

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

**Cognition of Advertisements, Peer Endorsement
and Tweens' Propensity to Consume**

By

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Declaration

I, Andrew Trevor Wright, declare that

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Executive Summary

Tweens are a new cohort of children who are not considered children, but have not developed into fully autonomous teenagers (Hulan, 2007: 31). Tweens are regarded as the “*richest generation of children*” (Lindstrom, 2004: 175). Their high disposable income and ability to influence consumption through endorsement makes tweens a potentially profitable niche market.

In order to formulate an effective marketing campaign, marketing managers need to be aware of children’s advertising literacy, as well as the effect which peer endorsement has on consumption. Consequently, to determine the impact of these variables, a questionnaire was administered to 574 respondents and an empirical correlation experiment was conducted involving 202 participants.

The primary research objective was to determine tweens advertising literacy at different ages and the concurrent affect which it had on their propensity to consume; advertising literacy is described by Priya, Baisya and Sharma (2010: 154) as the extent to which children are aware that advertisements have a selling intent, are persuasive, and are intrinsically biased. The effect which endorsement had on consumption was also assessed.

Data was analysed utilising SPSS (Statistics Package for Social Sciences). Key findings were graphically represented, and compared to literature with a focus on Piaget’s Hierarchy of Cognitive development and Roedder’s information processing model (Roedder, 1981: 145; Piaget, 1960: 135).

The research established that there was a strong positive correlation between advertising literacy and age. The research showed that this cognizance had a concurrent negative effect on tweens propensity to consume and consequently advertising literacy had a negative correlation with propensity to consume.

The research also determined the extent which endorsement influenced consumption. In accordance with Childers and Rao (1993: 464) the degree of conspicuousness during consumption was assessed. The research established that respondents were more inclined to consume an endorsed product which had higher conspicuousness during consumption (i.e. a public good) than a good with lower consumption conspicuousness (i.e. a private good). Similarly, endorsed luxury goods exhibited a higher consumption propensity than necessity goods. The research also determined that the reference group construct affected the extent to which endorsement influenced consumption; familial endorsement had a stronger effect on consumption than peer endorsement.

From these key findings, recommendations for South African managers were provided. The report culminated with recommendations for future research.

Table of Contents

Declaration	i
Acknowledgements	ii
Executive Summary	iii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Tables	xiv
List of Figures	xvii
Chapter 1: Introduction and Motivation	1
1.1. Background and Motivation	1
1.2. Problem Statement.....	2
1.3. Research Objectives.....	3
1.4. Research Questions	3
1.5. Research Hypothesis.....	3
1.6. Benefit of the Study.....	4
1.7. Brief Overview of the Dissertation	5
1.8. Conclusion	7
Chapter 2: Tweens and Advertising	8
2.1. Introduction	8
2.2. Advertising Theory.....	8
2.2.1. Advertising Channels	9
2.2.1.1. Traditional Advertising Channels	9
2.2.1.2. New Marketing Channels.....	10
2.2.2. Forms of Advertisement	12
2.2.3. Elements of Advertisements.....	13
2.2.4. Advertising Models	13
2.2.4.1. The AIDA Model	14
2.2.4.2. The hierarchy of Effects Model.....	14
2.2.4.3. The DAGMAR Model of Advertising	15
2.2.4.4. Comparison of Different Advertising Models	16
2.2.5. Implementing Advertising Strategies	17
2.2.5.1. Reach	17
2.2.5.2. Frequency	17
2.2.5.3. Impact.....	18
2.2.5.4. Continuity	18
2.3. Advertising to Tweens	18

2.3.1.	Advertising’s Effect on Tweens.....	19
2.3.1.1.	Adverse Effects of Advertising to Tweens:	19
2.3.1.2.	Consumer Socialization.....	20
2.3.2.	Ethics when Advertising to Tweens	21
2.3.2.1.	South African Legislation regarding advertising to Tweens.....	22
2.3.3.	The BRANDchild Study.....	25
2.3.3.1.	The 24/7 Brand	25
2.3.3.2.	Fish Streaming	25
2.3.3.3.	Tween Speak:.....	26
2.4.	Conclusion	26
Chapter 3: Development of Cognition in Children.....		28
3.1.	Introduction.....	28
3.2.	Cognition Theories.....	29
3.2.1.	Piaget’s Hierarchy of Cognitive Development	29
3.2.1.1.	Sensorimotor Stage	30
3.2.1.2.	Preoperational Stage	30
3.2.1.3.	Concrete Operations Stage.....	31
3.2.1.4.	Formal Operations Stage	32
3.2.1.5.	Comparison of the Four Stages of Cognitive Development.....	33
3.2.2.	Roedder’s Information Processing Theory	34
3.2.2.1.	Limited Processors.....	34
3.2.2.2.	Cued Processors.....	35
3.2.2.3.	Strategic Processors.....	36
3.2.2.4.	Comparison of Roedder’s 3 Stages of Information Processing.....	37
3.3.	Advertising Literacy	38
3.3.1.	Tweens’ Ability to Differentiate Advertisements from Regular Television	38
3.3.2.	Selling Intent.....	40
3.3.3.	Persuasive Nature of Advertisements	41
3.3.3.1.	The Persuasion Knowledge Model	42
3.3.4.	Bias.....	43
3.4.	Conclusion	45
Chapter 4: Product Endorsement amongst Tweens		46
4.1.	Introduction.....	46
4.2.	Reference Group Construct:	46
4.3.	Age and Comprehension as Modifying Variables of Reference Group Influence.....	47

4.3.1.	Selman’s Role-Taking Ability	48
4.3.2.	Barenboim’s Impression Formulation	49
4.3.3.	Erikson Psychosocial Development	51
4.3.4.	Summary of Development Theories	53
4.4.	Product Conspicuousness as a Modifying Variable in Tween Endorsement	53
4.5.	Using Children as Brand Ambassadors	55
4.5.1.	Peer Based Social Endorsement	55
4.5.2.	The Nag Factor / Pester Power	56
4.6.	Conclusion	58
Chapter 5: Research Methodology		60
5.1.	Introduction	60
5.2.	Problem Statement.....	60
5.2.1.	Primary Research Problem	61
5.2.2.	Subordinate Research Problems.....	61
5.3.	Research Objectives.....	61
5.4.	Research Hypothesis.....	62
5.5.	Research Design.....	62
5.5.1.	Purposive Questionnaire:	63
5.5.1.1.	Sample Design	63
5.5.1.1.1.	Sample Size	64
5.5.1.1.2.	Response Rate	65
5.5.1.1.3.	Sampling Criteria.....	66
5.5.1.2.	Questionnaire Design	66
5.5.1.3.	Validity.....	67
5.5.1.4.	Data Collection	67
5.5.1.5.	Data Analysis.....	68
5.5.1.5.1.	Reliability.....	68
5.5.2.	Correlation Experiment	69
5.5.2.5.	Sample Design	69
5.5.2.5.1.	Sample Size for Correlation Experiment	69
5.5.2.6.	Experimental Design	69
5.5.2.7.	Internal Validity Controls	71
5.5.2.8.	Data Collection	73
5.5.2.9.	Data Analysis.....	74
5.6.	Ethics.....	74
5.7.	Limitations	75

5.8.	Conclusion	76
Chapter 6: Data Presentation.....		77
6.1.	Introduction	77
6.2.	Sample Profile	77
6.2.1.	Questionnaire	77
6.2.1.1.	Age	77
6.2.1.2.	Gender	78
6.2.1.3.	Respondents Grade	78
6.2.1.4.	School	79
6.2.1.5.	Race	79
6.2.2.	Correlation Experiment	80
6.2.2.1.	Age	80
6.2.2.2.	Gender	80
6.2.2.3.	Grade	81
6.2.2.4.	Race	81
6.2.2.5.	Groups with Independent Variable	82
6.3.	Viewing Frequency	83
6.3.1.	Viewing Frequency * Age Cross-tabulation	84
6.3.1.1.	8 Year Old Viewing Frequency	84
6.3.1.2.	9 Year Old Viewing Frequency	84
6.3.1.3.	10 Year Old Viewing Frequency	84
6.3.1.4.	11 Year Old Viewing Frequency	85
6.3.1.5.	12 Year Old Viewing Frequency	85
6.3.1.6.	13 Year Old Viewing Frequency	85
6.3.1.7.	Viewing Frequency Summary	86
6.3.2.	Viewing Frequency as a variable of Consumer Socialisation	86
6.3.2.1.	Selling Intent * Viewing Frequency Cross-tabulation	86
6.3.2.2.	Advertising Bias * Viewing Frequency Cross-tabulation.....	87
6.3.2.3.	Persuasive Nature * Viewing Frequency Cross-tabulation	88
6.3.2.4.	Summary of Viewing Frequency as a Variable of Consumer Socialisation	89
6.4.	Selling Intent of Advertisement	89
6.4.1.	Source of Advertisement Funding as a Factor of Selling Intent Cognizance.....	89
6.4.1.1.	Advertisement Funding * Age Cross-tabulation	90
6.4.2.	Product Class and Age as Variables of Selling Intent Cognizance	91
6.4.2.1.	Privately Consumed Necessity Goods * Age.....	91
6.4.2.2.	Privately Consumed Luxury Good * Age.....	92

6.4.2.3.	Publically Consumed Necessity Good * Age	93
6.4.2.4.	Publically Consumed Luxury Good * Age.....	93
6.4.2.5.	Summary of Product Class * Age	94
6.4.3.	Propensity to Consume	95
6.4.3.1.	Propensity to Consume Advertised Product Categories.....	95
6.4.3.2.	Summary of Product Classes as a Variable of Propensity to Consume	97
6.5.	Bias Nature of Advertisements	101
6.5.1.	Age as a Comprehension Variable of Advertising Bias	103
6.5.1.1.	8 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias	103
6.5.1.2.	9 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias	104
6.5.1.3.	10 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias	104
6.5.1.4.	11 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias	105
6.5.1.5.	12 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias	105
6.5.1.6.	13 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias	106
6.5.1.7.	Summary of Age as a Comprehension Variable of Advertising Bias	106
6.5.2.	Bias Nature of Advertisement, Product Classes, and Propensity to Consume	107
6.5.2.1.	Bias Nature of Advertisements for Privately Consumed Necessities as a Variable of Propensity to Consume .	107
6.5.2.2.	Bias Nature of Advertisements for Privately Consumed Luxuries as a Variable of Propensity to Consume.....	108
6.5.2.3.	Bias Nature of Advertisements for Publically Consumed Necessities as a Variable of Propensity to Consume	109
6.5.2.4.	Bias Nature of Advertisements for Publically Consumed Luxuries as a Variable of Propensity to Consume.....	110
6.5.2.5.	Advertisement Bias, Product Class, and Propensity to Consume Summary.....	111
6.6.	Persuasive Nature of Advertisements	112
6.6.1.	Awareness of Persuasive nature.....	112
6.6.2.	Persuasive Nature of Advertisements and Propensity to Consume	113
6.6.2.1.	Persuasive Nature of Advertisement’s Effect on Identified Product Categories.....	113
6.6.3.	Age * Unnecessary Consumption Cross-tabulation.....	116
6.6.3.1.	The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 8 Year Olds	116
6.6.3.2.	The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 9 Year Olds	117
6.6.3.3.	The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 10 Year Olds	118
6.6.3.4.	The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 11 Year Olds	118
6.6.3.5.	The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 12 Year Olds	119
6.6.3.6.	The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 13 Year Olds	120
6.6.3.7.	Summary of Ages Effect due to the Persuasive Nature of Advertisements	121
6.7.	Endorsement of Advertisements	121
6.7.1.	Peers Perception.....	121
6.7.1.1.	Extent of Peers’ Perception of the 4 Identified Product Categories.....	122
6.7.1.1.1.	Peer Perception of Privately Consumed Necessity Goods.....	122

6.7.1.1.2. Peer Perception of Privately Consumed Luxury Goods	122
6.7.1.1.3. Peer Perception of Publically Consumed Necessity Goods	123
6.7.1.1.4. Peer Perception of Publically Consumed Luxury Goods	124
6.7.1.1.5. Summary of Peer Perception of Different Product Classes	125
6.7.1.2. Age as a variable of Peers' Perception of the Identified Product Categories	126
6.7.1.2.1. 8 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes.....	127
6.7.1.2.2. 9 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes.....	129
6.7.1.2.3. 10 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes.....	131
6.7.1.2.4. 11 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes.....	133
6.7.1.2.5. 12 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes.....	135
6.7.1.2.6. 13 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes.....	137
6.7.1.2.7. Summary of Age as a Factor of Peer Importance	139
6.7.2. Peer Influence.....	140
6.7.2.1. Extent of Peer Influence on the 4 Identified Product Categories	140
6.7.2.1.1. Peer Influence on Privately Consumed Necessity Goods	140
6.7.2.1.2. Peer Influence on Privately Consumed Luxury Goods.....	141
6.7.2.1.3. Peer Influence on Publically Consumed Necessity Goods	142
6.7.2.1.4. Peer Influence on Publically Consumed Luxury Goods.....	142
6.7.2.1.5. Summary of Peer Influence of Different Product Categories	143
6.7.2.2. Age as a Variable of Peers' Influence on the 4 Identified Product Categories	144
6.7.2.2.1. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 8 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	145
6.7.2.2.2. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 9 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	146
6.7.2.2.3. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 10 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	148
6.7.2.2.4. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 11 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	150
6.7.2.2.5. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 12 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	152
6.7.2.2.6. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 13 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	154
6.7.2.2.7. Summary of Age as a Variable of Peers influence on Propensity to Consume	155
6.7.3. Parent-Child Endorsement	157
6.7.3.1. Parental Endorsement of Privately Consumed Necessity Goods	158
6.7.3.2. Parental Endorsement of Privately Consumed Luxury Goods.....	161
6.7.3.3. Parental Endorsement of Publically Consumed Necessity Goods	163
6.7.3.4. Parental Endorsement of Publically Consumed Luxury Goods.....	166
6.7.3.5. Summary of Parental Endorsement's Effect on Propensity to Consume	169
6.7.4. Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Correlation Experiment	172
6.7.4.1. Perception of Product Categories.....	172
6.8. Demographic Variables effect on Propensity to Consume	173
6.8.1. The Effect of Age on Propensity to Consume	173

6.8.2.	The Effect of Race on Propensity to Consume	174
6.8.2.1.	Black Respondents' Unnecessary Consumption due to Advertisements	174
6.8.2.2.	White Respondents' Unnecessary Consumption due to Advertisements	174
6.8.2.3.	Indian Respondents' Unnecessary Consumption due to Advertisement	175
6.8.2.4.	Coloured Respondents' Unnecessary Consumption due to Advertisement	175
6.8.2.5.	Summary of Race as a Variable of Propensity to Consume	176
6.8.3.	Gender's Effect on Propensity to Consume	176
6.8.3.1.	Unnecessary Consumption by Males due to Advertisements	177
6.8.3.2.	Unnecessary Consumption by Females due to Advertisements	177
6.8.3.3.	Summary of Unnecessary Consumption relative to Gender	177
6.8.4.	The Effect of Location on Propensity to Consume	178
6.8.4.1.	Propensity to Consume Among Rural Socio-Economic Respondents.....	178
6.8.4.2.	Propensity to Consume Among Semi-Rural Socio-Economic Respondents	178
6.8.4.3.	Propensity to Consume Among Semi-Urban Socio-Economic Respondents	179
6.8.4.4.	Propensity to Consume Among Urban Socio-Economic Respondents	179
6.8.4.5.	Summary of Locations Effect on Propensity to Consume.....	179
6.9.	Cognition of Advertisements	180
6.9.1.	The Effect of Brand Awareness on Propensity to Consume	180
6.9.2.	Perceived Function of Advertisements	181
6.9.2.1.	Ages effect on the Perceived Function of Advertisements	182
6.9.2.2.	Perceived Function of Advertisements' Effect on Propensity to Consume	182
6.10.	Conclusion	183
Chapter 7: Discussion of Results		184
7.1.	Introduction	184
7.2.	Discussion of Research Objectives.....	184
7.2.1.	Objective 1: The Effect of Age on Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume	184
7.2.1.1.	Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 8 Year Old	185
7.2.1.1.1.	The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 8 Year Old Respondents.....	185
7.2.1.1.2.	Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 8 Year Old Respondents	186
7.2.1.1.3.	Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 8 year olds.....	187
7.2.1.2.	Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 9 Year Olds	188
7.2.1.2.1.	The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 9 Year Old Respondents.....	188
7.2.1.2.2.	Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 9 Year Old Respondents	189
7.2.1.2.3.	Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 9 year olds.....	190
7.2.1.3.	Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 10 Year Olds	190
7.2.1.3.1.	The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 10 Year Old Respondents.....	191

7.2.1.3.2. Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 10 Year Old Respondents	191
7.2.1.3.3. Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 10 year olds	192
7.2.1.4. Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 11 Year Olds	192
7.2.1.4.1. The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 11 Year Old Respondents.....	192
7.2.1.4.2. Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 11 Year Old Respondents	193
7.2.1.4.3. Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 11 year olds.....	194
7.2.1.5. Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 12 Year Olds	194
7.2.1.5.1. The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 12 Year Old Respondents.....	194
7.2.1.5.2. Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 12 Year Old Respondents	195
7.2.1.5.3. Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 12 year olds.....	195
7.2.1.6. Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 13 Year Olds	196
7.2.1.6.1. The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 13 Year Old Respondents.....	196
7.2.1.6.2. Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 13 Year Old Respondents	197
7.2.1.6.3. Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 13 year olds.....	198
7.2.1.7. Summary of Age as a Variable of Propensity to Consume	199
7.2.2. Objective 2: Cognition of Selling Intent’s Effect on Propensity to Consume	200
7.2.2.1. The Effect Which the Awareness of Selling Intent has on Propensity to Consume Privately Consumed Necessity Goods	200
7.2.2.2. The Effect Which the Awareness of Selling Intent has on Propensity to Consume Privately Consumed Luxury Goods.....	201
7.2.2.3. The Effect Which the Awareness of Selling Intent has on Propensity to Consume Publically Consumed Necessity Goods	202
7.2.2.4. The Effect Which the Awareness of Selling Intent has on Propensity to Consume Publically Consumed Luxury Goods.....	202
7.2.2.5. Summary of the Comprehension of Selling Intent on Propensity to Consume	202
7.2.3. Objective 3: Persuasive Nature of Advertisements’ Effect on Propensity to Consume	203
7.2.3.1. Awareness of Persuasion’s Effect on the Identified Product Categories.....	204
7.2.3.1.1. Comprehension of Persuasion on Consumption of Privately Consumed Necessities	204
7.2.3.1.2. Comprehension of Persuasion on Consumption of Privately Consumed Luxuries	204
7.2.3.1.3. Comprehension of Persuasion on Consumption of Publically Consumed Necessities	205
7.2.3.1.4. Comprehension of Persuasion on Consumption of Publically Consumed Luxuries.....	205
7.2.3.1.5. Summary of Persuasions effect on Consumption of Identified Product Categories	206
7.2.4. Objective 4: Cognizance of Bias and the Effect on Propensity to Consume	206
7.2.4.1. The Comprehension of the Bias in Advertisements and the Effect on Propensity to Consume Private Necessities	207
7.2.4.2. The Comprehension of the Bias in Advertisements and the Effect on Propensity to Consume Private Luxuries.....	208

7.2.4.3.	The Comprehension of the Bias in Advertisements and the Effect on Propensity to Consume Public Necessities	208
7.2.4.4.	The Comprehension of the Bias in Advertisements and the Effect on Propensity to Consume Public Luxuries.....	209
7.2.4.5.	Summary of the Effect Which Awareness of Bias has on the Identified Categories	209
7.2.5.	Objective 5: Peer Endorsements’ Effect on Propensity to Consume.....	210
7.2.5.1.	The Effect of Age on Endorsement and Propensity to Consume	211
7.2.5.1.1.	The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 8 Year Olds	211
7.2.5.1.2.	The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 9 Year Olds	212
7.2.5.1.3.	The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 10 Year Olds	214
7.2.5.1.4.	The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 11 Year Olds	215
7.2.5.1.5.	The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 12 Year Olds	217
7.2.5.1.6.	The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 13 Year Olds	218
7.2.5.1.7.	Summary of the Effect which Age has on Propensity to Consume due to Peer Endorsement	219
7.2.5.2.	The Effect of Product Category of Endorsement and Propensity to Consume	220
7.2.5.2.1.	The Consumption Effect of Endorsement on Privately Consumed Necessity Goods	220
7.2.5.2.2.	The Consumption Effect of Endorsement on Privately Consumed Luxury Goods.....	221
7.2.5.2.3.	The Consumption Effect of Endorsement on Publically Consumed Necessity Goods	222
7.2.5.2.4.	The Consumption Effect of Endorsement on Publically Consumed Luxury Goods	223
7.2.5.2.5.	Summary of Endorsement’s Effect on Product Classes	223
7.2.5.3.	The Effect of Reference Group Construct on Propensity to Consume	225
7.2.5.3.1.	Parental vs. Peer Endorsement of Privately Consumed Necessities	225
7.2.5.3.2.	Parental vs. Peer Endorsement of Privately Consumed Luxuries	226
7.2.5.3.3.	Parental vs. Peer Endorsement of Publically Consumed Necessities	226
7.2.5.3.4.	Parental vs. Peer Endorsement of Publically Consumed Luxuries.....	226
7.2.5.3.5.	Summary of Reference Group Construct.....	227
7.3.	Research Hypotheses.....	227
7.3.1.	Hypothesis 1	227
7.3.2.	Hypothesis 2	228
7.3.3.	Hypothesis 3	228
7.3.4.	Hypothesis 4	229
7.3.5.	Hypothesis 5	229
7.3.6.	Hypothesis 6	230
7.4.	Conclusion	231

Chapter 8: Conclusions, Recommendation and Limitations	232
8.1. Introduction	232
8.2. Conclusion of the Dissertation.....	232
8.3. Recommendations.....	232
8.3.1. Recommendations for Marketing Professionals	233
8.3.1.1. Advertising Literacy	233
8.3.1.2. Product Endorsement.....	234
8.3.2. Recommendations for Policy Makers	234
8.3.2.1. Age as a component of Policy Making	234
8.3.3. Recommendations for Future Research	235
8.3.3.1. The Effect of Demographic and Other Socio-Economic Variables on Cognition of Advertisements.....	235
8.3.3.2. Advertising Appeals Effect on Propensity to Consume	236
8.3.3.3. The Effects of Product Trial.....	236
8.4. Limitations of the Study.....	236
8.4.1. Limitations Regarding Empirical Data.....	236
8.4.2. Limitations Regarding Literature	238
References.....	239
Appendices	248
Appendix A – Questionnaire	248
Appendix B – Correlation Experiment Questions	250
Appendix C – Informed Consent Example	255
Appendix D – DOE Approval	256
Appendix E – Head of School Consent Documents	257
Appendix F – UKZN Ethical Clearance.....	261
Appendix G – Cronbach’s Coefficient of Alpha.....	262
Appendix H – Inferential Tables.....	263

List of Tables

Table 2.1: Comparison of Advertising Channels	10
Table 2.2: Functional Purpose of Advertisements	13
Table 2.3: Comparison of Different Advertising Models	16
Table 2.4. Comparison of Advertising Restrictions in select countries.....	22
Table 2.5. Examples of Advertising Standards Provided by the Advertising Standards Authority	24
Table 3.1: Piaget’s Hierarchy of Cognitive Development and Comprehension of Advertisements	33
Table 3.2: Roedder’s Stages of Information Processing in Children	37
Table 3.3: Persuasion Knowledge	42
Table 4.1: Reference Group Construct	46
Table 4.2: Stages of Erikson’s Psychosocial Development Which are Applicable to Tweens	52
Table 4.3: Summary of Developmental Theories	53
Table 4.4: Product Conspicuousness and Resultant Product Categories	54
Table 5.1: Response Rate for Purposive Questionnaire	65
Table 5.2: Correlation Experiment Framework	70
Table 6.1: Pearson Correlations of Selling Intent and Age for different product categories	94
Table 6.2a: Product Categories * Selling Intent Summary	98
Table 6.2b: Advertising’s Influence on Product Class Purchase	101
Table 6.3: Mean Pearson Correlations for Consumption * Product Categories * Bias	111
Table 6.4: Distribution Skewness of Parental Influence on Propensity to Consume.....	169
Table 6.5: ANOVA (Perception of Product Categories).....	172
Table 7.1: Summary of Correlations between Advertising Literacy, Age and Propensity to Consume	199
Table A.1: Age of Respondent	263
Table A.2: Gender	263
Table A.3: Respondents’ Grade	264
Table A.4: School	264
Table A.5: Race	264
Table A.6: Age (Experiment)	264
Table A.7: Gender (Experiment)	264
Table A.8: Grade (Experiment)	265
Table A.9: Race (Experiment)	265
Table A.10a: Group Included the Independent Variable	265
Table A.10b: Age * Group Included the Independent Variable Cross-tabulation	265
Table A.10c: Grade * Group Included the Independent Variable Cross-tabulation	265
Table A.11: Daily Viewing Frequency	266
Table A.12: Television Viewing Frequency * Age of Respondent Cross-tabulation	266

Table A.13: Viewing Frequency * Who pays for advertisements? Cross-tabulation	266
Table A.14: Viewing Frequency * Do advertisements always tell the truth? Cross-tabulation.....	267
Table A.15: How often do you watch television? * Advertising deception Cross-tabulation.....	267
Table A.16a: Who pays for advertisements?	268
Table A.16b: Correctly Identified Selling Intent of Advertisements	268
Table A.17a: Who pays for advertisements? * Age of Respondent Cross-tabulation	268
Table A.17b: Advertising Funding? * Age of Respondent Cross-tabulation	268
Table A.18: Product Class Selling Intent	268
Table A.19a: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Private Necessity)	269
Table A.19b: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Private Luxury).....	269
Table A.19c: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Public Necessity)	269
Table A.19d: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Public Luxury)	269
Table A.20a: Advertisements effect on Propensity to Consume Private Necessities.....	269
Table A.20b: Advertisements effect on Propensity to Consume Private Luxuries	270
Table A.20c: Advertisements effect on Propensity to Consume Public Necessities.....	270
Table A.20d: Advertisements effect on Propensity to Consume Public Luxuries.....	270
Table A.21: Do advertisements always tell the truth?	271
Table A.22: Do advertisements always tell the truth * Source of Funding cross-tabulation	271
Table A.23: Age * Do Advertisements tell the truth * Source of Funding Cross-tabulation	271
Table A.24a: Bias Nature of Advertisements * Propensity to Consume Private Necessity	272
Table A.24b: Bias Nature of Advertisement * Propensity to Consume Private Luxury	272
Table A.24c: Bias Nature of Advertisement * Propensity to Consume Public Necessity.....	273
Table A.24d: Bias Nature of Advertisement * Propensity to Consume Public Luxury.....	273
Table A.24e: Propensity to Consume * Advertising Bias * Product Category	273
Table A.25: Advertising Deception * Age Cross-tabulation	274
Table A.26: Unnecessary Consumption	274
Table A.26a: Unnecessary Consumption * Propensity to Consume Identified Product Categories.....	274
Table A.27a: Age of Respondent * Unnecessary Consumption Cross-tabulation	275
Table A.27b: Age as a Consumption Variable of Persuasion in Advertising	276
Table A.28: Respondent Values his/her Peers' Perception of Different Product Categories	276
Table A.29: Age * Importance of Peers' Perception Cross-tabulation	277
Table A.30: Distribution Skewness of Peer Importance	278
Table A.31: Peer Influence on Different Product Categories.....	278
Table A.32: Age * Peer Endorsement influences Consumption	279
Table A.33: Distribution Skewness of Peer Influence on Propensity to Consume	279
Table A.34: Parent Endorsement of Private Necessity is Important * Age Cross-tabulation	280
Table A.37: Mean Values of Age as a Factor of consumption	281

Table A.38: Race * Unnecessary Consumption Cross-tabulation	281
Table A.39: Mean Values of Race as a Variable of Propensity to Consume	281
Table A.40: Sex * Unnecessary Consumption Cross-tabulation	282
Table A.41: Location * Unnecessary Consumption Cross-tabulation	282
Table A.42: Brand Awareness * Unnecessary Consumption Cross-tabulation.....	283
Table A.43: First Thing That Came to Mind When Describing an Advertisement	283
Table A.44: Primary Perceived Function of Advertisement * Propensity to Consume	284

List of Figures

Figure 2.1: One-to-Many vs. Many-to-Many Advertising Channel	11
Figure 2.2: The Hierarchy of Effects Model	15
Figure 2.3: The DAGMAR model	15
Figure 3.1: Piaget's Hierarchy of Cognitive Development	30
Figure 3.2: Roedder's Information Processing Theory	34
Figure 3.3: Perceived Function of Advertising Intent	40
Figure 3.4: The Persuasion Knowledge Model	43
Figure 3.5: Bias in Advertising amongst Children	44
Figure 4.1: Selman's Role Taking Stages	48
Figure 4.2: Cartoon Depicting Mutual Role Taking Ability	49
Figure 4.3: Stages of Barenboim's Impression Formulation	50
Figure 4.4: Age vs. Impression Formulation	50
Figure 4.5: Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development	51
Figure 4.6: Tracking Brand Ambassadors on Twitter™	56
Figure 5.1: Internal Validity of Static Group Comparison Methodology	71
Figure 6.1: Age of Respondent	77
Figure 6.2: Gender	78
Figure 6.3: Respondents' Grade	78
Figure 6.4: School	79
Figure 6.5: Race	79
Figure 6.6: Age of Respondent (Experiment).....	80
Figure 6.7: Gender (Experiment)	80
Figure 6.8: Grade (Experiment)	81
Figure 6.9: Race (Experiment)	81
Figure 6.10a: Group included the Independent Variable	82
Figure 6.10b: Age * Independent Variable	82
Figure 6.10c: Grade * Independent Variable.....	83
Figure 6.11: Viewing Frequency	83
Figure 6.12a: 8 Year Old Daily Viewing Frequency	84
Figure 6.12b: 9 Year Old Daily Viewing Frequency	84
Figure 6.12c: 10 Year Old Daily Viewing Frequency	85
Figure 6.12d: 11 Year Old Daily Viewing Frequency	85
Figure 6.12e: 12 Year Old Daily Viewing Frequency	85
Figure 6.12f: 13 Year Old Viewing Frequency.....	86
Figure 6.12g: Comparison of Age * Viewing Frequency	86
Figure 6.13: Selling Intent * Viewing Frequency	87

Figure 6.14: Respondent has experienced bias in Advertising * Viewing Frequency	88
Figure 6.15: How often do you watch television * Experienced deception cross-tabulation	89
Figure 6.16: Who Funds Advertisements?	90
Figure 6.17: Identified Source of Advertising Funding * Age	90
Figure 6.18: Selling Intent * Product Category	91
Figure 6.19a: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Private Necessity)	91
Figure 6.19b: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Private Luxury)	92
Figure 6.19c: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Public Necessity)	93
Figure 6.19d: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Public Necessity)	94
Figure 6.20a: Propensity to Consume Private Necessities	95
Figure 6.20b: Propensity to Consume a Private Luxuries	96
Figure 6.20c: Propensity to Consume Public Necessities	96
Figure 6.20d: Propensity to Consume Public Luxuries	97
Figure 6.20e: Comparison of Product Categories * Selling Intent	98
Figure 6.20f: Comparison of Mean Deviation from Median for Different Product Categories	100
Figure 6.21: Do Advertisements Always tell the Truth?	102
Figure 6.22: Bias in Advertising	102
Figure 6.23a: 8 Years Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias	103
Figure 6.23b: 9 Years Old Cognizance of Advertising Bias	104
Figure 6.23c: 10 Years Old Cognizance of Advertising Bias	104
Figure 6.23d: 11 Years Old Cognizance of Advertising Bias	105
Figure 6.23e: 12 Years Old Cognizance of Advertising Bias	105
Figure 6.23f: 13 Years Old Cognizance of Advertising Bias	106
Figure 6.23: Age as a Comprehension Variable of Advertising Bias	106
Figure 6.24a: Bias Nature of Advertisements * Propensity to Consume a Private Necessity	107
Figure 6.24b: Bias Nature of Advertisements * Propensity to Consume a Private Luxury	108
Figure 6.24c: Bias Nature of Advertisements * Propensity to Consume a Public Necessity	109
Figure 6.24d: Bias Nature of Advertisements * Propensity to Consume a Public Luxury	110
Figure 6.24e: Propensity to Consume Product Categories * Aware of Bias	111
Figure 6.25: Respondent has Experienced Deception * Age	112
Figure 6.26: Unnecessary Consumption due to Persuasion	113
Figure 6.26a: Needless Utilisation of Product Categories * Persuasive Propensity to Consume	113
Figure 6.27a: Persuasive Influence on 8 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	116
Figure 6.27b: Persuasive Influence on 9 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	117
Figure 6.27c: Persuasive Influence on 10 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	118
Figure 6.27d: Persuasive Influence on 11 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	118
Figure 6.27e: Persuasive Influence on 12 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	119
Figure 6.27f: Persuasive Influence on 13 Year Old's Propensity to Consume	120

Figure 6.27g: Age as a Consumption Variable of Persuasion in Advertising	121
Figure 6.28a: Perceived Importance of Privately Consumed Necessity Goods	122
Figure 6.28b: Perceived Importance of Privately Consumed Luxury Goods	123
Figure 6.28c: Perceived Importance of Publically Consumed Necessity Goods	123
Figure 6.28d: Perceived Importance of Publically Consumed Luxury Goods	124
Figure 6.28e: Respondent Values his/her Peers' Perception of Different Product Categories	125
Figure 6.28f: Relative Perceived Importance of Different Product Categories	125
Figure: 6.29a: 8 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes	127
Figure: 6.29b: 9 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes.....	129
Figure: 6.29c: 10 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes	131
Figure: 6.29d: 11 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes.....	133
Figure: 6.29e: 12 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes.....	135
Figure: 6.29f: 13 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes.....	137
Figure 6.30: Distribution Skewness of Perceived Peer Importance.....	139
Figure 6.31a: Peer influence on Privately Consumed Necessity Goods	141
Figure 6.31b: Peer Influence on Publically Consumed Luxury Goods.....	141
Figure 6.31c: Peer Influence on Publically Consumed Necessity Goods	142
Figure 6.31d: Peer Influence on Publically Consumed Luxury Goods.....	142
Figure 6.31e: Peer Influence on Different Product Categories.....	143
Figure 6.31f: Relative Peer Influence of Different Product Categories	143
Figure 6.32a: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 8 Year Olds	145
Figure 6.32b: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 9 Year Olds.....	146
Figure 6.32c: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 10 Year Olds	148
Figure 6.32d: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 11 Year Olds.....	150
Figure 6.32e: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 12 Year Olds	152
Figure 6.32f: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 13 Year Olds.....	154
Figure 6.33: Distribution Skewness of Peer Endorsement and Propensity to Consume	156
Figure 6.34a: Parental Endorsement of Privately Consumed Necessity Goods	158
Figure 6.34b: Parental Endorsement of Privately Consumed Luxury Goods.....	161
Figure 6.34c: Parental Endorsement of Publically Consumed Necessity Goods	163
Figure 6.34d: Parental Endorsement of Publically Consumed Luxury Goods.....	166
Figure 6.35a: Mean Effect of Parental Endorsement on Propensity to Consume	170
Figure 6.35b: Distribution Skewness of Parental Influence on Propensity to Consume	170
Figure 6.37: Mean Values of Age as a Factor of Consumption	173
Figure 6.38a: Unnecessary Consumption by Black Respondents	174
Figure 6.38b: Unnecessary Consumption by White Respondents.....	174
Figure 6.38c: Unnecessary Consumption by Indian Respondents.....	175
Figure 6.38d: Unnecessary Consumption by Coloured Respondents.....	175

Figure 6.39: Comparison of Propensity to Consume between races	176
Figure 6.40: Genders Effect on Propensity to Consume.....	177
Figure 6.41a: Socio-Economic Location’s effect on Propensity to Consume.....	178
Figure 6.41b: Socio-Economic Location’s effect on Propensity to Consume	180
Figure 6.42: Aware of Brand * Unnecessary Consumption	180
Figure 6.43: Primary Perceived Function of an Advertisement.....	181
Figure 6.44: Perceived Function of Advertising * Propensity to Consume.....	183

Chapter 1: Introduction and Motivation

1.1. Background and Motivation

Tweens are defined as an audience of consumers who have matured to a stage where they are no longer children, but are not yet a fully developed teenager (Hulan, 2007: 31). The age of a tween is subject to some speculation. Anderson, Tufte, Rasmusen and Chan (2007: 341) state that *“The tween age span has been defined as wide as 8-14 years of age or as narrow as 11-12-year-olds”*.

The current coeval of tweens has been described as *“the richest generation of children in history”* (Lindstrom, 2004: 175). Tweens are responsible for both their personal consumption as well as the influence they exert on parents or guardians (Gunter, Oates, Blades, 2005: 2). Anecdotal evidence suggested that children in the United States of America spent \$28 billion of their own money and influenced \$250 billion of purchases in 2000 (Gunter et. al, 2005: 2). By 2004, the estimated tween driven consumption had increased to approximately \$1.18 trillion (Lindstrom, 2004: 175).

Tweens are considered to be the most brand conscious and materialistic children to date (Roper and Shah, 2007: 713). Hulan (2007: 31) states that tweens have been brought up in a commodity saturated culture and consequently have a weak self-image; their need to belong to groups makes tweens susceptible to exploitation by advertisers. By virtue of this, Pufall and Unsworth (2004: 143) state that in a postmodern consumer driven society, marketing to children has become a critical niche for many corporations, and as a result, there is an increasing amount of marketing analysts specialising in tween behaviour.

The child mind-set differs to that of an adult. Researchers such as McGinnis, Gootman and Kraak (2006: 341) states that, *“Advertising to children raises special issues as they are too young to be regarded as fully autonomous decisions makers”*. Empirical research documented by Livingstone and Helsper (2004: 2) showed that advertising has an effect on children of all ages, however the effect differs depending on the age of the child and their inherent cognitive capabilities. Macklin and Carlson (1999: 12) state that as children develop and gain the mental capability to distinguish between an advertisement and entertainment, their tolerance towards advertisements decreases, and hence their propensity to consume decreases accordingly. Research documented by Macklin and Carlson (1999: 14) found that as children gain the cognition to differentiate advertisements from regular media, their enjoyment derived from the advertisement decreased and they are less likely to purchase the advertised product.

Kaiser (in Pufall and Unsworth, 2004: 144) found that the average child in the United States was exposed to approximately 5 and-a-half hours of media outside of regular school. Wilcox, Kunkel, Cantor, Dowrick, Linn, Palmer (2004: 6) state that tweens experience greater exposure to child-orientated marketing than any previous generation. Despite this strong saturation of media content, there have been few empirical studies conducted within South Africa which have investigated the effects of age (or cognitive understanding of advertisements) on tweens' propensity to consume.

1.2. Problem Statement

During post-modern society, the purchasing capabilities of tweens has shown strong growth (Gunter, *et al.*, 2005: 90), with tweens being described as the "richest generation of children" (Lindstrom, 2004: 175). However, there are both psychological and socio-ethical problems which arise when marketing products to children.

- The psychological problem arises when considering tweens' comprehension of advertisement and their cognitive capability to comprehend an advertisement and make abstract consumption connections. If children do not have the cognitive capacity to understand the advertisement they may have a null or an adverse reaction towards it, which would represent a poor investment by the marketer.
- The socio-ethical dilemma arises when considering the degree of advertising literacy which children exhibit. The concept of advertising to children has two schools of thought; pro-advertisers advocate that advertisements are beneficial as they provide consumer socialisation (O'Sullivan, 2005: 375), whereas Preston (2004, 369) states that there is a social stigma attached to advertisements due to the fact that they exploit the susceptible nature of children.

In addition, peer pressure is rampant amongst tweens and influences their willingness to adopt a new product (Ropah and Shah, 2007: 713). Preston (2004: 366) believes that peer pressure plays a more prevalent role than advertising in generating demand from the child segment.

However, there has been little research conducted in South Africa which documents the degree to which children conceive the function of advertisements (particularly with regard to the selling intent, persuasive nature and intrinsic bias), nor the relationship between peer endorsement of advertisements and propensity to consume. Thus, from a marketer's point of view, it is important to determine the effect which cognizance of advertisements has on tweens' propensity to consume products.

1.3. Research Objectives

The objectives of the research were as follows:

- **Objective 1:** To determine the effects which age has on cognition of advertisements by tweens in KwaZulu-Natal.
- **Objective 2:** To determine the effect which comprehension of the selling intent of an advert has on tweens' propensity to consume
- **Objective 3:** To determine the effect which understanding of the persuasive nature evident in advertisements affects tweens' propensity to consume.
- **Objective 4:** To determine how understanding the bias nature of advertisements affects tweens' propensity to consume.
- **Objective 5:** To determine the effect which peer endorsement has on propensity to consume.

1.4. Research Questions

The research objectives above resulted in the following research questions:

- How does age affect respondents' comprehension of advertisements?
- Does awareness that advertisements have inherent selling intent influence consumption?
- Are respondents less inclined to consume a product if they are aware that the advertisement is persuasive?
- Does the awareness that advertising is biased influence consumption of a product?
- How does peer endorsement affect consumption of different product categories?

1.5. Research Hypothesis

From the above research questions, the following hypotheses were identified as feasible for the report:

- **Hypothesis 1 (H₁):** As children become older and consequently develop cognitive functions, the effect of peer endorsement of an advertisement decreases for all product categories.
- **Hypothesis 2 (H₂):** There is a negative correlation between propensity to consume and cognitive ability to discern the selling intent of an advertised product.
- **Hypothesis 3 (H₃):** There is a negative relationship between propensity to consume and children's ability to perceive the persuasive nature of an advertised product.
- **Hypothesis 4 (H₄):** There is a negative correlation between propensity to consume and cognitive ability to discern the bias of an advertised product.

- **Hypothesis 5 (H₅):** Peer endorsement of an advertisement for a publically consumed good has a stronger relationship with tweens' propensity to consume than endorsement of an advertisement for a privately consumed good.
- **Hypothesis 6 (H₆):** There is a stronger positive correlation between peer endorsement of an advertised luxury good than an advertised necessity good.

1.6. Benefit of the Study

The global tween segment of the market has shown strong positive growth. Despite this, little is known about the diverse South African tween market as the majority of knowledge regarding the tween segment in South Africa is based either on casual anecdotal evidence or evidence extrapolated from international sources. This study provides empirical evidence within a South African context which divulges the cognition of advertisements, as well as the effect of peer endorsement on tweens.

Understanding tween's cognition of advertisement is paramount for both marketers as well as policy makers.

- Marketers need to understand tweens' cognition of advertisements in order to ensure that they are effectively promoting their product in a manner which appeals to tweens, and is understood by them. As mentioned previously, there is an estimated \$12 billion spent annually on advertisements which focus on children (Wilcox et al, 2004: 6). Without substantial knowledge on tweens comprehension of advertisements marketers run the risk of advertising a good without reaching the target audience (the child). Advertisements which have a null impact on the target audience signify a potential loss for an organisation as they will not generate any additional sales or brand equity. Priya, *et. al* (2010: 153) states that there is currently no concrete model which advertisers can utilize to gauge their return on investment when advertising to children. Consequently, the empirical research conducted in this study provides South African marketers with additional literature which can be utilised to gauge the efficacy of their marketing campaigns.
- Policy makers are concerned with the socio-ethical dilemma involving the comprehension of advertisements by children. Moore and Lutz (2000: 31) state that "*Concern about children's ability to comprehend and evaluate these messages [advertisements] has stimulated heated debate since the early 1970s*". McGinnis (2006: 341) believes that since children are not autonomous decision makers, advertisements may have an adverse effect on them. By virtue of this, many countries have implemented regulatory control bodies in order to minimize

advertisements which may be considered harmful towards children. Hulan (2007: 35) describes the following measures which various countries have implemented to safeguard children; Sweden has banned advertisements of any toy, food or computer game which is targeted at children under 12 years old (Carahar, Landon, Dalmeny, 2005: 600); In Canada, the Advertising Standards Council (ASC) is a self-regulating organisation which provides guidelines for marketers who advertise child-orientated products (children are defined as children under 13 years old); Within the United Kingdom, The Advertising Standards Authority (ASA, 2012: 3) stipulates guidelines which organisations adhere to when advertising goods which are targeted at children (who in the United Kingdom are defined as children under 16 years old). Within the South African Market, the Broadcasting Complaints Commission of South Africa (BCCSA) and the Advertising Standards Authority of (ASA) are responsible for the regulation of televised advertisements. However, there is no provision within the BCCSA's code of conduct which stipulates restrictions of advertising towards children (BCCSA, 2009: 4), and the ASA provides only "*general principles*" for organisations to adhere to (Thompson and Serrurier, 2008: 63). Furthermore, the definition of a 'child' according to both the BCCSA and the ASA is relatively vague and is defined as any individual under the age of 18 (BCCSA, 2009: 2; ASA, 2004: 14). The lack of South African child related advertising literature may account for the deficiency of specific policies involving the advertising of goods to children. Consequently, a benefit of the report is that it adds to the body of literature in a South African context and may assist policy makers in updating archaic regulations.

Understanding the varying effect on different product categories of peer endorsement is beneficial to both purveyors of public information as well as scholars of consumer behaviour. The findings showed that both the degree of visibility during consumption (product consciousness) as well as the perceived exclusivity of the product impacted respondent's propensity to consume.

1.7. Brief Overview of the Dissertation

Chapter 1 – Introduction and Motivation (this chapter): Provides an introduction to the dissertation by providing the background of the research, a brief outline of the problem statement, research objectives, research hypotheses, and the benefit of the dissertation.

Chapter 2 – Tweens and Advertising: Deals with the effect that advertising has on tweens (children aged 8 – 13 years old). It begins by providing a brief synopsis on advertising theory; such as a short definition of advertising and the various advertising channels that marketers utilise to promote products. Chapter 2 then focuses on advertising specifically towards the tween segment, by addressing advertisings effect on tweens; this includes the perceived social stigma of targeting

children as they are perceived as un-autonomous decision makers; as well as consumer socialization, which refers to the manner in which children acquire knowledge through advertisements.

Chapter 2 culminates by discussing the ethical considerations to consider when marketing a good towards the tween market, and uses the BRANDchild survey conducted by Lindstrom and Seybold (2003: 1) to describe the manner in which tweens comprehend and relate to branding.

Chapter 3 – Development of Cognition in Children: Chapter 3 assesses the psychological development of the child. It begins by providing a brief description of the two prevalent cognition theories utilised in the assessment of tweens' cognition of advertisements; Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development, and Roedder's model of information processing. Piaget postulated children are active seekers of knowledge, and as a result, they develop in a hierarchical manner and pass through four discrete stages of development. Roedder, on the other hand, believed that children learnt through the transfer of information from their short term memory into their long term memory; Roedder believed that there were three prototypical processing categories in terms of cognitive capability; limited, cued and strategic processors.

Both Roedder's information processing theory and Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development were then compared with the advertising literacy of tweens. Advertising literacy refers to tweens' ability to differentiate advertisements from regular television, identify the selling intent of advertisements, perceive the persuasive nature of advertisements, and identify that advertisements have an intrinsic bias towards the organisation funding the advertisements.

Chapter 4 – Product Endorsement: The fourth chapter deals with endorsement theory, and the effect which product endorsement has on tween consumption. Chapter 4 begins by providing a brief description of the reference group construct, and then moves on to discuss the effect which age has on reference group influence. This chapter discussed children's ability to think vicariously, assessed how peers perceived them, and investigated whether children believed peer impressions were important.

Chapter 4 concludes by describing the practice of using tweens as brand ambassadors through the process of peer based social endorsement as well as 'the nag factor', which drives parents into buying goods through either persistence or importance nagging.

Chapter 5 – Research Methodology: This chapter details the methodology used during empirical research. It includes research design, questionnaire design, sample design, validity, reliability, data collection technique, data analysis technique and empirical research limitations.

Chapter 6 – Findings: This chapter contains key findings from the empirical study. Data is presented through the use of pie charts, histograms, Pearson correlations, ANOVA analysis, and trend-analysis. All graphs depicted in the findings chapter have associated tables containing the related data, which are available in Appendix H.

Chapter 7 – Discussions of Findings: The Discussions chapter compares the empirical findings from the findings chapter with literature in order to answer the research objectives and hypotheses.

Chapter 8 – Recommendations and Conclusion: The Recommendations and Conclusion chapter provides managerial recommendations when assessing the cognition of advertisements by children. Recommendations for future research are also included in this chapter. This chapter culminates with the limitations experienced during research and details the pitfalls of the report with regard to findings, as well as empirical research.

1.8. Conclusion

This chapter provided an introduction to the dissertation by providing the background and motivation for the report, identifying the problem statement and research objectives, listing the research hypotheses, detailing the benefit of the study and providing a brief overview of the dissertation.

The following chapter is the first chapter in the literature review. It deals with advertising theory, and the associated effect which advertising has on tween consumption.

Chapter 2: Tweens and Advertising

2.1. Introduction

The previous chapter provided a description of tweens as children who no longer considered a child but are not yet a fully developed teenager. This chapter introduces advertising theory, and describes the varying hypothesis regarding the correlation of advertisements and tween consumer behaviour.

The chapter begins by providing a brief definition of advertising as a component of the promotional element of the marketing mix (Belch and Belch, 2007: 17). Following this, the various channels which advertisers can utilize to convey their message are discussed; this includes both traditional marketing channels as well as electronic channels.

Elements of advertising are then discussed. This includes the various forms of advertising as well as the prevalent advertising models; namely The AIDA model, The Hierarchy of Effects model and the DAGMAR model. Implementing an advertising strategy is subsequently discussed with a focus on advertising reach, frequency, impact and continuity.

This chapter culminates by describing the dominant theories regarding advertising's effect on tweens, as well as the different strategies which marketers utilize to effectively target the tween segment.

2.2. Advertising Theory

"There is only one valid definition of business purpose: to create a customer. Therefore, any business has two basic functions: Marketing and Innovation" (Drucker, 2007: 61).

Marketing is the process of adding customer satisfaction and value to a product through strategic implementation of product, price, place and promotion (Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, Tereblanche, 2006: 36). Advertising is one of the promotional tools which can be used in order to effectively communicate a marketing strategy (Belch and Belch, 2007: 17).

Masterson and Wood (2005: 284) state that advertising is paramount when positioning a brand or product, as advertising serves as a key constituent in the promotional component of the marketing mix. Petley (2002: 4) describes advertising as *"the means by which products or services are promoted to the public"*. Consequently, when positioning a product for the tween market, knowledge of both tween consumer behaviour as well as advertising theory is *"nota bene"*.

2.2.1. Advertising Channels

Advertising has evolved from a tangible system (such as a red and white striped pole outside a barbers shop) to that of a more sophisticated media-orientated system which saturates the audience in stimuli and contributes significantly to the promotional element of an organisations marketing mix (Petley, 2002: 5).

2.2.1.1. Traditional Advertising Channels

The following mediums are described as the traditional advertising channels (Lamb, *et al.*, 2006: 350; Wilson, 1985: 3)

- Print Advertising (Newspapers, magazines, brochures and fliers)
- Outdoor Advertising (Billboards, Kiosks, Tradeshow and Events)
- Broadcast advertising (Television and Radio)
- Covert/Guerrilla Advertising (Advertising in Movies)
- Celebrity Advertising (Celebrity Endorsement)

Depending on the function of the advertisement, different channels are utilised. Wilson (1985: 3) states that that the main criterion which impacts which medium is used depends on: budgetary constraints of the organisation, the target group which the organisation wishes to appeal to, and the image of the product which the organisation wishes to promote. The table below summarizes the advantages and disadvantages of key marketing channels.

Table 2.1: Comparison of Advertising Channels		
Medium	Advantages	Disadvantages
Newspapers	Geographic location selectivity; High immediacy (current information); High levels of repeat readership; Short term advertiser commitment; Cooperative marketing possibility; Short lead time.	Limited colour capabilities; Limited demographic selectivity; Low pass-along rate (reduced multiplier effect); May be expensive per target audience.
Magazines	High quality printing (colour possibility); Demographic selectivity; Region selectivity; Increased pass-along (multiplier)	Long term advertiser commitment; Slow audience build-up; Lack of urgency; Long Lead-Time.
Radio	Low cost; High Immediacy; Repeat audience (habitual audiences); Selectable geographic location; High portability of radio; Short Lead-Time.	Low media impact (only sound); Short broadcast life; High Frequency required to increase retention of advertisement; High amounts of commercial noise.
Television	Very high Reach; High demonstration possibilities; High immediacy; Entertainment possibility	Short broadcasting life; Consumer scepticism; Long term advertiser commitments; High amounts of commercial noise; Zipping (fast forwarding) and Zapping (changing channels); Long Lead times.
Outdoor	Geographic selectability; High levels of repetition; Low-Cost (relative to broadcast); Reaches broad market	Lack of demographic selectivity; Only permits short message; Audience may be distracted by extraneous elements.

Table adapted from Lamb, *et al.*, (2006: 351)

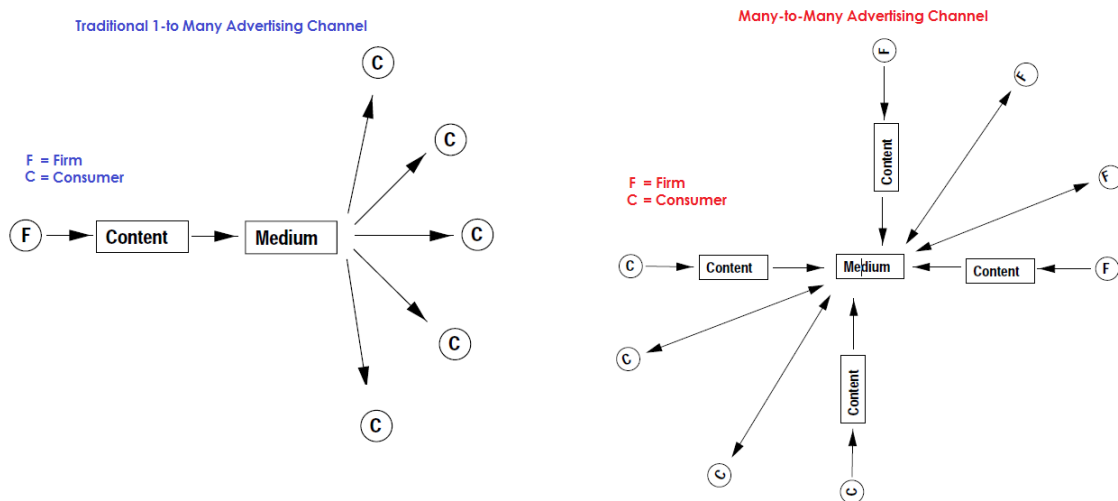
2.2.1.2. New Marketing Channels

The traditional marketing channels are still commonly used; however, with the progression into the information age, there has been a development of a new advertising channel referred to as electronic media. Since children have developed in this media rich environment, they are more likely

to utilize social media and have even developed their own acronyms and communication protocols Lindstrom (2004: 178).

By the end of the 20th century, marketers such as Hoffman and Novak (1997: 44) had already recognised the potential of electronic media, and acknowledged that computer mediated environments (CME) had unique characteristics which differentiated them from traditional commercial environments. Janoshka (2004: 17) suggests that online marketing is based on traditional forms of advertising however it utilises a different communication approach to interact with consumers. Hoffman and Novak (1997: 49) state that the key operational difference between traditional channels and the ‘new’ online channel is the possibility of ‘many-to-many’ interactions whereby the communication is not unidirectional; customers are able to communicate with the advertiser. Consequently, organisations need to structure advertising models for the interactive ‘many-to-many’ interface which the web provides in order to fully appreciate the benefits available from CME’s. This is demonstrated in the *Figure 2.1* below:

Figure 2.1: One-to-Many vs. Many-to-Many Advertising Channel



Adapted From: Hofman and Novak (1996: 46)

An example of electronic media is advertisements placed on the internet. The first recorded web advertisement was sold in 1994 when the first commercially available Web-Browser (Netscape Navigator 1.0) was released (Janoshka, 2004: 48). Online advertising has evolved into a significant communication medium which has the capacity to employ videos, sounds and interactive content to appeal to a large market. An example of the magnitude of online-advertising includes the media companies Google and Facebook; Google has been described as “*the biggest and most successful advertising machine in history*” (Marshall and Meloche, 2011: 233), while Facebook (as of December 2011) had 845 Million active users and was available in 70 languages (Facebook, 2012: p4).

2.2.2. Forms of Advertisement

Lamb, *et al.* (2006: 319) believe that the form of advertising which a firm utilises is dependent on the promotional objectives of the organisation. Advertisements may either be described as institutional advertisement or product advertising; these are described below.

Institutional advertisements promote an organisational image rather than information about a single product. Pride and Ferrell (2009: 432) state that institutional advertisements can be used when an organisation promotes its position on a public issue to create a more favourable view of the organisation in the eyes of the general public, consumer advocacy groups and stakeholders. When Institutional advertisement are utilised in order to safeguard an organisation on a controversial issue it is referred to as *advocacy advertising* (Lamb, *et al.*, 2006: 320). An example of advocacy advertisement is the campaign which Philip Morris ran urging parents to talk to children about the cigarettes in order to increase consumer relations (Pride and Ferrell, 2009: 432).

Product advertising promotes the benefits of the product to potential consumers in an effort to drive sales. Lamb, *et al.* (2006: 320) state that depending on the stage of the life-cycle which the product is in, product advertising may take the form of either pioneering advertising, competitive advertising or comparative advertisement or reminder advertising.

1. **Pioneering Advertisement:** Pioneering advertisement strives to generate demand for a product category rather than a particular brand within the category (Pride and Ferrell, 2009: 452). Lamb, *et al.* (2006: 320) state that pioneering advertisement is heavily used during the introductory stage of the product life cycle to generate interest and drive product awareness.
2. **Competitive Advertising:** Once the product enters the growth stage of the product life cycle (PLC), there is a focus on advertising which influences demand for a particular brand rather than the product category; this is referred to as competitive advertising (Lamb, *et al.*, 2006: 321). During competitive advertisement campaigns, marketers endeavour to establish a differential advantage over competitors rather than attempting to stimulate demand for the particular product category; this is summarized by Tyagi and Kumar (2004: 62) who state "*competitive advertising stimulates selective demand.*"
3. **Comparative Advertising:** According to Lamb, *et al.* (2006: 321) comparative advertising exists when a product is either directly or indirectly compared to a competitor's product on a particular feature or benefit.
4. **Reminder Advertising:** In certain cases when a brand has an established, solid, and stable image advertisement is not intended to educate the consumer but rather to remind the consumer to utilise the product or service; this is referred to as reminder advertisement. Batra, Myers and

Aaker (2006: 108) state that reminder advertising is intended to drive immediate sales or to counter inroads of competition; an example of reminder advertising is Point-of-Sale (POS) banners which highlight a key attribute of the product.

2.2.3. Elements of Advertisements

Macrury (2009: 44) states that the common rationale of advertisement has evolved from the myopic view of selling goods or services to the broader idea of selling ideas. Consequently, advertisements generally evoke one of the following functions described in *Table 2.2* (below):

Table 2.2: Functional Purpose of Advertisements	
Function of Advertisement	Description of Function
Sales Response	Sales response advertisements aim to provoke purchases through price discrimination strategies. Consumers are induced to purchase based on the belief that the price is low and they are able to pick up a bargain.
Persuasion	Persuasive advertisements refer to advertisements which attempt to convince people to purchase a particular product based on the advertisers claim that the product is functionally superior.
Involvement	Involvement based advertisements highlight or dramatize cultural value appeals. By highlighting cultural values, advertisers attempt to persuade consumers through the use of intangible associations of their product. Consumers may be swayed to consume a good or service by factors such as manliness, family values or spirituality.
Salience	Salient advertisements attempt to attract consumer's attention because it stands out; it is self-assured, radically different, or big. Salient advertisements do not depend on the fact that the good or service performs better, nor any attached complimentary values.
Table adapted from: Willmott (2001: 94)	

2.2.4. Advertising Models

Advertising is intrinsically an expansive topic, and determining what constitutes an effective advertising campaign is often a heated debate between "*bottom liners*" and "*communication advocates*" (Barry, 1987: 251). On one hand, "*bottom liners*" believe that the goal of advertisement is to drive demand (Preston, 2004: 366); proponents of this school of thought contend that advertising is only effective if the advertisement results in a sale of the particular good or service. On the other hand however, communication advocates believe the consumer's advancement from unawareness of the product to consumption of a product is determinant on a hierarchical

progression; the inherent value of the advertisement is consequently not based solely on sales, but also brand awareness and brand equity.

Consequently, in order to focus an advertising campaign, marketers have hypothesized different models in order to explain the interaction between the consumer and the advertiser. The predominant advertising models include the AIDA model, the hierarchy of effects model, and the DAGMAR model. These models are discussed below.

2.2.4.1. *The AIDA Model*

Anecdotal Evidence suggests that the AIDA model of advertising was developed by St. Elmo-Lewis in 1898 (documented in Vakratsas and Ambler, 1999: 26). The AIDA model was originally used as a guide for salesmen during personal selling (Barker and Angelopulo, 2005: 243) and describes four stages which a potential consumer passes through when evaluating a purchase decision; namely Attention, Interest, Desire and Action. In accordance with the AIDA model, Karlsson (2007: 13) states that for an advertisement to be successful, the advertisement needs to:

1. Evoke attention in the prospective customer.
2. Generate interest in the product which the organisation is advertising.
3. Drive desire to own or use the product.
4. Result in an action (purchase) by the customer.

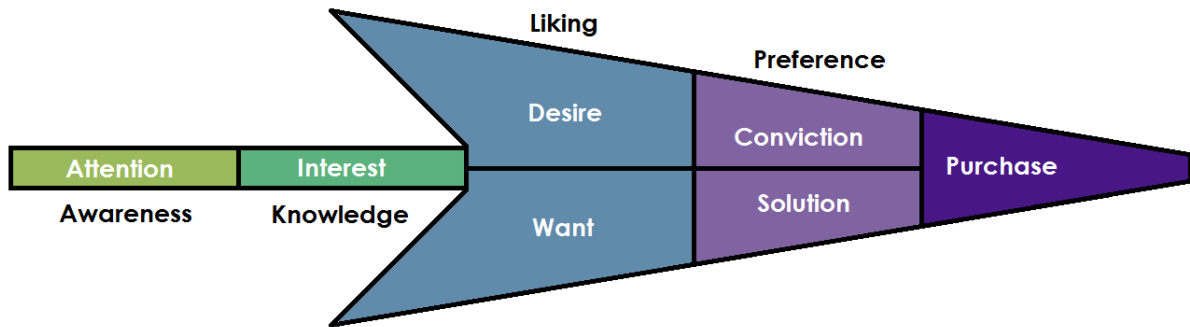
However, there has been criticism of the AIDA model by researchers such as Brierley (2002: 194) who state that AIDA is limited as it assumes a linear approach to advertising, in which consumers have to pass through certain stages before an action is achieved. Brierley (2002: 194) also stated that the AIDA model neglects the role of the environment, context and mediation when describing the purchase decision process.

2.2.4.2. *The hierarchy of Effects Model*

Taking into consideration the aforementioned shortcomings of the AIDA model, The Hierarchy of Effects model was developed in order to further describe the stages which the consumer progresses through before making a purchase decision (Barry, 1987: 251). Although there are many variations of the hierarchy of effects model, the underlying theory suggests that the consumer purchase process can be segregated into three stages; namely the cognitive stage, the affective stage, and the behavioural stage (Vakratsas and Ambler, 1999: 32). Within these stages, the consumer passes through awareness of the product, knowledge of the product's features and benefits, liking of the product, preference over competitors products, conviction and finally the purchase of the product. Belch and Belch (2007: 146) state that the effect of an advertisement may only be evident over an extended period of time; communication may not result in an immediate purchase or behavioural

response, but rather, consumers must fulfil each step before moving into the next stage of the hierarchy.

Figure 2.2: The Hierarchy of Effects Model



Adapted from Barry (1987: 263)

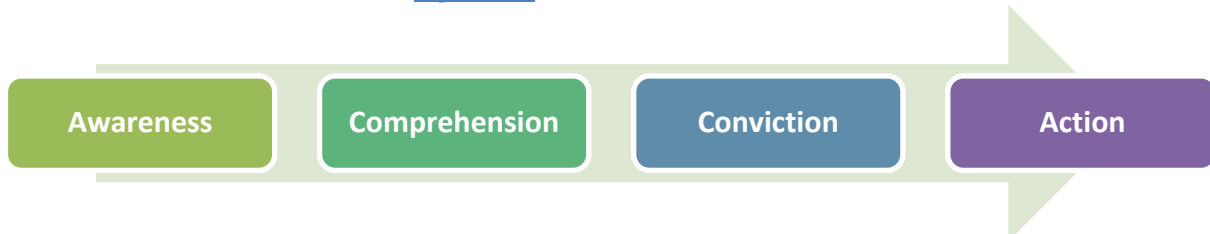
2.2.4.3. The DAGMAR Model of Advertising

The DAGMAR model was originally described by Russell Crowley in 1961 and later published in a report in 1969 entitled “Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Advertising Results” (from where it got its name) (Karlsson, 2007: 13).

Lamb, *et al.* (2006: 347) state that the DAGMAR approach is a method of setting objectives which precisely defines the target audience, the desired percentage of change, and the time frame in which the specified change should occur. The DAGMAR model of advertising was designed to measure results rather than focusing primarily on the message of the advertisement (Karlsson, 2007: 13).

Like the AIDA model, the DAGMAR model assumes that consumers follow a hierarchal process and rational consuming patterns when making a purchase decision. However, the DAGMAR model incorporated consumer’s reactions to the advertisement (Brierley, 2002: 194). The DAGMAR model assumes that before purchasing a product, the consumer passes through four stages; Awareness, Comprehension, Conviction and Action (Mackay, 2005: 25)

Figure 2.3: The DAGMAR model






(Karlsson, 2007: 13)

1. **Awareness:** Before a product is purchased, there must be awareness of the product. Consequently, the function of the awareness phase is to generate attention and stimulate purchase awareness.
2. **Comprehension:** Product awareness is not sufficient to drive sales. Consequently, during the comprehension phase the consumer is provided with product knowledge and educated on the potential utility of the product.
3. **Conviction:** During the conviction stage, product benefits are highlighted and the consumer is persuaded to choose the advertised product over a competitor's product.
4. **Action:** The consumer purchases the product.

(Treran and Treran, 2010: 80; Leitner, 2005: 4)

2.2.4.4. Comparison of Different Advertising Models

The aforementioned advertising models are summarized in the table below.

Table 2.3: Comparison of Different Advertising Models			
Stage	AIDA Model	Hierarchy of Effects Model	DAGMAR Model
	Attention	Awareness ↓ Knowledge	Awareness
	Interest ↓ Desire	Liking ↓ Preference ↓ Conviction	Comprehension ↓ Conviction
	Action	Purchase	Action

(Karlsson, 2007: 12; Barker and Angelopulo, 2005: 243; Vakratsas and Ambler, 1999: 32)

2.2.5. Implementing Advertising Strategies

Once marketers have determined which medium and framework they wish to use, they need to determine the strategy which they will adopt to best communicate with their target market. Kelly and Ugenheimer (2008: 12) state that the four prevalent concepts which underlie advertising planning are reach, frequency, impact and continuity.

2.2.5.1. Reach

Reach is segregated into two classifications; (i) numerical reach or (ii) percentage reach.

- Numerical reach refers to the number of persons (or households, adult males or whatever your target audience is) whom your message reaches. For example, an advert may reach 8 million female teens (Kelly and Ugenheimer, 2008: 12).
- Percentage reach is described as the numerical reach over the total target audience. Consequently, it measures percentage of the customers within the target market who are subjected to the advertisement. An ideal percentage reach would be 100% of the target market, as this would result in the firm communicating their message to everyone of concern and would result in increased future sales. However, this is very optimistic as in most cases not all people receive the message (Masterson and Wood, 2005: 284).

2.2.5.2. Frequency

Kelly and Ugenheimer (2008: 13) state that there are also two types of frequency; (i) frequency of insertion and (ii) frequency of exposure.

- Frequency of insertion refers to the amount of times within a given time frame in which a particular advertisement appears in the media (Kelly and Ugenheimer, 2008: 13). It is worth noting however, that because an advert has been inserted in the media, the target audience may not be subjected to it. As a result, in many cases a more apt measurement of advertisement frequency is frequency of exposure.
- Frequency of exposure measures the amount of times a member of the target audience views the particular advertisement; marketers prefer to have a high frequency of exposure as it ratifies their message, but this requires a higher frequency of insertion. Consequently, there is a positive correlation between the cost of an advertising campaign and the frequency of advertisements (Masterson and Woods, 2005: 284).

Another common misapprehension of advertising frequency is that advertising frequency is not simply repetition of advertisements. Frequency refers to the number of times an organisation advertises a particular product or service regardless of whether or not the advertisement has changed. For example, an organisation could purchase 20 spots per week on a local radio station

which is delivered by an on-air personality. Although the message which the on-air personality presents may differ slightly as it is delivered ad hoc, the frequency of insertion would still be 20 per week (Kelly and Ugenheimer, 2008, 13).

Depending on the intended impact of the message the number of required viewings fluctuates. Masterson and Wood (2005: 284) state that certain media such as broadcast and outdoor advertising require high frequency whereas high impact campaigns such as in-store promotions and dramatic ambient media require less frequent viewings.

2.2.5.3. Impact

According to Masterson and Wood (2005: 285), impact refers to the degree which the message is noticed and received by the target audience. Depending on the medium and requirement of the advertisement, the impact may be high or low. Kelly and Ugenheimer (2008: 14) state that the impact of the media message is determined by a number of factors such as length/size, colour, placement and type of channel utilised.

2.2.5.4. Continuity

Once marketers have determined which media relates to their promotional budget and advertising objectives, the focus moves toward the continuity (also referred to as media scheduling) of the campaign (Boone and Kurtz, 2011: 546). Continuity refers to the manner in which subsequent advertisements build upon previous messages (Kelly and Ugenheimer, 2008: 12).

Strategic media scheduling is vital when implementing an advertising campaign. If the frequency of the advertisements is scheduled too far apart the consumer may forget the messages stated previously, resulting in loss of cognitive utility. On the other hand, advertising which is scheduled in a manner which allows the message to develop from previous campaigns results in a cumulative advantage (Kelly and Ugenheimer, 2008: 12).

2.3. Advertising to Tweens

This section deals with advertising specifically toward the niche tween segment. Livingstone and Helsper (2004: 13) identify tweens as a “*special audience*” who require diverse approaches in order to create demand. Roper and Shah (2007: 712) believe that tweens are an important consumer group for marketers because of their relatively high level of disposable income and love for brands; experts estimate that each lifetime consumer may generate approximately US\$100,000 profit for a retailer, making effective cradle-to-grave strategies exceptionally valuable (Lindstrom, 2004: 176). However, advertising campaigns targeting tweens have been described as intrinsically unfair as

children may not understand the commercial nature of the advertisement (Macklin and Carlson, 1999: 3).

2.3.1. Advertising's Effect on Tweens

Valkenburg (2000: 52) states that despite academic research dating back to the 1970's, there is still no consensus regarding the manner in which tweens are affected by advertisements. Lawlor and Prothero (2003: 411) are in conformity with Valkenburg (2000: 52) and state that *"a common consensus on how exactly advertising affects children has not been reached"*.

Some marketers believe that advertising may have a strong negative impact on children's values, moral judgements and beliefs (Valkenburg, 2000: 52). This is based on the conjecture that children are more susceptible to claims made during advertisements than adults and may not have the cognitive capability to observe the advertisement in an objective manner. An example of this, is research conducted by Singer and Singer (2001: 448) who found that the potential influence of consumption which advertisements exert on children *"is even more powerful [than adults], as children are less likely to look at media images with a critical eye."*

Other authors conversely believe that advertisements support children in their developmental growth as consumers by encouraging children to talk about a product with their parents, which accords the parents the option to explain the role of the consumer to them (Miller and Busch, 1979: 323). O'Sullivan (2005: 371) refers to this as *"Consumer Socialisation"* and states that it serves a function of rendering children more comfortable in the commercial world.

2.3.1.1. Adverse Effects of Advertising to Tweens:

Clay (2000: 4) believes that despite there being a plethora of information on how to market a goods or services to children, there is a lack of empirical evidence to determine the advertisement's effect on the child. This is in conformity with Preston (2004: 365) who states that if a capitalistic organisation was aware of the way in which the child psychology was affected by advertisements, the organisation would not feel obliged to disclose their findings as it would provide them with a competitive advantage.

Preston (2004: 364) states that *"No manufacturer or advertiser wishes to publicly portray that they study children's minds, and utilize that knowledge to sell them things"*. This is because of the social stigma which is attached to individuals who interact with children for commercial gain. However, most of the 'evidence' attached to the aforementioned social stigma is based on anecdotal substantiation (Preston, 2004: 369); without sufficient literature to support the claim, the effect of advertising on tweens remains speculative.

The social stigma which Preston (2004: 364) believes is evident when marketing a good or service to a tween is resultant from the conjecture that tweens do not have sufficient cognitive defences to protect themselves from the cleverly constructed persuasive component of advertising (Valkenburg, 2000: 52). Children learn cognitive defences via concrete interactions with each other (Buckingham, Banaji, Burn, Carr, Cranmer, and Willett, 2005: 23). Consequently, age is an important element in the development of cognitive defences; this is discussed in Chapter 3.

Another perceived adverse effect of advertisement towards children, is the notion that advertisements affect children's values. Researchers such as Clay (2000: 1) argue that "*children have become convinced that they're inferior if they don't have an endless array of new products*". O'Sullivan (2005: 373) is in accordance and states, "*children's advertising is the marketing of insecurity, a mission to generate self-consciousness among the only group of people who have, hitherto, been free from it.*" Calvert (2008: 218) states that advertisements may instigate parent/child conflict, cynicism, and possibly materialistic attitudes. However, other researchers such as Valkenburg (2000: 53) believe that blaming a single variable for children's product purchase and product requests is too myopic, as there are mediating variables such as the socio-economic level of the family, peer group involvement, frequency and type of child-parent interaction which also impact children's consumer behaviour. O'Sullivan (2005: 374) consequently segregates the study of children as consumers into 2 categories; the innocent child (children who are less experienced and more impressionable than adults), and the naturally developed child (children who have developed an understanding of advertisement through consumer socialisation).

2.3.1.2. Consumer Socialization

Consumer socialisation of children is described as "*processes by which young people acquire skills, knowledge, and attitudes relevant to their functioning as consumers in the marketplace*" (John, 1999: 183).

O'Sullivan (2005: 375) stresses the importance of consumer socialisation with regard to television advertisements targeting tweens. O'Sullivan (2005: 375) states, "*Sacrificing it [advertisements] to an unrealistic ideal of innocence by removing advertising may be prejudicial to child welfare by removing an important source of consumer socialisation.*"

Valkenburg (2000: 54) states that children are "*active and motivated explorers of what they encounter in the media*". Consequently, the current generation of tweens have a sophisticated knowledge of brands, advertising, pricing, decision making, shopping, parental influence and bargaining approaches (John, 1999: 183).

However, this does not render the aforementioned social stigma of having campaigns which specifically target children redundant; Preston (2004: 364) states that the consumer socialisation argument is only applicable when the child has the cognitive capabilities to make abstract consumption decisions. Before this age (circa 8 years old) children are not capable of utilising advertisements to generate commercial knowledge, and as a result they are more subjected to the persuasive nature. Consequently, ethical considerations must be factored in when creating an advertisement.

2.3.2. Ethics when Advertising to Tweens

Ethics are defined as a set of written and unwritten codes, principles and values that govern decisions and actions within a company or organisation. Walker, Mullins and Lareche (2008: 35) state that in certain situations, actions may be legal but not ethical; Walker, *et al.* (2008:35) argue that ethical standards are proactive and attempt to anticipate and avoid social problems, whereas laws and regulations emerge only after a negative event has been made apparent.

The debate as to whether or not it is ethical to market products directly to children has been deliberated over for decades. Children attract more attention when ethical issues involving advertisements are discussed (Ferrell, Fraedrich and Ferrell, 2012: 101) because of the social stigma of advertising goods to a consumer with limited cognitive capabilities (Preston, 2004: 364). This is partially because of the notion that *“the focus of advertisers is to increase the interactivity and impact of advertisements on children and not to protect children from aggressive branding efforts”* (Hulan, 2007: 35).

Some marketing critics argue that since children have less cognitive capability it is inherently unfair to market goods to them (McGinnis, 2006; Bijmolt, Claassen and Brus, 1998; Gunther and Furnham, 1998), as they do not understand the capitalistic nature of the advertisement. Macklin and Carlson (1999: 3) believe that in order to determine whether or not children are autonomous consumers, they must be assessed in terms of (i) Differentiating Advertisement from entertainment; (ii) Understanding the persuasive nature of advertisement; (iii) Understanding that advertisements may exaggerate claims and are not necessarily truthful. O’Sullivan (2005: 376) states that advertising offers ideas and information, which are evaluated by the recipient and rational decisions are consequently made; without sufficient cognitive discernment, the recipient may not make a rational decision. The cognitive understanding of advertising is dealt with in Chapter 3.3.

Although the common conjecture of marketing to children is unethical, some marketers insinuate that advertising to tweens has the same basic objective as advertising to adults. Advertisements are intended to create demand, and they are persuasive to both children and adults. Preston (2004: 366)

states that “criticizing advertising for creating demand is like criticizing a car for moving on four wheels along the ground”. Demand is an intrinsic element of advertising; if the advertisement is generating demand - then by definition, the advertisement has been successfully implemented. However, this does make the topic of positioning a firm specifically for children a sensitive subject which must be handled without offending people. Walker, *et al.* (2008: 36) state that, “unethical practices can damage relationships between a firm and its suppliers or customers” which can result in the long term loss of business.

It is evident that ethical considerations are vital when advertising a good to children. Lindstrom and Seybold (2003: 316) stated that if an organisation fails to maintain an ethical approach of marketing towards children, it would soon become evident to gatekeepers (such as parents/guardians) which could have an adverse effect on the consumption of your product. Lindstrom and Seybold (2003: 1) acknowledged that the rules of marketing towards children had shifted, stating that the current generation of children have been raised in a media saturated world, and the traditional advertising paradigms would not work; this led to the BRANDchild study, which is discussed below.

2.3.2.1. South African Legislation regarding advertising to Tweens

South African legislature governing advertising to children is comparatively mild relative to global standards with no restrictions imposed based on the type of product or service (with the exception of alcohol and tobacco) (Thompson and Serrurier, 2008: 63).

Advertising within South Africa is a self-regulated industry governed by the Broadcasting Complaints Commission of South Africa (BCCSA) and the Advertising Standards Authority (ASA). These organisations have a broad definition of children as a “person under the age of 18 years” (BCCSA, 2009: 2; ASA, 2004: 14). *Table 2.4 (below)* compares South African restrictions with other countries.

