, q16pdes3, q16pdes4

Give description of code 1	Codes 1, 15, 19, 110, 113
Give description of code 2	Codes 2, 26
Give description of code 3	Code 3
Give description of code 4	Code 4
Give description of code 5	Codes 5, 57, 510, 513
Give description of code 6	6, 26
Give description of code 7	Codes 7, 710
Give description of code 9	Codes 9, 19
Give description of code 10	Codes 10, 110, 510, 710,
	1013
Give description of code 11	Code 11
Give description of code 12	Code 12
Give description of code 13	Codes 13, 513, 1013
Give description of code 97	97
Give description of code 98	98

Billboards/Posters/Bus Shelters/Sides of Buses of Taxis	1
Sports events/stadia/clothing	2
Clothing/Other branded items	3
Famous People / Celebrities	4
n stores/Shops/Point of Sale	5
Music Event / Festival / Concert / Venue	6
Newspapers / Magazines / Flyers / Leaflets	7
Package / Product Design / Colour	9
Price Promotions/ Deals / Offers / Free Samples	10
Sports Sponsorship	11
Sponsorship of TV Programmes / Films	12
TV / Radio Advertising	13
Web site / Internet	15
Other	97
DK CR	98

Special Instructions for Display of Tables

Question 9

a) Table showing <u>any mention of</u> each brand.

SUM mention of brands listed 1 - 6

TABLE 9.1

BRAND NAMES MENTIONED

Gender SEG Drinking status

etc....

118 118 directory enqs

50/50

Abelyis

Asdá

Etc

b) Table showing number of brands mentioned

TABLE 9.1

NUMBER OF BRANDS LISTED

Gender SEG Drinking status

etc....

One brand listed

Two brands listed

Three brands listed

Etc

+ Mean & Standard Deviation

Question 13

List most frequent mentioned brands first and then in descending order. Only list the titles/brands in blue ink and those that have minimum 1% response. All brands having less than 1% response should be grouped under an overcode of 'other'.

a) Table showing <u>any mention of</u> each brand.

SUM mention of brands listed 1 - 5

TABLE 13

BRAND NAMES MENTIONED

Gender SEG Drinking status

etc....

Bacardi Ballantynes Bell's

b) Table showing number of brands mentioned

TABLE 13

NUMBER OF BRANDS LISTED

Gender SEG Drinking status

etc....

One brand listed Two brands listed Three brands listed Etc

+ Mean & Standard Deviation

Question 16

Within each form of marketing aware of, list most frequent drink categories first and then in descending order. List brands beneath the appropriate drink category overcode. Only list the titles/brands in blue ink and those that have minimum 1% response. All brands having less than 1% response should be grouped under an overcode of 'other' within the respective drink category.

a) Table showing any mention of each brand.

SUM mention of brands listed 1 - 6

TABLE 16.1

BRAND NAMES MENTIONED

Gender SEG Drinking status

etc.... SPIRITS Generic spirits Absolut vodkat

b) Table showing number of brands mentioned

TABLE 16.2

NUMBER OF BRANDS LISTED

Gender SEG Drinking status

etc....

One brand listed Two brands listed Three brands listed Etc

+ Mean & Standard Deviation

Question 18

List most frequent drink categories first and then in descending order. List brands beneath the appropriate drink category overcode. Only list the titles/brands in blue ink and those that have minimum 1% response. All brands having less than 1% response should be grouped under an overcode of 'other' within the respective drink category.

a) Table showing any mention of each brand.

SUM mention of brands listed 1 - 16

TABLE 18.1

BRAND NAMES MENTIONED

Gender SEG Drinking status

etc.... SPIRITS Generic spirits Absolut vodkat

b) Table showing number of brands mentioned

TABLE 18.2

NUMBER OF BRANDS LISTED

Gender SEG Drinking status

etc....

One brand listed Two brands listed Three brands listed Etc

+ Mean & Standard Deviation

Question 19

Respondents were shown masked alcohol products and asked to guess the brand. The correct answers are shown below. Please highlight the correct brands on the tables with, for example, an underline, block caps or box.

- 1. Buckfast
- 2. WKD
- 3. Carling
- 4. Smirnoff Vodka
- 5. Frosty Jack's

Self Completion Question 10

As per q18.

a) Table showing <u>any mention of</u> each brand.

SUM mention of brands listed 1 - 6

TABLE 10.1

BRAND NAMES MENTIONED

ata	Gender	SEG	Drinking status
etc	Gender	SEG	Drinking status
etc SPIRITS Generic spirits Absolut vodkat			

b) Table showing number of brands mentioned

TABLE 10.2

NUMBER OF BRANDS LISTED

	Gender	SEG	Drinking status
etc			

One brand listed Two brands listed Three brands listed Etc

+ Mean & Standard Deviation

<u>Main Questionnaire - Questions 3, 4, 5, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27, 29</u>

Table to show mean score, standard deviation and standard error.

Self-Completion Questionnaire Questions 1, 2, 6, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32

Table to show mean score, standard deviation and standard error.

