CHAPTER - II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter seeks to review the existing available research studies in the area of the effects of television advertising on children. It also describes the extent to which the present study may be helpful in filling the existing gap. The literature review excludes the studies conducted by economists and psychologists, pertaining to economic concepts (for example money, value, savings and resource scarcity) and the studies by public health and medical researchers pertaining to children’s consumption of products such as cigarettes, alcohol and illegal drugs. Consumer studies pertaining to children, but not directly concerned with the realm of television advertising and children’s consumer socialization are also excluded from the review.

The studies covered have been classified under the following sub-headings:

2.1 Children understanding of television advertisement – “Cognitive Development Theories”

2.2 Factors influencing customer’s socialization of children

2.3 Media Exposure of children

2.4 Attitude of children towards television advertisements

2.5 Promotional strategies/Promotional appeals used by the Advertisers in television advertisements

2.6 Brand Retention and Brand Recognition in order to test the recall of television advertisements by the children

2.7 Children influence in Family Purchase Decisions

2.8 Parent - Child Conflict Resolving Strategies

2.9 Parents’ attitude and Perception of television advertisements

2.1 CHILDREN UNDERSTANDING OF TV ADVERTISEMENT–COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

Children understanding of TV advertisement means that then must be aware that there is a source that is deliberately creating and presenting through advertisement with an intention to persuade an audience to purchase. This is a basic level of understanding required and it becomes more sophisticated as the child
begins to comprehend who pays for advertisements, who makes them, who benefits them, why they are present on certain channels and not others and so on. Children understanding of advertisement illustrates whether children can distinguish between the informational (or assistive) and the persuasive function of advertising. Researches with children understanding of television advertisements have shown wide disagreements regarding the age at which children can differentiate between program and advertising material and when they understand the persuasive intent of advertising. The literature with regard to children understanding of television advertisements will be divided into two phases: - First part covers the Theoretical perspectives covering cognitive development theories on children understanding of Television commercials and second part reviewed the empirical evidence on children’s ability to recognize advertising, their levels of attention and memory for advertisements, and their recognition of persuasive intent.

2.1.1 Cognitive Development Theories- Theoretical approaches to children’s understanding of advertisements

Cognitive Development Theories explained that child’s ability to comprehend advertising is determined by their current cognitive stage. The researchers have defined the theoretical perspective of stages in which children develop understanding of persuasive intent of television commercials. Piaget (1970) suggested that children ability to comprehend advertising is determined by their current cognitive stage. Piaget theory has been most frequently cited in the literatures about children’s understanding of advertisements and development of children’s logical thinking. He described children’s development in term of four “stages” of logical thought which are summarized as follows:-

(a) Sensorimotor stage (0-2 years) included that period of children’s development from birth to the development of early independent thought and simple problem solving at about the age of two years. Children are able to plan limited series of action (e.g to work out how to reach a toy that isn’t immediately available). Children have limited language and only produces two to three word sentences. So, in this period Piaget precludes children from any possibility of understanding advertisements.

(b) Preoperational stage (2-7 years) showed rapid increase in development of children’s cognitive abilities but they have limited ability to reason logically in problem-solving tasks. They often focus on one dimension of the task which
limits their reasoning. So, in this stage children do not have well-developed understanding of advertising.

(c) The concrete operational stage (7-11 years); children in this stage develop their reasoning abilities by experiences and by interacting with material objects in the world. They can think conceptually and organize ideas in a coherent and stable manner. But even in this stage children’s experience of television is usually as a passive receiver of the medium without the opportunity to question the images they view. With the start of formal period, children develop potential to think about problems in a way similar to adults and to develop their reasoning from experience and learning.

(d) The formal operational stage (11+years); the children develop more logical thoughts, and can think in abstract terms like adults. They develop understanding of television advertisement similar to adults. Any difference between children and adult understanding in this period is more likely the result of different experiences rather than the consequences of different cognitive abilities.

The main limitation of Piaget work was that his work was the analysis of children’s reasoning on problem-solving tasks. Most commonly his theory is invoked in a general manner as a way of indicating that young children have limited cognitive abilities with the implication that if children have limitations, they will also have a limited understanding of advertising.

Roedder (1981)\textsuperscript{2} gave a theoretical approach for studying children’s understanding of Advertisements. She applied three categories (strategic, cued and limited processors) to children’s “Central-incidental” Learning ability. The Rodder, explained the stage at which children develop the ability to understand the “main product message” behind advertisements. The theory explained that only strategic processors (children of 13 or more) are able to get the central message and are capable of ignoring the peripheral information. Cued processors (children of 8 to 12 years olds) focus on the central message of an advertisement either by having that message highlighted in some way or by specific media education to teach children about the purpose of advertising. Limited processors (children below the age of eight years) are unable to focus on central message with or without help. Rodder applied her three categories to children memory development and argued that strategic processors are better at learning new information and remembering the
information. The theory is most often cited as a way of saying that children are in
the “Limited stage”, the “cued stage” and the “strategic stage” and is popularly
known as stage theory.

Deborah Roedder John’s (1999) made an attempt to review a 25 year body
of literature on the “consumer socialization of children”. The focus was on the
developmental sequence characterizing the growth of consumer knowledge, skills
and values as children continue to mature throughout childhood and adolescence.
They classified consumer socialization stages of children as being the perceptual
stage (3-7 years), the analytical stage (7-11 years) and the reflective stage (11-16
years). On the basis of an exhaustive review, she contended that children in the
perceptual stage focus on perceptually salient features of products use direct requests
and emotional appeals to influence purchases, and possess limited ability to adapt
strategy to a person or a situation. They are expedient in making decisions, are
egocentric and have the emerging ability to adapt to cost-benefit trade-offs.
However, children in the analytical stage are more thoughtful, focus on important
attribute information to generate an expanded repertoire of strategies (especially
non-compensatory ones), and are capable of adapting strategies to tasks. In this
stage there is a marked change in children as they begin to appreciate more abstract
concept such as value for money and start to develop understanding of advertiser
intention. In the reflective stage, children have substantial brand awareness for adult-
oriented as well as child-oriented product categories, possess ability to gather
information on functional perceptual and social aspects, and are capable of adapting
strategies to tasks in adult-like manner.

2.1.2 Empirical Evidences on children understanding of TV advertisements

Many Empirical researches have been done to examine children’s ability to
recognize advertising, their levels of attention and memory for advertisements, and
their recognition of persuasiveness intent. Researches attained to assess children’s
ability to differentiate between program and commercial material on television,
using verbal, non-verbal or observational means.

Verbal means involved questioning children and asking them to explain the
difference between the two and dicited a certain level of verbal skills from children.
Non verbal methods rely on gestures such as raising a hand, placing a hand on a
colored square when an advertisement appears. Other methods involved only
minimal verbal skills such as calling out or responding by yes/no to a researchers
questions. Evidence available from existing literature using these methods is herewith discussed.

Robertson and Rossiter (1974)\textsuperscript{4} sought to ascertain the extent to which children were capable of understanding the purpose of television commercials and the effect of such understanding on their attitude and purchase request. For the purpose, they interviewed the first, third and the fifth grade boys from five Catholic schools using the open-ended questions.

The study revealed that children developed increasingly sophisticated recognition about TV commercials, including attribution of persuasive intent with age. They revealed that by the age of 10 or 11, practically all children are able to attribute persuasive intent of commercials, their positive attitude to advertising declines steadily, skepticism grows. Further, children of parents with higher educational level tended to attribute persuasive intent at an earlier age than children of parents with lower educational level. The study indicated that children in this age placed less trust in commercials, disliked them and demonstrated a diminished desire for advertised product and made few purchase requests. Older children in this age voice criticism independently and distrusted the persuasive and commercial intent of advertising.

The principal weakness of the study was the limited generalizability of the results as the sample was limited to the Catholic boys only. Since the study was non-experimental in nature, it has used non-standard open ended interview format. As a result casual inferences were not justified.

Donohue et al (1980)\textsuperscript{5} carried a non-verbal measure to assess the understanding of TV commercials among kids aged 2 to 6 years. The children were shown a television commercial for Froot Loops cereal featuring an animated character called Taucam Sam. After viewing the commercial, the children were provided with picture selection task to measure their understanding for commercial purpose and were asked to point out, “What Toucan Sam (the fantasy spokesman) wants you to do.” Children saw two sketches (i) one showing shopping behaviour (ii) another one illustrating television viewing. The study concluded that 75 percent of the children aged 2 to 3 year correctly pointed to the picture of a mother and child selecting the advertised cereal in a super market which concluded that even young pre-schoolers understand the selling intent of TV commercials.