Table 2.4. Comparison of Advertising Restrictions in select countries		
Country	Age	Additional Information
Sweden	< 12 Years Old	Sweden has completely banned advertisements of any toy or computer game which explicitly targets children under the age of 12 (Carahar, Landon, Dalmeny, 2005: 600).
America	< 12 Years Old	Despite lobbying in the 1970’s, the Children’s Television Act (CTA) was passed in 1990. The CTA restricted the amount of advertisements towards children on the weekends to 10.5 minutes per hour, and 12 minutes per hour or less on weekdays. All other commercials for ‘non-child’ products

		must accommodate children i.e. not depict violence (Ramsey, 2006: 369).
Canada	< 13 Years Old	The Advertising Standards Council (ASC) is a self-regulating organisation which provides guidelines for marketers who advertise child-orientated products. Clause 12 of the Canadian Code of Advertising Standards states that, <i>“Advertising that is directed to children must not exploit their credulity, lack of experience or their sense of loyalty, and must not present information or illustrations that might result in their physical, emotional or moral harm “</i> (ACA, 2006: 9).
United Kingdom	<16 Years Old	The Advertising Standards Authority enforces the UK Code of Broadcasting Advertising (more commonly referred to as the BCAP Code) (ASA, 2012: 3). Section 5 of the BCAP code provides restrictions on the advertising of goods to children; these include: Scheduling restrictions (advertisements of an adult nature must be scheduled accordingly), content restrictions (advertisements cannot be harmful, promote bad attitudes or condone violence), persuasive restrictions (advertisements must state that parental approval is required), as well as language restrictions (this includes making the price appear less by stating <i>“only”</i> or <i>“just”</i>). (ASA, 2012: 32-33)
South Africa	< 18 Years Old	Stipulations made by the self-regulated Advertising Standards Association of South Africa (ASA) include the following; as stipulated in section 2 (clause 14) of the Code of Advertising Practice. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>“14.1.1. Advertisements addressed to or likely to influence children should not contain any statement or visual presentation which might result in harming them, mentally, morally, physically or emotionally.</i> • <i>14.2.1. Advertisements should not exploit the natural credulity of children or their lack of experience and should not strain their sense of loyalty.</i> • <i>14.3.1. Children should not be portrayed as sexually appealing, provocative or in any manner which involves any form of sexual innuendo”</i> (ASA, 2004: 14)
ASA (2012: 32-33); ACA (2006: 9) Carahar, et al. (2005: 600) ASA (2004: 14)		

The Advertising Standards Authority (ASA) addresses the issue of advertising to children at Clause 14 of Section 2 by way of “*General Principles*” (Thompson and Surrurier, 2008: 63). These General Principles are discussed in *Table 2.5*:

Table 2.5. Examples of Advertising Standards Provided by the Advertising Standards Authority <i>“14.1.1.1. Advertisements likely to influence children should not contain any statement or visual presentation which might result in harming them, mentally, morally, physically or emotionally”.</i>	
Examples Provided by the ASA Include:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advertisements which encourage children to interact with strangers in order to collect coupons 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advertisements which depict children unattended or playing in the road unless the road is clearly in a demarcated area and the children are old enough to be aware of danger
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where children are engaged in dangerous activities such as climbing cliffs, leaning out of windows or over bridges. • Where children are shown climbing to attain items beyond their reach 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When items such as disinfectants, caustic substances or antiseptic are shown within children’s reach. • When the aforementioned substances are shown around unsupervised children.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where children are utilising dangerous substances such as gas, petrol, paraffin, or matches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where children are shown using dangerous utilities such as mechanical equipment or mains powered appliances
“14.2.1. Advertisements should not exploit the natural credulity of children or their lack of experience and should not strain their sense of loyalty.”	
Examples Provided by the ASA include:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Products or services which imply that the child either has to personally buy the product, or directly influence the purchase decision; otherwise the child has failed in a duty to the organisation, and lacks loyalty. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advertisements which either suggest that the child will be inferior in some way if they do not buy the product, or that the child would be ridiculed if they do not possess the advertised product.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kids clubs are allowed provided they state the club is supervised at all times and that there is no suggesting that the club is exclusive or a secret. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Offering a premium which is not free from action (involves further action by the child) • Premiums must be available for instant delivery once criteria has been met • The size and proportions should be clearly determined by juxtaposition with a common object
Table Adapted From: ASA (2004: 14)	

2.3.3. The BRANDchild Study

An authoritative experiment on the subject of marketing a brand to Tweens is the research study conducted by Lindstrom and Seybold (2003: 1) titled BRANDchild.

The BRANDchild survey involved over 600 children aged between 8 and 14, in 15 countries. The BRANDchild survey effectively described tweens' capabilities of brand identification, brand awareness, brand knowledge and purchasing behaviour. This provided information to marketers on how to effectively position a marketing strategy to target children. The findings in BRANDchild have received commendation from industry icons such as Philip Kotler, Lester Wunderman, Don Peppers, Martha Rogers and Stan Rapp.

Lindstrom (2004: 176) proposes the following prevalent differences (which are discussed below) when promoting goods to tweens compared to adults: The 24/7 brand, Fish Streaming, and Tween-Speak

2.3.3.1. The 24/7 Brand

Marketers believe that traditional advertising mediums are obsolete when targeting the tween market (See Section 2.2.1.2). With the expansive nature of technology, exacerbated by the saturation of media in societal life, tweens no longer expect to be informed by traditional mediums (Janoshka, 2004: 17). Lindstrom (2004: 17) states that, *"If your brand truly wants to survive with today's tweens it will need to focus its operations around the life of tweens – not traditional business routines"*.

Tweens have grown up in the information age; they are familiar with the use of modern technologies such as chat sites, e-mails and social networks. In accordance, it has been established that media literacy with regard to advertisements is evident in children from the age of seven (Buckingham, *et al.*, 2005: 17) which is the start of the tween segment. With this in mind, Lindstrom (2004: 176) concluded that for a brand targeting tweens to be successful, it must operate at similar times to when tweens are active; *"So first and foremost, operating hours need to change to accommodate the audience. And this is an audience that expects its brands to be available 24/7"* (Lindstrom, 2004: 176).

2.3.3.2. Fish Streaming

Fish Streaming is a concept described by Lindstrom (2004: 176) as the process of using groups of children as brand ambassadors to drive demand. A brand ambassador is defined as an individual who is recruited to be act as a representative of an organisation through whom marketing messages can be channelled (Davidson and Rogers, 2006: 137).

Andersen, *et al.* (2007: 341) believe that the movement into the information age of marketing has resulting in children developing brand awareness at an expedited rate. Andersen, *et al.* (2007: 341) use the acronym “*KGOY*” to describe the manner in which ‘Kids Grow Old Younger’ and become brand connoisseurs at a younger age. Tweens are regarded as the most brand conscious generation of children to date; “*Brands determine who they are at home, at school and in society. Children as young as seven can identify brands that would enhance their street credibility*” (Roper and Shah, 2007: 713).

Lindstrom (2004: 197) found that for a tween brand to be successful, marketers need to target a diverse group of psychographic segments instead of targeting a single tween market. This was empirically proven in the BRANDchild study, which found that 25% of tweens communicate with other tweens beyond their geographic borders at least once a week (Lindstrom and Seybold, 2003: 30) exacerbating the need for brand ambassadors from varying psychographic backgrounds. The effect of peer endorsement of a brand is discussed in Chapter 4.

2.3.3.3. Tween Speak:

Tween-Speak refers to the new ‘language’ which tweens use to communicate. Due to the increased appearance of interactive communication devices such as mobile phones, computer games and the internet, conventional grammar and sentence structure has been replaced with acronyms, icons, illustrations and phrases; “*kids are prepared to learn a totally new language to survive in a totally new world*” (Lindstrom, 2004: 178). Acronyms originally reserved for online chats or text messages are being adopted into conventional conversation.

As a result, Lindstrom (2004: 178) believes that in order to effectively position an organisation to target tweens, marketers need to be aware of this new language.

2.4. Conclusion

By demonstrating how advertising is an important component of the promotional element of an organisations marketing mix, this chapter showed how an organisation could utilize dynamic advertising channels to either drive institutional advertising (to grow the product category) or product advertising (to grow demand for an individual brand within the product category).

This chapter illustrated that there is still no consensus on the manner in which advertising affects children as consumers. On one hand, some researchers believe that advertising goods to children is inherently unfair as they have not developed cognitive defences to counteract the commercial nature of the advertisement, and are not autonomous decision makers. On the other hand,

however, advocates of consumer socialisation believe that advertisements are purposive as they assist the child in developing key skills and knowledge which will assist them in a capitalistic society.

The following chapter builds upon tweens' lack of cognitive defences and describes the prevalent cognition theories and how they affect tweens' consumer behaviour.

Chapter 3: Development of Cognition in Children

3.1. Introduction

This chapter expands on the previous chapter regarding the marketing of goods exclusively towards the tween market by providing an overview of the prevalent cognition theories, tween's cognizance of advertisement and the manner in which they affect tween's consumer behaviour.

The chapter begins by discussing the two prevalent cognition theories; namely Piaget's Hierarchy of Cognitive Development (Piaget, 1960: 135) and Roedder's Information Processing Theory (Roedder, 1981: 145). The chapter culminates by providing a brief overview of advertising literacy and the manner in which it affects tween's propensity to consume.

Piaget (1960: 135) separated the development of children into a 4 step hierarchical process in which children develop knowledge in the same order but at differing rates (Swan and Hendrix, 1991: 3) and according to anterior knowledge (Blake, 2008: 59). The four phases of development described by Piaget (1960: 135) are the sensory motor stage (younger than 2 years old), preoperational stage (2-7 years old), concrete operational (7-11 years old), and formal operational (older than 11 years old).

Roedder's Information Processing Theory was an elaboration on Piaget's work, and accounted for the reason why children have different processing capabilities at different ages (Lawlor and Prothero, 2003: 416). Like Piaget, Roedder (1981: 145) believed that children develop in a hierarchical manner; she hypothesised that differences in cognitive development can be rationalised by assessing the manner in which children convert information from their short term memory to long term memory and consequently make future abstract connections. Roedder described three phases of information processing as limited processors (younger than 8 years old), cued processors (8-12 years old) and strategic processors (older than 12 years old). The information processing theory of cognitive development postulated that as children become strategic processors they become adept at converting short term memory into long term memory and are consequently able to infer more information from a message, whereas younger children may only be able to discern elementary themes (Costly, 1986: 18).

These cognition theories allowed theorists to assess the manner in which tween's propensity to consume is affected by their comprehension of the functional purpose of advertisements. Priya, Baisya and Sharma (2010: 154) assert that in order to determine the degree to which children comprehend advertisements, four core components of "*advertising literacy*" must be determined; namely, the degree to which tween's can differentiate advertising from regular television, whether

or not they perceive the capitalistic selling intent of the advertisement, the persuasive nature of advertisements, and that advertisements are generally biased towards the product being promoted (O'Sullivan, 2005: 374; Moore and Lutz, 2000: 32; Macklin and Carlson, 1999: 6).

3.2. Cognition Theories

The age at which children develop the cognitive capability to understand advertisements has been a common debate among researchers. The most well-known theory regarding the development of tweens' cognition is the Piagetian Hierarchy of Cognitive Development (John, 1999: 184).

Early research (circa 1970) adhered to the Piagetian hierarchy of cognitive development (Valkenburg, 2000: 52) to document the comprehension of advertisements by children; Jean Piaget documented the cognitive development of children and segregated them into 4 formal classifications, namely sensorimotor (birth until 2 years old), preoperational (2 years old until 7 years old), concrete operational (7 years old until 11 years old) and formal operational (11 years and older) (Santrock, 2008: 221-223). During different stages, children's comprehension and interaction with the world develop in a hierarchical manner.

However, researchers such as Roedder (1981: 144) believed that the Piagetian hierarchy of cognitive development was too elementary when gauging children's comprehension of advertisements, as it did not provide reasons why children lack the capacity to process information. Roedder (1981: 144) found that some children in the formal operations stage (older than 11) had the capability to think abstractly about ideas without using all information contained in a stimulus whereas younger children (such as the concrete operational stage) lacked the ability to make conceptual connections. Consequently, Roedder (1981: 145) suggested that information processing capability of the tween plays a more important role than simply age. Moore (2000: 32) is in accordance with Roedder, and states that *"as children mature, they gradually develop more sophisticated information-processing skills, as well as the ability to direct or control their learning"*

In order to digress how children's cognition evolves, both the Piagetian Hierarchy of Cognitive Development and the Information Processing theory, which were identified as the most pertinent cognition theories are discussed below.

3.2.1. Piaget's Hierarchy of Cognitive Development

Piaget's theory of cognitive development postulates that children are active seekers of knowledge, and as a result, they develop in a hierarchical manner. Blake (2008: 59) states that Piagetian theory is based on the belief that children process information by relating it with anterior knowledge or experiences. Consequently, as they mature (and subsequently have more prior knowledge to draw

upon) their cognitive capabilities increase accordingly. Piagetian theory supposes that all individuals develop cognitive abilities in the same order but at differing rates (Swan and Hendrix (1991: 3); Piaget hypothesized that there are four stages which a child passes through before gaining sufficient cognitive capability to be considered an adult; these stages are described in *Figure 3.1*:

Figure 3.1: Piaget's Hierarchy of Cognitive Development



(Piaget, 1960: 135-136).

3.2.1.1. Sensorimotor Stage

The Sensorimotor stage of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development refers to children from birth until approximately 2 years old (Santrock, 2008: 221). During this stage, children act instinctively rather than from knowledge of the stimuli. Children in the sensorimotor stage (also referred to as infants) tend to learn using their 5 senses (Blake and Pope, 2008: 60). Traill (2006: 80) describes constituents of the sensorimotor stage as individuals who lack schemata (internal symbols) and consequently lack an understanding of the permanence of objects. The responses of children in the sensorimotor stage of cognitive development are physiological in nature as they tend to be in the 'pre-attention' level of involvement (Costley, 1986: 19), consequently, due to their lack of cognitive functioning and inability to hold a permanent view on a product there has been little research conducted involving the effects of advertising on children in the sensorimotor stage.

Children in the sensorimotor stage are not considered tweens, as the tween bracket only extends from the ages of approximately 8 to 14 (Lindstrom, 2004: 175).

3.2.1.2. Preoperational Stage

The preoperational stage of cognitive development follows the sensorimotor stage, and is comprised of children aged approximately between 2 and 7 years old (John, 1999: 184).

Young children in the preoperational stage of cognitive development are considered to be egocentrically orientated (Blake and Pope, 2008: 60); during this stage, they can only acknowledge their personal opinion and do not have the cognitive ability to coordinate their opinions with others. Preoperational children lack the ability to be aware of the perspective of external agents and consequently see advertisements as an informational broadcast (O'Sullivan, 2005: 375).

During the preoperational stage children begin to develop language (Blake and Pope, 2008: 60); however, they are still "*perceptually bound*" to stimuli which is readily observable to them (John,

1999: 184). In accordance with the idea that preoperational children are perceptually bound, children in the preoperational stage differentiate commercials perceptually rather than conceptually (Costly, 1986: 19). By virtue of this, children in the preoperational stage focus on salient features rather than from cognitive reasoning; this process is known as 'centration' (Calvert and Wilson, 2011: 270). An example on how centration affects advertisement is the manner in which preoperational children perceive items; Singer and Singer (2001: 211) found that children perceive less danger in a picture of something which is dangerous but looks harmless, than a picture of something harmless but looks threatening. In some cases, preoperational children are able to discern the difference between an advertisement and the regular program because of a visual change of image (perceptually) but they may not make the abstract connection between the product and the commercial itself (Costly, 1986: 19).

By the age of 7 children are technically not yet tweens (as defined by Lindstrom, 2004: 175; Anderson, *et al.* 2007: 31; Hulan, 2007: 31).

3.2.1.3. Concrete Operations Stage

The third stage in Piaget's Hierarchy of Cognitive Development is the concrete operations stage which is comprised of children aged from 7 years old to children 11 years old (Blake and Pope, 2008: 60).

Moore and Lutz (2000: 44) state that in the concrete operations stage children's cogitation becomes multi-dimensional, involves both concrete and abstract representations, and becomes more relative and less absolute in nature. During the concrete operations stage, children development conceptual knowledge which facilitates their cognition of messages (Costly, 1986: 19). Because of this, some constituents of the concrete operational stage are able to discern the persuasive intent of advertisements (O'Sullivan, 2005: 375). This is in conformity with John (1999: 185) who states, "*The concrete operational child can consider several dimensions of a stimulus at a time and relate the dimensions in a thoughtful and relatively abstract way.*" Children in the concrete operational stage of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development have more processing capability than that of the preoperational stage, and as a result abstract messages in commercials can be stored in memory resulting in better recall of commercials (Costley, 1986: 19).

Valkenburg (2000: 52) states that as consumers become aware of the deceptive and persuasive nature of advertisement, their preference for the advertised product diminishes. Consequently, children in the concrete operations stage begin to exhibit adverse responses towards advertised products which they believe are deceitful.

3.2.1.4. Formal Operations Stage

The final stage of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development is the formal operations stage, which is comprised of children older than 11.

Swan and Hendrix (1991: 12) state that the formal operations stage is characterised by the ability of the child to make connections based on both abstract thought, perceptive thought, as well as on the real level. Consequently, members of the formal operations stage progress to a more 'adult-like' thought pattern. John (1999: 185) describes tweens in the formal operation stage as being "*capable of even more complex thought about concrete and hypothetical objects and situations.*"

During the formal operations stage, there is still a certain degree of "*lingering egocentrism*" (Blake and Pope, 2008: 60). However, Costly (1986: 20) found that an important development during the formal operations stage was children's ability to make self-relevant comparisons utilising both personal knowledge as well as vicarious knowledge. Consequently, children in the formal operations stage understand the motives of advertisers which results in growing cynicism in advertisements (Calvert, 2008: 215). The ability of children in the formal operation stage to think vicariously acts as a cognitive defence against advertising (Costly, 1986: 20); this is discussed in *Section 4.3.1*.

The manner in which children in the formal operations stage process information is described as being "*Hypothetico-Deductive*" in nature (Swan and Hendrix, 1991: 12; Haley and Good, 1976: 408). Hypothetico-deductive refers to the individual's ability to postulate various hypotheses which may or may not be valid, and envisage what may happen if they were valid (Swan and Hendrix, 1991: 12). In accordance, Haley and Good (1976: 408) found that members of the formal operations stage first visualise possible solutions to a problem and subsequently test them systematically through experimentation and logical analysis.

Costly (1986: 20) found that as children progressed through the stages of Piaget's Hierarchy of Cognitive Development, they would begin to base their attitudes on the content of the message rather than the perceptual characteristics of the communication. During the Formal operations stage the perceptual dependence evident in earlier stages (John, 1999: 184) is replaced by more complex semantic processing (Costly, 1986: 20).

3.2.1.5. Comparison of the Four Stages of Cognitive Development

Piaget's Hierarchy of Cognitive Development is summarised in the following table:

Stage	Age (years)	Description
Sensorimotor	0 – 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflex Based Actions (Presnell, 1999: 2). • Lack Schemata and do not understand the permanence of objects resulting in poor advertisement recall (Traill, 2006: 80).
Preoperational	2 – 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Egocentrically Orientated (Blake and Pope, 2008: 60). • Only see advertisements as a source of information (O'Sullivan, 2005: 375). • Do not yet understand persuasive intent of advertisement (Preston, 2004: 366).
Concrete Operational	7 – 11	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have an elementary understanding of advertisements persuasive intent (O'Sullivan, 2005: 375). • Are able to consider multiple stimuli simultaneously in both a real and abstract manner (John, 1999: 185). • Being able to make abstract connections results in increased recall of advertisements (Costley, 1986: 19). • Begin to exhibit adverse reactions towards advertisements which they believe are deceitful (Valkenburg, 2000: 52).
Formal Operations	11 <	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adult-Like thought pattern. • Increased cynicism in advertisements (Calvert, 2008: 215). • Are able to make self-relevant comparisons utilising both personal knowledge as well as vicarious knowledge (Costly, 1986: 20). • Hypothetico-Deductive information processing (Swan and Hendrix, 1991: 12). • Movement from perceptual dependence to complex semantic processing (Costly, 1986: 20)

3.2.2. Roedder's Information Processing Theory

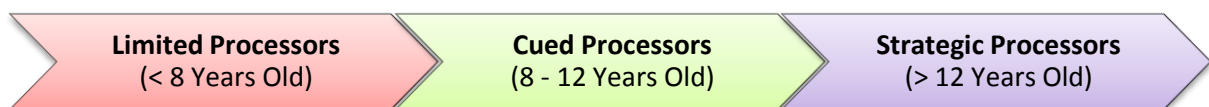
In some cases, Piaget's framework has been criticised as being too rigid and not accounting for the development of the child within different social-cultural environments (Lawlor and Prothero, 2003: 416). Although Piaget's model acknowledges that children in different stages of cognitive development have different capacities to process information, it does not explain how (or why) children have these restrictions (Roedder, 1981: 144). Consequently, Roedder (1981: 145) formulated the information processing theory approach of assessing cognitive development to address the aforementioned structural limitations.

The Information processing theory expands on Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development; it states that information derived from an advert is initially stored in short term memory (STM) which has a limited capacity. Consequently, if it is not transferred to long term memory (LTM), the information will decay and the child will not be able to use it to make future abstract connections (Roedder, 1981: 145).

Roedder (1981: 146) describes the 3 prototypical processing categories in terms of cognitive capability: (i) Limited Processors, (ii) Cued Processors and (iii) Strategic Processors. The information processing theory of cognitive development implies that more efficient processors (strategic processors) are able to infer all information contained in a message whereas less efficient processors (Limited and Cued Processors) are only able to discern elementary themes (Costly, 1986: 18).

The three stages of Roedder's Information processing theory are illustrated in *Figure 3.2*, and discussed respectively.

Figure 3.2: Roedder's Information Processing Theory



Roedder (1981: 145).

3.2.2.1. *Limited Processors*

Limited processors refer to children younger than 8 years old (Lawlor and Prothero, 2002: 485). Roedder (1981: 145) describes limited processors as children with mediational deficiencies who lack the capability to utilise storage or retrieval techniques even when prompted to do so.

Children in the limited processors category have not developed efficient information processing capabilities and consequently lack the capacity to distinguish between fundamental and peripheral content of a message (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 32). Limited Processors also do not have the capability

to utilize effective storage and retrieval strategies to convert STM to LTM and consequently rely more heavily on STM (Lawlor and Prothero, 2002: 485). Consequently, they are rarely able to make abstract connections and have a lack of understanding with regard to advertising intent. Preston (2004: 366) states that at approximately 7 years old children begin to question the objectivity of advertisements, especially with regard to the persuasive nature. By virtue of this, The American Psychological Association believes that advertising to children under the age of 8 should be restricted as they do not understand the persuasive nature of advertisements (Preston, 2004: 366). This age is in accordance with both Piaget's Hierarchy of Cognitive Development (at approximately 8 years old the child enters the concrete operations stage), as well as Roedder's Information Processing approach (the child enters the cued processors approach to formal thinking at approximately 8 years old) (Blake and Pope, 2008: 60; Roedder, 1981 :145).

3.2.2.2. Cued Processors

Cued Processors are children aged between 8 and 12 years old (Lawlor and Prothero, 2002: 485). Cued Processors are children who have the cognitive capability to utilise storage and retrieval techniques, but only when prompted to do so (Roedder, 1981: 145).

As mentioned in *Section 3.2.2.*, the Information Processing approach of assessing cognition amongst children is based on the child's ability to convert short term memory (STM) into long term memory (LTM) and consequently make abstract connections (Roedder, 1981: 145). There are 2 possible reasons why children may lack the cognitive ability to transfer memory from STM to LTM;

1. Production deficiencies exist when children have the ability to utilise storage and retrieval strategies but only when they are prompted to do so by an external stimuli.
2. Mediational deficiencies occur when the child can follow instructions to use storage and retrieval strategies yet it does not enhance their ability to remember (Roedder, 1981: 146).

John (1999: 185) states that although cued processors have a rudimentary understanding of advertising, their ability to retrieve and utilize this knowledge is still emerging. Unless their advertising knowledge is explicitly activated by an external cue, they may neglect to exercise critical thinking or employ cognitive defences against the persuasive nature of the advertisement (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 32). As a result, "*cued processors exhibit production deficiencies, referring to the fact that they have the ability to use processing strategies but do not spontaneously produce these strategies when needed*" (John, 1999: 185).

Moore and Lutz (2000: 32) also state that cued processors may overlook the difference between the peripheral and central content of an advertisement; however, if there is an applicable prompt they

are likely to utilise relevant information. Consequently, it has been found that cued processors benefit significantly from 'Aided Learning' whereby processing efficiency is enhanced through the use of cues which provide strategic processing suggestions (Roedder, 1981: 147).

3.2.2.3. Strategic Processors

Strategic Processors are children older than [approximately] 12 years old who possess a knowledge of persuasion, the skills to make abstract connections and the ability to retrieve and use this knowledge (An and Stern, 2011: 44).

Children within the strategic processing stage of information processing are fully autonomous and are able to utilise strategic strategies to transfer information from STM to LTM and utilise retrieval techniques to make abstract connections (Lawlor and Prothero, 2002: 485, Moore and Lutz, 2000:32). John (1999, 185) states that strategic processors use an array of strategies to store and retrieve information. These strategies include (but are not limited to) verbal labelling, use of retrieval cues, and rehearsal to assist in retention.

When initially describing strategic processors, Roedder (1981: 145) stated that because strategic processors act autonomously, they do not require special regulatory consideration. This is in accordance with the 'Central Incidental Paradigm' which implies that until the child becomes a strategic processor, children are unable to overlook periphery content of messages and consequently may not focus on the core content (Roedder, 1981: 145). For example, unless there is a specific prompt cued processor may focus on the music or visual in an advertisement rather than the product being advertised, the price of the product or any other core element of the advertisement – strategic processors on the other hand would not require the prompt in order to focus on the core component of the advertisement (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 32) which results in greater recall of the core element of the message (Roedder, 1981: 146).

3.2.2.4. Comparison of Roedder's 3 Stages of Information Processing

Roedder's stages of information processing is summarised in the following table:

Stage	Age (years)	Description
Limited Processors	< 8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack the capacity to distinguish between fundamental and peripheral content of a message (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 32). • Do not have the capability to utilize effective storage and retrieval strategies to convert STM to LTM (Lawlor and Prothero, 2002: 485). • Rely more heavily on STM (Lawlor and Prothero, 2002: 485). • Advertisement targeting Limited Processors should be monitored/restricted (Preston, 2004: 366).
Cued Processors	8 – 12	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have the cognitive capability to utilise storage and retrieval techniques, but only when prompted to do so (Roedder, 1981: 145). • Demonstrate production deficiencies (John, 1999: 185). • May overlook the difference between the peripheral and central content of an advertisement (Moore and Lutz (2000: 32). • Benefit from 'Aided Learning' (Roedder, 1981: 147).
Strategic Processors	12 <	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fully autonomous and are able to utilise strategic strategies to transfer information from STM to LTM (Lawlor and Prothero, 2002: 485). • Utilise retrieval techniques to make abstract connections (Moore and Lutz, 2000:32). • Greater retention of advertisement due to the ability to focus on the core element of the advertisement and focus out periphery content (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 32; Roedder, 1981: 145) • Do not require regulatory consideration (Roedder, 1981: 145.)

(Table adapted from Roedder, 1981: 145)

3.3. Advertising Literacy

Macklin and Carlson (1999: 3) raise the argument that advertising to tweens is inherently “*unfair*” as they lack the cognitive processing to understand the intent of the advertisement. In accordance, Carter (2011: 962) states that children only begin developing cognitive defences against the persuasive nature of advertisements from about 8 years old. This is in union with the information processing model (See Section 3.2.2) which stipulates that tweens are either limited or cued processors and subsequently lack the cognitive capacity to transfer information from short term memory to long term memory without specific prompts (Lawlor and Prothero, 2002: 485; John, 1999: 185; Roedder, 1981: 145).

The common consensus among researchers is that in order to accurately measure the degree to which a child understands the commercial nature of advertisements, four core components of “*advertising literacy*” must be addressed (Priya, Baisya and Sharma, 2010: 154). These four core components of advertising are:

1. The degree to which tweens can differentiate advertisements from regular television (Macklin and Carlson, 1999: 6).
2. Whether or not tweens understand that advertisements have a capitalistic selling intent (O’Sullivan, 2005: 374).
3. Understanding the persuasive nature of advertisements (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 32).
4. Understanding that advertisements are intrinsically biased towards the product being advertised.

3.3.1. Tweens’ Ability to Differentiate Advertisements from Regular Television

Evidence suggests that children in the United States aged between 6- 14 years old watched on average 25 hours of television per week and were subjected to circa 20,000 commercials in a single year (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 31). O’Sullivan (2005: 371) believes that consumers develop lifelong preferences during childhood, “*making the early teens a crucial battleground for brand loyalty*”.

When assessing children’s cognition of advertisements, determining whether the child has the ability to differentiate television from regular television or not is important. Children who are able to differentiate advertisements from regular television are also able to utilise cognitive defences against the persuasive nature of the advertisement (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 32). Children’s ability to discern the difference between programs and advertisements varies from study to study (Moses and Baldwin, 2005: 191); some studies state that only older children (tweens) have the ability to discern the distinction (Gunter, Oates, and Blades, 2005: 34; Lawlor and Prothero, 2003: 413), whereas

others state that even preschool children should possess the ability to differentiate an advertisement from a regular television program provided they have an elementary knowledge of consumer socialisation (O' Sullivan, 2005: 371). This is in conformity with Moses and Baldwin (2005: 191) who state that even infants have the capability to make perceptual discriminations.

The varying results of these studies can be explained by considering the following factors:

- The similarity in form between the genre of the program and the advertisement (Moses and Baldwin, 2005: 191).
- The research methodology used in determining the distinction; i.e. Verbal, Non-Verbal or Observational (Lawlor and Prothero, 2003: 413).
- The subtlety of the persuasive component of the advertisement (Calvert, 2008: 206; Moses and Baldwin, 2005: 191).
- The absence of a separator¹ between the advertisement and the program (Macklin and Carlson, 1999: 6).

Macklin and Carlson (1999: 5) determined that as children move through their preschool years, they develop more insight into commercials, and learn to discern advertisements from television programs. Consequently, as children enter the concrete operational or cued processor stage (become a tween) they gain the cognitive ability to identify the difference between regular television and advertisements (Macklin and Carlson, 1999: 6). Calvert and Wilson (2011: 270) believe that even though children may understand the difference between regular television and advertisements, they may not understand the functional purpose of the advertisement as a persuasive selling instrument. Carter, Patterson, Donovan, Ewing and Roberts (2011: 963) found that from the age of approximately 6 children gain the ability to discern an advertisement from a regular television program; however, they may not know the perceived function of the advertisement. Carter, *et al.* (2011: 963) found that the perceived function of an advertisement could be broken down into 3 different categories:

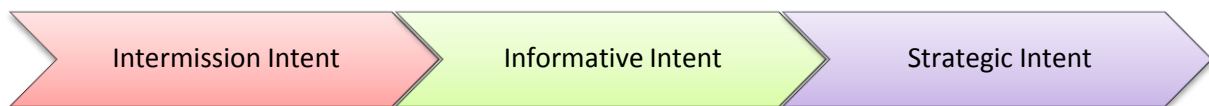
1. **Intermission Intent:** During the first stage of differentiating advertisements from programmes, young children (pre-tween) believe that the functional purpose of advertisements was to provide an interval (Carter, *et al.*, 2011: 963; Lawlor and Prothero, 2002: 487). When asked to describe why there were advertisements, younger children responded with statements like “so you can go to the toilet”, “get something to eat” or “to give the actors a rest” (Carter, *et al.*, 2011: 963).

¹ A separator is defined by Macklin and Carlson (1999: 6) as a perceptual stimulus which tells the audience that there will be an advertisement; for example, “we will be back after this short commercial break”.

2. **Informative intent:** This category of children (circa 8 years old) understands that there is a selling intent behind the advertisement. However, they view advertisements as a trust worthy (and non-biased) form of information (Carter, *et al.*, 2011: 963). They believe the sole function of advertisement is to provide information regarding availability and specifications of the product/service. Consequently, although they have an elementary understanding of the commercial component behind the advertisement, they do not have an understanding of the inherent persuasive or bias nature.
3. **Strategic Intent:** The third function of advertising is the strategic intent. Children who have the capability to identify the strategic purpose of advertisement generally exhibit adverse reactions and scepticism towards advertisements as they are able to identify the advertiser's deception and the inherent bias evident in the advertisement (Calvert, 2008: 215).

Tweens ability to differentiate television from regular television is thus summarised by *Figure 3.3*.

Figure 3.3: Perceived Function of Advertising Intent



(Carter, *et al.* 2011: 963)

3.3.2. Selling Intent

The predominant intention of advertisements is to provoke consumers to purchase a product; by emphasizing benefits to the consumer, the advertiser believes that the likelihood of consumers purchasing their product increases (Moses and Baldwin, 2005: 187).

The selling intent of advertisements is considered an ethical dilemma when promoting goods to tweens, as children are viewed as *“less experienced and more impressionable than adults”* (O’Sullivan, 2005: 374). Until children gain consumer socialisation, televised advertisements have an exacerbated effect over print advertising, packaging and labels (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 31) with the consensus being that *“the impact of the television commercials on [children’s] preference for advertised products has been proved beyond doubt”* (Priya, *et al.*, 2010: 154).

An empirical experiment was conducted in order to determine whether children understood the selling intent of advertisements which was documented by O’Sullivan (2005: 375). The experiment involved a television advertisement for a face cream which had an edited ending. The original advertisement showed how the cream made you beautiful whereas the alternative ending showed that the cream gave you impressive (but unsightly) spots. It was found that children under 8 (pre-tween) identified that *“something was wrong”* with the alternative ending, but only older children

identified that the product would not sell well (O'Sullivan, 2005: 375). This showed that children circa 8 years old either do not understand the selling intent of advertisements, or lacked verbal articulation skills necessary to describe a relatively sophisticated concept such as advertisement (Carter, 2011: 963).

The findings by O'Sullivan (2005: 375) are in conformity with recommendations by the American Psychological Association who recommend that no advertising should be directed towards children younger than 8 years old (Wilcox Kunkel, Cantor, Dowrick, Linn and Palmer, 2004: 41).

Once children understand the selling intent of advertisements the next phase which concerns marketers is whether or not children understand the persuasive nature of advertisements. Gunter, *et al.* (2008: 100) state that "*Knowledge of selling intent may not be enough to impart resistance to persuasive appeals*"; consequently, in some cases, children who are aware of the advertiser's selling intent still desire products which are advertised with an attractive message (Carter, 2011: 963).

3.3.3. Persuasive Nature of Advertisements

Children's comprehension of the persuasive nature of advertisements has been described by researchers as a developmental milestone for both marketers as well as policymakers (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 32).

Empirical research conducted by Priya *et al.* (2010: 153) found that as children develop their understanding of advertisements persuasive nature changes. Priya, *et al.* (2010: 153) found that a total of 25% of their respondents aged 8 years old were able to identify that advertising had a persuasive nature compared with 36% of children aged 10 years old. This is in conformity with Carter, *et al.* (2011: 963) who found that children aged approximately 7 – 8 had an elementary knowledge of advertisements selling intent but lacked the knowledge of the persuasive nature of advertisements. Carter, *et al.* (2011: 963) concluded that there was a developmental progression from understanding the selling intent to understanding the persuasive nature.

It is believed that children are more susceptible to advertisements until they are aware of the inherent persuasive nature; the ability to discern persuasive intent requires one to view advertising from the advertiser's perspective (John, 1999: 186). Children may become confused if an advertisement provides information which differs from their personal experience which may result in trust in advertising being undermined (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 32). Only once children have experienced this confusion they look at advertisements sceptically and become more capable of resisting the advertisements appeal. Consequently, researchers believe that "*Persuasive intent,*

rather than selling intent, is the critical factor signifying children’s capacity for cognitive defence” (Carter, et al., 2011: 963).

The Persuasion Knowledge Model (depicted in Figure 3.4) can be used to describe the nature of children’s responses to the persuasive nature of advertisements (Friestad and Wright, 1994: 2).

3.3.3.1. The Persuasion Knowledge Model

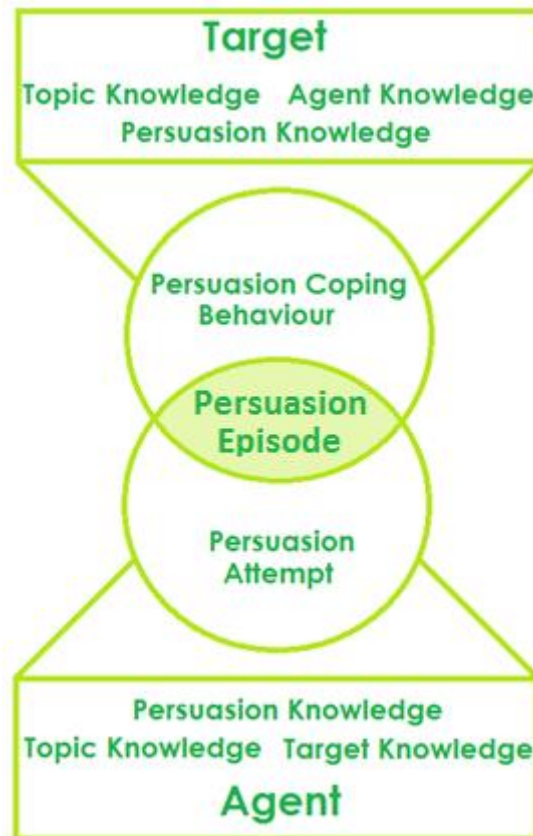
The Persuasion Knowledge Model (PKM) proposes that children evaluate and react to the persuasive influence of advertisements through personal “*persuasion knowledge*” based upon their own life experiences (Carter, et al., 2011: 963). The PKM is a model which shows that persuasion is dyadic interaction between the advertiser (persuasion agent) and child (target) in which the contestants have three types of knowledge:

Table 3.3: Persuasion Knowledge	
1. Topic knowledge	The set of beliefs which the child (target) has about the product that the agent is promoting (e.g. “ <i>This camera is obsolete</i> ” or “ <i>this brand is known for its durability</i> ”) (Kirmani and Campbell, 2009: 298)
2. Agent knowledge	The targets knowledge about the agent’s traits; These may include the agents abilities, competencies, motives and goals (Friestad and Wright, 1994: 3). Agent knowledge may include both stereotypical knowledge (e.g. “ <i>salesman are pushy</i> ”) or specific knowledge about a particular agent (e.g. “ <i>Mary knows a lot about wine and would recommend a good bottle</i> ”) (Kirmani and Campbell, 2009: 298).
3. Persuasion knowledge	Persuasion knowledge is comprised of beliefs on how the advertiser (agent) utilises tactics to persuade the child (target) to consume (Friestad and Wright, 1994: 5). Persuasion knowledge includes beliefs about the agent’s motives, strategies and tactics; the appropriateness of tactics used; psychological mediators of persuasion (such as peer endorsement); and reciprocal tactics (how the agent combats the targets persuasion coping behaviour) (Kirmani and Campbell, 2009: 298).
Table Adapted from: Kirmani and Campbell, 2009: 298; Friestad and Wright, 1994: 4	

Friestad and Wright (1994: 1) state that as a consumer develops, they formulate a personal knowledge of the persuasive intent. This knowledge helps them address how, when, and why marketers try to influence consumption; in the PKM this is referred to as the ‘Persuasion Attempt’. Once targets have the cognitive capacity to determine the reasons behind the persuasion attempt

they are able to utilise their own topic knowledge, knowledge of persuasion and knowledge of the agent to combat the persuasion attempt; this is referred to in the PKM as the target’s ‘Persuasion Coping Behaviour’. Consequently, the manner in which the persuasion episode occurs is determinant not only on the agent’s persuasive nature – but the manner in which the target perceives the agent.

Figure 3.4: The Persuasion Knowledge Model



Friestad and Wright (1994: 2)

3.3.4. Bias

Advertising is motivated by the desire to increase sales of a product; this desire invariably results in a biased or one-sided representation of information about the product (Moses, 2005: 193). Preston (2004: 364) states that *“It is a fundamental property of marketing that goods and services be promoted in a manner that is somehow found to be appealing to the intended audience”*.

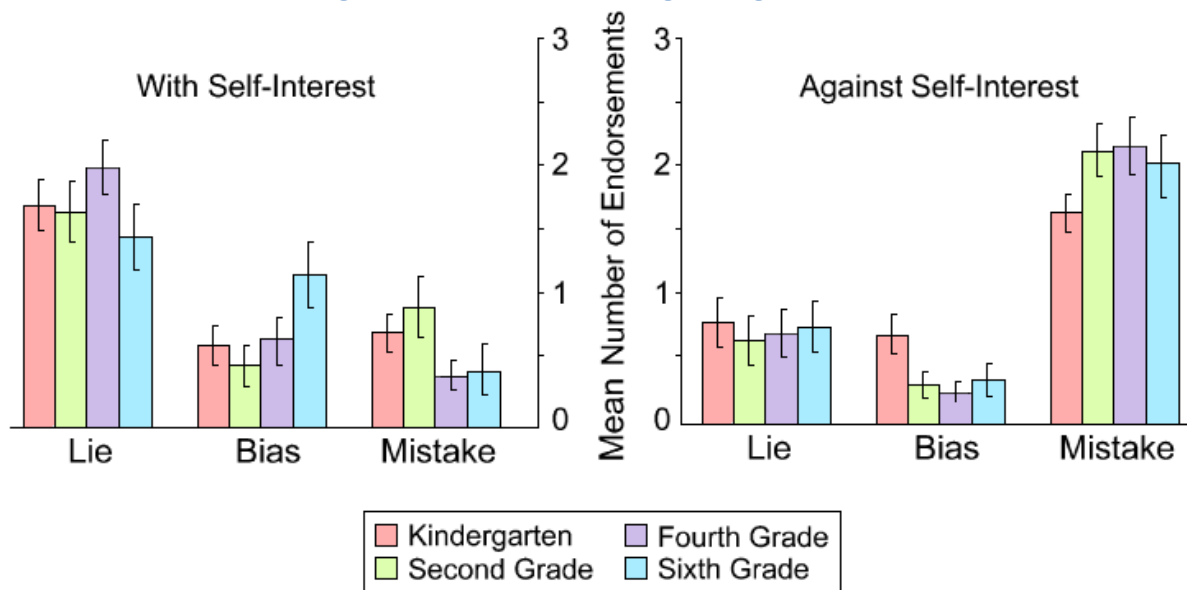
Age plays a vital role in the development of attitudinal defences to advertisements, which includes the appreciation that advertisements may be untruthful at times (Priya, *et al.*, 2010: 154). By virtue of this hypothesis, Mills and Keil (2005: 386) conducted an empirical study to determine whether children’s perception of messages was skewed by their cognizance of bias; in particular, if children have a higher probability to believe messages which promote personal gain (i.e. with self-interest) or statements which are not beneficial to the individual affording the message (i.e. without self-

interest). The study involved children from four age categories; kindergarten (5 years old), children in 2nd grade (7 years old), children in 4th grade (9 years old), and children in 6th grade (11 years old).

Children were told a story involving 2 competitors running a race who finished very closely. In one scenario (with self-interest) one competitor claims that he was first, has won the race and deserves the accolade; in the other scenario (without self-interest) the runner states that he did not win and should not be given the prize. In both scenarios the runner is mistaken. Children were then provided with 3 options as to why they thought the runner had responded the way in which he did; (i) the runner lied, (ii) the runner’s decision was a biased choice (iii) the runner made a genuine mistake. This enabled Mills and Keil (2005: 386) to evaluate if pre-tween children would recognise that a negatively biased viewer may infer ambiguous components of advertising as hostile, or if there is little difference in the manner in which children perceive ambiguous actions (Moses, 2005: 193).

The results of this experiment are graphed below:

Figure 3.5: Bias in Advertising amongst Children



(Mills and Keil, 2005: 389)

By assessing responses, Mills and Keil (2005: 389) were able to determine that children 7 years old did not have the cognizance to comprehend the potential bias when there is an element of self-interest in the message. This is in accordance with Wilcox, et al. (2004: 5) who state that in order to understand the persuasive intent of an advertisement, consumers need to be aware that the advertiser employs persuasive communication which is inherently biased, and that “*biased messages must be interpreted differently than unbiased messages*”. Moore and Lutz (2000:31) found that

“until children actually experience discrepancies between products as advertised and as consumed, they are unable fully to comprehend advertising’s persuasive intent”.

Children’s product choices are generally orientated towards enjoyment rather than utility (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 31). Until a child acknowledges the inherent bias evident in advertising, the underlying promotional intent, and recognises that advertisers have differing goals and knowledge to themselves, they will pretermite any misleading information of an advertisement and are more subjugated to the persuasive nature of the advertisement (Moses, 2005: 193; Moore and Lutz, 2000: 31).

3.4. Conclusion

This chapter disclosed the prevalent cognition theories and the manner in which they affect tweens’ comprehension of advertising.

By assessing Piaget’s hierarchy of cognitive development and Roedder’s information processing model (the prevalent cognition theories used in this study), this chapter showed the impact which cognitive development has on advertising literacy; namely the ability to differentiate advertisement from regular television, understanding the selling intent of advertisement, understanding the persuasive nature of advertisements, and understanding that the advertisement is intrinsically biased towards the product/service being promoted.

Determining the extent of advertising literacy is paramount when assessing whether there is a correlation between advertising and tweens’ propensity to consume. As discussed in *Section 2.3.1.1*, there is a social stigma when advertising to children as children lack the cognitive processing capabilities to make autonomous consumption decisions. This chapter explained the manner in which children gain cognizance, and consequently sought to elucidate whether or not the attached stigma is warranted.

The following chapter focuses on product endorsement amongst tweens, and the manner in which endorsement of an advertisement affects propensity to consume. The chapter discusses age as a modifying variable utilising theory based on Selman’s Role-Taking ability, Barenboim’s Impression formulation and Erikson’s psychosocial development.

Chapter 4: Product Endorsement amongst Tweens

4.1. Introduction

Product endorsement refers to the manner in which consumers influence consumption within reference groups. Reference groups are described as “a group of people that significantly influence an individual's behaviour” (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 463). It has been recognised by literature that reference groups have an impact on consumer behaviour; products and brands which individuals select are often determinant on the influence of reference groups (Childers and Rao, 1992: 198).

This chapter provides a brief literature outline on the effect of endorsement on tweens' propensity to consume. The chapter begins by providing a breakdown of reference groups, followed by a brief description of key cognition theories associated with endorsement amongst children; which include Selman's role-taking ability, Barenboim's impression formulation and Erikson's psychosocial development (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464). Variations of endorsement efficacy relative to different product classes are then assessed. The chapter culminates by exploring relationship marketing; this includes using tweens as brand ambassadors to drive demand amongst peers as well as influence parental consumption through “Pester Power” (Procter and Richards, 2002: 3).

4.2. Reference Group Construct:

Reference group influence was originally described by Kelley (1947) as being either comparative or normative. The following table provides a brief description of these reference groups.

Comparative	Comparative reference groups (e.g. sports heroes, celebrities) consist of referents to whom the individual may aspire towards (Pentina, Prybutok, Zhang, 2008: 116).
Normative	Normative reference groups (teachers, parents, peers) consist of referents from whom the individual gains a set of personal norms, attitudes and values (Childers and Rao, 1992: 198).

Within these reference groups, there is a sub category which is determinant on whether or not the child has physical contact with the endorser or not; proximal referents refer to influencers who the individual is in contact with (e.g. parents, teachers, peers) while socially distant referents refer to influencers who exist in a periphery sense (e.g. sports stars, celebrities).

Depending on the age of the referent, different reference groups may have an exacerbated effect on purchase influence. For children, peers and family members are “undoubtedly” the most influential

reference group followed by more distant figures such as sportsmen (Bachmann, John, Rao, 1993: 463).

The type of influence which reference groups exact on consumers can be classified as either credible, utilitarian, or value expressive (Childers and Rao, 1992: 199).

- **Informational** influence involves a perception that the endorser has a presumed expertise and is able to provide valuable information;
- **Utilitarian** influence exists when the individual is likely to comply with the referent in order to either avoid punishment or get a reward;
- **Value expressive** refers to the act of complying in order to have a psychological affiliation with the referent.

4.3. Age and Comprehension as Modifying Variables of Reference Group Influence

“Little research evidence exists on how peer groups influence children of different ages.” (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 463)

As established in Chapter 3, both Piaget (1960: 135) and Roedder (1981: 145) found that children develop the ability to process information and cognitive autonomy in a hierarchical manner. In accordance, Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 463) found that as children gain cognitive reasoning, the persuasive effect of endorsement intensifies.

Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) found that there are 3 areas of cognizance which children must exhibit before they are influenced by reference groups;

- Firstly, children must be able to think vicariously; i.e., view information from another individual’s perspective and comprehend that preferences of other people may differ to their own.
- Secondly, children must comprehend that other people infer characteristics about each other based on product choices and possessions; i.e., other individuals perceptions of them are influenced by the products they purchase.
- Finally, the aforementioned impressions must be important to the child in forming their own identity.

Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) state that *“without one of these ‘building blocks,’ reference group influence of any kind may be weak if not altogether absent.”*

To help elucidate these three concepts, the following cognitive models are discussed; Selman's Role-Taking theory of cognitive development, which states that as individuals gain the ability to think vicariously they become aware that other individuals may evaluate their purchase decisions and consequently infer periphery information about them (Selman, 1981: 463); Barenboim's impression formulation, which states that as children mature they gain the ability to infer knowledge from psychological descriptors in addition to conventional perceptual cues (Shaffer and Kipp, 2007: 500); and Erikson's psychosocial development, which describes the role which conflict resolution plays in determining children's identity (Cooper and Pervin, 1998: 67).

4.3.1. Selman's Role-Taking Ability

Wilcox, *et al.* (2004: 7) stated that role-taking is a progressively developed skill, which is in accordance with Selman's theory of role-taking. Selman (1971: 1722) describes role-taking as "*the ability to differentiate another's view from one's own*", which is in concord with Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 463) who state that role-taking involves the cognitive ability to understand other individual's thoughts and feelings, and consequently predict the other individual's response versus their own.

Selman (1981: 403) identified 5 developmental stages of cognitive development with regard to role-taking ability; these 5 stages are described in the figure below.



(Selman, 1981: 403)

The first stage of Selman's model of role-taking ability is referred to as the egocentric stage and occurs until the child is approximately 6 years old (Selman, 1981: 402). During this stage, the child is unaware of any other perspective other than their own (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464).

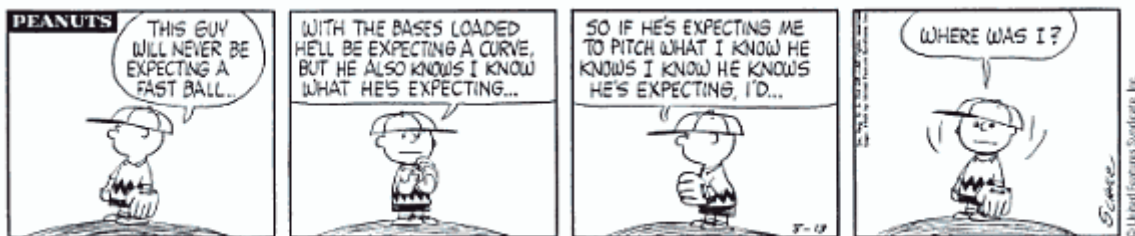
The second developmental phase is referred to as social-informational role-taking and occurs when children are between approximately 6 to 8 years old. During this stage, children may realize that people have different perceptions from their own. However, they have trouble predicting what the differences may be (Shaffer, 2009: 201).

The third stage occurs when the child is between approximately 8 to 10 years old and is referred to as self-reflective role-taking. During self-reflective role-taking, the child can perceive and deliberate another individual's perspective; however, the child is not capable of considering both the perspective of the other person and their own perspective simultaneously (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464).

The fourth stage in Selman's role-taking model occurs when children are between roughly 10 and 12 years old and is referred to as mutual role-taking (Selman, 1981: 403). During mutual role-taking, the child gains three key developmental processes which aid in role-taking. Firstly, the child is able to consider both their own perspective and another individual's perspective simultaneously. Secondly, the child recognises that the other party involved can do the same. Thirdly, the child is able to assume the perspective of a disinterested arbitrator to predict how each party involved would react to the perception of the other individual (Shaffer, 2009: 201).

The final stage, social and conventional role-taking, occurs when the child is older than approximately 12 years old. Social and conventional role-taking encompasses all key concepts evident in mutual role-taking as well as incorporating situational context (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464). The following figure shows how mutual role taking affects an individual's behaviour.

Figure 4.2: Cartoon Depicting Mutual Role Taking Ability



(Appeared in: Shaffer, 2009: 201)

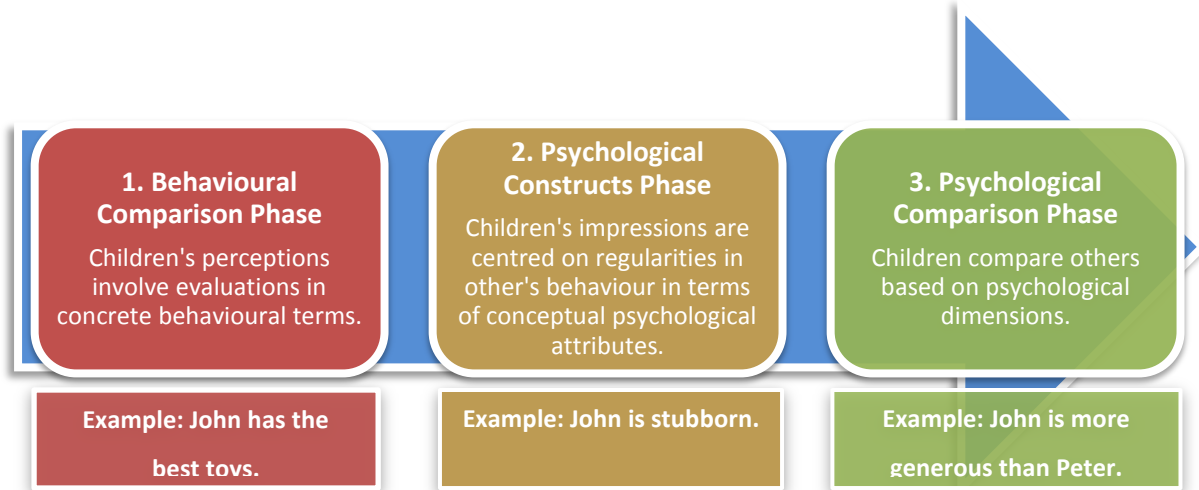
Consequently, Selman's hierarchy can be utilised to determine the extent to which children have the cognizance to think vicariously, which covers the first "building block" of reference group influence as described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) above.

4.3.2. Barenboim's Impression Formulation

The second 'building block' to consider when assessing the effect which reference group influence has on propensity to consume, is whether the child has knowledge that people infer characteristics about each other based on impressions (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464). These impressions may include which products the individual purchases and utilizes.

Barenboim formulated a 3 stage developmental sequence which illustrated the changes in children’s impressions of others. The three stages of Barenboim’s Impressions formulations are described relative to the developmental process in which they occur in *Figure 4.3* (below).

Figure 4.3: Stages of Barenboim’s Impression Formulation

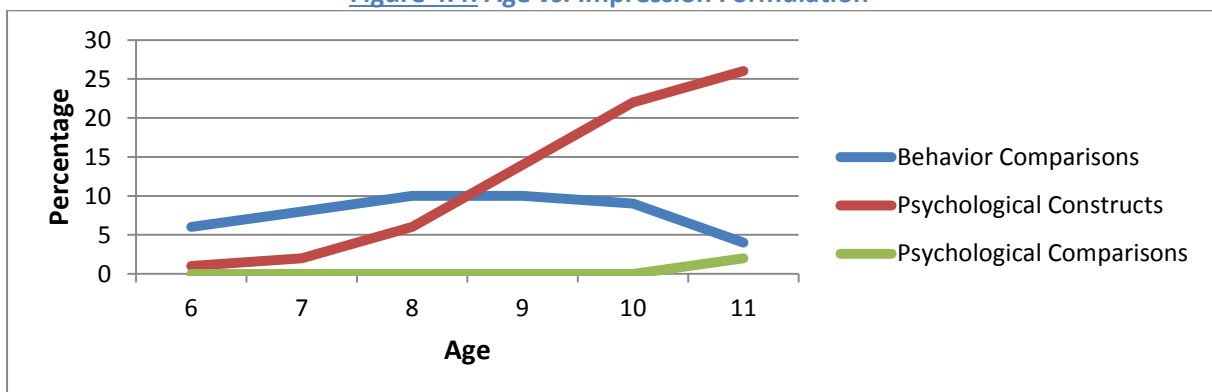


(Adapted From: Barenboim, 1981: 130)

As children mature, they rely less on palpable attributes and more on psychological descriptors to characterise their friends/acquaintances (Shaffer and Kipp, 2007: 500). This is in accordance with Roper and Shah (2007: 714) who state “*young children relate to brands on a perceptual basis, whereas older children relate to brands on a conceptual basis.*”

Barenboim (1981: 132) conducted research to determine the age at which children make associations based on the three phases identified in *Figure 4.3* (above). The findings are illustrated in *Figure 4.4* (below).

Figure 4.4: Age vs. Impression Formulation



(Adapted from: Barenboim, 1981: 134)

Barenboim found that by 7 years old, children were capable of making psychological constructs. However, until the age of approximately 11 years old, children were unable to make psychological comparisons. Barenboim also found that as children use psychological descriptors to infer information about peers, the use of behaviour comparisons diminishes. Consequently, according to Barenboim's (1981: 134) model, children older than 7 should be able to infer that people formulate characteristics about each other based on product choices and possessions. Thus, children older than approximately 7 years old comprehend that other individuals perceptions of them are influenced by the products which they purchase. This facilitates the 2nd 'building block' described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464).

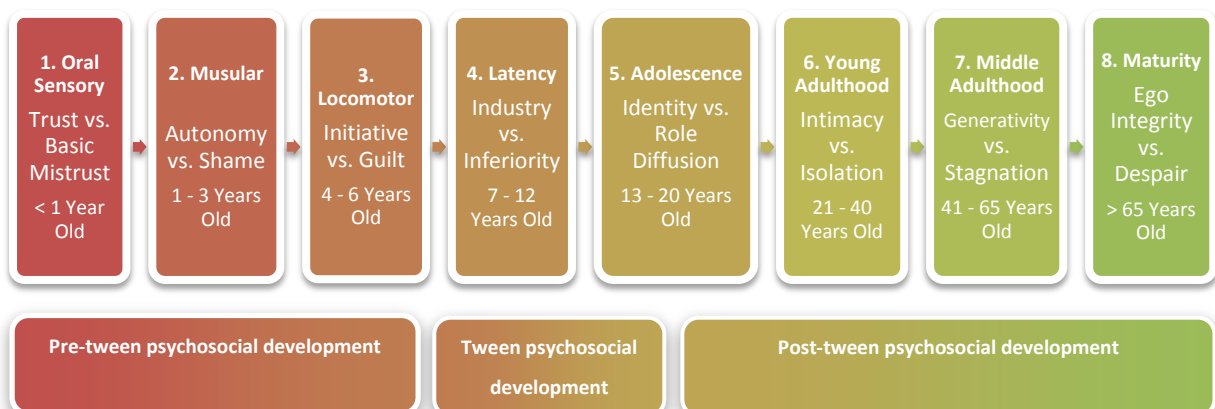
4.3.3. Erikson Psychosocial Development

The final "building block" of reference group influence, as described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464), is that the aforementioned impressions must be important to the child when forming their identity.

To elucidate this, Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) propose Erikson's model for psychosocial development. Erikson (in Cooper and Pervin, 1998: 67) believed that humans are adaptive beings who progress through 8 phases of social conflict in their psychosocial lifetime. During these conflicts, the individual is faced with two choices on how to cope with the conflict, an adaptive or a maladaptive choice (Schultz and Schultz, 2005: 223). Erikson stated that the individual could only progress to the next phase of development once the conflict had been resolved, which involved a change in the individuals disposition (Schultz and Schultz, 2005: 223).

Erikson's 8 stages of psychosocial development and their inherent conflicts are shown in *Figure 4.5*:

Figure 4.5: Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development



(Adapted from: Cooper and Pervin, 1998: 67 – 76)

Of these phases, two stages of psychosocial confliction (industry versus inferiority, and identity versus role diffusion) occur during the period when children are considered tweens; one stage (initiative versus guilt) may also impact tweens who mature at a younger age.

The primary social agents involved in resolving the conflict is dependent on the stage which the individual is in (Cooper and Pervin, 1998: 72). The three phases which occur concurrently with the definition of a tween (as described by Lindstrom, 2004: 175) are discussed in *Table 4.2* (below).

Table 4.2: Stages of Erikson’s Psychosocial Development Which are Applicable to Tweens			
Phase	Conflict	Age	Description
3	Locomotor	Initiative versus Guilt 4 – 7 years old	Children in the Locomotor stage are eager for responsibility. However, in this stage, they believe that what they do is always wrong, unless it is verified by a parent or guardian. Consequently, a degree of ‘hero worshipping’ of parents occurs resulting in parents exerting augmented influence and being the sole conflict resolution agent (State University of New York, 1997: 3)
4	Latency	Industry versus Inferiority 8 – 12 years old	During this stage, the child is enrolled at a primary school. As a result, the child has a variety of social events to deal with including friends, group activities and academics. Being a student, children become proactive in their work and consequently interact with both teachers and peers. Children may feel inferior if their work is not validated by teachers or peers, resulting in a strong psychosocial influence on the child’s personality. During this stage, both teachers as well as peers act as conflict resolution agents (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464).
5	Adolescence	Identity versus Role Diffusion 13 – 20 years old	During the adolescent stage children are searching for their own identity. Earlier conflicts now serve as a foundation when assessing who they are (State University of New York, 1997: 4). The key social agents in influencing conflict resolution are the individual’s peers. Consequently, during the adolescence phase, peers are able to affect an augmented influence on the individual’s personality (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464).

(Table Adapted From: State University of New York, 1997: 3 – 5)

4.3.4. Summary of Development Theories

Table 4.3 (below) provides a summary of the key developmental theories which relate to endorsement amongst tweens, as discussed above.

Table 4.3: Summary of Developmental Theories			
Age (Years)	Selman's Role-Taking Ability	Barenboim's Impression Formulation	Erikson's Psychosocial Development
5 – 6	Egocentric	Behaviour Comparison	Locomotor (Trust vs. Mistrust)
6 – 7	Social Information Role-Taking		Latency (Industry vs. Inferiority)
7 – 8			
8 – 9	Self-Reflective Role-Taking	Psychological Constructs	
9 – 10			
10 – 11	Mutual Role-Taking		
11 – 12			
12 – 13	Social and Conventional Role-Taking	Psychological Comparisons	Adolescence (Identity vs. Role Diffusion)
13 – 14			
> 14			

(Adapted From: Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464)

4.4. Product Conspicuousness as a Modifying Variable in Tween Endorsement

“Evidence would suggest that peer influence becomes very important as children enter their teenage years and that peer influence exerts more impact for some products (e.g. athletic shoes) than others (e.g. gloves)” (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 463).

Product conspicuousness refers to the degree which a product stands out or is noticeable by the consumer (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 64). Product conspicuousness is a function of two variables; the degree of exclusivity of the product, and the degree of visibility during product consumption (Childers and Rao, 1992: 201; Bearden and Etzel, 1982: 185).

Products with high exclusivity are referred to as luxury goods whereas products with low exclusivity are referred to as necessities. Luxury goods are generally not as mundane as necessity goods which are more commonplace. Consequently, luxury goods tend to be relatively more conspicuous than necessities (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 64).

Privately consumed products intrinsically have a lower conspicuousness than publically consumed products as they are less noticeable by consumers during consumption (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 64). This is in accordance with previous empirical testing which found that publically consumed luxury goods attracted more attention than privately consumed luxury goods (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464; Childers and Rao, 1992: 201; Bearden and Etzel, 1982).

Consequently, in accordance with Makgosa and Mohube (2007: 64), *Table 4.4* (below) depicts four product categories which were identified according to their consumption visibility and perceived exclusivity; these product categories are: publically consumed necessity goods, publically consumed luxury goods, privately consumed necessity goods and privately consumed luxury goods.

Table 4.4: Product Conspicuousness and Resultant Product Categories			
Consumption Visibility	High	<p>Public necessity goods: Includes products which are commonly owned and are visible during consumption (E.g. clothes). Due to the common nature of the product, the peer pressure evident in the decision to purchase the actual product is low. However, because it is highly visible during consumption, the specific brand of the product purchased may be subject to exacerbated peer pressure (Childers and Rao, 1992: 201)</p>	<p>Public luxury goods: Includes products which are not commonly used or owned but are consumed in the public sphere (e.g. toys). Because they are not common products they are considered exclusive (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66). Exclusive products are considered more conspicuous and subject to exacerbated peer influence (Childers and Rao, 1992: 200)</p>
	Low	<p>Private necessity goods: Includes products which are commonly used and but are not consumed in the public sphere (e.g. toothpaste). Childers and Rao (1992: 201) state that private necessity goods <i>“are not socially relevant and are therefore not likely to be influenced by peers”</i></p>	<p>Private luxury goods: Includes products which are not commonly used or owned and are also not consumed in the public sphere (e.g. radio/television). Since luxury goods require additional discretionary income relative to private necessities, the effect of endorsement is increased. However, since they are consumed in private, the persuasion is familial influence rather than peer based influence (Childers and Rao, 1992: 201).</p>
		Low	High
Degree of exclusivity (Luxury)			

(Table Adapted From: Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66; Childers and Rao, 1992: 201)

Previous research suggests that the effect of endorsement varies depending on the product category and degree of conspicuousness of the product (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 463; Childers and Rao, 1992: 201; Bearden and Etzel, 1982: 185). Specifically, when comparisons were examined between the product categories, all three referenced studies found that peer influence has a greater impact on publically consumed goods than privately consumed goods; and respondents exhibited greater peer influence when evaluating luxury goods over necessities.

4.5. Using Children as Brand Ambassadors

As mentioned in *Section 4.2* the reference group construct influences the degree to which endorsement impacts purchase decision. This section briefly describes the manner in which children can be utilised by organisations as brand ambassadors to drive demand.

This section starts by elaborating on the “*fish streaming*” phenomena described by Lindstrom (2004: 176) which was discussed in *Section 2.3.3.2.*, and finishes by providing literature relating to child-parental influence, with a focus on the “*nag factor*”.

4.5.1. Peer Based Social Endorsement

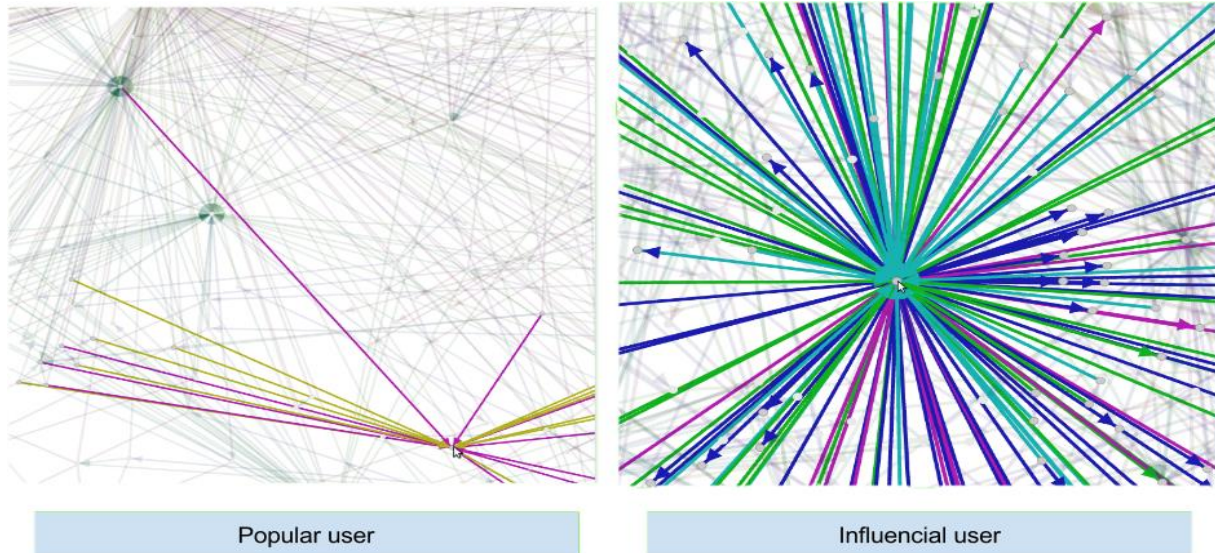
In 2004, the estimated expenditure on media based advertising and other marketing to children was approximately US\$15 billion (Heitzler, Asbury and Kusner, 2008: 188) and children in the United States were exposed to between 20,000 – 40,000 advertisements (Lindstrom, 2004: 175). However, evidence suggests that traditional marketing techniques are no longer as effective when targeting the youth market (Elango, 2012: 10; Lindstrom, 2004: 176). This is in accordance with Heitzler, Asbury and Kusner (2008: 188) who state “*major businesses and commercial brands have shifted a large portion of their advertising dollars away from traditional forms of advertising (such as television and print) toward new, innovative forms of marketing*”. One of these forms of innovative marketing is the use of children as brand ambassadors through social network marketing.

A brand ambassador refers to an individual who acts as a representative of an organisation and is able to channel marketing messages (Davidson and Rogers, 2006: 137). An empirical experiment was conducted on the social media platform Twitter™ to determine the manner in which information is diffused by brand ambassadors (Elango, 2012: 8). Early adopters were provided with access to an early release of Google Hangouts, and then their online activity regarding this software was tracked on Twitter™; applicants provided feedback to Google.

The findings of this experiment are depicted in *Figure 4.6* which shows the two categories of social endorsers, and the manner which information flows. Tween social endorsers can be described as belonging to one of two categories; either a popular user or an influential user (Elango, 2012: 10).

- Popular User: refers to a socially popular individual who other people interact with. They are generally discussed by other users, but do not disseminate a lot of information.
- Influential User: refers to a social endorser who broadcasts a message to a significant number of individuals.

Figure 4.6: Tracking Brand Ambassadors on Twitter™



(Elango, 2012: 8)

These findings are in accordance with previous research (Lindstrom, 2004: 176; Hoffman and Novak, 1996: 46) which stated that the antiquated technique of targeting a single tween has made way to a more diverse marketing paradigm whereby “*not one but several tweens, interlinked, decide the direction, the brand preferences and trends*” (Lindstrom, 2004: 176). This was previously discussed in Section 2.2.1.2.

4.5.2. The Nag Factor / Pester Power

The current generation of children is considered to be both the richest and influential generation of children to date (Lindstrom, 2004: 175). Although marketers are interested in the comparatively high disposable income from the current generation, it is the influence on parental consumption which is of paramount concern (Gunter, *et al.*, 2005: 2). Anecdotal evidence suggests that in 2000, children in the United States of America spent \$28 Billion of their own money, and influenced a further \$250 billion of parental consumption (Gunter, *et al.*, 2005: 2). By 2004 Lindstrom (2004: 175) estimated that the tween influenced parental consumption had increased to approximately \$1.18 trillion. Cardwell-Gardner and Bennett (1999: 45) acknowledge that the disposable income of children is growing at a faster rate than inflation, making them an attractive market to target. Cardwell-Garner

and Bennett (1999: 45) also acknowledge that *“Children are becoming increasingly important as a focus for marketing strategies as a result of not only their purchasing power, but also because of the influence they exert on parental purchasing decisions”*.

Consequently, research has been conducted in order to determine the effect which child-parental endorsement of a product has on propensity to consume by the parent. This is referred to as ‘Pester Power’, or alternatively as ‘The Nag Factor’ (Idell, 1998: 7). Pester Power is described by Procter and Richards (2002: 3) as the repeated delivery of unwanted requests by children which influence parental purchase intent. Hamilton (2006: 8) states that in an empirical survey, it was found that the majority of parents were influenced by their children’s requests. Specifically, Idell (1998: 7) found that at least half of the 12 – 13 year surveyed stated that they were usually successful in persuading their parents to buy an advertised product despite their parents not wanting them to have it. When parents were interviewed, it was found that approximately 70% of parents purchased goods due to nagging by their children (Schor, 2005: 61); Lindstrom (2004: 175) stated that in the BRANDChild survey, it was established that children were responsible for up to 80% of all brand decisions.

Idell (1998: 8) identified two (2) types of nagging by children

- **Importance Nagging:** refers to the perception by the child that the product has augmented importance; Marketing targeting children may intensify their perception of the product and cause them to believe that the product is intrinsically a need rather than a want (Tato, 2005: 5).
- **Persistence Nagging:** The incessant repetition of an ideal by the child, with the belief that sufficient nagging will result in the parent or guardian purchasing the good in order to subdue the nagging (Idell, 1998: 8).

An anecdotal example for Idell’s ‘Persistence Nagging’ can be seen in the animated television series ‘The Simpsons’ (Groening, 1991) between the father (Homer) and his two children (Bart and Lisa):

BART AND LISA: Will you take us to Mount Splashmore? Will you take us to Mount Splashmore? Will you take us to Mount Splashmore Will you take us to Mount Splashmore?

HOMER: If I take you to Mount Splashmore, will you two shut up and quit bugging me?

BART: Yeah.

LISA: Of course.

BART AND LISA: Well, will you take us to Mount Splashmore?

HOMER: YES!

Idell (1998: 9) also documented four (4) different types of parental reactions with regard to nagging and classified them into the following categories:

- **Bare Necessities:** Generally affluent parents who are resilient to whining, and require a justifiable reason to purchase a product. By virtue, bare necessities parents only respond to importance nagging, and require their children to make a valid case for the product in question before making a purchase decision.
- **Kid's Pals:** Kids' Pals are usually younger parents who associate with their children on an entertainment based level. Kid's Pals will often purchase products for their children as it gives them a degree of satisfaction too; for example Sony PlayStation (Tato, 2005: 5).
- **Indulgers:** Described by Idell (1998: 9) as working parents who spend little time with their children, indulgers feel that in order to assuage their children, they must purchase capital goods. Indulgers are especially disposed to persistence nagging.
- **Conflicted:** Conflicted parents are parents who are hesitant to purchase superfluous goods, but ultimately do. Conflicted parents are predominantly swayed through persistence nagging; however, importance nagging may also influence their purchase decision. Conflicted parents appreciate informative advertisements, as they justify their frivolous purchases (Tato, 2004: 5). This is in accordance with Schlosser and Wilson (2006: 7) who found that with certain parents, it is important to provide parents with credible information during advertisements to influence a purchase decision.

4.6. Conclusion

This chapter demonstrated that in order to understand the way which reference groups influence propensity to consume, marketers must have erudition of the three "*building blocks*" of endorsement. By this measure, children should be able to think vicariously, be aware that other people form impressions of them based on their possessions, and the aforementioned impressions must be of significant importance when children form their identity. These "*building blocks*" were explained (respectively) through the use of Selman's role taking ability; Barenboim's impression formulation; and Erikson's psychosocial development.

The effect of product classes and product conspicuousness on endorsement efficacy was then discussed. Product conspicuousness refers to the extent to which a product or brand stands out and is noticeable by the consumer. 4 categories of product conspicuousness were derived from the degree of exclusivity of the product (luxury or necessity) and the degree of visibility during consumption (public or private). The literature suggested that luxury goods are generally more

conspicuous than necessities, and publically consumed goods were more conspicuous than privately consumed goods.

The chapter culminated by discussing the manner in which children are utilised as brand ambassadors to drive demand in both peers (through "*fish streaming*") as well as parental consumption (through "*nagging*") (Lindstrom, 2004: 175; Idell, 1998: 9).

The following chapter describes the methodology used during the empirical research.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology

5.1. Introduction

This chapter deals with the empirical research that was undertaken. It outlines which research method was utilised and why it was selected. This chapter also includes an explanation of the sample, actual data collection and data analysis.

5.2. Problem Statement

Children are becoming increasingly influential in their consumption of goods in the South African marketplace, not only through their increased discretionary income (Lindstrom, 2004: 175), but through the pressure they exert on parent/guardian consumption. Consequently, when considering marketing a product, it is naive to ignore the possibility of increasing market share by promoting the product towards the tween segment. The problem arises, however, when assessing the degree to which the advertisement is comprehended by the child for the following two reasons:

- (i) From a consumer perspective; there is a social stigma associated with the promotion of goods to children, due to the perceived notion that children do not have the cognitive capacity to make autonomous decisions and are more influenced to make inattentive purchase decisions (Livingstone and Helsper, 2004: 13; Preston, 2004: 364; Singer and Singer, 2001: 458).
- (ii) From an industry perspective; the functional purpose of advertising is to drive demand for a particular product or service. Wilcox, *et al.* (2004: 6) stated that the estimated \$12 Billion was spent in the United States of America in 2004 on advertisements which specifically appeal towards children; this amount had risen to an estimated \$17 Billion by 2012 (Sheer and Moss, 2012: 1). Consequently, it can be inferred that advertising signifies a significant expense to some organisations. If the target audience which an organisation is promoting a product to does not have the cognitive ability to comprehend the advertising message, the target audience may have a null or adverse reaction towards the advertisement; which would represent a poor investment by the marketer. Consequently, understanding the degree to which children comprehend advertisements is vital in order to implement an advertising campaign which targets children.

Another key component when assessing the efficacy of advertisements targeting the prepubescent market is the degree to which peer endorsement of an advertised product has on willingness to

consume the advertised product. Ropah and Shah (2007: 713) state that the current generation of tweens is the most brand-conscious and materialistic coeval of children to date; Preston (2004: 366) found that in certain scenarios involving children, peer endorsement of an advertised product played a more prevalent role than the advertising itself.

Consequently, an additional problem when assessing the cognition of advertisements by children is determining whether it is the advertisement itself, or whether it is the peer endorsement of the advertised product which influences propensity to consume.

Consequently, the following research problems were formulated based on the aforementioned stipulations.

5.2.1. Primary Research Problem

- To determine how cognition of advertisement affects the propensity to consume the advertised product by children in the KwaZulu-Natal area.

5.2.2. Subordinate Research Problems

- To determine the correlation between demographic variables and cognition of advertisements.
- To determine the effect which endorsement of an advertised product has on propensity to consume the product.
- To determine the effect which demographic variables have on endorsement efficacy.

5.3. Research Objectives

The purpose of the research objectives is to provide attainable goals with respect to the aforementioned research problems.

The research provided a framework which marketers can utilize to determine the degree to which tween's comprehend advertisements. The research also provided information regarding the effect of peer endorsement on product consumption by tweens.

With regard to cognition of advertisements, the objective of the research was to determine the extent to which children understand three identified core elements of advertising; the selling intent, persuasive nature and intrinsic bias evident in advertisements (Priya, *et al.*, 2010: 154). By determining these three core constituents of advertising; both policy makers as well as marketers would have information to ascertain the basis on which tweens' comprehension of advertisements impact their willingness to consume.

Another objective on the research was to determine the effect which age has on both endorsements of advertisements as well as on cognition of advertisements.

Thus, the objectives of the research were:

- **Objective 1:** To determine the relationship between cognition of advertisements and tweens' propensity to consume the advertised product.
- **Objective 2:** To determine the extent which tweens' comprehension of selling intent of an advert has on their propensity to consume.
- **Objective 3:** To determine the effect which understanding of the persuasive nature evident in advertisements affects tweens' propensity to consume
- **Objective 4:** To determine how understanding the bias of advertisements affects tweens' propensity to consume
- **Objective 5:** To determine the effect which peer endorsement of an advertisement has on propensity to consume.

5.4. Research Hypothesis

From the above objectives, the following hypotheses were identified as feasible for the report:

- **Hypothesis 1 (H₁):** As children become older and consequently develop cognitive functions, the effect of peer endorsement of an advertisement decreases for all product categories.
- **Hypothesis 2 (H₂):** There is a negative correlation between propensity to consume and cognitive ability to discern the selling intent of an advertised product.
- **Hypothesis 3 (H₃):** There is a negative relationship between propensity to consume and children's ability to perceive the persuasive nature of an advertised product.
- **Hypothesis 4 (H₄):** There is a negative correlation between propensity to consume and cognitive ability to discern the bias of an advertised product.
- **Hypothesis 5 (H₅):** Peer endorsement of an advertisement for a publically consumed good has a stronger relationship with tweens' propensity to consume than endorsement of an advertisement for a privately consumed good.
- **Hypothesis 6 (H₆):** There is a stronger positive correlation between peer endorsement of an advertised luxury good than an advertised ordinary good.