APPENDIX N: WAVE TWO MAIN QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL MARKETING UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING STIRLING FK9 4LA

Tel: 01786 46 7391 / 7390

Alcohol Marketing & Young People's Drinking

2008 Survey

	Questionn	aire No	(1-5)
	Interviewe	er ID No	(6-8)
Title: Mr / Miss First Name (in full):	Surname	:
Address:			
	•••••		
Postcode:			
Tel No:			
PARENTAL PERMISSION			
Signature:			
Relationship to child:			

INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL MARKETING UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING STIRLING FK9 4LA

Tel: 01786 46 7391 / 7390

Alcohol Marketing & Young People's Drinking

2008 Survey

		Questi	onnaire No	(1-5)	
		T .	1D 11	(6-8)	
		Intervi	ewer ID No		
	Interviewer Name		Date		ı
This interview was conducted in accordance with the Market Research Society Code of Conduct and the instructions given for this survey. The respondent was unknown to me. All information given to me must remain confidential.					
	Interviewer Signature		Date		1

Consumption of Media

Q1 Have you done any of the following in the last 7 days?
OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>DK</u>	
Watched Television	1	2	3	(10)
Read a Newspaper	1	2	3	(11)
Read a Magazine	1	2	3	(12)
Listened to the Radio	1	2	3	(13)
Used the Internet	1	2	3	(14)

Adverts and Shopping

Q2 Can you look at each of these cards and tell me which, if any, of these <u>you</u> have bought in the last 7 days. You just need to give me the numbers that match your answer.

LILAC SHUFFLE CARDS MULTI-CODE POSSIBLE

		\ /
1.	Chocolate or Sweets	1
2.	Fizzy Drinks	2
3.	Crisps	3
4.	Trainers	4
5.	Clothes	5
6.	Magazines	6
7.	Perfume/Aftershave	7
8.	Cigarettes	8
9.	Alcohol	9
	None of these	0
	DK	X

(15)

Thinking now about adverts that you might come across on television, cinema, radio, posters or anywhere else.

How often, if ever, do you come across adverts for these types of products? SHOWCARD 1
OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

Q3

	Very Often	Quite Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	DK	
Chocolate or sweets	1	2	3	4	5	6	(16)
Fizzy drinks	1	2	3	4	5	6	(17)
Crisps	1	2	3	4	5	6	(18)
Trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	(19)
Clothes	1	2	3	4	5	6	(20)
Magazines	1	2	3	4	5	6	(21)
Perfume / Aftershave	1	2	3	4	5	6	(22)
Cigarettes	1	2	3	4	5	6	(23)
Alcohol	1	2	3	4	5	6	(24)

Q4

Q5

How important or unimportant do you think it is for people to choose a popular, "well known" brand when they are deciding to buy each of the following products? SHOWCARD 2

OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

			Neither				
			important				
	Very	Quite	nor	Quite	Very		
	important	important	unimportant	unimportant	unimportant	DK	
Chocolate or sweets	1	2	3	4	5	6	(25)
Fizzy drinks	1	2	3	4	5	6	(26)
Crisps	1	2	3	4	5	6	(27)
Trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	(28)
Clothes	1	2	3	4	5	6	(29)
Magazines	1	2	3	4	5	6	(30)
Perfume / Aftershave	1	2	3	4	5	6	(31)
Cigarettes	1	2	3	4	5	6	(32)
Alcohol	1	2	3	4	5	6	(33)

Communications

And now a question about the different ways that people can communicate. I'm going to read out a list of some of the different ways that people can communicate these days and I'd like you to tell me, using this card (SHOWCARD 3), how often, if at all, you usually do each. Please don't worry if you don't use any, your answer is just as important. SHOWCARD 3

OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

			About 2 or 3	About	Less than			
	Every	Most	times a	once a	once a			
	day	days	week	week	week	Never	DK	
Use email	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(34)
Use a mobile phone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(35)
Use text messaging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(36)
Use the Internet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	(37)

Q6	Do you have access to the internet	? Yes No	(38)
	'YES' GO TO Q7 'NO' GO TO Q9 ON PAGE 5		
Q7	Where do you have access to the i SHOWCARD 4 MULTI-CODE POSSIBLE	In school At home At a relative's house At a friend's house In a library Elsewhere (please write in)	(39) 1 2 3 4 5 6
Q8	What do you use the internet for? SHOWCARD 5 MULTI-CODE POSSIBLE	 To send and receive e-mails To visit chat-rooms/home pages like msn/myspace To visit sports websites, eg. football websites To visit music websites To download music or videos To visit celebrity or fashion websites To buy products or services To help with school work, carry out research For news 	(41) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Marketing in Genera

I'm interested in adverts that you might have seen or heard recently. Can you think of any products that you have seen or heard advertised recently.

PROBE FOR BRAND NAME, PRODUCT TYPE AND WHERE ADVERTISED. REPEAT FOR MAXIMUM OF SIX BRANDS

	Brand name	Product type	Where seen/heard	
1.				(42)
2.				(43)
3.				(44)
4.				(45)
5.				(46)
6.				(47)

Q10 People have different views about adverts. I would like to know what you think about adverts in general. Which of the following (SHOWCARD 6) best describes how you feel about adverts on the whole?