Levin et al (1982)\textsuperscript{6} is often cited as a key study that demonstrates young
children’s ability to differentiate between program and commercial material on television. Children aged three, four, and five years were asked to identify videotaped television segments as either programs or commercials using minimal verbal skills. The results showed that children as young as 3 years old could correctly identify television content as program or commercial but could not explain the difference between them. Identification by young children may be based on perceptual cues (for example the short length of advertisement, its colours, the speed of action of the presence of a jingle) rather than on the distinction between entertainment and selling intent.

Macklin (1987) conducted a non-verbal study to measure “pre schoolers’ understanding of the information function of Television Advertising.” Two studies were undertaken to examine preschoolers understanding of the relationship between television advertising and the buying process. Study (i) included 120 pre-schoolers from a large Midwestern city. The respondents were shown a cereal commercial promoting a popular cereal available for sale in marketplace. The commercial was not already broadcast locally. The commercial featured animated characters as product endorsers. Children tapped their responses on game board. Study (ii) included 45 preschoolers and required them to enact behaviour indicating an understanding of purchase stimulated by advertising.

The results from the two studies incorporating non-verbal response methods indicated that a (majority) of older preschoolers were able to indicate an understanding of the informational function of television commercial. The study suggested that a (majority) of preschoolers relayed informational understanding when linguistically abilities were not-critical to successful completion of the task.

The second study tested the superiority of visual effects by comparing it with audio effects and it was indicated that children who only heard and children who only watched the information performed equally well and concluded that no visual superiority effect was found. Findings suggested that the critical element in children’s processing was comprehensibility of the information presented, rather than the modalities perse. The limitation of the study was small sample size and non-applicability of any recognition test to assess in-store information.

Bijmolt et al (1998) in their study “Children’s understanding of TV advertising: Effect of age, gender and parental influence” tested whether children aged from five to eight years would distinguish advertisements from programs and
their understanding of commercial. Children were asked to place their hands on a red square during a commercial. Bijmolt et al (1998)\(^8\) found that almost 90% of the children recognized both transitions, that is, from program to commercial and from commercial to program. However, when asked to verbalize the difference between commercials and programs, only 8% of the five and six-year old children gave correct and relevant answers.

Kara Chan (2000)\(^9\) conducted a study to examine Chinese children’s understanding and comprehension of television advertising. A quota sample of 448 children made of 32 girls and 32 boys from kindergartens and grades 1-6, were personally interviewed and their knowledge about television advertising was tested with their responses divided into four categories-low, medium, high; and do not know. A low response included the naming of specific products and the fact that advertisements interrupt programs, medium responses included assistive intent, and a high awareness involved knowledge of persuasive intent. Chan commented that the age of eight was a watershed in development of knowledge and understanding, as her results showed a marked increase on both these measures after this age, and children below eight had difficulty in verbalizing what constituted a commercial. By the age of 12, two thirds of children demonstrated medium knowledge of television advertising.

Oates et al (2002)\(^10\) tasted the children aged between six and ten years with regard to their understanding, recall and recognition of novel television advertisements. Two experiments were carried out. None of the six year olds and only a quarter of the eight year olds and a third of the ten year olds discussed advertisements in terms of persuasion. The most common response across all age groups was that advertisements existed simply to provide information about products. Children were able to recognize the scenes from advertisements after one exposure but recall of brand names was poor for the younger children, even after three exposures. Recall for the advertising content increased by age and number of exposures. The authors concluded that advertisements do make an impression on children, but the majority of children in the study did not recognize the persuasive intent.

Chan and McNeal (2002)\(^11\) using three in-depth focus group with 22 children, reported that children aged nine to 12 years demonstrated some understanding of the functions and selling intention of television advertising.
Children of this age also showed awareness and understanding of public service announcements and could explain the difference between these and other advertisements. Nevertheless, they remained confused about the financial aspect of advertising, suggesting, for example, that advertising slots cost millions of dollars. 

Lawlor and Prothero (2003)\textsuperscript{12} argued that other aspects of advertising also need to be considered. When they probed eight-to nine year-old children about their understanding of television advertising is the showed awareness of some of the wider issues regarding advertising. They discussed the role of television channels in selling space to advertisers, the financing of programmes by advertising, advertising as aspirational, advertising as entertainment, and the convenience of advertising breaks. The latter is sometimes dismissed as a rather unsophisticated response and as something that many younger children would say (but often this is the only answer young children will offer as to the purpose of advertising). But Lawlor and Prothero argued that it is a valid point from the children’s perspective because advertising breaks permit them to plan other activities during the break, such as consuming food and drink.

Rosemary Duff, (2004)\textsuperscript{13} conducted a child wise monitor survey with 1200 children of 7-11 years and found that they are familiar and comfortable with the role of advertising in their lives. They understand that T.V. advertisments prime role is to inform the potential customers about new products, and to give details about existing products. They are equally aware that motive of ads is to sell. Children accept the commercial messages as a fair exchange for the information they receive, but many children implicitly feel that excessive persuasion will only lead to become part of the process if the product is somehow deficient.

Khatibe A et al (2004)\textsuperscript{14} used both verbal and non-verbal measurement techniques to investigate children’s understanding of T.V. adveristements. Research found that majority of children aged between five and eight have some understanding of T.V. advertising and they are capable of differentiating between program and commercials especially if this understanding is assessed by non-verbal rather than verbal measures. The findings also indicated that child’s age has a substantial positive effect on his understanding of TV advertising.

Kapoor and Verma (2005)\textsuperscript{15} investigated children’s understanding of TV advertising in a comprehensive study in Delhi. Their findings revealed that children as young as six years could understand the purpose of T.V. adveristements and
distinguish between a commercial and a TV program. With an increase in the age of the children cognitive understanding of the ad increased and children above the age of eight years were able to respond to TV ads in a mature and informed manner.

Panwar and Agnihotri (2006)\textsuperscript{16} made a study titled “Advertising message processing amongst urban children”. Data were collected from 250 children aged between 7 and 12 years, drawn from five major towns of western state of Gujarat (India) by using the cluster sampling approach. The main objective was to find out whether children understand the advertising intent and is there any differentiation on the basis of age, gender and family status. The result showed that children understand that basic objective of advertisement, which is to inform about the products and also to persuade them to buy these products and also know that medial vehicles carrying advertisements gain financially from the advertisements.

2.2 FACTORS EFFECTING CHILDREN’S CONSUMER SOCIALIZATION – “HOW CHILDREN LEARN TO BUY”.

There is a growing interest among international business firms in knowing what social agents are involved in the development of consumer behaviour among children. There is a growing body of knowledge about the consumer behavior of children around the world. While the majority of all consumer socialization and development studies originated in the US and focused on US children but now in literature there are studies reported from Canada, China and a few from Pacific Rim Countries a few of which are mentioned below.

Ward and Wackman (1971)\textsuperscript{17} conducted a survey of 1,094 eighth to twelfth graders in the Prince Georges Country, Maryland, school district. The focus of the research was to know the development of consumer learning among adolescents. The result suggested that three variables are important predictors of consumer learning for both younger and older adolescents: communication in the family about consumption, social utility reasons for viewing television commercials and the amount of exposure to magazines. For younger adolescents, reasons for watching commercials are also important for intervening variables exposure and purchase. The learning of advertising slogans is to be mainly a function of the intelligence of the adolescents. The study concluded that adolescents’ consumer learning is not simply an individual stimulus response phenomenon, but is a social learning process. It may be fruitful to think of media advertising as shaping the content and form of interpersonal perceptions and communication, rather than considering the
media as dispensers of product information.

Ward, Wackman and Wartella (1977) conducted an interesting study to examine “how children learn to buy” identifying children’s acquisition of buying skills. 615 mother-child pairs were interviewed. The kindergarten third and sixth graders from Boston city were selected. The results showed that the role of the family in children’s consumer learning varied according to their different social status and their different ages. Children observe the consumption behaviour of their parents: they hear that parents discuss expenses and see which products are bought and used. Parents act as a role model for their children. Parent influence the degree to which children achieve consumer knowledge through the type, quantity and quality of consumer experiences and information they share with the child. Finally, the relationship between exposure to TV commercials and children’s consumer learning was not found very significant.