5.5. Research Design

The previous chapter dealt with literature and secondary research and provided a theoretical perspective which related to the key concepts of the study. These concepts included advertising

theory, cognitive development theory, and endorsement theory. This chapter deals with the primary research which was conducted at schools in KwaZulu-Natal. The empirical research was conducted in an attempt to substantiate the research hypotheses stipulated above.

Empirical research was performed utilising a non-probability sampling through two methods; a purposive questionnaire, as well as a correlation experiment. The techniques utilised are documented below.

5.5.1. Purposive Questionnaire:

Once ethical clearance had been obtained from relevant authorities, a questionnaire was submitted through the education system of KwaZulu-Natal.

The category of research utilised in the purposive questionnaire can be described as principally quantitative in nature. However, certain questions contained basic qualitative elements which were analysed by the researcher to determine frequencies of responses (without limiting the selection criteria of the respondent). Qualitative research was opted for as it is effective in understanding human behaviour and the relationships that exist between attitudes and actions (Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2005: 7).

Within quantitative research, a non-experimental design was conducted. Non-experimental designs examine the correlation between two or more variables without establishing a control group or using an intervening variable (Welman *et al*, 2005: 93). Within the non-experimental research design, an administered questionnaire was selected. The questionnaire was administered during class as a “class exercise” at the four schools. An administered approach was elected because younger children do not have the capacity to fully understand and complete a survey unassisted.

5.5.1.1. Sample Design

The researcher utilised non-probability sampling to select respondents for the purposive questionnaire.

The researcher established that due to the plethora of potential inhibiting factors when dealing with children it is not feasible to attempt a random sample. Inhibiting factors include; lack of cognitive receptiveness amongst children to understand the questionnaire, unwillingness to participate in the study, or no parental/guardian permission. Consequently, despite the fact that non-probability sampling relies on the judgement of the researcher making it only as representative as the researchers skill (Loubser, Martins and Van Wyk, 1999: 253) convenience non-probability sampling was still selected. Convenience sampling implies that the respondents were chosen based on their convenience of availability (Loubser *et al.*, 1999: 253).

5.5.1.1.1. Sample Size

There is a positive correlation between the sample size and the confidence level of the study (Welman, 2005: 70).

With regard to the survey population, the researcher elected to delimit the research to KwaZulu-Natal. The population (N) of the report included all children aged 8 – 14 who are currently enrolled at a school within KwaZulu-Natal. Data from StatsSA (2001: 56) showed that between the ages of 8 and 14 there were 6,045,444 scholars registered in South Africa. StatsSA stated that the population growth rate of South Africa between the last two censuses (1996, 2001) was estimated at approximately 10% (compounded every 5 years). From this information, it can be deduced that the estimated population of scholars in South Africa in 2011 was 7,314,987. Kwazulu-Natal accounts for 21% of the national population, making the population (N) of the report 1,536,147. However, due to time and budgetary constraints it was unfeasible to attempt to collect data from every child within KwaZulu-Natal. Consequently, four schools in different geographical areas (Winston Park, Ixopo Primary, Mountain Rise Primary and George Cato) were chosen. Children aged between 8 and 14 within these schools became the sample population (n).

In order to gain a survey with strong validity, the researcher hoped to achieve a confidence level² of at least 95% with a confidence interval³ of 5. Consequently, the survey required a minimum sample size (n) of 384 or more respondents (Creative Research Systems, 2012: 1). The sample population managed to exceed this amount by 190 respondents as there were a total of 574 respondents. However, due to children's limited capacity to complete questionnaires in their entirety, 69 questionnaires were not included when calculating the Cronbach coefficient of Alpha. This is explained in *Appendix G*.

² Confidence Level represents the percentage chance that the true population would select the same option as the sample population. 95% means that there is a 95% chance that the population on a whole would have selected the same results.

³ The Confidence Interval (also known as the Margin of Error) refers to the degree of accuracy which the report has. E.g. If a report has a confidence interval of 4, and 50% of the population pick a certain option, you can be "sure" that if the question had been posed to the entire relevant population, between 46% and 54% would have picked the same answer.

5.5.1.1.2. Response Rate

Non-responses are members of the population who do not participate in the research. Welman, *et al.* (2005: 73) states that non-responses are likely to occur because of four inter-related problems

- (i) Refusal to respond
- (ii) Ineligibility to respond
- (iii) Inability to locate respondent
- (iv) Respondent located but unable to make contact

Since the report dealt with children, consent had to be ascertained from the school, the parent/guardian, and the child. Consequently, most non-responses were as a result of parents not willing to allow their children to participate in the study (Refusal to respond).

Other factors which influenced the response rate included the inherent nature of children to “forget” to complete the informed consent. Surveys had to be discarded if they did not have an accompanying informed consent document (Ineligibility to respond)

Ultimately there were **574** valid respondents from the 1699 indicating a response rate of 33.78%. The researcher managed to achieve 190 more respondents than required 384 resulting in a total confidence level of 95% with a confidence interval of 4.09 (Creative Research Systems, 2012: 1)

Table 5.1: Response Rate for Purposive Questionnaire			
School	Submitted	Number Returned	Response Rate
Winston Park Primary	356	181	50.84%
Mountain Rise Primary	390	110	28.21%
Ixopo Primary	473	74	15.64%
George Cato Primary	480	209	43.54%
Total	1699	574	33.78%

Although the response appears to be low, this was anticipated during the pilot study and additional questionnaires were distributed in order to ensure that there were more responses than required (the survey required 384 and achieved 574 responses). The leading cause of the low response rate was not due to internal validity controls, or children not comprehending the questionnaire, but rather ethical considerations. The questionnaire was conducted as a class exercise to ensure that each questionnaire was completed in an acceptable manner. However, certain children were either absent on the day, lost their signed informed consent, or forgot their signed informed consent.

5.5.1.1.3. Sampling Criteria

The study was conducted within the KwaZulu-Natal Province of South Africa at the aforementioned schools. These four schools were selected based on their diversity in an effort to achieve a sample which was as representative of the population as possible. Thus, one school is from an affluent background (Winston Park Primary), one school from a rural socio-economic area (iXopo Primary), and two average-income government schools (George Cato Primary and Mountain Rise Primary).

Based on the age demographic of learners at these four schools, the sample ages ranged from 8 – 13 years old. This was resultant because of the structure of primary schools in South Africa; primary schools in South Africa extend from grade 1 (during which period learners turn 7 years old) to grade 7 (during which period learners turn 13 years old). Children under the age of 8 years old were not included in the sample population as they have mediational deficiencies (Macklin and Carlson, 1999: 6; Roedder, 1981: 145) and would not understand how to fill in questionnaire. Consequently they would require intense assistance whilst participating which could result in influenced (bias) decisions which could reduce the objectivity of the study. The age criteria is also based on Lindstrom's (2004: 175) definition of a tween being an individuals who fit into the 8 – 14 year old age bracket (with the exception of 14 year olds due to the sample schools not having a grade 8 as stipulated above.)

The report attempted to achieve a representative sample of the population. Thus there were no restrictions based on race, colour, religion, social class or any other demographic force (other than age). The sample included respondents from all different economic backgrounds. Although a fully representative sample would have been ideal, because LSM 1 and LSM 2 are predominantly rural the focus was on all LSM > 3.

5.5.1.2. Questionnaire Design

Loubser, Martins and van Wyk (1996: 215) assert that there are three parameters which should be attended to before establishing a questionnaire. Firstly, the research problem must be identified and stated; secondly, the survey population must be defined; thirdly, the most optimum means of collecting data must be selected. These parameters have been addressed above.

Having established the three parameters, the questionnaire could be designed. The questionnaire (found in *Appendix A*) was circulated to 1699 children aged between 8 years old and 13 years old. The questionnaire included privileged information about participants, such as demographic information. However, all participants had the option to leave any field blank if they desired.

5.5.1.3. Validity

A basic pilot test was performed involving a small group of 10 respondents aged 8 years old. In accordance with Piaget (1960: 135), Roedder (1981: 144) and Santrock (2008: 221) children progress in a hierarchical manner; consequently by performing a pilot test with the least developed respondents, the researcher was able to determine whether or not the questionnaire was comprehensible.

When conducting empirical research, conducting a pilot test serves to ensure that the respondents are able to participate in the data collection without any ambiguity and within the stipulated time allocation; pilot tests also allow the researcher to notice non-verbal interactions between respondents which could act as intervening variables (Welman, *et al.*, 2005: 148). Although not used in the final survey, the pilot test was used to determine whether or not the children were capable of understanding the questionnaire and answering the questions of their own volition. By constructing the questionnaire using basic wording, children were less likely to ask for assistance when answering questions which decreased external influences.

Construct validity was achieved in two ways:

- (i) The questionnaire was based on literature found in the literature review and related to the research hypotheses.
- (ii) The questionnaire was completed as a 'class exercise' under 'test conditions'. Children were not allowed to interact verbally with each other. All questions were either directed at the researcher or at the class teacher who was instructed to clarify the question without leading the respondent.

5.5.1.4. Data Collection

As the sample population was comprised of children, there were specific ethical procedures which had to be adhered to. Consequently, data collection was a tedious task which involved obtaining approval from all relevant gatekeepers before empirical testing could be conducted.

The first phase was to obtain Department of Education (DoE) approval. This involves submitting a research proposal, intended list of schools, sample questionnaire and a letter from the organisation you are conducting research for (UKZN). Once the letter had been ascertained (*Appendix D*) meetings with school headmasters were organised in which the schools granted permission for the researcher to conduct a survey (*Appendix E*).

The actual data collection process took part as a "class exercise". Educators were informed that, if necessary, they could clarify a question – but they must attempt to do so without leading the

respondent. The completed questionnaires were then collected from the various schools by the researcher.

5.5.1.5. Data Analysis

Data analysis was divided into two stages; Data preparation and data analysis.

- (i) During the data preparation stage, data was edited, coded and captured (Loubser, *et al.*, 1999: 295). This involved breaking down the data in such a manner that it could be converted into a statistics management package. The researcher coded the data into a program called Statistics Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) which allows for convenient electronic processing and analysis techniques.
- (ii) The data was analysed using techniques such as frequency distributions, percentages and cross-tabulations. Research hypothesis were answered through the use of these descriptive statistics.

5.5.1.5.1. Reliability

Data is considered reliable if the findings can be replicated (Welman *et al.*, 2005: 145).

There are various tests which can be conducted to determine whether or not a sample can be replicated; the researcher utilized the Cronbach's coefficient alpha which provides a measure of the internal consistency of the test (Welman, *et al.*, 2005: 147). Cronbach's coefficient alpha measures the degree to which the various components of the test measure the same attribute according to

the following formula: $\alpha = \frac{N.\bar{c}}{\bar{v}+(N-1).\bar{c}}$ ⁴

Common consensus is that a reliable test should have a coefficient alpha of 0.7 or higher. The researcher ran a Cronbach's a coefficient alpha reliability test on the data collected (excluding open ended questions and demographic variables) and attained a coefficient alpha of 0.816 indicating that the measuring instrument had a high degree of reliability.

A complete breakdown of the Cronbach's Coefficient of Alpha is available in *Appendix G*.

⁴ N is equal to the number of items, c-bar is the average inter-item covariance among the items and v-bar equals the average variance

5.5.2. Correlation Experiment

In addition to the purposive questionnaire, a basic correlation experiment was conducted by children of Winston Park Primary School. The correlation experiment sought to determine the effects which endorsement of an advertisement had on propensity to consume, and followed the static group comparison methodology described by Campbell and Stanley (1963:12).

5.5.2.5. Sample Design

The researcher utilised non-probability convenience sampling to select respondents for the correlation experiment.

Respondents were selected from Winston Park Primary School. Inhibiting factors which eliminated other schools when selecting the sample included lack of cognizance to understand the purpose of the experiment, lack of parental/guardian consent, and inability to communicate effectively in English.

5.5.2.5.1. Sample Size for Correlation Experiment

Data was collected from 10 groups consisting of approximately 20 respondents per group (excluding the individual acting as an independent variable).

The experiment had a total of 202 respondents (excl. the independent variable). Utilising the same population as stipulated previously (N=1,536,147), the experiment had a statistical confidence level of 95% with a confidence interval of 6.89 (Creative Research Systems, 2012: 1).

5.5.2.6. Experimental Design

The experimental design adhered to the static group comparison research design originally described by Campbell and Stanley (1963: 12). The static group comparison consists of separate groups; the control groups and the experimental groups. Control groups are observed without any influence from the independent variable(s), experimental groups are observed after the introduction of the independent variable(s). Provided no extraneous variables exist, the variance of the dependent variable between the control group and the experimental groups can then be attributed to the independent variable(s).

The research design for the correlation experiment adhered to the following experimental framework:

Table 5.2: Correlation Experiment Framework				
Age	Group Size ⁵	Observation	Internal Influencer (IV)	Formula ⁶
Grade 3	22	✓		0
	23	✓	✓	$X_1 \rightarrow 0$
Grade 4	20	✓		0
	20	✓	✓	$X_1 \rightarrow 0$
Grade 5	23	✓		0
	23	✓	✓	$X_1 \rightarrow 0$
Grade 6	19	✓		0
	18	✓	✓	$X_1 \rightarrow 0$
Grade 7	17	✓		0
	17	✓	✓	$X_1 \rightarrow 0$

These groups took place during school periods in the form of a class exercise. Each group was comprised of children of the same age, with 3 groups for each age group ranging from 8 years old to 13 years old. All groups were shown a collection of advertisements and asked the same questions (*Appendix B*). Advertisements were from products from four product categories:

- Privately consumed luxury good
- Publically consumed luxury good
- Privately consumed necessity
- Publically consumed necessity

The group's propensity to purchase the product (dependent variable) was monitored with a quantitative focus on trend analysis. The experiment was video recorded so qualitative data could be extracted.

⁵ The Internal influencer was not included in the sample population as they were coached beforehand.

⁶ Where O = Observation; X_1 = Introduction of Internal Influencer (IV_1)

The independent variable (IV) for the research is in the form of an internal influencer. Within the experimental groups, one respondent was briefed prior to the screening and given instructions to convince the remainder of the group that the product being advertised is highly desirable.

The attached experimental questionnaires are available in *Appendix B*.

5.5.2.7. Internal Validity Controls

Internal Validity is described by Yu and Ohlund (2010: 2) as the degree to which the experimental treatment has an effect on the dependent variable, and whether there is sufficient evidence to support the hypothesis and/or claim.

Internal validity is broken up into the variables depicted in *(Campbell and Stanley, 1963: 12) (below)*. This describes possible threats to internal validity with regard to the static group construct experimental design.

Figure 5.1: Internal Validity of Static Group Comparison Methodology

		Internal Validity							
		History	Maturation	Testing	Instrumentation	Regression	Selection	Mortality	Interaction of Selection and Maturation
Static Group Comparison		+	?	+	+	+	-	-	-

(Campbell and Stanley, 1963: 12)

- **History:** History refers to events which occur between subsequent observations within the research design (Yu and Ohlund, 2010: 3). Since the static group comparison is a cross-sectional study, there is only one observation per group and historical changes are rendered negligible.
- **Maturation:** Maturation refers to the manner in which units being assessed from respondents changes due to the passage of time. Respondents may become older or wiser during the course of the experiment which could act as an extraneous variable (Millsap and Maydeu-Olivares, 2010: 48). Consequently, changes in the dependent variable could be erroneously attributed to the independent variable when in fact it was as a result of maturation. To combat this, each group was comprised of children of the same age, with a different group for each age category and level of maturation. The effects which maturation had on information derived can thus be accounted for and considered negligible with regard to internal validity.

- **Testing:** Testing refers to the effect of taking a subsequent test after taking a first test (Campbell and Stanley, 1963: 5). Since the static group comparison is a cross sectional study with a single observation, the negative implication of testing is void.
- **Instrumentation:** Instrumentation is a threat to internal validity when there is a different measuring instrument being utilized between the control group and the experimental group (Millsap and Maydeu-Olivares, 2010: 49). Instrumentation variables may also arise when the measuring instrument remains constant but the measuring technique is adapted over time. Consequently, in order to maintain internal validity with regard to instrumentation – the researcher conducted all experiments personally and adhered to the same experimental guideline. Questions submitted to respondents were structured and homogenous between the groups. Campbell and Stanley (1963: 12) believed that the threat posed to internal validity by instrumentation was negligible when utilising the static-group comparison methodology.
- **Statistical Regression:** Statistical regression occurs when individuals within an experimental design are selected based on their extreme scores during the initial test. Since the static group comparison is comprised of a single observation, statistical regression is nullified. *Figure 5.1* (above) shows that statistical regression does not affect internal validity (Campbell and Stanley, 1963: 12).
- **Selection:** Selection refers to the manner in which participants are chosen for the research. As shown in *Figure 5.1* (above), it is a potential threat to internal validity when conducting research utilizing the static group comparison methodology, as there is no definitive way of determining that the groups were not disparate before the experiment. To reduce the effect which selection has on validity, the following controls will be set in place.
 - Participants within each group were selected from individuals attending the same school to reduce the effect of introducing extraneous socio-demographic variables.
 - Once informed consents were collected, participants in each experimental group were selected on a random basis.
 - The experiment had a total of 202 respondents (excl. the independent variable) this provides a statistical confidence level of 95% with a confidence interval of 6.89 (Creative Research Systems, 2012: 1).
- **Mortality:** Mortality is another threat to internal validity when utilising the static group comparison methodology. Mortality refers to potential differences between observations of the control group and the experimental group as a result of drop-outs (Yu and Ohlund, 2010: 4). Since the research is voluntary, respondents had the opportunity to withdraw at any

given time. The researcher employed a control which stated that if a group experienced mortality, the results of the entire group will be void. An additional group comprised of new respondents would then be created and data from them collected. During the data collection there was no evidence of mortality.

- **Interaction of Selection and Maturation:** The interaction of individuals who have completed the experiment with those who have not yet been involved in the experiment is identified by Campbell and Stanley (1963: 12) as a potential weakness of the static group comparison methodology. The researcher placed two controls in order to reduce the impact of interaction between selection and maturation on internal validity:
 - All experiments were administered by the researcher, without a break between the experimental group and the control group to reduce the interaction between the control group and the experimental group.
 - Groups were conducted as a 'class exercise' in which children were informed that class test conditions were to be observed. Consequently, respondents were less inclined to discuss factors of the experiment for fear of reprimand.

The empirical study assessed the varying effect of peer endorsement on propensity to consume different product categories. The product categories used during the empirical study were dependant on whether the product was a necessity good or a luxury good, as well as the degree of visibility during consumption (i.e. private or public). Consequently, 4 product categories were identified; privately consumed luxury goods, privately consumed necessities, publically consumed luxury goods, and publically consumed necessities. This was in accordance with Childers and Rao (1992: 200) who stipulated that the effect of product endorsement in children varies depending on product conspicuousness. Childers and Rao (1992: 200) define product conspicuousness as the degree to which the product is visible during consumption as well as the perceived level of luxury of the product (whether it is owned by many or few).

5.5.2.8. Data Collection

The correlation experiment was conducted as a class exercise. By conducting the experiment as class exercises, it was possible to interview respondents within pre-existing social groups. The researcher believed that this was beneficial to the study for the following three reasons:

1. It allowed the researcher to determine the manner in which children relate to each other within their conventional day. Empirical research conducted by Kitlinger (1994: 105) found that utilising pre-existing groups is beneficial as it is within these social contexts which ideas are formed and decisions made.

2. The researcher believed that children in pre-existing groups are more inclined to discuss questions with peers rather than strangers. Respondents were also able to draw on examples which their peers could associate with, divulging more data.
3. By utilising pre-existing social groups, the researcher was able to determine how peer endorsement affects tween's decision making process.

5.5.2.9. Data Analysis

Qualitative data was evaluated based on the researcher's assessment of consumer behaviour theories in accordance with literature outlined in the literature review. Qualitative data was primarily utilised as explorative in nature, and sought to identify trends based on both verbal and nonverbal cues provided by the respondents.

Similarly to the purposive questionnaire; Quantitative data analysis was conducted ex-post facto and divided into two stages; data preparation and data analysis.

1. During the data preparation stage, data was edited, coded and captured (Loubser, et al., 1999: 295). This involved preparing a separate SPSS workbook specifically for the experimental research which facilitated electronic processing and analysis techniques.
2. The data was analysed using techniques such as frequency distributions, percentages, and cross-tabulations. A Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether or not there were significant variance between the control group and the group with the independent variable. The research hypotheses were answered through the use of these descriptive statistics.

5.6. Ethics

Because the sample involved children, stringent ethical codes were adhered to.

Empirical research was only conducted once ethical clearance was granted by all relevant gatekeepers; namely: The University of KwaZulu-Natal (*Appendix F*) the Department of Education (*Appendix D*), the head of the sample schools (*Appendix E*), and parents/guardians (*Appendix C*).

Because children were the respondents in the survey, the researcher ensured that parental/guardian consent was provided through the use of an informed consent form which accompanied each questionnaire.

With regard to the questionnaire design, all questions were optional and the participant was informed that participation was entirely their own volition. Respondents were informed that they may withdraw from the survey at any time without if they so desired. The questionnaire was

completely anonymous. Because the questionnaire was distributed through the education system of KwaZulu-Natal, a formal proposal to conduct research within KwaZulu-Natal education institutions was submitted to the DoE (*Appendix D*). School Headmasters were also provided with a copy of the questionnaire and all relevant questions which accompanied the correlation experiment. Permission from the respondent was also established. Demographic questions were asked, but the participant was provided with an option not to respond. The questionnaire was assessed by the researcher's peers, the researcher's supervisor, the Department of Education, surveyed school's headmasters, and the University research board before being distributed to ensure that no questions were considered too personal or probing.

All advertisements shown received a film and broadcast rating of "All Ages" and consequently did not represent a threat to children's psychological development.

5.7. Limitations

Limitations with regard to empirical research were as follows

- The process of acquiring ethical clearance from the Department of Education was very tedious and time consuming. The researcher was in contact with numerous individuals at the Department of Education, however, more often than not they would change from the research department to a new department and the application process would have to begin again.
- Schools which were originally intended to be surveyed weren't willing to participate. Consequently, the survey population was diminished and substitute schools were chosen.
- Children misplaced or forgot their informed consent documents which eliminated them from participating in the survey which increased non-response rate and decreased the sample size.
- Although all measures were taken to control the respondents, children still communicated during the data capture process. Consequently, certain questions which were not intended to have measure endorsement may be subject to peer influence.
- The sample selection utilized a non-probability sampling rather than a random sample. Non-probability sampling relies on the judgement of the researcher making it only as representative as the researchers skill (Loubser, Martins and Van Wyk, 1999: 253). Since judgement sampling was used, the results cannot be generalised.
- The questionnaire had to be short to accommodate the younger respondents. The average completion time of 13 year olds was approximately 20 minutes whereas the completion time of 8 year old respondents was approximately 45 minutes. The researcher believed this to be due to two discrete limitations; firstly, the younger respondents had difficulty comprehending certain concepts in the questionnaire (such as the Likert scale); and secondly, younger children generally write a lot slower which hindered the speed of the open ended questions.

- Data collection for the Correlation Experiment was collected from a single school, and may not be representative of the entire population of the report. Collecting data from multiple schools was unfeasible due to time and budgetary constraints. In addition, the majority of the other schools primarily spoke Zulu, which the researcher was unable to understand.

5.8. Conclusion

This chapter provided the problem statement, research objectives, and the methodology utilized in both the empirical survey and the empirical experiment. This chapter included a set of hypotheses which were constructed from the research objectives. These hypotheses sought to investigate the impact which the cognition of advertisements had on propensity to consume, and the effect which endorsement of advertisements had on propensity to consume.

This chapter included an outline of the research design for both the purposive questionnaire and the correlation experiment.

- For the purposive questionnaire, the following was described: the sample design (sample size, response rate and sampling criteria), questionnaire design, validity of the questionnaire, data collection techniques, data analysis (including reliability analysis).
- For the Correlation experiment, the following was also described: The sample design, experimental design, internal validity controls, data collection techniques, and data analysis techniques.

Since this study dealt predominantly with children, this chapter included an outline of the ethical considerations which were adhered to. This chapter culminated by providing a brief description of some of the limitations of the research design.

The following chapter provides statistical findings derived from the empirical research described in this chapter.

Chapter 6: Data Presentation

6.1. Introduction

The previous chapter showed the methodology used during empirical research. This chapter details the findings of the empirical research conducted. Data is depicted in figures, correlations and an ANOVA analysis.

6.2. Sample Profile

As stipulated, the sample was comprised of tweens (children aged 8 -13) from 4 primary schools in KwaZulu-Natal. The surveyed population comprised of 1699 learners, from which there were 574 valid respondents. The sample profile has been broken down into age, race, gender and school.

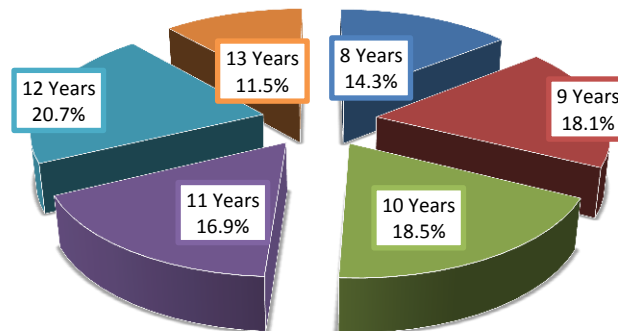
6.2.1. Questionnaire

The following details the sample profile of the purposive questionnaire which was submitted to 4 schools in the KwaZulu-Natal area.

6.2.1.1. Age

The sample was comprised of children aged between 8 years old and 13 years old. This resulted in ages being separated into 6 different age groups.

Figure 6.1: Age of Respondent

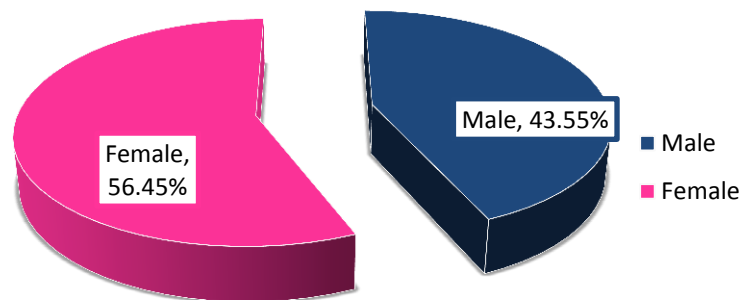


The results show a relatively even spread between the age groups of 9, 10 and 11 (18.1%, 18.5% and 16.9% respectively). There were slightly less respondents from the 8 year old age group with only 14.3%. The variance between the smallest group (13 year old, 11.5%) and the largest group (12 year old, 20.7%) was only 9.2% which shows that the questionnaire was distributed fairly evenly between different ages. The Mean age of respondents was 10.46 years old.

6.2.1.2. Gender

The questionnaire was distributed to both males and females.

Figure 6.2: Gender

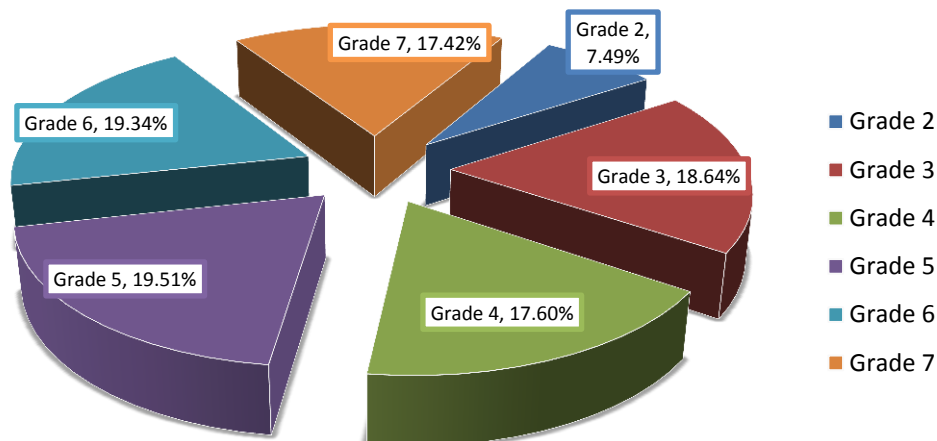


The results showed that there were more female respondents than male respondents. Females accounted for 56.4% of the survey, while males accounted for the remaining 43.6%

6.2.1.3. Respondents Grade

The questionnaire was submitted to grades 2 to grade 7. Consequently, there were 6 groups.

Figure 6.3: Respondents' Grade

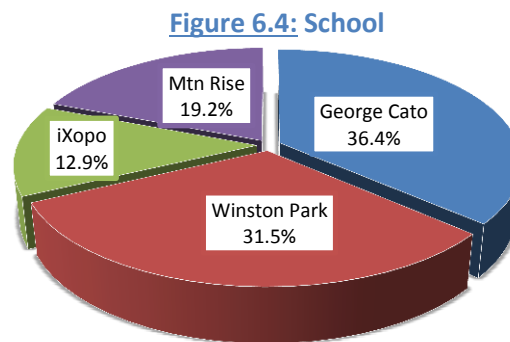


A significant amount of learners in grade 2 were younger than 8 years old and were excluded from the report. Consequently, the grade 2 category had the least respondents with only 7.5%. The remainder of the groups all showed similar numbers of respondents. In diminishing size; the largest group was grade 5, which comprised 19.5% of the surveyed population; grade 6 accounted for 19.3% of the surveyed population; grade 3 accounted for 18.6%; grade 4 accounted for 17.6%; grade 7 accounted for 17.4% and finally grade 2 accounted for 7.5%.

The mean grade of respondents was 4.8 with the median being 5.0.

6.2.1.4. School

Four (4) Schools were selected from the KwaZulu-Natal area based on their varying characteristics which are discussed below.

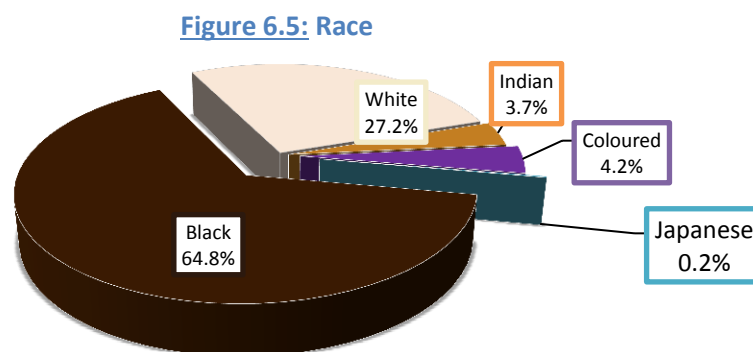


The following details the amount of respondents from each school in descending order.

- George Cato Primary School is a government school servicing the mid-to-lower LSM, and accounted for 36.4% of the sample population.
- Winston Park Primary School represents respondents from an upper income residential community, and accounted for 31.5% of the sample population.
- Mountain Rise Primary School is representative of a typical mid-level LSM school servicing an urban/commercial area, and accounted for 19.2% of the surveyed population.
- Respondents from iXopo primary comprise the rural component of the empirical research, and accounted for 12.9% of the sampled population.

6.2.1.5. Race

The sample did not exclude any participant based on race.



There were five (5) identified race groups which took part in the empirical survey. They are listed in descending order. Black respondents accounted for 64.8% of the surveyed population; whites accounted for 27.2% of the sample; coloured respondents accounted for 4.2% of the sample; Indians accounted for 3.7%; coloureds accounted for 4.2% and there was a negligible response from the Japanese community which accounted for 0.2% of the sample.

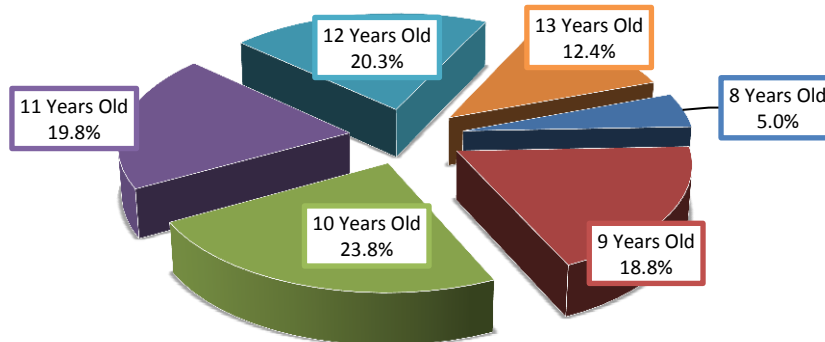
6.2.2. Correlation Experiment

The following information relates to the sample profile of the correlation experiment which was conducted at Winston Park Primary School in KwaZulu-Natal.

6.2.2.1. Age

The experiment was comprised of 6 discrete age groups consisting of children aged between 8 and 13 years old; as described in *Figure 6.6* (below)

Figure 6.6: Age of Respondent (Experiment)



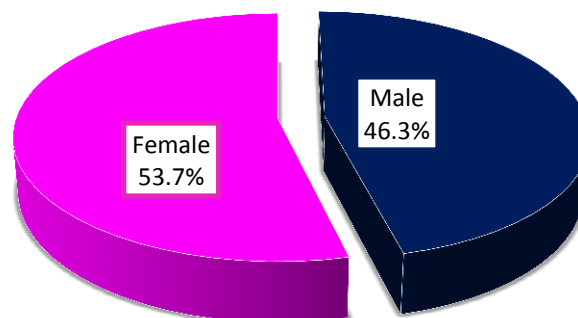
The results show a relatively even spread between the age groups of 9, 10 and 11 and 12 years old (18.8%, 23.8% and 19.8% and 20.3% respectively). The 8 year old age group was the smallest segment and comprised of only 5% of the experiment. The 13 year old category was the second smallest and comprised 12.4% of the sample. The relatively small quantity of respondents in the youngest and oldest categories can be attributed to the school grades surveyed; only a few individuals in the lowest grade were 8 years old as the majority of them had already had their birthday in the year.

The mean age of respondents was 10.69.

6.2.2.2. Gender

Both males and females participated in the empirical experiment.

Figure 6.7: Gender (Experiment)

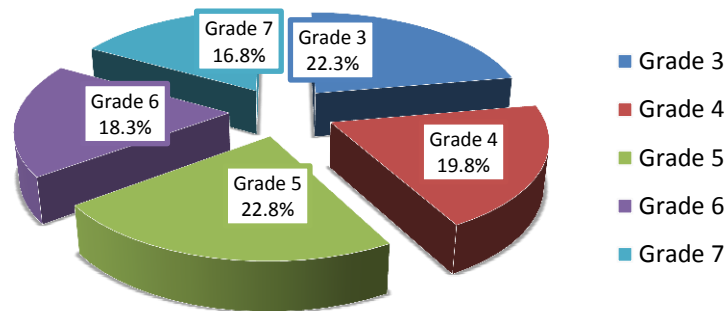


The results showed that there were marginally more female participants in the experiment than male participants. Females accounted for 53.7% of the experiment, while males accounted for the remaining 46.3%

6.2.2.3. Grade

The experiment was conducted amongst individuals from grade 3 to grade 7. Consequently, there were 5 different grades surveyed.

Figure 6.8: Grade (Experiment)



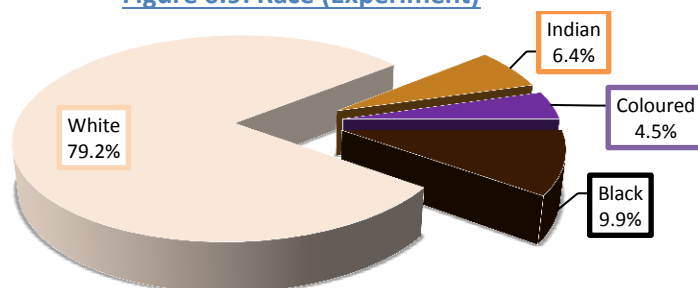
In descending order from the grade with the most respondents to the grade with the least respondent; grade 5 was the mode with 22.8% of participants; grade 3 accounted for 22.3% of participants; 19.8% of participants were from grade 4; 18.3% of participants were in grade 6; the smallest group was grade 7 with 16.8% of respondents.

The mean grade for the report was 4.88, with the percentage standard deviation being only 2.53. This indicated that the sample was evenly distributed per grade.

6.2.2.4. Race

The experiment did not exclude any participant based on race.

Figure 6.9: Race (Experiment)



The experiment was conducted at Winston Park Primary in KwaZulu-Natal which has a demographic skew towards the white ethnicity which accounted for 79.2% of participants; blacks accounted for 9.9%; Indians amounted to 6.4%; and coloureds made up the remaining 4.5% of participants.

6.2.2.5. Groups with Independent Variable

The experimental framework was in accordance with the static group comparison research design described by Campbell and Stanley (1963: 12). This design is comprised of an experimental group and a control group. These groups have similar characteristics with the exception that the experimental group has the inclusion of an independent variable (IV). Consequently, assuming no intervening variables exist, discrepancies between the two groups can be attributed to the IV.

The IV was in the form of an internal influencer; within each experimental group, one respondent was briefed prior to the screening and given instructions to convince the remainder of the group that the product being advertised was desirable.

Figure 6.10a (below) shows the control group and the experimental group had equal participants.

Figure 6.10a: Group included the Independent Variable

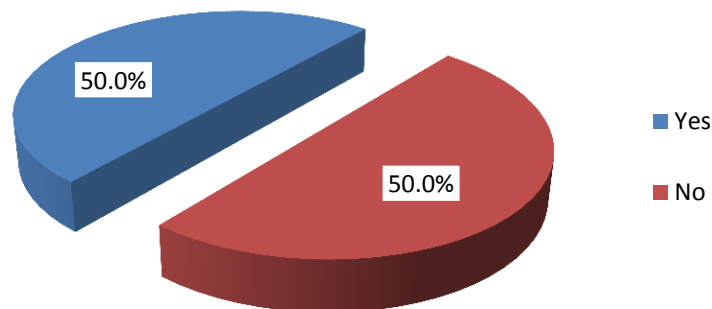
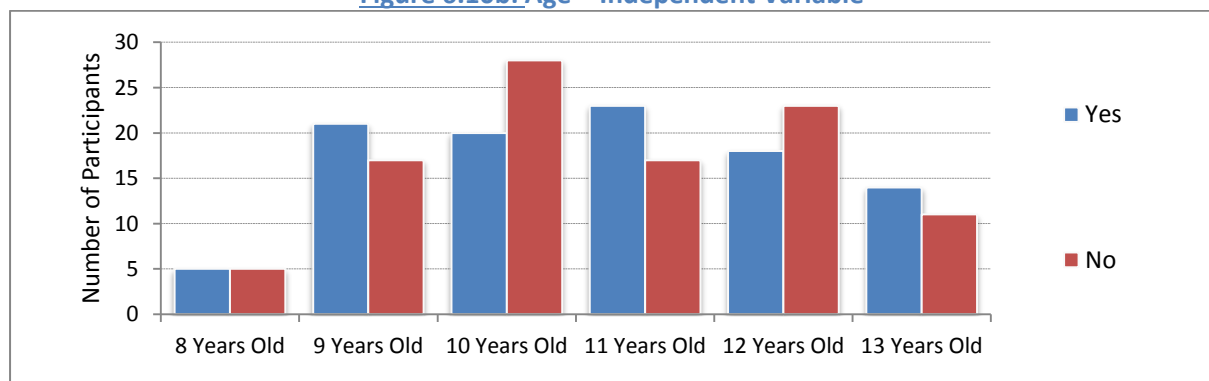


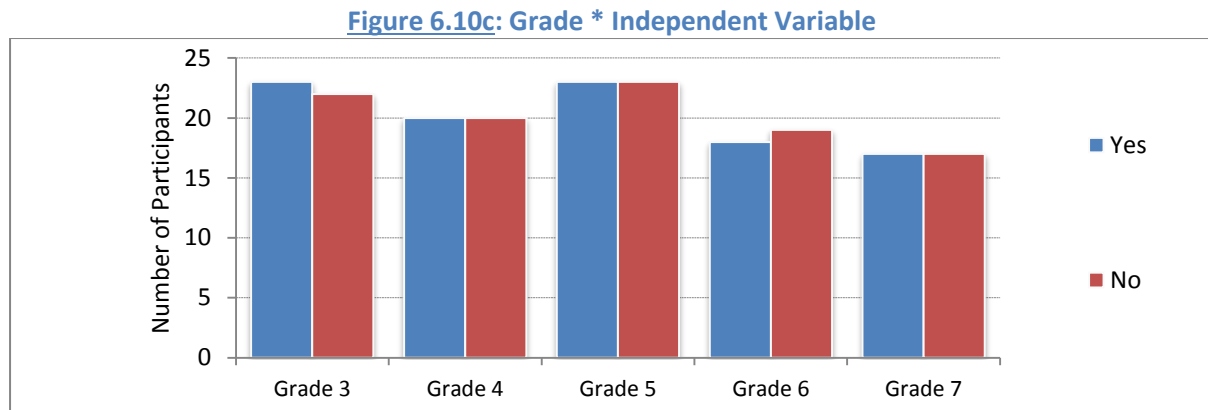
Figure 6.10b (below) shows the distribution of participants exposed to the independent variable relative to age.

Figure 6.10b: Age * Independent Variable



The distribution of the participants subjected to the IV relative to the control group was relatively equal based on age; the largest disparity (8 additional in control group) was amongst 10 year olds; 11 years olds had 6 additional members in the experimental group; the 12 year old control group was larger by 5 participants; there were 4 additional 9 year olds in the experimental group; 13 year olds had 3 extra participants in the experimental group; there were equal amounts of 8 year olds.

Figure 6.10c (below) shows the distribution of participants between the experimental group and the control group relative to age.



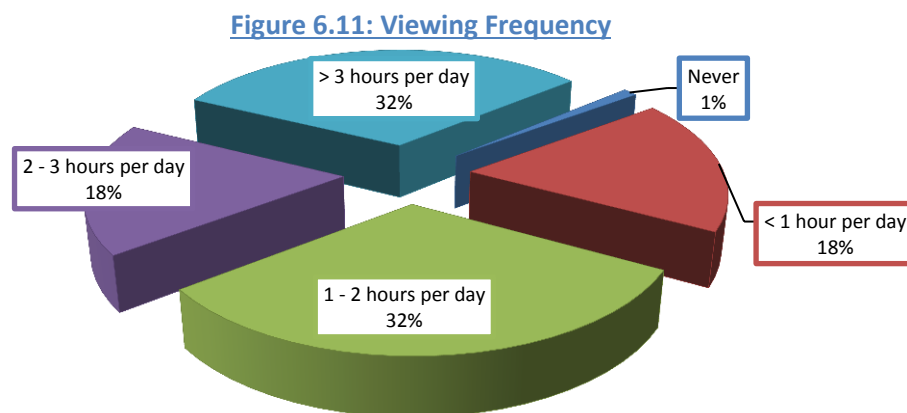
Each grade contributed one group for the experimental group and one group for the control group. Accordingly, the number of participants in the control group relative to the number of participants in the experimental group based on the age of the respondent has a negligible amount of disparity.

Groups which differed slightly include Grade 6, in which there was an additional participant in the control group; Grade 3 had an additional participant in the experimental group; the remainder of the grades had equal number of participants in the control group and the experimental group.

6.3. Viewing Frequency

The purpose of this section is to establish the frequency which respondents watched television in order to gauge whether there is a correlation between viewing frequency and advertising literacy.

Figure 6.11: Viewing Frequency (below) describes the frequency that respondents watched television, and were hence subjected to televised advertisements.



In descending order from most respondents to least respondents; 31.8% of respondents chose the median option of between 1-2 hours per day; 31.6% of respondents stated they watched in excess of

3 hours of television per day; 18% of respondents stated that they watched television less than 1 hour per day; 17.6% of respondents stated that they watched television between 2-3 hours per day. *Figure 6.6* (Above) shows that a negligible amount of respondents (1%) stated they did not watch television.

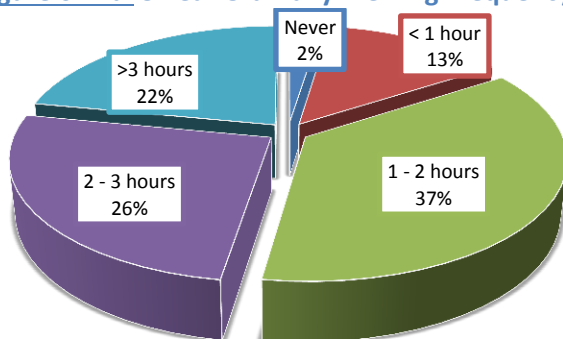
6.3.1. Viewing Frequency * Age Cross-tabulation

The following figures show the frequency which each age group watched television. For full frequency tables and inferential statistics see *Appendix H (Table A.12)*.

6.3.1.1. 8 Year Old Viewing Frequency

Figure 6.12a (below) illustrates how often 8 year old children watch television.

Figure 6.12a: 8 Year Old Daily Viewing Frequency



In descending order from the most frequently selected response to the least frequent response; 1-2 hours per day was both the mode and accounted for 37% of respondents; 2-3 hours per day was the second most frequently selected option and accounted for 26 % of respondents; 22% stated they watched more than 3 hours per day; less than 1 hour per day accounted for 13%; a negligible amount of 8 year old respondents (2%) stated that they never watch television.

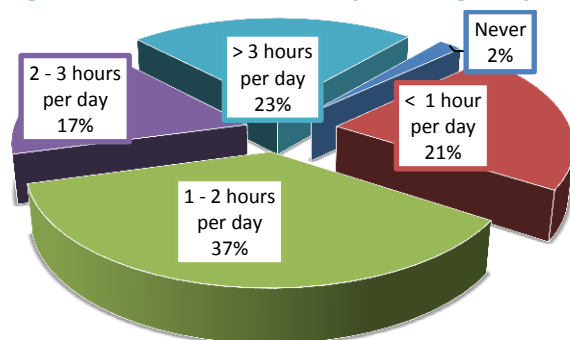
stated they watched more than 3 hours per day; less than 1 hour per day accounted for 13%; a negligible amount of 8 year old respondents (2%) stated that they never watch television.

6.3.1.2. 9 Year Old Viewing Frequency

Figure 6.12b (below) describes the frequency which 9 year olds watch television

Figure 6.12b: 9 Year Old Daily Viewing Frequency

In descending order from the most frequently selected response; the mode for 9 year olds viewing frequency was 1-2 hours per day with 37% of respondents; more than 3 hours per day accounted for 23% of 9 year old respondents; 21% of 9 year old respondents stated that they watched television less than 1 hour per day; 17% of respondents answered that they watched between 2-3 hours per day; once again, a tiny amount (2%) stated that they never watched television.



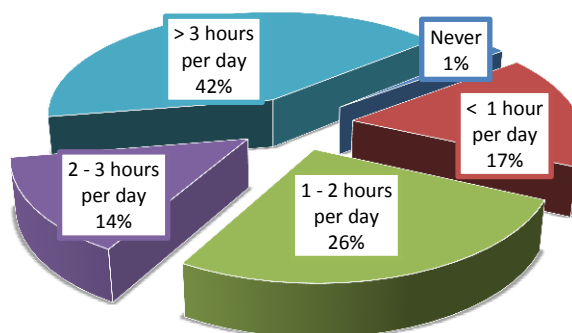
stated that they watched television less than 1 hour per day; 17% of respondents answered that they watched between 2-3 hours per day; once again, a tiny amount (2%) stated that they never watched television.

6.3.1.3. 10 Year Old Viewing Frequency

Figure 6.12c (below) represents the frequency which 10 year olds watch television.

In descending order from the most frequent response by 10 year olds to the least frequent response; the mode was more than 3 hours per day with 42% of respondents; 1-2 hours per day accounted for 26% of 10 year olds viewing frequency; 17% of 10 year olds watched less than 1 hour per day; only 14% of 10 year olds watched between 2-3 hours of television per day a negligible amount of 10 year olds (1%) claimed they never watch television.

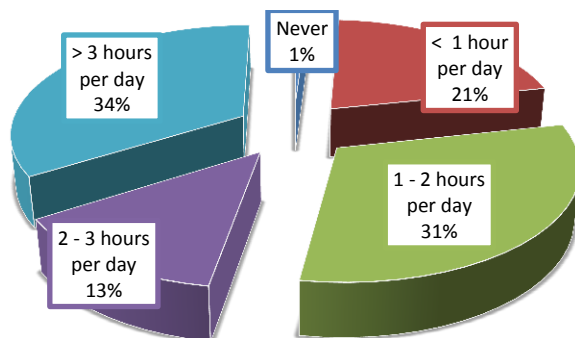
Figure 6.12c: 10 Year Old Daily Viewing Frequency



6.3.1.4. 11 Year Old Viewing Frequency

Figure 6.12d (below) depicts the frequency which 11 year olds watch television.

Figure 6.12d: 11 Year Old Daily Viewing Frequency



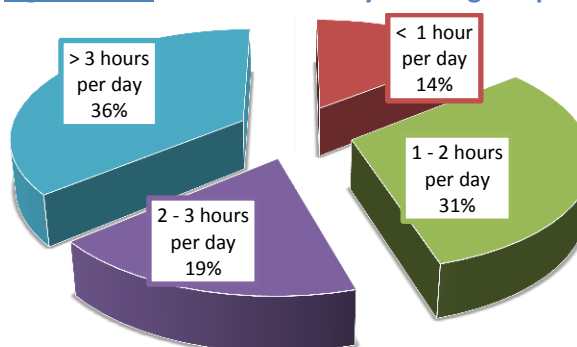
In descending order from the most frequent response by 11 year olds to the least frequent response; the mode was more than 3 hours per day with 34%; 1-2 hours per day accounted for 31%; 21% stated that they watch less than 1 hour of television per day; only 13% watched between 2-3 hours of television per day; a negligible amount (1%) stated that they did not watch television.

6.3.1.5. 12 Year Old Viewing Frequency

Figure 6.12e (below) expresses the frequency which 12 year olds watch television.

In descending order from the most frequent to the least frequent response; 36% of 12 year olds stated they watched more than 3 hours per day; 31% stated they watched 1-2 hours per day; 19% of 11 year olds watched 2-3 hours per day; 14% watched less than 1 hour per day. No respondents stated they never watched television.

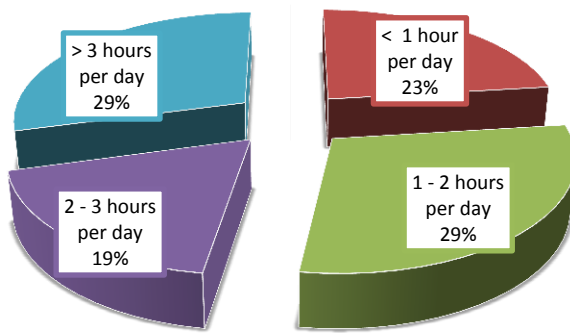
Figure 6.12e: 12 Year Old Daily Viewing Frequency



6.3.1.6. 13 Year Old Viewing Frequency

Figure 6.12f (below) describes the frequency which 13 year olds watch television

Figure 6.12f: 13 Year Old Viewing Frequency



In descending order from the most frequent response by 13 year olds to the least frequent response; both 1-2 hours per day and more than 3 hours per day had the same response rate of 29.23%; less than 1 hour per day accounted for 23% of respondents; 2-3 hours per day accounted for 19% of

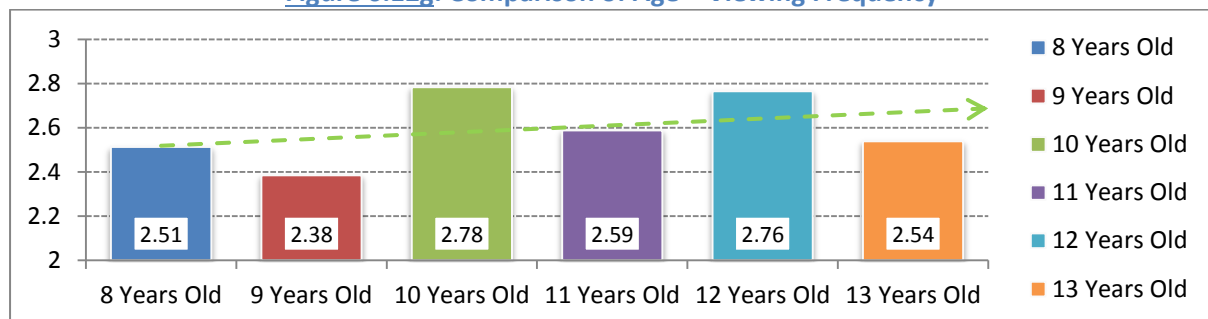
respondents; once again, there were no 13 year old respondents who stated that they never watched television.

6.3.1.7. Viewing Frequency Summary

A Pearson correlation was performed, which showed the correlation between age and viewing frequency was 0.058. Consequently, it can be deduced that there is an insignificant correlation between the age of a respondent and the amount of television which they watch.

The mean values from *Figures 6.12a – 6.12f* (above) are compared in *Figure 6.12g* (below) to graphically iterate the insignificant correlation stipulated above.

Figure 6.12g: Comparison of Age * Viewing Frequency



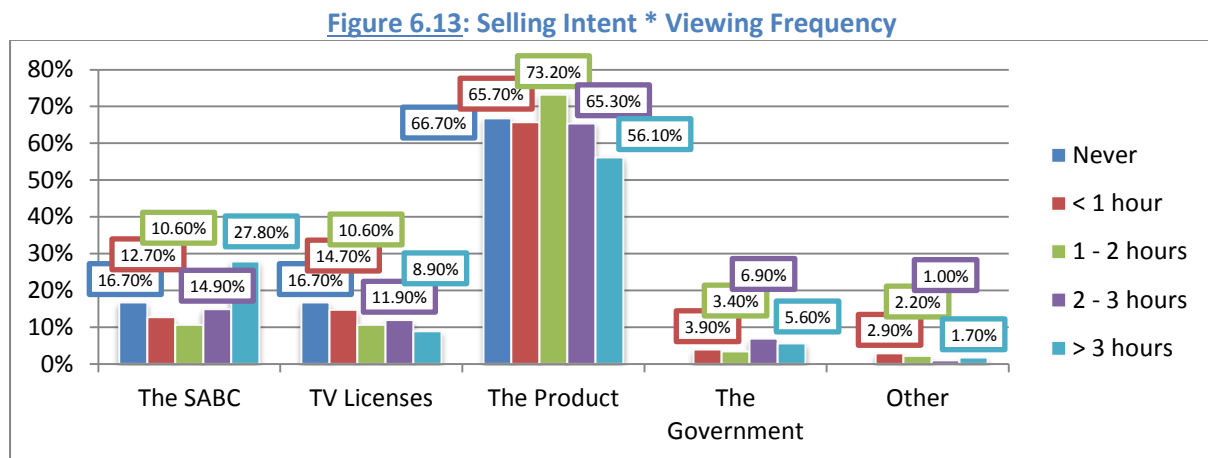
6.3.2. Viewing Frequency as a variable of Consumer Socialisation

According to O’Sullivan (2005: 375), television advertisements serve a functional purpose of educating children as consumers through the process of consumer socialisation. Consequently, O’Sullivan postulated that there would be a positive correlation between the three core components of advertising literacy (discussed in Chapter 3.3) and viewing frequency.

6.3.2.1. Selling Intent * Viewing Frequency Cross-tabulation

One of the prevalent intentions of advertisements is to incite consumers to purchase a product (Moses and Baldwin, 2005: 187). Consequently, the appreciation of who funds the advertisement by the consumer is seen as critical component of advertising literacy.

Figure 6.13 (below) depicts the degree to which children were able to correctly identify who pays for advertisements (the product) cross-tabulated against the frequency which they watch television.



It is clear that for all amounts of viewing frequency, the majority of respondents correctly identified that the product being advertised paid for the advertisement. The mean of the correctly chosen response accounted for 65% of the sample population with a standard deviation of only 6.1%.

Consequently, it can be deduced that the frequency which children watch television does not have a direct correlation with determining the selling intent of the advertisement.

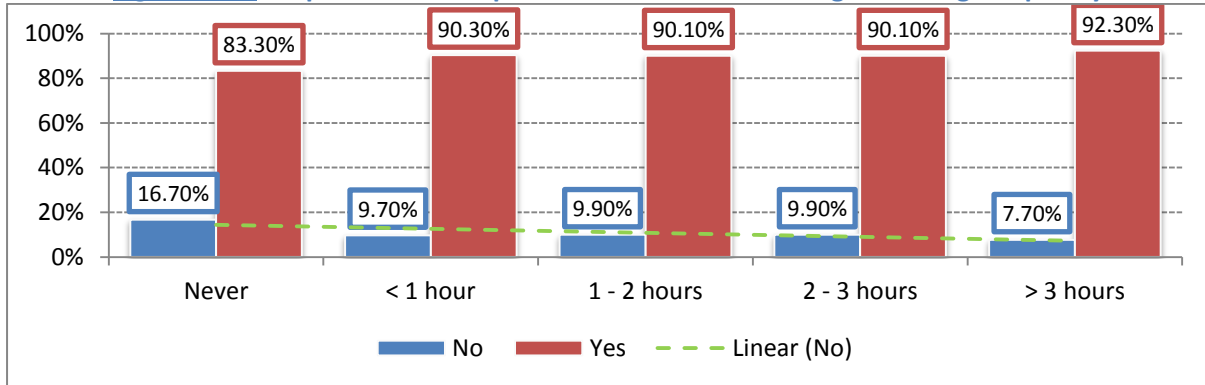
6.3.2.2. Advertising Bias * Viewing Frequency Cross-tabulation

One of the primary motivations of advertisements is the desire to increase sales of a particular product or service; this desire intrinsically materializes as an inherent bias evident in the advertisement (Moses, 2005: 193).

A cross-tabulation between the perceived truth of advertisements and the viewing frequency of responds was conducted to determine whether there was a correlation between viewing frequency and advertising literacy.

Figure 6.14 (below) graphically represents the cross-tabulation between viewing frequency and whether respondents were aware of the biased nature of advertisements.

Figure 6.14: Respondent has experienced bias in Advertising * Viewing Frequency



It can be clearly seen that the majority of respondents were aware of the biased nature of advertisements. The standard deviation between the groups was only 3.44% while the Cronbach coefficient of Alpha was 0.033 indicating that an increase in television viewing has an insignificant impact on comprehension of the bias nature of advertisements.

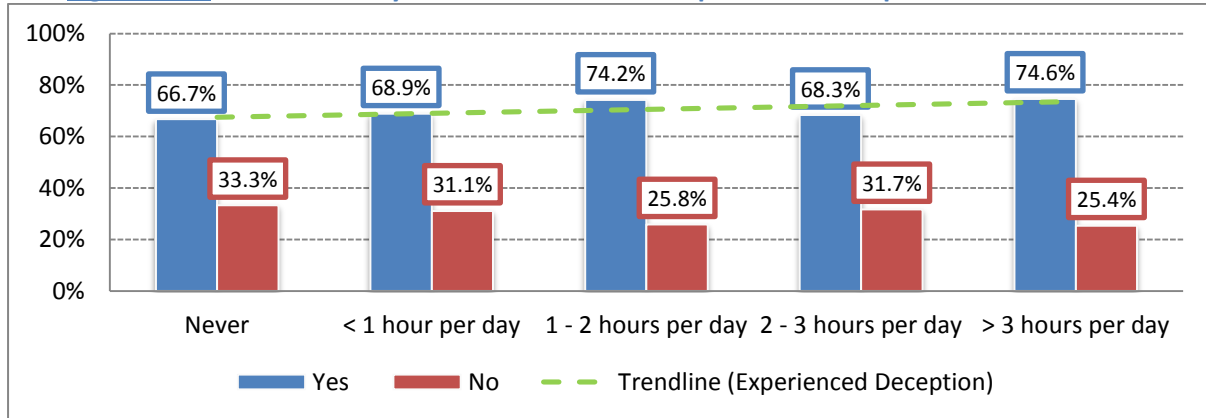
6.3.2.3. *Persuasive Nature * Viewing Frequency Cross-tabulation*

It is believed that as children develop and gain cognizance, their understanding of advertisements persuasive nature adapts (Priya et al., 2010: 153). Consequently, until children comprehend the inherent persuasive nature of advertisements they are more susceptible to the claims of advertisers (John, 1999: 186). As a result, *“It is a fundamental property of marketing that goods and services be promoted in a manner that is somehow found to be appealing to the intended audience”* (Preston, 2004: 364). Consequently, the persuasive nature of advertisements is considered a significant measuring point in advertising literacy (Priya et al., 2010: 153). *“Persuasive intent, rather than selling intent, is the critical factor signifying children’s capacity for cognitive defence”* (Carter, et al., 2011: 963).

The Persuasion Knowledge Model (PKM) which was discussed in *Chapter 3.3.3.1* specifies that until a child has experienced advertising deception, they do not fully comprehend the commercial nature of the advertisement. Consequently, a cross-tabulation between viewing frequency and advertising deception was performed, and is available in Appendix H (*Table A.15*).

Figure 6.15 graphically represents the cross-tabulation between respondents viewing frequency and whether or not respondents had experienced advertising deception.

Figure 6.15: How often do you watch television * Experienced deception cross-tabulation



For all categories of viewing frequencies, the majority of respondents had experienced deception.

In descending order from the group who had experienced advertising deception the least to the group which had experienced advertising deception the most; 66.7% of individuals who never watch television have experienced advertising deception; 68.3% of individuals who watch between 2-3 hours of television per day have experienced advertising deception; 68.9% of individuals who watch less than 1 hours of television per day have experienced advertising deception; 74.2% of respondents who watch between 1-2 hours of television per day claim to have experienced advertising deception; the group with who experienced the most advertising deception watched more than 3 hours of television per day (74.6%).

The standard deviation between the groups was only 3.4, showing that there is little variance between the differing viewing frequencies. This is ratified by the low Pearson Coefficient of Alpha value of 0.029.

6.3.2.4. Summary of Viewing Frequency as a Variable of Consumer Socialisation

In summation, the above findings show that the correlation between the 3 core components of advertising literacy and the frequency which respondents watched television was negligible on all accounts. Consequently, it can be deduced that the frequency which children watch television does not result in consumer socialization nor does it facilitate advertising literacy.

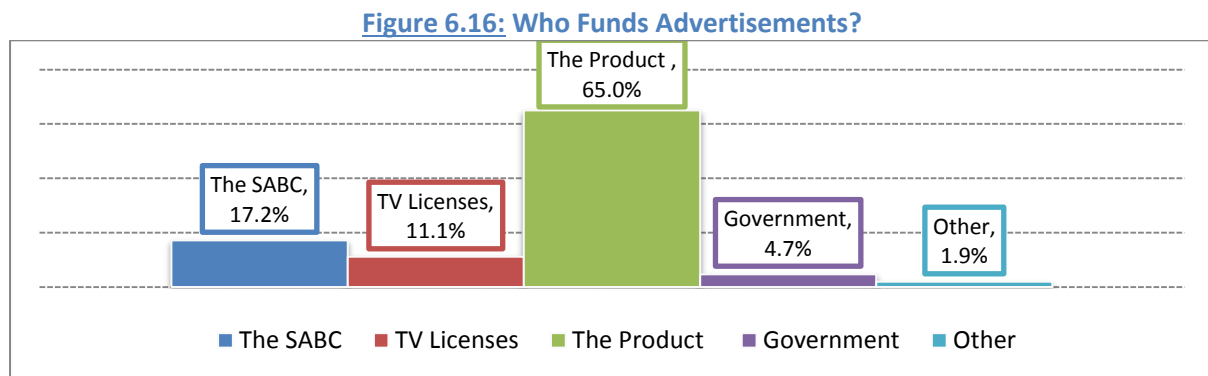
6.4. Selling Intent of Advertisement

The following section describes the empirical findings with regard to cognition of the selling intent of advertisements by the respondents.

6.4.1. Source of Advertisement Funding as a Factor of Selling Intent Cognizance

Respondents were asked if they could identify the source of funding for advertisements.

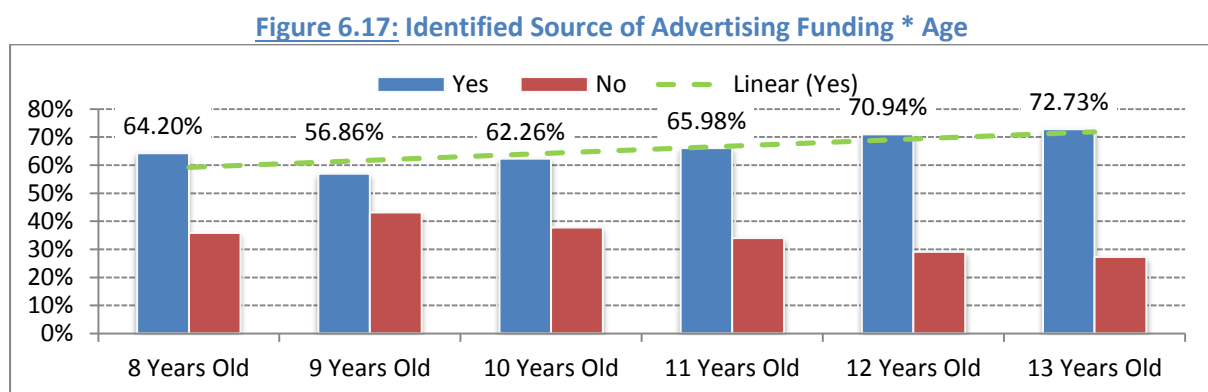
Figure 6.16 (below) depicts the perceived source of funding for advertisements.



In descending order from the most frequent response to the least frequent response; it can be seen that the majority of respondents (65.02%) correctly identified that products pay to be advertised; 17.2% of respondents believed the SABC sponsored the advertisements; 11.1% believed that advertisements were funded by TV Licenses; 4.7% believed that the government funded advertisements; a negligible amount of respondents believed another entity funded advertisements.

6.4.1.1. Advertisement Funding * Age Cross-tabulation

Figure 6.17 illustrates the degree to which respondents of different ages had cognizance of advertising funding. If respondents were able to correctly identify the source of funding for advertisements, it would represent that they possess an elementary appreciation of the capitalistic intent of the advertisement.



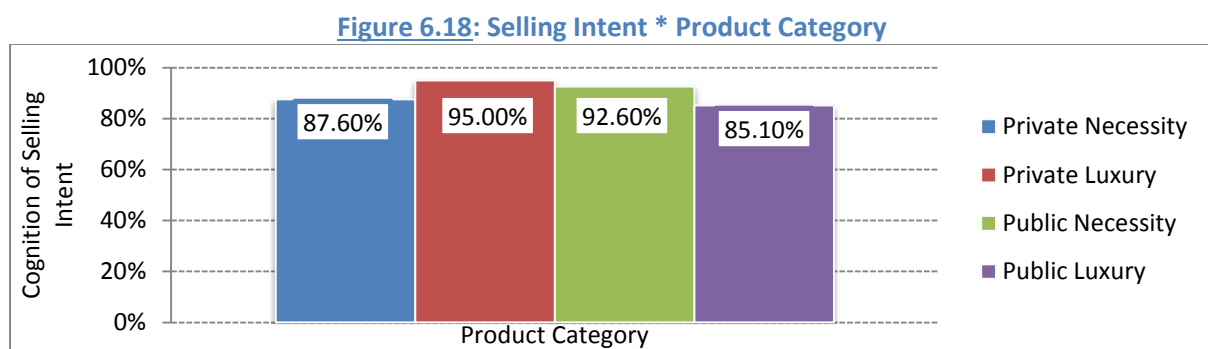
The linear trend-line in Figure 6.17 shows an upward inflection, indicating that as children mature in age, their cognizance of the source of funding for advertisements increases. 8 Year old respondents showed an augmented result with 64.2% of respondents correctly identifying the source of funding; the remainder of the sample showed a linear progression with 9 year olds identifying the source of funding in 56.86% of cases; 10 year olds correctly identified the source of funding for advertisements in 62.26% of cases; 11 year olds correctly identified the source of funding in 65.98% of instances; 12

year olds correctly identified the source of funding in 70.94% of advertisements; 13 year olds correctly identified the source of funding in 72.73% of instances.

6.4.2. Product Class and Age as Variables of Selling Intent Cognizance

Respondents were assessed to determine whether knowledge of the selling intent of the four identified product categories (privately consumed necessity goods, privately consumed luxury goods, publically consumed necessity goods, and publically consumed luxury goods) impacted their propensity to consume or not.

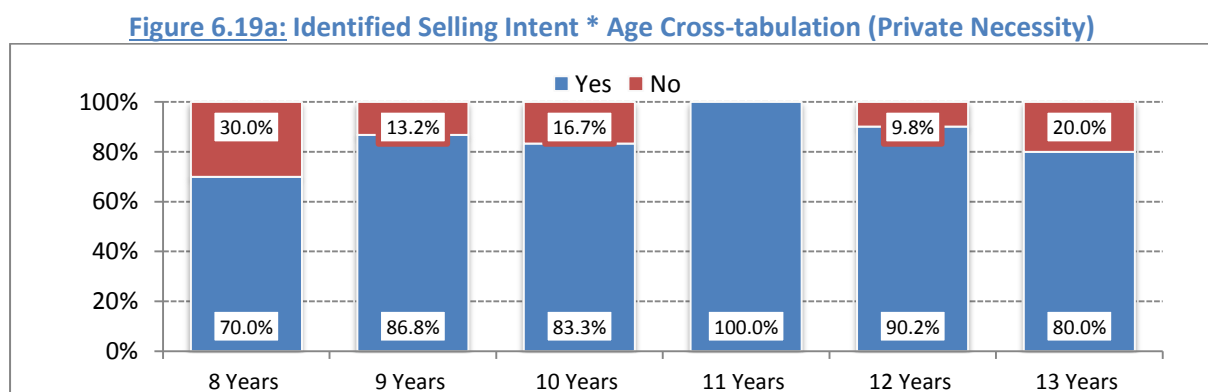
Figure 6.18 (below) shows the relationship of product class and selling intent.



The majority of respondents for all product categories identified the selling intent of the advertisement. There was little fluctuation between the product categories. The mean value was 90.075% with a standard deviation of only 4.53%. In descending order from the category with the highest cognition of selling intent awareness to the lowest, the findings were as follows: Private Luxury (95.0%); Public Necessity (92.6%); Private Necessity (87.6%); Public Luxury (85.1%).

6.4.2.1. Privately Consumed Necessity Goods * Age

Figure 6.19a (below) shows the relationship between respondents' ability to identify the selling intent of an advertisement for a privately consumed necessity correlated against the respondents' age.



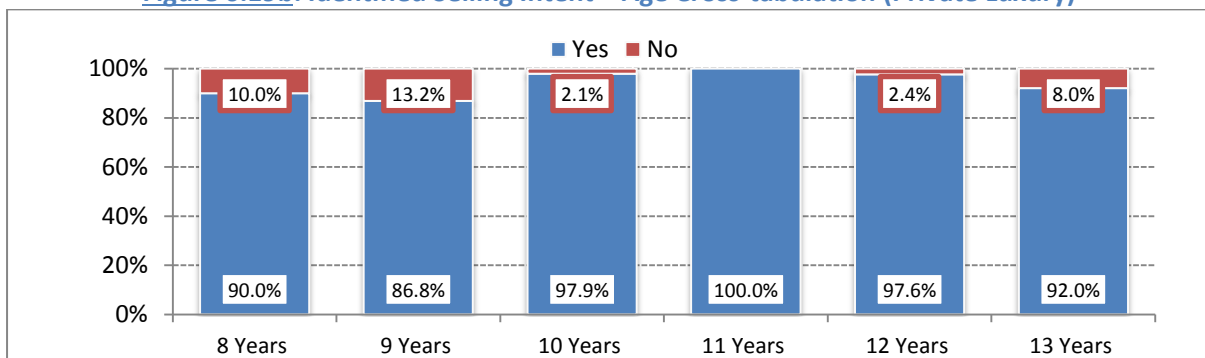
The majority of respondents from each age group correctly identified that there was a selling intent in the advertisement for a private necessity. In descending order from the age category which identified the selling intent most frequently to the age category which identified the selling intent the least; 11 year old respondents identified the selling intent in all instances; 12 year olds identified the selling intent in 90.2% of cases; 9 year olds identified the selling intent in 86.8% of cases; 83.3% of 10 year olds identified the advertisement had a selling intent; 13 year olds identified the selling intent in 80% of the instances; 8 year olds identified the selling intent the least with 70% of instances.

The sporadic manner in which a positive answer was received indicates that there is a negligible correlation between the recognition of the selling intent of a private necessity and age; which is demonstrated by the low Pearson coefficient value of 0.089.

6.4.2.2. Privately Consumed Luxury Good * Age

Figure 6.19b shows the relationship between respondents’ ability to identify the selling intent of an advertisement for a privately consumed luxury good correlated against the respondents’ age.

Figure 6.19b: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Private Luxury)

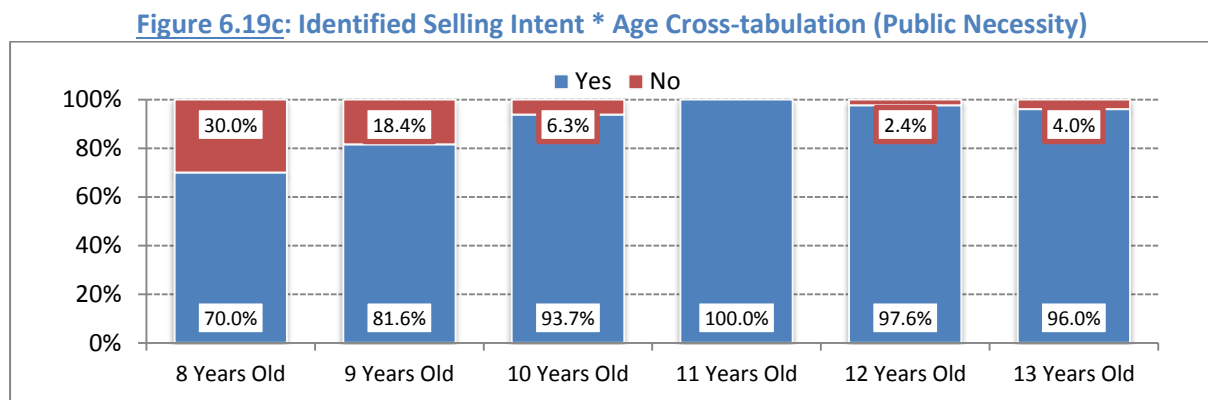


Once again, the majority respondents correctly identified that there was a selling intent in the advertisement. The following results show the frequency which respondents correctly identified the selling intent in descending order from the age category which identified the selling intent the most frequently to the age category which identified the selling intent the least; 11 year old respondents once again identified the selling intent in all instances; 10 year olds identified the selling intent in 97.9% of screenings; 12 year olds were marginally behind, and identified the selling intent in 97.6% of cases; 92.0% of 13 year olds identified the advertisement had a selling intent; 8 year olds identified the selling intent in 90% of cases; 9 year olds identified the selling intent with the lowest frequency, identifying the selling intent in 86.8% of instances.

The haphazard distribution depicted in *Figure 6.19b* (above) indicates that the correlation between age and cognizance of selling intent in advertisements for private luxury goods is negligible. The Pearson coefficient value of 0.115 indicates that although there is a correlation, it is a weak correlation between age and cognizance of selling intent.

6.4.2.3. Publically Consumed Necessity Good * Age

Figure 6.19c (below) depicts the correlation between the selling intent of an advertisement for a publically consumed necessity good and the age of the respondents.



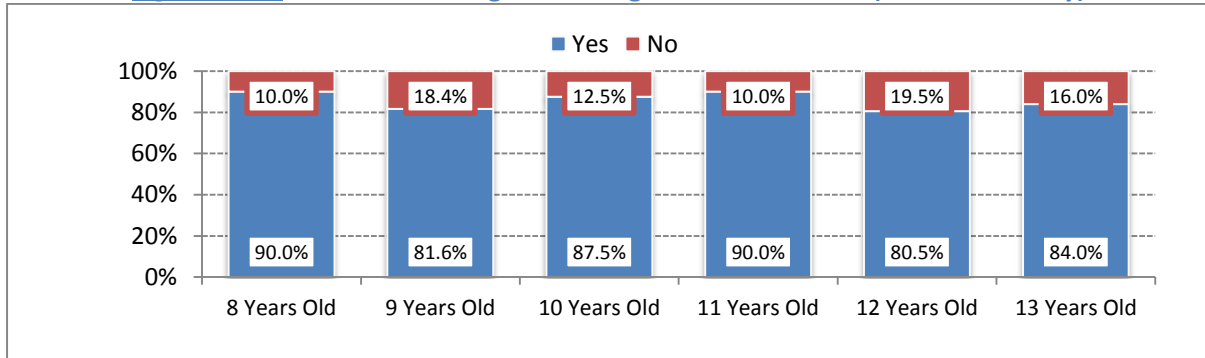
Once again, the majority of respondents for each age category correctly identified the selling intent of the advertisement. In addition, the respondents showed a linear approach to the advertisements for a publically consumed necessity. In descending order, from the age group which identified the selling intent with the highest degree of frequency to the group which identified the least frequently; 11 year olds identified the selling intent in all cases; 12 year olds identified the selling intent in 97.6% of instances; 13 year olds were marginally behind with 96% of respondents identifying the selling intent; 93.7% of 10 year old respondents correctly identified the selling intent of the advertisement for a publically consumed necessity; 81.6% of 9 year old respondents identified the selling intent; a relatively low 70.0% of 8 year old respondents identified the selling intent.

Figure 6.19c (above) shows a positive linear progression between the age ranges of 8 to 11 years old, then marginal fluctuations; indicating that there is positive correlation between age and cognizance of the selling intent in advertisements for publically consumed necessities. A Pearson coefficient of 0.219 shows that relative to other product categories, the advertising literacy of products considered publically consumed necessities is most affected by the age of the respondent.

6.4.2.4. Publically Consumed Luxury Good * Age

The following figure (*Figure 6.19d*) shows the relationship between the ages of respondents correlated against their cognizance of the selling intent publically consumed luxury goods.

Figure 6.19d: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Public Necessity)



Similarly to the other product categories, the majority of respondents in each age category correctly identified the selling intent. In descending order from the age category which identified the selling intent the most frequently to the age group which identified the selling intent the least frequent the findings were as follows: Both 8 year olds and 11 year olds correctly identified the selling intent in 90% of the cases; 10 year olds identified the selling intent in 87.5% of cases; 84.0% of 13 year old respondents correctly identified the selling intent of advertisements for publically consumed luxury goods; 81.6% of 9 year olds correctly identified the selling intent; 80.5% of 12 year olds had cognizance of the selling intent.

The haphazard distribution insinuates that there is no correlation between age and the cognizance of selling intent, which is confirmed by the very low Pearson’s coefficient value of 0.013.

6.4.2.5. Summary of Product Class * Age

In summation, it was found that there was a haphazard distribution of respondents’ cognizance of advertisements selling intent for privately consumed necessities, privately consumed luxuries, and publically consumed luxury goods. Publically consumed necessity goods showed the strongest correlation with the age of the respondent and the cognizance of the selling intent. *Table 6.1* (below) shows the Pearson correlations between the selling intent and age for different product categories.

Table 6.1: Pearson Correlations of Selling Intent and Age for different product categories	
Product Category	Pearson’s Coefficient of Alpha Value
Privately Consumed Necessity	0.089
Privately Consumed Luxury	0.115
Publically Consumed Necessity	0.219
Publically Consumed Luxury	0.013

6.4.3. Propensity to Consume

This section examines the degree which respondents are influenced to purchase a product relative to whether or not they are aware of the advertisements selling intent. Respondents were asked whether or not they preferred to purchase products which they had seen advertised on television.