SHOWCARD 6 SINGLE RESPONSE ONLY

	(48)
I like adverts a lot	1
I like adverts a little	2
I neither like nor dislike adverts	3
I dislike adverts a little	4
I dislike adverts a lot	5
DK	6

Q9

Thinking about products in general, can you tell me from this card (SHOWCARD 7) how Q11 much you like or dislike each of the following. SHOWCARD 7 OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

	Like a lot	Like a	Neither like nor dislike	Dislike a	Dislike a	DK	
Receiving free samples of products	1	2	3	4	5	6	(49)
Receiving free gifts from the shopkeeper or store when you buy a product	1	2	3	4	5	6	(50)
Special price offers on products	1	2	3	4	5	6	(51)
Receiving promotional mail from companies informing you about their products	1	2	3	4	5	6	(52)
Receiving promotional e-mails, wind-up, chain e-mails or joke e- mails linked to a product or brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	(53)
Products that have a well known brand logo on them	1	2	3	4	5	6	(54)

Still thinking about products in general, can you tell me from this card (SHOWCARD 8) Q12 how likely or unlikely you are to do each of the following? SHOWCARD 8

OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

			Neither				
			likely nor	Quite	Very		
	Very likely	Quite likely	unlikely	unlikely	unlikely	DK	
Choose a product							
because it sponsors an	1	2	3	4	5	6	(55)
event, sport or team							
Choose a product							
because of the package	1	2	3	4	5	6	(56)
or container it is in							

	v I'd like you to think just about a	
ı	loesn't matter whether you drink ardless of whether or not they dri	k or not, we want to hear the views of everyone nk.
1	you think of any makes or brands	s of alcohol that you have seen or heard advertised
1	OBE FOR ALCOHOL BRAND XIMUM OF 6 BRANDS.	AND WHERE ADVERTISED. REPEAT FOR
	Brand name	Where seen/heard (eg. Billboard, newspaper)
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
abor feel		ohol adverts. I would like to know what you think following (SHOWCARD 9) best describes how you?
l .	GLE RESPONSE ONLY	I like alcohol adverts a lot

I like alcohol adverts a lot I like alcohol adverts a little

I dislike alcohol adverts a little

I dislike alcohol adverts a lot

DK

I neither like nor dislike alcohol adverts

2 3 4

5

6

Q15

Now I'd like to find out what you think about alcohol companies sponsoring sports. Can you please look at these cards (SHOWCARDS 10-12) and tell me the number which best describes what you think for each statement For example, if you think that alcohol sponsorship is really good for sport you would answer '1', if you think that alcohol sponsorship is really bad for sport you would answer '5' and if you feel less strongly you would give a number in-between.

SHOWCARDS 10-12

OBTAIN SINGLE RESPONSE ON EACH LINE

SHOW									
CARD								DK	
10	Alcohol sponsorship is						Alcohol sponsorship is		
	really good for sport	1	2	3	4	5	really bad for sport	6	(65)
11	It is the least popular						It is the most popular		
	alcohol brands which	1	2	3	4	5	alcohol brands which	6	(66)
	sponsor sport						sponsor sport		
12	Alcohol companies						Alcohol companies		
	should be encouraged to	1	2	3	4	5	should be discouraged	6	(67)
	sponsor sport						from sponsoring sport		

Now I'd like you to think about other ways that alcohol companies attract attention to or promote their make or brand.

Q16

I'm going to show you some cards (SHOWCARDS 13-27) with descriptions of other ways that companies might try to attract attention to alcohol or where you might see alcohol brands.

For each one can you tell me if you have seen anything like this.

FOR EACH QUESTION IF RESPONDENTS CANNOT REMEMBER NAME OF BRAND PROMPT THEM FOR TYPE OF DRINK

HOWCARD 13		
Adverts for alcohol on television or in the cinema		(68)
	Yes	1
	No	2
	DK	3
FYES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? ROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS		
rands		
		(69)
	Adverts for alcohol on television or in the cinema FYES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here?	Adverts for alcohol on television or in the cinema Yes No DK FYES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? ROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS

b. Adverts for alcohol on the street, on large posters, billboards or the sides of buses and taxis	
	Yes No
	DK
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	
<u>Brands</u>	
SHOWCARD 15	
c. Adverts for alcohol in newspapers or magazines (including insert	ts & flyers)
	Yes
	No DV
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	DK
<u>Brands</u>	

SHO WEARD TO		
d. Sponsorship of sports or sport teams by alcohol brands	Yes	(74) 1
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	No DK	2 3
<u>Brands</u>		
		(75)
SHOWCARD 17		
e. Sponsorship of music events, festivals, concerts or venues by alcohol br	ands	(76)
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here?	Yes No DK	(76) 1 2 3
PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS		
<u>Brands</u>		
		(77)

f. Sponsorship of TV programmes or films on TV, and in the cinema brands IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	yes No DK	(78) 1 2 3
<u>Brands</u>		
		(79)
SHOWCARD 19		CARD 2
g. Signs or posters about alcohol in shops or on shop fronts	Yes No DK	(10) 1 2 3
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS		
<u>Brands</u>		
<u>Brands</u>		(11)
		(11)
		(11)

h. Clothing including football and other sports tops, t-shirts, hats or other persona items with alcohol brand logos or names on them		
	Yes No	
	DK	
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS		
<u>Brands</u>		
SHOWCARD 21		
i. Special price offers for alcohol		
	Yes	
	No DK	
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS		
<u>Brands</u>		