Moschis and Churchill (1978) undertook a study to examine the influence of mass media, parents and peers on the youths’ development of specific consumer-related motives and values. The sample of the study consisted of 806 adolescents from 13 schools from Wisconsin. Attempts were made to represent the sample with a balanced number of both sexes in age group of 12 to 18 years olds.

The result showed that amount of television viewing and consequently the number of television advertisements to which adolescents are exposed, predicts their social motivations for consumption and materialistic attitudes. More exposure to the medium may lead to the learning of the “expressive” aspects of consumption. The date showed that learning from television is linked mainly to the uses the adolescent makes of television, especially the commercial content, much of which was assumed to be of social nature. The family was reported teaching “rational” aspects of consumption to adolescents. Peer influence also seems to be important socialization agent to the learning of materialistic values to the adolescents.

Moschis and Moore (1979) in their article examine decision-making patterns among teen-age consumers. The study hypothesised that as young people interact with the mass media, they are exposed to a variety of advertisements and as a result develop favorable orientation towards brand. 734 respondents from several
cities and towns, from rural Georgia were selected. The effect of family and peers on the children’s purchase behaviour was also examined. The result showed that information source preferences vary according to type of product. Parents were preferred as source of information for products where price, social acceptance and performances are of great concern (wristwatch, dress shoes, pocket calculator and hair dryer) Peer was recognized as important in buying decisions concerning item important for peer acceptance, like Sunglasses and wallets, while mass media ranks relatively low and preferred for items where price, performance were of little concern (flash cubes and household batteries).

O’Guinn and Shrum (1997)21 presented in their article the results of two-study inquiry into a particular type of consumer socialization: the construction of consumer social reality via exposure to television. In study 1, estimates of the prevalence of products and activities associated with an affluent lifestyle were positively related to the total amount of television respondents watched. The amount of television viewing was shown to function as a mediating variable between the demographic variables income and education and the affluence estimates. In study 2, which consisted of student participants who were either vary heavy or very light soap opera viewers, heavy viewers again provided higher estimates of the prevalence of the same types of products and behaviors measured in study 1. In addition, heavy soap opera viewers constructed their estimates significantly faster than light views, which suggests that relevant information is more accessible in memory for heavy viewers than light viewers.

McNeal and Hwa Yeh (1997)22 examined the nature and extent of Chinese children’s consumer behavior. Two questionnaires were distributed in five schools in Beijing and Tianjth to children in grade k-5 who returned them to their teachers after completion; 45 percent girls and 55 percent Boys participated in the study. The result showed that children of all ages receive an allowance but it is more likely to be given to children of 8 year and above. Little spending was shown among 4 and 5 years old and maximum when they reach by the age of 12. Most children of all ages make some independent purchases while shopping write their parents or grand parents. Food stores were most frequently visited by children of 4-10 year while book stores are number one with children of 10 year and over. Toy stores rank second with the young set of children followed by food stores in importance for the older children. Street merchants were also preferred by children and last rank was
given to department stores. The study showed that children were frequently taken by their parents to market place as co-sources which soon emerges independent purchase behavior among them.

James and Mindy (1999)\textsuperscript{23} conducted a study among 460 children in grade 4, 5 and 6 in the elementary school of the Beijing metropolitan area to examine children’s perceptions of the relative importance of different information sources. It was found that how children use to learn about new products is highly related to the types of products ($x^2 = 1183.70$, if = 128, p= 0.000). For expensive items like books, computers, cassette players, bicycles, clothing and shoes, children listed parents as main sources of information (34.33 percent) followed by Store Visits (23.31 percent) and 16.46 percent reliance on T.V. adveristements. For all personal care products like soap, shampoo and toothpaste, parents and T.V. adveristements play an important and equal role a total of 68.33 percent of children listed either of them. For learning about new snack foods children gave more importance to themselves, visit to stores (30.50 percent), on TV (27.26 percent) and on parents (13.84 percent) and least to friends (10.14 percent). Lastly, for all play items, sports equipments, toys and video games, all sauces on an average, visit to store (22.64 percent) TV (22.38 percent) and friends (20.53 percent) play an equal role as information sources.

Dotson and Hyatt (2005)\textsuperscript{24} conducted a survey among 663 students in grades 4-11 at several schools located in rural, urban and suburban areas in a Southeastern state. The sample consisted of 316 female and 346 male children. The purpose provided an empirical explanation of how the consumer socialization process works with today’s children. The finding showed that five major consumer socialization factor influence the children purchase behaviors: irrational social influence, importance of television, familial influence, shopping importance, and brand importance; then were used as dependent variables in subsequent analyses looking at the effects of a number of independent variables. Results also indicated that the relative impact of the various consumer socialization influence/factors do vary according to the child’s gender, age, amount of spending money available, amount of television viewing, and how he/she spends time after school.

Sabrina Neelay (2005)\textsuperscript{25} investigated the importance of parental influence, family make-up and other demographic factors on children socialization. Written surveys were distributed to parents of children between two and eight years’ age in a
Southwest US city. The results revealed that parents engage in consumer behaviour instructions through both direct and indirect means. Direct consumer learning in the intentional instructions by the parent for the purpose of teaching the child some aspects of consumer learning while in direct learning is the unintentional instruction of some aspect of consumer behaviour that is initiated by the child through direct observation or participation. The study revealed that most consumer instructions between parents and children do not take place directly. Parents place children in consumer situation, as in many situations parents and children are together when activity takes place often referred to co-shopping. However, parents’ socialization behaviour seems to be most related to individual characteristics of the child, as parents are most restrictive and make more decisions for younger children them older children. The family socio-economic status also appears to play a role in consumer socialization. It was found that parents with higher education level engage in more co-shopping and consumer media and are most skeptical of advertising directed towards the children.

Chan and McNeal (2006)\textsuperscript{26} examined how rural children in Mainland China learn about new products and services, interact with different types of retail shops and their attitudes toward different sources of product information were also examined. A survey of 1008 rural children aged from 5 to 13 years, in four Chinese provinces, was conducted in March 2003. Results indicated that rural Chinese children have limited access to various types of retail shops. Rural children perceived personal sources more useful as well as more credible than commercial sources in obtaining information about new products and services. Older children found parents and grandparents less useful and less credible than younger children for new product information. However, older children did not find peers more useful and credible than younger children.

Fiates. R.M. Giovanna \textit{et al.} (2008)\textsuperscript{27} examined consumer behaviour of a group of Brazilian children using a qualitative approach. Twelve focus group interviews were conducted with primary school students (7-10 years, n=57), and results were processed through content analysis. Many, but not all students received an allowance, mostly from parents and grandparents. Many students spent the money immediately or after just saving only enough to buy a desired item; others preferred to save their money for the sake of saving it or for a specific future endeavor. Money was spent mainly on food, toys and clothes; sometimes on the
impulse of the moment and associated with later guilt. Television was considered a big source of information on new products, but regarded as untrustworthy. When they could not get what they wanted, most children appealed to negotiation strategies; many also reported feeling sad or upset. Results showed a situation of late socialization as consumers, suggesting that the children could benefit from consumer education strategies targeted at them.

Aoud El. H. Nibrass and Neeley M. Sabrina (2008)\(^{28}\) examined teenager-peer interaction and its contribution to a family purchase decision. Data were collected from 1008 Tunisian Teenagers at a secondary school and a college in Sfax in a region of Tunisia and teens from only traditional family households were included. Peers are an important influence during adolescence and marketing action should reflect this influence. Promotions for products intended for the teenagers’ use (e.g. clothing) may be more convincing if the presentation shows a teenage accompanied by peers, because during adolescence, teenagers express a need to identify themselves with peers. The relevance of a product to a teenager may be strengthened or validated by communication and interaction with peers about that product. The study provided a more current and complex model of adolescent influence with one limitation that it focuses on ‘teenager-peer interaction’ on teenager’s contribution to the purchase decision, however, parent interaction the interaction, of the adolescent with brothers and sisters, etc., may contribute to model improvement.

### 2.3 STUDIES ON MEDIA EXPOSURE OF CHILDREN

Kubey and Larson (1990)\(^{29}\) provided descriptive information on how the new video media are used by children and adolescents and also reported how often the new video media are used, in what social contexts, and how young people do so. The data was obtained using the Experience Sampling Method (ESM), 483 subjects aged 9 to 15 were selected. Respondents carried electronic paging devices and reported on their activities and subjective experiences when signaled. General descriptive findings on the use and experience of three forms of new video entertainment, music video, video games, and videocassettes, are reported. For boys, these new video media were associated with higher reports of arousal and more positive affective states than was the case for the activities of television viewing, reading, and listening to popular music. Relatively to boys, girls reported lower affect and arousal, especially during video games and music videos.