6.4.3.1. Propensity to Consume Advertised Product Categories

The following figures show the propensity to consume an advertised good for each of the identified product categories

Figure 6:20a: Propensity to Consume Private Necessities

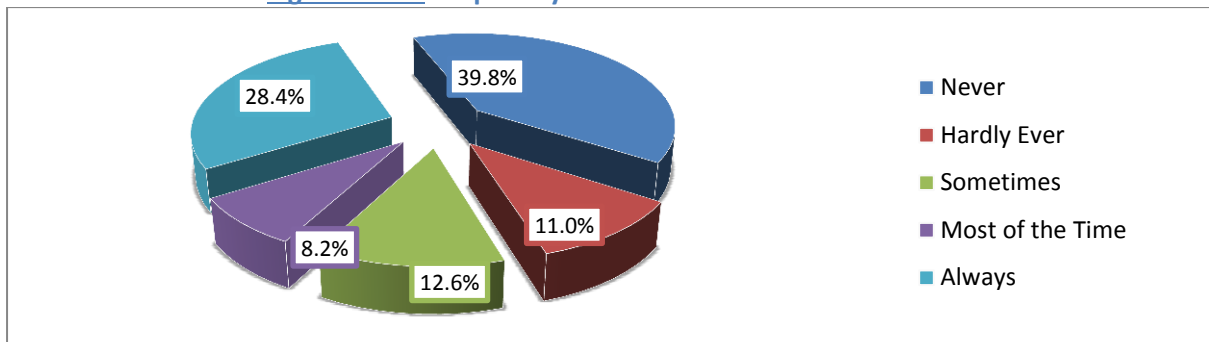
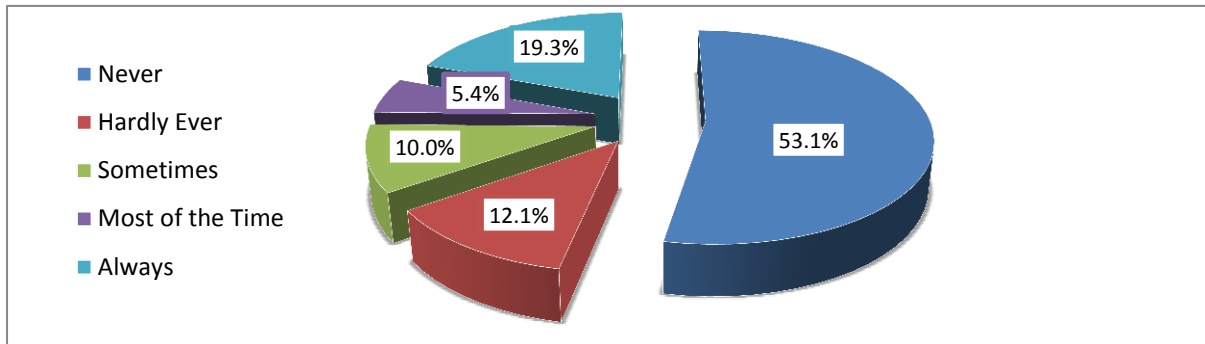


Figure 6.20a (above) depicts the findings for respondents' propensity to consume an advertised private necessity good over an unadvertised alternative. Respondents answered as follows; the mode (39.8%) of respondents stated that they do not prefer to purchase an advertised private necessity over an unadvertised alternative; 28.4% of respondents stated that they always prefer an advertised private necessity over an unadvertised alternative; 12.6% of respondents selected the median option, inferring that they were indifferent to advertisement; 11.0% of respondents stated that they hardly ever choose an advertised product over an unadvertised product; 8.2% of respondents stated that most of the time they would select an advertised private necessity over an unadvertised alternative.

The mean rating for the propensity to consume an advertised private necessity over an unadvertised equivalent was 2.74 implying that distribution skewed towards respondents being less favourable towards advertised products by 0.26 base points.

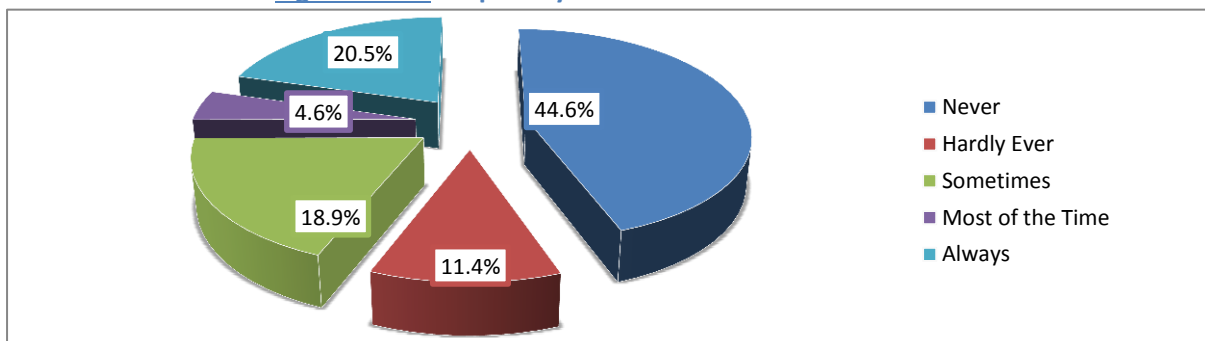
Figure 6.20b: Propensity to Consume a Private Luxuries



In descending order; the majority of respondents (53.1%) stated that they never purchase an advertised private luxury good over an unadvertised alternative; 19.3% of respondents stated that they always prefer the advertised product over the unadvertised alternative; 12.1% of respondents stated that they hardly ever select a private luxury good simply because it is advertised; 10% of respondents selected the median implying that they were apathetic to advertising; 5.4% of respondents stated that in most instances they preferred the advertised option.

The mean rating according to the weightings stipulated above was 2.26, implying that distribution was less favourable towards advertised private luxury goods by 0.74 base points.

Figure 6.20c: Propensity to Consume Public Necessities

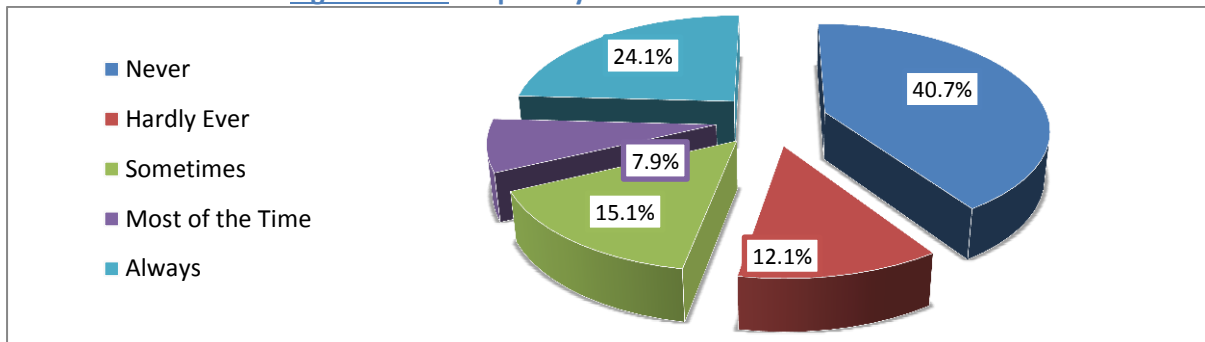


In descending order from the highest frequency of respondents to the lowest; a substantial amount of respondents (44.6%) stated that they never purchase an advertised luxury good over an unadvertised alternative; on the other hand, 20.5% of respondents stated that they always select an advertised publically consumed necessity good over an unadvertised alternative; 18.9% selected the median implying that they were indifferent to whether the public necessity had been advertised or not; 11.4% of respondents stated that they hardly ever select a public necessity because it has been advertised; only 4.6% of respondents stated that most of the time they prefer to purchase a public necessity good which has been advertised rather than one which has not.

The mean rating for public necessity goods according to the weightings stipulated above amounted to 2.45 indicating that respondents were less favourable to advertised publically consumed necessities by 0.55 base points.

Figure 6.20d (below) describes the propensity to consume an advertised publically consumed luxury good relative to an unadvertised alternative.

Figure 6.20d: Propensity to Consume Public Luxuries



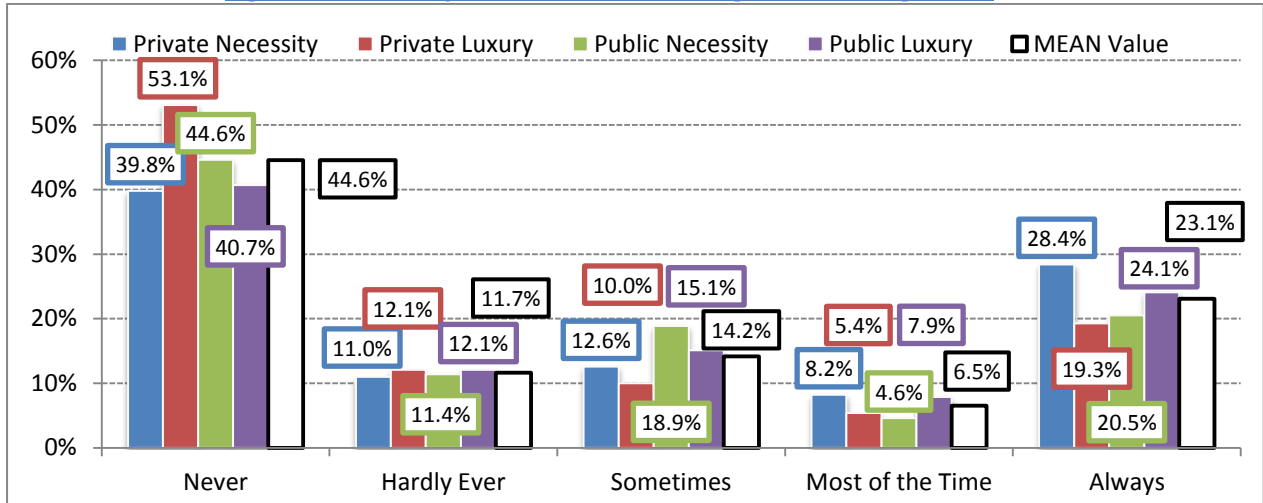
Respondents answered as follows; the mode accounted for 40.7% of respondents who stated that they never select a publically consumed luxury good on the basis that it has been advertised; conversely, 24.1% of respondents stated that they always prefer advertised publically consumed luxury goods over unadvertised alternatives; 15.1% of respondents selected the median option inferring that they are indifferent to whether the publically consumed luxury good has been advertised or not; 12.1% of respondents stated that they hardly ever base their consumption decision for publically consumed luxury goods on the basis that the product has been advertised; 7.9% of respondents stated that most of the time they would prefer to consume a publically consumed luxury good which has been advertised over one which has not.

The mean rating for the propensity to consume an advertised public luxury over an unadvertised equivalent was 2.63 implying that distribution was skewed towards respondents being less favourable to the advertised product by 0.37 base points

6.4.3.2. Summary of Product Classes as a Variable of Propensity to Consume

The comparative figure (below) summarises the findings documented above in a relative manner.

Figure 6.20e: Comparison of Product Categories * Selling Intent



Consumption frequency was found to be diverse between the product categories. The summarised finding for the frequency which an advertised good is purchased over an unadvertised alternative is described in *Table 6.2a* (below).

Table 6.2a: Product Categories * Selling Intent Summary	
Consumption Frequency	Description
Never	<p>The correlation between product categories and individuals who stated that they <u>never</u> purchase an advertised good over an unadvertised alternative (in descending order from the highest frequency of responses to the lowest frequency) were found to be; Private Luxuries accounted for 53.1%, Public Necessity 44.6%, Public Luxury 40.7%, and Private Necessity 39.8%.</p> <p>The mean value for respondents who stated that they were never influenced to purchase an advertised good over an unadvertised alternative was 44.6% of respondents.</p> <p>The standard deviation between the product categories who stated they never purchase an advertised product over an unadvertised good was 6.07%; the highest fluctuation between consumption frequency and product categories.</p>

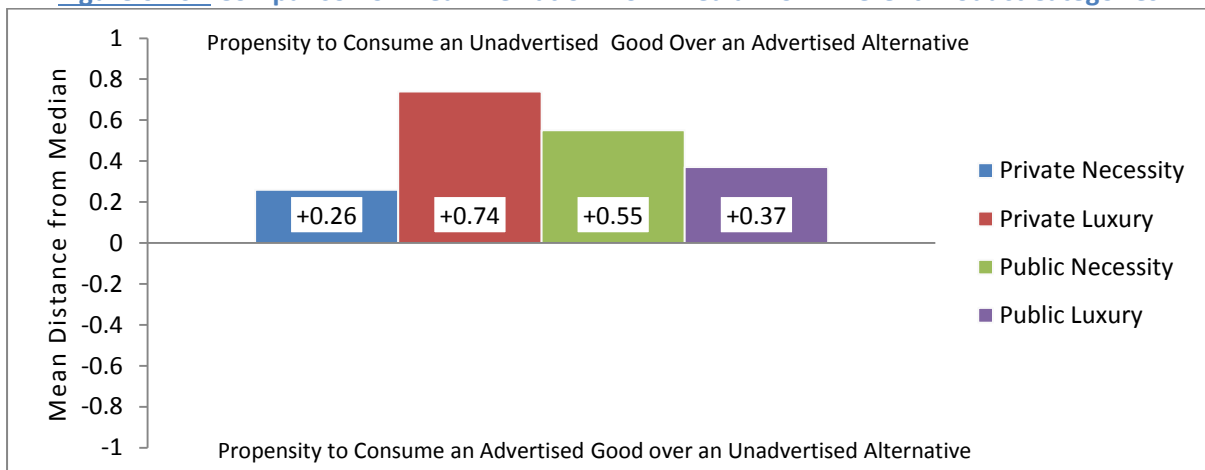
<p>Hardly Ever</p>	<p>Following the same paradigm as above, the correlation between product categories and selling intent for respondents who <u>hardly ever</u> purchase an advertised good over an unadvertised alternative is; Private Luxuries accounted for 12.15%, Public Luxury 12.13%, Public Necessity 11.4%, and Private Necessity 11.0%.</p> <p>The mean value for respondents who stated that they were hardly ever influenced to purchase an advertised good over an unadvertised alternative was 11.7%.</p> <p>The standard deviation between the product categories was 0.57%. This indicates that there is very little fluctuation in the correlation between product categories and respondents who stated they hardly ever purchase an advertised product over an unadvertised alternative.</p>
<p>Sometimes</p>	<p>Once again following the same methodology, the relationship between product categories and selling for respondents who stated they <u>sometimes</u> purchase an advertised good over an unadvertised alternative is; Public Necessity 18.9%, Public Luxury 15.1%, Private Necessity 12.6%, and Private Luxury 10%.</p> <p>The mean value for respondents who stated that they were sometimes influenced to purchase an advertised good over an unadvertised alternative was 14.2%.</p> <p>The standard deviation between the product categories was 3.79%. This indicates that there is a moderate fluctuation in the correlation between product categories and respondents who stated they hardly ever purchase an advertised product over an unadvertised alternative relative to other product categories.</p>
<p>Most of the time</p>	<p>The correlation between product categories and individuals who stated that <u>most of the time</u> they preferred to purchase an advertised good over an unadvertised alternative (in descending order from the highest frequency of responses to the lowest frequency) was found to be; Private Necessity 8.2%, Public Luxury 7.9%, Private Luxury 5.4%, Public Necessity 4.6%.</p> <p>The mean value for respondents who stated that in most cases they were influenced to purchase an advertised good over an unadvertised alternative was 6.5%.</p> <p>The standard deviation between the product categories who stated that in most cases they prefer to purchase an advertised product over an unadvertised product was relatively low at 1.80%.</p>

Always	<p>Once again following the same paradigm as above, the correlation between product categories and selling intent for respondents who <u>always</u> purchase an advertised good over an unadvertised alternative is; Private Necessity 28.4%, Public Luxury 24.1%, Public Necessity 20.5%, Private Luxury 19.3%.</p> <p>The mean value for respondents who stated that they were always influenced to purchase an advertised good over an unadvertised alternative was 23.1%.</p> <p>The standard deviation between the product categories was 4.09%. This indicates that there is a moderate fluctuation in the correlation between product categories and respondents who stated they always purchase an advertised product over an unadvertised alternative.</p>
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Table 6.2a (above) describes the propensity to consume relative to the product categories using propensity to consume as the comparative variable.

The following figure (Figure 6.20f) shows a comparison of the mean consumption frequency relative to the median for the four identified product categories. The calculated mean values are calculated above in Section 6.3.1.3.1.

Figure 6.20f: Comparison of Mean Deviation from Median for Different Product Categories



Utilising the formula: $\% \text{ Propensity to Consume} = [\sigma\bar{x}] \cdot \frac{R}{2} \cdot 100$ (see footnote⁷) it is possible to determine the increase in the percentage propensity which a respondent has to consume an advertised product over an unadvertised alternative (or vice versa).

⁷ Where $\bar{x}\sigma$ = mean deviation of product class; R = Maximum Range (6)

Using the above formula, findings from the empirical survey found that the propensity to consume an advertised product varied depending on product category. The results are discussed in *Table 6.2b* (below).

Table 6.2b: Advertising's Influence on Product Class Purchase		
Necessity Good	Private Necessity	Private necessities differed from the median point by a value of 0.26 base points. This implies that the propensity to consume an <u>unadvertised</u> good is 8.67% more than an unadvertised good.
	Public Necessity	A calculated mean deviation of 0.55 base points implies that respondents had an 18.3% preference to unadvertised goods over advertised alternatives.
	<i>The mean deviation value for all necessity goods amounted to 0.405 base points. This translates to a 13.5% preference for unadvertised goods over advertised alternatives.</i>	
Luxury Good	Private Luxury	Private Luxury showed the lowest propensity to consume an advertised good. It was calculated that the mean deviation was 0.74 base points. Consequently, in 24.67% of cases respondents preferred an unadvertised good
	Public Luxury	Public luxuries had a deviation of 0.37 base points from the median. This translates to a 12.3% preference for an unadvertised good over an advertised alternative
	<i>The mean deviation value for all luxury goods amounted to 0.555 base points. This translates to an 18.5% preference for unadvertised goods over advertised alternatives.</i>	
The values calculated in this table utilised the formula: $\text{Propensity to Consume} = \left[\frac{\sigma \bar{x}}{2} \right] \cdot \frac{R}{2} \cdot 100$		

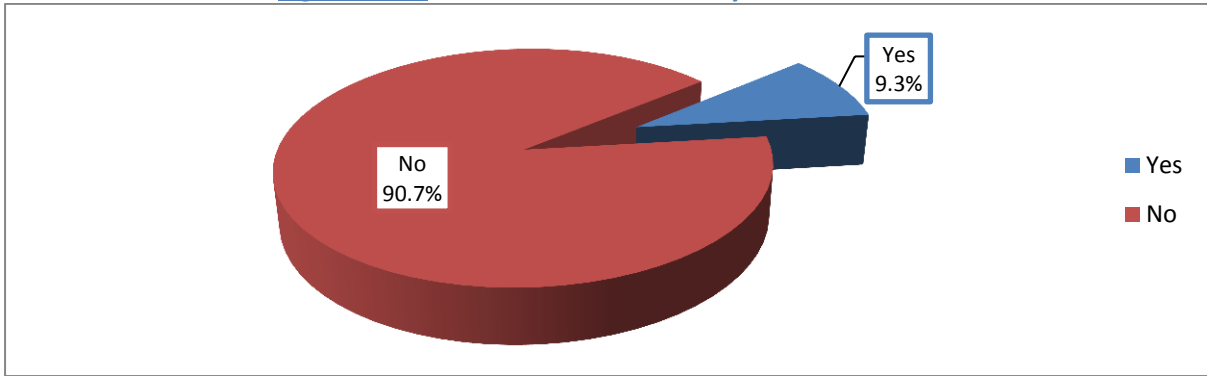
6.5. Bias Nature of Advertisements

This section describes the findings which pertain to tweens' cognition of the bias nature evident in advertisements.

Respondents were firstly asked to identify whether or not they were aware of the deceptive nature of advertisements. The findings were then cross-tabulated with the source of advertisement funding. Respondents who correctly identified both the source of funding as well as the deceptive nature would have knowledge of the bias.

Figure 6.21 (below) describes whether or not respondents were aware of the deceptive nature of advertisements.

Figure 6.21: Do Advertisements Always tell the Truth?

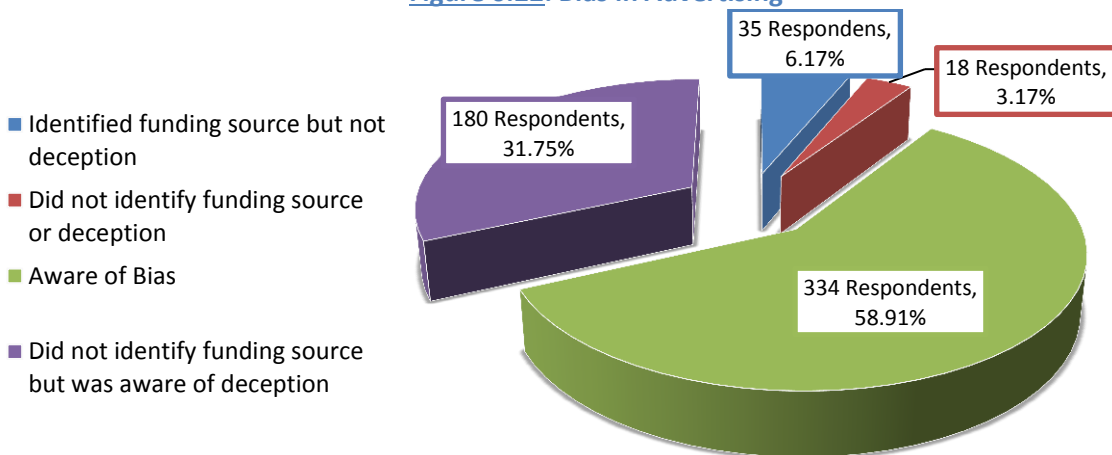


The results clearly indicated that the majority of respondents were able to identify that not all advertisements told the truth; the vast majority (90.7%) identified that advertisements do not always tell the truth.

In order to determine whether or not respondents were aware of the bias nature of the advertisement, the degree to which respondents identified the deceptive nature of advertisements was correlated with whether or not respondents were able to identify the source of funding.

Figure 6.22 (below) describes the relationship between individuals who were able to identify both the source of advertising funding as well as the deceptive nature of the advertisement.

Figure 6.22: Bias in Advertising



In descending order from the highest frequency of responses to the lowest, the results were as follows; the majority (58.91%, 334 Respondents) were able to acknowledge both the source of funding for the advertisement as well as the intrinsic deception and thus had cognizance of the inherent bias evident in advertisements; 180 respondents (31.75%) did not identify the source of funding for the advertisement, but were aware that advertisements had a deceptive nature; 6.17% (35 respondents) were able to identify the source of funding but were not aware of advertisements

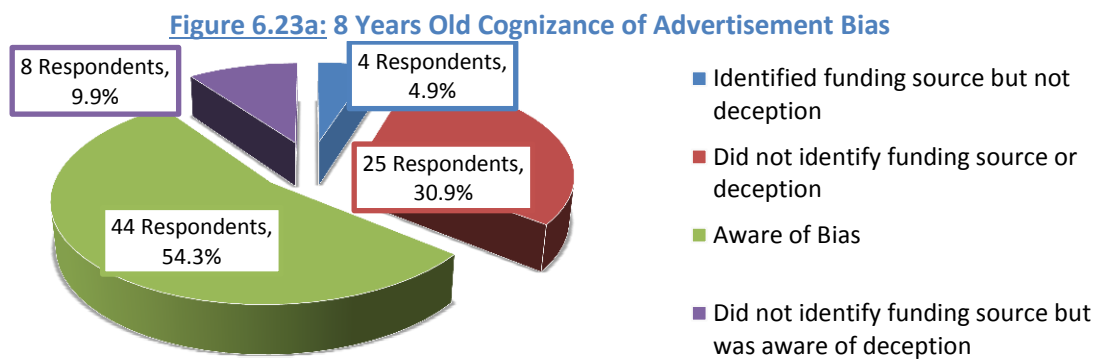
deceptive nature; 18 respondents (only 3.17%) were unable to identify the source of funding for advertisements nor the deceptive nature.

6.5.1. Age as a Comprehension Variable of Advertising Bias

In order to assess and compare the correlation between the age of respondent and their cognizance of the inherent bias in advertisements, a 2-tiered correlation between the age of the respondent relative to the source of funding and perceived truth was performed. The findings are available in *Appendix H in Table A.23*.

6.5.1.1. 8 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias

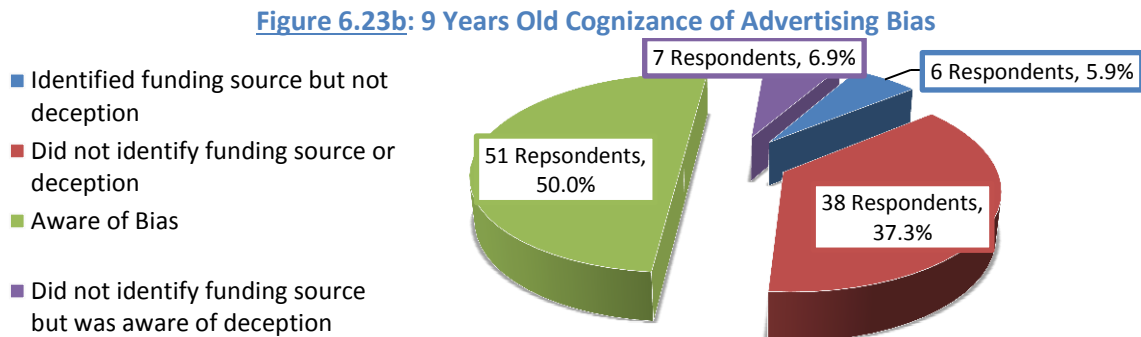
Figure 6.23a (below) shows the distribution of respondents who were able to identify the bias nature of advertisements.



In descending order from the highest frequency of responses to the lowest; it can be seen that the majority of 8 year old respondents (44 Respondents, 54.3%) identified both the source of advertisement funding as well as the deceptive nature of the advertisement; 25 Respondents (30.9%) did not have any comprehension of the deceptive nature nor selling intent; 8 respondents were aware of the source of funding but not the deceptive nature; 4.9% (4 respondents) were able to identify the funding source but not the deceptive nature of the advertisement

6.5.1.2. 9 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias

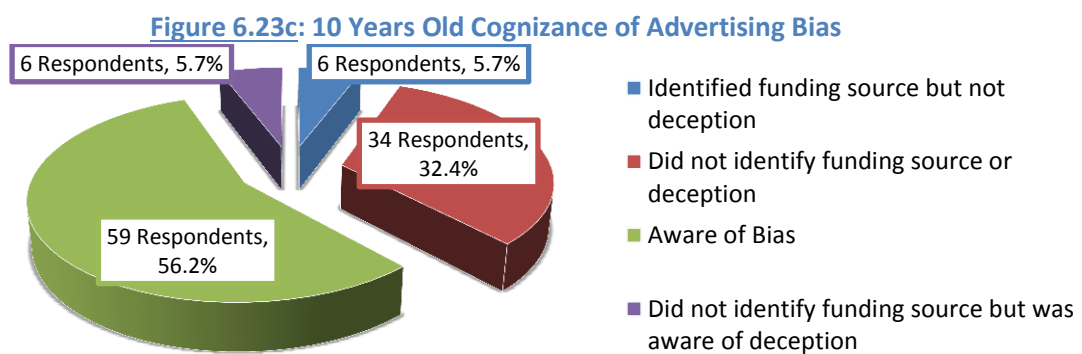
Figure 6.23b (below) shows the awareness of advertisement bias according to 9 year old respondents.



Half of the 9 year olds surveyed identified both the source of advertising funding as well as the inherent deception and consequently had cognizance of the bias evident in advertisements; 37.3% did not identify the funding source nor the deceptive nature; 6.9% of 9 year old respondents did not identify who paid for advertisements, but were aware of the deceptive nature; 5.9% of respondents identified the source of funding for advertisements, but were unaware of the inherent deceptive nature of advertisements.

6.5.1.3. 10 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias

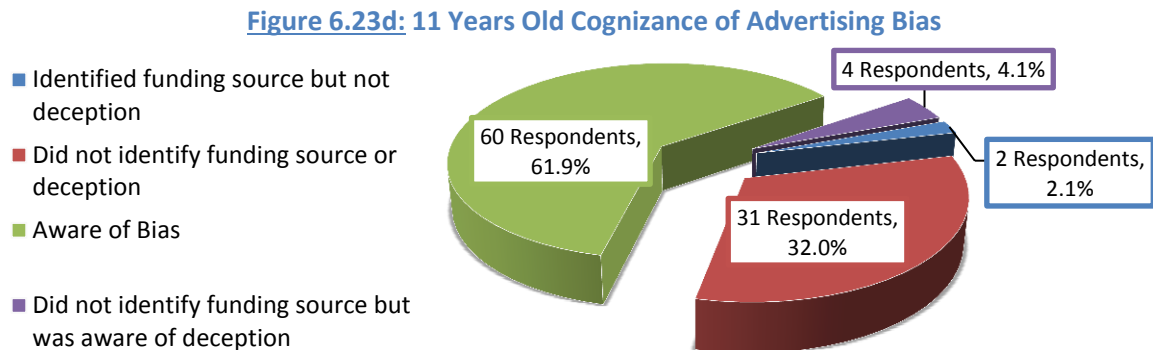
Figure 6.23c (below) showcases the comprehension of the inherent bias evident in advertising amongst 10 year old respondents.



The majority of respondents (56.2%, 59 respondents) had a comprehension of advertising bias and correctly identifies both the source of advertisement funding as well as the deceptive nature of advertisements; 32% of respondents did not identify the deceptive nature of advertisements, nor the source of funding; 6 respondents (5.7%) identified only the source of funding and not the deceptive nature; 6 respondents (5.7%) identified the deceptive nature but not the source of funding for advertisements.

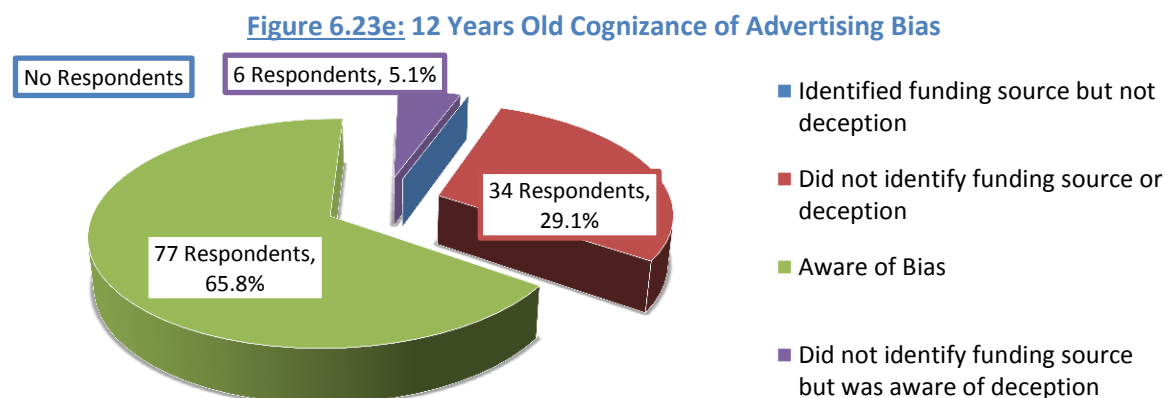
6.5.1.4. 11 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias

The figure below (Figure 6.23d) graphically represents the cognizance of advertising bias among 11 year respondents.



Once again, the majority of 11 year old respondents (61.9%, 60 respondents) had knowledge of advertisement’s bias nature and were able to identify both the deceptive nature of advertisements and identify who funded the advertisement; 32% (31 respondents) of 11 year old respondents did not identify the source of funding nor the inherent deception; 4 respondents (4.1%) were aware advertisements were deceptive in nature but did not identify who funded them; 2.1% (2 respondents) identified the funding source, but not the deceptive nature.

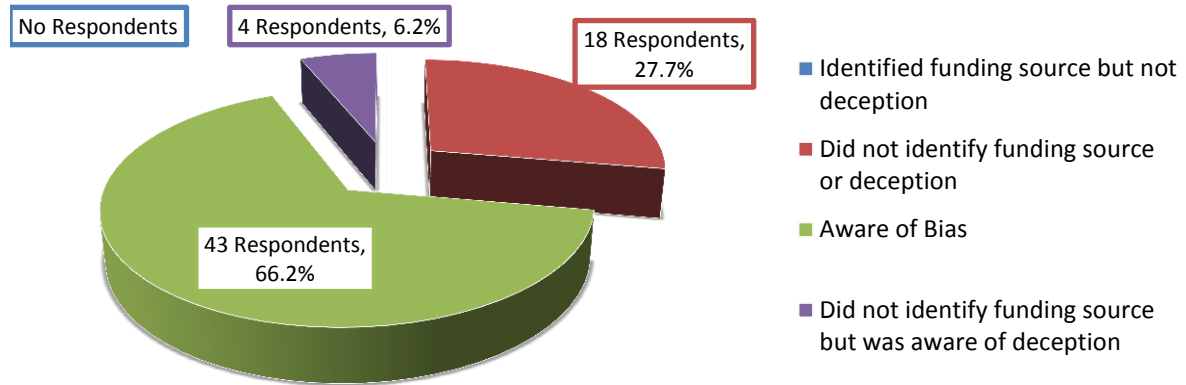
6.5.1.5. 12 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias



The majority of 12 year old respondents (65.8%, 77 respondents) were aware of advertisements bias nature and identified both the deceptive nature of advertisements as well as the capitalistic nature of the funding; 29.1% (34 respondents) of 12 year olds did not identify the source of advertisements funding, nor the deceptive nature; 6 respondents (5.1%) were aware of the deceptive nature of advertisements, but did not identify where the funding came from; there were no respondents who were aware of the source of advertising funding but were not aware of the deceptive nature.

6.5.1.6. 13 Year Old Cognizance of Advertisement Bias

Figure 6.23f: 13 Years Old Cognizance of Advertising Bias

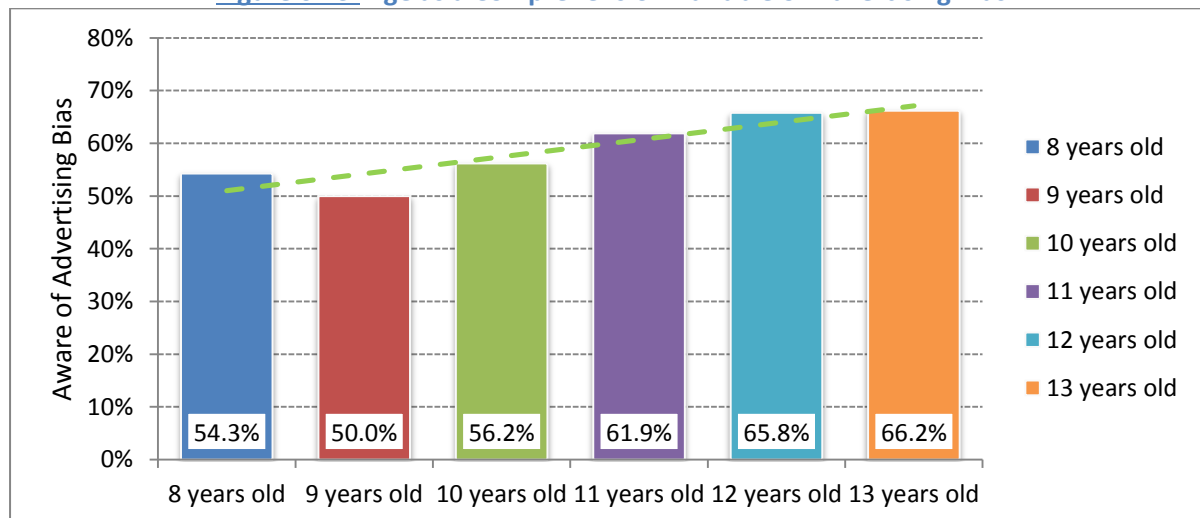


The vast majority of 13 year old respondents (66.2%, 43 respondents) were aware of advertisements bias towards the good being promoted, and identified both the capitalistic source of advertisement’s funding, as well as the inherent deception; 27.7% (18 respondents) were not aware of the source of funding for advertisements, nor the deceptive nature of them; 6.2% (4 respondents) were conscious of the deceptive nature, but did not have cognizance where the funding came from; no 13 year old respondents were aware of the source of funding while lacking the perception that there was an inherent deception evident in advertisements.

6.5.1.7. Summary of Age as a Comprehension Variable of Advertising Bias

Figure 6.23g (below) compares the percentage of respondents that correctly identified both the capitalistic source of advertisement funding as well as the deceptive nature of advertisements from each age category relative to one another.

Figure 6.23: Age as a Comprehension Variable of Advertising Bias



The upward inflection of the trend line in *Figure 6.23g* implies that there is a positive correlation between the age of the respondents and their comprehension of the inherent bias nature of advertisements.

To substantiate this claim, a Pearson correlation between the age of the respondent and the percentage within that age category that correctly identified both the capitalistic source of funding as well as the deceptive nature of advertisements was performed, which resulted in a coefficient of alpha (R-value) of 0.913. This confirms that there is a strong positive correlation between the age of the respondent and their cognizance of the bias evident in advertisements.

Consequently, it was found that as children become older, they become more aware of the bias nature of advertisements.

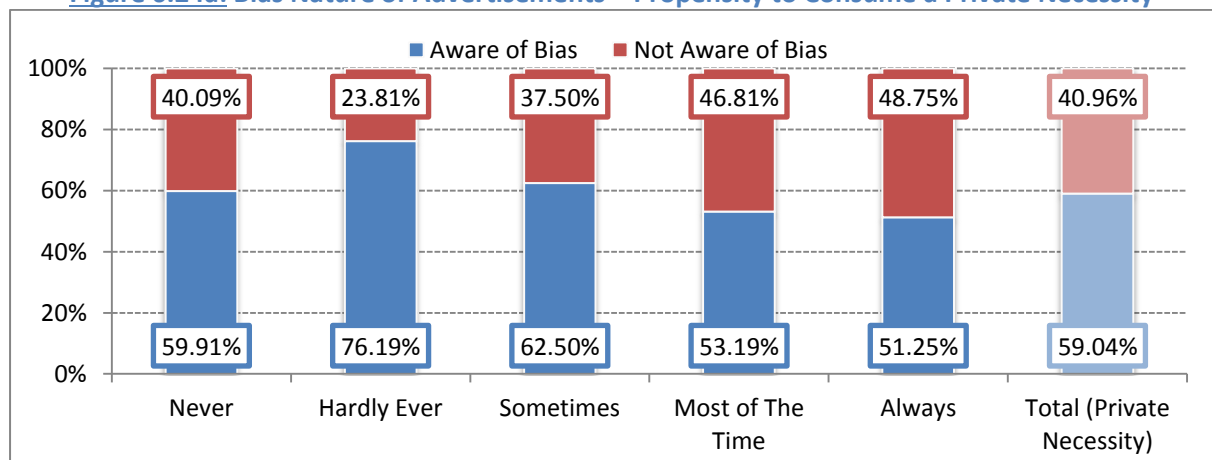
6.5.2. Bias Nature of Advertisement, Product Classes, and Propensity to Consume

The following section details the correlation between the biased nature of advertisements relative to the propensity to consume. Product classes are segregated according to the degree of conspicuous during consumption as described by Childers and Rao (1992: 201). Values were added to responses in order to render them statistically comparable; Never = 0, Hardly Ever = 1, Sometimes = 2, Most of the time = 3, Always = 4.

6.5.2.1. Bias Nature of Advertisements for Privately Consumed Necessities as a Variable of Propensity to Consume

The following figure shows the propensity to consume a private necessity good relative to the cognizance of the bias nature of adverts.

Figure 6.24a: Bias Nature of Advertisements * Propensity to Consume a Private Necessity



Propensity to consume (x-axis) correlated to the awareness of advertisement's bias nature (y-axis). In descending order from the consumption frequency with the highest percentage of respondents

who identified the bias nature to the consumption frequency who identified it the least; 76.19% of respondents who were hardly ever influenced by the advertisement were cognizant of advertisements bias; respondents who were sometimes influenced were aware of advertising bias in 62.5% of cases; 59.91% of respondents who never bought advertised products were aware of the bias; 53.19% of individuals who were influenced most of the time were aware of the bias; the lowest frequency of responses stated they always purchase advertised goods (51.25% of respondents indicating they were aware of the intrinsic bias).

A Pearson Correlation returned a coefficient of alpha value of -0.65. This signifies that as the cognizance of advertising increases, the propensity to consume a privately consumed necessity decreases.

6.5.2.2. Bias Nature of Advertisements for Privately Consumed Luxuries as a Variable of Propensity to Consume

The following figure shows the propensity to consume a private luxury good relative to the cognizance of the bias nature of adverts.

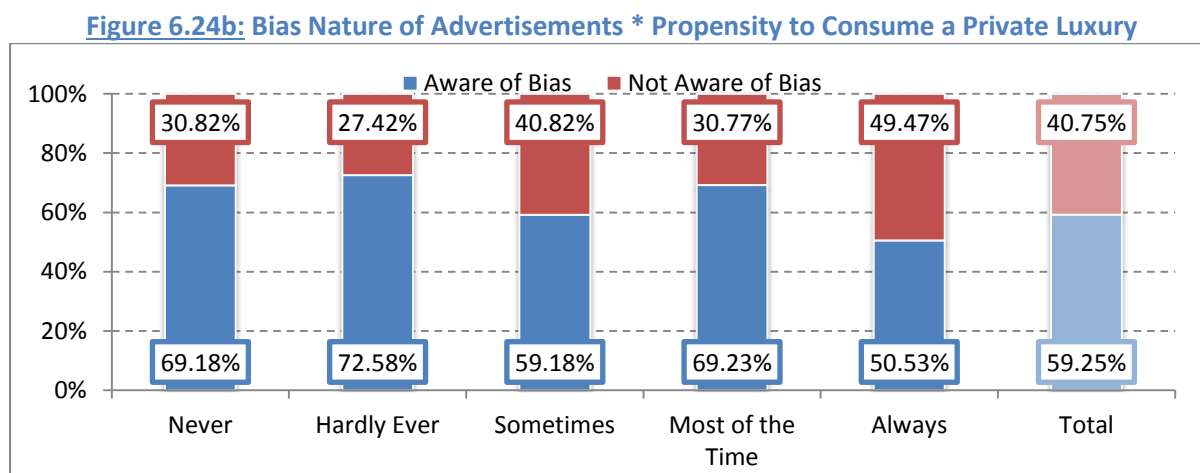


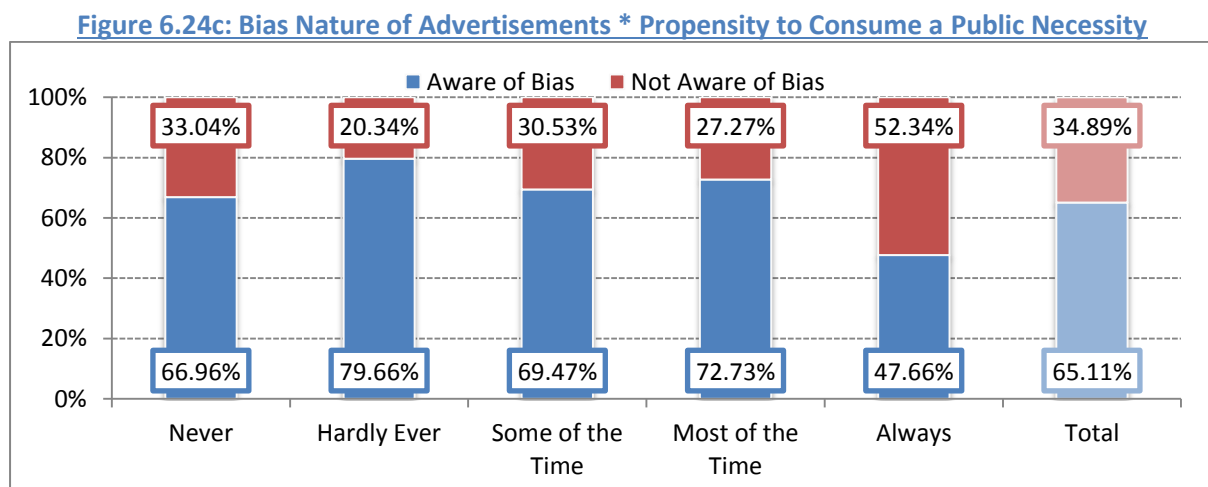
Figure 6.24b (above) shows the propensity to consume a private luxury good relative to the awareness of advertising bias. In descending order, from the highest percentage of respondents aware of the bias nature of advertisements to the lowest; 72.58% of respondents who stated they are hardly ever influenced by advertisements were aware of the bias; 69.23% of respondents who stated that in most cases they prefer to purchase advertised goods were aware of the bias of advertisements; 69.18% of respondents who were never influenced to consume were aware of the intrinsic advertising bias; 59.18% of respondents who selected the median option and stated that they preferred to purchase advertised products sometimes were aware of the bias; 50.53% of

respondents who stated that they always purchase advertised goods were aware of the inherent bias.

A Pearson correlation returned a coefficient of alpha value of -0.71 indicating that as respondents gained cognizance of advertising bias, their propensity to consume private luxury goods decreased.

6.5.2.3. Bias Nature of Advertisements for Publically Consumed Necessities as a Variable of Propensity to Consume

Figure 6.24c (below) shows the propensity to consume a publically consumed necessity good relative to the awareness that advertisements have an inherent bias nature.



The figure above shows the propensity to consume a publically consumed necessity good, correlated against the cognizance that advertisements have a bias nature since they do not always tell the truth and are funded by the product concerned.

In descending order from the highest percentage of awareness of the bias component of advertising to the lowest; 79.66% of respondents who stated that they hardly ever prefer to purchase advertised goods were aware of the inherent bias; 72.73% of respondents who stated that in most cases they preferred to purchase an advertised good were aware of the bias component; 69.47% of respondents who selected the median option and stated that they only purchase advertised goods over unadvertised alternatives sometimes were aware of the bias nature of advertisements; 66.96% of respondents who stated that they never prefer an advertised public necessity good over an unadvertised alternative were aware of the presence of bias in advertisements; only 47.66% of respondents who had cognizance of advertising bias stated that they always purchase advertised goods over unadvertised alternatives.

A Pearson correlation returned a coefficient of alpha value of -0.60 which shows that the awareness of the inherent bias in advertisements has a negative impact on propensity to consume. Thus, an increase in awareness of advertising awareness results in a decrease in propensity to consume.

6.5.2.4. Bias Nature of Advertisements for Publically Consumed Luxuries as a Variable of Propensity to Consume

Figure 6.24d: Bias Nature of Advertisements * Propensity to Consume a Public Luxury

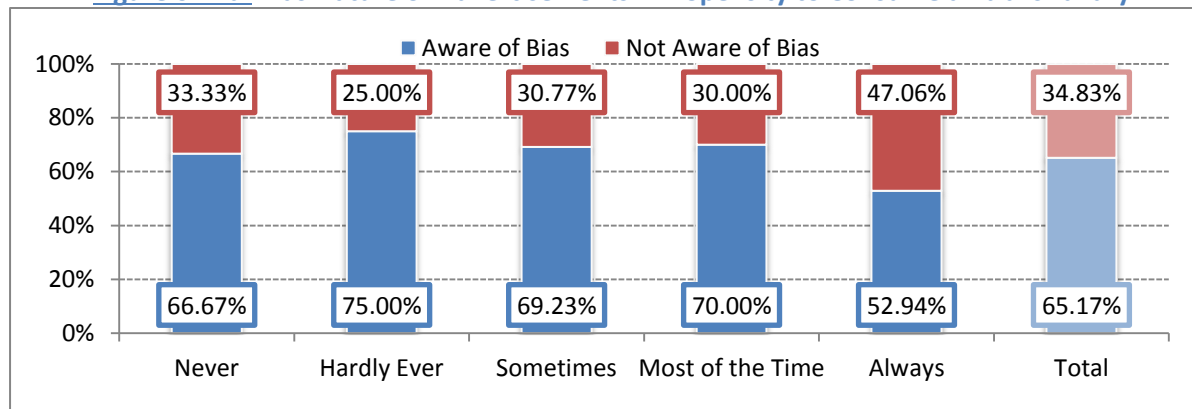


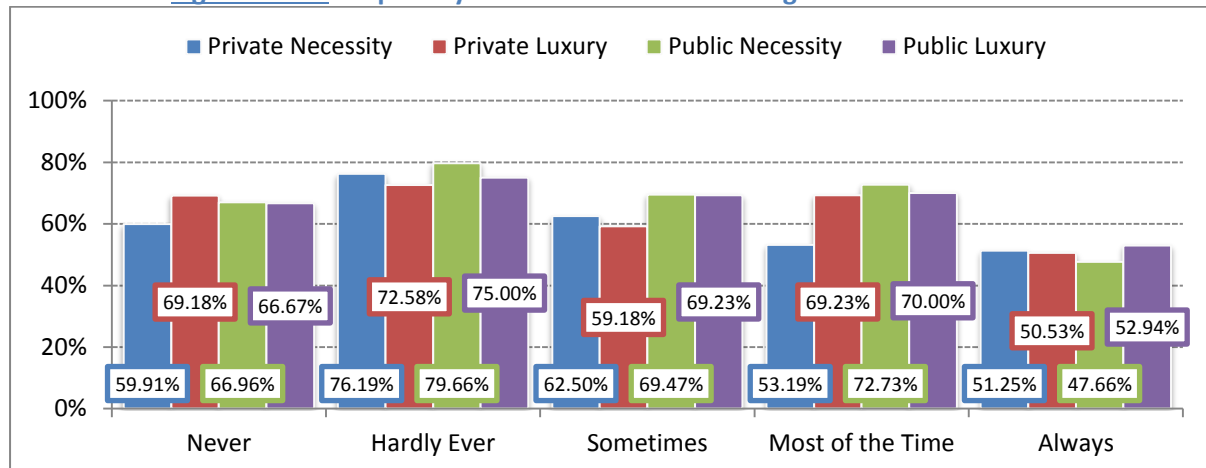
Figure 6.24 (above) shows the propensity to consume a publically consumed luxury good relative to the respondents' awareness that advertisements are bias in nature. In descending order from the consumption frequency with the highest awareness of advertising bias to the lowest, the results were as follows; 75.00% of respondents who were hardly ever inclined to purchase an advertised publically consumed luxury good over an unadvertised alternative were aware of advertising bias; 70.00% of respondents who stated that in most cases they would select an advertised publically consumed luxury good over an unadvertised alternative were aware of the bias nature of advertisements; 69.23% of respondents who chose the median propensity to consume public luxury goods (sometimes) were aware of the inherent bias evident in advertisements; 66.67% of respondents who never purchased an advertised publically consumed luxury good over an unadvertised alternative were aware of the intrinsic bias component of advertisements; 52.94% of respondents who always selected advertised publically consumed luxury goods were aware of the bias nature of the advert.

A Pearson correlation returned a coefficient of alpha value of -0.62. This shows that in a similar manner to other product categories, there is a negative correlation between the propensity to consume and cognition of the bias nature of advertisements. Consequently, increased awareness of advertising bias results in a decrease in propensity to consume publically consumed necessities.

6.5.2.5. Advertisement Bias, Product Class, and Propensity to Consume Summary

The following figure (Figure 6.24e) summarizes the relationship between the bias nature of advertisements and propensity to consume for all product categories expressed as a percentage of respondents from each category who were able to identify the bias nature of advertisements.

Figure 6.24e: Propensity to Consume Product Categories * Aware of Bias



The above figure shows the comprehension of advertising bias (y-axis) for each propensity to consume category (x-axis) relative to one another.

The relatively similar stacks show that the product category has a relatively low influence on propensity to consume when correlated with the cognizance of advertising bias. This is statistically reinforced in Table 6.3 (below) which provides the above correlations for each product category.

Table 6.3: Mean Pearson Correlations for Consumption * Product Categories * Bias			
	Public	Private	Total
Luxury	-0.62	-0.71	-0.73
Necessity	-0.60	-0.65	-0.65
Total	-0.66	-0.72	

The above table shows the Pearson Correlations for each product category. Findings show that when including the cognition of bias as an independent variable, there is a stronger correlation between propensity to consume a luxury good than a necessity good; private goods also showed a stronger correlation between consumption frequencies than publically consumed goods.

When assessing the discrepancies between all the correlations, it was found that the standard deviation was 0.048 which implies that neither the consumption visibility nor the exclusivity of an

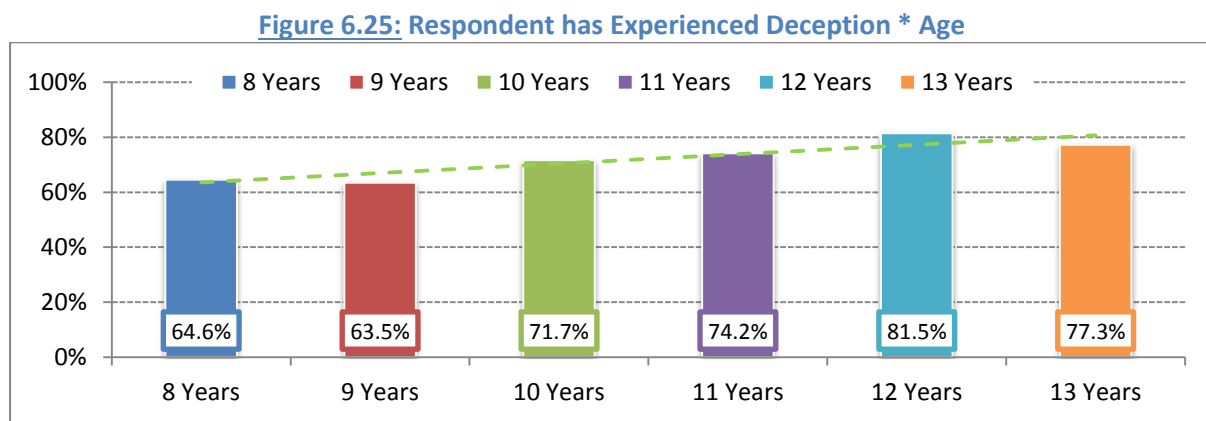
advertised product had a significant influence on consumption frequency when utilising advertising bias as an independent variable.

6.6. Persuasive Nature of Advertisements

This section details whether children are aware of the persuasive nature of advertisements, and how it affects their propensity to consume the four identified product categories.

6.6.1. Awareness of Persuasive nature

The cognizance that advertisements are persuasive in nature is a key constituent in determining advertising literacy. Moore and Lutz (2010: 31-32) stated that *“until children actually experience discrepancies between products as advertised and as consumed, they are unable fully to comprehend advertising’s persuasive intent”*. Consequently, the empirical research queried whether respondents had personally experienced deception in advertisements. The findings are documented in *Figure 6.25* (below).

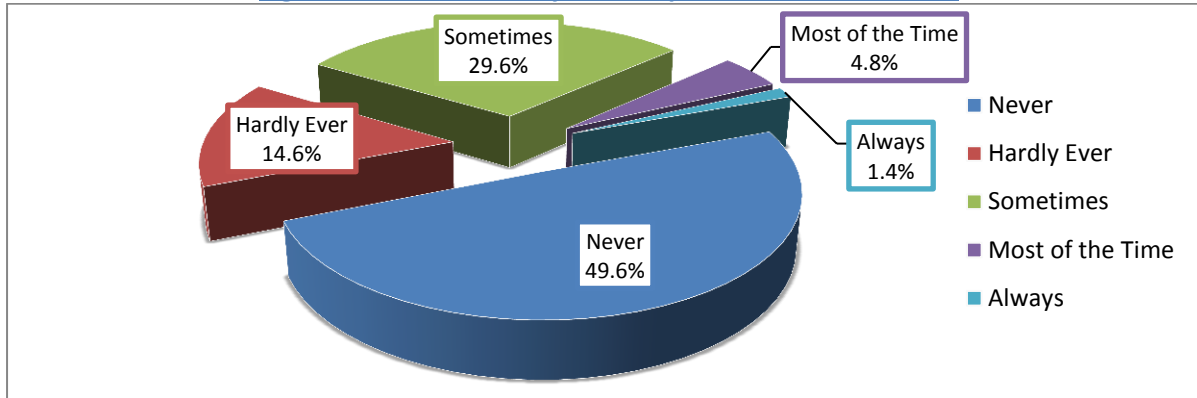


It is not surprising that as children grow older, the percentages which have experience deception in advertisements increases; *Figure 6.25* (above) shows this graphically. The upward inflection of the linear trend line shows the expected percentage of respondents at each age who have experienced deception. A Pearson correlation returned a coefficient of Alpha value of 0.134; although this does not represent a strong correlation, it is worth noting that even the youngest age category (8 years old) claimed to have experienced deception in the majority (64.6%) of cases, leaving only marginal potential expansion. Between the age categories 9 years old to 12 years old there was a true linear relationship between age and experience of deception.

6.6.2. Persuasive Nature of Advertisements and Propensity to Consume

The following figure shows the frequency which respondents had succumbed to the persuasive nature of advertisements and purchased a good which they did not require because they had seen it advertised.

Figure 6.26: Unnecessary Consumption due to Persuasion

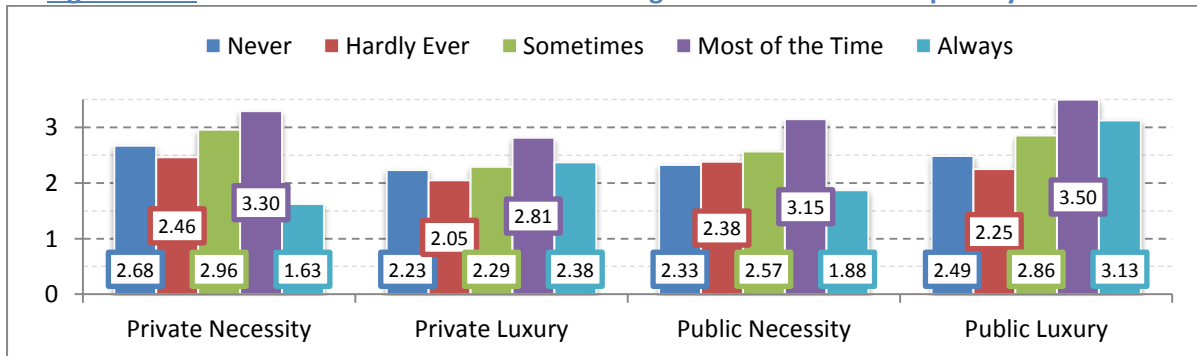


In descending order from the highest frequency of responses to the lowest; 281 respondents (49.6%) stated that they never purchase a product simply because it is advertised; 168 respondents (29.6%) selected the median value and stated that sometimes the purchase frivolously based on the persuasiveness of advertisements; 83 respondents (14.6%) stated that they hardly ever purchase unnecessary goods because of the persuasiveness of advertisements; 4.8% (27 respondents) stated that in most cases they purchased goods based on the persuasiveness of advertisements; only 1.4% (8 respondents) stated that they are always influenced by the persuasive nature of advertisements.

6.6.2.1. Persuasive Nature of Advertisement's Effect on Identified Product Categories

Figure 6.26a shows the mean unnecessary consumption correlated with the four identified product categories.

Figure 6.26a: Needless Utilisation of Product Categories * Persuasive Propensity to Consume



Findings are discussed for each product category in order of the consumption frequency, from respondents who stated that they never consume goods unnecessarily, to respondents who stated that they always consume goods unnecessarily.

- The findings for consumption of privately consumed necessity goods due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned the following results: the mean Likert rating for respondent's who stated that they never utilise a product unnecessarily was 2.68; the mean rating for respondents who hardly ever consumed a private necessity good unnecessarily was 2.46; the mean Likert rating for respondents who selected the median option and believed that they were sometimes influenced into purchasing goods unnecessarily by the persuasive nature of advertisements was 2.96; respondents who stated that most of the time they were influenced into purchasing privately consumed necessity goods due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a mean Likert rating of 3.30; the mean Likert rating for respondents who believed they were always influenced into purchasing privately consumed necessity goods unnecessarily was 1.63.

The propensity to purchase privately consumed necessity goods unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a mean Likert value of 2.74 among all categories. A Pearson's Correlation between unnecessary consumption and awareness of the persuasive component of advertising returned a Pearson's R-Value of 0.058.

- The findings for unnecessary consumption of private consumed luxury goods had the following findings: The mean Likert rating for respondents who stated they were never influenced into consuming privately consumed luxury goods due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a value of 2.23; the mean Likert value for respondents who hardly ever purchased goods unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements was 2.05; the mean Likert rating for respondents who selected the median option and believed that they were sometimes influenced into purchasing privately consumed luxury goods unnecessary due to the persuasive nature of advertisements was 2.29; respondents who stated that most of the time they were influenced into purchasing privately consumed luxury goods returned a mean Likert rating of 2.81; the mean Likert rating for respondents who stated that they were always influenced into purchasing privately consumed luxury goods due to the persuasive nature of advertisements amounted to 2.38.

The propensity to purchase privately consumed luxury goods unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a mean Likert value of 2.25 for all categories. A Pearson's

Correlation between unnecessary consumption and awareness of the persuasive component of advertising returned a Pearson's R-Value of 0.048.

- The findings for publically consumed necessity goods are described below. The mean Likert value for respondents who stated they were never influenced into unnecessary consumption of publically consumed necessity goods due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a value of 2.33; the mean Likert value for the propensity to purchase publically consumed necessities unnecessarily among respondents who stated they were hardly ever influenced by advertisements was 2.38; respondents who selected the median option and stated that they were sometimes influenced by the persuasive nature of advertisements into purchasing goods unnecessarily returned a mean Likert value of 2.57; respondents who stated that most of the time advertisements persuade them to purchase publically consumed necessity goods unnecessarily returned a mean Likert value of 3.15; the mean Likert value for respondents who stated that they were always persuaded into purchasing goods unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements amounted to 1.88.

The propensity to purchase publically consumed necessity goods unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a mean Likert value of 2.44 for all categories. A Pearson's Correlation between unnecessary consumption and awareness of the persuasive component of advertising returned a Pearson's R-Value of 0.084 with a statistically significant P-Value of 0.047

- The findings regarding the propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods are described below in order of the frequency which the good was consumed unnecessarily. The mean Likert rating for respondents who stated that they never consume publically consumed luxury goods unnecessarily was 2.49; there was a mean Likert value of 2.25 among respondents who hardly ever consumed public luxuries unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements; There was a mean Likert rating of 2.86 among respondents who selected the median option and stated that they sometimes purchase publically consumed luxury goods unnecessarily; there was a mean Likert rating of 3.50 among respondents who believed that most of the time they purchased publically consumed luxury goods unnecessarily due to the persuasive component of advertising; the mean Likert rating for respondents who stated that they were always influenced into purchasing publically consumed luxury goods due to the persuasive nature of advertisements amounted to 3.13.

The propensity to purchase publically consumed luxury goods unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a mean Likert value of 2.61 for all categories. A Pearson's

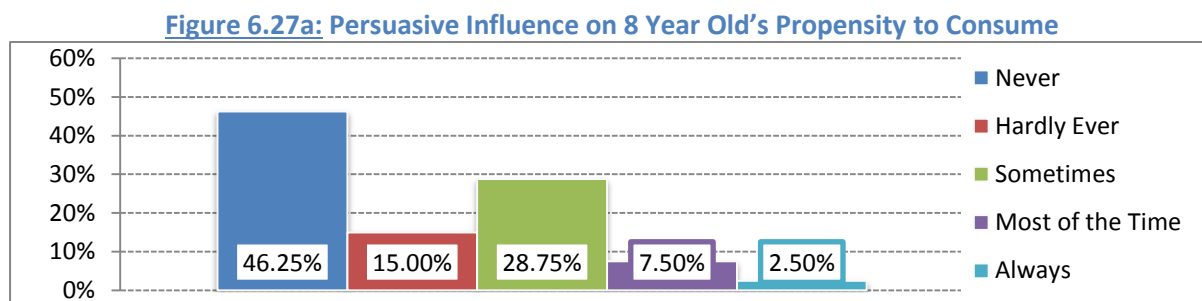
Correlation between unnecessary consumption and awareness of the persuasive component of advertising returned a Pearson’s R-Value of 0.140 with a statistically significant P-Value of 0.001.

6.6.3. Age * Unnecessary Consumption Cross-tabulation

The persuasion knowledge model described by Friestad and Wright (1994: 2) states that as children develop cognitive functions they inherently develop increased topic knowledge, agent knowledge and persuasion knowledge. Consequently, age plays a significant role in cognizance of the persuasive nature of advertisements.

6.6.3.1. The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 8 Year Olds

Figure 6.27a (below) shows the propensity to consume a good because of the persuasive nature of the advert amongst 8 year old respondents.



In decreasing order, from the propensity to consume category with the most respondents to the category with the lowest frequency of responses; 46.2%(37 respondents) of 8 year olds stated that they never consumed a product unnecessarily simply because they had seen the good advertised; 28.7% (23 respondents) chose the median option and stated that they purchase goods because of the persuasive nature of advertisements sometimes; 12 respondents (15.0%) stated that they hardly ever purchase a product because of the persuasive nature of the advert; 7.5% (6 respondents) stated that in most cases they consume products unnecessarily because of the only 2.5% (2 respondents) declared that they always purchase products because of the persuasive nature of advertisements.

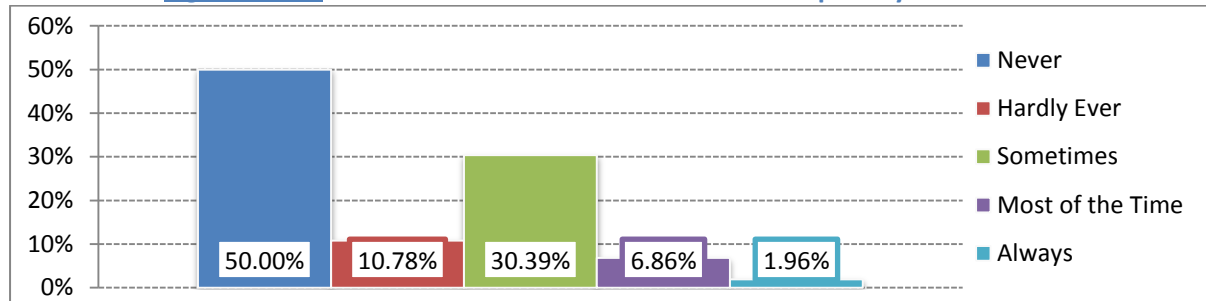
Using the quantitative values described above (Never = 1, Hardly Ever = 2; Sometimes = 3; Most of the Time = 4; Always = 5) the mean value (\bar{x}) for 8 year old propensity to consume due to persuasive nature of advertisements was 2.05⁸. This shows a skewed distribution (σ) towards lower consumption frequency of 0.95 base points (median - \bar{x}).

⁸ Using the formula: $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum f x}{\sum x} = \frac{(\text{Never} \times 1) + (\text{Hardly Ever} \times 2) + (\text{Sometimes} \times 3) + (\text{Most of the Time} \times 4) + (\text{Always} \times 5)}{n (\text{Age})}$

6.6.3.2. *The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 9 Year Olds*

The following figure (Figure 6.27b) demonstrates the propensity to consume a good relative to the persuasive nature of the advertisements amongst 9 year old respondents.

Figure 6.27b: Persuasive Influence on 9 Year Old's Propensity to Consume

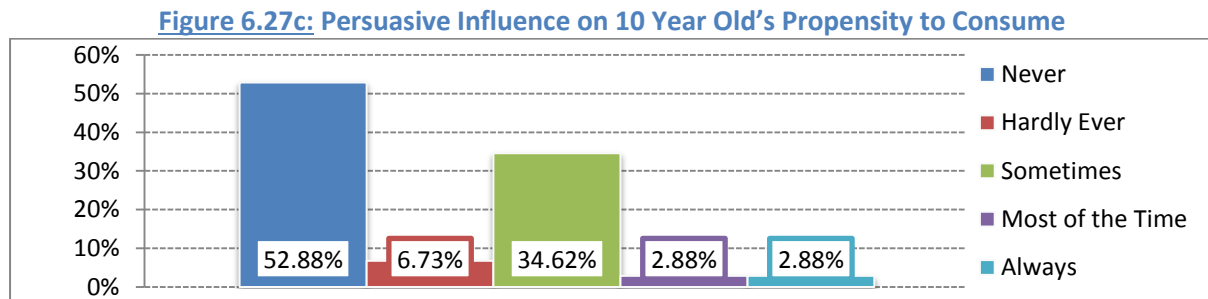


In decreasing values from the consumption frequency with the highest number of respondents to the category with the lowest frequency, 9 year old propensity to consume due to the persuasive nature of advertisements was as follows: 50.0% of 9 year old respondents (51 respondents) stated that they never purchase a product unnecessarily simply because of the persuasive nature of the advert; 30.4% (31 respondents) chose the median option and stated that they sometimes purchase a product because of the persuasive nature of the advert; 10.8% of 9 year old respondents (11 respondents) stated that they hardly ever purchased a product because of the persuasive component of advertisements; 6.9% of respondents (7 respondents) stated that in most cases they are influenced to purchase an unnecessary good because of the persuasive nature of advertisements; only 2 (2.0%) 9 year old respondents stated that they always purchase unnecessary products because they are influenced by the persuasive nature of advertisements.

Using the assigned quantitative values described above, the mean value (\bar{x}) for 9 year old propensity to consume due to persuasive nature of advertisements was 2.00. This shows a skewed distribution (σ) towards lower consumption frequency of 1 base points (median - \bar{x}).

6.6.3.3. *The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 10 Year Olds*

Figure 6.27c (below) depicts 10 year old respondents' propensity to consume a good relative to the persuasive nature of the advertisement.

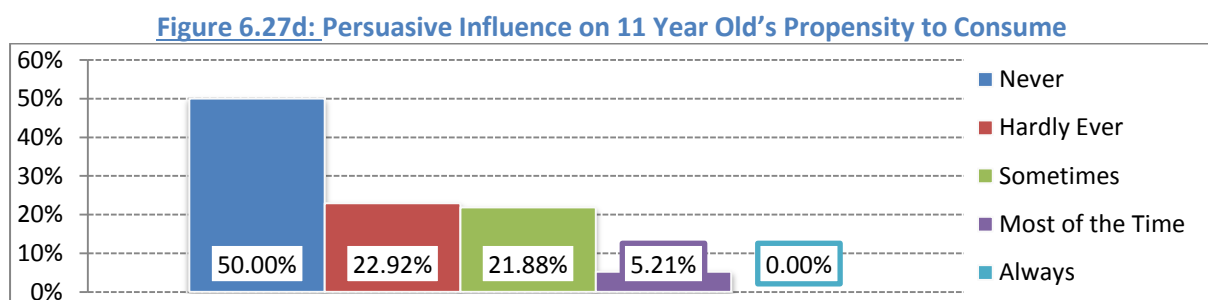


The following findings show the influence which the persuasive nature of advertisements has on 10 year old respondents' decision to purchase an unnecessary good (in decreasing from highest frequency of responses to lowest): The majority of 10 year olds (52.9%, 55 respondents) stated that they are never influenced to purchase a good unnecessarily because of the persuasive nature of the advertisement; 34.6% of 10 year old respondents (36 respondents) selected the median option and stated that in some cases they were influenced by advertisements to purchase unnecessary goods due to the persuasive nature of the advertisement; 7 respondents (6.7%) stated that they hardly ever consumed an unnecessary good because of the persuasive nature of the advertisement; 2.9% (3 respondents) stated that in most cases they purchase unnecessary goods because of the persuasive component of advertisements; 2.9 (3 respondents) said that they always purchased goods unnecessarily because of the persuasive nature of advertisements.

Using the assigned quantitative values described above, the mean value (\bar{x}) for 10 year old propensity to consume due to persuasive nature of advertisements was 1.96. This shows a skewed distribution (σ) towards lower consumption frequency of 1.04 base points (median - \bar{x}).

6.6.3.4. *The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 11 Year Olds*

The following figure (Figure 6.27d) displays the propensity to consume an unnecessary good relative to the persuasive nature of the advertisement amongst 11 year olds.



The following findings show the propensity for 11 year old respondents to consume an unnecessary product due to the persuasive influence of an advertisement. Findings are described from highest frequency of responses to lowest; 50.0% of 11 year old respondents (48 respondents) stated that they are never influenced to purchase a good unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements; 22.9% of 11 year olds (22 respondents) stated that the persuasive component of advertisement hardly ever influenced consumption; 21.9% of respondents (21 respondents) chose the median option and stated that they are sometimes influenced by the persuasive nature of advertisements and purchase unnecessary goods; 5.2% (5 respondents) declared that most of the time they purchase unnecessary goods because of the persuasive nature of advertisements; no 11 year old respondents (0.0%) declared that they always purchase unnecessary goods because of the persuasive component of advertisements.

The mean value (\bar{x}) for 11 year old propensity to consume due to persuasive nature of advertisements was 1.82. This shows a skewed distribution (σ) towards lower consumption frequency of 1.18 base points (median - \bar{x}).

6.6.3.5. *The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 12 Year Olds*

The following figure (Figure 6.27e) depicts the relationship between 12 year old respondents' propensity to consume an unnecessary good relative to the persuasive nature of advertisements.

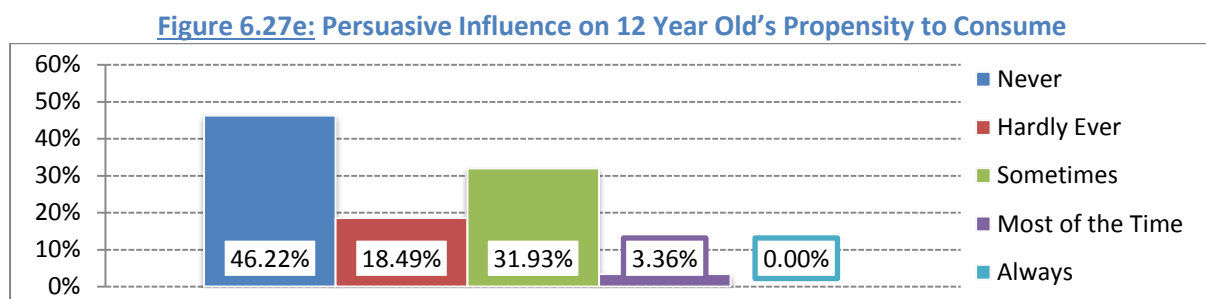


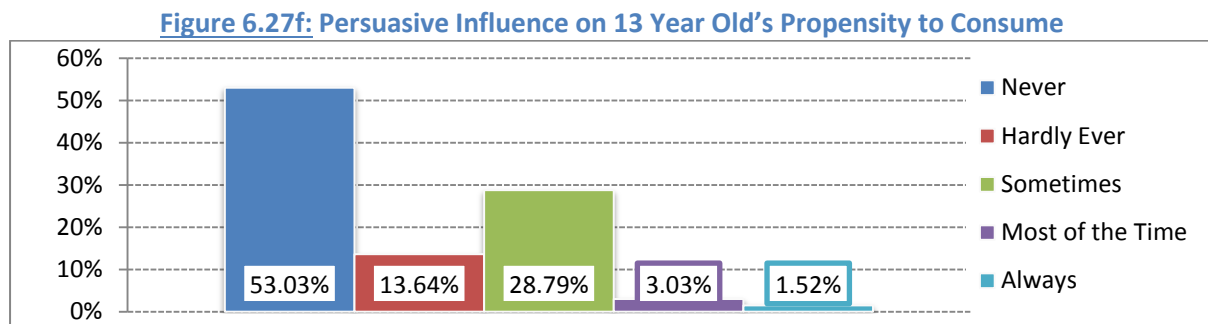
Figure 6.27e (above) shows the influence which the persuasive nature of advertisements has on 12 year olds consumption of an unnecessary good. In decreasing order from the consumption category with the most respondents to the category with the least: 46.2% of 12 year olds (55 respondents) stated that they were never influenced by the persuasive nature of advertisements; 31.9% of 12 year olds (38 respondents) chose the median option and said that the persuasive nature of advertisements sometimes influenced them to consume unnecessary products; 18.5% of surveyed 12 year olds (22 respondents) stated that they hardly ever purchased an unnecessary good due to the persuasive component of advertisements; 3.36% of 12 year old respondents (4 respondents) found that in most cases they would purchase an unnecessary good because of the persuasive

element of advertisements; no respondents (0.0%) stated that they always purchase unnecessary goods because of the persuasive nature of advertisements.

The calculated mean (\bar{x}) for 12 year old propensity to consume due to the persuasive nature of advertisements was 1.92. This shows a skewed distribution (σ) towards lower consumption frequency of 1.08 base points [median - \bar{x}].

6.6.3.6. *The Persuasive Influence of Advertisements on 13 Year Olds*

Figure 6.27f (below) depicts 13 year old respondents' propensity to consume a good relative to the persuasive nature of the advertisement.

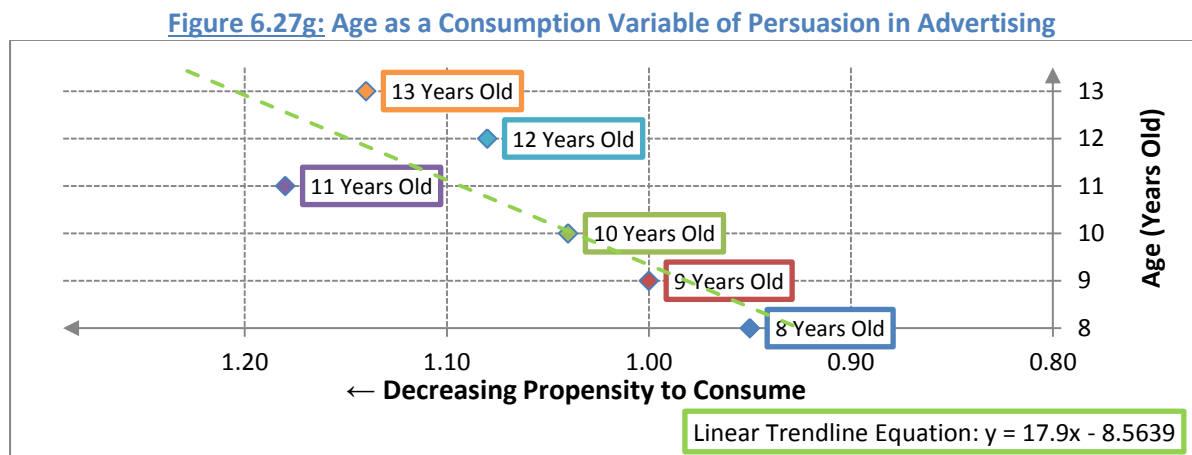


The previous figure (Figure 6.27f) describes the effect which the persuasive component of advertisements has on the consumption of an unnecessary good by 13 year old respondents. In decreasing order from the consumption frequency with the most respondents to the consumption frequency with the least, the findings were as follows: 53.0% of 13 year old respondents (35 respondents) stated that they never purchase a good unnecessarily because they have been influenced by the persuasive nature of advertisements; 28.8% (19 respondents) selected the median option and stated that they were sometimes influenced by the persuasive component of advertisements to purchase unnecessary goods; 13.6% of 13 year olds (9 respondents) stated that they hardly ever purchased an unnecessary product because of the persuasive nature of advertisements; 3.0% of 13 year old respondents (2 responses) stated that in most cases, they purchased unnecessary goods because they were influenced by the persuasive element of advertisements; only 1 respondent (1.5% of 13 year olds surveyed) stated that they always purchased unnecessary goods because advertisements persuaded them.