SHOWCARD 22	
j. Promotional e-mails, chain e-mails or joke e-mails that men	tion alcohol brands
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes No DK
<u>Brands</u>	
SHOWCARD 23	
k. <u>Famous people</u> , in films, on TV, or in music videos that sho brand of alcohol	w a particular make o
VANIAN VA MACVILVA	Yes No DK
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing here? PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	

SHOWCARD 26	
n. Mobile phone texts or screensavers, or computer scr to, or pictures of alcohol products or logos	reensavers containing references
	(2
	Yes
	No DK
IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing he PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	
<u>Brands</u>	
SHOWCARD 27	
o. People's profile pages on sites such as bebo, faceboo	
o. People's profile pages on sites such as bebo, faceboo alcohol brand logos	(2
	Yes (2
	Yes 1 No 2
alcohol brand logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing h	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3
alcohol brand logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing he PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3
alcohol brand logos	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3
alcohol brand logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing he PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3 ere?
alcohol brand logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing he PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3
alcohol brand logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing he PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3
alcohol brand logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing he PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3
alcohol brand logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing he PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3
alcohol brand logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing he PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3
alcohol brand logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing he PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3
alcohol brand logos IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall seeing he PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS	Yes 1 No 2 DK 3

SHOWCARD 28			
p. Free samples of alcohol given in stores or at even IF YES, ASK: What make or brand can you recall s PROBE FOR ANY OTHER BRANDS		Yes No DK	(26) 1 2 3
Brands			
			(27)
NO SHOWCARD			
q. Have you come across any other ways that con alcohol?	npanies try to attract	attention to	(28)
		Yes No DK	1 2 3
IF YES, ASK: Can you tell me a bit about what you have	e seen and the brand that	at it was for?	
Description of what seen	Brand(s)		
			(29)
			(30)
			(31)

Q17	Can you look at each of these cards and tell me which, if any, of these <u>you</u> have ever do You just need to give me the numbers that match your answer. YELLOW SHUFFLE CARDS MULTICODE POSSIBLE	one?
		(32)
	Received free samples of alcohol products	
	Received free gifts, showing alcohol brand logos, given out at events such as conce festivals or sports events.	rts, 2
	3. Received special price offers for alcohol	3
	4. Received promotional mail, e-mails or joke, chain, or wind up e-mails mentioning alcohol brands	4
	5. Owned clothing, such as football or other sports-tops, or other personal items with an alcohol brand name or logo on it	5
	6. Looked at a web site for alcohol brands or about drinking (don't include health rela sites)	ted 6
	7. Downloaded a mobile phone or computer screensaver containing an alcohol brand name or logo	7
	8. Used a profile page on sites such as bebo, facebook, msn or myspace contains an alcohol brand name or logo	ining 8
	None of these	9
	DK	

Q18	Can you tell me the names of as many makes or heard of?	s or brands of alcohol that you have either seen	
	RECORD UP TO MAXIMUM OF 16		
	Make or brand		
	1	9	(33)
	2	10	(34)
	3	11	(35)
	4	12.	(36)
	5	13	(37)
	6	14	(38)
	7	15	(39)
	8	16	(40)
Q19		ts that have the name covered up on them. For or brand you think it is. Please don't worry if	
	FOR EACH PROMPT ASK: What make or	brand do you think this is?	
	OBTAIN RESPONSE FOR EACH PROMP	Γ	
	1		(41)
	2		(42)
	2		(43)
	3		
	4		(44)

Q20 And can you tell me whether or not you have ever seen each of these brands of alcohol? Have you ever seen...?

(VISUAL PROMPTS 6-10)

POINT TO EACH PROMPT ONE AT A TIME

FOR EACH ONE ASK: Have you ever seen this one?

Visu	al Prompt	<u>Seen</u>	Not Seen	$\overline{\text{DK}}$	
6.	Buckfast	1	2	3	(46)
7.	WKD	1	2	3	(47)
8.	Carling	1	2	3	(48)
9.	Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	(49)
10.	Frosty Jack's cider	1	2	3	(50)

Q21 I would now like to find out what you think about each of these brands of alcohol (Visual prompts 6 to 10).

There is no right or wrong answer. I just want to know what you think regardless of whether or not you drink. Even if you know nothing about each one try to give an answer based on what each looks like.

Read the statement on both sides of the card (SHOWCARDS 29 to 37) carefully and then give me the number which best matches what you think about each brand. Try your best to give me a number for each one but if you don't really know just say so.

(VISUAL PROMPTS 6-10)

POINT TO EACH PROMPT ONE AT A TIME AND OBTAIN RESPONSE FOR EACH BRAND

SHOWCARDS 29-37

b.

a.	SHOWCARD 29	Looks b	oring		I	Looks fun	DK
	Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
	WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

SHOWCARD 30		Looks like a weak drink			Looks like a strong drink		
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6	
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6	

f.