Van der Voort et al (1998)\(^{30}\) carried out a national survey in Britain
(N=1309) and the Netherlands (N=1355) with British and Dutch children aged 6-11 with respect to; (1) the ability of different media in children’s homes and particularly in the children’s own room; (2) the amount of time spent on different media; and (3) the gratification associated with the use of different types of media. The result revealed that both of British and Dutch children have access to television sets or a video recorder in their own room. Dutch children have greater access to computers in their homes and are much more likely to have internet links. Almost every child in both countries watches television (UK 95%; Netherlands 99%). With regard to time spent, British children watch considerably more television than their Dutch counterparts. In both countries, the youngest children watch least; boys and working class children in both countries watch slightly more.

Smaragdi J. Ulla et al (1998) conducted a comparative analysis among youth of three countries i.e. Flanders, Germany and Sweden to examine as to how children and adolescents integrate the so-called ‘new’ media, i.e computer-based media and services, as a part of their media environment. The findings reported that television undoubtedly still occupies a dominant position in the lives of children and teenagers in all the counties. With regard to PC and television related games, availability and amount of use differ considerably, with Swedish young people being ahead of those in Flanders and Germany. Secondly, correlation and factor analyses lead to remarkably similar factor structures for the three factors, indicating that these correlations represent more general trends in how young people combine different media.

Donald F. Roberts (2000) examined the use of television, video-tapes, movies, computers, video games, radio, compact discs, tape players, books, newspapers, and magazines among a random sample of 2065 U.S. adolescents aged 8 to 18 years, consisting of African-American and Hispanic youth. The results showed that U.S. younger children are immersed in media. Most households contain most media (computers and video game systems are the exception); the majority of youth have their own personal media. The average youth devotes 6¾ h to media; simultaneous use of multiple media increases exposure to 8 h of media messages daily. Overall, media exposure and exposure to individual media vary as a function of age, gender, race/ethnicity, and family socioeconomic level. Television remains the dominant medium. About one-half of the youth sampled use a computer daily. A
substantial proportion of children’s and adolescents’ media use occurs in the absence of parents.

Keith Roe (2000)\textsuperscript{33} in conference proceedings about European adolescents’ media usage reported that adolescents’ use of mass media differs significantly by gender, family life, social economic status and education, according to recent studies. Boys are more likely than girls to have a television in their own room, and content preferences are dramatically different. Mother’s educational status was also reported to be more directly related to patterns of electronic media use than father’s and adolescents’ commitment to school has been shown to predict music preferences.

Jorian Clarke (2002)\textsuperscript{34} conducted a study to examine internet usage, revealing how kids’ habits and preferences have changed over the time. The study investigated the issues: (a) Time spent by kids on internet (b) kids opinions about the future role of the internet in society (c) parents’ role in kids’ online activities (d) kids’ attitude towards the future of e-commerce. The study revealed that kids’ internet usage continues to increase with 48\% saying they have been online for a couple of years and also with an average of five to ten hours, time spending online for medium users. More than 80\% of kids aged 7 and younger reported that their parent limited the amount of time they are allowed on the internet compared to 70\% aged 8 to 12, and 65\% who are 13 years old or older. Consistently high numbers predict that the Internet will be used for all computer games in a global, multi-player usage format and that the Internet will be more popular than T.V. in five years’ time; kids show great interest in mobile devices. One third currently own at least one device (mobile phone, pager, handheld or pocket (PC).

Davie Ronald \textit{et al} (2004)\textsuperscript{35} examined mobile phone ownership and usage among pre-adolescents. Research has revealed that the mobile phone is, for adolescents, a medium which permits communication without the surveillance of parents, families and teachers. Indeed, the current study found this to be the case with younger pupils, too. However, communicating with family members appeared just as important, if not more, for these primary aged children. This study focused on the ownership and usage of mobile phones in a sample (N = 351) of 10- to 11-year old children in Gloucestershire primary schools (N = 7). Some 45\% of the sample possessed mobile phones. Nearly half of their calls (47\%) were used for chatting with family or friends; 26\% were to let their parents know their whereabouts; and
others (20%) were “convenience” calls, i.e. to ask to be picked up etc. Other uses of the mobile in addition to chatting and making arrangements, although not always positive, were also made apparent. Thus, some two fifths of the children reported that they had made “emergency” calls (examples were given), about 17% had received “frightening” calls. A sizeable minority (20%) reported that their mobile had been damaged or stolen. This research also considered the amount of money that pupils claimed to have spent on their mobile calls every month as well as their means of purchasing the mobile and its up-keep.

Fredrik Soderqvist et al (2007) performed a population-based study to assess ownership and use of mobile phones and cordless phones among children aged 7-14 years. 2000 children were selected using a stratified sampling scheme. The response rate was 72%. The study showed that most children had access to and used mobile and cordless phones early in life and that there was a rapid increase in use with age. It also showed very low use of hands-free equipment among children with mobile phone access, only 5.9% reported use of hands-free equipment. Use of cordless phones was reported by 83.8% of the respondents and 38.5% of them talked for 5 minutes or more per day. Girls generally reported more frequent use than boys.

Andersen. P. Lars et al (2007) investigated and compared ownership and usage of new media among young “tween” consumers in Denmark and Hong Kong. The survey was conducted among 434 fourth, fifth and sixth class students in both the societies. The result showed that Household ownership of new media, ownership of mobile phone and heavy use of the internet were found to be more prevalent among Danish tweens than among Hong Kong tweens. Danish tweens were more likely to use mobile phones and the internet for interpersonal communication and for enjoyment than Hong Kong tweens. Hong Kong tweens used the internet more for educational purposes than Danish tween. The results seem to support that adoption and consumption of new media are motivated differently in cultures of individualism and collectivism, and consequently that the tween consumer segment is not as globally homogeneous as it claimed to be. The mean limitation of the study was that it was based on a convenience sample, thus it may be problematic to generalize from the findings.

Chan and Fang (2007) in their paper examined the use of traditional media as well as Internet among young people in Hong Kong. A survey of 405 Chinese persons aged 15-24 in Hong Kong was conducted in February 2006 using a self-
administered questionnaire. The study found that internet plays a prominent role among the young people in Hong Kong, a majority of respondents spent one to three hours per day in the internet. The main reason for internet usage was for listening to music and for fun. The internet was preferred media choice for information-driven activities. Magazines retained importance for entertainment and shopping activities while the television retained importance for new and current affairs. Most of the respondents found useful web sites through search engines interpersonal information sources gave way to the internet for obtaining information about sensitive issues.

Gareth Davey (2008)\(^{39}\) examined children’s media usage in an urban and a rural area in China and the study investigated radio, Internet, DVD and computer game usage among children aged between 13 and 15 years. T-tests were used to compare the periods of time when urban and rural children used media, and multiple regression was used to measure the extent to which independent variables were related to and predicted media usage. The findings showed that a greater proportion of children in the urban sample used media such as television, Internet and computer games, and that rural-urban residency had the most significant craze for television viewing. Besides, more urban children reported that their parents had concerns about media usage, whereas a greater proportion of children in rural area had televisions in their bedrooms and ate meals while watching television and such behavior come down was associated from Western Culture resulting into unhealthy lifestyle.

Watten G. Reidulf et al (2008)\(^{40}\) investigated gender profiles in the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), primarily the Internet and mobile phones, and problems encountered in the use of these technologies. The sample survey consisted of teenagers, 4294 of 15-16 years (2067 females and 2227 males) from two counties in Eastern Norway, who had participated in a nationwide survey administered by the National Institute of Public Health. The results showed that Norwegian girls used the Internet far more often for social activities such as chatting and e-mail while boys preferred to use it for entertainment and computational activities, such as Gaming, E-commerce, viewing multimedia, and for programming. Girls used their mobile phones far more often for Text messaging (Short Message Service – SMS) than boys, who more frequently used their mobile phones for technical functions (alarm, gaming, Internet, etc.) There was no gender gap in everyday phone usage.
J. Devis-Devis et al (2009)\textsuperscript{41} examined screen media time usage (SMTU) and its association with personal and socioeconomic factors, as well as the effect of season and type of day, in a Spanish sample of 12-16 year-old school adolescents (N = 323) with Statistical analysis of covariance and structural equation models. Results showed an average of 2.52 h per day of total SMTU and partial times of 1.73 h per day in TV viewing, 0.27 h per day in computer/videogames, and 0.52 per day in mobile use. Four significant predictors of SMTU emerged. Firstly, the type of school was associated with three media of out study, particularly students from state/public school spent more time on them than their private schools counterparts. Secondly, older adolescents (14-16 years old) were more likely to use computer/videogame and mobile phone. Boys spent significantly more time in mobile phone than girls. Additionally, results revealed that adolescents seemed to consume more TV and computer/videogames in autumn than in winter and more TV and mobile phones on weekends than on weekdays.