The mean consumption frequency (\bar{x}) for 13 year olds relative to the persuasive nature of advertisements was 1.86. This represents an augmented distribution (σ) towards lower distribution of 1.14 base points [median - \bar{x}].

6.6.3.7. Summary of Ages Effect due to the Persuasive Nature of Advertisements

In summation, the above figures are summarised in the following figure which shows the offset distribution of propensity to consume a product for each age category.



It can be seen that (with the exception of 11 year olds) the distribution frequency follows a true linear progression. This shows that as children age, their propensity to purchase an unnecessary product due to the persuasive nature of the advertisement decreases.

A Pearson correlation returned a Coefficient of alpha value of -0.056 showing that although there was a negative correlation (i.e. as age increases consumption decreases) the low coefficient value deduced the correlation was relatively negligible. However, the high Sig. 2-Tailed value of 0.185 implied that the results were not significant. Consequently, the standard deviation for each age category was calculated and a linear trend-line was constructed which illustrated that as age increased, the propensity to consume an unnecessary good because of the persuasive nature of advertisement decreased.

6.7. Endorsement of Advertisements

This section details the findings of the empirical research relative to the comprehension and efficacy of endorsement amongst respondents. The findings are described according to how children perceive the four identified product categories and whether they feel that products influence the social perception of them by both their peers as well as parents/guardians.

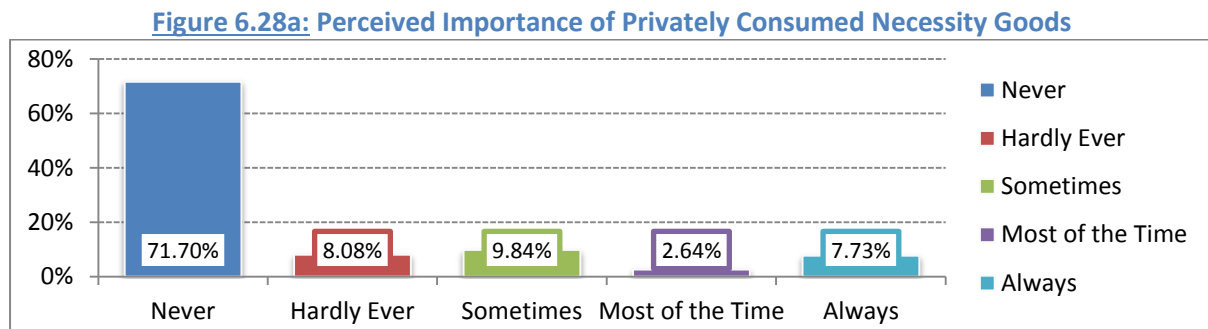
6.7.1. Peers Perception

Peers' perception refers to the respondent's belief that peers consider goods important within a social context. The following figures show whether or not respondents placed importance on peers' perception of different products.

6.7.1.1. Extent of Peers' Perception of the 4 Identified Product Categories

6.7.1.1.1. Peer Perception of Privately Consumed Necessity Goods

Figure 6.28a (below) details the perceived importance of privately consumed necessity goods as a factor of social acceptance.



In descending order from the category with the highest frequency to the category with the lowest frequency; the majority of respondents (408 respondents, 71.70%) stated that they never care about peers' perception of their privately consumed necessity goods; 56 respondents (9.84%) selected the median option and stated that they sometimes believe what friends think about a privately consumed necessity is important; 8.08% (46 respondents) stated that they hardly ever care what peers think about privately consumed necessities which they consume; 7.73% (44 respondents) stated that they always care about the perception of peers with regard to privately consumed necessity goods; only 2.64% stated that in most cases peers' perception of their privately consumed necessity goods was important.

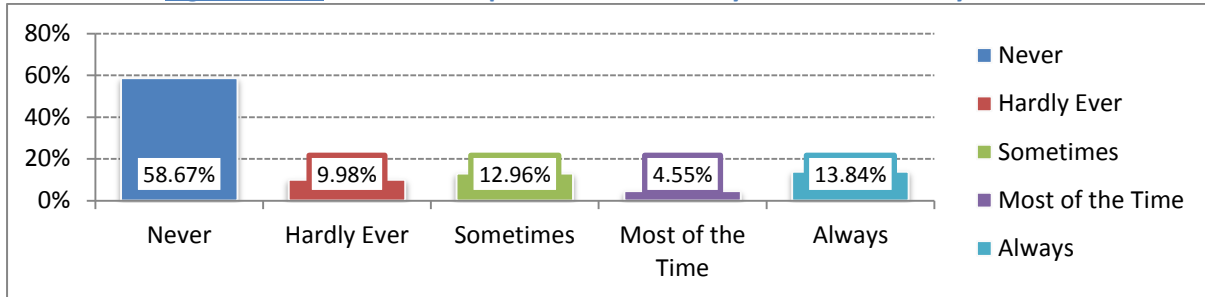
The importance of peers' perception of privately consumed necessity goods returned a mean value of 1.67. Since the operating median value is 3, this shows a skew towards the lower limit -1.33^9 . A Pearson's correlation showed that there was a positive correlation between propensity to consume and perceived importance with an R-value of 0.447 and a significant P-value of <0.001 .

6.7.1.1.2. Peer Perception of Privately Consumed Luxury Goods

The following figure (Figure 6.28b) graphically portrays the perceived social importance of privately consumed luxury goods by respondents.

⁹ Calculated by subtracting the median value from the mean value; 'importance coefficient' = \bar{x} - median

Figure 6.28b: Perceived Importance of Privately Consumed Luxury Goods



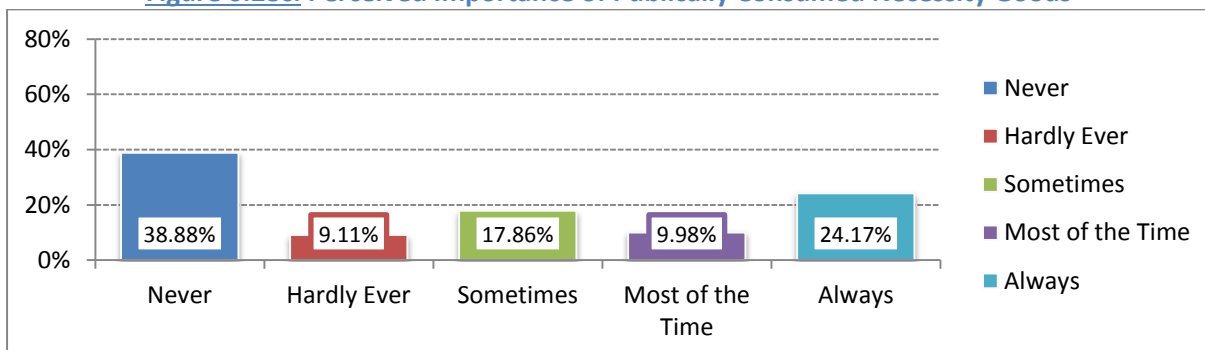
In descending order from the category with the most respondents to the category with least respondents, the degree of perceived importance for privately consumed luxury goods was as follows: 58.67% of respondents (335 respondents) stated that they never care how peers value which privately consumed luxury good they purchase; 13.84% of respondents (79 respondents) stated that they always cared about peers’ perception of privately consumed luxury products which they purchase; 12.96% of respondents (74 respondents) selected the median option and stated that sometimes peers’ perception of their privately consumed luxury good is important; 57 respondents (9.98%) stated that peers’ opinion of their privately consumed luxury good was important; 4.55% of respondents (26 respondents) stated that most of the time the perception of peers is an important factor when consuming privately consumed luxury goods.

The importance of peers’ perception of privately consumed necessity goods returned a mean value of 2.05 resulting in a skew towards the lower limit of -0.95. A Pearson’s correlation showed that there was a positive correlation between propensity to consume private luxuries and perceived importance of the good; R-value of 0.373 and a significant P-value of <0.001.

6.7.1.1.3. Peer Perception of Publically Consumed Necessity Goods

Figure 6.28c (below) shows whether respondents placed social importance on peers’ opinion of privately consumed necessity goods.

Figure 6.28c: Perceived Importance of Publically Consumed Necessity Goods

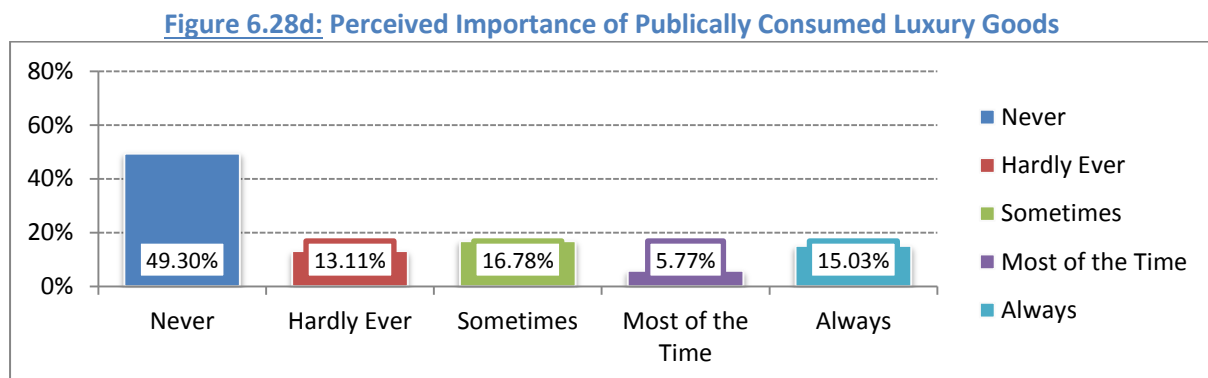


The degree of perceived importance for publically consumed necessity goods, in descending order from the category with the highest frequency of responses to the one with the lowest frequency, was as follows: 222 respondents (38.88%) stated that they never place any importance on peers’ perception of their publically consumed necessity goods; 138 respondents (24.17%) stated that they are always concerned about peers’ perception of which publically consumed necessity good they consume; 102 respondents (17.86%) selected the median option and stated that sometimes the opinion of their peers is important with regard to publically consumed necessity goods; 57 respondents (9.98%) stated that most of the time they place an importance on peers’ perception of which publically consumed necessity good they consume; 52 respondents (9.11%) stated that they are hardly ever concerned about how peers perceive their publically consumed necessity goods.

The importance of peers’ perception of publically consumed necessity goods returned a mean value of 2.71 resulting in a skew towards the lower limit of -0.29. A Pearson’s correlation revealed that there was a positive correlation between respondents’ willingness to consume publically consumed necessities and the perceived importance of the good. The correlation returned an R-value of 0.267 and a significant P-value of <0.001.

6.7.1.1.4. Peer Perception of Publically Consumed Luxury Goods

The Following figure (*Figure 6.28d*) graphically depicts the importance which respondents placed on peers’ opinion of publically consumed luxury goods.



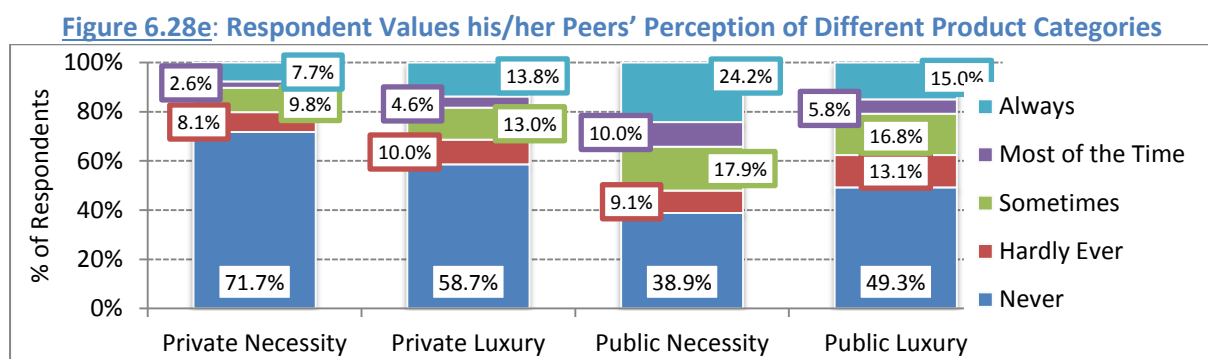
In descending order from the category with the highest frequency of responses to the category with the lowest frequency, the results for publically consumed luxury goods was as follows: 282 respondents (49.30%) stated that they are never concerned about their peers’ perception of publically consumed luxury goods; 96 respondents (16.78%) selected the median option and stated that sometimes they place importance on peers’ perception of publically consumed luxury goods; 86 respondents (15.03%) stated that peers’ perception of their publically consumed luxury goods is always important; 75 respondents (13.11%) stated that they are hardly ever concerned about the

perception of peers with regard to publically consumed luxury goods; 33 respondents (5.77%) stated that in most cases they are concerned about peers' opinion of their publically consumed luxury goods.

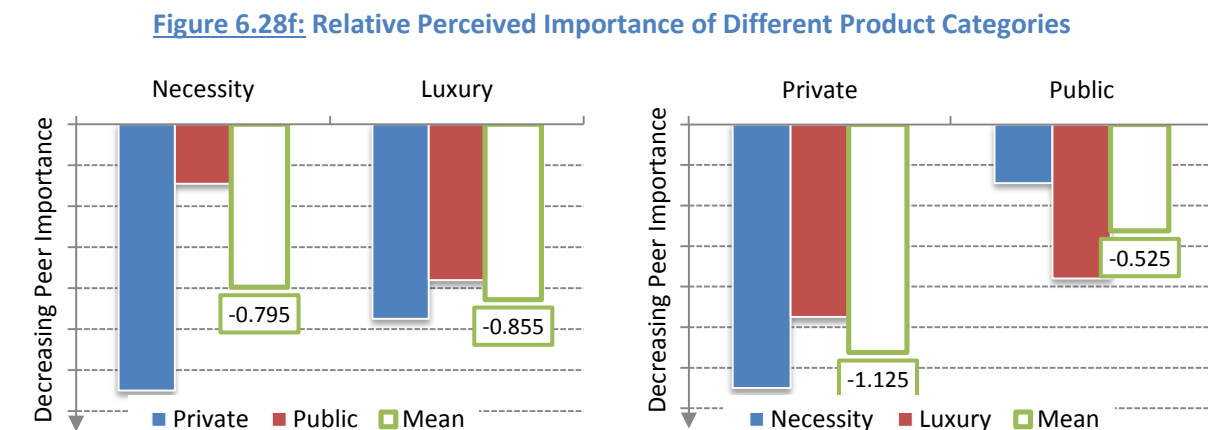
The importance of peers' perception of publically consumed necessity goods returned a mean value of 2.24 resulting in a skew towards the lower limit of -0.76. A Pearson's correlation showed that there was a positive correlation between propensity to consume public luxuries and perceived importance with an R-value of 0.313 and a significant P-value of <0.001.

6.7.1.1.5. Summary of Peer Perception of Different Product Classes

The above findings are compared relative to each other in the following figure (Figure 6.28e).



Using the distribution skewness calculated above¹⁰, the relative importance of peers' perception of products based on product categories is described in Figure 6.28f (below)



The above figure shows the relative mean perception of peers for the product categories. A higher coefficient represents an exacerbated skewness towards peers' perception of the product being important; negative values depict a skew towards peers' opinion of the product being unimportant.

¹⁰ See sections 6.6.1.1.1 – 6.6.1.1.4; Calculated by subtracting the median from the mean value (\bar{x})

Luxury goods showed a slightly lower importance coefficient of -0.855 when compared to necessity goods which returned a mean coefficient value of -0.795. This implies that respondents placed marginally more value on peers' perception of necessity goods than luxury goods.

Privately consumed goods showed an importance coefficient of -1.125 which was substantially lower than publically consumed goods which returned a coefficient value of -0.525. Consequently, it can be seen that respondents valued peers' perception of publically consumed goods more than privately consumed goods.

6.7.1.2. Age as a variable of Peers' Perception of the Identified Product Categories

A Pearson's correlation was run between the age of the respondent and perceived importance for each of the product categories. In descending order, the product with the greatest correlation coefficient¹¹ to the one with the smallest was as follows;

- i. Publically consumed luxury goods had the greatest correlation coefficient (r) of -0.273 with a 2-tailed significance coefficient (p-value) of 0.000 (making the correlation statistically significant¹²). This shows that as children age, the importance of publically consumed luxury goods decreases quicker than any other product category.
- ii. Privately consumed luxury goods had the second highest correlation coefficient and returned a Pearson's coefficient value (r) of -0.109 with a 2-tailed significance (p-value) of 0.009. Since both categories of luxury goods returned a higher correlation than both categories of necessity goods, it can be deduced that the perceived importance of luxury goods decreased at a faster rate than necessity goods.
- iii. Privately consumed necessity goods returned a Pearson's R-value of -0.051, with a p-value of 0.228, derived from a sample population (N) of 569 respondents. The findings imply that the perceived importance of privately consumed necessity goods decreases as respondents' age, but at a slower rate than both publically and privately consumed luxury goods. Since the p-value (0.228) is greater than 0.05 the findings may not be significant (Griffith, 2010: 233)
- iv. Publically consumed necessity goods perceived importance returned the lowest Pearson's R-value relative to other identified product categories when correlated with age. Publically consumed necessities returned an R-value of -0.032 with a p-value of 0.447 from 571 valid respondents. This implies that publically consumed necessity goods decrease in importance at a lower rate as children age. However, the high p-value of 0.447 suggests that these findings may not be significant.

¹¹ All coefficient values were negative; therefore the magnitude of the coefficient is being assessed.

¹² A p-value value of less than 0.05 is considered significant (Griffith, 2010: 233)

In order to further determine the effect of age on respondents perceived importance of the different product categories, a cross tabulation was conducted which is depicted which is available in *Appendix H (Table A.29)*.

6.7.1.2.1. 8 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes

Figure: 6.29a: 8 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes

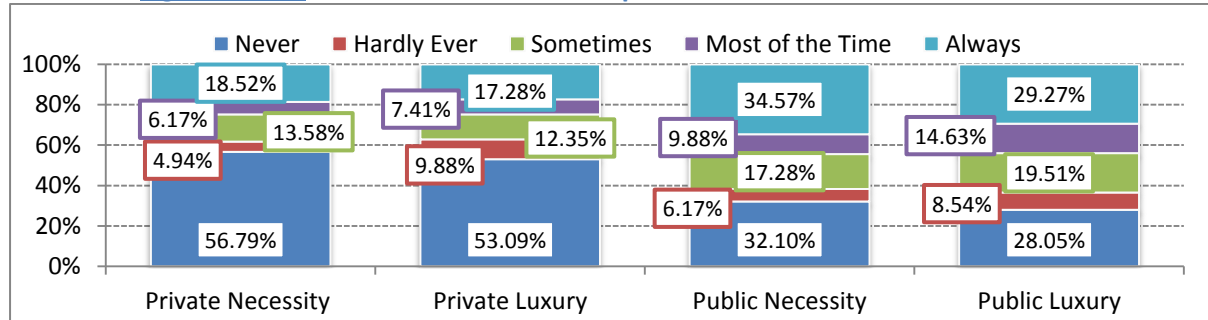


Figure 6.29a (above) described how important 8 year respondents considered each product category with regard to peers' perceptions. Findings are described for each product category according to the frequency which respondents answered; from the category with the highest number of responses to the category with the least responses.

- The first bar in Figure 6.29a described how important 8 year old respondents thought peers' perception of privately consumed necessity goods was. The majority of 8 year old respondents (56.79%) stated that peers' perception of their privately consumed necessity goods was never important; 18.52% of 8 year old respondents states that peers' opinion of their privately consumed necessity was always important; 13.58% of respondents selected the median option and stated that sometimes peers' perception of their privately consumed necessity goods was important; 6.17% stated that most of the time peers' perception of private necessities was important; 9.88% of respondents stated that peers' perception of private necessities was hardly ever important.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 8 year olds was 2.25, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.75 base points.

- The perception of peers' opinion of privately consumed luxury goods by 8 year old respondents is depicted in the second bar in Figure 6.29a. The majority (53.09%) of 8 year old respondents stated that peers' perception of privately consumed luxury goods was never an important factor; 17.28% of respondents stated that peers' perception of privately consumed luxury goods was always an important factor; 12.35% of 8 year old respondents selected the median option and said that peers' perception of their private luxury goods was sometimes important; 9.88% of 8

year old respondents asserted that peers' perception of their privately consumed luxury goods was hardly ever an important factor; 7.41% of respondents stated that most of the time the opinion of peers about their private luxury goods was important.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 8 year olds was 2.26, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.74 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.29a* represents 8 year old respondents' opinion on the importance of peers' perception of their publically consumed necessity goods. 34.57% of 8 year old respondents always considered peers' perception of their public necessity goods to be important; 32.10% of 8 year old respondents stated that they never consider peers' perception of public necessity goods important; 17.28% of 8 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that sometimes peers' opinion of public necessity goods is important; 9.88% of respondents aged 8 stated that most of the time they consider peers' view of public necessities to be important; 6.17% of 8 year olds stated that they hardly ever consider the opinion of peers to be important when assessing public necessities.

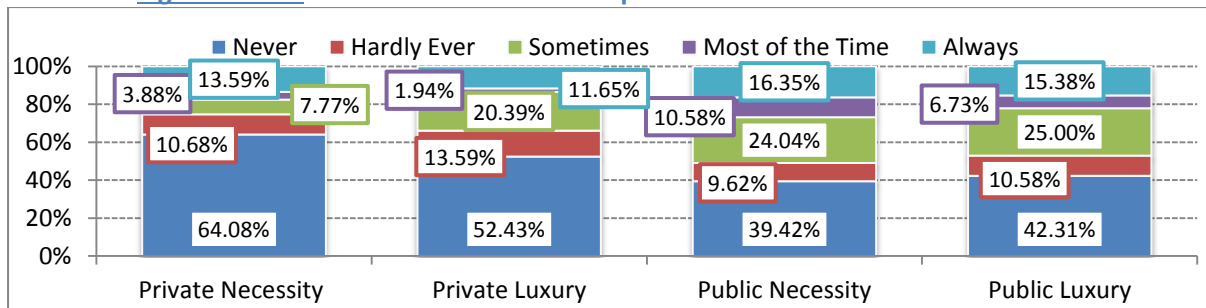
The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 8 year olds was 3.09, implying a skew towards a higher trend of perceived importance of +0.09 base points.

- The final bar in *Figure 6.29a* depicts 8 year old respondents' perceived importance of their publically consumed luxury goods. When describing publically consumed luxury goods, 29.27% of 8 year olds stated that peers' perception of their product is always important; 28.05% of 8 year old respondents remarked that peers' opinion about their publically consumed luxury good was never important; 19.51% of 8 year old respondents selected the media option and stated that the opinion of peers is sometimes important with regard to publically consumed luxuries; 14.63% of 8 year old respondents stated that peers' perception is important most of the time with regard to public luxuries; 8.54% of 8 year old respondents remarked that the peers' opinion about publically consumed luxuries is hardly ever important.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 8 year olds was 3.09, implying a skew towards a higher trend of perceived importance of +0.09 base points.

6.7.1.2.2. 9 Year Old’s Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes

Figure: 6.29b: 9 Year Old’s Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes



In a similar manner, *Figure 6.29b* (above) described how important 9 year respondents considered each product category with regard to peers’ perceptions. Findings are once again described for each product category according to the frequency which respondents answered; from the category with the highest number of responses to the category with the least responses.

- The first bar in *Figure 6.29b* depicts 9 year old respondents’ perceived importance of their privately consumed necessity goods. The majority of 9 year old respondents (64.08%) stated that they never consider peers’ opinion of privately consumed necessities to be important; 13.59% of 9 year olds surveyed stated that they always consider peers’ perception of private necessities to be important; 10.68% of 9 year old respondents remarked that they hardly ever consider the opinion of their peers to be important with regard to private necessities; 7.77% of 9 year olds selected the median option and stated that sometimes they consider peers’ perception of their private necessities important; 3.88% of respondents stated that most of the time they consider peers’ perception of private necessities as being important.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 9 year olds was 1.92, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -1.08 base points.

- The second bar in *Figure 6.29b* represents 9 year old respondents’ opinion on the importance of peers’ perception of their privately consumed luxury goods. The majority of 9 year old respondents (52.43%) stated that they never consider peers’ opinion of their private luxury goods important; 20.39% of 9 year olds surveyed selected the median option and stated that they sometimes consider peers’ perception of their private luxury goods to be important; 13.59% of 9 year old respondents stated that they hardly ever consider peers’ opinion of privately consumed luxury goods to be important; 11.65% of surveyed 9 year olds stated that they always consider peers’ perception of their privately consumed luxury goods to be important; only 1.94% of 9 year olds stated that they consider peers’ opinion of privately consumed luxuries to be important most of the time.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 9 year olds was 2.07, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.93 base points.

- The perception of peers' opinion of publically consumed necessity goods by 9 year old respondents is depicted in the third bar in *Figure 6.29b*. 39.42% of 9 year olds surveyed stated that peers' perception of their publically consumed necessity goods is always important; 24.04% of 9 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that peers' opinion of their publically consumed necessity goods is sometimes important; 16.35% of 9 year olds surveyed stated that they always consider peers' perception of their publically consumed necessity goods important; 10.58% of 9 year old respondents stated that most of the time the opinion of peers regarding their publically consumed necessities was important; 9.62% of respondents aged 9 years old stated that they hardly ever consider peers' perception of their privately consumed necessities important.

The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 9 year olds was 2.55, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.45 base points.

- The final bar in *Figure 6.29b* described how important 9 year old respondents thought peers' perception of public consumed luxury goods was. 42.31% of 9 year old respondents stated that they never consider peers' opinion of their publically consumed luxury goods to be important; 25.0% of respondents aged 9 years old said they sometimes think that peers' opinion of publically consumed luxuries is important; 15.38% of 9 year old respondents stated that peers' perception of publically consumed luxury goods is always important; 10.58% of 9 year olds stated that they hardly ever consider peers' opinion about publically consumed luxuries to be important; 6.73% of 9 year olds believed that peers' perception of publically consumed luxury goods is important most of the time.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 9 year olds was 2.42, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.58 base points.

6.7.1.2.3. 10 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes

Figure 6.29c: 10 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes

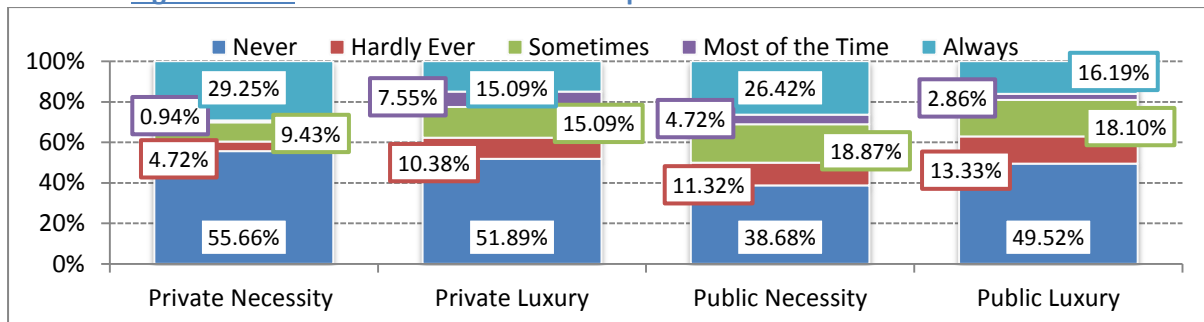


Figure 6.29c (above) depicts the perceived importance of the four identified product categories according to 10 year old respondents. Once again, findings are described for each product category depending on the frequency of responses, from the variable with the highest frequency of responses to the one variable the lowest.

- The perception of peers' opinion of privately consumed necessity goods by 10 year old respondents is depicted in the first bar in *Figure 6.29c*. The majority of 10 year old respondents (55.66%) stated that they never consider peers' opinion of their privately consumed necessity goods important; 29.25% of 10 year olds surveyed said that they always consider peers' opinion about their privately consumed necessities important; 9.43% of 10 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that sometimes they consider peers' opinion of their privately consumed necessities important; 4.72% of 10 year olds stated that they hardly ever think peers' perception of private necessity goods important; a negligible amount (0.94%) of 10 year old respondents stated that most of the time they consider peers' perception of private necessities important.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 10 year olds was 2.43, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.57 base points.

- The second bar in *Figure 6.29c* described how important 10 year old respondents thought peers' perception of privately consumed luxury goods was. The majority of 10 year old respondents (51.89%) stated that peers' impressions of their privately consumed luxuries was never important; 15.09% of 10 year old respondents stated that they always consider peers' opinion about public luxuries important; 15.09% of 10 year olds surveyed selected the median and stated that they sometimes value their peers' opinion about private luxuries; 10.38% of 10 year old respondents stated that they hardly ever value the opinion of their peers with regard to privately consumed luxuries; 7.55% of respondents stated that most of the time peers opinion of publically consumed luxury goods is important.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 10 year olds was 2.24, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.76 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.29c* depicts 10 year old respondents' perceived importance of their privately consumed luxury goods. 38.68% of 10 year old respondents stated that they never consider the opinion of peers regarding their publically consumed necessity goods to be important; 26.42% of respondents aged 10 years old believed that peers' perception of their publically consumed necessity goods is always important; 18.87% of 10 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that sometimes peers' opinion about their privately consumed necessities is important; 11.32% of 10 year olds surveyed stated that they hardly ever consider their peers perception of publically consumed necessity goods to be important; 4.72% of 10 year old respondents stated that most of the time the impressions of peers on their public necessities is important.

The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 10 year olds was 2.69, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.31 base points.

- The final bar in *Figure 6.29c* represents 10 year old respondents' opinion on the importance of peers' perception of their publically consumed luxury goods. Slightly less than half of all 10 year old respondents (49.52%) stated that they never consider peers' perception of their publically consumed luxury goods to be important; 18.10% of 10 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that they sometimes consider the opinion of their peers to be important when assessing publically consumed luxury goods; 16.19% stated that they always consider peers' opinion to be important when evaluating public luxury goods; 13.33% of 10 year old respondents stated that they hardly ever consider peers' perception of their public luxury goods to be important; 2.86% stated that most of the time they consider peers' opinion of their publically consumed luxury goods to be important.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 10 year olds was 2.23, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.77 base points.

6.7.1.2.4. 11 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes

Figure 6.29d: 11 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes

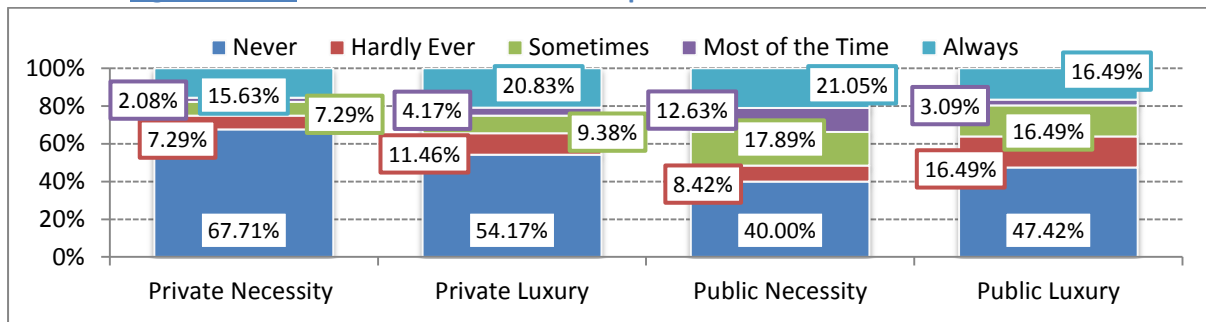


Figure 6.29d (above) shows how important 11 year respondents considered the four identified product categories relative to peers' perceptions of the product. Findings are described for each product category according to the frequency which respondents answered; from the category with the highest number of responses to the category with the least responses.

- The first bar in Figure 6.29d described how important 11 year old respondents thought peers' perception of privately consumed necessity goods was. The majority of 11 year old respondents (67.71%) stated that they never consider peers' perception of their private necessity goods to be an important consideration; 15.63% of 11 year olds surveyed responded that they always consider peers' opinion of privately consumed necessities to be important; 7.29% of 11 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that they sometimes consider peers' perception of private necessity goods to be important; 7.29% of 11 year olds stated that they hardly ever think peers' perception of their privately consumed necessity goods is important; 2.08% of 11 year old respondents stated that most of the time they consider peers perception of their private necessities important.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 11 year olds was 1.91, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -1.09 base points.

- The perception of peers' opinion of privately consumed luxury goods by 11 year old respondents is depicted in the second bar in Figure 6.29d. The majority (54.17%) of 11 year olds stated they never consider peers perception of privately consumed luxury goods to be important; 20.83% of respondents stated that they always think that peers' opinion of privately consumed luxury goods is important; 11.46% of respondents stated that they hardly ever consider peers' opinion of privately consumed luxury goods to be important; 9.38% of 11 year old respondents stated that they sometimes consider peers' opinion of privately consumed luxury goods to be important; 4.17% of 11 year olds stated that most of the time they consider peers' perception of private luxury goods important

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 11 year olds was 2.26, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.74 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.29d* represents 11 year old respondents' opinion on the importance of peers' perception of their publically consumed necessity goods. 40.00% of 11 year old respondents stated that they never consider peers' opinion of their publically consumed necessities to be important; 21.05% of 11 year olds stated that they always think peers' perception of their publically consumed necessities is important; 17.89% of 11 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that they sometimes consider peers' opinion of public necessities important; 12.63% of 11 year olds stated that most of the time peers' perception of public necessities is important; 8.42% of respondents stated that most of the time the opinion of peers about their public necessity goods is important.

The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 11 year olds was 2.66, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.34 base points.

- The final bar in *Figure 6.29d* depicts 11 year old respondents' perceived importance of their publically consumed luxury goods. Slightly less than half of 11 year old respondents (47.42%) stated that they never consider peers perception of public luxury goods to be important; 16.49% of 11 year old respondents stated they hardly ever consider peers' perception of public luxuries important; 16.49% of the surveyed population aged 11 stated that sometimes they consider peers' opinion of public luxuries important; 16.49% of 11 year olds stated that they always consider the opinion of peers regarding public luxuries important; 3.09% of 11 year old respondents stated that most of the time they think peers' perception of publically consumed luxury goods is important.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 11 year olds was 2.25, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.75 base points.

6.7.1.2.5. 12 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes

Figure 6.29e: 12 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes

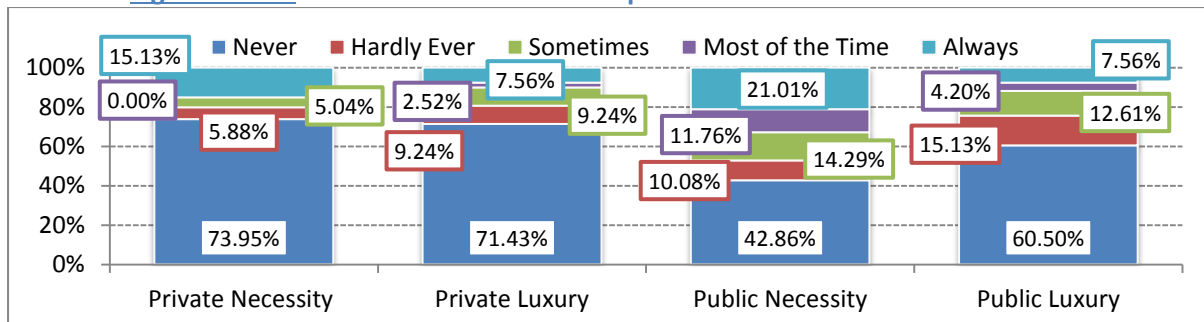


Figure 6.29e (on the previous page) shows the observed importance of the identified product categories by 12 year old respondents. Once again, findings are described for each product category based on the frequency of responses, from the variable with the highest frequency of responses to the variable with the lowest frequency of responses.

- The first bar in *Figure 6.29e* represents 12 year old respondents' opinion on the importance of peers' perception of their privately consumed necessity goods. The majority of 12 year old respondents (73.95%) stated that they never consider peers' perception of their privately consumed necessity goods to be important; 15.13% of 12 year olds surveyed stated they always consider peers' perception of private necessities to be important; 5.88% stated they hardly ever consider peers' opinion of private necessities important; 5.04% selected the median option and stated that they sometimes consider peers' perception of private necessities important; there were no respondents who stated that most of the time they consider peers' opinion of private necessities important.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 12 year olds was 1.91, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -1.09 base points.

- The second bar in *Figure 6.29e* depicts 12 year old respondents' perceived importance of their privately consumed luxury goods. The majority of 12 year old respondents (71.43%) stated that the influence which peers exerted on privately consumed luxury goods was never an important factor; 9.24% of respondents stated that they hardly ever consider peers' perception of privately consumed luxury goods to be important; 9.24% of 12 year olds selected the median option and stated that they sometimes consider peers' opinion about privately consumed luxury goods important; 7.56% of 12 year old respondents stated that they always consider peers' opinion of privately consumed luxury goods to be important; 2.52% of 12 year olds surveyed stated that they consider peers' perception of private luxury goods important most of the time.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 12 year olds was 1.66, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -1.34 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.29e* described how important 12 year old respondents believed peers' perception of publically consumed necessity goods was. 42.86% of 12 year old respondents stated that they never consider peers' opinion of public necessity goods to be important; 21.01% of 12 year old respondents stated that they always perceive peers' opinion of public necessity goods to be important; 14.29% of 12 year olds surveyed selected the median option, and stated that they sometimes consider peers' perception of public necessities to be important; 11.76% of 12 year old respondents stated that most of the time they consider peers' opinion of public necessities important; 10.08% of respondents stated that they hardly ever consider peers' perception of public necessities to be important.

The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 12 year olds was 2.58, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.42 base points.

- The perceptions of publically consumed luxury goods by 12 year old respondents are depicted in the last bar in *Figure 6.29e*. The majority of 12 year old respondents (60.50%) stated that they never consider peers' perception of public luxury goods to be important; 15.13% of 12 year old respondents stated that they hardly ever consider peers' perception of publically consumed luxury goods to be important; 12.61% of 12 year old respondents selected the median option and stated they sometimes consider peers' perception of public luxury goods to be important; 7.56 % of 12 year olds stated that peers' perception of public luxuries was always important; 4.20% of 12 year olds believed that peers' opinion of public luxuries was important most of the time.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 12 year olds was 1.64, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -1.36 base points.

6.7.1.2.6. 13 Year Old's Perceived Importance of the Identified Product Classes

Figure 6.29f: 13 Year Old's Perceived Importance of Identified Product Classes

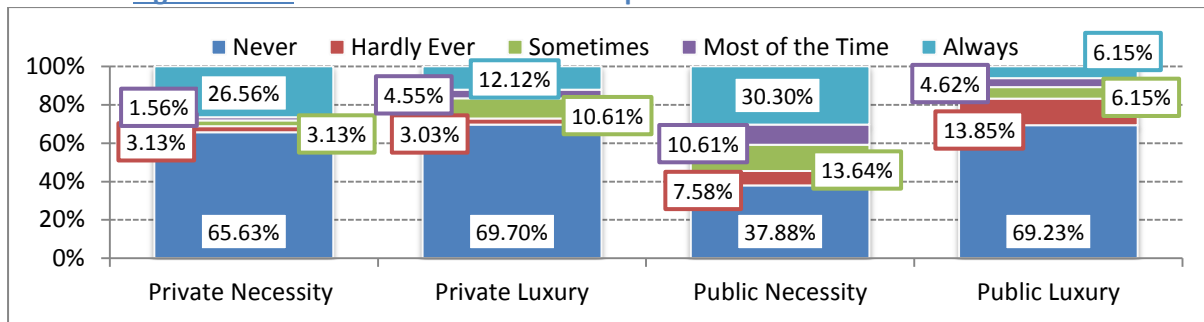


Figure 6.29f (on the above) shows how important 13 year respondents considered each of the identified product categories with regard to peers' perceptions. Findings are described for each product category according to the frequency which respondents answered; from the category with the highest number of responses to the category with the least responses.

- The first bar in Figure 6.29f described how important 13 year old respondents believed peers' perception of privately consumed necessity goods was. The majority of 13 year old respondents (65.63%) stated that they never considered peers' opinion of privately consumed necessity goods to be important; 26.56% of 13 year olds remarked that they always consider the opinion of their peers regarding private necessities to be important; 3.13% of 13 year old respondents stated that they hardly ever consider peers' perception of private necessities; 3.13% of 13 year olds stated that they sometimes consider peers' perception of private necessities important; 1.56% of 13 year olds sampled stated that most of the time the opinion of peers regarding private necessities is important.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 13 year olds was 2.20, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.80 base points.

- The perception of privately consumed luxury goods by 13 year old respondents is depicted in the second bar in Figure 6.29f. The majority of 13 year old respondents (69.70%) stated that they never consider peers' opinion of privately consumed luxury goods to be important; 12.12% of 13 year old respondents stated that they always consider peers' perception of private luxury goods important; 10.61% of 13 year olds selected the median option and stated they sometimes consider peers' perception of privately consumed luxury goods to be important; 4.55% of 13 year olds remarked that most of the time the opinion of peers on their private luxury goods is important; 3.03% of 13 year old respondents stated that they hardly ever consider the opinion of peers regarding privately consumed luxury goods to be important.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 13 year olds was 1.86, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -1.14 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.29f* represents 13 year old respondents' perceived importance of their publically consumed necessity goods. 37.88% of 13 year old respondents stated that they never consider peers' perception of publically consumed necessities to be important; 30.30% of 13 year olds surveyed remarked that they always think peers' opinion on publically consumed necessities is important; 13.64% of 13 year olds chose the median option and stated that they sometimes consider peers' perception of public necessities to be important; 10.61% of respondents stated that most of the time they consider peers' opinion of public necessities important; 7.58% of 13 year olds stated that they hardly ever consider peers' perception of public necessities important.

The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 13 year olds was 2.88, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -0.12 base points.

- The final bar in *Figure 6.29f* depicts 13 year old respondents' perceived importance of their publically consumed luxury goods. The majority of 13 year old respondents (69.23%) placed no importance on peers perception of publically consumed luxuries and said they never influence their perception; 13.85% of 13 year old respondents stated that they hardly ever consider peers' opinion of publically consumed luxury goods to be important; 6.15% of 13 year olds surveyed selected the median option and stated that they sometimes consider peers' opinion of publically consumed luxury goods to be important; 6.15% of 13 year old respondents stated that they always think peers' opinion about privately consumed luxury goods is important; 4.62% of 13 year olds remarked that most of the time peers perception of public luxury goods was important.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 13 year olds was 1.64, implying a skew towards a lower trend of perceived importance of -1.36 base points.

6.7.1.2.7. Summary of Age as a Factor of Peer Importance

Figure 6.30 (below) summarizes the distribution skew of the above findings relative to each product category¹³.

Figure 6.30: Distribution Skewness of Perceived Peer Importance

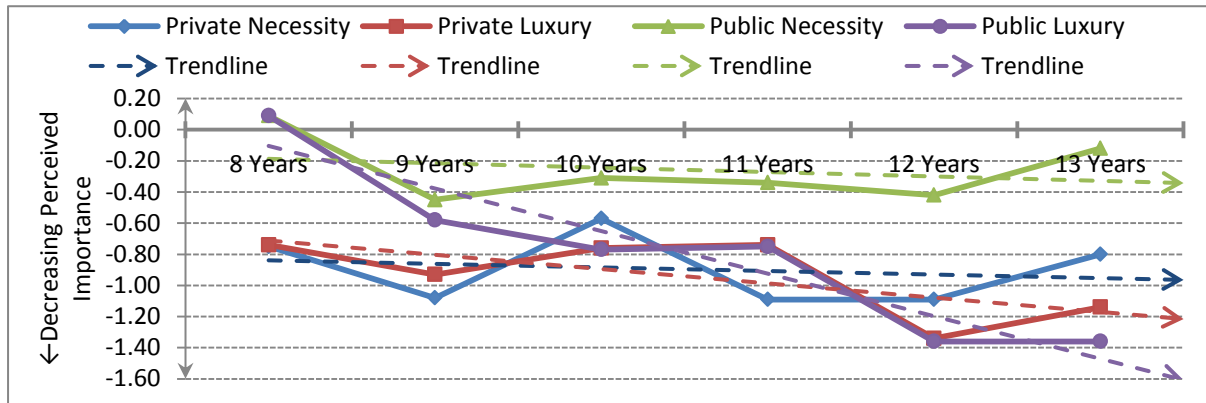


Figure 6.30 shows the perceived importance of the four product categories. The results are discussed relative to age, starting with the category with the highest perceived importance to the category with the lowest perceived importance¹⁴.

- 8 year old respondents stated that Public Necessities were the most important of the product categories according to the perception of peers; public luxuries closely followed public necessities; Private luxuries were the third most important category amongst 8 year olds; private necessities were the least important category amongst 8 year old.
- 9 Year old respondents stated that public necessities were the most important product category; public luxuries were the second most important category within this age bracket; private luxuries were the third most important product category amongst 9 year olds; private necessities were the least important product category amid 9 year olds.
- 10 year old respondents also identified public necessities as the most important product category; private necessity goods were rated as the second most important product category within this age segment; private luxury goods were the third most important product category; public luxuries was the least important product category amid 10 year old respondents.
- 11 year old respondents once again perceived public necessities as the most important product category; 11 year olds identified private luxuries as the second most important product category; publically consumed luxury goods were perceived to be marginally less important than

¹³ A Negative Values implies a distribution skewness favouring less perceived importance; a positive value shows increased importance. The coefficient value shows the degree of importance. Skewness is represented according to Pearson's Skewness Coefficient (Panneerselvam, 2004: 60).

¹⁴ The trend-line shows the mean change over time for each relative product category. A steeper gradient implies a greater change.

private luxuries amid 11 year old respondents; private necessities were perceived to be the least important product category amongst peers aged 11 years old.

- 12 year old respondents also stated that public necessities were perceived by peers as being the most important product category; private necessities were identified as being the second most important product category amongst 12 year olds; private luxuries were perceived to be the third most important product category by 12 year old respondents; public luxuries were perceived to be the least important product category amid 12 year olds.
- 13 year old respondents also perceived that public necessities were the most important product category; 13 year olds identified privately consumed necessities as the second most important category; privately consumed luxury goods was identified by 13 year olds as their third most important product category; publically consumed luxury goods were the least important product category amid 13 year old respondents.

The gradient of the trend-lines¹⁵ in *Figure 6.30* shows the rate at which perceived importance of the product changes. All the product categories had negative gradients implying that the perceived importance of all product categories decreases as children mature. In descending order from the category with the slowest decline to the category with the highest; Private Necessities had a gradient of -0.0229 making it the slowest declining product category in terms of perceived importance; Public necessities had a gradient of -0.0283, marginally steeper than private necessities making public necessities the second slowest declining product category in terms of perceived importance; private luxuries had a gradient of -0.0917 making it the second fastest declining product category in terms of perceived product importance; finally, publically consumed luxury goods had a gradient of -0.2734 making it the fastest declining product category in terms of perceived product importance.

6.7.2. Peer Influence

Peer influence refers to the persuasive nature of peers and how it induces consumption a good.

6.7.2.1. Extent of Peer Influence on the 4 Identified Product Categories

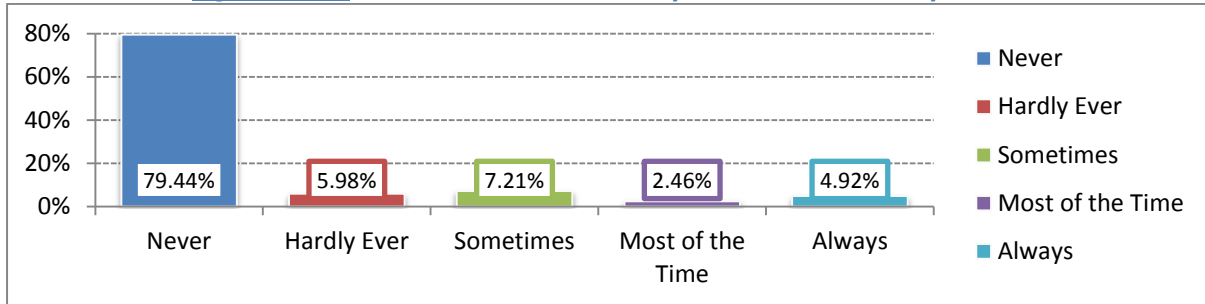
The following figures show the extent of peer influence for the identified product categories.

6.7.2.1.1. Peer Influence on Privately Consumed Necessity Goods

Figure 6.31a (below) shows the influence which peers have on respondent's consumption of privately consumed necessity goods.

¹⁵ Gradient formula: $y = mx+c$ adhered to the constraint: $-2 < y < 2$; Consequently a gradient of -1 would result in a downgrading of the mean answer for that category by an average of 1 of the identified responses per year (e.g. Always -> Most of the Time); y cannot be greater than 2 nor can it be less than -2.

Figure 6.31a: Peer influence on Privately Consumed Necessity Goods

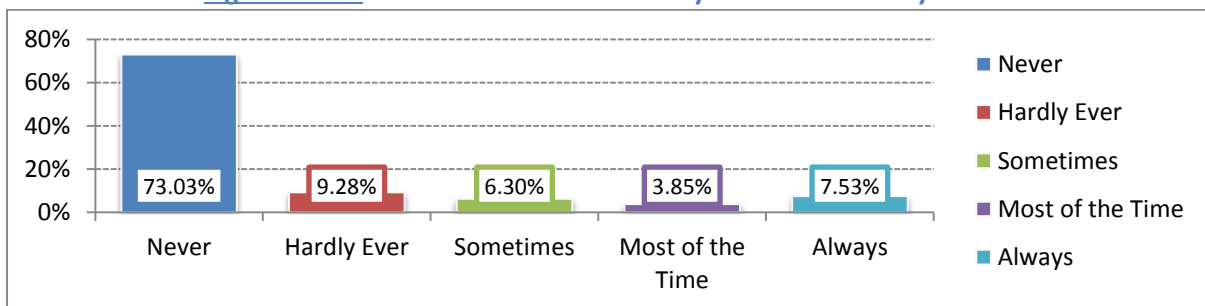


In descending order from the category with the most respondents to the category with the least respondents, the results were as follows; the majority of respondents (79.44%) stated that peers never influence their decision to consume a privately consumed necessity good; 7.21% of respondents selected the median option and stated that they are sometimes influenced to consume a privately consumed necessity good by peers; 5.98% of respondent stated that they hardly ever consume privately consumed necessity goods due to the influence exerted on them by peers; 4.92% of respondents stated that they are always influenced to consume privately consumed necessities by peers; 2.46% of respondents stated that most of the time their decision to consume privately consumed necessities is influenced by peers.

Peers influence on privately consumed necessity goods returned a mean distribution value of 1.47, which represents a skew towards the lower limit of -1.53.

6.7.2.1.2. Peer Influence on Privately Consumed Luxury Goods

Figure 6.31b: Peer Influence on Publicly Consumed Luxury Goods

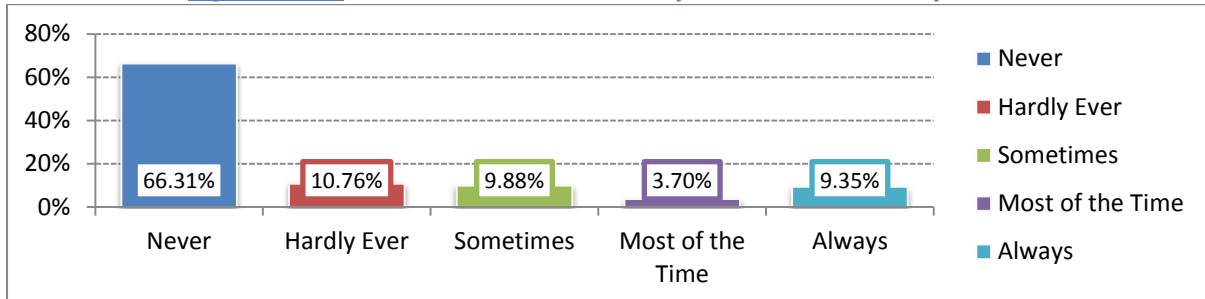


The majority of respondents (73.03%) stated that they are never influenced by peers to consume publically consumed necessity goods; 9.28% of respondents stated that they were hardly ever influenced by peers into purchasing publically consumed luxury goods; 7.53% of respondents stated that they are always influenced into consuming publically consumed luxury goods by peers; 6.30% of respondents selected the median option and stated that they were sometimes influenced into consuming publically consumed luxury goods by peers; 3.85% of respondents stated that most of the time peers influenced their consumption of privately consumed luxury goods.

The mean distribution value for privately consumed luxury goods was 1.64, implying a skew towards the lower limit of 1.36 points.

6.7.2.1.3. Peer Influence on Publicly Consumed Necessity Goods

Figure 6.31c: Peer Influence on Publicly Consumed Necessity Goods

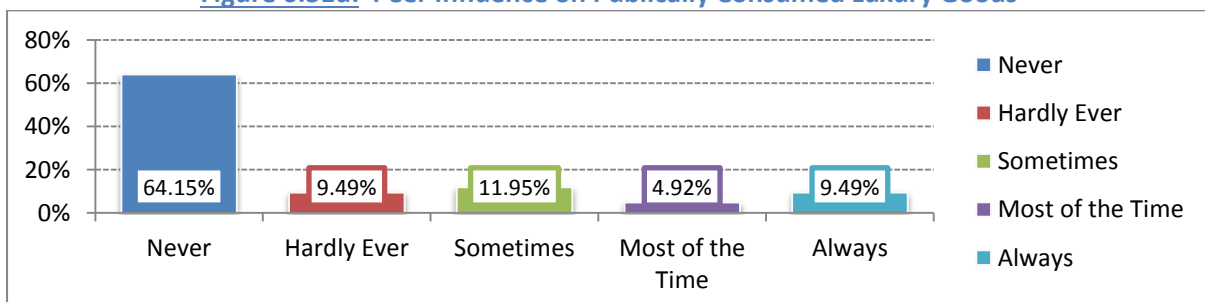


In descending order from the category which received the most frequent response by participants to the category which received the least: The majority of respondents (66.31%) stated that they are never influenced by peers into consuming publicly consumed necessity goods; 10.76% of respondents stated that peers hardly ever influenced their decision to consume a publicly consumed necessity good; 9.88% of respondents selected the median option and stated that sometimes the influence exerted by peers persuaded them to consume publicly consumed necessity goods; 9.35% of respondents stated that they are always influenced by peers to consume publicly consumed necessity goods; 3.70% of respondents stated that most of the time peers are able to influence them into purchasing publicly consumed necessity goods.

The mean distribution value of publicly consumed necessity goods was 1.79, denoting a distribution skew towards the lower limit of 1.21 units.

6.7.2.1.4. Peer Influence on Publicly Consumed Luxury Goods

Figure 6.31d: Peer Influence on Publicly Consumed Luxury Goods



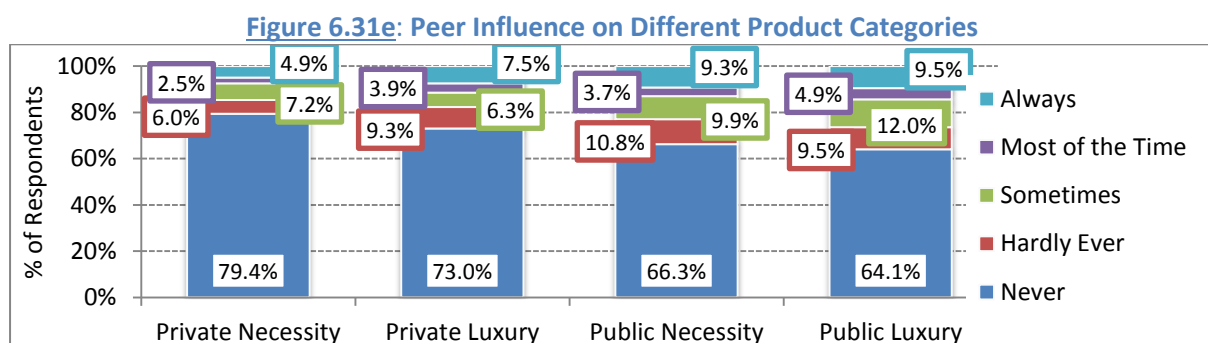
The influence which peers placed on respondent’s propensity to consume a publicly consumed luxury good (in descending order from the category with the highest frequency of responses to the category with the lowest) was as follows: The majority of respondents (64.15%) stated that peers never influence their consumption decision; 11.95% of respondents selected the median option and

stated that they are sometimes influenced to consume a publically consumed luxury goods by peers; 9.49% of respondents stated that peers hardly ever influence their decision to consume a publically consumed luxury good; 9.49% of respondents stated that they are always influenced by peers into purchasing publically consumed luxury goods; 4.92% of respondents stated that most of the time peers' influence persuades them to consume publically consumed luxury goods.

The mean distribution value for publically consumed luxury goods was 1.86, which implies a skew towards the lower limit of 1.14 units.

6.7.2.1.5. Summary of Peer Influence of Different Product Categories

The 4 identified product categories are compared relative to each other in *Figure 6.31e* (below).



Using the distribution skewness calculated above¹⁶, the relative influence which peers exert on consumption of the identified product categories is described in *Figure 6.31f* (below).

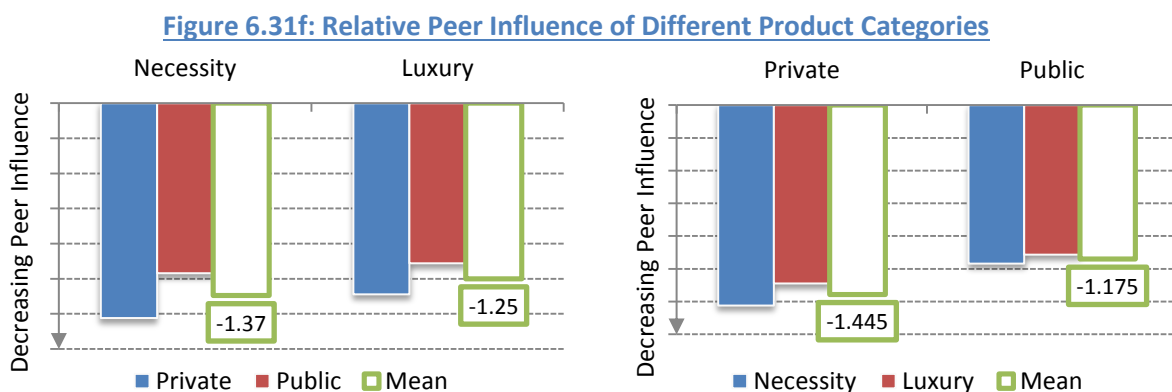


Figure 6.31f (above) shows the relative mean influence of the identified product categories. A higher coefficient value is indicative of exacerbated skewness towards propensity to consume a particular product; negative values depict a skew towards respondents stating that they are not influenced to consume a particular product by peers.

¹⁶ See sections 6.6.2.1.1 – 6.6.2.1.4; Calculated by subtracting the median option from the mean value (\bar{x}).

Necessity goods showed a lower coefficient value of -1.37 relative to luxury goods (which had a coefficient value of -1.25). This implies that peer endorsement was more prone to persuade respondents to purchase a luxury good than a necessity good.

Privately consumed goods returned a coefficient value of -1.445 which was lower than the -1.175 coefficient value which publically consumed goods returned. Consequently, it can be deduced that respondents were more susceptible to peers influence of public goods than private goods

6.7.2.2. Age as a Variable of Peers' Influence on the 4 Identified Product Categories

A Pearson's correlation was run between the degree of peers' influence of the identified product categories and the age of respondent. In descending order, the product category with the greatest correlation to the one with the smallest was as follows;

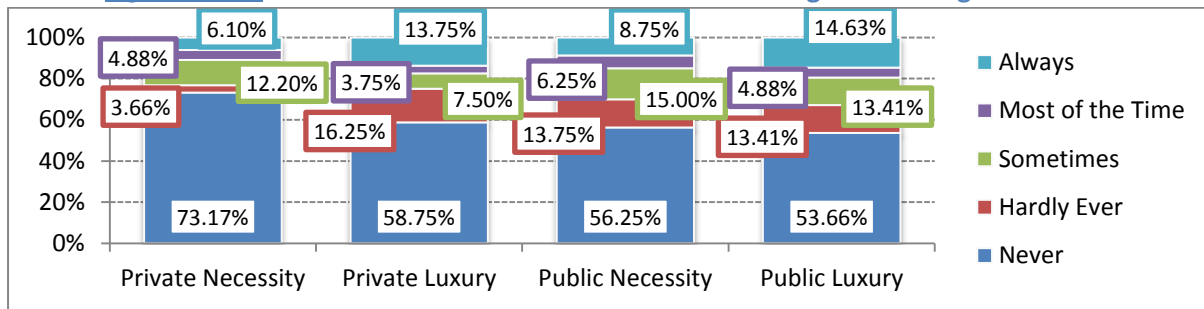
- i. Private Necessity goods showed the greatest Pearson Coefficient (r) of -0.160 with a 2-tailed significance coefficient (p-value) of 0.000 (making the correlation statistically significant¹⁷). This shows that as children age, the ability of peers to influence consumption of privately consumed necessities decreases faster than any other product category.
- ii. Privately consumed Luxury goods returned the second greatest Pearson R-value of -0.121 with a p-value of 0.004. This implies that as tweens age, peers' ability to influence consumption decreases faster for both privately consumed categories than public categories.
- iii. The effect of peer endorsement on publically consumed luxury goods returned a Pearson's Coefficient (r) of -0.116 with a p-value of 0.005. These findings imply that as respondents age, peers ability to influence consumption of publically consumed luxury goods through endorsement decreases, but at a slower rate than for privately consumed necessity goods and privately consumed luxury goods
- iv. Publically consumed necessity goods returned the lowest Pearson's R-value of the identified product categories when assessing the ability of peers to influence consumption through endorsement relative to age. Publically consumed necessity goods returned a coefficient value of -0.029 from a sample population (N) of 569 respondents. The low R-value implies that although peers' ability to influence consumption decreased as children aged, it decreased at the lowest (negligible) rate.

In order to further analyse peers ability to influence consumption of the identified product categories through endorsement, a cross tabulation between peers influence and age of the respondent was conducted which is depicted in *Figures 6.32a – 6.32f*.

¹⁷ As mentioned previously, a p-value value of less than 0.05 is considered significant (Griffith, 2010: 233)

6.7.2.2.1. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 8 Year Old's Propensity to Consume

Figure 6.32a: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 8 Year Olds



The findings from *Figure 6.32a* (above) are described below. Findings are described for each product category according to the frequency of responses, from the response with the highest frequency to the response with the lowest.

- The first bar in *Figure 6.32a* showed the effect which peer endorsement had on propensity to consume private necessities among 8 year old respondents. The majority of 8 year old respondents (73.17%) stated that they were never influenced to consume a privately consumed necessity by peer endorsement; 12.20% of 8 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced their consumption of private necessities; 6.10% of 8 year old respondents stated that they were always influenced to purchase private necessities by peers; 4.88% of respondents stated that most of the time they experienced increased propensity to consume private necessities due to peer influence; 3.66% of 8 year olds stated they were hardly ever persuaded to consume by peer endorsement.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 8 year old respondents was 1.67, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.33 base points.

- The second bar in *Figure 6.32a* described the effect which peer endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods had on propensity to consume among 8 year old respondents. 58.55% of 8 year old respondents stated that they were never influenced to consume private necessities due to peer endorsement; 16.25% of 8 year old respondents stated that they were hardly ever influenced into purchasing private luxury goods by peers; 13.75% of 8 year olds surveyed stated that their propensity to consume was always increased by peer endorsement; 7.50% of 8 year old respondents stated that peer endorsement sometimes increased their propensity to consume; 3.75% of respondents aged 8 years old declared that most of the time peer endorsement increased propensity to consume.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 8 year old respondents was 1.97, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.03 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.32a* showed how the consumption frequency of publically consumed necessity by 8 year old respondents is affected by peer endorsement. The majority of 8 year old respondents (56.25%) stated that peer endorsement never influenced their propensity to consume a public necessity; 15.00% of 8 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced consumption frequency of public necessities; 13.75% of 8 year old respondents declared that peer endorsement hardly ever influenced their purchase decision of public necessities; 6.25% of 8 year olds surveyed stated that most of the time peer endorsement increased their propensity to consume; 8.75% of 8 year olds stated they were always influenced into purchasing public necessities by peers endorsement.

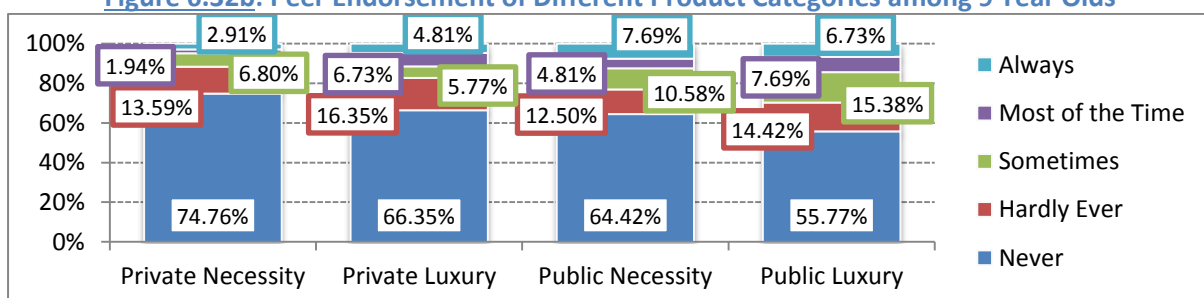
The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 8 year old respondents was 1.97, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.03 base points.

- Peer endorsements effect on 8 year olds' propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods is described in the fourth bar in *Figure 6.32a*. The majority (53.66%) of 8 year old respondents stated that peers never influenced their consumption of publically consumed luxuries; 14.63% of 8 year olds believed their consumption of public luxuries was always influenced by peers; 13.41% of 8 year old respondents declared that peer influence hardly ever increased their propensity to consume public luxury goods; 13.41% of 8 year old participants stated that sometimes peer endorsement increased their propensity to consume; 4.88% of 8 year olds surveyed stated that most of the time their propensity to consume public luxuries was increased by peer endorsement.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 8 year old respondents was 2.13, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -0.87 base points.

6.7.2.2.2. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 9 Year Old's Propensity to Consume

Figure 6.32b: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 9 Year Olds



The findings from *Figure 6.32b* (above) are described below. Once again, findings are described for each product category according to the frequency of responses, from the response with the highest frequency to the response with the lowest.

- The first bar in *Figure 6.32b* described the effect which peer endorsement of privately consumed necessity goods had on propensity to consume among 9 year old respondents. The majority of 9 year old respondents (74.76%) stated that peer influence never increased their propensity to consume a privately consumed necessity good; 13.59% of 9 year olds surveyed stated that they are hardly ever influenced into purchasing private necessities by peer endorsement; 6.80% of 9 year olds selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes persuaded them to consume private necessities; 2.91% of 9 year old respondents stated that peer endorsement always affected propensity to consume private necessities; 1.94% of surveyed 9 year olds stated that peer endorsement increased propensity to consume privately consumed necessity goods most of the time.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 9 year old respondents was 1.45, which implies a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.55 base points.

- The second bar in *Figure 6.32a* showed the effect which peer endorsement had on propensity to consume privately consumed luxury goods by 9 year old respondents. The majority (66.35%) of 9 year old respondents stated that their propensity to consume a private luxury good was never influenced by peer endorsement; 16.35% of 9 year olds declared that their propensity to consume a private luxury good was hardly ever influenced by peer endorsement; 6.73% of 9 year olds stated that most of the time peer endorsement increased their propensity to consume; 5.77% of 9 year olds remarked that peer endorsement affects propensity to consume a private luxury good sometimes; 4.81% of 9 year old respondents stated peer endorsement always affected consumption of private luxury goods.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 9 year old respondents was 1.67, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.33 base points.

- Peer endorsements effect on 9 year olds' propensity to consume publically consumed necessity goods is described in the third bar in *Figure 6.32b*. The majority of 9 year old respondents (64.42%) stated that their propensity to consume a public necessity good was never affected by peer endorsement; 12.5% of 9 year olds surveyed stated that they were hardly ever persuaded to purchase a public necessity good by peer endorsement; 10.58% of 9 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that their propensity to consume a public necessity was

sometimes influenced by peer endorsement; 7.69% of 9 year olds stated that their propensity to consume public necessities was always influenced by peer endorsement; 4.81% of 9 year olds declared that peer endorsement affected consumption of public necessities most of the time.

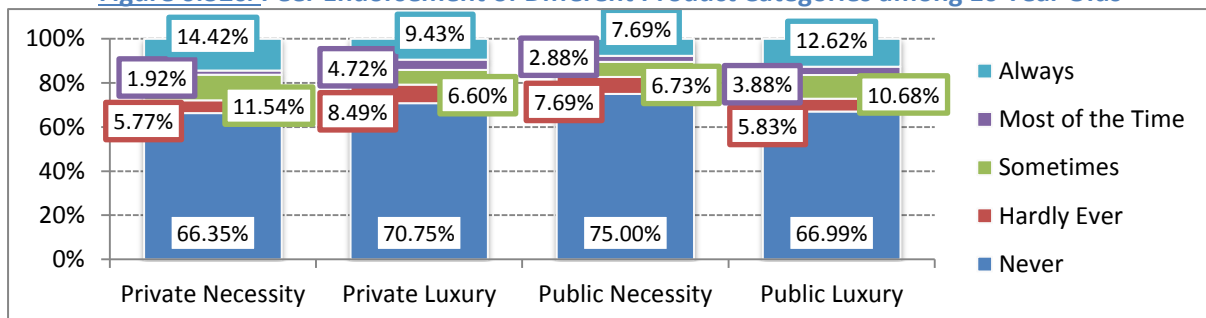
The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 9 year old respondents was 1.79, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.21 base points.

- The fourth bar in *Figure 6.32b* showed how the consumption frequency of publically consumed luxuries by 9 year old respondents is affected by peer endorsement. The majority of 9 year old respondents (55.77%) stated that they are never influenced into purchasing public luxury goods due to peer endorsement; 15.38% of 9 year old respondents stated that their propensity to consume public luxuries is sometimes influenced by peers; 14.42% of 9 year olds declared that peer endorsement hardly ever affects their propensity to consume public luxuries; 7.69% of 9 year olds stated that peer endorsement influenced their consumption of public luxury goods most of the time; 6.73% of respondents believed that peer endorsement always influenced their consumption of public luxuries.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 9 year old respondents was 1.95, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.05 base points.

6.7.2.2.3. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 10 Year Old's Propensity to Consume

Figure 6.32c: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 10 Year Olds



The findings from *Figure 6.32c* (above) are described below. Findings are once again described for each product category according to the frequency of responses, from the response with the highest frequency to the response with the lowest.

- The first bar in *Figure 6.32c* showed the effect which peer endorsement had on propensity to consume private necessities among 10 year old respondents. The majority (66.35%) of 10 year old respondents believed that peer endorsement of a privately consumed necessity never increased their propensity to consume; 14.42% of 10 year olds stated that peer endorsement always increased their propensity to consume a private necessity; 11.54% of 10 year olds said

that peer endorsement sometimes influenced them to consume private necessities; 5.77% of 10 year olds stated that peer endorsement hardly ever affected their propensity to consume private necessities; 1.92% of 10 year olds stated that peer endorsement increased their consumption of private necessities most of the time.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 10 year old respondents was 1.92, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.08 base points.

- The second bar in *Figure 6.32c* described the effect which peer endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods had on propensity to consume among 10 year old respondents. The majority of 10 year old respondents (70.75%) stated that peer endorsement of private luxury goods never influenced consumption; 9.43% of 10 year olds believed that peer endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods always increased propensity to consume; 8.49% of 10 year old respondents declared that peer endorsement hardly ever increased propensity to consume private luxuries; 6.60% of 10 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced propensity to consume private luxury goods; 4.72% of respondents aged 10 stated that most of the time peer endorsement of privately consumed luxuries increased propensity to consume.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 10 year old respondents was 1.74, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.26 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.32c* showed how the consumption frequency of publically consumed necessity by 10 year old respondents is affected by peer endorsement. The majority of 10 year old respondents (75.00%) stated that peer endorsement of a public necessity never influenced their propensity to consume; 7.69% of 10 year olds stated that peer endorsement always influenced their consumption frequency of public necessities; 7.69% of respondents believed that they were hardly ever influenced by peers into purchasing public necessities; 6.73% of respondents selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced propensity to consume public necessities; 2.88% of 10 year old respondents believed that most of the time peer endorsement influenced consumption of public necessity goods.

The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 10 year old respondents was 1.61, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.39 base points.

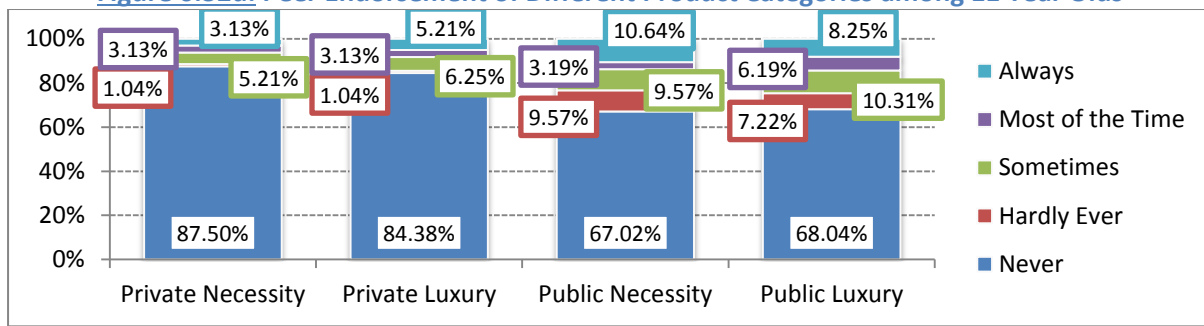
- Peer endorsements effect on 10 year olds' propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods is described in the fourth bar in *Figure 6.32c*. The majority of 10 year old respondents

(66.99%) stated that peer endorsement never increased propensity to consume private necessities; 12.62% of 10 year old respondents believed that peer endorsement always increased propensity to consume public luxuries; 10.68% of 10 year olds selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced consumption of public luxuries; 5.83% of respondents aged 10 years old stated that peer endorsement hardly ever influenced consumption of public luxuries; 3.88% of 10 year olds stated that peer endorsement increased propensity to consume most of the time.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 10 year old respondents was 1.89, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.11 base points

6.7.2.2.4. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 11 Year Old's Propensity to Consume

Figure 6.32d: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 11 Year Olds



The findings from *Figure 6.32d* (on the previous page) are described below. Findings are described for each product category according to the frequency of responses, from the response with the highest frequency to the response with the lowest.

- The first bar in *Figure 6.32d* described the effect which peer endorsement of privately consumed necessity goods had on propensity to consume among 11 year old respondents. The vast majority of 11 year old respondents (87.50%) stated that peer endorsement never influenced their propensity to consume private necessities; 5.21% of 11 year olds selected the median and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced their propensity to consume private necessities; 3.13% of respondents aged 11 years old stated that most of the time propensity to consume private necessities was influenced by peer endorsement; 3.13% of 11 year olds stated that peer endorsement always increased their propensity to consume private necessities; 1.04% of 11 year old respondents stated that peer endorsement hardly ever influenced their propensity to consume private necessities.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 11 year old respondents was 1.33, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.67 base points.

- Peer endorsements effect on 11 year olds' propensity to consume privately consumed luxury goods is described in the fourth bar in *Figure 6.32d*. The vast majority of 11 year old respondents (84.38%) stated that peer endorsement never influenced propensity to consume private luxury goods; 6.25% of 11 year olds selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced consumption of private luxury goods; 5.21% of 11 year old respondents declared that peer endorsement always influenced consumption of private luxuries; 3.13% of 11 year olds believed that peer endorsement of public luxuries influenced consumption most of the time; 1.04% of 11 year olds remarked that endorsement of private luxuries hardly ever influenced consumption.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 11 year old respondents was 1.44, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.56 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.32d* showed the effect which peer endorsement had on propensity to consume publically consumed necessity goods by 10 year old respondents. The majority of 11 year old respondents (67.02%) stated that peer endorsement of public necessities never influenced consumption decision; 10.64% of respondents stated that peer endorsement of public necessities always influenced propensity to consume; 9.57% of 11 year olds stated that propensity to consume public necessities was sometimes influenced by peer endorsement; 9.57% of 11 year old respondents believed propensity to consume public necessities was hardly ever influenced by peer endorsement; 3.19% of 11 year olds stated that peer endorsement increased propensity to consume public necessities most of the time.

The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 11 year old respondents was 1.81, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.19 base points.

- The last bar in *Figure 6.32d* showed how the consumption frequency of publically consumed luxury goods by 10 year old respondents is affected by peer endorsement. The majority of 11 year old respondents (68.04%) stated that peer endorsement never increased their propensity to consumed public luxury goods; 10.31% of 11 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced their consumption decision; 8.25% of 11 year olds stated that peer endorsement always influenced propensity to consume public luxuries; 7.22% of 11 year olds said that peer endorsement was hardly ever a motivating factor in consumption of public luxuries; 6.19% of 11 year old respondents stated that peer endorsement of public luxuries influenced their consumption decision most of the time.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 11 year old respondents was 1.79, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.21 base points.

6.7.2.2.5. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 12 Year Old’s Propensity to Consume

Figure 6.32e: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 12 Year Olds

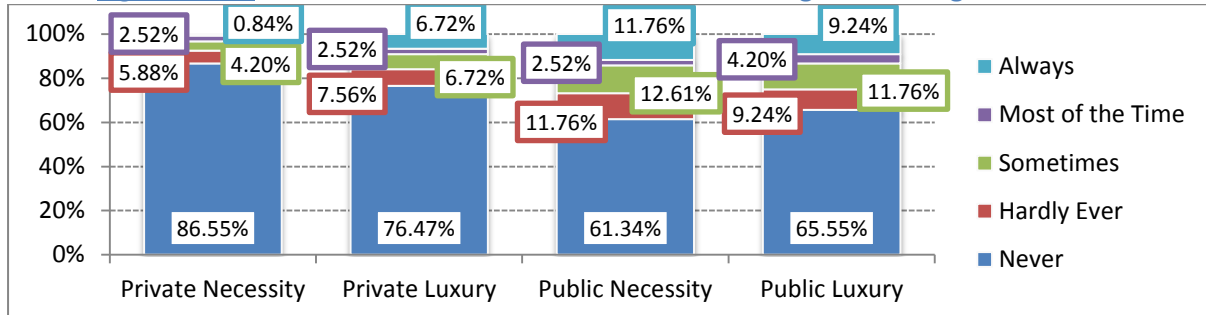


Figure 6.32e (above) shows the effect which peer endorsement has on propensity to consume the identified product categories by 12 year old respondents. Findings are described for each product category according to the frequency of responses, from the response with the highest frequency to the response with the lowest.

- The first bar in Figure 6.32e showed the effect which peer endorsement had on propensity to consume private necessities among 12 year old respondents. The vast majority of 12 year old respondents (86.55%) believed that peer endorsement never increased propensity to consume private necessity goods; 5.88% of 12 year old respondents stated that propensity to consume private necessities was hardly ever influenced by peer endorsement; 4.20% of 12 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced consumption of private necessities; 2.52% of 12 year old respondents stated that peer endorsement of private necessities increased their propensity to consume most of the time; only 0.84% of 12 year old respondents stated that peer endorsement always increased their propensity to consume private necessities.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 12 year old respondents was 1.25, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.75 base points.