SHOWCARDS 31-34

SHOWCARD 31	Drinkers my age would probably <u>like</u> to be seen with this product			Drinker would prob like to be this	DK	
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

SHOWCARD 32	Looks like a drink for an experienced		fo	Looks like a drink for an inexperienced		
	drinker	_			drinker	
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

CARD 3 **SHOWCARD 33** Looks like a drink I Looks like a drink I DK e. would like the would not like the taste of taste of Buckfast 2 3 4 (10)6 WKD 2 3 5 4 6 (11)Carling 2 3 5 (12) 4 6 2 3 Smirnoff Vodka 4 5 6 (13)Frosty Jack's Cider 6 (14)

SHOWCARD 34		It's a drink you always see around		It's a c	DK	
	here				here	
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q21 Continued

SHOWCARDS 35-37

σ
ğ٠

SHOWCARD 35	This bran]	This brand <u>is very</u> popular with people			
	people m	y age			my age	
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

h.

SHOWCARD 36	A well known brand			An unknov	DK	
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

i.

SHOWCARD 37	You ofte brand m	n see this arketed		You never see this brand marketed		
Buckfast	1	2	3	4	5	6
WKD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Carling	1	2	3	4	5	6
Smirnoff Vodka	1	2	3	4	5	6
Frosty Jack's Cider	1	2	3	4	5	6

DEMOGRAPHICS

Now I would like to take some details from you.

Q22 Sex of respondent

(35)

Male 1 Female 2

Q23 What age were you on your last birthday?

(36)	(37)

Q24	And v	vhat is your	date of birth	?					
		(38) D	(39) D	(40) M	(41) M	(42) Y	(43) Y		
Q25		ou regard yo WCARD 38	urself as belo	onging to any	y particular r	eligion?			(44)
				Buddhi Hindu Jewish Muslin Sikh None	Protestant a ist	nd all other (Scotland, Cath Christian deno	minations	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
Q26		ich of these WCARD 39	groups do yo	ou belong?		ed in or Asian E ek or Black E iese			(46) 1 2 3 4 5 6
Q27	simila					ontact you to Y N	sk you to comp take part in a es o		(47) 1 2 3

Q28 Now I would like to give you some short questions to answer by yourself. I will not see the answers you give. When you have finished, please seal it in the envelope and hand it back to me. If you have any questions just ask me, I'll just be doing some paperwork here. **INTERVIEWER:** Guide respondents through instructions on inside page and highlight the separate visual with the drinking vessels on it. Complete Q29 & Q30 with parent/guardian and remember to code parental presence. ASK OF PARENT Q29 Which of these describe you? SHOWCARD 40 (48)Married 1 2 Living with partner Single (never married and not living with partner) 3 Divorced 4 Separated 5 Widowed 6 Q30 And what is the occupation of the person in the household who has the largest income either from employment, pensions, state benefits, investment or any other sources?

INTERVIEWER: Code Social Class of Chief Income Earner

Social Class	(49)
A	1
В	2
C 1	3
C2	4
D	5
E	6

PARENTAL PRESENCE	
Parental presence during interview Present all of the time Present some of the time Not present	(50) 1 2 3
Notes:	
Parental presence during self-completion Present - close to respondent / potential to see answers Present - distant from respondent / no potential to see answers Not present Notes:	(51) 1 2 3
END OF INTERVIEW	

APPENDIX O: WAVE TWO SELF COMPLETION QUESTIONNAIRE

IN CONFIDENCE

MARKETING MONITOR

2008 Survey

Self-Completion Booklet

We would like to find out about young people's drinking behaviour. These questions are for you to answer on your own. Please answer honestly. We will not tell anyone what your answers are.

Please read the instructions on the next page to find out what to do. If there is anything that you do not understand please ask the interviewer to help you.

Instructions

Please read each question carefully.

Most of the questions can be answered by ticking the box you.	next to the answer that applies to
Example:	
(Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Yes No	
Some questions allow you to give more than one answer.	
Example:	
(Please tick all that apply) Red	✓
Green	
Yellow	\checkmark
Blue	
Sometimes you are asked to write your answer instead.	
Example:	
(Please write in)	
computer games	
Next to the boxes there are arrows and instructions. They next. If there are no special instructions, you should answ	
Example:	
(Please tick <u>one</u> box only)	
No	✓ GO TO Q4
Yes	☐ GO TO Q3

	General Lifestyle	
Q1	How much do you like or dislike school? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only)	CARD 4
	Dislike school a lot	(10)
	Dislike school a little	2
	Neither like nor dislike school	3
	Like school a little	4
	Like school a lot	5
Q2	Do you think your own school work is better or worse compared to other pupils in your year at school? (Please tick one box only)	(11)
	A lot worse	1
	A bit worse	2
	About the same	3
	A bit better	4
	A lot better	5
	Now I'd like you to tell me a little bit about your friends.	
Q3	Who do you normally hang around with? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only)	(12)
	Friends the same age as me	(12)
	Friends younger than me	2
	Friends older than me	3
	Friends of all different ages	4
	Don't hang around with friends / don't have friends	5