M. Haverilla (2012)\textsuperscript{42} investigated the evolution of specific cell phone feature preferences among high school, undergraduate and graduate college students in Finland. The study analyzed the responses of 118 high schools, 268 undergraduate and 84 graduate students from educational institutions located in the metropolitan area of Tampere, Finland. The results indicated that the students in Finland consider the specific feature “clock”, “phone”, “high battery life”, “alarm”, “calendar” as very important, and the specific features “TV connectivity”, “joystick”, live TV”, “Twitter”, and “small screen size” as unimportant features. There were also significant differences in the specific feature preferences among high school, undergraduate and graduate students. In addition, there were differences in the way the respondents conceptualize the specific feature preferences of the cell phone. The paper concludes with a discussion regarding the academic and managerial implications.

2.4 **CHILDREN ATTITUDE TOWARDS TV ADVERTISING**

From the age of 8 years onwards, children develop some knowledge about advertising, some skepticism (“as they realize that ads are not only entertainment and information but are sometimes untruth” Roedder John–1999). Children are confronted with substantial daily doses of advertisement in multiple media. Everyone seems to hold an opinion about various aspects of advertising ranging
from amusement and admiration to cynicism and condemnation. On the one hand, advertising is appreciated enough to be the subject of TV talks, shows and comedy skills, to have reels of award winning commercial play in theaters, to hear advertising slogans worn proudly on clothing and becoming idiom of everyday speech. On the other hand, consumer fears covert manipulation and subliminal techniques and often complain about advertising clutter sexism, and predation of children. Consumer segment of advertising is of great importance because it impedes advertising credibility and reduces marketplace efficiencies (Chan K, 2001). However, evidence regarding the extent to which children’s attitudes and beliefs about advertising function as cognitive defenses against advertising is mined. Many researchers from past 20 years have tried to find children’s general attitudes toward advertising and have developed several belief factors on which attitude depends. A few studies available in the literature assessing children general attitude towards TV advertisement are discussed below:

Rossiter (1977) developed a seven item scale to measure the children’s attitudes towards advertising on a four point likert scale (Yes – I agree very much); yes, I agree, no – I disagree, No – I disagree very much) and tested this with 9-12 years old children. The item reflected a range of cognitive and affective reactions towards television commercials. For convenience in the analysis, the items were abbreviated as TRUTH, ANNOY, GOODONLY, LIKE, PERSUADE, BELIEVE and BESTBUY respectively! The three items out of seven describe the credibility dimension, two items the likeability of commercials and the last two the persuasive power of television advertising. The scale measures a single dimension that can be interpreted as a measure of children’s attitude towards television advertising and a moderate reliability (test-retest reliability of .67 and Cronbach’s coefficient alpha of .69). The children showed a negative attitude towards television commercial. However the test seems to include a fairly balanced set of items;

Barling and Fullagar (1983) carried out a study to assess children attitudes to television advertisement. Five hundred and forty five middle class white boy and girls (average age 10.67 years) completed a 28 item scale after viewing TV commercials, Factor analysis of item yielding two interpretable factors, labeled as “Entertainment and Irritation–Boredom”. It was found that there was a considerable difference between children attitude and adult attitude towards TV advertisement. Children view television advertisements almost entirely in terms of their
entertainment function. Their purchase behaviour may not be manipulated by such advertisement. They found two reasons for this (a) their perception of these advertisements may not be consistent with the advertisers’ primary intentions and (b) they are less entertained and more irritated and bored with such advertisements as they grow old.

Pollay and Miltal (1993) conducted an exploratory study to build and test a more comprehensive model of beliefs and attitudes towards advertising and to identify the latent factors in consumers’ belief structure about advertising. Two independent samples: Collegians from Ohio Valley State University (n = 188) and householders (n = 195) were surveyed using a self–administered instrument in which all belief and attitude statements were measured on 5–point likert scale. The Model included three personal utility factors (Product information, social image information, and hedonic amusement) and four socioeconomic factors (good for economy, fostering materialism, corrupting values, and fast/sense). The proposed 7- factor model explained considerable variance in global attitudes towards advertising, 62.4 % for collegians and 55.9 % for householders. Different factors played a dominant role in two samples. Most respondents exhibited conflict between an appreciation of the personal uses and economic value of advertising and an appreciation of cultural degradation. The reason of disagreement was because of factors such as age, family responsibilities, life styles, media availability and secondly belief interact with preferences and value system to determine overall dispositions between two populations.

Sharon Shavitt (1998) designed a study to provide a national picture of public attitudes towards advertising. Television survey of over 1,000 adult consumers assessed the general public’s current attitudes toward and confidence in advertising. Results indicate a more favorable evaluation of advertising than previous by reported studies in the same region. Respondents reported more liking towards advertisement than disliking. They tended to report that they enjoyed the advertisements they saw, and found it more informative and useful in guiding their own decision-making. The tended to feel more confidence in advertising claims when they went for their actual purchase decisions. Males, younger consumers, persons with education and income, and non whites generally reported more favorable advertising attitudes than others do. People’s feelings of enjoyment and indignity elicited by advertisements played the strongest role in accounting for their
overall attitudes towards advertising.

Yang C. Chung (2000) investigated college students’ attitudes towards advertising in Taiwan using a survey method. The study applied to two advertising constructs and their operationalizations which were developed in the USA: beliefs about advertising and attitudes towards advertising in general (AG). The main focus of the paper was to determine whether the factor structure of these beliefs’s similar to those in the USA and other South Asian Countries. Six belief factors were extracted and they accounted for 56.5% of the variance. Even though the results from the factor analysis did not replicate the results from the USA and other South Asian Countries perfectly, the similarities were large enough to conclude that the belief structure underlying AG is similar to these regions. These consistent findings provide a benchmark for future study on cross-national consumer beliefs about advertising and AG.

Derbaix and Pecheux (2003) made an attempt to develop a new scale measuring 8 to 12 year olds general attitudes towards TV advertising. As the attempts made in the past by (Riecken and Yavas 1980, Rossiter, 1977) to assess the children attitude towards TV advertising, dated back to 20 years, so, a new investigation of children’s advertising attitude seems absolutely necessary. The result of the oblimin factor analysis revealed two-factor structures, out of 23 items originally comprised. The first factor, relating to the entertainment dimension to TV advertising is made of 6 items like Great, Good like, Feel like and pleasure while two items relating to the credulity of TV advertising. Belief and Truth loaded on a second factor. The test-retest reliability by correlating the scores of each child (for each validity diagonal from .815 to .792) displayed very good results which showed that advertising scale is stable over time. So the authors showed confidence that they have developed a measurement tool that is truly TV advertising perception driven.

Noor Hasmini (2004) conducted a study to examine Malaysian children’s attitudes towards television advertising. 252 Malaysian primary school children aged 10-12 years were selected with the help of random sample method. In line with Rossiter’s study children attitude towards television advertising was measured on a 7-item scale, focusing on the range of cognitive and affective reactions towards television advertising in terms of perceived truthfulness, potential annoying qualities. From the findings it was clear that Rossiter’s (1977) scale was affectively applied among Malaysian children, even in a small area in Kedah. Children attitude
towards advertising was main predictor on purchase of goods. The more positive attitude, the more influence they make on parent purchase.

Chan and McNeal (2004) examined Chinese children’s perceived truthfulness of and liking for television advertising in three Chinese cities with different developmental levels of advertising. An in-person survey of 1758 children (ages 6 to 14) was conducted between December 2001 and March 2002 using a structured questionnaire. Results indicate that a majority of children perceive half of the television commercials to be true, although this varies by grade and geography. Children in Beijing perceived television commercials to be more trustworthy than did children in Nanjing and Chengdu. The percentage of children who perceive all commercials to be true declines consistently with grade in all three cities. Children in higher grades depend more on brand and user experience while children in lower grades hold both a strong liking and disliking for commercials. These strong feelings towards advertising decreased with grade, being replaced by a marked increase in neutral or indifferent feelings. Perceived truthfulness of television advertising is related positively with liking for commercial.