- The second bar in Figure 6.32e described the effect which peer endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods had on propensity to consume among 12 year old respondents. The vast majority of 12 year old respondents (76.47%) declared that they were never influenced by peer endorsement into consuming privately consumed luxuries; 7.56% of 12 year olds stated that they were hardly ever influenced by peers into consuming private luxuries; 6.72% of respondents selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes

influenced consumption of private luxuries; 6.72% of 12 year olds stated that peer endorsement always increased propensity to consume private luxuries; 2.52% of 12 year olds stated that most of the time peer endorsement of private luxuries increased propensity to consume.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 12 year old respondents was 1.55, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.45 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.32e* showed how the consumption frequency of publically consumed necessity by 12 year old respondents is affected by peer endorsement. The majority of 12 year old respondents (61.34%) stated that peer endorsement of public necessities never influenced their propensity to consume; 12.61% of 12 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced consumption of publically consumed necessities; 11.76% of 12 year olds stated that peer endorsement hardly ever affected their propensity to consume public necessities; 11.76% of 12 year old respondents stated that their propensity to consume public necessities was always influenced by peer endorsement; only 2.52% of 12 year old respondents stated that most of the time peer endorsement increased propensity to consume publically consumed necessities.

The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 12 year old respondents was 1.92, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.08 base points.

- Peer endorsements effect on 12 year olds' propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods is described in the fourth bar in *Figure 6.32e*. The majority of 12 year old respondents (65.55%) stated that peer endorsement never influences their propensity to consume public luxury goods; 11.76% of 12 year olds stated that peer endorsement sometimes influences propensity to consume public luxuries; 9.24% of 12 year old respondents declared that they were hardly ever persuaded to purchase public luxury goods by peer endorsement; 9.24% of 12 year olds stated that peer endorsement always influenced their consumption of public luxuries; 4.2% of 12 year olds surveyed remarked that peer endorsement of public luxuries increased their propensity to consume most of the time.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 12 year old respondents was 1.82, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.18 base points.

6.7.2.2.6. Peer Endorsement as a Factor of 13 Year Old's Propensity to Consume

Figure 6.32f: Peer Endorsement of Different Product Categories among 13 Year Olds

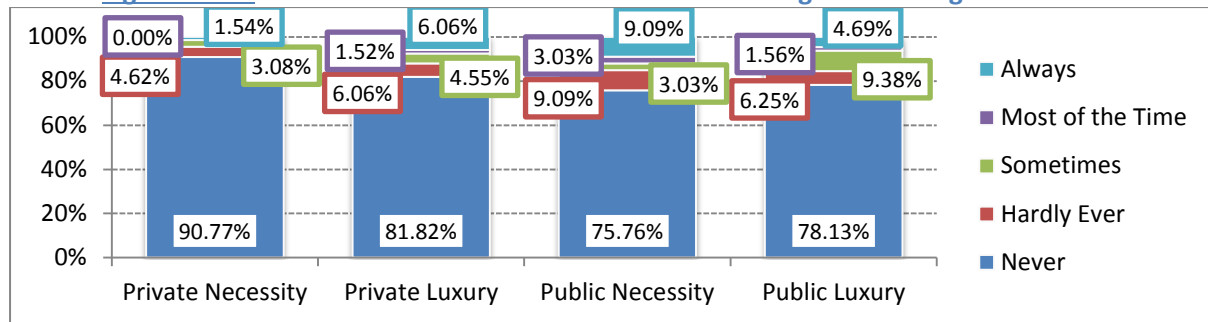


Figure 6.32f (above) graphically depicts the effect which peer endorsement has on propensity to consume the various product classes among 13 year old respondents. Findings are described for each of the identified product categories in descending order, from the response which had the highest frequency to the category with the least.

- The first bar in Figure 6.32f showed how the consumption frequency of privately consumed necessities of 13 year old respondents is affected by peer endorsement. The vast majority of 13 year old respondents (90.77%) stated that peer endorsement never influenced their propensity to consume private necessity goods; 4.62% of 13 year old respondents stated that they were hardly ever persuaded to consume private necessity goods due to peer endorsement; 3.08% of 13 year olds stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced propensity to consume private necessity goods; 1.54% of 13 year olds stated that peer endorsement always influenced consumption of private necessities; no 13 year olds stated that peer endorsement influenced consumption of private necessities most of the time.

The mean value for privately consumed necessity goods among 13 year old respondents was 1.17, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.83 base points.

- The second bar in Figure 6.32f showed the effect which peer endorsement had on propensity to consume privately consumed luxury goods among 13 year old respondents. The vast majority of 13 year old respondents (81.82%) stated that propensity to consume privately consumed luxuries was never influenced by peer endorsement; 6.06% of 13 year olds surveyed declared that peer endorsement hardly ever increased their propensity to consume private luxury goods; 6.06% of 13 year olds stated that peer endorsement always increased propensity to consume private luxuries; 4.55% of 13 year olds selected them median option and stated that propensity to consume private luxury goods was sometimes increased by peer endorsement; 1.52% of 13 year old respondents stated that most of the time peer endorsement increased propensity to consume privately consumed luxury goods.

The mean value for privately consumed luxury goods among 13 year old respondents was 1.44, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.56 base points.

- Peer endorsements effect on 13 year olds' propensity to consume publically consumed necessity goods is described in the third bar in *Figure 6.32f*. The vast majority of 13 year old respondents (75.76%) stated that peer endorsement never influenced consumption of public necessities; 9.09% of 13 year old respondents stated that peer endorsement of public necessities always increased propensity to consume; 9.09% of participants aged 13 believed that peer endorsement hardly ever influenced consumption of public necessities; 3.03% of 13 year olds selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement of public necessities sometimes increased propensity to consume; 3.03% of 13 year olds said that peer endorsement of public necessities increased consumption most of the time.

The mean value for publically consumed necessity goods among 13 year old respondents was 1.61, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.39 base points.

- The last bar in *Figure 6.32f* described the effect which peer endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods had on propensity to consume among 13 year old respondents. The majority of 13 year old respondents (78.13%) stated that peer endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods never influenced consumption; 9.38% of 13 year olds selected the median option and stated that peer endorsement sometimes influenced consumption of publically consumed luxuries; 6.25% of 13 year old respondents stated that peer endorsement of public luxuries hardly ever influenced their propensity to consume; 4.69% of 13 year olds surveyed declared that peer endorsement always influenced their consumption of public luxuries; 1.56% of 13 year old respondents stated that peer endorsement influenced consumption decision most of the time.

The mean value for publically consumed luxury goods among 13 year old respondents was 1.48, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of -1.52 base points.

6.7.2.2.7. Summary of Age as a Variable of Peers influence on Propensity to Consume

Figure 6.33 summarizes the distribution skew of the above findings relative to each product category¹⁸ to demonstrate how age impacts the efficacy of peer endorsement of the identified product categories.

¹⁸ A Negative Values implies a distribution skewness favouring lower propensity to consume; a positive value shows increased propensity to consume. The coefficient value shows the magnitude of propensity to consume.

Figure 6.33: Distribution Skewness of Peer Endorsement and Propensity to Consume

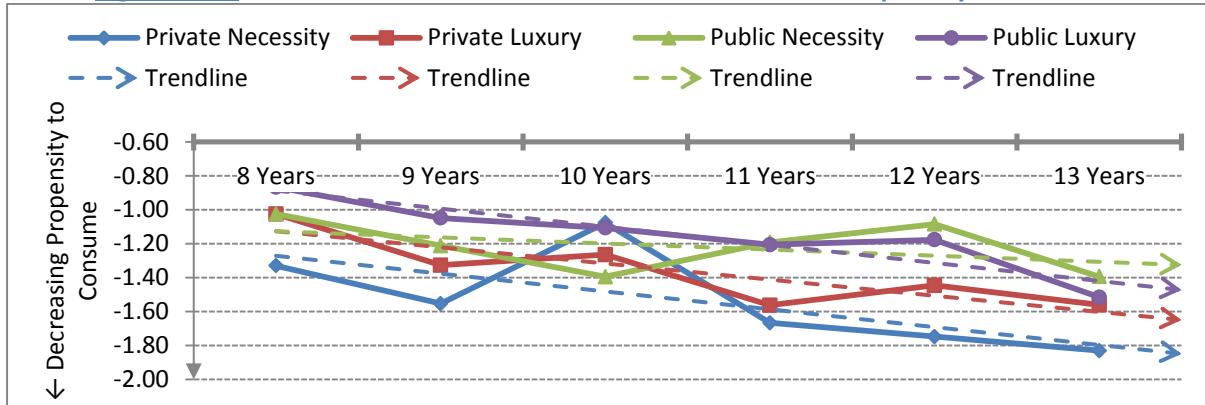


Figure 6.33 (above) describes the effect which age has on peer endorsement, and consequently propensity to consume the identified product categories. Results are described for each age, starting with the product category which endorsement has the highest impact on propensity to consume, to the category with the lowest propensity to consume¹⁹.

- 8 year old respondents stated that the consumption frequency due to peer endorsement was most prevalent in publically consumed luxury goods; privately consumed luxury goods and publically consumed necessities showed similar consumption frequency due to peer endorsement among 8 year olds; private necessities had the lowest propensity to consume due to peer endorsement among 8 year old respondents.
- 9 year old respondents stated that their propensity to consume publically consumed luxuries due to peer endorsement was the highest; publically consumed necessities had the second highest consumption susceptibility due to peer endorsement among 9 year olds; privately consumed luxury goods had the third highest consumption frequency due to peer endorsement; private necessities exhibited the lowest consumption frequency due to peer endorsement among 9 year old respondents.
- 10 year old respondents stated that the consumption frequency due to peer endorsement was most prominent for privately consumed necessities; publically consumed luxury goods had the second highest consumption propensity due to peer endorsement among 11 year olds; privately consumed luxury goods had the third highest susceptibility to consume due to peer endorsement by 11 year olds; 11 year olds had the lowest propensity to consume public necessity goods due to peer endorsement.
- 11 year olds stated that publically consumed necessities had the highest propensity to consume due to peer endorsement; public luxuries had the second highest consumption frequency due to peer endorsement among 11 year olds; privately consumed luxury goods had the third highest

¹⁹ The linear trend-line shows the mean change over time for each relative product category. A steeper gradient implies a greater change.

consumption susceptibility due to peer endorsement among 11 year olds; private necessities had the lowest propensity to consume due to peer endorsement among 11 year olds.

- 12 year old respondents stated that they had the highest propensity to consume public necessities due to peer endorsement; publically consumed luxury goods had the second highest consumption susceptibility due to peer endorsement among 12 year old respondents; 12 year olds had the third highest propensity to consume private luxury goods due to peer endorsement; privately consumed necessity goods had the lowest consumption susceptibility due to peer endorsement among 12 year old respondents.
- 13 year old respondents stated that their highest propensity to consume due to peer endorsement was for publically consumed necessity goods; publically consumed luxury goods had the second highest consumption susceptibility due to peer endorsement by 13 year olds; 13 year old respondents remarked that privately consumed luxury goods had the third highest consumption susceptibility due to peer endorsement; privately consumed necessity goods was the product category with the lowest consumption susceptibility due to peer endorsement.

The gradient of the trend-lines²⁰ in *Figure 6.33* represent the change in propensity to consume due to peer endorsement relative to age. All the product categories had a negative gradient implying that as children age, their consumption susceptibility due to peer endorsement decreases. In descending order from the product category with the slowest decline to the category with the fastest; Public necessities returned a mean gradient of -0.036 implying that the propensity to consume due to peer endorsement decreased slower for public necessities than for any other product category as children aged; privately consumed luxury goods returned a mean gradient of -0.0952 implying that as children age, the consumption propensity due to peer endorsement decreased at the second slowest rate; privately consumed necessities had a gradient of -0.1052 making consumption propensity due to peer endorsement decline at the third fastest rate relative to other identified product categories; finally, publically consumed luxury goods returned the steepest gradient of -0.1067 implying that an increase in age decreases the propensity to consume public luxury goods due to peer endorsement faster than any other product category.

6.7.3. Parent-Child Endorsement

The following section describes the manner in which parental endorsement of the identified product categories influences consumption among respondents. The following figures show a summary of the perceived importance of parental endorsement on the identified product categories among respondents.

²⁰A gradient (m) of -1 would result in a downgrading of the mean answer for that category by an average of 1 of the identified responses per year of age (e.g. Always [5] -> Most of the Time [4]); y cannot be greater than 2 nor can it be less than -2.

6.7.3.1. Parental Endorsement of Privately Consumed Necessity Goods

Figure 6.34a: Parental Endorsement of Privately Consumed Necessity Goods

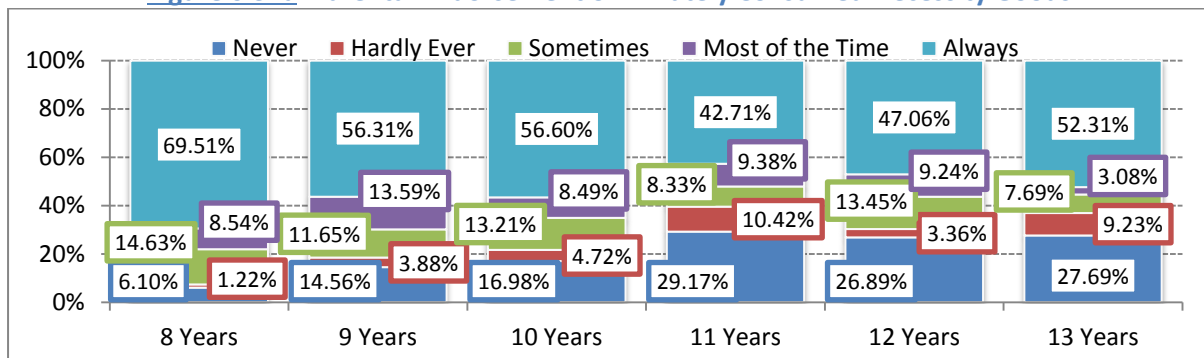


Figure 6.34a (above) graphically shows the perceived importance of parental endorsement on privately consumed necessities among respondents of different ages. Results are described below for each age group, in an ascending manner, from young to old. Within each age group, results are described from the category with the highest frequency of responses to the category with the least.

To generate comparable statistics, quantifiable values were associated to respondents selections in the following manner; Never = 1, Hardly Ever = 2; Sometimes = 3; Most of the Time = 4; Always = 5.

- The first bar represents the effect of parental endorsement of privately consumed necessity goods on 8 year old respondents. The majority of 8 year old respondents (69.15%) stated that parental endorsement of a privately consumed necessity good always influenced their consumption decision; 14.63% of 8 year olds selected the median option and stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed necessities sometimes influenced consumption; 8.54% of 8 year olds believed that parental endorsement of private necessity goods influenced their propensity to consume most of the time; 6.10% of 8 year olds stated that they are never influenced into purchasing privately consumed necessity goods due to parental influence; only 1.22% of 8 year olds stated they are hardly ever influenced into purchasing private necessities through parental endorsement.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 8 year olds was 4.34²¹, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 1.34 base points.

- The second bar in Figure 6.34a shows the effect which parental endorsement of privately consumed necessity goods had on 9 year olds' propensity to consume. The majority of 9 year old respondents (56.31%) stated that parental influence of privately consumed necessity goods always increased their propensity to consume; 14.56% of 9 year old respondents stated that

²¹ A value >3 implies a mean skew towards higher consumption propensity; a value <3 results in a mean skew towards reduced propensity to consume.

parental endorsement of private necessities never influenced their propensity to consume; 13.59% stated that parents influenced consumption of privately consumed necessity goods most of the time; 11.65% of 9 year old respondents selected the median and stated that parental endorsement sometimes influenced their consumption of private necessities; 3.88% of 9 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement hardly ever influenced their propensity to consume private necessities.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 9 year olds was 3.93, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.93 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.34a* depicts the effect of parental endorsement of privately consumed necessity goods on 10 year olds' propensity to consume. The majority of 10 year old respondents (56.60%) stated that parental endorsement always increased their consumption of privately consumed necessities; 16.98% of 10 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement of private necessities never influenced their propensity to consume; 13.21% of 10 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that parental endorsement of private necessities sometimes increased their propensity to consume; 8.49% of 10 year olds surveyed believed that parental endorsement increased propensity to consume private necessities most of the time; 4.72% of 10 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed necessities hardly ever increased their consumption frequency.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 10 year olds was 3.83, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.83 base points.

- The fourth bar in *Figure 6.34a* represents the effect which parental endorsement of privately consumed necessity goods had on the propensity to consume of 11 year old respondents. 42.71% of 11 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed necessity always increased their propensity to consume; 29.17% of 11 year olds stated that they are never influenced into purchasing a privately consumed necessity due to parental endorsement; 10.42% of 11 year olds surveyed declared that parental endorsement of privately consumed necessities hardly ever increased their propensity to consume; 9.38% of 11 year olds stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed necessity goods increased their propensity to consume most of the time; 8.33% of 11 year olds believed that parental endorsement of private necessities sometimes increased consumption propensity.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 11 year olds was 3.26, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.26 base points.

- The fifth bar in *Figure 6.34a* shows 12 year olds' propensity to consume publically consumed necessities due to the effect of parental endorsement. 47.06% of 12 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement always increased their propensity to purchase privately consumed necessities; 26.89% of 12 year olds declared that parental endorsement never influenced their propensity to consume private necessities; 13.45% of 12 year olds selected the median option and stated that parental endorsement sometimes increased their propensity to consume private necessities; 9.24% of 12 year olds believed that parental endorsement increased consumption of private necessities most of the time; 3.36% of 12 year olds surveyed stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods hardly ever influenced consumption frequency.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 12 year olds was 3.46, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.46 base points.

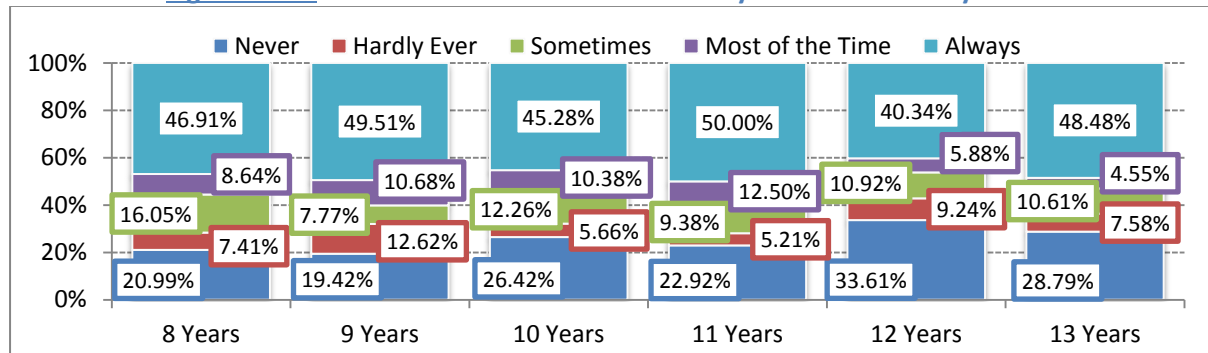
- The final bar in *Figure 6.34a* represents 13 year olds' propensity to consume privately consumed necessity goods as a result of the influence exerted on them by parents. The majority of 13 year old respondents (52.31%) stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed necessities always influenced their propensity to consume; 27.69% of 13 year olds believed that parental endorsement of privately consumed necessity goods never influenced their consumption decision; 9.23% of 13 year olds declared that they are hardly ever influenced by parental endorsement into consuming private necessities; 7.69% of 13 year olds selected the median and stated that parental endorsement sometimes influenced their consumption of private necessities; 3.08% of 13 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement of private necessities increased their propensity to consume most of the time.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 13 year olds was 3.43, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.43 base points.

6.7.3.2. Parental Endorsement of Privately Consumed Luxury Goods

The following figure (Figure 6.34b) shows the perceived importance of parental endorsement on privately consumed luxury goods among respondents.

Figure 6.34b: Parental Endorsement of Privately Consumed Luxury Goods



In a similar fashion, the Figure 6.34b (above) shows the findings of tweens' perception of parental endorsement relative to consumption of privately consumed luxury goods.

- The first bar in Figure 6.34b shows the effect which parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods had on 8 year olds' propensity to consume. 46.91% of 8 year olds aged 8 years old stated that parents always influence consumption of privately consumed luxury goods; 20.99% of respondents believed that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods never influenced propensity to consume; 16.05% of 8 year olds surveyed selected the median option and believed that parental endorsement sometimes influenced consumption of privately consumed luxury goods; 8.64% of respondents stated that most of the time parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods influenced their propensity to consume; 7.41% of 8 year olds declared that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods hardly ever affected their propensity to consume.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed luxury goods among 8 year olds was 3.53, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.53 base points.

- The second bar in Figure 6.34b represents the effect of parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods on 9 year old respondents. Just under half of 9 year old respondents (46.91%) believed that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods always influenced their consumption decision; 19.42% of 9 year old respondents stated that parents never influence their propensity to consume private luxury goods; 12.62% of 9 year olds declared that parental endorsement hardly ever affected their decision to consume privately consumed luxuries; 10.68% of 9 year olds stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxuries influenced their purchase decision most of the time; 7.77% of 9 year olds

selected the median and stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods sometimes influenced their consumption decision.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 9 year olds was 3.58, which implies a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.58 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.34b* represents the effect which parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods had on the propensity to consume of 10 year old respondents. 45.28% of 10 year olds declared that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods always influenced their propensity to consume; 26.42% of 10 year olds declared that parental endorsement never influenced their decision to purchase privately consumed luxury goods; 12.26% of 10 year olds selected the median, and stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods sometimes influenced their consumption decision; 10.38% of 10 year olds stated that most of the time parental endorsement influenced their consumption of privately consumed luxury goods; 5.66% of 10 year olds believed that parental endorsement hardly ever influenced their consumption of privately consumed luxury goods.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 10 year olds was 3.42, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.42 base points.

- The fourth bar in *Figure 6.34b* depicts the effect of parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods on 11 year olds' propensity to consume. Half of all the 11 year olds surveyed (50.00%) stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed necessity goods always influenced consumption; 22.92% of 11 year olds stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods never influenced their propensity to consume; 12.50% of 11 year olds declared that most of the time parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods increased their consumption; 9.38% of 11 year olds selected the median option and stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods sometimes influenced their consumption decision; 5.21% of 11 year olds said parental endorsement of private luxury goods hardly ever influenced their propensity to consume.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 11 year olds was 3.61, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.42 base points.

- The fifth bar in *Figure 6.34b* represents 12 year olds' propensity to consume privately consumed luxury goods as a result of the influence exerted on them by parents. 40.34% of 12 year old respondents stated that they were always influenced by parental endorsement of privately

consumed necessity goods; 33.61% of 12 year olds believed that parental endorsements of privately consumed luxury goods never influenced their propensity to consume; 10.92% of 12 year olds selected the median option and stated that parental endorsement off privately consumed luxury goods sometimes influenced consumption; 9.24% of 12 year olds believed parental endorsement of privately consumed necessities hardly ever influenced consumption; 5.88% of 12 year olds declared that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods increased consumption frequency most of the time.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 12 year olds was 3.10, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.10 base points.

- The final bar in *Figure 6.34b* shows 13 year olds’ propensity to consume privately consumed luxuries due to the effect of parental endorsement. 48.48% of 13 year olds surveyed stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury good always influenced their consumption decision; 28.79% of 13 year olds believed that parental endorsement never influenced their propensity to consumed privately consumed luxuries; 10.61% of 13 year olds declared that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods sometimes influenced a consumption decision; 7.58% of 13 year olds stated that parental endorsement of privately consumed luxury goods hardly ever influenced their consumption frequency; 4.55% of 13 year olds believed that parental endorsement influenced their propensity to consume privately consumed luxury goods most of the time.

The mean parental influence for privately consumed necessity goods among 13 year olds was 3.37, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.37 base points.

6.7.3.3. Parental Endorsement of Publically Consumed Necessity Goods

Figure 6.34c: Parental Endorsement of Publically Consumed Necessity Goods

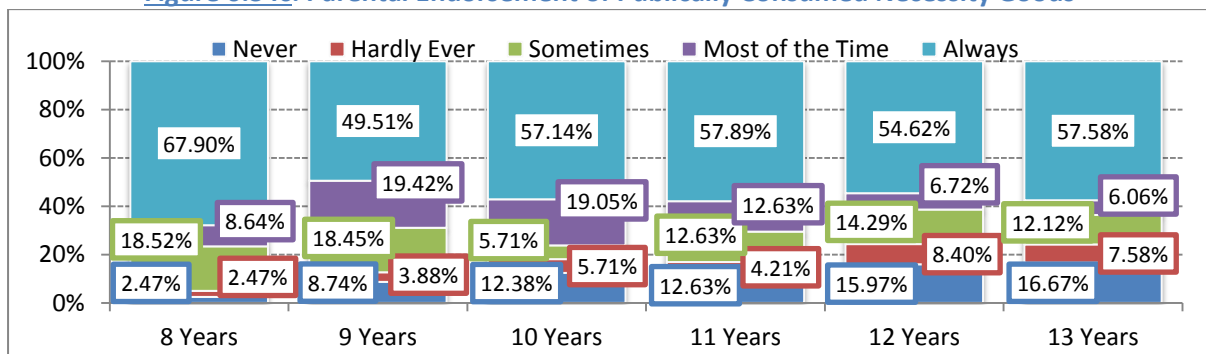


Figure 6.34c graphically depicts the findings of tweens’ perception of parental endorsement relative to consumption of publically consumed necessity goods. Findings are described below for each age

group in an ascending order, from younger respondents to older respondents. Within each age group, results are described from the category with the highest frequency of responses to the category with the least.

- The first bar in *Figure 6.34c* represents the effect which parental endorsement of publically consumed necessity goods had on the propensity to consume of 8 year old respondents. The majority (67.90%) of 8 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement of publically consumed necessity goods always increased their propensity to consume; 18.62% of 8 year olds selected the median option, and stated that parental endorsement of publically consumed necessities sometimes increased their consumption frequency; 8.64% of 8 year olds believed that most of the time parental endorsement of publically consumed necessity goods increased their propensity to consume; 2.47% of 8 year olds declared that parental endorsement of public necessity goods never increased their consumption frequency; 2.47% of 8 year old respondents believed that parental endorsement of publically consumed necessities hardly ever increased their consumption frequency.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed necessity goods among 8 year olds was 4.37, which implies a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 1.37 base points.

- The second bar in *Figure 6.34c* shows the effect which parental endorsement of publically consumed necessity goods had on 9 year olds' propensity to consume. 49.51% of 9 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement of publically consumed necessity goods always increased their propensity to consume; 19.42% of 9 year olds stated that most of the time parental endorsement of publically consumed necessity goods would increase their susceptibility to consume; 18.45% of 9 year old respondents selected the median and believed that parental endorsement of publically consumed necessities sometimes increased consumption frequency; 8.74% of 9 year olds believed that parental endorsement never increased their consumption of publically consumed necessities; 3.88% of 9 year olds declared that parental endorsement hardly ever increased their consumption of publically consumed necessity goods.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed necessity goods among 9 year olds was 3.97, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.97 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.34c* represents 10 year olds' propensity to consume publically consumed necessity goods as a result of the influence exerted on them by parents. The majority of 10 year old respondents (57.14%) stated that parental endorsement always increased their propensity to consume public necessities; 19.05% of 10 year olds believed that parental endorsement of publically consumed necessities increased consumption frequency most of the time; 12.38% of 10 year olds declared that parental endorsement of publically consumed necessities never increased propensity to consume; 5.71% of 10 year olds selected the median and believed parental endorsement of publically consumed necessities sometimes increased consumption; 5.71% of 10 year old respondents believed that parental endorsement hardly ever increased the consumption frequency of publically consumed necessities.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed necessity goods among 10 year olds was 4.03, this implies a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 1.03 base points.

- The fourth bar in *Figure 6.34c* represents the effect of parental endorsement of publically consumed necessity goods on 11 year old respondents. The majority (57.89%) of 11 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement of publically consumed necessities always increased their propensity to consume; 12.63% of 11 year olds believed that most of the time parental endorsement increased their propensity to consume public luxuries; 12.63% of 11 year old respondents selected the median and believed that parental endorsement sometimes increased consumption of publically consumed necessities; 12.63% of 11 year olds declared that parental endorsement never increased their propensity to consume public necessities; 4.21% of 11 year olds stated that parental endorsement of public necessities hardly ever increased their propensity to consume.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed necessity goods among 11 year olds was 3.99, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.99 base points.

- The fifth bar in *Figure 6.34c* depicts the effect of parental endorsement of publically consumed necessity goods on 12 year olds' propensity to consume. The majority of 12 year old respondents (54.62%) stated that parental endorsement of an publically consumed necessity always increased their propensity to consume; 15.97% of 12 year olds declared that parental endorsement of public necessities never increased their consumption; 14.29% of 12 year olds selected the median and stated that parental endorsement of public necessities sometimes increased their consumption frequency; 8.40% of 12 year olds believed that parental endorsement hardly ever influenced their consumption of publically consumed necessities;

6.72% of 12 year olds believed that most of the time parental endorsement increased consumption of private necessities.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed necessity goods among 11 year olds was 3.76, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.76 base points.

- The final bar in *Figure 6.34c* shows 13 year olds’ propensity to consume publically consumed necessities due to the effect of parental endorsement. The majority of 13 year old respondents (57.58%) stated that parental endorsement always increased their propensity to consume publically consumed necessities; 16.67% of 13 year old respondents declared that parental endorsement never influenced their decision to purchase public necessities; 12.12% of 13 year olds selected the median, and believed that parental endorsement sometimes influenced their consumption of public necessities; 7.58% of 13 year olds stated that parental endorsement of public necessities hardly ever influenced their decision to consume; 6.06% of respondents declared that parental endorsement of publically consumed necessities increased their consumption frequency most of the time.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed necessity goods among 13 year olds was 3.83, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.83 base points.

6.7.3.4. Parental Endorsement of Publically Consumed Luxury Goods

The following figure (*Figure 6.34c*) shows the perceived importance of parental endorsement on publically consumed necessity goods among respondents.

Figure 6.34d: Parental Endorsement of Publically Consumed Luxury Goods

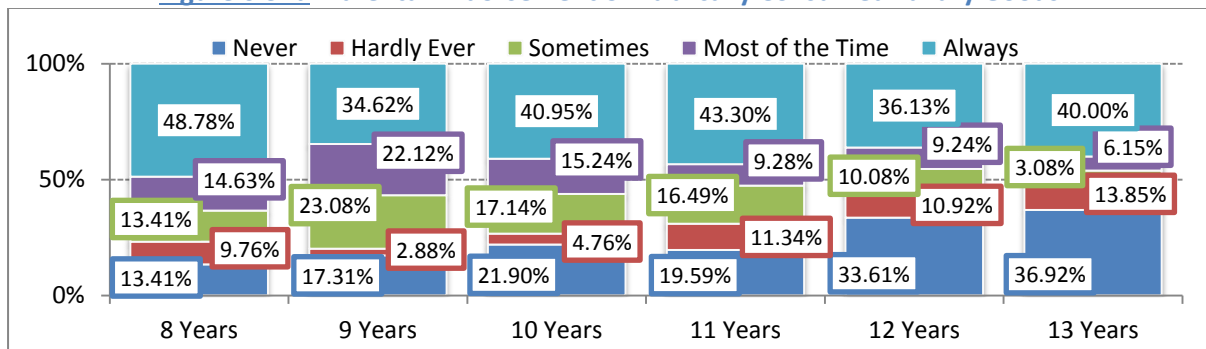


Figure 6.34c (above) graphically shows the findings of tweens’ perception of parental endorsement relative to consumption of publically consumed luxury goods. Findings are described below for each age group in an ascending order, from younger respondents to older respondents. Within each age group, results are described from the category with the highest frequency of responses to the category with the least.

- The first bar in *Figure 6.34d* represents the effect of parental endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods on 8 year old respondents. 48.78% of 8 year old respondents declared that parental endorsement always influenced their decision to purchase publically consumed luxury goods; 14.63% of 8 year olds believed that parental endorsement influenced consumption of publically consumed luxuries most of the time; 13.41% of 8 year olds selected the median, and stated that parental endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods sometimes influenced their purchase decision; 13.41% of 8 year olds surveyed declared that parental endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods never influenced their propensity to consume; 9.76% of 8 year olds believed that parental endorsement of public luxury goods hardly ever influenced their propensity to consume.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed luxury goods among 8 year olds was 3.75, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.75 base points.

- The second bar in *Figure 6.34d* depicts the effect of parental endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods on 9 year olds' propensity to consume. 34.62% of 9 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods always increased their propensity to consume; 23.08% of 9 year olds selected the median, and declared that parental endorsement of public luxuries sometimes influenced their propensity to consume; 22.12% of 9 year olds believed that most of the time parental endorsement of public luxuries influenced their consumption decision; 17.31% of 9 year olds believed parental endorsement never influenced their propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods; 2.88% of 9 year olds stated that parental endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods hardly ever increased their propensity to consume.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed luxury goods among 9 year olds was 3.53, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.53 base points.

- The third bar in *Figure 6.34d* represents the effect which parental endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods had on the propensity to consume of 10 year old respondents. 40.95% of 10 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement always increases their propensity to consume public luxuries; 21.90% of 10 year olds believed that parental endorsement of public luxuries never increased their consumption; 17.14% of 10 year old respondents selected the median option and stated that parental endorsement sometimes increased their propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods; 15.24% of 10 year olds declared that parental

endorsement of publically consumed luxuries increased their propensity to consume most of the time; 4.76% of 10 year old respondents believed that parental endorsement of public luxuries hardly ever increased their propensity to consume.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed luxury goods among 10 year olds was 3.49, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.49 base points.

- The fourth bar in *Figure 6.34d* shows the effect which parental endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods had on 11 year olds' propensity to consume. 43.30% of 11 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement always increased their propensity to consume public luxuries; 19.59% of 11 year olds declared that parental endorsement never increased their propensity to consume publically consumed luxuries; 16.49% of 11 year olds selected the median option, and stated that parental endorsement sometimes increased their propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods; 11.34% of 11 year olds believed they were hardly ever influenced by parental endorsement of publically consumed luxury goods; 9.28% of 11 year olds said that parental endorsement influenced them to purchase publically consumed luxuries most of the time.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed luxury goods among 11 year olds was 3.45, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.45 base points.

- The fifth bar in *Figure 6.34d* shows 12 year olds' propensity to consume publically consumed luxuries due to the effect of parental endorsement. 36.13% of 12 year olds stated that parental endorsement always increased their propensity to consume public luxuries; 33.61% of 12 year olds believed that parental endorsement never increased their consumption frequency of public luxuries; 10.92% of 12 year old respondents said that parental endorsement hardly ever influenced them to consume additional publically consumed luxury goods; 10.08% of 12 year olds selected the median option and stated that parental endorsement sometimes increased their propensity to consume publically consumed luxuries; 9.24% of 12 year olds declared that parental endorsement hardly ever increased their propensity to consume public luxuries

The mean parental influence for publically consumed luxury goods among 12 year olds was 3.03, implying a skew towards a higher trend of consumption frequency of 0.03 base points.

- The final bar in *Figure 6.34d* represents 13 year olds' propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods as a result of the influence exerted on them by parents. 40.00% of 13 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement always influenced their propensity to

consume publically consumed luxury goods; 36.92% of 13 year olds believed that parental endorsement never increased their propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods; 13.85% of respondents said that parental endorsement hardly ever increased their propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods; 6.15% of respondents stated that parental endorsement increased their propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods most of the time; 3.08% of respondents selected the median option and stated that parental endorsement sometimes increased their propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods.

The mean parental influence for publically consumed luxury goods among 13 year olds was 2.98, implying a skew towards a lower trend of consumption frequency of 0.02 base points.

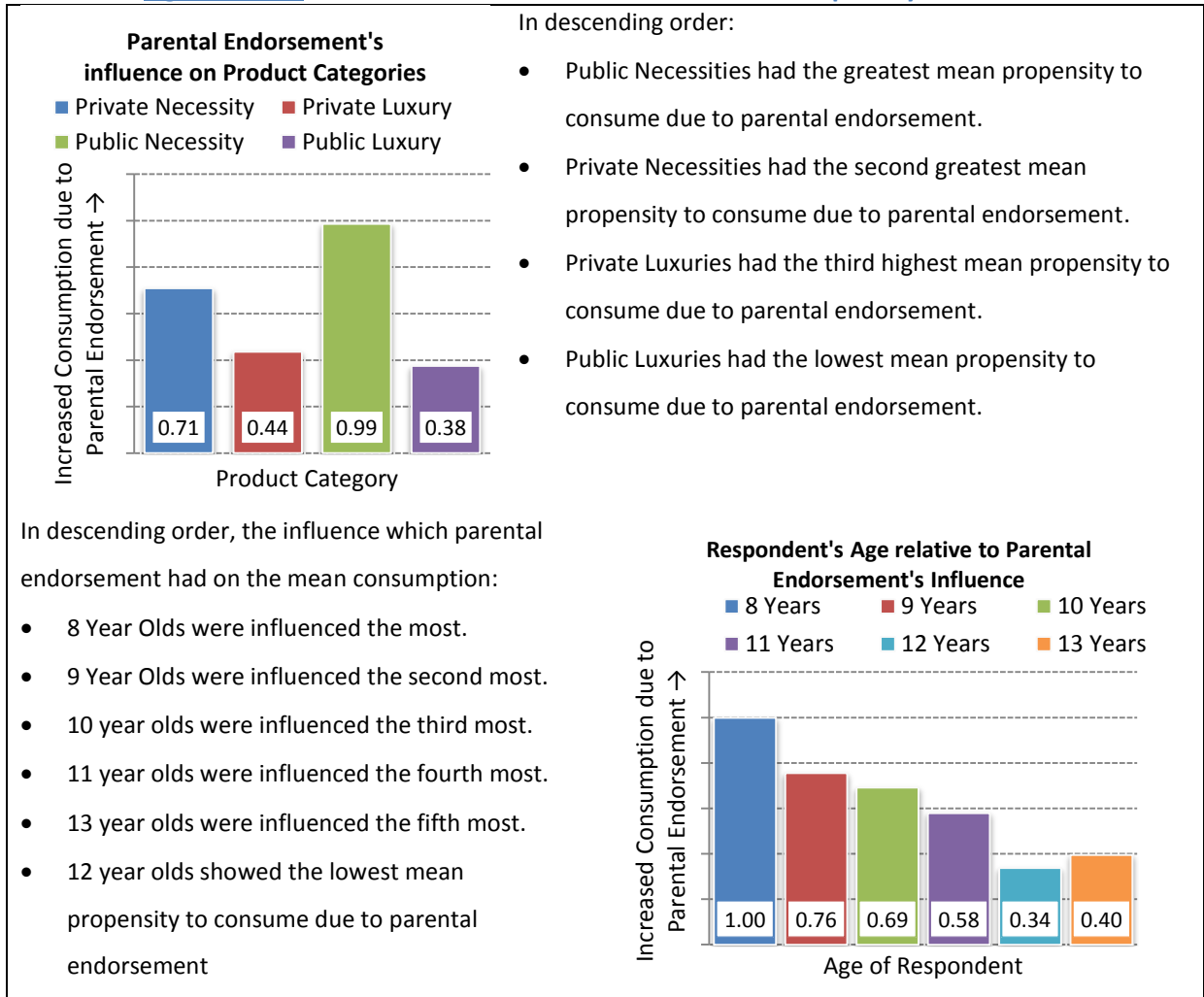
6.7.3.5. Summary of Parental Endorsement's Effect on Propensity to Consume

The following table (Table 6.4) summarizes the distribution skewness of the above findings relative to each product category; a green coloured cell implies a higher propensity to consume, a red coloured cell implies a lower propensity to consume.

Table 6.4: Distribution Skewness of Parental Influence on Propensity to Consume					
		Private Necessity	Private Luxury	Public Necessity	Public Luxury
Age of Respondent	8 Years	1.34	0.53	1.37	0.76
	9 Years	0.93	0.58	0.97	0.54
	10 Years	0.83	0.42	1.03	0.49
	11 Years	0.26	0.61	0.99	0.45
	12 Years	0.46	0.10	0.76	0.03
	13 Years	0.43	0.36	0.80	-0.02
MEAN		0.71	0.44	0.99	0.38
Mean Likert Values					
Age of Respondent	8 Years	3.34	3.53	4.37	3.76
	9 Years	3.93	3.58	3.97	3.54
	10 Years	3.83	3.42	3.03	3.49
	11 Years	3.26	3.61	3.99	3.45
	12 Years	3.46	3.10	3.76	3.03
	13 Years	3.43	3.36	3.80	2.98
MEAN		3.71	3.44	3.99	3.38

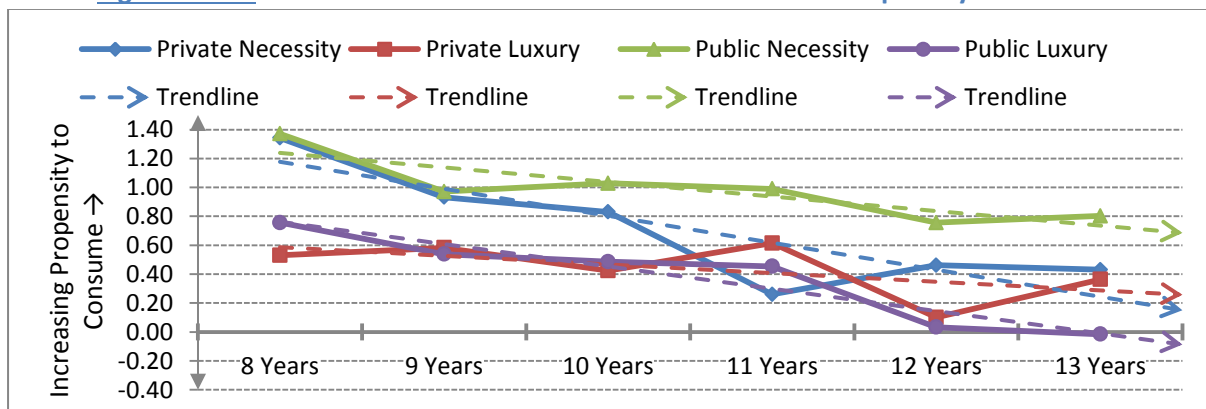
The mean values for each age category, as well as each product category are graphically portrayed in the Figure 6.35a (on the following page).

Figure 6.35a: Mean Effect of Parental Endorsement on Propensity to Consume



The following figure (*Figure 6.35b*) shows the effect which parental endorsement has on propensity to consume each of the identified product categories, relative to the age of the respondent. Each age category is described below, with the results being structured in a descending order of propensity to consume²².

Figure 6.35b: Distribution Skewness of Parental Influence on Propensity to Consume



²² In a similar style to Section 6.6.2.2.7, the linear trend-line shows the mean change over time for each relative product category. A steeper gradient implies a greater average (mean) change.

- 8 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement exerted the highest consumption influence on publically consumed necessities, followed by privately consumed necessities. Publically consumed luxuries had the third highest propensity to consume due to parental endorsement, and finally, privately consumed luxuries demonstrated the lowest consumption due to parental endorsement.
- 9 year old respondents stated that publically consumed necessity goods had the highest propensity to consume due to parental endorsement, followed by privately consumed necessities. Parental endorsement exerted the third highest consumption influence on privately consumed luxury goods, and finally, 9 year olds showed the lowest propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods due to parental endorsement.
- 10 year old respondents believed that parental endorsement exerted the highest consumption influence on publically consumed necessity goods, followed by privately consumed necessities. Publically consumed luxuries had the third highest propensity to be consumed due to parental endorsement, and finally, privately consumed luxuries demonstrated the lowest consumption frequency due to parental endorsement.
- 11 year old respondents declared that publically consumed necessity goods had the highest propensity to consume due to parental endorsement, followed by privately consumed luxuries. Parental endorsement exerted the third highest consumption influence on publically consumed luxury goods, and finally, 11 year olds showed the lowest propensity to consume privately consumed necessity goods due to parental endorsement.
- 12 year old respondents stated that parental endorsement exerted the highest consumption influence on publically consumed necessity goods, followed by privately consumed necessities. Privately consumed luxuries had the third highest propensity to be consumed due to parental endorsement, and finally, publically consumed luxuries demonstrated the lowest consumption frequency due to parental endorsement.
- 13 year old respondents stated that publically consumed necessity goods had the highest propensity to consume due to parental endorsement, followed by privately consumed necessities. Parental endorsement exerted the third highest consumption influence on privately consumed luxury goods, and finally, 13 year olds showed the lowest propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods due to parental endorsement.

The gradient of the trend-lines²³ in *Figure 6.35b* shows the change in propensity to consume due to parental endorsement, relative to age.

²³A gradient (m) of -1 would result in a downgrading of the mean answer for that category by an average of 1 of the identified responses per year of age (e.g. Always -> Most of the Time); y cannot be greater than 2 nor can it be less than -2.

The gradient for all product categories was negative, which implies that for all product categories the influence which parental endorsement has on propensity to consume decreases as children mature and gain additional cognitive functioning.

The following results (in descending order from the product category with the slowest decrease in propensity to consume due to parental endorsement, to the category with the fastest) describe the effect which age has on the influence of parental endorsement; Private luxuries returned a mean gradient of -0.06 showing that the change in consumption due to parental endorsement decreased at the slowest rate; publically consumed necessities had a gradient of -0.10, which shows that age has the second smallest impact on parental endorsement; publically consumed luxury goods demonstrated the second highest mean gradient for all product categories of -0.15, making the decrease of parental endorsement due to parental endorsement the second fastest; privately consumed necessities exhibited the highest decrease in propensity to consume due to parental endorsement relative to age of respondents, with a mean gradient of -0.19.

6.7.4. Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Correlation Experiment

The data from the correlation experiment was subjected to a Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test in order to determine whether there was significant variation between the means. Because each category was comprised of only 2 groups (the group with the internal influencer, and the group without the internal influencer) there was no need to perform a Post Hoc Tukey test, as any variation would have to be between the two identified groups.

6.7.4.1. Perception of Product Categories

The variance evident in the perception of the different product categories is described in *Table 6.5*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Privately Consumed Necessity	Between Groups	.000	1	.000	.000 ²⁴	n/a
	Within Groups	162.931	200	.815		
	Total	162.931	201			
Privately Consumed Luxury	Between Groups	5.069	1	5.069	3.661	.057
	Within Groups	276.931	200	1.385		
	Total	282.000	201			
Publically Consumed Necessity	Between Groups	2.851	1	2.851	4.741	.031
	Within Groups	120.297	200	.601		
	Total	123.149	201			

²⁴ The F-Value has a value of 0.000 which implies that the introduction of an external influencer had absolutely no impact on the dependent variable; consequently, the means of the two groups was the same.

Publically Consumed Luxury	Between Groups	2.396	1	2.396	3.883	.050
	Within Groups	123.426	200	.617		
	Total	125.822	201			

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for perception differences between the experimental groups, and the control groups.

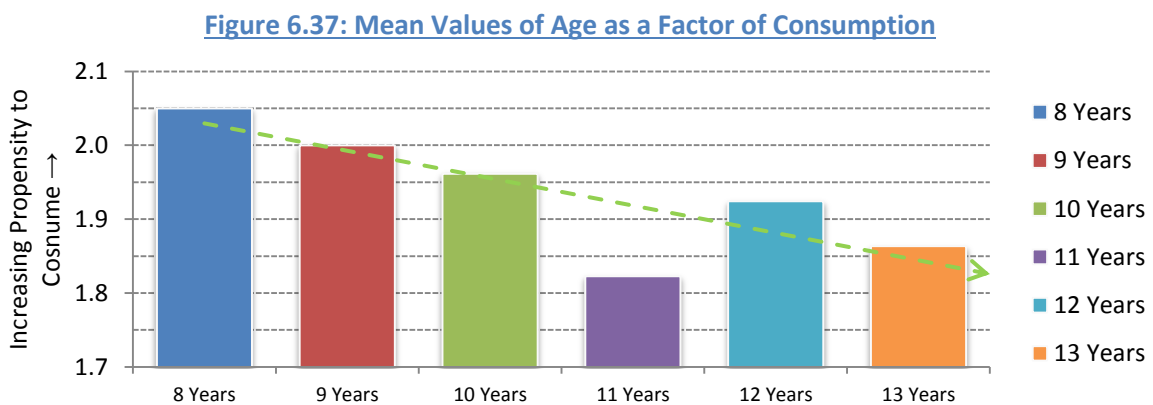
- The perception of privately consumed necessities showed **no** variation between the experimental groups and the control groups, there were also no statistically significant differences; $F(1, 200) = 0.000, p = n/a$.
- The perception of privately consumed luxury goods had the second lowest variance out of the product categories. There were slight differences between the experimental group and the control group. Statistical significance was not attained; $F(1, 200) = 3.661, p = 0.057$.
- The perception of publically consumed necessities between the control and experimental group showed the greatest variation out of the categories. The results attained statistical significance; $F(1, 200) = 4.741, p = 0.031$.
- The perception of publically consumed luxury goods had the second highest variation out of the product categories between the control group and the experimental group. The results were statistically significant; $F(1, 200) = 3.883, p = 0.050$.

6.8. Demographic Variables effect on Propensity to Consume

The following section contains figures which pertain to the correlation between demographic variables and propensity to consume.

6.8.1. The Effect of Age on Propensity to Consume

The effect of age on propensity to consume has been discussed in *Section 6.6.3*. *Figure 6.37a* (below) shows the mean values²⁵ of these findings.



²⁵ See *Table A.27a* available in the appendix

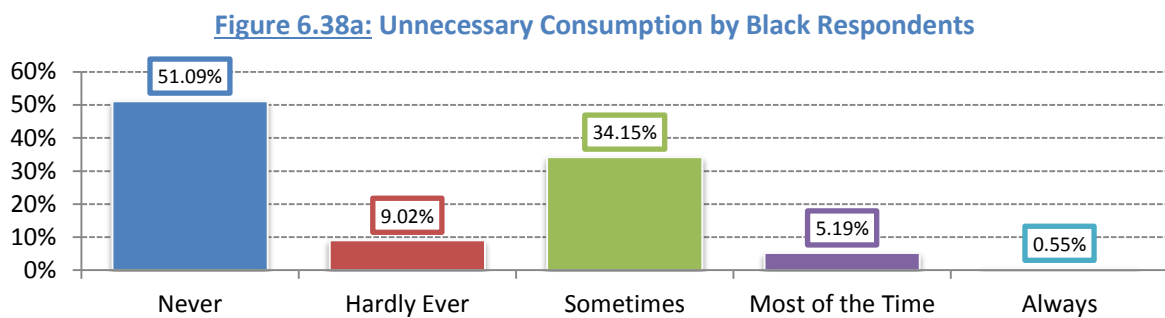
The downward inflection of the trend-line in *Figure 6.37a* shows that as children age, their propensity to consume decreases. This was confirmed through the use of a Pearson’s correlation test between the consumption mean and age of respondents which returned a coefficient (r) of - 0.825 with a significant p-value of 0.043.

6.8.2. The Effect of Race on Propensity to Consume

In order to assess whether the respondent’s race impacted their propensity to consume a product unnecessarily due to advertising, a cross tabulation between respondent’s race, and unnecessary consumption was performed. These results are described below.

6.8.2.1. Black Respondents’ Unnecessary Consumption due to Advertisements

The following figure (*Figure 6.38a*) shows the extent of unnecessary consumption by Black respondents, and is described in decreasing frequency of responses.

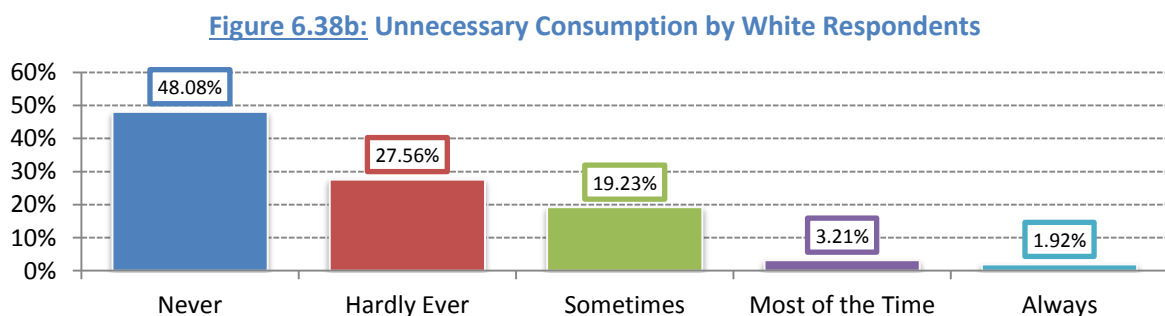


The majority of Black respondents (51.09%) stated that they are never influenced into purchasing goods unnecessarily; 34.15% of Black respondents stated they sometimes purchase goods unnecessarily; 9.02% of Black respondents believed they sometimes purchase goods unnecessarily; 5.19% of Black respondents declared they purchased goods unnecessarily most of the time; Only 0.55% of Black respondents believed they purchased goods unnecessarily.

The mean value for unnecessary consumption by Black respondents was 1.95.

6.8.2.2. White Respondents’ Unnecessary Consumption due to Advertisements

The following figure (*Figure 6.38b*) shows the magnitude of unnecessary consumption among White respondents.



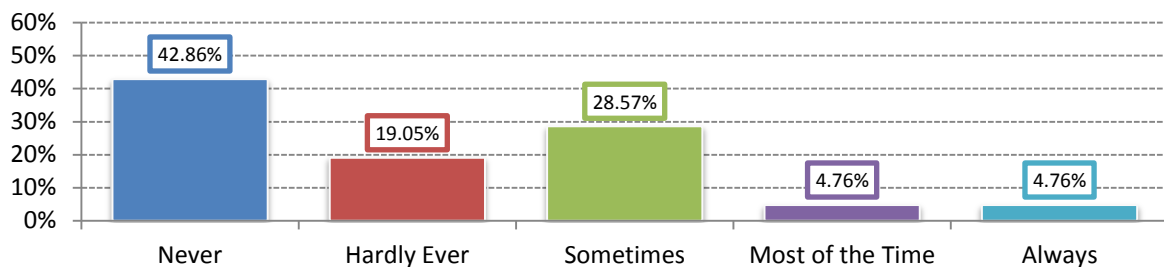
48.08% of White respondents stated that they never purchase goods unnecessarily; 27.56% of White respondents believed that they are hardly ever influenced into purchasing goods unnecessarily; 19.23% of White respondents stated that they sometimes purchase goods unnecessarily; 3.21% of White respondents purchase goods unnecessarily most of the time; 1.92% of White respondents stated they always purchase goods unnecessarily.

The mean value for unnecessary consumption by White respondents was 1.83.

6.8.2.3. Indian Respondents' Unnecessary Consumption due to Advertisement

Figure 6.38c (below) shows the degree of unnecessary consumption by Indian respondents, and is described in decreasing frequency of responses.

Figure 6.38c: Unnecessary Consumption by Indian Respondents



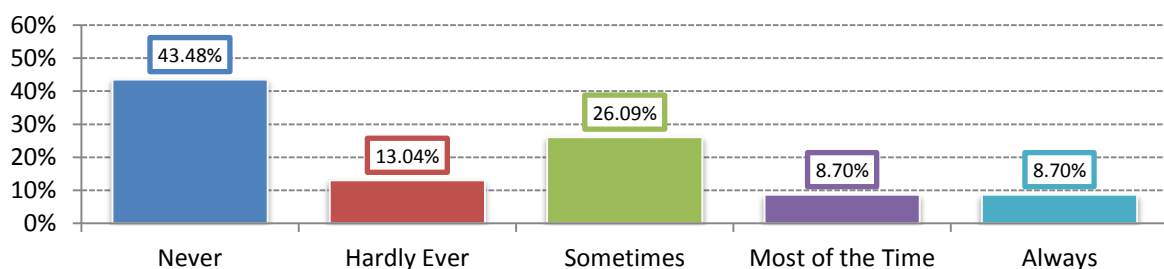
42.86% of Indian respondents believed they never bought unnecessary goods; 28.57% of Indian respondents stated that they sometimes bought goods unnecessarily because of advertisements; 19.05% of Indian respondents hardly ever bought goods unnecessarily; 4.76% of Indians surveyed stated that most of the time they purchase goods unnecessarily; 4.76% of Indian respondents declared that they always by goods unnecessarily.

The mean value for unnecessary consumption by Indian respondents was 2.09.

6.8.2.4. Coloured Respondents' Unnecessary Consumption due to Advertisement

The following figure (Figure 6.38d) shows the degree of unnecessary consumption among Coloured respondents, and is described in decreasing frequency of responses.

Figure 6.38d: Unnecessary Consumption by Coloured Respondents



43.48% of Coloured respondents stated they never consumed goods unnecessarily; 26.09% of Coloureds surveyed believed that they sometimes bought goods unnecessarily; 13.04% of Coloureds

declared that they hardly ever consumed goods unnecessarily; 8.70% of Coloured respondents believed that most of the time they bought goods unnecessarily; 8.70% of Coloured respondents stated that they always consume goods unnecessarily.

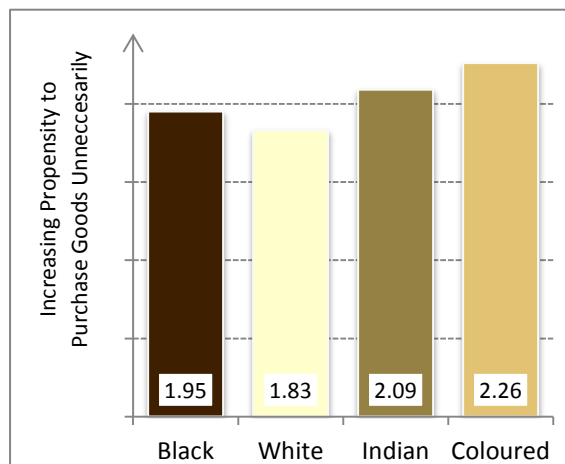
The mean value for unnecessary consumption by Coloured respondents was 2.26.

6.8.2.5. Summary of Race as a Variable of Propensity to Consume

The above findings are compared relative to each other in order to determine whether there was any significant statistical differences between unnecessary consumption and race, or not. The following figure (Figure 6.39) shows the mean rating for each of the races relative to one another.

Since race is a nominal variable rather than a scaled or ordinal, it is not possible to determine trends. However, it is possible to compare the standard deviations in order to infer whether race impacted propensity to consume.

Figure 6.39: Comparison of Propensity to Consume between races



White respondents had the highest propensity to consume goods unnecessarily, with a mean value of 1.83; Black respondents showed the second highest propensity to consume goods unnecessarily, with a mean value of 1.95; Indians showed the second lowest propensity to consume, with a mean rating of 2.09; Coloured respondents showed the lowest propensity to consume goods unnecessarily, with a mean rating of 2.26.

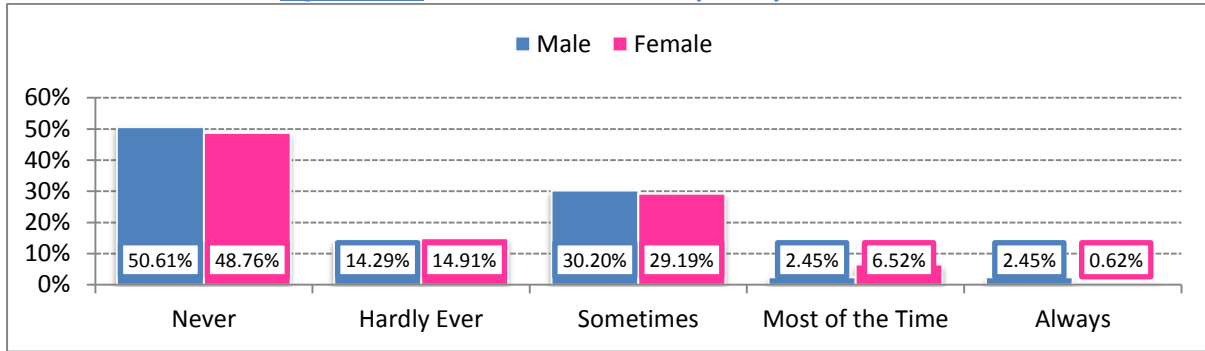
The standard deviation between the races returned a value of 0.185 (n=567). This shows that the variation in propensity to consume due to race is low²⁶.

6.8.3. Gender's Effect on Propensity to Consume

The effect of Gender was also co-tabulated with respondent's propensity to consume goods unnecessarily in order to determine whether gender influenced consumption propensity or not. These results are depicted in Figure 6.40, and are described in descending order of frequency, from the category with the most responses to the category with the least responses.

²⁶ The upper limit is 6 and lower limit is 1 (range = 5). Consequently, the standard deviation value of 0.185 equates to a 3.70% difference in propensity to consume between races (Δ propensity to consume = $\frac{\sigma}{range} \cdot 100$)

Figure 6.40: Genders Effect on Propensity to Consume



6.8.3.1. Unnecessary Consumption by Males due to Advertisements

The majority of males (50.61%) believed that they never purchase goods unnecessarily because of advertisements. 30.20% of males selected the median option and stated that they are sometimes influenced into purchasing goods unnecessarily because of the influence exerted on them by advertisement. 14.29% of males believed that advertisements hardly ever influenced them into purchasing goods unnecessarily. Only 2.45% of males believed that most of the time advertisements influenced them into purchasing goods unnecessarily, 2.45% of male respondents also stated that advertisements always influenced them to purchase goods unnecessarily.

The mean propensity to consume goods unnecessarily by males was 1.91.

6.8.3.2. Unnecessary Consumption by Females due to Advertisements

48.76% of females stated that they never consume goods unnecessarily because of the influence which advertisements exert. 29.19% of females selected the median and stated they sometimes consume goods unnecessarily. 14.91% of females surveyed believed that they were hardly ever influenced by advertisements into purchasing goods unnecessarily. 6.52% of females believed that most of the time the influence which advertisements exerted on them caused them to consume goods unnecessarily. Only 0.62% of females believed that they are always influenced into purchasing goods unnecessarily.

The mean propensity to consume goods unnecessarily by females was 1.95.

6.8.3.3. Summary of Unnecessary Consumption relative to Gender

The standard deviation between genders returned a value of 0.025 (n=567). This equates to a 0.5% variation, which shows that the variation in propensity to consume due to race is negligible, and it can be inferred that gender does not impact propensity to consume goods unnecessarily among children 8 – 13 years old.

6.8.4. The Effect of Location on Propensity to Consume

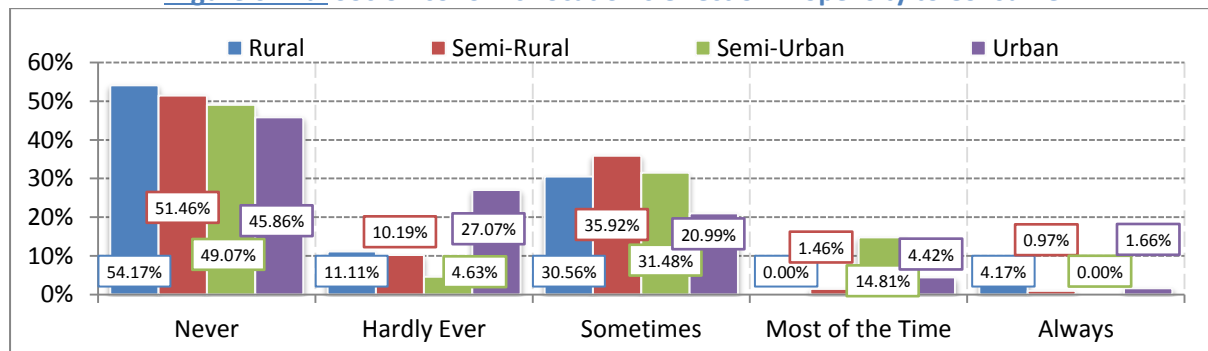
The questionnaire involved respondents from 4 schools, in 4 different socio-economic areas. In order to assess whether the social variance of location impacted respondents' propensity to consume, a correlation between the location and consumption of unnecessary products was conducted.

Respondents were categorised according to the following socio-economic areas:

1. Rural Socio-Economic (iXopo Primary School)
2. Semi-Rural Socio-Economic (George Cato Primary School)
3. Semi-Urban Socio-Economic (Mountain Rise Primary School)
4. Urban Socio-Economic (Winston Park Primary School)

Figure 6.41a shows the unnecessary consumption by respondents of relative to the socio-economic area where their school is located.

Figure 6.41a: Socio-Economic Location's effect on Propensity to Consume



Results for each socio-economic class are described below, in a descending order from the category with the most respondents to the category with the least.

6.8.4.1. Propensity to Consume Among Rural Socio-Economic Respondents

54.17% of respondents living in a rural area stated that advertisements **never** influenced their propensity to consume; 30.56% of respondents living in a rural area declared that they **sometimes** consumed goods unnecessarily; 11.11% of rural socio-economic respondents stated that they **hardly ever** purchased goods unnecessarily; 4.17% of respondents living in a rural area stated advertisements **always** lead them to consume goods unnecessarily; no respondents living in a rural area believed that advertisements influenced their propensity to consume **most of the time**.

The mean propensity to consume among rural respondents was 1.89.

6.8.4.2. Propensity to Consume Among Semi-Rural Socio-Economic Respondents

The majority of respondents residing in a semi-rural area (51.46%) stated that they were never influenced by advertisements into purchasing goods unnecessarily; 35.92% of semi-rural

respondents believed they sometimes purchased goods unnecessarily because of advertisements influence; 10.19% of semi-rural respondents stated they were hardly ever influenced into purchasing goods unnecessarily; 1.46% of respondents living in a semi-rural area believed that advertisements increased their propensity to consume most of the time; only 0.97% of respondents living in a semi-rural area believed advertisements always increased their propensity to consume

The mean propensity to consume among semi-rural respondents was 1.90.

6.8.4.3. Propensity to Consume Among Semi-Urban Socio-Economic Respondents

49.07% of respondents from semi-urban socio-economic areas stated that they were never influenced by advertisements into consuming goods unnecessarily; 31.48% of respondents from a semi-urban socio-economic area selected the median option and stated that advertisements sometimes influenced them into consuming goods unnecessarily; 14.81% of respondents from a semi-urban socio-economic said that most of the time advertisements influenced them into consuming goods unnecessarily; 4.63% of semi-urban respondents stated that they hardly ever consumed goods unnecessarily due to advertisements; no respondents from a semi-urban socio-economic area stated that advertisements always influenced their propensity to consume.

The mean propensity to consume among semi-rural respondents was 2.12.

6.8.4.4. Propensity to Consume Among Urban Socio-Economic Respondents

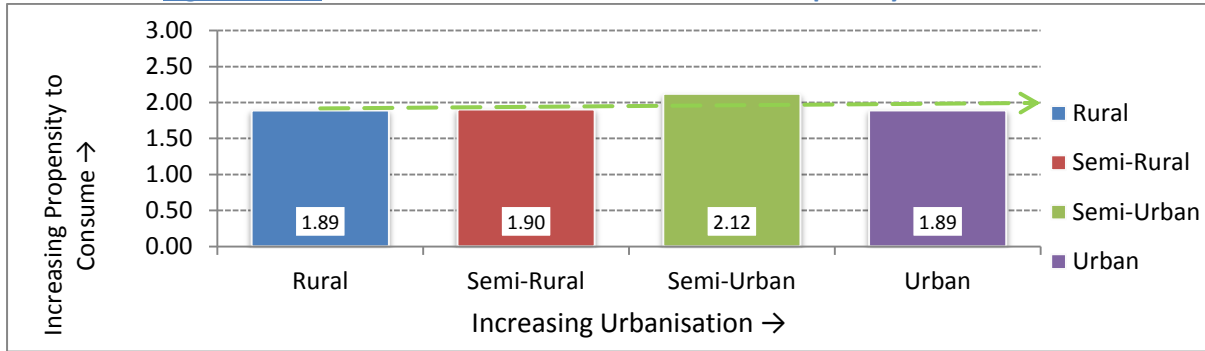
45.86% of respondents from an urban environment stated that their propensity to consume was never influenced by advertisements; 27.07% declared that advertisements hardly ever influenced their propensity to consume; 20.99% of urban respondents stated that their propensity to consume was sometimes influenced by advertisements; 4.42% of urban respondents believed that most of the time advertisements influenced their propensity to consume; only 1.66% of respondents from an urban area stated that advertisements always influenced their propensity to consume.

The mean propensity to consume among semi-rural respondents was 1.89.

6.8.4.5. Summary of Locations Effect on Propensity to Consume

The propensity to consume relative to the socio-economic location of respondents returned a Pearson's R-Value of 0.009, showing that the correlation between the level of urbanisation and propensity to consume is negligible. However, the p-value of 0.833 made these results insignificant. Consequently, a comparison of the means was conducted and the standard deviation calculated in order to determine whether there was a significant correlation between the location of respondents, and their associated propensity to consume; this is graphically represented in *Figure 6.41b* (below).

Figure 6.41b: Socio-Economic Location's effect on Propensity to Consume



The standard deviation between the means in *Figure 6.41* was 0.113 (n=567). This equates to a negligible variation of 2.26%²⁷ between the socio-economic locations of respondents. Consequently, it can be inferred that the socio-economic location of respondents had a negligible impact on propensity to consume goods unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements.

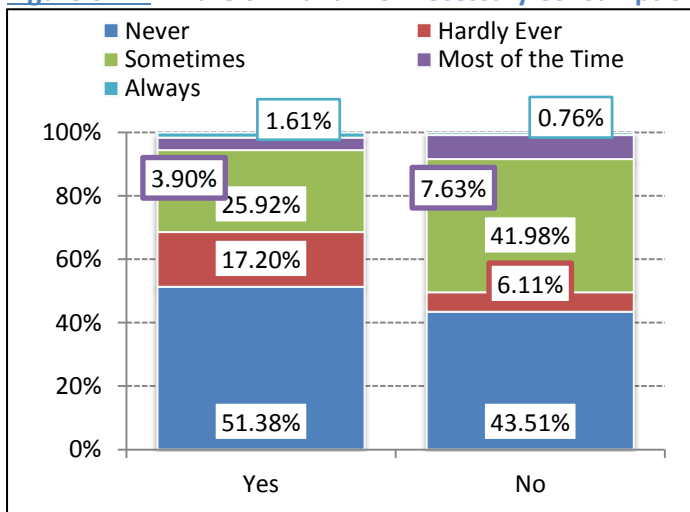
6.9. Cognition of Advertisements

This section shows the findings which pertain to respondents perception of the functional purpose of advertising, and their associated propensity to consume.

6.9.1. The Effect of Brand Awareness on Propensity to Consume

Figure 6.42 (below) graphically depicts the effect of brand awareness on propensity to consume.

Figure 6.42: Aware of Brand * Unnecessary Consumption



51.38% of respondents who are aware of brands stated they never consume goods unnecessarily compared to 43.51% who were unaware of brands; 17.20% of brand aware respondents stated they hardly ever consume unnecessarily relative to 6.11% who were not sure what a brand was; 25.92% of respondents who were brand conscious stated they sometimes

consumed goods unnecessarily compared to 41.98% of tweens who were not brand aware; 3.90% of respondents who were brand aware stated that most of the time they consumed goods unnecessarily compared to 7.63% of respondents who were not brand conscious; 1.61% of brand

²⁷ Range = 5, the standard deviation value of 0.113 equates to a 2.26% difference in propensity to consume between locations ($\Delta \text{ propensity to consume} = \frac{\sigma}{\text{range}} \cdot 100$)

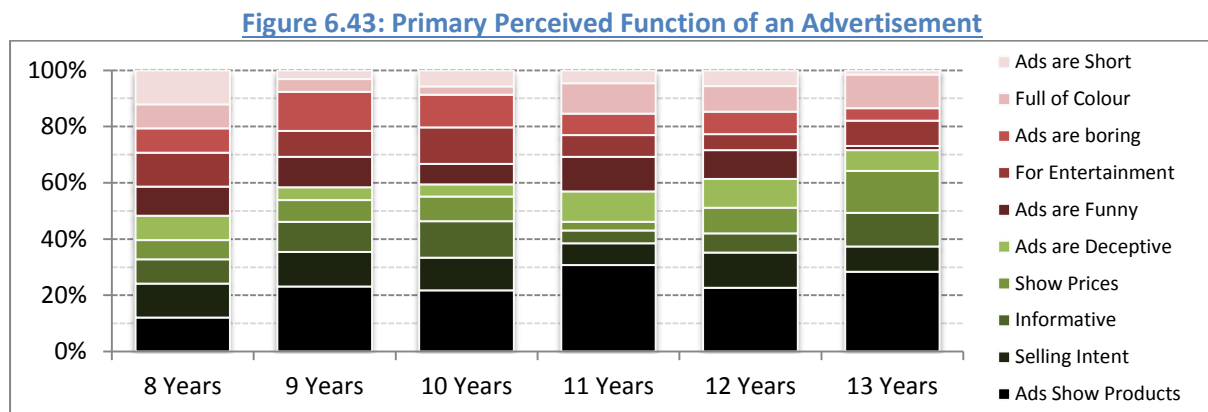
conscious respondents stated that always consume goods unnecessarily, compared to only 0.76% of respondents who were unaware what a brand was.

The mean propensity to consume rating for respondents who were brand conscious was 1.87 compared to 2.16 for respondents who were unaware what a brand was²⁸. Consequently, it can be seen that the propensity to consume goods unnecessarily was higher in respondents who were unaware what a brand was.

A Pearson correlation returned an R-Value of -0.116 with a significant P-value of 0.006, which shows that although not strong, there is a negative correlation between brand awareness and propensity to consume. As children gain brand awareness their propensity to consume goods unnecessarily decreases with a coefficient value of 0.116.

6.9.2. Perceived Function of Advertisements

The following figure shows the primary perceived function of advertisement's by respondents²⁹. The percentage values refer to the valid percentage, and exclude any categories not depicted.



In Figure 6.43 (above) green represents perceptions which imply that the respondent had an understanding of the capitalistic intent of advertisements; red represents a lack of comprehension. Responses were separated into two discrete categories: responses which insinuated that the respondent exhibited a degree of advertising literacy (green), and responses in which the respondent identified a peripheral function of advertisement (red). These findings are discussed for each age category below, starting with the youngest age category surveyed (8 year olds) and finishing with the oldest (13 year olds).

²⁸ Following the same paradigm as described in previous sections: Never = 1, Hardly Ever = 2; Sometimes = 3; Most of the Time = 4; Always = 5; a higher mean value relates to a higher propensity to consume.

²⁹ Only the top 10 categories with regard to total counts are depicted in Table 6.43 and Graph 6.43.

6.9.2.1. Ages effect on the Perceived Function of Advertisements

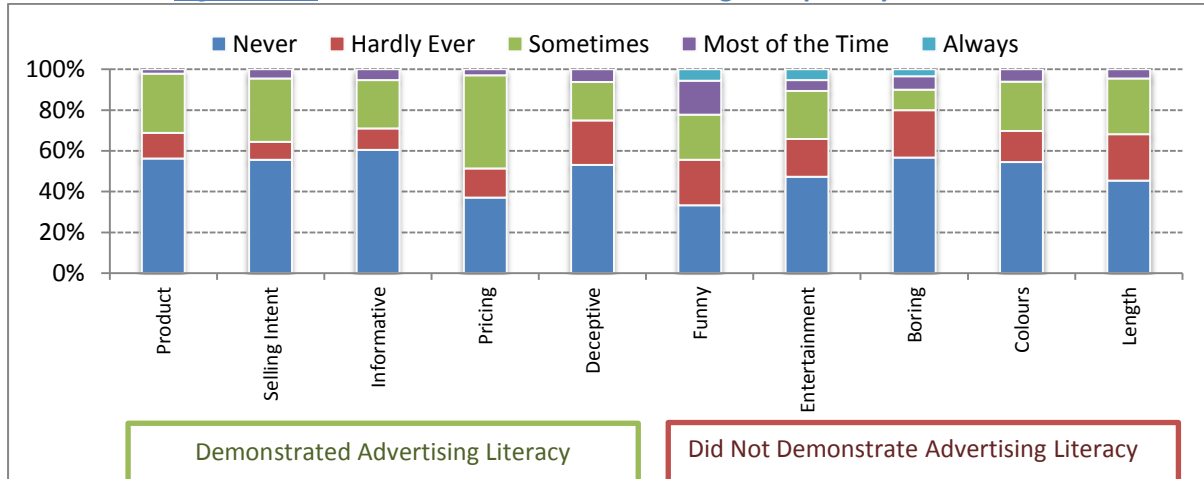
Figure 6.43 (above) shows the perceived function of advertisements according to respondents. It was established that there was an upward trend, with younger respondents identifying more peripheral components than older respondents.

- 8 Year Olds' First Association When Describing an Advertisement: The majority of 8 year old respondents (51.72%) identified peripheral components of advertisements when asked what the first thing which came to mind when describing an advertisement was. 48.28% of 8 year old respondents responded with answers which were associated with advertising literacy.
- 9 Year Olds' First Association When Describing an Advertisement: The majority of 9 year old respondents' (58.46%) primary association used to describe advertisements incorporated components of advertising literacy. 41.54% of 9 year old respondents' primary association of advertisements identified peripheral components of advertisements.
- 10 Year Olds' First Association When Describing an Advertisement: The majority of 10 year old respondents' (59.42%) first association when describing advertisements demonstrated knowledge of advertising literacy. 40.58% of 10 year old respondents initially identified a peripheral component of advertising when asked to describe advertising.
- 11 Year Olds' First Association When Describing an Advertisement: The majority of 11 year old respondents' (56.92%) primary association used to describe advertisements identified one of the components of advertising literacy. 43.08% of 11 year old respondents' primary association of advertisements identified peripheral components of advertisements.
- 12 Year Olds' First Association When Describing an Advertisement: The majority of 12 year old respondents (61.36%) first association when describing advertisements demonstrated knowledge of advertising literacy. 38.64% of 12 year old respondents initially identified a peripheral component of advertising when asked to describe advertising.
- 13 Year Olds' First Association When Describing an Advertisement: The majority of 13 year old respondents' (71.64%) primary association used to describe advertisements identified one of the components of advertising literacy. 43.08% of 11 year old respondents' primary association of advertisements identified peripheral components of advertisements.

6.9.2.2. Perceived Function of Advertisements' Effect on Propensity to Consume

The following figure (Figure 6.44) shows the propensity to consume relative to the top 10 most frequently perceived function of advertisements.

Figure 6.44: Perceived Function of Advertising * Propensity to Consume



The first 5 bars (product, selling intent, informative, pricing, deceptive) represent categories in which the respondents first association when describing advertising literacy demonstrated an association with advertising literacy. The last 5 bars (funny, entertainment, boring, colours, length) are categories which are not directly associated with advertising literacy.

The mean propensity to consume for each category was as follows³⁰:

- Advertisements contain products (1.77), Advertisements have a selling intent (1.84), advertisements are informative (1.74), advertisements show pricing (2.14), advertising is deceptive in nature (1.78)
- Advertisements are funny (2.39), advertisements are entertaining (2.03), advertisements are boring (1.77), advertisements have bright colours (1.82), advertisements are short (1.90)
- The mean value for categories which demonstrated advertising literacy was 1.85; the mean value for goods which did not demonstrate advertising literacy was 1.98.

6.10. Conclusion

This section documented the findings from the empirical research. It began by providing an overview of the sample profile, and then dealt with determining pertinent findings with regard to cognition of advertisements, viewing frequency, and endorsement of advertisements. Certain extraneous variables such as the effect which demographics had on propensity to consume were assessed in order to maintain internal validity controls.

The following section relates these findings to the research objectives stipulated in *Section 5.3*, in order to determine whether the hypotheses in *Section 5.4* were feasible or not.