	Alcohol	
	We would now like to ask you some questions about alcohol.	
	REMEMBER THAT NO-ONE ELSE WHO KNOWS YOU WILL FIND OUT YOUR ANSWERS	
Q4	Have you ever had a proper alcoholic drink - a whole drink, not just a sip? (Please tick one box only) Yes ☐ → GO TO Q5	(13)
	No ☐ → GO TO Q20 ON PAGE 22	2
Q5	How old were you when you had your first proper alcoholic drink? Write in the box your age , in numbers not words. I was Years old	(14)(15
Q6	How often do you USUALLY have an alcoholic drink? (Please tick one box only) Every day or almost every day	(16)
	About twice a week	2
	About once a week	3
	About once a fortnight	4
	About once a month	5
	Only a few times a year	6
	I never drink alcohol now	7
Q7	When you drink alcohol are you usually on your own, or with other people? (Please tick one box only) On my own ☐ → GO TO Q9 ON PAGE 5	(17)
	With other people	2

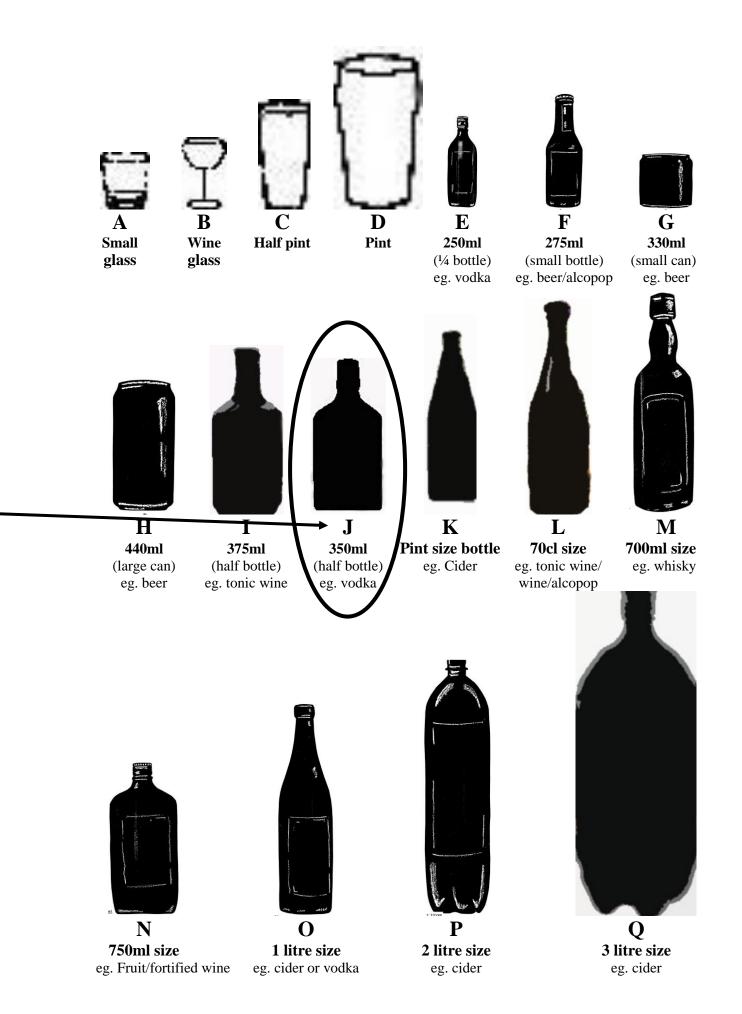
Q8	When you drink alcohol with other people, who are you usually with? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only)	(18)
I	My girlfriend or boyfriend	1
	Friends of the same sex as me	2
	Friends of the opposite sex	3
	A group of friends of both sexes	4
	My parents or guardians	5
	My brother, sister or other relative	6
	Other people	7
Q 9	And when you drink alcohol, where are you usually? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only)	(19)
	In a pub or bar	1
	In a club or disco	2
	At a party with friends	3
	At my home or someone else's home	4
	On the street, in a park or somewhere else outside	5
	Somewhere else	6
Q10	Could you name any brands or makes of alcohol that you usually drink (if you don't know the brand name just write the type of drink it is, for example, beer, vodka etc). (Please write in)	
		(20)
		(21)

	We would now like you to tell us a alcohol.	about the	<u>last time</u> you drank any	
Q11	When did you last have an alcoholic drin (Please tick one box only)	nk?		(22)
	Today	→	GO TO Q12	1
	Yesterday	→	GO TO Q12	2
	Some other time during the last 7 days	→	GO TO Q12	3
	1 week, but less than 2 weeks ago	→	GO TO Q13 ON PAGE 7	4
	2 weeks, but less than 4 weeks ago	→	GO TO Q13 ON PAGE 7	5
	1 month, but less than 6 months ago.	→	GO TO Q13 ON PAGE 7	6
	6 months ago or more	→	GO TO Q13 ON PAGE 7	7
	Tuesday Wednesday Thursday			2 3 4
	Friday			5 6
	Saturday Sunday			7

(Please tick <u>one</u> box on <u>each line</u>)	1	2	Don't					
	Yes	No	know					
I was sick				(24)				
I got into a fight				(25)				
I got into an argument				(26)				
I smashed things				(27)				
I had difficulty walking				(28)				
I got really drunk				(29)				
I forgot what I had done				(30)				
I missed school or work the next day				(31)				
I did something I later regretted				(43)				
I felt ill the next morning				(32)				
I had to be taken to hospital				(33)				
I lost some money or other items				(34)				
My clothes or other items got damaged				(35)				
I got into trouble with the police				(36)				
I got injured or hurt myself				(37)				
1				I				

Q14 The next questions are about the <u>LAST</u> time you drank alcohol. We would like you to tell us what you drank. Please read the example below before you answer. There are separate questions for each different drink that you had.