Petrovici and Marinov (2005) in their paper explored the relationships between determinants and primary antecedents of advertising and attitudes to advertising in the context of European Union accession countries. Data was collected from major urban areas of Bulgaria and Romana. The study conceptualises an extended version of Pollay and Mittal’s model of beliefs and attitudes towards advertising. Findings confirm that consumers in the two countries are more positive about advertising as an institution that the instruments used to promote advertising. While product information acquisition is the main personal use of advertising which influences general attitudes to advertising in Bulgaria, the entertaining value of advertising was found the strongest personal use in Romania. No significant differences were found in the attitudes towards the institution and instruments of advertising in the two countries.

M. D’Alessio et al (2009) carried a study chiefly aimed of describing a new scale to assess children’s attitudes towards TV advertising that measures 3 dimensions, credence, enjoyment and purchase-intention, as well as demonstrating its psychometric reliability and validity. Self-report measure of children’s attitudes towards TV advertising is described. The self-report scale was administered to 300 8- to-10-year-old children, and their parents completed a questionnaire evaluating
socioeconomic status, educational level and peer influence. Results of a factor analysis supported three identifiable factors reflecting theoretically base constructs of children’s attitudes toward TV advertising enjoyment, credence and behavioral-intention. The scale showed good convergent validity and internal consistency. Credence of TV advertising decreases significantly according to age groups. The implications of the findings for future theoretical and empirical development of research was also discussed.

Dr. Mohammed Ismail El-Adly (2010) examined to identify the impact of advertising attitudes on the intensity of TV advertisements avoiding behavior. 400 Egyptian adult viewers of TV in Greater Cairo represented the study population. Discriminate analysis was used to discriminate between these two groups of TV ads avoiders and then t-test was used to investigate the hypothesis related to their attitudes to TV advertisements. Principal component factor analysis was also used to identify the different factors of attitudes towards TV ads. Six attitudinal factors were revealed: reliability of TV ads, value distortion, consumers’ showing off, enjoyment, usefulness of TV ads, and embarrassment. The study shows that the more negative the attitudes to TV ads, the greater the intensity of TV ads avoidance and vice versa. Advertisers should consider that ads avoidance is a real fact which cannot be ignored. Therefore, they must take this avoidance into consideration in planning and executing advertising campaigns. Finally, this study offers a number of academic and practical recommendations.

2.5 PROMOTIONAL APPEALS/PROMOTIONAL STRATEGIES

Miller and Paul Busch (1979) conducted a study, titled “Host Selling vs. Premium TV Commercials: An Experimental Evaluation of their Influence on Children”. The objective of the study was to ascertain the influence of host selling and premium TV commercials on children. For the purpose, an experimental analysis of host selling, premium and announcer television commercials directed towards children was conducted. Stage of cognitive development, sex and race of the children were also taken into consideration. The researchers observed that premium format commercials were more effective than host and announcer commercials in producing desired behaviour.

The results indicated that premium television advertising influenced children’s attitudes and behaviour. But it did not consider the impact of various other variables such as the amount of television viewing, family income, children’s
I.Q. level and attitude towards TV commercials.

Dale Kunkel (1992) conducted a study on ‘Children television advertising in the multi channel environment’ addressing the research questions: How extensive was advertising to children? What products were promoted, and by what strategies? To simplify the data for analyzes the product types were reduced to six basic grouping, listing with their principal constituents: toys (toys and computer games); cereals/breakfast foods (cereals, waffles/syrups); sugared snacks/drinks (candles, cookies, snacks, sodas and other sweetened drinks); fast foods; healthy food/drink and others.

Each ad was assigned one primary theme/appeal to describe the promotional strategies embodied in the segment overall. Out of 20 themes coded, the 4 key ones were fun/happiness, taste/flavour/smell, product performance and 16 additional were based upon: power/speed/appearance/personal gain/texture, unique/economy/prices etc. The result revealed that two of the six product groups, toys and cereals/breakfast foods, together accounted for more than half of all ads observed; sugared snacks/drinks accounted for three fourth (74.6%) of all commercials and healthy food represented only 2.8 per cent of all advertising to children. The most prevalent theme was fun, happiness, accounted for roughly one fourth (26.6%), of all ads of the many other themes, two were found most frequently: taste/flavour/smell (18.8% of all the ads) and product performance (18.3%) with just three themes/accounting for almost two thirds (63.7%) of all advertising to children, the remaining approaches measured were observed rather frequently. Among the least common approaches used to promote products were safety/quality of material and peer status and popularity. The study further relates that each of the most common themes/appeals was closely tied to particular types of product ads as it was seen that 46.6% cereal/breakfast ads and 36.8% sugared snack/drink commercials used taste/flavour/smell as promotional theme in their ads.

Weinberger and Gulas (1992) reviewed almost twenty years of researches on the use of humor as common practice in advertising and their synthesis of the current literature led to several conclusions, some of which are highlighted by them: (a) humor attracts attention, (b) consumer non-durables are best suited to humor treatment, (c) soft drinks and snack foods are best suited to humor, (d) humor enhances liking, in fast, the link between humor and liking is stronger than for any other factors. (e) the nature of the product affects the appropriateness of a humor
treatment. Though humor is used with many types of products, its use is more successful with existing rather than new products. Humor also appears to be more appropriate for low involvement products and feeling oriented products.

Moniek Buijzen and Patti M. Valkenburg (2002)\(^5\) examined the content analysis of 601 commercials in order to identify the appeals that characterize commercials aimed at children and teenagers. Each appeal was coded as being present or absent in the commercial. The commercials were distinguished on the basis of commercials “typically aimed at children” or “typically aimed at teenagers” and aimed at a general audience.

The result showed that the most typical appeals in commercials aimed at male children were action-adventures, sports and play, whereas commercials aimed at female children emphasized nurturing, physical attractiveness, friendship and romance. Having the best, competition and achievement were the dominant appeals in commercials aimed at male teenagers, whereas romance, sexuality and belonging to group were emphasized in commercials aimed at female teenagers.

Appeals with regard to product categories were humor, quality, fun, and newness which were prevalent in every product category. In contrast, appeals such as play, pleasant taste, health and safety seem to be more specially associated with toys, food products, personal care products, and cars respectively. It was found that certain products are more often advertised to specific age groups as more than 70% of commercials aimed at children are commercials for toys and candy. It is through these commercials for toys and candy that children are confronted with specific child-related appeals, such as play, fun, action-adventure and humor.

Neeley and Schumann (2004)\(^6\) extended previous studies examining spokes-character influence on children and examined the effects of character, action and voice. Two experimental studies i.e. 22 second two-dimensional animated nock commercials illustrating a character paired with a product were created for each study. All participants were two to five year old (study 1 mean age = 46 months, study 2 mean age = 43 months). The results revealed that advertisements containing an animated spokes-character generate high levels of attention, character recognition and liking, and product recognition and liking. Matching rate of spokes-character to the advertised product was relatively very high. Researchers found that due to inconsistent behaviour of children they only named and respond to lost toy
they played with or food they ate. The main limitation of the study was that the researchers assumed that the presence of spokes-character is beneficial to the development of product.

David Allan (2006)\textsuperscript{61} examined the effect of popular music in advertising to determine the effect of both theoretical and practical implication of music on the processing of advertising messages. Fifty two percent of the subjects were female and 48 percent were male. Fifty-eight percent of the subjects were white, 27 percent were African American, 6 percent were Ascan, and 7 percent defined themselves as others, all the participants were randomly assigned to hear one of the four tapes. The result revealed that popular music ads were effective stimulus of attention and memory than advertising without popular music. The popular music clearly has attention elements attached to brand name recalling. It also has ability to enhance memory for the brand. However effects of significant songs and artists on the brand memory were observed for one of the brands (Long) and the artist (Eminent) sensitive to the level of personal significance they have for advertising message integrated in popular music than females.

Robert and Pettigrew (2006)\textsuperscript{62} conducted in-depth interviews with 22 mothers of primary school children, all mothers reported that premiums led to pestering and begging for product purchases. Mothers thought that premiums involving collectables were particularly influential in driving demand for food products such as sweet cereals, chips and fast food. Mothers also noted that their children associate ‘fun’ with premiums (such as the trading of Tazos or cards) and, subsequently, the brand. However, fun was also associated with products themselves, as distinct from the premium (participants said that their children play with fun foods’ by dunking (Dunkaroos), unwinding (Roll-ups) and shredding (Cheese Stringers).