³⁰ Propensity to consume is relative to the quantifiable values; 1 = never, 2 = hardly ever, 3 = sometimes, 4 = most of the time, 5 = all of the time.

Chapter 7: Discussion of Results

7.1. Introduction

The previous chapter detailed the findings from the empirical research. This chapter relates those findings to the research objectives stipulated in *Section 5.3* in order to answer the research hypotheses identified in *Section 5.4*.

This chapter discusses the findings according to the sequence they appeared in the research objectives. This chapter culminates with a brief description on whether the research hypotheses were accepted or rejected.

7.2. Discussion of Research Objectives

To begin with, research objectives are discussed. The research objectives identified in *Section 5.3* were:

- Determine the relationship between age and tweens' propensity to consume the advertised product.
- Determine the effect which comprehension of selling intent of an advert has on tweens' propensity to consume.
- Determine the effect which conception of the persuasive component of advertisements affects tweens' propensity to consume
- To determine how understanding the bias of advertisements affects tweens' propensity to consume
- To determine the effect which peer endorsement of an advertisement has on propensity to consume.

7.2.1. Objective 1: The Effect of Age on Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume

Tweens' cognition of advertisements is a crucial factor when determining whether tweens are autonomous decision makers, or if advertisements exert exacerbated persuasive influence on tweens due to their inherent susceptibility.

In light of the above statement, the age of tweens is paramount when assessing if younger respondents exhibit augmented propensity to consume, or if older respondents were more inclined to purchase goods due to the influence exerted on them by advertisements.

Respondents were asked if they ever bought goods gratuitously due to advertisements. This information was then correlated with the age of the respondent which returned a Pearson's R-value of 0.825 and a significant p-value of 0.043. Consequently, it can be inferred that the propensity to consume goods gratuitously decreased as children aged. This is in conformity with advocates of consumer socialisation theory, who believed that the amount of advertisements which respondents watch positively affects their cognitive defences (O' Sullivan, 2005: 371).

Consumer socialisation is described by John (1999: 183) as the "*processes by which young people acquire skills, knowledge, and attitudes relevant to their functioning as consumers in the marketplace.*" Consequently, it is argued that the more frequently children view advertisements, the more proficient they become at determining the selling intent, the persuasive nature, and the intrinsic bias.

The correlation between viewing frequency and age returned a Pearson's R-value of 0.058 which implies that age does not have a linear relationship with the amount of television viewed. By virtue of this, viewing frequency is not a feasible variable to utilize in determining trends based on age and consumer socialisation. Consequently, advertising literacy was determined using components identified by Priya, *et al.* (2010: 154); namely awareness of the persuasive nature of advertisements, awareness of the bias evident in advertisements and awareness of the selling intent and commercial nature of advertisements.

7.2.1.1. Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 8 Year Old

8 year old respondents fit into the concrete operations stage of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development, which comprises children aged between 7 – 11 years old (Blake and Pope, 2008: 60). During the concrete operations stage, children begin to think in a multi-dimensional sense; this means that they begin to make abstract connections and do not simply rely on concrete representations (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 44). Consequently, it was postulated that 8 year old respondents would demonstrate an elementary degree of brand awareness and advertising literacy, which would have a concomitant impact on their propensity to consume.

7.2.1.1.1. The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 8 Year Old Respondents

Friestad and Wright (1994: 2) stated that as children develop cognitive functions, they develop topic knowledge, agent knowledge and persuasive knowledge in an innate manner. These innate developments provide cognitive defences which enable the child to combat the persuasive effect of advertisements.

8 year olds were the youngest group surveyed; in accordance with previous research (Carter, *et al.*, 2011: 963; Priya, *et al.*, 2010: 153; Friestad and Wright, 1994: 2) it was correctly forecast that they would have the lowest level of awareness of the persuasive knowledge of advertisements. Carter *et al.* (2011: 962) stated that *“most children below the ages of 7 and 8 years find it difficult to take the perspective of others, such that they have little cognitive capacity to appreciate and defend against advertisements.”*

The empirical findings showed that the mean propensity to consume goods gratuitously among 8 year old respondents who were aware of the persuasive intent of advertising was 2.05³¹; this resulted in children aged 8 years old being less inclined to purchase goods by a value of 0.95 and resulted in 8 year olds having the highest propensity to consume goods gratuitously out of the age groups surveyed. This is in conformity with the Persuasion Knowledge Model (PKM) described by Friestad and Wright (1994: 2).

7.2.1.1.2. Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 8 Year Old Respondents

Since advertising is motivated by the desire to increase sales of a product or service, it invariably results in a biased or one-sided representation of information about the product or service (Moses, 2005: 193). Priya *et al.* (2010: 154) established that the age of an individual plays a vital role in their development of cognizance of the bias nature of advertisements. Priya *et al.* (2010: 154) stated that the comprehension of advertising literacy is a contentious issue, with different experiments determining that cognizance of the bias nature occurs at different ages; Priya *et al.* (2010: 154) remarked that although some research inferred that awareness of the bias nature of advertisements was evident in children as young as 5 years old, other research implied that the knowledge of the bias was only distinguishable at *“a much higher age”*. Consequently, the empirical survey sought to determine the extent to which individuals were able to perceive the bias nature of advertisements for respondents of different ages. Moore (2004: 164) believes that age plays the most significant part in determining the extent which tweens have cognizance of advertising bias, and states, *“a child’s maturity with age is the most significant determinant of his/her cognitive and attitudinal defences to television advertisements, which also results in perceiving advertisements as untruthful at times.”*

In order to determine the cognizance of the advertising bias, respondents were first asked if they could identify the source of funding for advertisements, respondents were then asked if they believed advertisements were intrinsically deceptive.

³¹ These values refers to the position on the Likert scale; 1 = never, 2 = hardly ever, 3 = sometimes, 4 = most of the time

The empirical findings showed that 54.3% of 8 year old respondents were able to identify both the source of advertisements funding, as well as the inherent deceptive nature of advertisements. By virtue of this, we can infer that the majority of 8 year old respondents were able to identify the bias evident in advertisements. 30.9% of respondents did not identify the selling component or the source of funding; 9.9% of 8 year respondents were able to identify the deceptive nature, but did not identify the source of funding; only 4.9% were aware of the source of funding but did not identify the selling component.

Although this seems high, it is significantly lower than other age categories (with the exception of 9 year olds, who have similar cognitive functioning) (Blake and Pope, 2008: 60; Valkenburg, 2000: 52); the mean cognizance of advertising bias for all ages in the sample was 58.9%. The awareness of the bias nature of advertisements in the empirical study progressed in a linear fashion, with younger children exhibiting a lower awareness than older children.

Moore and Lutz (2000: 31) identified this trend in their research, and attributed it to the fact that until children experience first-hand the deceptive nature of advertisements (i.e. purchase a good which does not perform as well as it is advertised to) they would not consider advertisements to be deceptive. Wilcox, *et al.* (2004: 5) were in accordance with Moore and Lutz, and believed that younger children were less autonomous consumers relative to older counterparts, as a result, they lacked the ability to interpret biased messages in a different manner to unbiased messages.

The empirical results returned a Pearson's correlation R-Value of 0.913 between respondents' age and their awareness of advertising bias; this implies that as children age, their cognizance of the bias nature of advertisements increases. This is in accordance with the empirical test conducted by Mills and Keil (2005: 389) [discussed in *Section 3.3.4*]. However, Mills and Keil acknowledged that although younger children may exhibit lower cognizance of advertising bias, they still remain sceptical against individuals who act against self-interest. Mills and Keil (2005: 389) remarked

"[8 year olds] doubt individuals making statements in accord with self-interests, whereas they increase their belief of individuals making statements against self-interests."

7.2.1.1.3. Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 8 year olds

The awareness of the capitalistic and commercial nature of advertisements, including the selling intent, was identified by Priya, *et al.* (2010: 154) as one of the core components of advertising literacy. Consequently, the empirical research sought to determine if respondents were aware that advertisements were commercial in nature, and the effect which age had on this awareness. To achieve this, respondents were asked to identify the first thing which came to mind when describing

an advertisement; responses were then graded according to whether they exhibited components relatable to advertising literacy or if they identified peripheral components of advertisements.

The majority of 8 year old respondents (51.72%) identified components of advertising which were pertinent to advertising literacy. This shows that by the time children are in the concrete operations stage of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development, they already exhibit cognizance of the selling intent and commercial nature of advertisements. This is in accordance with statements by Costley (1986: 19) who remarked that during the concrete operations stage of cognitive development, individuals develop the ability to identify conceptual messages and don't rely solely on perceptive markers.

Although the majority of 8 year old respondents were able to identify the capitalistic nature of advertisements they still remained fairly ignorant relative to other age categories. 8 year old respondents had the lowest mean cognizance of the capitalistic nature of advertisements (51.72%) when compared to older respondents. The cognizance of the capitalistic nature of advertisements developed in a moderately linear manner, and returned a mean Pearson's R-Value of 0.856 when compared to the age of respondents. From this, it is possible to infer that there is a strong correlation between the age of respondents and their level of advertising literacy with regard to the awareness that advertisements are commercial in nature.

7.2.1.2. Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 9 Year Olds

9 year old respondents also formed a part of the concrete operations stage of Piaget's Hierarchy of cognitive development, which specified that children aged between 7 and 11 years old shared similar cognitive functioning (Blake and Pope, 2008: 60). In accordance with Carter, et al. (2011: 963) and Priya, et al. (2010: 153) it was postulated that since children develop cognitive functioning skills in a linear manner, 9 year olds respondents should have slightly more cognitive dissonance with advertisers due to their marginally higher cognitive functioning and awareness of topic knowledge, agent knowledge, and persuasive knowledge (Friestad and Wright, 1994: 2).

7.2.1.2.1. The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 9 Year Old Respondents

The Persuasion Knowledge Model (PKM) formulated by Friestad and Wright (1994: 2) states that the effect which advertisement's persuasive component has on children's susceptibility to claims decreases according to the extent of the target's (in this case the child) persuasion coping behaviour. Previous research conducted by O'Sullivan, et al. (2005: 375) found that children in the concrete operations stage of Piaget's Hierarchy of Cognitive Development would exhibit sufficient cognitive ability to be aware of the persuasive nature of advertisements. This is in conformity with Carter, et al. (2011: 964) who conducted an empirical experiment involving the persuasive component of

advertisements and found that by the age of 9 “a majority of respondents selected picture 2 [demonstrating awareness of persuasive intent] but it was not until 12 years old that it was selected by almost all children.” This further demonstrated that as children age, their comprehension of the selling intent of advertisement increased.

By virtue of these deductions, it was inferred that the propensity to consume a good gratuitously due to the persuasive nature of the advertisement would decrease as the respondent’s age increased. The empirical findings showed that the mean propensity to consume goods unnecessarily among 9 year old respondents who were aware of the persuasive intent of advertising was 2.00 children aged 9 years old were less inclined to purchase goods by a value of 1.00, which resulted in 9 year olds having the second highest propensity to consume goods needlessly (only 8 year old respondents had a higher propensity to consume). This is once again in conformity with the Persuasion Knowledge Model (Friestad and Wright, 1994: 2).

7.2.1.2.2. Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 9 Year Old Respondents

The cognizance of the bias nature of advertisements was assessed among 9 year olds in order to relate them to other age categories and determine if age plays a significant role in advertising literacy, particularly the awareness that advertisements are deceptive in nature and endorse the product being advertised.

Once again, respondents were asked if they could identify the source of funding for advertisements, and were then asked if they were aware of the deceptive nature of advertisements. The empirical survey showed that exactly half (50.00%) of the 9 year old respondents were able to identify both the source of advertisements funding, and also that they were deceptive in nature. Consequently, it can be inferred that half of the 9 year olds surveyed had cognizance of the bias nature of advertisements. 37.3% of 9 year olds surveyed did not identify the deceptive nature or the source of funding; 6.9% did not identify the source of funding but were able to identify the deceptive nature; only 5.9% of respondents aged 9 years old identified the source of funding but not the deceptive nature of the advertisement.

Although exactly half of 9 year old respondents were able to identify the bias nature of advertisements, the cognizance of advertising bias among 9 year respondents was still the lowest for all age categories. This seems counterintuitive, as it is unfeasible that less 9 year old respondents would identify the bias component than 8 year old respondents. However, one possible reason is the fact that among the sample population, 9 year old respondents had the lowest television viewing frequency (returning a mean Likert rating of 2.38 relative to 2.51 among 8 year old respondents). Consequently, the decrease in advertising literacy in this case may be attributed to consumer

socialization rather than the age of the respondent (O' Sullivan, 2005: 371). It is worth noting however, that in the experiment conducted by Mills and Keil (2005: 389) which assessed if respondents would most likely be deceptive if it was in their best interest, kindergarten children (aged approximately 7 years old) were more likely to associate deception with self-interest than children aged approximately 9 years old. Mills and Keil (2005: 389) stated "*young children seem to be even more cynical than adults in this task [detecting deception due to self-interest], assuming that people must be intentionally misleading others even when they may not be*".

With the exception of 9 year old respondents, the cognizance of advertising bias increased in a linear manner.

7.2.1.2.3. Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 9 year olds

When asked what the function of advertisements was, the majority of 9 year old respondents who participated in the empirical research (58.46%) described a component which demonstrated awareness of advertising literacy. This was higher than 8 year old respondents who identified 51.72%.

Between the ages of 9 to 11 years old, the cognizance of the commercial nature of advertisements remained fairly consistent; and fluctuated with a standard deviation of only 1.26%. This shows that during the concrete operations stage of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development, the degree of advertising literacy with regard to the comprehension that advertisements are commercial in nature remains fairly constant. Consequently, the recommendation by Wilcox, *et al.* (2004: 41) which stated that advertisements should only be targeted to children older than 8 years old, appears to be practically viable suggestion, as the development of commercial cognizance through the concrete operations stage of cognitive development is a relatively stagnant process.

7.2.1.3. Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 10 Year Olds

10 year old respondents also belonged to the concrete operations stage of cognitive development, as they are within the age parameters stipulated by Piaget (1960: 135). In accordance with the trends discussed in *Sections 7.2.1.1* and *Section 7.2.1.2* it was anticipated that they would exhibit a greater advertising literacy than younger respondents, which according to the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad and Wright, 1994: 2) would result in a lower propensity to consume a product gratuitously.

Advertising literacy is described by Priya, *et al.* (2010: 154) as the degree to which an individual perceives and understands three key components of advertising. 10 year olds' cognizance of these

four components (the persuasive nature of advertisements, the bias towards the advertiser's product, and the selling intent behind the advertisement) are discussed below.

7.2.1.3.1. The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 10 Year Old Respondents

The mean average of 10 year old respondents' propensity to consume a good gratuitously due to the persuasive component of advertising was slightly lower than the younger categories; returning a mean value of 1.96 and a skew towards a lower propensity to consume of 1.04 (relative to 1.00 for 9 year olds, and 0.95 for 8 year olds). From this, it can be inferred that as children progress through the concrete operations stage of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development, their propensity to consume a good due to the persuasive nature of advertisements decreases in a linear manner. This is in conformity with previous research. Priya, *et al.* (2010: 153) stated that "*a total of 25 per cent of the respondents of age eight years and 36 per cent of the children of age of ten years responded by saying that they knew the purpose of advertisements was to persuade them to buy or own those products*".

7.2.1.3.2. Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 10 Year Old Respondents

In order to determine if there were significant differences between comprehension of advertisements bias nature between 10 year olds and tween respondents of different ages, 10 year old respondents were asked to identify the source of funding for advertisements, and were then asked if advertisements ever misrepresented products.

The empirical findings showed that majority of 10 year old respondents (56.2%) identified both the source of funding for advertisements as well as the deceptive nature of the advertisements; these results were higher than all respondents younger than 10 years old, but lower than all ages older than 10 years old.

32.4% of 10 year old respondents did not identify the source of advertising funding nor the deceptive nature; 5.7% of 10 year old respondents identified the source of funding, but not the deceptive nature; 5.7% of 10 year olds identified the deceptive nature, but not the source of funding.

In the experiment conducted by Priya, *et al.* (2010: 159) which sought to identify how respondents at different ages responded to advertising, children's response to the 'credibility' of the advertisement was assessed. Priya, *et al.* (2010:159) separated the children into three groups; children aged 5-7, children aged 8-9, and children aged 10-11. The results showed that as children mature, their perceived credibility of advertisements decreases (from 9.2 to 8.5). This is in

accordance with the empirical research conducted in this study, which found that the perceived bias evident in advertisements decreased with a strong correlation of 0.913.

7.2.1.3.3. Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 10 year olds

As discussed in *Section 7.2.1.2.3*, the awareness that advertisements have a capitalistic nature remained fairly homogenous between respondents within the concrete operations stage of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development.

When asked to describe the purpose of advertisements, 59.42% of 10 year old respondents' primary association was a component which demonstrated an awareness of the commercial nature advertisements. The standard deviation among respondents in the concrete operations stage of cognitive development was only 1.26%.

7.2.1.4. Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 11 Year Olds

11 year old respondents were the oldest age who are still considered to be in the concrete operations stage of cognitive development according to Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development (Piaget, 1964: 21). In order to assess and discuss 11 year olds' receptiveness to advertisements and gauge their advertising literacy, three components of advertising literacy originally described by Priya, *et al.* (2010: 153) were selected and are discussed below.

7.2.1.4.1. The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 11 Year Old Respondents

11 year old respondents had the lowest propensity to consume due to the persuasive component of advertisements relative to the other age categories. It was determined that the mean propensity to consume a good due to the persuasive component of advertising returned a value of 1.82, and a skew towards a lower propensity to consume of 1.18 (relative to 1.04 for 10 year olds, 1.00 for 9 year olds, and 0.95 for 8 year olds). Consequently, it can be inferred that during the concrete operations stage of cognitive development, the consumption propensity due to the persuasive component of advertising decreases in a linear manner.

This is in accordance with Friestad and Wright (1994: 2) who stated that as children develop cognitive functions, they inherently develop increased topic knowledge, agent knowledge and persuasion knowledge which they are able to utilize to block the persuasion attempt by the advertising agent.

11 year old respondents had the lowest propensity to consume due to the persuasive nature of advertisements relative to other ages (including older ages). The researcher believes that this can be attributed to the fact that as children mature, they not only develop cognitive functions, but also exhibit increased brand and perceptive awareness (Moore and Lutz, 2000: 44). By the age of 11,

tweens are leaving the concrete operations stage, and begin entering the formal operations stage of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development (Piaget, 1964: 21). During the formal operations stage, children are able to make abstract connections, however, they also think in an autonomous manner and are more brand conscious (Roper and Shah, 2007: 713) Consequently, they may be aware that advertisements are utilising persuasive techniques to influence demand, but due to their increased brand awareness, they knowingly purchase goods needlessly.

When asked to identify which advertisements they had viewed during the empirical experiment, 11 year old respondents had the highest brand recall relative to other ages for privately consumed necessities, privately consumed luxury goods, and publically consumed necessity goods (10 year old respondents had a marginally higher brand recall for privately consumed luxuries). Costley (1986: 19) found similar results when dealing with children at the culminating point of Piaget's concrete operations stage. Costley (1986: 19) found that children circa 11 years old had the ability to discern abstract messages in commercials which increased their brand awareness (Costley, 1986: 19).

7.2.1.4.2. Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 11 Year Old Respondents

The appreciation that advertisements are inherently biased in nature was assessed among 11 year old respondents and compared to other ages in order to determine the correlation between age and cognizance of bias in advertisements. Respondents were asked to identify the source of funding for advertisements and then asked whether they believed advertisements were truthful or deceptive in nature.

The empirical findings showed that the majority of 11 year old respondents (61.9%) identified both the source of funding as well as the deceptive nature of advertisements, and consequently demonstrated knowledge of the bias nature of advertisements. 32.0% of 11 year old respondents did not identify the source of funding for advertisements or the deceptive nature; 4.1% of 11 year olds did not identify the source of funding but were aware of the deception; 2.1% of 11 year old respondents identified the source of funding for advertisements, but failed to identify the deceptive component.

In a similar fashion to the experiment conducted by Mills and Keil (2005: 389), the results showed that 11 year old respondents had a higher comprehension of the bias nature of advertisements than younger respondents but a lower level of comprehension than older respondents.

Consequently, it can be deduced that 11 year old respondents adhere to the paradigm that age has a positive linear correlation with comprehension of the bias nature of advertisements.

7.2.1.4.3. Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 11 year olds

The empirical findings showed that 56.92% of 11 year old respondents' primary association when asked to describe an advertisement exhibited knowledge of the commercial nature of advertising literacy. Although marginally lower than 10 year old respondents (59.42%), the low standard deviation of 1.26% among respondents aged between 9 and 11 years old showed that as children progress through Piaget's concrete operational stage of cognitive development, the awareness of the commercial nature of advertisements remains fairly constant.

7.2.1.5. Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 12 Year Olds

By the age of 12, children have left the concrete operations stage of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development and are entering the formal operations stage. Piaget (1964: 21) states that when children enter the formal operations stage (which is sometimes referred to as the hypothetic-deductive stage) tweens gain the ability to reason on hypotheses, and not simply objects.

Since children aged circa 12 year old have the ability to think in an abstract manner and reason utilising hypotheses, it was postulated that they would exhibit a more sophisticated cognizance of brand awareness and advertising literacy, which, in turn would impact their propensity to consume.

Once again, three key elements of advertising literacy according to Priya, *et al.* (2010: 153) are discussed. These components are: the persuasive nature of advertisements, the knowledge of the intrinsic bias towards the advertisers' product, and the awareness of the selling intent of advertisements. These components are then discussed in order to determine the effect which advertising literacy has on propensity to consume among 12 year old respondents.

7.2.1.5.1. The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 12 Year Old Respondents

The mean average of 12 year old respondents' propensity to consume a good gratuitously due to the persuasive component of advertising was slightly lower than the younger categories (with the exception of 11 year old respondents as discussed in *Section 7.2.1.4.1*); The mean propensity to consume goods superfluously due to the persuasive component of advertising returned mean value of 1.92 and a skew towards a lower propensity to consume of 1.08 (relative to 1.18 for 11 year olds, 1.04 for 10 year olds, 1.00 for 9 year olds, and 0.95 for 8 year olds).

12 year old respondents were the youngest respondents in the formal operations classification of Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development. Since respondents in each age category learn from anterior knowledge (Blake, 2008: 59) and their persuasion coping behaviour increases in a hierarchical manner, it was inferred that 12 year old respondents' propensity to consume due to the persuasive nature of advertisements would be lower than 13 year old respondents (who were the only other age category to be categorised as formal operations among respondents). The

empirical findings confirmed this, as 13 year old respondents exhibited a skew towards a lower propensity to consume goods gratuitously due to the persuasive nature of advertisements of 1.14 relative to 1.08 among 12 year old respondents.

7.2.1.5.2. Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 12 Year Old Respondents

The empirical data showed that 12 year old respondents had fairly extensive comprehension of the bias nature of advertisements, with 65.8% of respondents aged 12 being able to successfully identify both the source of advertisements' funding as well as the inherent deceptive nature. When compared to younger ages, it was once again evident that cognizance of the bias nature of advertisements followed a linear path; younger respondents had a lower comprehension coefficient than 12 year olds, and respondents older than 12 had more awareness of the bias. 29.1% of 12 year olds surveyed did not identify the deceptive nature or the source of funding of the advertisement; 5.1% of respondents aged 12 did not identify the source of funding, but were able to identify that advertisements were deceptive in nature; no respondents aged 12 years old identified the source of funding did not the deceptive nature.

John (1999: 187) states that when assessing consumer socialization, children can be separated into different formal classifications; Analytical (7 – 11 years old) or Reflective (12 – 16 years old). Consequently, the 12 year olds surveyed in the empirical survey were the first age category to belong to the reflective stage of consumer socialisation. During the reflective stage, it is acknowledged that children have more sophisticated processing capabilities and a "*heightened awareness of other people's perspectives*" (John, 1999: 187). The empirical data collected was in accordance with this theory which was reflected in the high level of awareness of advertising bias by both 12 year olds and 13 year olds (65.8% and 66.2% respectively).

7.2.1.5.3. Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 12 year olds

12 year respondents are the youngest age to be classified as belonging to the formal operations stage of cognitive development (Piaget, 1960: 135) as well as the reflective stage of consumer socialisation (John, 1999: 187).

The empirical survey found that when asked to describe an advertisement, 61.36% of 12 year old respondents identified components which were pertinent to the commercial nature of advertisements. This shows a significant increase over younger respondents (who had a mean rating of 56.63%) who were classified as being in the concrete operations stage of Piaget's cognitive development and the analytic stage of consumer socialization (John, 1999: 186; Piaget, 1960: 135).

This increase in comprehension among 12 year old respondents is explained through the following statement:

“It is only in the formal operational stage of cognitive development that children are considered able to think abstractly, make self-relevant comparisons, take the role of the other person, and understand the gestalt” (Costley, 1986: 20).

Once respondents are able to both take the role of the advertiser and think abstractly, they become mindful that advertisements may have an ulterior capitalistic motive. This ability to think abstractly and think vicariously is explained by John (1999: 187) who stated that:

“Knowledge about marketplace concepts such as branding and pricing becomes even more nuanced and more complex as children develop more sophisticated information processing and social skills” (John, 1999: 187).

7.2.1.6. Advertising Literacy and Propensity to Consume Among 13 Year Olds

13 year old respondents were the oldest respondents in the empirical survey. 13 year old respondents were categorised as being in the formal operations stage of cognitive development according to Piagetian theory (Piaget, 1964: 21). Since previous research suggests that as children mature they gain cognizance and hence develop additional advertising literacy (Carter 2011, 962; Priya, *et al.*, 2010: 154; Lawlor and Prothero, 2002: 485; John, 1999: 185; Roedder, 1981: 145), it was predicted that 13 year old respondents would demonstrate the greatest advertising literacy and consequently the lowest propensity to consume goods needlessly.

In a similar manner to the previous age segments, three key components of advertising literacy, as defined by Priya, *et al.* (2010: 153), were discussed in order to determine the effect which age has on advertising literacy and the concomitant propensity to consume.

7.2.1.6.1. The Impact of Persuasion in Advertisements on 13 Year Old Respondents

Findings from the empirical research found that 13 year old respondents had a lower propensity to consume goods gratuitously due to the persuasive nature of advertisements when compared to other age categories in the formal operations stage of Piaget’s hierarchy of cognitive development.

13 year old respondents had a mean propensity to consume goods needlessly due to the persuasive component of advertising of 1.86, which implies a trend towards a lower propensity to consume of 1.14 (relative to 1.08 for 12 year old respondents who were the other age category surveyed who comprised the formal operations stage of cognitive development).

With regard to other age categories, it was established that the 13 year old respondents had a lower mean propensity to consume goods gratuitously relative to all other age categories (with the exception of 11 year old respondents, who had a marginally lower propensity to consume). In addition, not only did 13 year old respondents have a lower propensity to consume goods unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements, but the general consumption trend had a linear relationship with age. This negative correlation between unnecessary consumption and age implies that as children mature, and gain cognitive defences the persuasive effect of advertisement decreases. This is in accordance with the Persuasion Knowledge Model (Friestad and Wright, 1994: 2) which stated that children's responses to an agents persuasion attempt are dependent on the child's persuasion coping behaviour, which is comprised of their topic knowledge (benefits, quality of the product, product durability etc.) agent knowledge (the advertisers competencies, motives and goals) and persuasion knowledge (the tactics employed by the agent in order to incite consumption). The Persuasion Knowledge Model suggests that as children develop topic knowledge, agent knowledge and persuasion knowledge, they intrinsically develop enhanced persuasion coping behaviour and the effect of the persuasive attempt diminishes (Kirmani and Campbell, 2009: 298; Friestad and Wright, 1994: 4).

7.2.1.6.2. Knowledge of Advertising Bias Evident among 13 Year Old Respondents

13 year old respondents were the oldest respondents surveyed. According to the paradigm identified in *Sections 7.2.1.1.2; 7.2.1.2.2; 7.2.1.3.2; 7.2.1.4.2; and 7.2.1.5.2* it was predicted that because 13 year old respondents were the oldest respondents, their knowledge of the inherent bias nature of advertisements would be the highest (Moore, 2004: 164; Moore and Lutz, 2000: 31). The empirical research confirmed this; 13 year old respondents accounted for the highest frequency (66.2%) of respondents who were able to identify both the source of funding as well as the deceptive nature of advertisements, and consequently exhibit knowledge of the bias nature of advertisements. 13 year old respondents also had the lowest frequency of respondents (27.7%) who were unable to identify neither the source of funding nor deceptive nature of advertisement; 6.2% of 13 year old respondents identified the funding source but not the deceptive nature; all of the 13 year old respondents who identified the deceptive nature of advertisements were aware of the source of funding for advertisements.

One of the sample groups in the experiment conducted by Mills and Keil (2005: 389) (Discussed in *Section 3.3.4*) was comprised of individuals aged approximately 13 years old. During this empirical research, it was found that:

“The concept of bias may be difficult to grasp early on. It is not until sixth grade [13 years old] that children begin to endorse lies and biases as equally plausible explanations for self-interested incorrect statements.” (Mills and Keil, 2005: 389).

The empirical findings are in accordance with this statement, which accounts for the reason why 13 year old respondents had the highest cognizance of the bias component of advertising literacy.

In summation, both the Pearson’s correlation of 0.913 between age and cognizance of advertising bias and age, coupled with the linear manner in which the awareness of bias is distributed, is in accordance with concept of advertising literacy (Mills and Keil, 2005: 389; Moore and Lutz, 2000: 31; John, 1999: 187). This shows that the statement by Moore (2004: 164) *“a child’s maturity with age is the most significant determinant of his/her cognitive and attitudinal defences to television advertisements, which also results in perceiving advertisements as untruthful at times”* is an apt description of awareness of advertising bias.

7.2.1.6.3. Awareness of the Commercial Nature of Advertisements among 13 year olds

When asked to describe an advertisement, the empirical survey determined that 71.64% of 13 year old respondents identified components which pertained to advertising literacy, which was significantly higher than other age categories (as described previously).

13 year old respondents are the oldest surveyed respondents and belonged to the formal operations stage of Piaget’s hierarchy of cognitive development (Piaget, 1960: 135) and the reflective stage of consumer socialisation (John, 1999: 186).

Piaget postulated that children who were in the formal operations stage of cognitive development would have the ability to think abstractly about concepts. Calvert described constituents of the concrete stage as the:

“Adolescents can reason abstractly and understand the motives of advertisers even to the point of growing cynical about advertising.” (Calvert, 2008: 215).

The respondents’ cognizance of the commercial nature of advertisements increased from 61.36% among 12 year olds to 71.64% among 13 year olds. This represents a significant increase which is shows that during the formative stages of the formal operations stage of cognitive development there is still significant maturing among respondents.

With regard to the reflective stage of consumer socialisation; Calvert described the progression into the reflective stage as having an impact on advertising literacy which was in part caused by an increase in brand awareness and grasp of advertiser’s intent.

“During the reflective stage, a mature understanding of products and marketing practices results in a relatively sophisticated knowledge of products and advertiser intent.” (Calvert, 2008: 215)

Consequently, the increase in the awareness of the commercial nature of advertisements from 51.72% among 8 year old respondents to 71.64% among 13 year olds, and the correlation coefficient of 0.856 can be attributed to both the development of cognitive functioning as well as an increase in advertising literacy and the ability to understand branding.

7.2.1.7. Summary of Age as a Variable of Propensity to Consume

The findings relating to the effect of age on propensity to consume were discussed in *Section 6.6.3* and are summarised in *Table 7.1* (below).

Age	Aware of Persuasion	Aware of Advertising Bias	Aware of Commercial Nature
8 Years Old	0.95	0.543	0.517
9 Years Old	1.00	0.500	0.585
10 Years Old	1.04	0.562	0.594
11 Years Old	1.18	0.619	0.569
12 Years Old	1.08	0.658	0.614
13 Years Old	1.14	0.662	0.716
Correlation with Age	0.825	0.913	0.856

It was found that younger respondents exhibited the highest propensity to consume a good unnecessarily when compared to other age categories. When asked how often they consume a good gratuitously due to the persuasive nature of advertisements, 8 year old respondents answered with a mean value of 2.05; although this value was below the median value of 3, it still signified the highest value of all categories; this had decreased to 1.86 by the age of 13. The persuasive effect of advertisements had a strong correlation with age and returned a Pearson’s R-Value of 0.825. In a similar fashion, the awareness of the bias component of advertising had a strong Pearson’s R-Value 0.913 relative to age, and the awareness of the commercial nature of advertisements had a correlation of 0.856 when compared to age.

Consequently, it can be confirmed that the propensity to consume goods decreased as respondent’s progressed through the phases of cognitive developmental; since all components of advertising literacy had a strong correlation ($R > 0.75$) with age, it can be deduced that advertising literacy has a negative correlation with propensity to consume, and as children develop advertising literacy their propensity to consume products gratuitously decreases.

7.2.2. Objective 2: Cognition of Selling Intent's Effect on Propensity to Consume

One of the primary components of advertising literacy is the comprehension that advertisements have a selling intent, and can be differentiated from regular television programs by their capitalistic nature (Priya, *et al.*, 2010: 154).

Consequently, respondents' perceived awareness of the selling intent in advertisements was assessed and then correlated with propensity to consume. However, Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 463) provided evidence which showed that the propensity to consume products was not simply based on the persuasive nature of the advertisement, but also on the product type being consumed and identified four key product categories based on their level of product conspicuousness. Product conspicuousness is a function of two variables; the degree of exclusivity of the product (luxury/necessity) and the visibility during consumption (private/public) (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 64).

Consequently, in order to determine if awareness of the selling intent of advertisements impacted propensity to consume, the degree of cognizance of the selling intent was established for each product category and then compared with respondents' propensity to consume.

7.2.2.1. *The Effect Which the Awareness of Selling Intent has on Propensity to Consume Privately Consumed Necessity Goods*

The first product category being discussed is privately consumed necessity goods. Privately consumed necessity goods refer to goods which are commonly used but not consumed in the public sphere (Childers and Rao, 1992: 201). The privately consumed necessity good used in the empirical research was toothpaste; due to the fact that there is relatively low social relevance associated with necessity goods and privately consumed goods have a low consumption visibility, previous research has suggested that peer endorsement of privately consumed necessity goods have low consumption influence (Childers and Rao, 1992: 201).

Although the anticipated effect of peer endorsement is low, the manner in which advertising literacy and the awareness of the selling intent of advertisements effects consumption of privately consumed necessities remains a pertinent question. Consequently, the empirical research queried whether comprehension of the selling intent of advertisements affected the consumption frequency of the identified product categories or not.

The empirical research showed that all product categories had significant comprehension of the selling intent of advertisements with a mean rating of 90.1% of respondents identifying that there was a selling intent evident in advertisements, and a standard deviation of only 4.5%. Consequently,

although a substantial proportion of respondents (87.62%) identified the selling intent in the advertisement for privately consumed necessity goods, it was the second lowest frequency out of the identified groups (the only lower awareness was for publically consumed luxury goods in which only 85.15% of respondents identified the selling intent of the advertisement).

When compared with the propensity to consume, it was found that the propensity to consume privately consumed luxury goods returned a mean Likert rating of 2.74³². This shows that there was a skew towards a lower consumption frequency of 0.26 (deviation from the median option). A correlation between the consumption frequency and the percentage of respondents who identified the selling intent evident in advertisements among the product categories returned a Pearson's R-Value of -0.891; this shows that as respondents become more aware of the selling intent of an advertisement, the propensity to consume the product decreases.

7.2.2.2. The Effect Which the Awareness of Selling Intent has on Propensity to Consume Privately Consumed Luxury Goods

The second product category being discussed is privately consumed luxury goods. As mentioned above, privately consumed goods are products which are consumed outside of the public sphere. Luxury goods relates to goods which are not generally owned by everybody and consequently may be more conspicuous during consumption (Childers and Rao, 1992: 200). The privately consumed luxury good utilized in the empirical research was home radios.

Childers and Rao (1992, 201) stated that although privately consumed luxury goods attracted strong peer influence due to their discretionary nature, the product itself is not observable during consumption and therefore the brand itself is not of paramount importance.

The empirical research showed that respondents identified the selling intent in advertisements for privately consumed luxury goods in 95.05% of the observed cases. This was the highest frequency among the product categories; consequently it can be inferred that tweens have the strongest understanding of the selling intent of advertisements for privately consumed luxury goods. Accordingly, the propensity to consumed privately consumed luxury goods was the lowest out of the identified product categories and returned a mean Likert rating of 2.26 which equated to a skew towards the lower level of consumption frequency of 0.74. This ratifies the negative correlation between awareness of selling intent and propensity, which (as mentioned previously), returned a Pearson's R-Value of -0.891.

³² These values refers to the position on the Likert scale; 1 = never, 2 = hardly ever, 3 = sometimes, 4 = most of the time

7.2.2.3. *The Effect Which the Awareness of Selling Intent has on Propensity to Consume Publically Consumed Necessity Goods*

Publically consumed necessity goods refer to products which are commonly owned and consumed in the public sphere (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 64). The product used in the empirical research was clothing.

The empirical research determined that 92.57% of respondents were able to identify the selling intent in advertisements for publically consumed necessity goods; making it the second highest awareness among observed respondents. Fittingly, the propensity to consume publically consumed necessity goods was the second lowest and returned a mean Likert rating of 2.45 and a skew towards a lower consumption frequency of 0.55.

7.2.2.4. *The Effect Which the Awareness of Selling Intent has on Propensity to Consume Publically Consumed Luxury Goods*

Publically consumed luxury goods refer to goods which are not commonly owned and consumed within the public sphere (Childers and Rao, 1992: 200). The example used in the empirical survey was Razor kick scooters.

The empirical survey established that 85.15% of respondents were able to identify that the advertisement had a capitalistic selling intent. Despite this being a significant proportion of respondents who were aware of the selling intent, it still represents the lowest frequency of respondents to identify the selling intent relative to other product categories. However, the relatively low standard deviation of only 4.52% and the mean value of 90.10% imply that although there was a lower awareness of the selling intent in the advertisement for the publically consumed luxury goods than other goods, the variation was marginal.

The propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods returned a mean Likert rating of 2.63 which represented a skew towards a lower propensity to consume of 0.37.

7.2.2.5. *Summary of the Comprehension of Selling Intent on Propensity to Consume*

As mentioned in *Section 7.2.2.1*, the correlation between the awareness of the selling intent of the advertisement and the propensity to consume returned a Pearson's R-Value of -0.891 which showed that as observed respondents became more aware of the advertisements selling intent, their desire to consume the advertised good decreased.

7.2.3. Objective 3: Persuasive Nature of Advertisements' Effect on Propensity to Consume

When describing how individuals comprehend advertisements, Priya, *et al.* (2010: 154) identified that the awareness that advertisements are persuasive in nature was one of the key components of advertising literacy. Moore and Lutz (2000: 31) stated that "*children's product uses are oriented less toward the weighing of options and more toward the enjoyment each new snack, toy, or cereal offers.*" It is this 'enjoyment' factor which some researchers believe makes children myopic when evaluating purchase decisions (Macklin and Carlson, 1999: 3). This was investigated by Carter, *et al.* (2011: 962) who stated that young children do not have the capacity to take the perspective of another individual; consequently, in the case of an advertisement, young children may be unable to identify the persuasive nature, and purchase the good due to the enjoyment factor.

To further explain this, Friestad and Wright (1994: 1) constructed the persuasion knowledge model which sought to explain the relationship between the persuasion agent (advertiser) and the target (child). They determined that the manner in which the target responds to the persuasive nature of an advertisement (the persuasion episode) is comprised of elements from both the advertiser and the viewer; the persuasion attempt by the agent and the persuasion coping behaviour of the target. The persuasion attempt is constructed by the agent and uses their knowledge of the target, their knowledge about the particular product or service being promoted, and their knowledge about persuasion theory. The persuasion coping behaviour is structured by the target and is comprised of their knowledge of the agent's intentions, their knowledge of the particular product or service being promoted, and their comprehension and knowledge of persuasion theory.

The empirical research sought to determine if there is a correlation between respondents' awareness of the persuasive nature of advertisements and their associated propensity to consume.

Respondents were asked if they consumed goods unnecessarily due to the persuasive nature of advertisements; the empirical research determined that slightly under half of the respondents (49.6%) stated that they never purchased goods which they didn't need due to the persuasive nature of advertisements; 14.6% of the respondents surveyed believed that they hardly ever purchased goods needlessly due to the persuasive nature of advertisements; 29.6% of respondents stated that they sometimes purchased goods gratuitously due to the persuasive nature of advertisements; 4.8% of respondents stated that most of the time the persuasive nature of advertisements influenced them into purchasing goods unnecessarily; only 1.4% of the sample population stated that they are always influenced into purchasing goods unnecessarily.

Once again, due to the inherent nature that “*consumer decision making has identified the need to consider the conspicuousness of the product or brand of interest*” (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 465), the products were separated into their degree of product conspicuousness. Four product categories are discussed below; privately consumed necessities, privately consumed luxury goods, publically consumed necessities and publically consumed luxuries.

7.2.3.1. Awareness of Persuasion’s Effect on the Identified Product Categories

Respondents were asked to identify whether they preferred to purchase products which were advertised rather than goods which were not advertised; respondents were also asked if they consumed products needlessly due to the persuasive nature of advertisements. These findings were correlated to ascertain quantifiable statistics in order to compare the degree to which the persuasive nature of advertisements influenced propensity to purchase each product category relative to the other product categories.

7.2.3.1.1. Comprehension of Persuasion on Consumption of Privately Consumed Necessities

The first category being discussed is privately consumed necessity goods, which refers to products that are commonly owned and consumed away from the public sphere (Childers and Rao, 1992: 201).

The empirical survey found that the propensity to purchase a privately consumed necessity good due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a Mean Likert rating of 2.74. When compared to the other product categories it is evident that respondents were more inclined to purchase privately consumed necessities gratuitously as a result of the persuasive nature of advertisements than any other product category (followed by publically consumed luxuries with 2.61, publically consumed necessities with 2.44 and finally privately consumed luxuries with a mean Likert rating of 2.25).

However, a Pearson’s Correlation was performed to determine if there was a correlation between an increase in the awareness of the persuasive nature and the associated propensity to consume goods gratuitously. This correlation returned Pearson’s R-Value of 0.058 showing that the correlation was negligible and there was no substantial evidence to support a claim that comprehension of the persuasive nature of advertisements influenced unnecessary consumption of privately consumed necessities.

7.2.3.1.2. Comprehension of Persuasion on Consumption of Privately Consumed Luxuries

The next category being discussed is privately consumed luxury goods, which refer to products which are consumed away from the public sphere and are not commonly owned (Childers and Rao, 1992: 201).

Respondents stated that their propensity to purchase privately consumed luxury goods due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a mean Likert rating of 2.25 which symbolised the lowest propensity to consume out of the identified product categories.

A Pearson's correlation between respondents' tendency to purchase a privately consumed luxury good due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned an R-Value of 0.048. Relative to other product categories, this was the lowest value and consequently it can be inferred that a change in respondents awareness that advertisements containing privately consumed luxury goods are persuasive in nature results in a negligible change in the propensity to consume the advertised product unnecessarily.

7.2.3.1.3. Comprehension of Persuasion on Consumption of Publically Consumed Necessities

The third category being discussed is publically consumed necessity goods, which are described by Childers and Rao (1992: 200) as "*Products that are observed being consumed and are also commonly owned*".

The empirical survey found that the propensity to purchase a publically consumed necessity good due to the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a Mean Likert rating of 2.44. A Pearson's correlation was run between the propensity to consume a publically consumed necessity good gratuitously and a preference to purchase an advertised product over an unadvertised alternative. The correlation returned an R-Value of 0.084 with a statistically significant P-Value of 0.047. Consequently, it can be deduced that once again, the low coefficient of the R-Value in the correlation between an increase in respondents' awareness of the persuasive nature of advertisements and their associated propensity to consume a publically consumed necessity good gratuitously, implies that an increase in persuasive awareness does not result in a significant increase in their propensity to purchase publically consumed necessity goods gratuitously.

7.2.3.1.4. Comprehension of Persuasion on Consumption of Publically Consumed Luxuries

The final category being discussed is publically consumed luxury goods, which refers to "*products that are observed being consumed and are also not commonly owned*" (Childers and Rao, 1992: 200).

During the empirical survey, respondents who purchased publically consumed necessity goods unnecessarily due the persuasive nature of advertisements returned a mean Likert value of 2.61.

A Pearson's correlation was performed in order to establish if an increase in the awareness that advertisements were persuasive in nature had a concurrent change in respondents' preference to purchase publically consumed luxury goods gratuitously. This returned the highest R-value among the identified product categories of 0.140 with a statistically significant P-value of 0.001.

Consequently, it can be inferred that an increase in the awareness that advertisements were persuasive in nature resulted in a slight increase in the propensity to consume publically consumed luxury goods.

7.2.3.1.5. Summary of Persuasions effect on Consumption of Identified Product Categories

Although previous research (Carter, *et al.*, 2011: 963; John, 1999: 186; Friestad and Wright, 1994: 3) established that cognition of advertisements occurred in a linear with age, the empirical study showed that an increase in the awareness that advertisements were persuasive in nature resulted in an increase in propensity to consume all product categories (albeit only marginally with the R-values ranging from 0.048 to 0.140). This is inconsistent with literature provided by Carter, *et al.* (2011: 963) who stated that awareness of the “*persuasive intent, rather than selling intent, is the critical factor signifying children’s capacity for cognitive defence*”.

The empirical research both disagrees and agrees with the persuasion knowledge model described by Friestad and Wright (1994: 2). On the one hand, it was evident that an increase in cognitive functions clearly increased the awareness among respondents that advertisements were persuasive in nature. On the other hand, however, all product categories showed an increase in the correlation between mean propensity to consume goods unnecessarily and preference to consume advertised products over un-advertised alternatives, despite respondents having stronger topic knowledge, agent knowledge and persuasion knowledge.

7.2.4. Objective 4: Cognizance of Bias and the Effect on Propensity to Consume

One of the primary motivations behind advertisements is the desire to increase sales of a particular product or service. Consequently, in order to drive demand, advertisements generally contain an inherent bias towards the product which is being promoted (Moses, 2005: 193).

Consequently, the appreciation that advertisements are biased in nature is a key component identified by Priya, *et al.* (2010: 154) in assessing children’s advertising literacy. Moore and Lutz (2000: 31) stated that due to the susceptible nature of children and their lack of cognitive functioning, children’s purchase decisions may be more influenced by the enjoyment and entertainment derived from the advertisement than adults. Consequently, children may base purchase decisions on the entertainment derived from advertisements rather than product utility.

Mills and Keil (2005: 386) conducted an empirical experiment used to assess if children had knowledge that other individuals may be biased if there is an element of self-interest involved. During their experiment, children were told stories in which characters made erroneous declarations aligned either with or against self-interest, and then asked to explain the reason why they selected

their response based from three predetermined answers; lies (intentional, motivated errors in declarations), biases (unintentional, but motivated errors in declarations) or mistakes (unintentional errors not influenced by the characters intentions). The research determined that cynicism is not exclusive in adults and exists in children too; Mills and Keil (2005: 389) stated, "*Young children are less likely than adults to give people who make incorrect statements in their own favour the benefit of the doubt*".

The empirical survey sought to determine how the perception of advertising bias affected consumption of the identified product categories, and if there was a correlation between the awareness that advertisements had inherent bias and the propensity to consume each product category.

In order to determine if respondents were aware of the bias nature of advertisements they were asked two questions; (i) respondents were asked if they could identify the source of funding for the advertisement in order to establish whether they identified the element of self-interest or not; (ii) respondents were then asked if they believed the advertisement was deceptive in nature in order to determine the intention behind the advertisement (in a similar manner to the empirical experiment conducted by Mills and Keil (2005: 389)).

The empirical survey established that the vast majority of respondents were able to identify the deceptive nature of advertisements, with 90.7% of respondents stating that they believed that advertisements do not always tell the truth. When asked to identify the source of funding for advertisements, 65.1% of respondents correctly identified that the organisation promoting the product had a component of self-interest in the promotion and consequently would structure the advertisement in a biased manner.

7.2.4.1. The Comprehension of the Bias in Advertisements and the Effect on Propensity to Consume Private Necessities

The first product category being discussed is privately consumed necessity goods. The empirical research determined that a mean total of 59.04% of respondents were able to identify both the selling intent of advertisements and that advertisers had self-interest when promoting privately consumed necessity goods. When these results were then compared to the consumption frequency, it was found that an increase in the awareness of the bias nature of the advertisement had a negative correlation with propensity to consume and returned a Pearson's R-value of -0.65.

A negative correlation between consumption frequency and awareness of the advertising bias can be attributed to the advertisement differing from the product experience which the child receives;

Moore and Lutz (2000: 31) stated “if ads present information different from a child’s actual experience, confusion may result and trust in advertising may be undermined”.

7.2.4.2. *The Comprehension of the Bias in Advertisements and the Effect on Propensity to Consume Private Luxuries*

The next product category being discussed is privately consumed luxury goods. The empirical research determined that 59.25% of respondents were able to identify that advertisers had a capitalistic selling intent in which the advertiser had an element of self-interest. When consumption frequency was compared with awareness of the bias nature, it was established that there was a Pearson’s correlation R-value of -0.71. This implies that there is a strong negative relationship between the propensity to consume and the awareness of the bias in advertisements.

The correlation coefficient of -0.71 was the highest magnitude relative to the identified product categories. Consequently, it can be inferred that awareness of advertisement’s biased nature negatively affected propensity to consume privately consumed luxury goods more adversely than any other product category.

7.2.4.3. *The Comprehension of the Bias in Advertisements and the Effect on Propensity to Consume Public Necessities*

The third product category being discussed is publically consumed necessity goods. The primary research identified that 65.11% of respondents identified both the capitalistic selling intent, and that the organisation promoting the publically consumed necessity had a vested interest in the product. As a result, 65.11% of respondents were deemed to be aware that advertisements were biased in nature.

A correlation was conducted in order to determine if there was a relationship between the frequency of consumption of publically consumed necessity goods and the awareness of the bias nature of advertisement. The correlation returned a Pearson’s R-value of -0.60. This implies that there is a negative relationship between propensity to consume a publically consumed necessity good and the awareness that advertisements are biased (an increase in awareness that advertisements are biased results in a decrease in propensity to consume).

The correlation coefficient of -0.60 had the lowest magnitude relative to the identified product categories. Consequently, it can be inferred that awareness of advertisement’s biased nature negatively affected propensity to consume publically consumed necessity goods at a slower rate than any other product category.

7.2.4.4. *The Comprehension of the Bias in Advertisements and the Effect on Propensity to Consume Public Luxuries*

The final category being discussed is publically consumed luxuries. The empirical research determined that 65.17% of respondents were able to identify that advertisers had both a selling intent and a component of self-interest when screening advertisements. Consequently, respondents were more aware of the biased nature of the advertisement for publically consumed luxury goods relative to all other product categories.

A correlation between respondents' awareness of the bias nature of advertisement of privately consumed luxuries and propensity to consume the product was performed, and returned a Pearson's R-value of -0.62. This result shows that an increase in respondents' awareness of the inherent bias in advertisements has a negative relationship with propensity to consume.

7.2.4.5. *Summary of the Effect Which Awareness of Bias has on the Identified Categories*

In all four product categories the majority of respondents were able to identify that there was an inherent bias evident in advertisements. The awareness of the advertising bias among all categories returned a mean rating of 62.14% and a low standard deviation of only 3.46%. Consequently, it can be inferred that the product category did not significantly impact the awareness that advertisements were biased in nature.

However, the correlation between the awareness of the bias and the consumption frequency of different product categories returned some interesting results. Although all product categories returned a negative R-Value which indicated that an increase in awareness of the bias had a negative impact on consumption frequency, the magnitude of the coefficients showed that the product category does, in fact, influence on the extent which the awareness of the bias affects consumption frequency.

Public Necessities had the smallest coefficient magnitude, with an R-value of -0.60. This implies that although there is a negative correlation between awareness of the advertising bias and propensity to consume, the other product categories had a more exacerbated effect. Publically consumed luxury goods had the second lowest magnitude of -0.62. Consequently, it can be deduced that respondents' consciousness of the advertising bias had a lesser effect on publically consumed goods when compared to privately consumed goods. The correlation coefficient between the awareness of bias in advertisements of privately consumed necessities and propensity to consume had the second highest magnitude, with an R-value of -0.65. The cognizance of bias had the greatest impact on the propensity to consume privately consumed luxuries with an R-value of -0.71.

A correlation between both categories of privately consumed goods returned an R-value of -0.72, whereas publically consumed goods returned an R-value of -0.66. Consequently, it is evident that awareness that advertisements are biased has a negative effect on both categories-but a more exacerbated effect on privately consumed goods.

In a similar fashion, a correlation between consumption of both categories of luxury goods and the awareness that advertisements are biased in nature returned an R-value of -0.73 whereas necessity goods returned an R-value of -0.65. This shows that once again, both categories had a negative correlation between consumption frequency and awareness of bias. However, the effect was augmented for luxury goods.

These results are in line with previous research such as Wilcox, *et al.* (2004: 6) who believed that because *“biased messages demand different interpretive strategies than do unbiased messages,”* children who gain the ability to see and identify the bias would associate it with deception and be less willing to consume the product or service. During an empirical experiment conducted by Moore and Lutz (2000: 32) involving product trials before and after the subject had seen an advertisement, it was identified that if the product differed from what had been promoted to the tween respondents, in many cases the trust in the organisation was undermined and the children stated that they would not be willing to purchase the product again. An empirical survey involving preteen primary school children conducted by Mills and Keil (2005: 389) found that young children who were aware of the notion of self-interest were less willing than adults to believe the misrepresentation was accidental; they stated *“young children less likely than adults to give people who make incorrect statements in their own favour the benefit of the doubt”*. Consequently, as children become aware of the bias nature of advertisements, their propensity to consume the product decreases accordingly.

7.2.5. Objective 5: Peer Endorsements’ Effect on Propensity to Consume

Product endorsement is the process by which reference groups influence additional consumption of a certain product or service (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 463).

Tweens form a powerful niche market that (by 2004) were responsible for over US\$ 1 trillion in personal and influenced consumption (Lindstrom, 2004: 175). Consequently, when positioning an organisation it is important to consider the potential influence of tweens and their associated purchasing power.

The empirical research assessed the manner in which endorsement among tweens influenced their propensity to consume. The empirical research assessed three discrete components of peer endorsement which are discussed below: (i) the effect which age had on the magnitude of peer

endorsement; (ii) the effect which different product categories had on peer endorsement; (iii) the effect which reference group construct had on endorsement.

7.2.5.1. The Effect of Age on Endorsement and Propensity to Consume

Although there has been substantial research conducted on the influence which children exert on parental consumption (Gunter, *et al.*, 2005: 2; Lindstrom, 2004: 175; Pufall and Unsworth, 2004: 143; Cardwell-Gardner and Bennett, 1999: 45) there remains very little primary research on the effect which age and cognitive development has on endorsement among children themselves – particularly in a South African context.

In order to discuss the effect which age had on endorsement, the empirical research determined the effect which endorsement of product had on consumption frequency at each age. Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) stated that there were three discrete components of endorsement which affected the efficacy of peer endorsement: (i) children's ability to think vicariously; (ii) the child's belief that other individuals perception of them is influenced by their product choices; (iii) peers' opinion of the child must be of social relevance to the child while forming their identity.

The findings are discussed below in order of ascending age with a focus on the three criteria identified by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464).

7.2.5.1.1. The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 8 Year Olds

As discussed previously, three components of endorsement were assessed in order to establish endorsements effect on 8 year olds' propensity to consume.

- The first component of children's susceptibility to peer endorsement as described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) was the ability to think vicariously and have a perception of what peers believe. Selman's Role-Taking Ability can be used to assess the degree to which children are able to take the perspective of others (Selman, 1981: 402). Selman believed that as children approach 8 years of age they begin to move out of the Social Informational Role-taking phase, in which children begin to become aware that other individuals have a different perception to them – but are not aware of the difference, (Shaffer, 2009: 201) into the Self Reflective Role-Taking phase; in which the child is aware of differences, but are not able to consider both another person's perspective and their own perspective at the same time (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464).
- The second component being assessed is the degree to which children believe that other children's opinion of them is influenced by their product choices. The empirical research showed that among 8 year old respondents, children valued peers opinion of different product categories in a different manner. 8 year old respondents believed that publically consumed

necessities and publically consumed luxuries were the most important product categories, and had a trend towards increased perceived peer importance of 0.09 (See Footnote³³); privately consumed luxuries had a perceived peer importance rating of -0.74; and privately consumed luxury goods had the lowest perceived importance with a rating of -0.75. The mean perceived peer importance across all product categories received a value of -0.33 which was the highest out of all age groups. Consequently, it can be deduced that 8 year old respondents had the highest perceived importance of peers opinions based on the products they purchase.

- The final component described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) regarding children's susceptibility to peer endorsement, is the belief that either the product or the endorser helps the child form their identity. To assess this, the empirical research determined 8 year olds' propensity to consume the different product categories due to the endorsement of a peer. In each case, the average respondent believed that they would not gratuitously consume goods unnecessarily due to the endorsement of a peer; publically consumed luxury goods returned the highest propensity to consume with a skewness from the median of -0.87; publically consumed necessities and privately consumed luxuries both had a skewness of -1.03; privately consumed necessities had the lowest propensity to consume among 8 year olds of -1.33. The mean rating of all product categories among 8 year olds returned a distribution skew of -1.07 which had the lowest negative magnitude out of all product categories. Consequently, it can be inferred that the propensity to consume goods due to peer endorsement is highest for 8 year olds than any other tween.

7.2.5.1.2. The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 9 Year Olds

In a similar manner to 8 year olds, the three components of endorsement as described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) were evaluated in order to determine the effect of peer endorsement had on 9 year olds' propensity to consume.

- The first element of understanding peer endorsement among children as described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) is the child's ability to see things from another individual's point of view. Selman's Role-Taking Ability was used to describe the manner in which 9 year olds are able to think vicariously. Selman (1981: 402) stated that children aged act in a Self-Reflective manner in which they are aware that other individuals may have a different perspective to them

³³ Skewness is represented according to Pearson's Skewness Coefficient (Panneerselvam, 2004: 60). It is calculated by subtracting the mean value from the median option. The values represent the mean position on the Likert scale (Never = 1, Hardly Ever = 2; Sometimes = 3; Most of the Time = 4; Always = 5); $[\bar{x}] - Median$

A null value represents a perfectly balanced distribution, a negative value implies a skew towards the lower tier (e.g. Lower propensity to consume), and a positive value implies a skew towards the higher tier (e.g. Higher propensity to consume).

– but they are unable to consider both the other individual perspective and their perspective at the same time (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464).

- The second element which is critical in understanding peer endorsement among children is determining if children believe that peers' opinion of them is influenced by the products which they choose to consume (Roper and Shah, 2007: 714; Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464). The empirical research showed that among 9 year old respondents, there was once a variation between the product category and their perceived peer importance. Publically consumed necessity goods were perceived to be the most important product category, and had a skewness rating of -0.45, followed by publically consumed luxury goods with a skewness rating of -0.58. Privately consumed luxuries had a skewness rating of 0.98 and privately consumed necessities had a skewness rating of -1.08. The mean perceived peer importance across all product categories returned a value of -0.76 which had a substantially larger magnitude than 8 year old respondents. Consequently, it can be deduced that as children develop cognitive functioning between the ages of 8 and 9, their perception of the importance of peers' opinion of them decreases. This is in accordance with research conducted by Barenboim (1981: 134) in which the impression formulation of children was investigated. Barenboim investigated three components of impression formulation: behavioural comparisons, psychological constructs, and psychological comparisons. Barenboim established that between the ages of 8 and 9 there was the greatest increase in psychological constructs without any decrease in behavioural comparisons. 9 year old respondents were not old enough to make any psychological comparisons according to Barenboim (1981: 134).
- The final component which must be addressed in order to determine the effect which endorsement has on 9 year olds' propensity to consume according to Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) is the belief that the product or the person endorsing the product must be of significance to the child in forming their identity. To establish this, 9 year old respondents were asked to describe the extent to which peer endorsement influenced them into purchasing goods from the identified product categories. The empirical research determined that the magnitude differed between each product category depending on the level of conspicuousness during consumption, with publically consumed goods attracting increased peer endorsement. Publically consumed luxury goods had the highest propensity to consume due to the fact that it returned the lowest skew towards reduced consumption frequency of -1.05; publically consumed necessities had the second highest consumption frequency of -1.21 followed by privately consumed luxuries with -1.33; privately consumed necessities had the lowest propensity to consume due to peer endorsement among 9 year old respondents, with a skewness rating of -

1.55. The mean propensity to consume rating for all product categories among 9 year old respondents amounted to -1.29. Consequently, there was a decrease in the effect which peer endorsement had on propensity to consume between 8 year old and 9 year old respondents. According to Erikson's Psychosocial Development model, children aged between 8 – 12 (early tweens) belong to the Latency phase of psychosocial development and consequently children feel that if their purchase decisions are not validated by a peer they may feel inferior (State University of New York, 1997: 4). Consequently, the exacerbated effect of peer endorsement (in order to gain approval) among younger children may be as a result of the child's psychosocial development.

7.2.5.1.3. The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 10 Year Olds

Once again, the three elements of endorsement as described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) were assessed in order to ascertain the effect which peer endorsement has on 10 year olds' propensity to consume.

- According to Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464), the child's ability to think in a vicarious manner is the first component which needs to be assessed when attempting to understand peer endorsement. Selman's Role-Taking Ability was used in order to describe the way in which 10 year old respondents perceive other individuals thoughts. Selman (1981: 402) believed that by the time children are 10 years old they have moved out of the Self-Reflective stage of role-taking where they are unable to perceive both their opinion and another individual's opinion at the same time and into the Mutual Role-Taking phase. Shaffer (2009: 201) states that individuals in the Mutual Role-Taking phase gain three important cognitive functions which help them defend themselves against peer endorsement. Firstly, 10 year old respondents gain the ability to consider both their opinion and their peers simultaneously; secondly, by 10 years old the child is aware that peers endorsing a product are also aware that their perception and that of the child also differs; finally, a 10 year old child is able to envision the manner in which a disinterested mediator would react to each party involved (Shaffer, 2009: 201).
- The second component identified by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) as being pertinent to understanding 10 year olds reaction to peer endorsement is the degree to which 10 year old respondents believe peers' perception of them is based on the products which they consume. The empirical research determined that, once again, product categories influenced respondents' perception of peer importance. Publically consumed necessities once again attracted the highest perceived importance among 10 year old respondents and returned a skewness rating of -0.31. Privately consumed necessities returned a skewness rating with the second lowest magnitude of -0.57. Privately consumed luxuries and publically consumed luxuries each returned a similar

skewness rating of -0.76 and -0.77 respectively, and as a result were considered the least important with regard to peers opinions. The mean perceived peer importance across all product categories among 10 year old respondents returned a value of -0.60. Consequently, there was a decrease in the magnitude between 9 year old respondents and 10 year olds (which resulted in an increase in the perceived importance). Once again, this can be explained using Barenboim's impression formulation; Barenboim (1981: 134) found that although there was still a growth in psychological constructs between 10 year old respondents, there began a decline in behavioural comparisons. Barenboim also found that no 10 year old respondents exhibited psychological comparisons (Barenboim, 1981: 134).

- Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) believed that the consumption frequency due to the child's psychosocial development and their associated perception of peers in forming their identity was an important factor when assessing the impact of peer endorsement. The empirical research determined the degree to which 10 year old respondents consumed the four identified product categories unnecessarily due to the persuasive component of peer endorsement, in order to determine if age affected the degree to which peer endorsement increases consumption. The product category with the highest consumption by 10 year old respondents due to peer endorsement was privately consumed necessities, which returned a skewness rating of -1.08; Publically consumed luxury goods had a similar rating of -1.11, making it the second most commonly purchased product category due to peer endorsement. Privately consumed luxuries returned a skewness rating of -1.26 and publically consumed necessities returned the lowest rating of -1.39. The mean propensity to consume due to the persuasive nature of endorsement among 10 year olds returned a skewness rating of -1.21, which was marginally higher than 9 year respondents. However, this can be attributed to the relatively high rating of 10 year old respondents who stated that that privately consumed necessity influenced consumption despite the fact that Childers and Rao (1992: 201) stated that publically consumed necessity goods "*are not socially relevant and are therefore not likely to be influenced by peers*".

7.2.5.1.4. The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 11 Year Olds

In order to establish the effect which peer endorsement has on 11 year old respondents, the three elements of endorsement as described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) were once again assessed.

- In a similar fashion to 10 year old respondents, 11 year old respondents belong to the Mutual Role-Taking phase of Selman's Model of Role-Taking ability (Selman, 1981: 402). As discussed previously, children in the Mutual Role-Taking phase are able to think vicariously and envision another individual's perspective and their perspective simultaneously. Shaffer (2009: 201) states

that another important consideration of children in the Mutual Role-Taking phase of Selman's model is their ability for the child to determine how an unbiased arbitrator would react to the perception of the individual.

- In order to assess how 11 year olds valued peer impressions of the products they consumed, respondents were asked to describe how much they valued peers perception of the different product classes. The empirical research showed that in a similar manner to all other age categories, 11 year old respondents stated that publically consumed luxury goods were the most important category with a skewness rating of -0.34. 11 year old respondents rated peers' opinion of their privately consumed luxury goods and publically consumed luxury goods similarly, their perceived importance returned ratings of -0.74 and -0.75 respectively. Privately consumed necessities had the highest negative magnitude of -1.09 which implies that 11 year olds placed the least importance on peers' opinion of privately consumed necessities. The mean perceived peer importance of all product categories among 11 year olds was -0.73 which shows a decrease in the perceived importance of all product categories relative to 10 year olds. This decrease in perceived importance is in accordance with Barenboim (1981: 134) who stated that by the time the child reaches 11 years old they began to exhibit psychological comparisons. Barenboim utilised a longitudinal study to determine the manner in which children described one another; these results were gathered a year apart. 11 year old respondents had a decrease in psychological constructs (e.g. Sally is selfish) but an increase in more sophisticated psychological comparisons (e.g. Joyce is kinder than Sally when she's with friends). This increased sophistication results in children developing more sophisticated persuasion coping techniques. Friestad and Wright (1994: 2) stated that a persuasion episode is determinant not only on the agent's knowledge, but the targets knowledge; consequently, a more sophisticated awareness of peers perceptions results in a decrease in perceived importance.
- The third constituent described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) with regard to children's susceptibility to peer endorsement, is the belief that either the product or the endorser helps the child form their identity. To assess this, the empirical research determined the propensity to consume a product due to the endorsement of a peer among 11 year old respondents for each of the identified product categories. Publically consumed goods had the highest propensity to consume due to peer endorsement among 11 year old respondents; publically consumed necessities returned a skewness rating with a magnitude of -1.19, while publically consumed luxuries returned a skewness rating of -1.21. 11 year old respondents had a relatively lower propensity to consume privately consumed goods due to peer endorsement; privately consumed luxuries returned a skewness rating of -1.56 while privately consumed

necessities had a skewness rating of -1.67. The mean rating of 11 year old respondents was 1.41 which showed a significant increase in magnitude than 10 year old respondents. Consequently, it can be deduced that the propensity to consume due to the persuasive nature of advertisements is higher among 11 year old respondents than it is among 10 year olds.

7.2.5.1.5. The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 12 Year Olds

In order to determine the effect which peer endorsement has on 12 year old respondents, the three components of endorsement as described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) were once again evaluated.

- With regard to the ability for 12 year old children to think vicariously, Selman (1981: 402) established that by the time a child reaches approximately 12 years of age they move into the Social and Conventional Role-Taking phase. During this phase, respondents gain the ability to incorporate the situational context into their assessment, and consequently make adult-like decisions (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464). In terms of peer endorsement, this means that 12 year old children are able to discern that when peers endorse a product, they are trying to persuade them into consuming it, as well as the motivation behind the persuasion attempt.
- The second component being assessed is the degree to which 12 year old children believe that other children's opinion of them is influenced by their product choices. The empirical research found that 12 year old children's opinion on peers' perception varied depending on the product class. 12 year old respondents stated that publically consumed necessities were the most important category with regard to peers' perception and returned a skewness rating of -0.42. Privately consumed returned a rating of -1.09. Privately consumed luxuries and publically consumed luxuries had the highest negative magnitude of -1.32 and -1.33 respectively. The mean rating for all product categories among 12 year old respondents was 1.05, which was the lowest out of all age groups. Consequently, it can be deduced that 12 year old respondents placed the least importance on peers' perceptions of their products.
- The degree to which 12 year old respondents' identity was shaped by peers' perception of their products is an important consideration when assessing peer endorsement (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464). To determine this, the empirical research asked respondents to describe how much peer endorsement affected their propensity to consume different product categories. On average, 12 year old respondents stated that their propensity to consume publically consumed goods was higher than privately consumed goods; publically consumed necessities had the highest propensity to consume with a skewness rating of -1.08, whereas publically consumed luxuries had a skewness rating of -1.18. Between the privately consumed categories – privately consumed luxuries had a higher propensity to consume (-1.45) than privately consumed

necessities (-1.75). The mean rating of all product categories among 12 year old respondents returned a distribution skew of -1.37. 12 year olds are the oldest respondents which still fit into the Latency stage of Erikson's psychosocial development model (Cooper and Pervin, 1998: 72). Consequently, although the need for validation from peers is still evident in 12 year old respondents, it is beginning to diminish which results in their propensity to consume due to peer endorsement being lower than the mean for respondents younger than them.

7.2.5.1.6. The Propensity to Consume Due to Peer Endorsement among 13 Year Olds

The three components of endorsement as described by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) were once again assessed in order to establish the effect which peer endorsements had on 13 year olds' propensity to consume.

- The first criteria being discussed is 13 year olds' ability to think vicariously. 13 year old respondents belonged to the same category of Selman's Role Taking ability as 12 year old respondents and were both considered to have adult-like abilities to discern the intent and purpose behind peer endorsement as well as incorporate the situational context (Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464; Selman, 1981: 402).
- The second component which is critical in understanding peer endorsement among 13 year old children is determining if children believe that their peers' opinion of them is induced by the products which the child elects to consume (Roper and Shah, 2007: 714; Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464). The empirical survey once again established that the product category played a significant role in the perception which 13 year olds had regarding the manner in which peers view the respondents' consumption. Public necessities were the product category which was most valued among respondents with a skewness value of -0.12. Private necessities were the next most important category among 13 year old respondents with a skewness value of -0.80. Privately consumed luxury goods were the second least important product category according to 13 year old respondents; publically consumed luxury goods were the least important product category with a skewness value of -1.36. The mean perceived peer importance across all product categories among 13 year old respondents returned a value of -0.86. Consequently, there was a decrease in the magnitude between 12 year old respondents and 13 year olds (which resulted in an increase in the perceived importance of peers).
- According to Erikson's psychosocial model, 13 year old respondents have moved out of the latency phase of development and into the adolescence phase (Cooper and Pervin, 1998: 72). Once in the adolescence phase, children no longer require constant validation by peers and begin to form their own identity based on anterior knowledge (State University of New York, 1997: 4; Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464). This was in accordance with the empirical

research, which established that 13 year old respondents had the lowest mean propensity to consume due to peer endorsement. The mean distribution skew for all product categories returned a skewness value of -1.58. Publically consumed goods once again had a higher propensity to consume due to peer endorsement than privately consumed goods. Publically consumed necessities had a distribution skew of -1.39 and publically consumed luxuries had a distribution skew of -1.52. 13 year old respondents believed that the persuasive element of peer endorsement was less pertinent among privately consumed goods; privately consumed luxuries had a distribution skew of -1.56 and privately consumed necessities were considered to be the least important among 13 year olds and had skewness value of -1.83.

7.2.5.1.7. Summary of the Effect which Age has on Propensity to Consume due to Peer Endorsement

The above findings showed that age plays a significant role on the effect which endorsement has on propensity to consume. In accordance with research conducted by Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) three components of endorsement were compared with the respondents' age.

Firstly, respondents' ability to think vicariously was investigated by utilising Selman's Role-Taking Model (Selman, 1981: 402) in order to determine if the development of abstract thinking reduced the propensity to consume due to peer endorsement.

Secondly, the degree to which children develop their identity through their perception of products, as well as the person endorsing the product, was discussed. This was achieved by determining the importance which peers placed on each of the product categories. It was established that as children age their perceived importance of product importance decreases in a fairly linear manner. To verify this, a Pearson's correlation was conducted between the age of the respondent and the mean rating of distribution skewness for all product categories which returned a R-value of -0.797 (although due to it being a correlation between the mean values the P-value was high and the results are not necessarily significant, but rather simply serve as an extra validation).

Finally the propensity to consume was assessed in order to determine whether the above findings impacted respondents' consumption behaviour. This was discussed alongside Erikson's psychosocial model in order to determine whether respondents believed that the opinion of peers was sufficient to encourage consumption due to endorsement (Cooper and Pervin, 1998: 72). The empirical research determined that as children grow older, the associated propensity to consume due to peer endorsement decreases. This was confirmed through the use of a Pearson's correlation between respondents' age and the mean skewness rating, which returned an R-value of -0.913 (although,

once again, due to this being a correlation between the means rather than each respondent, the P-value was low and the results are not necessarily statistically significant.)

7.2.5.2. The Effect of Product Category of Endorsement and Propensity to Consume

The degree of product conspicuousness is an important consideration in the assessment of children's propensity to consume (Childers and Rao, 1992: 201). Consequently, when assessing the degree to which peer endorsement influences propensity to consume, it is essential to consider whether the product is either consumed in a private or public manner, and whether the product is a necessity good or a luxury good (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66; Childers and Rao, 1992: 201).

To assess this, the empirical survey asked respondents to provide the degree to which they valued the opinion of their peers for each product category; respondents were then asked to describe the degree to which peers influenced them into purchasing a product from each of the product categories.

To confirm the findings, focus groups were shown advertisements for a product from each category with an agent in half the groups who acted as a consumption motivator and endorsed the product in an attempt to influence consumption. A Univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was performed between the groups with the endorser and without in order to determine whether groups which had peer endorsement demonstrated an increased willingness to consume.

7.2.5.2.1. The Consumption Effect of Endorsement on Privately Consumed Necessity Goods

The first product category being assessed is privately consumed necessity goods. Bearden and Etzel (1982: 185) pioneered the research into the effect which reference group construct had on endorsement of products with different consumption conspicuousness; their research was duplicated by Childers and Rao (1992: 201) and more recently by Makgosa and Mohube (2007: 66). The previous research established that due to the low product conspicuousness of privately consumed necessity goods, peer endorsement had a relatively low effect on propensity to consume.

“Privately consumed necessities are neither observable nor exclusive because they are consumed out of public view and are used by everybody. Such products are not socially relevant and are therefore not likely to be influenced by peers” (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66).

With regard to the perceived opinion of privately consumed necessities; the empirical research determine that when asked to stipulate how often respondents cared about peers opinion of their privately consumed necessities, the rating was 1.67 (see footnote³⁴). This value represented the

³⁴ This values represent the mean position on the Likert scale (Never = 1, Hardly Ever = 2; Sometimes = 3; Most of the Time = 4; Always = 5

lowest value relative to other product categories, and consequently it can be inferred that respondents valued peers' opinion of their privately consumed necessities lower than any other product category.

Regarding the propensity to consume due to the effect of peer endorsement, respondents stated that the propensity to consume privately consumed necessities due to the influence exerted on them by their peers returned a mean value of 1.47. This was the lowest out of the identified product categories. Consequently, it was deduced that respondents were least likely to purchase privately consumed necessity goods due to the persuasive nature of advertisements. This was confirmed by the ANOVA which showed that the inclusion of peer endorsement had no impact on respondents perception of the privately consumed necessity (sum of squares = 0.000) and returned the following: $F(1, 200) = 0.000, p = n/a$. This is in accordance with research conducted by Childers and Rao (1992: 201). Childers and Rao found that because the product is consumed in private and is commonly owned, peer influence for both the product and the brand is negligible. Childers and Rao (1992: 201) acknowledged that although peers have relatively no impact on consumption due to endorsement on privately consumed necessities; children may be influenced by parents or family members.

7.2.5.2.2. The Consumption Effect of Endorsement on Privately Consumed Luxury Goods

The second product category being discussed is privately consumed luxury goods. Childers and Rao (1992: 201) established that because privately consumed luxury goods are discretionary purchases they generally attract relatively high levels of peer endorsement. Childers and Rao (1992: 201) acknowledged that because they are consumed in private, the brands purchased are not observable and are not subjected to endorsement by peers.

“Privately consumed Luxuries: Products that are not observed when they are consumed and are also not commonly owned or used. Such products attract higher peer influence because they are important and commands more discretionary purchases” (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66).

The empirical research assessed the degree to which respondents valued peers' perception of their privately consumed luxury goods, and returned a mean rating of 2.05; consequently, it can be inferred that respondents valued peers' opinions of privately consumed luxury goods more than privately consumed necessities, but less than the publically consumed product categories.

With regard to the propensity to purchase a privately consumed luxury good due to peer endorsement, the empirical research determined that there was a mean Likert rating of 1.64. Since this was the second lowest value (only privately consumed necessities were lower), it was deduced that respondents were more willing to consume public goods than private goods due to peer

endorsement. The ANOVA confirmed that peer endorsement had the second lowest effect on the perception of privately consumed luxury goods and returned the following F-value: $F(1, 200) = 3.661$, $p > 0.05$; the P-value was marginally > 0.05 threshold so these results may not be statistically significant. However, this is in accordance with Childers and Rao (1992: 208), who assessed the influence of different reference group constructs on consumer decisions. They established that privately consumed luxury goods had a higher external reference group influence of 3.36 relative to 2.56 for privately consumed necessities, but publically consumed goods, and publically consumed goods had an even higher value (3.73 for publically consumed necessities; 4.01 for publically consumed luxuries).

7.2.5.2.3. The Consumption Effect of Endorsement on Publically Consumed Necessity Goods

The third product category being assessed is publically consumed necessity goods. The previous research by Childers and Rao (1992: 201) and more recently by Makgosa and Mohube (2007: 66) both had similar findings regarding the consumption frequency due to peer endorsement of different product categories.

“A publically consumed necessity is a product that is observed when it is consumed and is also commonly owned. The decision to purchase such a product is one that attracts lower levels of peer influence because virtually everybody owns the product” (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66).

With regard to the perceived importance of publically consumed necessities among peers; the empirical research determine that when asked to stipulate how respondents rated peers opinion of their publically consumed necessities, the mean rating was 2.71. This value represented the highest value relative to other product categories. As a result, it can be inferred that respondents valued peers' opinion of their publically consumed necessities more than any other product category. This was confirmed in the ANOVA which showed that publically consumed necessities had the highest variance (F-value) between the group with an endorser and the group without; the result was as follows: $F(1, 200) = 4.741$, $p = 0.031$. Since the P-value was < 0.05 the results can be considered statistically significant.

However, when respondents were asked how often they were persuaded by peers into purchasing goods unnecessarily, the mean rating for publically consumed necessities (1.79) was lower than publically consumed luxury goods (1.86). Consequently, although respondents may value peers' opinion about their publically consumed necessity goods more than publically consumed luxuries, they are less inclined to actually purchase a publically consumed necessity due to peer endorsement. According to previous research (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66; Childers and Rao, 1992: 201; Bearden and Etzel, 1982: 185) this comes down to consumer behaviour; since publically consumed

necessities are consumed in the public sphere where it is seen by others, the effect of influence on the product will be higher. On the other hand, because they are necessities (and not exclusive) the influence on the brand itself will be weak.

7.2.5.2.4. The Consumption Effect of Endorsement on Publically Consumed Luxury Goods

The final product category being discussed is publically consumed luxury goods. Childers and Rao (1992: 201) established that because publically consumed luxury goods are exclusive and predominantly discretionary purchases they are highly conspicuous and susceptible to peer-influence. This is further exacerbated by the fact that they are consumed in public.