(Please write in)	ne or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff)
Smir	rnoff
What type of drinl (Please write in)	k was it? (eg. vodka)
Vodk	<i>(a</i>
Which picture bes PICTURE SHEE (Please write in)	et describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SET)
J	
How much did yo (Please write in o	r tick box as appropriate - one answer only) More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)
	One full bottle/gen/glass
	One full bottle/can/glass
	About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
	About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
	About $\frac{3}{4}$ of the bottle/can/glass About $\frac{1}{2}$ of the bottle/can/glass



ALCOHOL. IF YOU HAD MORE THAN 1 TYPE OF DRINK PUT THE 1ST TYPE ON THIS PAGE AND FILL IN Q15 FOR 2ND TYPE OF DRINK YOU HAD AND SO ON
Now please tell us what you drank last time you had alcohol.
What was the name or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff) (Please write in)
What type of drink was it? (eg. vodka) (Please write in)
Which picture best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SE PICTURE SHEET) (Please write in)
How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)
More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)
One full bottle/can/glass
About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
About ½ of the bottle/can/glass
About ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
Less than ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
Did you have any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Yes GO TO Q15 ON PAGE 12
No





750ml size eg Fruit/fortified wine



1 litre size
eg. cider or vodka



2 litre size eg. cider



3 litre size eg. cider

(Please write in)
What type of drink was it? (eg. vodka) (Please write in)
Which picture best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SE) PICTURE SHEET) (Please write in)
How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)
More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)
One full bottle/can/glass
About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
About ½ of the bottle/can/glass
About ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
Less than ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
Did you have any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Yes





750ml size eg. Fruit/fortified wine



1 litre size
eg. cider or vodka



P
2 litre size
eg. cider



3 litre size eg. cider

What was the name or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff) (Please write in)
What type of drink was it? (eg. vodka) (Please write in)
Which picture best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SEI PICTURE SHEET) (Please write in)
How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)
More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)
One full bottle/can/glass
About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
About ½ of the bottle/can/glass
About ^{1/4} of the bottle/can/glass
Less than ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
Did you have any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only)
Yes





750ml size eg. Fruit/fortified wine



1 litre size
eg. cider or vodka



2 litre size eg. cider



3 litre size eg. cider

What was the nam (Please write in)	ne or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff)
What type of drint (Please write in)	k was it? (eg. vodka)
Which picture bes PICTURE SHEF (Please write in)	st describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SIET)
How much did yo (Please write in o	ou drink? or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)
	More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)
	One full bottle/can/glass
	About ^{3/4} of the bottle/can/glass
	About ½ of the bottle/can/glass
	About ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass
	Less than ^{1/4} of the bottle/can/glass
Did you have any (Please tick <u>one</u> t	
`	Yes





750ml size eg. Fruit/fortified wine



1 litre size
eg. cider or vodka



2 litre size eg. cider



3 litre size eg. cider

What was the name or brand of (Please write in)	armk! (eg. Simmon)
What type of drink was it? (eg. v (Please write in)	vodka)
Which picture best describes the PICTURE SHEET) (Please write in)	e bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SE
How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as	appropriate - one answer only)
	ne full bottle/can/glass se write in how many)
Oı	ne full bottle/can/glass
About ³ / ₄	of the bottle/can/glass
About ½	of the bottle/can/glass
About ¹ / ₄	of the bottle/can/glass
Less than ¹ / ₄	of the bottle/can/glass
Did you have any other alcoholi (Please tick <u>one</u> box only)	c drink <u>last</u> time?
(1 lease tick <u>one</u> box only)	Yes





750ml size eg. Fruit/fortified wine



1 litre size
eg. cider or vodka



2 litre size eg. cider



Q 3 litre size eg. cider

Q19a.	What was the name or brand of drink? (eg. Smirnoff) (Please write in)	(10)
b.	What type of drink was it? (eg. vodka) (Please write in)	(12)
c.	Which picture best describes the bottle, can or glass that you drank from (SEE PICTURE SHEET) (Please write in)	(14)
d.	How much did you drink? (Please write in or tick box as appropriate - one answer only)	
	More than one full bottle/can/glass (Please write in how many)	(16)
	One full bottle/can/glass	(17)
	About ³ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	2
	About ½ of the bottle/can/glass	3
	About ¹ / ₄ of the bottle/can/glass	4
	Less than ½ of the bottle/can/glass	5
		1
e.	Did you have any other alcoholic drink <u>last</u> time? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) Yes	(18)