Page M.R. and Brewster A. (2007)\textsuperscript{63} examined the extent to which promotional strategies and attention elements appear in a sample of children” food commercials. 147 distinct food commercials were selected as samples. 20 separate promotional strategies and 20 different attention elements were analysed. The findings showed that the most frequently used promotional strategies were the use of jingles/ slogans, showing children the food, and the use of product identification characters. The use of animation, real children, animals with human characteristics,
fast cutting scenes, exciting fast-paced music, humor and color effects were the most used attention elements in the commercials.

The limitation of the study was that sample used in this analysis was obtained from broadcast networks and did not include cable network programming. The current study did not assess the promotional strategies or attention elements used in commercial targeting different age-groups of children.

Ganapatthy V. (2009) in his article explains that ‘humor’ is a strong weapon for many brands to draw the customers’ attention. To beat the clutter and break the ice, companies are increasingly using humor in their ads as it forces the audience to watch, laugh, enjoy and most importantly help the audience to recall the brand. Humorous ads have better and easy recall because they elevate the consumers’ happiness and moods. Humor can be deployed in various ways, which include, using a comedian; capitalizing on the current Topics; strong Idea-based humor, which requires low investments and which low high in emphases purchases and those ads which have to explain the benefits of the products to customers more clearly. Now many advertisers are using comedian to introduce humor in ads as leading Brand Dominos Pizza has recently taken the services of Paresh Rawal to be successful.

Prabhi G (2009) in his article on advergame discussed the concept of advergramming and its effectiveness to promote the products and increase sales. Companies are using games, particularly computer games or video games such as “power of pepsimen”; American Army; Urban Jungle etc. through which players are exposed to a company’s brands and attempts are made to turn the players into customers. Empirical facts given by Jupiter Media Metrix reveal that 80% of the internet users pass information about the game to other persons and 49% pass it to more than three persons. 31% of the respondents are below 18 years and play online games for one or more hours per week. NASSCOM study on animation and gaming in India estimated that gaming industry in India would reach $300mn by the end of 2009. Several companies like ICICI prudential life insurance, airtel etc. are using advergames for advertising their products.

Maheshwari (2009) in her article “animation in advertising” gave reasons why in India animated characters are increasingly being used as the face of the brands. The animation industry in India is expected to grow to Rs. 42 bn in 2009 from Rs. 12bn in 2007. The major reasons for this tremendous growth in animated
industry were: - i) Availability of high tech animated studios, supported by necessary hardware, software and communication infrastructure, ii) Increase of demand in animation in advertising industry due to: (a) dynamic medium that uses motion to tell a story or to create an appeal; (b) Lesser TV airtime is consumed as lengthy messages can be packed in shorter time; (c) the most famous AIDAS (A-attention, I-interest, D-desire, A-action, S-satisfaction) theory fits in animated ads as viewers get attracted towards them naturally.

At last the author concluded that as the advertising world is becoming more challenging, animated characters are increasingly being used as they have certain unique attributes that prompt the advertisers to tap into the capabilities of this dynamic medium.

Pandey (2010)\textsuperscript{67} carried out empirical study using customer sampling methods with a sample of 400 consumers in Jharkhand among school and college students as the respondents of the study. The objective of the study was to find out how consumer respond to the product that a celebrity endorses. The study found that there was a positive relationship between celebrity endorsements and purchase intentions as celebrity endorsement, both single and multiple, creates a positive attitude towards advertisement and positive attitude towards the brand.

Steve Dix \textit{et al} (2010)\textsuperscript{68} investigated in their paper how sports celebrities can be perceived as role models and influence young adult consumers’ purchase and behaviour and intention and also to examine whether this influence differs between males and females. A convenience sample was drawn from students in university in Western Australia. The results revealed that attitude role model endorsers have a positive influence on young adults’ product switching behaviour, complaint behaviour, positive word of mouth behaviour and brand loyalty. This confirms the assumption that sports celebrities are important socialization agents and can have significant impact on purchase behaviours and intention of young consumers.

Boyland J. Emma \textit{et al} (2011)\textsuperscript{69} conducted a study to quantify the natures and extent of use of persuasive marketing techniques in television advertising to promote foods to children. Popular UK commercial television channels broadcasting children’s/family viewing were recorded for 2 days. (6am – 10pm) every month in 2008 and recordings were coded for peak/non-peak children’s viewing time and representation of core (healthy) non-core (unhealthy)/miscellaneous foods. The analysis assessed use of persuasive appeals, premium offers, promotional characters
(brand equity and licensed characters), celebrity endorsers and website promotion in food adverts. Promotional characters, celebrity endorsers and premium offers were used more frequently to promote non-core than core foods, even on dedicated children’s channels. Brand equity characters featured on a greater proportion of food adverts than licensed characters. This extensive analysis of television adverts demonstrated that the use of persuasive marketing techniques to promote unhealthy foods was extensive in broadcasting popular ads with children despite regulations.

2.6 RECALL OF TV ADVERTISEMENTS BY THE CHILDREN

Gorn and Goldberg (1980) examined the effects of repeated exposure of commercial on children’s recall, recognition and preferences. 151 male children between the ages of eight and 10 years were examined. The boys were randomised into six groups with five conditions and one control. The control group watched an animated program without any embedded commercials. The conditions groups watched a cartoon program in which six different advertisements for one brand of ice cream were embedded, varying either by the number or combination of advertisements shown. The children were more accurate than not in recalling the number of advertisements they were exposed to, with no significant difference in recall between those who saw the same advertisement and those who saw variations of the advertisement. Those who saw three or five advertisements were more likely to identify the correct name of the ice cream brand and the number of flavours. While repetition improved recall accuracy for specific information, it did not have any effect on the participants’ preferences or planned behaviour.

Dubow S. J., (1995) investigate “Advertising Recognition and Recall by Age” with a main purpose to register the memory by age phenomenon for advertising in several types of literature. The main focus was to include both younger versus older respondents phenomenon and to examine the data the day-after-recall measure for brand recall and brand recognition. 996 commercials which address the full span of adults, men and women, ages 18 to 65 and results showed that average recall score was lco parent-much higher than for any of the adult age groups. The data revealed that younger adults recall advertising better than older adults, but they also add the finding that teens demonstrate higher recall scores than younger adults. For brand recognition, pictures and scripts for the test commercials in a photo story board format with a brand name blocked net was drawn on the
research instrument. The results showed that average recognition scores are highest among teens and decrease monotonically with increase in the age of respondents.

Stone et al (2000)\textsuperscript{72} examined three advertising effectiveness dimensions in a local random telephone survey asking respondents most disliked or liked commercials. The study was based on the following important hypothesis: 

a) People are able to recall favourite and disliked commercials.
b) Recall of all commercials is associated with liking or disliking the brand.
c) Recall of both favourite and disliked commercials is associated with hours of watching television and inversely related to age.
d) Recall of favourite or dislike commercials will be the same regardless of race, education, income or gender.
e) Favourite commercials are likely to be more creative.

Chi-square and ANOVA test showed that people recall commercials they like more than those they dislike; rejected the hypothesis. Almost every subject was able to name the brand liked and disliked commercial correctly and watched more hours of television which showed that hours of watching television was strongly related to recall. The results further showed that younger people were much better at recall than older people thus rejected the hypothesis but race, education, income or gender do not effect the recalling ability of the people; the study’s major contribution may be its novel way of identifying that even an unknown product or service may gain quick recognition through a particularly memorable commercial. The limitation of the study is from a methodological stand point “memorability” used in the study, may be considered as better measure of commercial effectiveness than recall.

Oates and Gunter (2002)\textsuperscript{73} illustrated that young children have a poor memory for novel advertisements. In an experiment with six to 10 year olds, children were exposed to video featuring a cartoon with advertisements inserted at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the program. Three novel advertisements from South Africa and the United States were used, presented in a counterbalanced order so that a third of the children each saw one product advertised once, one advertised twice, and one advertised three times. One day later, recall memory was tested by asking the children to name the brands they had seen in the advertisements and to answer six yes/no questions about the advertisements.
Children were also shown seven stills, two of which came from advertisements and were asked to select the stills from the advertisements to test recognition memory. This was repeated three times. For six-year-olds, brand name recall was very poor, even when an advertisement had been seen three times. Recall of advertising content measured by yes/no question was also poor, as children seeing advertisement once performed no better than chance, although repeated viewing led to increased accuracy. However, recognition of still yielded more impressive results, with 72% of six-year-olds selecting the appropriate stills for an advertisement they had seen only once. This figure rose to 83% when choosing a still from an advertisement they had watched three times. The study concluded that six-year-olds have poor recall of novel advertisements but good recognition skills.