“Publically Consumed Luxuries: Products consumed in public view and are not commonly owned or used. Such products are exclusive and this makes them conspicuous and prone to more peer influence” (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66).

The empirical research assessed the degree to which respondents valued peers' perception of their publically consumed luxury goods, and returned a mean rating of 2.24, making peers' perception of publically consumed luxury goods the second most important category (after publically consumed necessity goods). The ANOVA test which measured the variance of the perception of a publically consumed luxury good between a group with peer endorsers and a group without returned the second highest F-Value (also after publically consumed necessity goods). The results were as follows: $F(1, 200) = 3.883, p = 0.050$. Since the P-value was <0.05 the results can be considered statistically significant.

With regard to frequency which respondents purchased publically consumed luxury goods due to the persuasive nature of peer endorsement, a mean rating of 1.86 was ascertained. This rating was the highest out of the identified product categories, and consequently it was deduced that respondents were more willing to consume publically consumed luxury goods due to peer endorsement than any other product category. This is in accordance with previous research (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66; Childers and Rao, 1992: 201; Bearden and Etzel, 1982: 185) which stated that since publically consumed luxury goods are consumed in the public sphere - the effect of influence on the product will be high, and since the product is exclusive - the effect of influence on the brand will also be high.

7.2.5.2.5. Summary of Endorsement's Effect on Product Classes

In summary, it was demonstrated that the degree of conspicuousness during consumption affected both the respondents' perceived importance of the product as well as their propensity to consume.

Products with a lower level of conspicuousness had a lower consumption frequency than products which were more conspicuous during consumption.

- Privately consumed necessity goods have the lowest conspicuousness during consumption (Bearden and Etzel, 1982: 185). Both the product and the brand were not considered important by children (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66; Childers and Rao, 1992: 201). The empirical research showed that peer endorsement also had the lowest effect on respondents' propensity to consume private necessities, with a mean rating of 1.47.
- Privately consumed luxury goods had a relatively low conspicuousness during consumption according to Bearden and Etzel (1982: 185). This is by virtue of the fact that the product is consumed in private and out of the public sphere (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66). However, because luxury products are rarely owned, the brand itself is relatively important to the child (Childers and Rao, 1992: 201). The empirical research showed that the mean propensity to utilise a privately consumed luxury returned a rating of 1.64.
- According to previous research (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66), the effect of peers influence on publically necessity goods should be relatively high. This is due to the fact that the product is consumed in the public sphere and therefor observable by peers. However, because the product is a necessity good and owned by many people, Childers and Rao (1992: 201) stated that the brand itself is not of paramount importance to the consumer. The empirical research showed that the mean propensity to consume a public necessity due to peer endorsement returned a value of 1.79.
- Publically consumed luxury products have the highest conspicuousness during consumption according to Bearden and Etzel (1982: 185). Publically consumed luxuries are consumed in the public sphere, and are exclusive. Thus both the product and brand are subject to peer influence (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66). The empirical research confirmed this; respondents' propensity to utilise a publically consumed luxury returned the highest mean value of 1.86.

When Pearson's correlation was performed for each product category it was established that the degree of conspicuousness during consumption also impacted the relationship between the perceived importance of the product and the propensity to consume due to peer endorsement; however, in this case, products with lower consumption conspicuousness returned a stronger correlation. All correlations returned significant findings with P-values <0.001

- The correlation between the perceived importance of privately consumed necessity goods and peer endorsement returned a Pearson's R-value of 0.447, showing that private

necessities had the strongest correlation between perception of the product and consumption due to peer endorsement.

- The correlation between the perceived importance of privately consumed luxury goods and consumption due to peer endorsement returned an R-value of 0.373. Consequently it can be deduced that respondents consider the perception of their peers more for privately consumed goods than publically consumed goods
- The relationship between the perceived importance of publically consumed necessities and consumption due to peer endorsement returned an R-value of 0.267
- Publically consumed luxuries had the lowest R-value of 0.313, making it the weakest relationship out of the identified product categories.

7.2.5.3. The Effect of Reference Group Construct on Propensity to Consume

Lindstrom (2004: 175) acknowledged that tweens are an important market segment with a strong disposable income. A plethora of research has been conducted assessing the extent to which children influence parental consumption through nagging; this has become known as 'The Nag Factor' or 'Pester Power' (Gunter, *et al.*, 2005: 2; Lindstrom, 2004: 175; Proctor and Richards, 2002: 3; Cardwell-Gardner and Bennet, 1999: 45; Idell, 1998: 8). However, the degree to which the parents act as endorsers and influence consumption by their children remains relatively untested in a South African environment.

Bearden and Etzel (1982: 187) pioneered research on reference group influence by stipulating that based on the type of product, children would seek information from different sources. They believed that the reference group construct was comprised of three subscales; informational, value-expressive and utilitarian. This research was adapted by Childers and Rao (1992: 198) to accommodate participants from Thailand, yet still managed to mirror the results of Bearden and Etzel.

Although the empirical research conducted in this study was not focused specifically on family endorsement, but rather on peer endorsement, the research still drew parallels with the research conducted by Childers and Rao (1992: 198) and Bearden and Etzel (1982: 187).

7.2.5.3.1. Parental vs. Peer Endorsement of Privately Consumed Necessities

Respondents provided the degree to which parental endorsement influenced their consumption of privately consumed necessities. It was established that across all ages, the mean consumption frequency due to parental endorsement had a Likert rating of 3.70. When compared with peer endorsement, which returned a mean Likert rating of 1.47, it is evident that respondents were more

likely to consume a product if a parent endorsed it than if a friend endorsed it. The difference between the two means amounted to 2.23, which was the largest magnitude.

7.2.5.3.2. Parental vs. Peer Endorsement of Privately Consumed Luxuries

The propensity for respondents to consume a privately consumed luxury good which a parent had endorsed returned a mean Likert rating of 3.44. Once again, this was higher than the mean rating for consumption due to endorsement by friends, which returned a mean Likert rating of 1.64. The difference between the two means amounted to 1.80 which was the second lowest difference. Consequently, it can be inferred that although children are more likely to purchase a privately consumed luxury good if a parent endorses it than if a friend endorses it-the difference is not as great as the necessity goods.

7.2.5.3.3. Parental vs. Peer Endorsement of Publically Consumed Necessities

Respondents stated that their propensity to consume a publically consumed necessity good due to parental endorsement returned the highest mean Likert of 3.99. When compared with the mean Likert rating of peers (1.79) it is evident that parents have a substantially higher effect on consumption frequency than peers. The difference between the two mean amounted to 2.20 which was the second highest out of all product categories, marginally behind privately consumed necessities which had a difference of 2.23. Since necessity goods had the highest and second highest mean differences, it is clear that the effect which parents have when they endorse necessity goods is greater than the effect which they have on luxury goods.

This is in accordance with Bearden and Etzel (1982: 187), who stated that when an individual is subjected to endorsement, different product categories are endorsed in different ways. Necessity goods fit into the "*Utilitarian*" category which Bearden and Etzel (1982: 87) state are "*influenced by the expectation of family members*".

7.2.5.3.4. Parental vs. Peer Endorsement of Publically Consumed Luxuries

When asked how frequently respondents purchased publically consumed luxuries due to the parental endorsement, the empirical survey returned a mean Likert rating of 3.38. Once again, this was higher than the effect which peers had on consumption frequency due to endorsement, which returned a mean Likert rating of 1.86. The difference between the two means amounted to 1.52, which was the lowest out of the product categories.

Once again, this is in accordance with Bearden and Etzel (1982: 87) who stated that luxury goods are considered "*Value-Expressive*" goods. Value-expressive goods are consumed to "*enhance their image among other people*" Bearden and Etzel (1982: 87).

7.2.5.3.5. Summary of Reference Group Construct

Consequently, it was demonstrated that for all product categories the propensity to consume a good due to parental influence was higher than propensity to consume due to peer influence. However, goods which were utilitarian in nature (Bearden and Etzel, 1982: 87) had a greater disparity between peers and parents than goods which were value-expressive.

7.3. Research Hypotheses

This section culminates by determining whether the research hypothesis identified in *Section 5.4* where accepted or rejected.

7.3.1. Hypothesis 1

H₁	As children become older and consequently develop cognitive functions, the effect of peer endorsement of an advertisement decreases for all product categories.
Status:	Accepted
Rationale:	<p>In order to assess the efficacy of peer endorsement, the key cognitive functions according to Bachmann, John and Rao (1993: 464) which related to product endorsement were assessed. They were: the ability to think vicariously, the ability to generate their identity through the perception of peers, and respondents’ propensity to consume in order to influence peers perception of them.</p> <p>The ability to think vicariously was established through literature. Previous research showed that as children grow older they develop the ability to envision other children’s perspectives and think vicariously (Shaffer, 2009:201; Bachmann, John and Rao, 1993: 464; Selman, 1981: 402); Selman’s role-taking ability (Selman, 1981: 402) was used to illustrate this, and demonstrated that as children move through different phases they move from an egoistic (self-reflective) state to a social and conventional role-taking state and gain the ability to see another person’s perspective and the reason behind the product endorsement.</p> <p>The respondents were then asked to rate products according to the degree of social benefit they provided. It was found that as children matured the perceived importance of the product decreased in a relatively linear manner and returned a Pearson’s R-Value of -0.797 when correlated with age. This showed that as</p>

	<p>respondents' age increased, the perceived importance decreased.</p> <p>Finally, the crux of the effect which endorsement had on respondents was tested; Respondents propensity to consume due to peer endorsement returned an R-value of -0.913. Which showed that as children became older, their propensity to consume decreased in almost a linear manner.</p>
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7.3.2. Hypothesis 2

H₂	There is a negative correlation between propensity to consume and cognitive ability to discern the selling intent of an advertised product.
Status:	Accepted
Rationale:	<p>The degree of cognizance of the selling intent for all the product categories was collected from respondents. The awareness of the selling intent in the advertisements fluctuated slightly between the different product categories with privately consumed necessities returning a mean rating of 2.74, privately consumed luxuries returned a mean rating of 2.26, publically consumed necessities returned a mean rating of 2.45, and publically consumed luxury goods returned a mean rating of 2.63.</p> <p>This information was then compared with the respondents' age and then correlated with their propensity to consume. The findings showed that there was a fairly linear relationship, with an R-value of -0.891. This showed that as children became aware of the selling intent of advertisements, their propensity to consume decreased.</p>

7.3.3. Hypothesis 3

H₃	There is a negative relationship between propensity to consume and children's ability to perceive the persuasive nature of an advertised product.
Status:	Rejected
Rationale:	<p>The relationship between respondents' propensity to consume and their awareness of the persuasive component of advertisements was empirically tested.</p> <p>A Pearson's correlation was performed between respondent's awareness of the</p>

	<p>persuasive nature of the advertisement and their propensity to consume a product needlessly due to the advertisement.</p> <p>The empirical survey found that the correlations between propensity to consume and awareness that advertisements were persuasive in nature returned the following R-values: Privately consumed necessities returned an R-value of 0.06, privately consumed luxuries returned an R-value of 0.05, publically consumed necessities returned an R-value of 0.05, and publically consumed luxuries returned an R-value of 0.14.</p> <p>Consequently, it was established that there was not a noteworthy correlation between propensity to consume and respondents' ability to perceive the persuasive component of an advertisement.</p>
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7.3.4. Hypothesis 4

H₄	There is a negative correlation between propensity to consume and cognitive ability to discern the bias of an advertised product.
Status:	Accepted
Rationale:	<p>In order to ascertain whether respondents were aware of the inherent bias evident in advertisements, two components of bias were assessed. Firstly, respondents were asked to identify the source of funding for advertisements in order to determine if they were aware of the self-interest nature of the advertisement. Secondly, respondents were asked to gauge the degree to which advertisements are deceptive.</p> <p>The findings of these two questions were cross tabulated and a Pearson's correlation was performed against the propensity to consume each of the product categories.</p> <p>All of the product categories had a negative R-value which showed that as the respondent became aware of the biased nature of advertisements, their propensity to consume the product decreased.</p> <p>The R-values for each product category is as follows; privately consumed necessities returned an R-value of -0.65, privately consumed luxuries returned an R-value of -0.71; publically consume necessities returned an R-value of -0.60; publically consumed luxuries returned an R-value of -0.62</p>

7.3.5. Hypothesis 5

H₅	Peer endorsement of publically consumed goods has a stronger relationship with tweens' propensity to consume than endorsement of privately consumed goods.
Status:	Accepted

Rationale:	<p>In accordance with previous research (Makgosa and Mohube, 2007: 66; Childers and Rao, 1992: 2010), the empirical research confirmed that the degree of conspicuousness during consumption affected the degree to which peer endorsement influenced propensity to consume.</p> <p>It was established that respondents had a higher propensity to consume public goods due to peer endorsement than privately consumed goods.</p> <p>The propensity to consume private necessities due to peer endorsement returned a mean Likert rating of 1.47; the propensity to consume private luxuries due to peer endorsement returned a mean Likert rating of 1.64. Consequently, the average propensity to consume a private good due to peer endorsement returned a mean Likert rating of 1.56.</p> <p>The propensity to consume publically consumed necessities due to peer endorsement returned a mean Likert rating of 1.79 and the propensity to consume publically consumed luxuries returned a mean Likert rating of 1.86. Consequently, the average propensity to consume a public good due to peer endorsement returned a mean Likert rating of 1.83.</p>
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7.3.6. Hypothesis 6

H₆	There is a stronger positive correlation between peer endorsements of an advertised luxury good than an advertised ordinary good.
Status:	Accepted
Rationale:	<p>The empirical research ascertained that respondents had a higher propensity to consume luxury goods to peer endorsement relative to ordinary goods.</p> <p>Respondents' susceptibility by peer endorsement into consuming a privately consumed luxury good returned a mean Likert rating of 1.64; the propensity to consume publically consumed luxuries due to peer endorsement returned a mean Likert value of 1.86. Consequently, the average propensity to consume a luxury good returned a mean Likert rating of 1.75.</p> <p>Necessity goods had a lower average propensity to consume due to peer endorsement with a mean Likert rating of 1.63. This was comprised of privately consumed necessities, which returned a mean Likert rating of 1.47 and publically consumed necessities, which returned a mean Likert rating of 1.79.</p>

7.4. Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research objectives stipulated in *Section 5.3* and used the information derived to either accept or reject the research hypotheses identified in *Section 5.4*.

With regard to the cognition of advertisements; it was established that the cognition theories used in the report (Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development, and Roedder's information processing model) were applicable in a South African context, and there was a clear developmental process which respondents passed through (Roedder, 1981: 145; Piaget, 1960: 135;). The age of the respondent affected children's ability to identify the persuasive nature of advertisements, the intrinsic bias of advertisements and the commercial nature of advertisement; accordingly, there was a negative correlation between the respondents age and their propensity to consume.

The degree which peer endorsement affected propensity to consume was also discussed in this chapter. It was established that the degree of conspicuousness during consumption had a positive correlation with the propensity to consume an endorsed product. In light of this, endorsement of publically consumed goods resulted in a higher consumption propensity than privately consumed goods. Similarly, respondents stated that they were more inclined to purchase luxury goods which were endorsed by peers than necessity goods.

This chapter culminated with a brief analysis of the research hypotheses stipulated in *Section 5.4*.

The following chapter provides recommendations for future research, limitations of the study, and a brief conclusion to the dissertation.

Chapter 8: Conclusions, Recommendation and Limitations

8.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a conclusion to the dissertation by providing recommendations for both marketing managers as well as future research, and culminates with limitations of the dissertation.

8.2. Conclusion of the Dissertation

This dissertation sought to determine the effects which age had on comprehension of advertisements, and the manner in which peer endorsement affected consumption. The following information was established regarding the research objectives stipulated in *Section 5.3*:

The results of the study showed that there was a clear correlation between the age of respondents and their comprehension of the function and purpose of advertisements. This resulted in younger children only exhibiting an elementary awareness of the selling intent of advertisements, the persuasive nature of advertisements and the intrinsic bias. As children matured and moved through Piaget's phases of cognitive development it was found that the increased awareness generated scepticism in the intention behind the advertisement, which resulted in an associated decrease in their propensity to consume.

The research also assessed the product class and the degree of conspicuousness during consumption. It was established that the efficacy of peer endorsement in influencing consumption had a correlation with the degree of conspicuousness. Respondents stated that they were more influenced by peers when they promoted a publically consumed good than a privately consumed good. Similarly, respondents were more influenced by peer endorsement of luxury goods than necessity goods due to necessity goods being more common and attracting less attention during consumption.

Finally, the research also determined that the construction of the reference group affected the degree to which peer endorsement affected propensity to consume. For all product categories it was determined that endorsement by a parent or guardian (familial endorsement) influenced consumption more than endorsement by a classmate (peer endorsement).

8.3. Recommendations

This section provides information for marketing professionals with insight regarding the research objectives of this study, as well as recommendations for policy makers regarding advertising goods specifically targeted at tween consumers. This section also provides information for future research.

8.3.1. Recommendations for Marketing Professionals

The tween market segment has shown substantial growth, which has led to a new cohort of young consumers with relatively high disposable incomes (Gunter, *et al.*, 2005: 2). Data collected by Lindstrom (2004: 175) stated that by 2004, tweens in the United States were responsible for over US\$ 1 trillion worth of influenced consumption. Consequently, when marketing a product it is an elementary mistake to ignore the profitable tween niche market segment.

8.3.1.1. Advertising Literacy

The three main criteria identified by Priya, *et al.* (2010: 154) involving the degree of advertising literacy were: children's awareness that advertisements have a selling intent, children's awareness that advertisements are persuasive in nature, and children's awareness that advertisements are biased towards the company marketing the good. Awareness of all three of these criteria had a positive correlation with respondent's age. Consequently, it can be deduced that as respondents age they develop more sophisticated consumer socialisation principles which helps them subvert the persuasive nature of advertisements and reduces their propensity to consume. The empirical research found that there was a clear decrease in respondent's propensity to consume once they were aware of the selling intent of advertisements (Hypothesis H₂) as well as the awareness that advertisements were biased in nature (Hypothesis H₄). This is in accordance with the Persuasion Knowledge Model (Friestad and Wright, 1994: 4) which stated that as children develop knowledge on the agent promoting the good (as well as the good itself) their persuasion coping mechanisms increase in a similar manner and they become less inclined to purchase the product needlessly.

From a marketing manager's point of view, younger children are more susceptible to claims made in advertisements as they do not consider the advertisement to be misleading, biased or have any ulterior motive. This makes them an attractive segment as they are more willing to consume goods gratuitously. However, it is worth noting that research conducted by Moore and Lutz (2000: 32) involving product trials before and after a respondent had seen an advertisement, found that if the product adversely differed from the claims made in the advertisement, respondents would be less willing to purchase the product again as their trust in the organisation was undermined. Consequently, although the empirical findings showed that children are more naïve consumers (and more willing to purchase goods frivolously) if this naivety is exploited it could have adverse long term associations for the brand.

8.3.1.2. Product Endorsement

Peer endorsement was assessed for four identified product categories based on their conspicuousness during consumption (in accordance with previous research conducted by Bachmann, John and Rao, (1993: 463)).

From a marketing manager's point of view, it was established that the effect which peer endorsement had on propensity to consume had a positive correlation with the degree of conspicuousness. From this it was deduced that when a product is more conspicuous during consumption, respondents are more willing to consume it if a peer endorses it. Consequently, if you are promoting a product with low product conspicuousness (i.e. a privately consumed necessity good), it is not worth relying on peer endorsement alone to promote sales but also the conventional described by Lamb, *et al.* (2006: 350) such as print advertising, broadcast advertising, outdoor advertising or guerrilla advertising.

The research also determined that the propensity to consume a good was higher if a parent endorsed a product than if a peer endorsed a product for all product categories. Consequently, when marketing a good targeted towards tweens it is vital to ensure that the advertisement targets not only the children, but also the parents. This is in accordance with research conducted by Spungin (2004: 38) in which it was established that although peer endorsement may encourage the children to nag their parents, the ultimate purchase decision resides with the parent.

8.3.2. Recommendations for Policy Makers

Marketing goods to children is a contentious issue. On one hand, some researchers believe that it is exploitative to promote a good to a child as they do not have the mental capacities to combat the persuasive nature of the advertisement, and it could negatively impact their morals and judgements (Valkenburg, 2000: 52). On the other hand, advocates of consumer socialisation theory believe that advertisements form an integral component of children's development into a consumer saturated environment (O'Sullivan, 2005: 375; John, 1999: 183). O'Sullivan (2005: 375) stated that "*Sacrificing it [advertisements] to an unrealistic ideal of innocence by removing advertising may be prejudicial to child welfare by removing an important source of consumer socialisation*".

8.3.2.1. Age as a component of Policy Making

With regard to advertisements which exclusively target children, the current legislation stipulated by The Advertising Standards Association of South Africa defines children as a "*person under the age of 18 years*" (ASA, 2004: 14).

The empirical research showed that the age at which respondents begin to think autonomously and develop consumer socialisation based on their ability to distinguish the key components of advertising literacy described by Priya *et al.* (2010: 154) was much lower than 18 years old. The empirical research determined that by the time respondents were 13 years old 72.3% of respondents were able to identify the source of funding for advertisements, 66.2% were aware of the bias nature, and 53.03% stated that persuasion never influenced them into consuming a good unnecessarily. Consequently, in all cases, the majority of 13 year old respondents demonstrated sophisticated autonomous decision making when viewing advertisements.

The current policy which describes children as being “*persons under the age of 18 years*” (ASA, 2004: 14) is primarily for sexual references and violence, and does not factor in viewers cognition of advertisements. The policy is self-regulated by the Broadcasting Complaints Commission of South Africa (BCCSA, 2009: 2). The researcher believes that policy makers should incorporate a clause that restricts advertising which promotes products that could have an adverse effect on younger viewers (such as unhealthy foods). This would be in line with other countries such as Sweden (no advertising to children <12 years old), America (restrictions on the quantity of advertising to children <12 years old), and Canada (where children are defined as children <12) (ASC, 2006: 9; Ramsey, 2006: 369; Carahar, *et al.*, 2005: 600). The researcher believes that due to the fact that 13 year olds exhibit autonomous decision making, the Advertising Standards Authority of South Africa (ASA, 2004: 14) should implement this clause in a similar manner to the countries listed above, and stipulate that advertisements cannot target children younger than 12 years old. Should the clause be implemented, and due to the fact that the BCCSA is a self-regulating entity, the onus would be on the consumer to complain if they believe an advertisement contravened the clause.

8.3.3. Recommendations for Future Research

This section details proposed future research which is lacking in a South African context.

8.3.3.1. The Effect of Demographic and Other Socio-Economic Variables on Cognition of Advertisements

This study dealt primarily with the effect which age had on cognition of advertisement and the effects of peer endorsement. However, other demographic variables were left *ceteris paribus*.

A future study could assess the degree to which other demographic variables such as race and sex affect the three components of cognition as described by Priya, *et al.* (2010: 154). Research could also be conducted in different socio-economic backgrounds. In order to accurately detail the effect which the socio-economic area has on children’s cognition of advertisements, the LSM variables

could be tested. This would provide the researcher with data which could be utilised to determine how other factors other than age affect consumption due to cognition.

8.3.3.2. Advertising Appeals Effect on Propensity to Consume

The research identified how respondents reacted to the endorsement of advertisements of different product categories, but did not investigate the manner in which different appeal techniques influenced children's perception of the advertisement and their associated propensity to consume.

A potential topic could investigate the manner in which children perceive advertisements as entertainment. This would include the effect which bright colours, music and cartoons had on children's willingness to consume a product. An interesting example which could form part of the hypotheses is the degree which "*perceptual dependence*" (which was described by Singer and Singer (2001: 211) as the manner in which children perceive less danger in something which is dangerous but aesthetically looks harmless, than something which is harmless, but looks threatening) affects consumption.

8.3.3.3. The Effects of Product Trial

Previous research by Moore and Lutz (2000: 31) investigated the degree to which product trials and usage-experience influenced children's perceptions of products. This research determined that there was a distinct difference between the consumption behaviour of 7 year old children to that of 10 year old children after they had a chance to use the particular product.

An opportunity exists to both elaborate on this research as well as conduct similar research in a South African context. The research conducted by Moore and Lutz (2000: 31) only focused on two age categories; 7 year olds and 10 year olds. Consequently, determining trends was not feasible, as there were only two measuring criteria. An opportunity exists to determine the degree and extent to which progression through each of the stages of cognitive development impacts children's reactions to product trials.

8.4. Limitations of the Study

Although utmost care was taken in compiling this study, the following limitations were identified which may have influenced findings.

8.4.1. Limitations Regarding Empirical Data

Despite a successful pilot test, there were still limitations with the data collection process

- Acquiring ethical clearance from the Department of Education was a tedious and time consuming process. Despite numerous emails and visits to the head office, the process still took

approximately 6 months to complete. Consequently, the researcher was unable to conduct research in schools at the desired time, and had to accommodate school schedules.

- Certain schools were approached to be included in the study, but were not willing. This diminished the survey population. Ultimately, 4 schools were selected from varying socio-economic areas.
- The report used non-probability sampling rather than random sampling to select participants. This was due, in part, to the fact that it was not possible to forecast which children would have their informed consent signed, or which children would be sick on the day which the questionnaire was administered. Non-probability sampling relies on the judgements of the researcher, making it only as representative as the researcher's skill (Loubser, Martins and Van Wyk, 1999: 253). Consequently, since judgemental sampling was used, the results cannot be generalised.
- In order to satisfy the ethical criteria stipulated by both the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the Department of Education, only respondents who had an informed consent document completed by their parents were eligible to participate in either the purposive questionnaire or the correlation experiment. In some instances, children misplaced or did not have the informed consent signed, and were subsequently not permitted to participate. This lowered the sample size and decreased the response rate.
- The pilot study showed that younger respondents could not comprehend certain complex questions. Consequently, the purposive questionnaire was structured in a more elementary manner to accommodate the diminished cognitive capabilities of younger respondents. The questionnaire only consisted of rudimentary questions. Despite this, younger children still had difficulty comprehending certain components of the questionnaire which was identified in the time it took to complete; 13 year olds were able to complete the questionnaire in approximately 20 minutes whereas younger respondents took approximately 45 minutes.
- Even though the correlation experiment was conducted as a class experiment and under 'test conditions', some children still communicated which may have resulted in an element of peer endorsement being included in the control group.
- The researcher believes that despite children being told that the research is completely anonymous, some children still answered in a manner which would appear 'favourable'. This may account for the reason that among all age groups the mean response indicated that children are more likely to be influenced by their parents into consuming goods than by their peers.
- Due to language restrictions and budgetary constraints, data from the correlation experiment was collected from a single school and may not be representative of the entire population of the report.

8.4.2. Limitations Regarding Literature

Despite the fact that all literature was collected from peer reviewed journals, books and academic databases, the researcher believes that the theory underlying the principles may be considered obsolete to a certain degree. This is particularly true as children approach their tween years.

An example of the researcher's belief that certain models may be obsolete is Piaget's hierarchy of cognitive development (Piaget, 1960: 135). Although considered one of the archetypes of cognition theories, it has been criticized as being too myopic and focusing on simply age as the main component of cognition and not taking into consideration other factors such as social, mathematical, economic and spatial concepts (Lawlor and Prothero, 2003: 416). In addition, there is a new phenomenon referred to as KAGOY (Kids Are Growing Older Younger) which implies that due to the plethora of information available to children at a young age, children develop at a more rapid rate and are able to grasp abstract components of advertising at a younger age than previously (Prince and Martin, 2011: 98). Prince and Martin (2011: 98) stated that *"marketers have a tough time deciding what will be considered 'age-appropriate' by young readers, their parents and their teachers."*

Another limitation regarding literature was the lack of research specific to South Africa. Consequently, the researcher conducted extensive research which resulted in the findings chapter becoming broad during analysis.

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Appendices

Appendix A – Questionnaire

Part 1: Advertising	
Please answer the following questions by selecting ONE option:	
1. How often do you watch Television? <input type="checkbox"/> Never <input type="checkbox"/> Less than 1 hour a day <input type="checkbox"/> 1 - 2 hours a day <input type="checkbox"/> 2 – 3 hours a day <input type="checkbox"/> More than 3 hours a day	2. Who pays for advertisements? <input type="checkbox"/> The SABC <input type="checkbox"/> TV Licences <input type="checkbox"/> The product being advertised <input type="checkbox"/> The Government <input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____
3. Do you enjoy watching advertisements? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	4. Do advertisements always tell the truth? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No
5. Do you like the same advertisements as your friends? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	6. Do you prefer to buy products you have seen advertised? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No

7. Why do you think there are advertisements?

8. What is the main difference between advertising and a normal television program?

9. List 5 things which come to mind when describing an advertisement:

10. Can you think of an example when an advertisement has lied to you?

Please rate the following based on your opinion by selecting one of the boxes

11. Advertisements are meant to give you a break from normal television programs				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
12. When I see an item in the shop I remember the advertisement for it				
Never	Hardly Ever	Some times	Most of the Time	Always
13. Advertisements are for grown-ups only				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
14. I buy things which I don't need because I have seen them on television				
Never	Hardly Ever	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always

Part 2: Product Endorsement

Please answer the following questions by selecting **ONE** option:
(If the child responds NO to Q15, please assist with Q16 – Q22)

15. Do you know what a Brand is? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	16. Some brands are 'cooler' than other brands <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No
17. Cool brands make you more popular? <input type="checkbox"/> Never <input type="checkbox"/> Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/> Always	18. Sometimes you want something just because a friend has it? <input type="checkbox"/> Never <input type="checkbox"/> Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/> Always

Please rate the following according to your belief about the product

19. Toys						
What my friends think about my toys is important						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
I prefer to buy the same brand of toys as my friends						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
My friends help me choose which toys to buy						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
I prefer to buy toys which I see on TV						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
What my parents think about which toys I buy is important						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always

20. Clothes						
What my friends think about my clothes is important						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
I prefer to wear the same brand of clothes as my friends						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
My friends help me choose which clothes to buy						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
I prefer to buy clothes which I have seen on TV						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
What my parents think about the clothes I buy is important						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always

21. Favourite Radio Station						
What my friends think about my favourite radio station is important						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
I prefer to listen to the same radio station as my friends						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
My friends help me choose which radio station to listen to						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
I prefer to listen to radio stations which are advertised						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
What my parents think about which radio station I listen to is important						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always

22. Toothpaste						
What my friends think about the toothpaste I use is important						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
I prefer to buy the same brand of toothpaste as my friends						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
My friends help me choose which toothpaste to buy						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
I prefer to buy toothpaste which I have seen on TV						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always
What my parents think about which toothpaste I use is important						
Never	1	2	3	4	5	Always

Part 3: Demographics

The following questions are for statistics purposes only

23. How old are you? _____ _____	24. What grade are you in? _____
25. Are you a boy or a girl? <input type="checkbox"/> Boy <input type="checkbox"/> Girl	26. Which Race are you? <input type="checkbox"/> Black <input type="checkbox"/> White <input type="checkbox"/> Indian <input type="checkbox"/> Coloured <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please Specify _____)
27. Which school do you go to? _____	

Appendix B – Correlation Experiment Questions

Advertisement: 1 – Colgate Toothbrush	
Please answer the following questions by selecting ONE option:	
1. What does this advertisement want you to do? <input type="checkbox"/> Wash your toothbrush <input type="checkbox"/> Brush Your Teeth <input type="checkbox"/> Buy a new Toothbrush <input type="checkbox"/> Go to the dentist	2. Who paid for this advertisement? <input type="checkbox"/> The SABC <input type="checkbox"/> TV Licences <input type="checkbox"/> Colgate <input type="checkbox"/> Dentists
3. I knew this was an Advertisement because <input type="checkbox"/> It was short <input type="checkbox"/> It had Cartoons in it <input type="checkbox"/> It was fun to watch <input type="checkbox"/> It tried to sell me something <input type="checkbox"/> This wasn't an advertisement	4. If your Friend said that Colgate was the best toothpaste would you buy it more often? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No

Please answer the following questions according to your personal opinion

5. Colgate Toothbrushes are cool				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. Colgate is the best brand of toothbrush				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. If I used a Colgate toothbrush it would make me more popular				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. Colgate Toothbrushes Kill the MOST germs				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. I liked the Advertisement				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

10. What did you like/dislike about the advertisement?

Advertisement: 2 – Razor Scooter

Please answer the following questions by selecting **ONE** option:

<p>11. What does this advertisement want you to do?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Play with Scooters</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Buy a new Scooter</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Have Fun</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Wear a helmet</p>	<p>12. Who paid for this advertisement?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> The SABC</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Razor Scooters</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> TV Licenses</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> The Government</p>
<p>13. I knew this was an Advertisement because?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> It was fun to watch</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> It was short</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> It tried to sell me something</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> This wasn't an advertisement</p>	<p>14. If your friend said that Razor Scooters were the best scooter would you want it more?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Yes</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> No</p>

Please answer the following questions according to your personal opinion

15. Scooters are cool				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

16. Razor Scooters are the best brand of Scooters				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

17. If I had a Razor Scooter it would make me more popular				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

18. The Razor Scooter looks fun				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

19. I liked the Advertisement				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

20. What did you like/dislike about the advertisement?

Advertisement: 3 – Edgars Clothing

Please answer the following questions by selecting **ONE** option:

<p>21. What does this advertisement want you to do?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Buy some new clothes from Edgars</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Join in the song</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Have Fun</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/></p>	<p>22. Who paid for this advertisement?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> The SABC</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Edgars</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> TV Licenses</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Springbok Rugby</p>
<p>23. I knew this was an Advertisement because</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> It tried to sell me something</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> It was fun to watch</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> It had music in it</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> It was short</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> This wasn't an advertisement</p>	<p>24. If your friend said that Edgars clothes were the coolest clothes, would you shop at Edgars more?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Yes</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> No</p>

Please answer the following questions according to your personal opinion

25. Some clothes are cooler than other clothes				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

26. Edgars sells the best clothes				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

27. If I wore Edgars clothes I would be more cool				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

28. I liked the Advertisement				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

29. What did you like/dislike about the advertisement?

Advertisement: 4 – Radio (5FM)

Please answer the following questions by selecting **ONE** option:

30. What does this advertisement want you to do? <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> Buy an octopus toy <input type="checkbox"/> Dance <input type="checkbox"/> Listen to 5fm	31. Who paid for this advertisement? <input type="checkbox"/> A Music Store <input type="checkbox"/> 5FM <input type="checkbox"/> TV Licenses <input type="checkbox"/> The Government
32. I knew this was an Advertisement because <input type="checkbox"/> It was fun to watch <input type="checkbox"/> It was short <input type="checkbox"/> It tried to get me to listen to 5fm more <input type="checkbox"/> It had a cartoon octopus in it <input type="checkbox"/> This wasn't an advertisement	33. If your friends said 5FM was the best radio station, would you listen to it at home more? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No

Please answer the following questions according to your personal opinion

34. 5FM is the Best Radio Station				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

35. This advert tries to make you listen to 5FM even if you don't like it				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

36. I listen to the radio at home				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

37. I liked the Advertisement				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

38. What did you like/dislike about the advertisement?

The following questions were asked ex-post facto after the previous questions had been collected

39. Can you remember what the first advertisement was for? _____

40. Can you remember what the second advertisement was for? _____

41. Can you remember what the third advertisement was for? _____

42. Can you remember what the last advertisement was for? _____

43. Which was your favourite advertisement? _____

44. Why was it your favourite advertisement? _____

45. Which was your favourite product? _____

46. Why was it your favourite product? _____

Appendix C – Informed Consent Example

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a student currently registered for a Master's degree (M.Com Marketing) at the Pietermaritzburg campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN). A requirement for the degree is a dissertation and I have chosen the following topic:

“Cognition of Advertisements, Peer endorsement and Tweens’ Propensity to consume”

Please note that that this study is being conducted in my personal capacity. I have received no endorsement from any company. I can be reached by email: wrightoff@live.com or by phone: 0828570379

My academic supervisor for this study is Dr. Maxwell Phiri, based in the School of Management on the Pietermaritzburg campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. He can be contacted by email: phirim@ukzn.ac.za or by phone: (033) 260 5843

The primary objective of the dissertation is to determine how children react to advertisements with an emphasis on peer interaction, and how peer interaction can lead to consumption of a particular brand.

Data collection is through a questionnaire which has been approved by the department of education, school body as well as the UKZN research department. In addition to this, in select cases there will be a short screening of advertisements (all of which are rated ‘All Ages’) in which children’s behavioral patterns will be observed.

Please note that neither your name nor your child’s name will be included in the report, as only summary data will be collected. Anonymity and confidentiality is of utmost importance and will be maintained throughout the study.

Your child’s participation in completing the questionnaire is completely voluntary. Both you, and your child, have the right to withdraw at any time during the study without any prejudice.

I appreciate the time and effort it would take to participate in this study. I would be very grateful for your child’s participation, as it would enable me to complete my dissertation and post graduate degree.

Thank you very much for your assistance,

Andrew Wright
Student Number: 204510628

Please complete the section below:

I, _____ hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to my child _____ participating in the research project.

I understand that participation is voluntary and my child is at liberty to withdraw from the research at any time, should he/she desire.

Comments: _____

Signature of Parent/Guardian: _____

Date: _____

Appendix D – DOE Approval



kzn education

Department:
Education
KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwar

Tel: 033 341 8610

Ref.:2/4/8/112

Mr. Andrew Wright
7 Ipiti Road
Kloof
KwaZulu-Natal
South Africa

Dear Mr. Wright

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **An Assessment of Tweens Cognition of Advertisement and Propensity to Consume**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The Period of investigation is limited to the period from 01 September 2011 to 01 September 2012.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Mr. Alwar at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report / dissertation / thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Director-Resources Planning, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200.
10. Please note that your research and interviews will be limited to the following Schools and Institutions:

10.1 Kloof Junior Primary	10.6 Pinetown Junior Primary	10.11 Forest Hill Primary
10.2 Kloof Senior Primary	10.7 Pinetown Senior Primary	10.12 Bisley Park
10.3 Hillcrest Primary School	10.8 Winston Park	10.13 Mountain Rise Primary
10.4 George Cato	10.9 Ixopo Primary	10.14 ML Sultan
10.5 Atholl Heights	10.10 Regina Primary	


Nkosimathi S.P. Sishi, PhD
Head of Department: Education


Date

...dedicated to service and performance
beyond the call of duty.

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

POSTAL : Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200, KwaZulu-Natal, Republic of South Africa

PHYSICAL: Office G 25, 188 Pietermaritz Street, Metropolitan Building, Pietermaritzburg 3201

TEL: Tel: +27 33 341 8610 | Fax: +27 33 3341 8612 | E-mail: sibusiso.alwar@kzndoe.gov.za |
Web: www.kzneducation.gov.za

Appendix E – Head of School Consent Documents

To Whom It May Concern,

Dear Sir/Madam,

I, Andrew Wright, am currently studying a Master's Degree (M.Com) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. As part of the course, it is required that scholars conduct a research report; I have elected to conduct a report entitled:

"Cognition of Advertisements, Peer endorsement and Tweens Propensity to Consume"

(Tweens are defined as children aged between 8 – 14 years old.)

The objectives of the report are:

- To determine if peer endorsement has an impact on advertising efficiency and propensity to consume.
- To determine how demographic factors influence cognition of advertisements.
- To determine whether tweens understand the selling intent and persuasive nature of advertisements.
- To determine whether comprehension of advertisements influences propensity to consume.

As this report requires data collected from primary sources (i.e. Children) I am approaching schools in KwaZulu-Natal to ask permission to administer a simple experiment involving the viewing of 4 short advertisements (rated All Ages). A basic questionnaire will also be submitted to their pupils to complete (see attached).

Ethics are of main concern when dealing with children, and by virtue, I am ensuring that participation is voluntary, completely anonymous, and will not amount to any immoral actions. Before any questionnaires are administered the researcher will ascertain Department of Education approval, Head of School approval, Parent/Guardian informed consent, and child consent.

Please note that I am conducting this experiment in a personal capacity. Information derived from this report will not be made available to any other organisation other than The University of KwaZulu-Natal. My Academic Supervisor for this dissertation is Dr. Maxwell Phiri who is based at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, School of management studies, Pietermaritzburg campus. I can be contacted through the following means:

Phone: 0828570379

E-mail: wrightoff@live.com

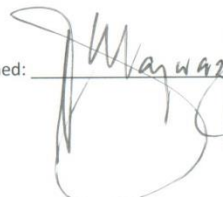
By allowing me to conduct a questionnaire, you will be assisting me with the completion of my research report and allowing me to graduate.

Thank you,



Andrew Wright
Student Number 204510628

I, S. L. MAGWAZA School Consent (Full name of Head of School)
In my authority as head of GEORGE CATO Primary School (Name of School)
grant Andrew Wright permission to distribute a questionnaire entitled "Cognition of Advertisements, Peer endorsement and Tween's Propensity to consume" to participants of the aforementioned school. I understand that before any questionnaires will be distributed, Andrew Wright will ascertain informed consent from Parent/Guardians as well as the department of education

Signed: 

PRINCIPALS OFFICE	Date: <u>07/08/2012</u>
GEORGE CATO PRIMARY SCHOOL	
P.O. BOX 38	
CATO RIDGE 3680	
TEL: 031 782 2060 • FAX: 031 782 1726	

To Whom It May Concern,

Dear Sir/Madam,

I, Andrew Wright, am currently studying a Master's Degree (M.Com) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. As part of the course, it is required that scholars conduct a research report; I have elected to conduct a report entitled:

"Cognition of Advertisements, Peer endorsement and Tweens Propensity to Consume"

(Tweens are defined as children aged between 8 – 14 years old.)

The objectives of the report are:

- To determine if peer endorsement has an impact on advertising efficiency and propensity to consume.
- To determine how demographic factors influence cognition of advertisements.
- To determine whether tweens understand the selling intent and persuasive nature of advertisements.
- To determine whether comprehension of advertisements influences propensity to consume.

As this report requires data collected from primary sources (i.e. Children) I am approaching schools in KwaZulu-Natal to ask permission to administer a simple experiment involving the viewing of 4 short advertisements (rated All Ages). A basic questionnaire will also be submitted to their pupils to complete (see attached).

Ethics are of main concern when dealing with children, and by virtue, I am ensuring that participation is voluntary, completely anonymous, and will not amount to any immoral actions. Before any questionnaires are administered the researcher will ascertain Department of Education approval, Head of School approval, Parent/Guardian informed consent, and child consent.

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Phone: 0828570379

E-mail: wrightoff@live.com

By allowing me to conduct a questionnaire, you will be assisting me with the completion of my research report and allowing me to graduate.

Thank you,



Andrew Wright
Student Number 204510628

School Consent

I, RODNEY STUART..... (Full name of Head of School)

In my authority as head of IXOPO PRIMARY..... (Name of School)

grant Andrew Wright permission to distribute a questionnaire entitled "Cognition of Advertisements, Peer endorsement and Tween's Propensity to consume" to participants of the aforementioned school. I understand that before any questionnaires will be distributed, Andrew Wright will ascertain informed consent from Parent/Guardians as well as the department of education

Signed:  _____

Date: 17/08/2012

IXOPO PRIMARY SCHOOL
PRIVATE BAG 555
IXOPO 3276
TEL: 039 834 2051

To Whom It May Concern,

Dear Sir/Madam,

I, Andrew Wright, am currently studying a Master's Degree (M.Com) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. As part of the course, it is required that scholars conduct a research report; I have elected to conduct a report entitled:

"Cognition of Advertisements, Peer endorsement and Tweens Propensity to Consume"

(Tweens are defined as children aged between 8 – 14 years old.)

The objectives of the report are:

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Ethics are of main concern when dealing with children, and by virtue, I am ensuring that participation is voluntary, completely anonymous, and will not amount to any immoral actions. Before any questionnaires are administered the researcher will ascertain Department of Education approval, Head of School approval, Parent/Guardian informed consent, and child consent.

Please note that I am conducting this experiment in a personal capacity. Information derived from this report will not be made available to any other organisation other than The University of KwaZulu-Natal. My Academic Supervisor for this dissertation is Dr. Maxwell Phiri who is based at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, School of management studies, Pietermaritzburg campus. I can be contacted through the following means:

Phone: 0828570379

E-mail: wrightoff@live.com

By allowing me to conduct a questionnaire, you will be assisting me with the completion of my research report and allowing me to graduate.

Thank you,



Andrew Wright

Student Number 204510628

School Consent

I, D. MARRIEMUTHU (Full name of Head of School)

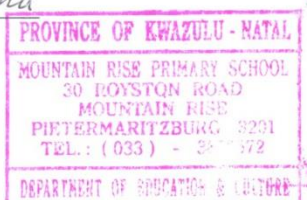
In my authority as head of MOUNTAIN RISE PRIMARY (Name of School)

grant Andrew Wright permission to distribute a questionnaire entitled "**Cognition of Advertisements, Peer endorsement and Tween's Propensity to consume**" to participants of the aforementioned school. I understand that before any questionnaires will be distributed, Andrew Wright will ascertain informed consent from Parent/Guardians as well as the department of education

Signed:



Date: 2012-08-07



To Whom It May Concern,

Dear Sir/Madam,

I, Andrew Wright, am currently studying a Master's Degree (M.Com) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. As part of the course, it is required that scholars conduct a research report; I have elected to conduct a report entitled:

"Cognition of Advertisements, Peer endorsement and Tweens Propensity to Consume"

(Tweens are defined as children aged between 8 – 14 years old.)

The objectives of the report are:

- To determine if peer endorsement has an impact on advertising efficiency and propensity to consume.
- To determine how demographic factors influence cognition of advertisements.
- To determine whether tweens understand the selling intent and persuasive nature of advertisements.
- To determine whether comprehension of advertisements influences propensity to consume.

As this report requires data collected from primary sources (i.e. Children) I am approaching schools in KwaZulu-Natal to ask permission to administer a simple experiment involving the viewing of 4 short advertisements (rated All Ages). A basic questionnaire will also be submitted to their pupils to complete (see attached).

Ethics are of main concern when dealing with children, and by virtue, I am ensuring that participation is voluntary, completely anonymous, and will not amount to any immoral actions. Before any questionnaires are administered the researcher will ascertain Department of Education approval, Head of School approval, Parent/Guardian informed consent, and child consent.

Please note that I am conducting this experiment in a personal capacity. Information derived from this report will not be made available to any other organisation other than The University of KwaZulu-Natal. My Academic Supervisor for this dissertation is Dr. Maxwell Phiri who is based at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, School of management studies, Pietermaritzburg campus. I can be contacted through the following means:

Phone: 0828570379

E-mail: wrightoff@live.com

By allowing me to conduct a questionnaire, you will be assisting me with the completion of my research report and allowing me to graduate.

Thank you,



Andrew Wright
Student Number 204510628

School Consent

I, NEVILLE GREEN (Full name of Head of School)
In my authority as head of WINSTON PARK PRIMARY SCHOOL (Name of School)

grant Andrew Wright permission to distribute a questionnaire entitled "**Cognition of Advertisements, Peer endorsement and Tween's Propensity to consume**" to participants of the aforementioned school. I understand that before any questionnaires will be distributed, Andrew Wright will ascertain informed consent from Parent/Guardians as well as the department of education

Signed: _____



Winston Park Primary School
Private Bag X9001
Gillfitts 3603
Tel: 031 7673214

Date: _____

21/8/12

Appendix F – UKZN Ethical Clearance



UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATALTM
INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

20 August 2012

Mr Andrew Trevor Wright 204510628
School of Management , IT & Governance

Dear Mr Wright

Protocol reference number: HSS/0067/012M
New project title: Cognition of Advertisements, Peer Endorsement and Tweens' Propensity to Consume

Approval and change of dissertation title

I wish to confirm that ethical clearance has been granted full approval for the above mentioned project:

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach/Methods must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol.

Yours faithfully

Professor Steven Collings (Chair)

cc Supervisor Dr Maxwell Phiri
cc Academic leader Professor KK Govender
cc School Admin. Ms D Cunynghame

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Inspiring Greatness



Appendix G – Cronbach’s Coefficient of Alpha

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS – SCALE (ALPHA)

CASE PROCESSING SUMMARY

		N	%
CASES	VALID	505	88
	EXCLUDED ^a	69	12
	TOTAL	574	100

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure

RELIABILITY STATISTICS

CRONBACH’S ALPHA	N of ITEMS ^b
.816	35

SUMMARY ITEM STATISTICS

	MEAN	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM	RANGE	MAXIMUM / MINIMUM	VARIANCE	N of ITEMS ^b
INTER-ITEM COVARIANCES	.166	-.275	1.366	1.640	-4.975	.077	35

SCALE STATISTICS

MEAN	VARIANCE	STD. DEVIATION	N of ITEMS ^b
78.50	249.223	15.787	35

b. Number of variables included in the procedure.

(Source: This Study, Calculated by SPSS)

The rating above shows Cronbach’s coefficient of Alpha for all valid cases.

A total of 69 respondents were excluded from the calculation due to the fact that their questionnaires were not entirely completed or were written in an illegible manner.

As mentioned in *Section 8.4.1*, children had difficulty in comprehending certain components, such as the Likert scale. This accounts for the relatively high exclusion rate in this study.

Appendix H – Inferential Tables

A.1 Introduction

The following tables relate to figures depicted in Chapter 6.

Each section in Chapter 10 is relative to the section which it appears in Chapter 6 (i.e. *Section A.2* contains inferential tables for *Section 6.2*) tables also refer to the figure with the correlated number (i.e. *Table A.1* contains information pertinent to *Figure 6.1*).

When required, in order to generate comparable statistics, quantifiable values were added to responses in the following manner; never = 0, < 1 hour = 1, 1 - 2 hours = 2, 2 – 3 hours = 3, >3 hours = 4.

A.2. Sample Profile

The following tables relate to the sample profile (*Section 6.2*).

Table A.1: Age of Respondent		
	Frequency	Percent
8 Years	82	14.3
9 Years	104	18.1
10 Years	106	18.5
11 Years	97	16.9
12 Years	119	20.7
13 Years	66	11.5
Total	574	100.0

Table A.2: Gender		
	Frequency	Percent
Male	250	43.6
Female	324	56.4
Total	574	100.0

Table A.3: Respondents' Grade		
	Frequency	Percent
Grade 2	43	7.5
Grade 3	107	18.6
Grade 4	101	17.6
Grade 5	112	19.5
Grade 6	111	19.3
Grade 7	100	17.4
Total	574	100.0

Table A.4: School		
	Frequency	Percent
George Cato Primary	209	36.4
Winston Park Primary	181	31.5
iXopo Primary	74	12.9
Mountain Rise Primary	110	19.2
Total	574	100.0

Table A.5: Race		
	Frequency	Percent
Black	372	64.8
White	156	27.2
Indian	21	3.7
Coloured	24	4.2
Japanese	1	0.2
Total	574	100.0

Table A.6: Age (Experiment)		
	Frequency	Percent
8 Years Old	10	5.0
9 Years Old	38	18.8
10 Years Old	48	23.8
11 Years Old	40	19.8
12 Years Old	41	20.3
13 Years Old	25	12.4
Total	202	100.0

Table A.7: Gender (Experiment)		
	Frequency	Percent
Male	93	46.0
Female	108	53.5
Total	201	100.0

Table A.8: Grade (Experiment)		
	Frequency	Percent
Grade 3	45	22.3
Grade 4	40	19.8
Grade 5	46	22.8
Grade 6	37	18.3
Grade 7	34	16.8
Total	202	100.0

Table A.9: Race (Experiment)		
	Frequency	Percent
Black	20	9.9
White	160	79.2
Indian	13	6.4
Coloured	9	4.5
Total	202	100.0

Table A.10a: Group Included the Independent Variable		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	101	50.0
No	101	50.0

Table A.10b: Age * Group Included the Independent Variable Cross-tabulation			
Age	Group Included the Independent Variable		
	Yes	No	Total
8 Years Old	5	5	10
9 Years Old	21	17	38
10 Years Old	20	28	48
11 Years Old	23	17	40
12 Years Old	18	23	41
13 Years Old	14	11	25
Total	101	101	202

Table A.10c: Grade * Group Included the Independent Variable Cross-tabulation			
Grade	Group Included the Independent Variable		
	Yes	No	Total
Grade 3	23	22	45
Grade 4	20	20	40
Grade 5	23	23	46
Grade 6	18	19	37
Grade 7	17	17	34
Total	101	101	202

A.3. Viewing Frequency

The following tables relate to respondents' viewing frequency (*Section 6.3*).

	Frequency	Percent
Never	6	1.0
< 1 hour	103	18.0
1 – 2 hours	182	31.8
2 - 3 hours	101	17.6
> 3 hours	181	31.6
Total	573	100.0

		Age of Respondent						
Frequency	(per day)	8 Years Old	9 Years Old	10 Years Old	11 Years Old	12 Years Old	13 Years Old	Total
	Never	2	2	1	1	0	0	6
	< 1 hour	11	22	18	20	17	15	103
	1 - 2 hours	30	38	28	30	37	19	182
	2 - 3 hours	21	18	15	13	22	12	101
	> 3 hours	18	24	44	33	43	19	181
Total		82	104	106	97	119	65	573

		Who pays for advertisements?						
How often do you watch television? (Per Day)		SABC	TV License	The Product	Government	Other	Total	
	Never	Count	1	1	4	0	0	6
		% Frequency	16.7%	16.7%	66.7%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	< 1 hour	Count	13	15	67	4	3	102
		% Frequency	12.7%	14.7%	65.7%	3.9%	2.9%	100.0%
	1 - 2 hours	Count	19	19	131	6	4	179
		% Frequency	10.6%	10.6%	73.2%	3.4%	2.2%	100.0%
	2 - 3 hours	Count	15	12	66	7	1	101
		% Frequency	14.9%	11.9%	65.3%	6.9%	1.0%	100.0%
	> 3 hours	Count	50	16	101	10	3	180
% Frequency		27.8%	8.9%	56.1%	5.6%	1.7%	100.0%	
Total	Count	98	63	369	27	11	568	
	% Frequency	17.3%	11.1%	65.0%	4.8%	1.9%	100.0%	

Table A.14: Viewing Frequency * Do advertisements always tell the truth? Cross-tabulation

		Do advertisements always tell the truth?			
			Yes	No	Total
How often do you watch television?	Never	Count	1	5	6
		% within Frequency	16.7%	83.3%	100.0%
	< 1 hour per day	Count	10	93	103
		% within Frequency	9.7%	90.3%	100.0%
	1 - 2 hours per day	Count	18	163	181
		% within Frequency	9.9%	90.1%	100.0%
	2 - 3 hours per day	Count	10	91	101
		% within Frequency	9.9%	90.1%	100.0%
	> 3 hours per day	Count	14	167	181
		% within Frequency	7.7%	92.3%	100.0%
	Total	Count	53	519	572
		% within Frequency	9.3%	90.7%	100.0%

Table A.15: How often do you watch television? * Advertising deception Cross-tabulation

		Respondent has experienced advertising deception			
			Yes	No	Total
How often do you watch television?	Never	Count	4	2	6
		% within Frequency	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
	< 1 hour per day	Count	71	32	103
		% within Frequency	68.9%	31.1%	100.0%
	1 - 2 hours per day	Count	135	47	182
		% within Frequency	74.2%	25.8%	100.0%
	2 - 3 hours per day	Count	69	32	101
		% within Frequency	68.3%	31.7%	100.0%
	> 3 hours per day	Count	135	46	181
		% within Frequency	74.6%	25.4%	100.0%
	Total	Count	414	159	573
		% within Frequency	72.3%	27.7%	100.0%

A.4. Selling Intent of Advertisement

The following tables relate to the selling intent of advertisements (*Section 6.4*).

	Frequency	Percent
The SABC	98	17.2
TV Licenses	63	11.1
The Product	370	65.0
Government	27	4.7
Other	11	1.9
Total	569	100.0

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	370	65.0
No	199	35.0
Total	569	100

Who pays for Advertising?		Age of Respondent						Total
		8 Years	9 Years	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	13 Years	
Who pays for Advertising?	The SABC	19	22	17	15	17	7	97
	TV Licenses	8	13	12	10	13	8	64
	The Product	52	58	66	64	83	48	371
	Government	1	7	7	6	3	2	26
	Other	1	2	4	2	1	1	11
Total		81	102	106	97	117	66	569

Identified Source of Funding		Age of Respondent						Total
		8 Years	9 Years	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	13 Years	
Identified Source of Funding	Yes	52	58	66	64	83	48	371
	No	29	44	40	33	34	18	198
Total		81	102	106	97	117	66	569

	Frequency	Total Respondents	Percent of Respondents
Private Necessity	177	202	87.6%
Private Luxury	192	202	95.0%
Public Necessity	187	202	92.6%
Public Luxury	172	202	85.1%

Table A.19a: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Private Necessity)								
		Age						Total
		8 Years	9 Years	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	13 Years	
Identified Selling Intent	Yes	7	33	40	40	37	20	177
	% of Age	70.0%	86.8%	83.3%	100.0%	90.2%	80.0%	87.6%
	No	3	5	8	0	4	5	25
	% of Age	30.0%	13.2%	16.7%	0%	9.8%	20%	13.4

Table A.19b: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Private Luxury)								
		Age						Total
		8 Years	9 Years	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	13 Years	
Identified Selling Intent	Yes	9	33	47	40	40	23	192
	% of Age	90.0%	86.8%	97.9%	100.0%	97.6%	92.0%	95.0%
	No	1	5	1	0	1	2	10
	% of Age	10.0%	13.2%	2.1%	0.00%	2.4%	8.0%	5.0%

Table A.19c: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Public Necessity)								
		Age						Total
		8 Years	9 Years	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	13 Years	
Identified Selling Intent	Yes	7	31	45	40	40	24	187
	% of Age	70.0%	81.6%	93.7%	100.0%	97.6%	96.0%	92.6%
	No	3	7	3	0	1	1	15
	% of Age	30.0%	18.4%	6.3%	0.0%	2.4%	4.0%	7.4%

Table A.19d: Identified Selling Intent * Age Cross-tabulation (Public Luxury)								
		Age						Total
		8 Years	9 Years	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	13 Years	
Identified Selling Intent	Yes	9	31	42	36	33	21	192
	% of Age	90.0%	81.6%	87.5%	90.0%	80.5%	84.0%	85.1%
	No	1	7	6	4	8	4	10
	% of Age	10.0%	18.4%	12.5%	10.0%	19.5%	16.0%	14.9%

Table A.20a: Advertisements effect on Propensity to Consume Private Necessities		
	Frequency	Percent
Never	227	39.8
Hardly Ever	63	11.0
Sometimes	72	12.6
Most of the Time	47	8.2
Always	162	28.4
Total	571	100.0

Table A.20b: Advertisements effect on Propensity to Consume Private Luxuries		
	Frequency	Percent
Never	302	53.1
Hardly Ever	69	12.1
Sometimes	57	10.0
Most of the Time	31	5.4
Always	110	19.3
Total	569	100.0

Table A.20c: Advertisements effect on Propensity to Consume Public Necessities		
	Frequency	Percent
Never	254	44.6
Hardly Ever	65	11.4
Sometimes	108	18.9
Most of the Time	26	4.6
Always	117	20.5
Total	570	100.0

Table A.20d: Advertisements effect on Propensity to Consume Public Luxuries		
	Frequency	Percent
Never	231	40.7
Hardly Ever	69	12.1
Sometimes	86	15.1
Most of the Time	45	7.9
Always	137	24.1
Total	568	100.0

A.5. Bias Nature of Advertisements

The following tables relate to the bias nature of advertisements (*Section 6.5*).

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	53	9.3
No	519	90.7
Total	572	100.0

		Identified Source of Advertisement Funding		
		Yes	No	Total
Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	35	18	53
	No	334	180	514
	Total	369	198	567

		Identified Source of Advertising Funding			
			Yes	No	Total
8 Years Old	Do advertisements always tell the Truth	Yes	8	4	12
		No	44	25	69
		Total	52	29	81
9 years Old	Do advertisements always tell the Truth	Yes	7	6	13
		No	51	38	89
		Total	58	44	102
10 years Old	Do advertisements always tell the Truth	Yes	6	6	12
		No	59	34	93
		Total	65	40	105
11 Years Old	Do advertisements always tell the Truth	Yes	4	2	6
		No	60	31	91
		Total	64	35	97
12 years Old	Do advertisements always tell the Truth	Yes	6	0	6
		No	77	34	111
		Total	83	34	117
13 years Old	Do advertisements always tell the Truth	Yes	4	0	4
		No	43	18	61
		Total	47	18	65
Total	Do advertisements always tell the Truth	Yes	35	18	53
		No	334	180	514
		Total	369	198	567

Consumption Frequency				Identified Source of Funding		
				Yes	No	Total
				Never	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes
		No	133	72	205	
Hardly Ever	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	0	1	1	
		No	48	14	62	
Sometimes	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	9	0	9	
		No	45	18	63	
Most of the Time	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	4	2	6	
		No	25	16	41	
Always	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	9	9	18	
		No	82	60	142	

Consumption Frequency				Identified Source of Funding		
				The Product	Other	Total
				Never	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes
No	193	86	279			
Hardly Ever	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	5	2	7	
		No	45	17	62	
Sometimes	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	6	0	6	
		No	29	20	49	
Most of the Time	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	3	1	4	
		No	18	8	26	
Always	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	8	6	14	
		No	48	47	95	

Table A.24c: Bias Nature of Advertisement * Propensity to Consume Public Necessity						
Publically Consumed Necessity				Identified Source of Funding		
				The Product	Other	Total
	Never	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	13	6	19
			No	154	76	230
	Hardly Ever	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	4	1	5
			No	47	12	59
	Sometimes	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	10	3	13
			No	66	29	95
Most of the Time	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	2	1	3	
		No	16	6	22	
Always	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	6	4	10	
		No	51	56	107	

Table A.24d: Bias Nature of Advertisement * Propensity to Consume Public Luxury						
Publically Consumed Luxury				Identified Source of Funding		
				The Product	Other	Total
	Never	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	11	6	17
			No	140	70	210
	Hardly Ever	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	4	1	5
			No	48	16	64
	Sometimes	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	6	1	7
			No	54	24	78
Most of the Time	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	4	1	5	
		No	28	12	40	
Always	Do advertisements always tell the truth?	Yes	10	7	17	
		No	63	56	119	

Table A.24e: Propensity to Consume * Advertising Bias * Product Category					
Consumption Frequency		% of respondents who were aware of the advertising Bias			
		Private Necessity	Private Luxury	Public Necessity	Public Luxury
	Never	59.91%	69.18%	66.96%	66.67%
	Hardly Ever	76.19%	72.58%	79.66%	75.00%
	Sometimes	62.50%	59.18%	69.47%	69.23%
	Most of the Time	53.19%	69.23%	72.73%	70.00%
	Always	51.25%	50.53%	47.66%	52.94%
	Mean Total	59.04%	59.25%	65.11%	65.17%

A.6. Persuasive Nature of Advertisements

The following tables relate to the persuasive nature of advertisements (*Section 6.6*).

Age of Respondent		Respondent has experienced advertising deception		Total
		Yes	No	
8 Years Old	Count	53	29	82
	% within Age	64.6%	35.4%	100.0%
9 Years Old	Count	66	38	104
	% within Age	63.5%	36.5%	100.0%
10 Years Old	Count	76	30	106
	% within Age	71.7%	28.3%	100.0%
11 Years Old	Count	72	25	97
	% within Age	74.2%	25.8%	100.0%
12 Years Old	Count	97	22	119
	% within Age	81.5%	18.5%	100.0%
13 Years Old	Count	51	15	66
	% within Age	77.3%	22.7%	100.0%
Total	Count	415	159	574
	% within Age	72.3%	27.7%	100.0%

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Never	281	49.6	49.6
Hardly Ever	83	14.6	64.2
Sometimes	168	29.6	93.8
Most of the Time	27	4.8	98.6
Always	8	1.4	100.0
Total	567	100.0	

		Respondent prefers to buy Advertisements					Total
		Never	Hardly Ever	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always	
Unnecessary Utilisation of Private	Never	126	22	29	23	80	280
	Hardly Ever	28	23	12	3	16	82
	Sometimes	58	15	23	18	53	167
	Most of the Time	8	1	4	3	11	27
	Always	6	1	0	0	1	8
	Total	226	62	68	47	161	564

Unnecessary Utilisation of Private	Never	156	26	32	11	56	281
	Hardly Ever	45	15	6	2	13	81
	Sometimes	82	26	13	15	29	165
	Most of the Time	12	0	4	3	8	27
	Always	4	1	1	0	2	8
	Total	299	68	56	31	108	562
Unnecessary Utilisation of Public	Never	140	26	49	9	55	279
	Hardly Ever	33	16	13	6	13	81
	Sometimes	65	20	40	8	35	168
	Most of the Time	8	2	5	2	10	27
	Always	6	0	0	1	1	8
	Total	252	64	107	26	114	563
Unnecessary Utilisation of Public	Never	137	21	33	19	67	277
	Hardly Ever	34	25	4	9	11	83
	Sometimes	54	16	40	14	43	167
	Most of the Time	4	3	6	2	11	26
	Always	1	3	1	0	3	8
	Total	230	68	84	44	135	561

		Consume Goods Unnecessarily						
		Never	Hardly Ever	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always	Total	
Age	8 Years	Count	37	12	23	6	2	80
		% within Age	46.2%	15.0%	28.7%	7.5%	2.5%	100.0%
	9 Years	Count	51	11	31	7	2	102
		% within Age	50.0%	10.8%	30.4%	6.9%	2.0%	100.0%
	10 Years	Count	55	7	36	3	3	104
		% within Age	52.9%	6.7%	34.6%	2.9%	2.9%	100.0%
	11 Years	Count	48	22	21	5	0	96
		% within Age	50.0%	22.9%	21.9%	5.2%	0.0%	100.0%
	12 Years	Count	55	22	38	4	0	119
		% within Age	46.2%	18.5%	31.9%	3.4%	0.0%	100.0%
	13 Years	Count	35	9	19	2	1	66
		% within Age	53.0%	13.6%	28.8%	3.0%	1.5%	100.0%
	Total	Count	281	83	168	27	8	567
		% within Age	49.6%	14.6%	29.6%	4.8%	1.4%	100.0%

Age	Offset deviation (σ) of Propensity to Consume	Difference From Trend-line Value ³⁵
8 Years Old	0.95	-0.0246 ³⁶
9 Years Old	1.00	-0.0188
10 Years Old	1.04	-0.0029
11 Years Old	1.18	-0.0870
12 Years Old	1.08	0.0688
13 Years Old	1.14	0.0647

A.7. Endorsement of Advertisements

The following tables relate to the endorsement of advertisements (*Section 6.7*).

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Private Necessity	Never	408	71.7	71.7
	Hardly Ever	46	8.1	79.8
	Sometimes	56	9.8	89.6
	Most of the Time	15	2.6	92.3
	Always	44	7.7	100.0
Private Luxury	Never	335	58.7	58.7
	Hardly Ever	57	10.0	68.7
	Sometimes	74	13.0	81.6
	Most of the Time	26	4.6	86.2
	Always	79	13.8	100.0
Public Necessity	Never	222	38.9	38.9
	Hardly Ever	52	9.1	48.0
	Sometimes	102	17.9	65.8
	Most of the Time	57	10.0	75.8
	Always	138	24.2	100.0
Public Luxury	Never	282	49.3	49.3
	Hardly Ever	75	13.1	62.4
	Sometimes	96	16.8	79.2
	Most of the Time	33	5.8	85.0
	Always	86	15.0	100.0

³⁵ Calculated by subtracting the Standard Deviation (σ) value from the corresponding point on the Linear Trend-line; the corresponding point on the trend-line was calculated by substituting the Y-Value (age) into the linear trend-line formula ($y=17.9x - 8.5639$). The trend-line represents the expected consumption at a particular age.

³⁶ A Negative value implies that the trend-line predicted a higher propensity to consume than respondents exhibited.

Table A.29: Age * Importance of Peers' Perception Cross-tabulation

	Peers' Perception is Important	Private Necessity	Private Luxury	Public Necessity	Public Luxury	Total
8 Years Old	Never	43	66	26	23	158
	Hardly Ever	8	11	5	7	31
	Sometimes	10	8	14	16	48
	Most of the Time	6	4	8	12	30
	Always	14	14	28	24	80
9 Years Old	Never	66	54	41	44	205
	Hardly Ever	11	14	10	11	46
	Sometimes	8	21	25	26	80
	Most of the Time	4	2	11	7	24
	Always	14	12	17	16	59
10 Years Old	Never	59	55	41	52	207
	Hardly Ever	5	11	12	14	42
	Sometimes	10	16	20	19	65
	Most of the Time	1	8	5	3	17
	Always	31	16	28	17	92
11 Years Old	Never	65	52	38	46	201
	Hardly Ever	7	11	8	16	42
	Sometimes	7	9	17	16	49
	Most of the Time	2	4	12	3	21
	Always	15	20	20	16	71
12 Years Old	Never	88	85	51	72	296
	Hardly Ever	7	11	12	18	48
	Sometimes	6	11	17	15	49
	Most of the Time	0	3	14	5	22
	Always	18	9	25	9	61
13 Years Old	Never	42	46	25	45	158
	Hardly Ever	2	2	5	9	18
	Sometimes	2	7	9	4	22
	Most of the Time	1	3	7	3	14
	Always	17	8	20	4	49

		Private Necessity	Private Luxury	Public Necessity	Public Luxury
Age of Respondent	8 Years	-0.75	-0.74	0.09	0.09
	9 Years	-1.08	-0.93	-0.45	-0.58
	10 Years	-0.57	-0.76	-0.31	-0.77
	11 Years	-1.09	-0.74	-0.34	-0.75
	12 Years	-1.09	-1.34	-0.42	-1.36
	13 Years	-0.8	-1.14	-0.12	-1.36

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Needless Consumption of Private Necessity	Never	452	79.4	79.4
	Hardly Ever	34	6.0	85.4
	Sometimes	41	7.2	92.6
	Most of the Time	14	2.5	95.1
	Always	28	4.9	100.0
Needless Consumption of Private Luxury	Never	417	73.0	73.0
	Hardly Ever	53	9.3	82.3
	Sometimes	36	6.3	88.6
	Most of the Time	22	3.9	92.5
	Always	43	7.5	100.0
Needless Consumption of Public Necessity	Never	376	66.3	66.3
	Hardly Ever	61	10.8	77.1
	Sometimes	56	9.9	86.9
	Most of the Time	21	3.7	90.7
	Always	53	9.3	100.0
Needless Consumption of Public Luxury	Never	365	64.1	64.1
	Hardly Ever	54	9.5	73.6
	Sometimes	68	12.0	85.6
	Most of the Time	28	4.9	90.5
	Always	54	9.5	100.0

Table A.32: Age * Peer Endorsement influences Consumption						
	Endorsement Influences Consumption	Private Necessity	Private Luxury	Public Necessity	Public Luxury	Total
8 Years Old	Never	60	47	45	44	196
	Hardly Ever	3	13	11	11	38
	Sometimes	10	6	12	11	39
	Most of the Time	4	3	5	4	16
	Always	5	11	7	12	35
9 Years Old	Never	77	69	67	58	271
	Hardly Ever	14	17	13	15	59
	Sometimes	7	6	11	16	40
	Most of the Time	2	7	5	8	22
	Always	3	5	8	7	23
10 Years Old	Never	69	75	78	69	291
	Hardly Ever	6	9	8	6	29
	Sometimes	12	7	7	11	37
	Most of the Time	2	5	3	4	14
	Always	15	10	8	13	46
11 Years Old	Never	84	81	63	66	294
	Hardly Ever	1	1	9	7	18
	Sometimes	5	6	9	10	30
	Most of the Time	3	3	3	6	15
	Always	3	5	10	8	26
12 Years Old	Never	103	91	73	78	345
	Hardly Ever	7	9	14	11	41
	Sometimes	5	8	15	14	42
	Most of the Time	3	3	3	5	14
	Always	1	8	14	11	34
13 Years Old	Never	59	54	50	50	213
	Hardly Ever	3	4	6	4	17
	Sometimes	2	3	2	6	13
	Most of the Time	0	1	2	1	4
	Always	1	4	6	3	14

Table A.33: Distribution Skewness of Peer Influence on Propensity to Consume					
		Private Necessity	Private Luxury	Public Necessity	Public Luxury
Age of Respondent	8 Years	-1.33	-1.03	-1.03	-0.87
	9 Years	-1.55	-1.33	-1.21	-1.05
	10 Years	-1.08	-1.26	-1.39	-1.11
	11 Years	-1.67	-1.56	-1.19	-1.21
	12 Years	-1.75	-1.45	-1.08	-1.18
	13 Years	-1.83	-1.56	-1.39	-1.52

Table A.34: Parent Endorsement of Private Necessity is Important * Age Cross-tabulation

		Age of Respondent						Total
		8 Years	9 Years	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	13 Years	
Private Necessity	Never	5	15	18	28	32	18	116
	Hardly Ever	1	4	5	10	4	6	30
	Sometimes	12	12	14	8	16	5	67
	Most of the Time	7	14	9	9	11	2	52
	Always	57	58	60	41	56	34	306
Private Luxury	Never	17	20	28	22	40	19	146
	Hardly Ever	6	13	6	5	11	5	46
	Sometimes	13	8	13	9	13	7	63
	Most of the Time	7	11	11	12	7	3	51
	Always	38	51	48	48	48	32	265
Public Necessity	Never	2	9	13	12	19	11	66
	Hardly Ever	2	4	6	4	10	5	31
	Sometimes	15	19	6	12	17	8	77
	Most of the Time	7	20	20	12	8	4	71
	Always	55	51	60	55	65	38	324
Public Luxury	Never	11	18	23	19	40	24	135
	Hardly Ever	8	3	5	11	13	9	49
	Sometimes	11	24	18	16	12	2	83
	Most of the Time	12	23	16	9	11	4	75
	Always	40	36	43	42	43	26	230

A.8. Demographic Variables effect on Propensity to Consume

The following tables relate to the effect which demographic variables had on consumption frequency (Section 6.8).

Age	Mean Value
8 Years Old	2.05
9 Years Old	2.00
10 Years Old	1.96
11 Years Old	1.82
12 Years Old	1.92
13 Years Old	1.86

		Unnecessary Consumption					Total	
		Never	Hardly Ever	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always		
Race	Black	Count	187	33	125	19	2	366
		% within Race	51.1%	9.0%	34.2%	5.2%	0.5%	100%
	White	Count	75	43	30	5	3	156
		% within Race	48.1%	27.6%	19.2%	3.2%	1.9%	100%
	Indian	Count	9	4	6	1	1	21
		% within Race	42.9%	19.0%	28.6%	4.8%	4.8%	100%
	Coloured	Count	10	3	6	2	2	23
		% within Race	43.5%	13.0%	26.1%	8.7%	8.7%	100%
	Other	Count	0	0	1	0	0	1
		% within Race	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100%
	Total	Count	281	83	168	27	8	567
		% within Race	49.6%	14.6%	29.6%	4.8%	1.4%	100%

Race	Mean Value
Black	1.95
White	1.83
Indian	2.09
Coloured	2.26
Other	Insufficient data collected ³⁷

³⁷ Only 0.2% of respondents selected their race as 'other', which is insufficient to draw any significant findings.

Table A.40: Sex * Unnecessary Consumption Cross-tabulation								
			Unnecessary Consumption				Total	
			Never	Hardly Ever	Sometimes	Most of the Time		Always
Gender	Male	Count	124	35	74	6	6	245
		% Within Race	50.61%	14.29%	30.20%	2.45%	2.45%	100%
	Female	Count	157	48	94	21	2	322
		% Within Race	48.76%	14.91%	29.19%	6.52%	0.62%	100%
Total			281	83	168	27	8	567

Table A.41: Location * Unnecessary Consumption Cross-tabulation								
			Unnecessary Consumption				Total	
			Never	Hardly Ever	Sometimes	Most of the Time		Always
Socio-Economic Location	Rural	Count	39	8	22	0	3	
		% Location	54.17%	11.11%	30.56%	0.00%	4.17%	
	Semi-Rural	Count	106	21	74	3	2	
		% Location	51.46%	10.19%	35.92%	1.46%	0.97%	
	Semi-Urban	Count	53	5	34	16	0	
		% Location	49.07%	4.63%	31.48%	14.81%	0.00%	
	Urban	Count	83	49	38	8	3	
		% Location	45.86%	27.07%	20.99%	4.42%	1.66%	
	Total		Count	281	83	168	27	8
			% Location	49.56%	14.64%	29.63%	4.76%	1.41%

A.9. Cognition of Advertisements

The following tables relate to respondents' cognition of advertisements (*Section 6.9*).

		Unnecessary Consumption					
		Never	Hardly Ever	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always	Total
Brand Awareness	Yes	224	75	113	17	7	436
	% Awareness	51.38%	17.20%	25.92%	3.90%	1.61%	100%
	No	57	8	55	10	1	131
	% Awareness	43.51%	6.11%	41.98%	7.63%	0.76%	100%
Total		281	83	168	27	8	567

	Age of Respondent						
	8 Years	9 Years	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	13 Years	Mean
The Product	12.07%	23.08%	21.74%	30.77%	22.73%	30.16%	23.53%
Selling Intent	12.07%	12.31%	11.59%	7.69%	12.50%	9.52%	11.03%
Informative	8.62%	10.77%	13.04%	4.62%	6.82%	12.70%	9.31%
Show Prices	6.90%	7.69%	8.70%	3.08%	9.09%	15.87%	8.58%
Deceptive	8.62%	4.62%	4.35%	10.77%	10.23%	7.46%	7.77%
Ads are Funny	10.34%	10.77%	7.25%	12.31%	10.23%	1.59%	8.82%
Ads are Entertaining	12.07%	9.23%	13.04%	7.69%	5.68%	9.52%	9.31%
Ads are boring	8.62%	13.85%	11.59%	7.69%	7.95%	4.76%	9.07%
Full of Colour	8.62%	4.62%	2.90%	10.77%	9.09%	12.70%	8.09%
Ads are Short	12.07%	3.08%	5.80%	4.62%	5.68%	1.59%	5.39%
Total Respondents	58	65	69	65	88	67	408

Table A.44: Primary Perceived Function of Advertisement * Propensity to Consume

		Never	Hardly Ever	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always	Total	
First thing which came to mind when describing advertisements	The Product	Count	54	12	28	2	0	96
		% Unnecessary	56.25%	12.50%	29.17%	2.08%	0.00%	100%
	Selling Intent	Count	25	4	14	2	0	45
		% Unnecessary	55.56%	8.89%	31.11%	4.44%	0.00%	100%
	Informative	Count	23	4	9	2	0	38
		% Unnecessary	60.53%	10.53%	23.68%	5.26%	0.00%	100%
	Shows Prices	Count	13	5	16	1	0	35
		% Unnecessary	37.14%	14.29%	45.71%	2.86%	0.00%	100%
	Deceptive	Count	17	7	6	2	0	32
		% Unnecessary	53.13%	21.88%	18.75%	6.25%	0.00%	100%
	Ads are Funny	Count	12	8	8	6	2	36
		% Unnecessary	33.33%	22.22%	22.22%	16.67%	5.56%	100%
	Ads are Entertaining	Count	18	7	9	2	2	38
		% Unnecessary	47.37%	18.42%	23.68%	5.26%	5.26%	100%
Ads are Boring	Count	17	7	3	2	1	30	
	% Unnecessary	56.67%	23.33%	10.00%	6.67%	3.33%	100%	
Full of Colour	Count	18	5	8	2	0	33	
	% Unnecessary	54.55%	15.15%	24.24%	6.06%	0.00%	100%	
Ads are Short	Count	10	5	6	1	0	22	
	% Unnecessary	45.45%	22.73%	27.27%	4.55%	0.00%	100%	