750ml size eg. Fruit/fortified wine



1 litre size
eg. cider or vodka



P
2 litre size
eg. cider



3 litre size eg. cider

Q20Have you personally bought or tried to buy any alcohol in the last 4 weeks? This includes buying alcohol for someone else. (Please tick one box only) (19) **GO TO Q21** Yes 1 2 No GO TO Q25 ON PAGE 23 Q21 In the last 4 weeks, have you personally bought or tried to buy alcohol from a shop, supermarket or off-licence? This includes buying alcohol for somebody (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) (20)Yes **GO TO Q22** 1 2 No **GO TO Q23** Q22 What happened the last time you bought or tried to buy alcohol from a shop, supermarket or off-licence? (Please tick <u>one</u> box only) (21)I bought some alcohol 1 They refused to sell me alcohol 2 Q23 In the last 4 weeks, have you personally bought or tried to buy alcohol in a pub, bar or club? This includes buying alcohol for somebody else. (Please tick one box only) (22)**GO TO Q24** Yes 2 GO TO Q25 ON PAGE 23 Q24 What happened that last time you bought or tried to buy alcohol in a pub, bar or club? (Please tick one box only) (23)I bought some alcohol 1 They refused to sell me alcohol 2

Q25	Have you got anyone else to buy any alcohol for you in the last 4 weeks? (Please tick one box only) Yes No	(24) 1 2
Q26	Have you been given alcohol by any of these people in the last 4 weeks? (Please tick one box on each line) Yes No	
	Given alcohol by parents	(25)
	Given alcohol by brothers or sisters	(26)
	Given alcohol by other relatives	(27)
	Given alcohol by friends	(28)
	Given alcohol by other people	(29)
Q27	Have you got alcohol in any of these other ways in the last 4 weeks? (Please tick one box on each line) Yes Yes No Taken it from your home (with permission) Stolen it from a friend's home (with permission) Stolen it from a friend's home (without permission) Stolen it from a friend's home (without permission) Stolen it from somewhere else	(30) (31) (32) (33) (34)
Q28	If one of your friends offered you alcohol, would you drink it? (Please tick one box only) Definitely not Probably not Probably yes Definitely yes I'm not sure	(51) 1 2 3 4 5

Q29	Do you think you will drink alcohol at any time during the next year? (Please tick one box only)	
	Definitely not	1 (52)
	Probably not	2
	Probably yes	3
	Definitely yes	4
	I'm not sure	5
Q30	Do you think you will buy alcohol at any time during the next year? (Please tick one box only)	(53)
	Definitely not	1
	Probably not	2
	Probably yes	3
	Definitely yes	4
	I'm not sure	5
Q31	How many people, in each of these age groups, do you think drink alcohol at least once a week? (Please tick one box on each line) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Very About Almost I'm not None few A few half Most all All sure	
	13 year olds	(54)
	14 year olds	(55) (56)
Q32	As far as you know, how many of your friends drink alcohol at least once a week? (Please tick one box only) All of them Most of them A few of them None of them L'm not sure	(57) 1 2 3 4 5
	I'm not sure	6

Q33	Does your mother drink alcohol at all now (Please tick one box only) Yes No I'm not sure	vadays?			(58) 1 2 3
Q34	I do not have /don't see my mother Does your father drink alcohol at all nowaday (Please tick one box only) Yes No I'm not sure	/s?			4 (59) 1 2 3
	I do not have /don't see my father				4
Q35	Do you have any brothers or sisters? (Please tick one box only) Yes No	→	GO TO	_	(60)
Q36	Do any of your brothers or sisters drink alcoh (Please tick one box only) Yes No Don't know	ol?			(61) 1 2 3
Q37	Do you think your brother(s) or sister(s) wou to do the following? (Please tick one box on each row) Try drinking alcohol to see what it's like Get drunk to see what it's like	ld consider	r it ok or r Not ok	Don't know	(62) (63)
Q38	Do you think your parents or whoever looks not ok for you to do the following? (Please tick one box on each row) Try drinking alcohol to see what it's like	after you Ok	would con 2 Not ok	nsider it ok or Don't know	(64)

	Get drunk to see what it's like	(65)
Q39	Do you think your closest friends would consider it ok or not ok for you to do	
	the following? (Please tick one box on each row) 1 2 3	
	Ok Not ok Don't know	
l	Try drinking alcohol to see what it's like	(66)
	Get drunk to see what it's like	(67)
	We would now like to ask you some questions about smoking (remember that no one else that knows you will find out your answers)	
Q40	Now read the following statements carefully and tick the box next to the one which best describes you.	(58)
	(Please tick <u>one</u> box only) I have never smoked → GO TO Q41	1 (68)
	I have only ever tried smoking once → GO TO Q41	2
	I used to smoke sometimes but I never smoke a cigarette now → GO TO END	3
	I sometimes smoke cigarettes now but I don't smoke as many as one a week GO TO END	4
	I usually smoke between one and six cigarettes a week GO TO END	5
	I usually smoke more than six cigarettes a week ☐ → GO TO END	6
Q41	Just to check, read the statements below carefully and tick the box next to the one which best describes you (Please tick one box only)	(69)
	I have never tried smoking a cigarette, not even a puff or two	1
	I did once have a puff or two of a cigarette, but I never smoke now	2
ı	I do sometimes smoke cigarettes	3
	END OF QUESTIONNAIRE	
	Thank you for answering these questions. Please now seal this in the envelope and hand it to the interviewer.	

APPENDIX P: DRINKING VESSELS VISUAL



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