Achenreiner BG and John RD. (2003) explored the way that children use brand names in making consumer judgments. They examined this proposition in an experiment conducted with children 8-12 and 16 years of age. Participants were asked to evaluate an advertised product (e.g. athletic shoes) with a familiar brand name that was either popular (e.g. Nike) or less popular (e.g. Kmart). The advertised product was physically identical in both cases, allowing the researchers to explore whether the brand name had meaning for children apart from its name familiarity or perceptual features. The participants were asked to make several types of brand-related judgments, including evaluations of the advertised product impressions of the owners of the advertised product and evaluations of possible extensions of the popular brand name advertised. Results indicate that by the time children reach 12 years of age, they use brand names as an important conceptual cue in consumer judgments.

Richard et al (2006) conducted a study to analyse the audio-visual effects on children’s recall. 77 first grade and 69 fourth grade students of both sexes examined children's processing of television advertisements by testing their recall of stimuli in audiovisual audio-only and video-only conditions. It was investigated how much information children were able to recall from a single exposure to a television advertisement, how much accuracy there is in their recall and how this recall differs according to age. Results demonstrated that, generally, children are able to recall much information from a single exposure to a television advertisement accurately and that recall increased with age. Visual information appears to be more memorable and readily recalled than audio information with visual stimuli tending to have
adverse effects on the processing of audio information.

Mikhailitchenko A. et al (2009)\(^7\) in their paper addressed the issue of visual imaging in cross-cultural consumer research and also investigated the relationship between visual imagery, brand familiarity, and brand claim recall in two cultural environment of US and Russia. The samples were drawn from university students in each country including approximately equal number of male and female respondents with age falling within the 20 to 30 year old range. Two chocolate brands both of which operate in market, were chosen for the experiment. Two ads, one consisting of text only were created for each brand. Two ways ANOVA followed by post-hoc tests was used for testing the hypothesized main and interaction effects. The finding stated that high level of brand-related schema that can use the cognitive capacity and interfere in the elaboration of the new image-evoked information. The associative Links evoked by images (e.g., milk chocolate, peanests, raisins) result in higher attribute recalling abilities for consumer from image-intensive media environment indicating that image-intensive tools generate different returns depending on the level of brand familiarity and cultural media.

2.7 CHILDREN INFLUENCE IN FAMILY PURCHASE DECISIONS

Ward and Wackman (1972)\(^7\) examined 132 mothers of 5 to 12 years old children in the Boston metropolitan area. The research focused on the impart of television advertising on mother-child interaction and further attempt was made to analyse children’s attempt to influence mothers’ purchases of various products. Mothers were asked to indicate the frequency of their children’s purchase influence attempts for 22 products, all of which were heavily advertised. Analysis of data indicated that children frequently attempted to influence purchases for food products, but these attempts decreased with age.

Durables used by children were the second most requested products’ category. Mothers of younger children (5-7 years old) indicated frequent influence attempts for game and toy purchases, while mothers of older children (11 to 12 years old) indicated frequent purchase influence attempts for clothing and record album. However for all categories purchase attempts decrease with age.

Galst and White (1976)\(^7\) carried out an experimental study among 41 children (20 girls and 21 boys) aged 3-11 and 5-11 (mean age 4-7) with an objective to explore that children’s purchase influence attempts at the supermarket were related to the reinforcement value of television commercials and the amount of T.V.
time children were exposed to at home. The finding revealed that the more commercial television he or she watched at home, the greater the number of purchase-influencing attempts directed at his or her mother at the supermarket. Cereals and candy were the most heavily advertised and requested food item by children – 8% of all the purchase – influencing attempts were for cereals – 68% of these were for sugared cereals, 28% for unsugared cereals. Thus there does seem a correspondence between the sweetened cereals and sugared shack food that dominate children’s TV commercials.

Jenkins, 1979\(^7\) conducted an exploratory study focusing on the perceived role of the children in family decision making in the areas of furniture items, automobile, groceries, life insurance, savings and general family decisions specially with regard to vacation decisions.

The results showed that children exerted minimal influence in the major decision categories i.e. prices of furniture major appliances, automobiles, groceries, family saving and insurance decision, however they have a high influence in vacation decisions.

Regression analysis showed that husband’s age and no. of years of married life are significantly related to influence of children for vacation decisions. However husband education and parental style were negatively correlated with children influence on family decision areas.

Foxman \textit{et al}, 1989\(^8\) attempted to provide a more realistic picture of family influence relationship by examining family triad-mother, father, and child. The research goal was to characterize perceived influence relationship among their family members. 161 family triads including father, mother and adolescent child in three Northwestern towns were included. The result revealed that mothers, fathers and children all rated children as having some influence in purchase decisions for a variety of products. Children tended to have more say in the purchase of products that are rather expensive and for their own use. Additionally compared to parents’ ratings, children appeared to overstate their relative influence. Due to dual Earnings; family income is increasing and it is not surprising that parents at least perceive themselves to have greater influence in purchasing matters than their children do. Several factors like older father, a concept oriented family communication style, fewer children, and a mothers who worked fewer hours outside the home were found responsible for increased children influence in family purchases.
Beatty and Talpade, 1994 replicated and extended some elements of Foxman et al (1989a) study and examined adolescent influence in family decision making by examining, parental employment status (i.e. dual-vs single income status) as well as examining gender-based differences in perception. Four hundred and twenty nine students completed the questionnaire. Data was analysed with the help of factor analysis and variances. The results showed a clear connection between product importance and adolescent influence in family decision making.

The teens’ financial clout seems to allow them greater say in initiating self-purchases, but not in family purchases. Parents’ dual income status allows adolescents greater influence in some family durable purchases, but this does not affect self purchases where their influence is already substantial. These effects are pronounced for products that teens care for (e.g., stereo) and use often (e.g., telephone). Parents’ dual income status seems to allow teens greater influence for some durable family purchases. The study provided an integrative model of teenager influence at the same time addressing measurement concerns by creating a reliable multi-item dual stage scale that examined teens’ influence on purchases. However, it suffered from the limitations of self-reported data and open-ended questions in questionnaire.

Monglaburg et al, (1999) examined the effects of family type and family authority relations and adolescents’ purchase influence. The purpose of this study was to examine how and why children’s purchase influence might vary under different types of families. Differences in influences as perceived and reported by parents were examined across single parents step-parent and intact families. 172 questionnaires were distributed through teens 87 parental responses were received.

The study focused on adolescent direct influence on purchase decisions as reported and perceived, decisions as reported and perceived by a parent, or the extent to which teams actively participated in a given decision perception of influence were related on seven point scales anchored by “parent (s) made decision alone”, to “team made decision alone” parents rated their children’s influence over products which were framed a prior as family or teen related (e.g. “family toothpaste”, “deodorant for team”) family related products included television, living-room furniture, microwave, toothpaste, breakfast cereal, snack food, and soft drinks and team” related product included; clothes, bedspread, deodorant, movie, shampoo, and perfume / cologne.
The result showed that adolescents in single parent families had greater influence on both type of product decisions as compared to adolescents in step families and intact families as they are subject to less parental coalition formation and authoritarianism in parent child relations which in turn, enhances their influence in purchase decisions. The result supported the previous studies (Larki E, 1977) that step-parents have less positive effect towards children than original parents do. Finally, the study was consistent with other research on children’s influence (Foxman et al 1989; Beatty & Talpade 1994) which demonstrates the importance of factors as product type, which affect team’s motivation to influence decisions.

Dhobal, 1999 noted that across stages of product adoption—awareness, knowledge, preference and conviction of fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCGs), and services, children were previously inactive in all stages of adoption except for the actual adoption stage. However, today, children are active in all the five stages of adoption of durables as well as FMCGs. He reported that in the new urban Indian family, children were influencers/co-deciders at the time of purchase of personal products, consumables, financial products, vacations, educational products, and family automobiles while they were buyers of family toiletries and initiators or gatekeepers for purchases of household durables.

Lachanes et. al. 2000 carried a study with an objective to examine the relationship among family structure, parent-child communication and adolescent participation in family consumer tasks and decisions. The data was collected by means of convenience sample compared with 1535 French- speaking students (Grades 7 to 11) in District 03 of the province of Quebec, Canada. The results showed that adolescents whose parents are perceived as using more conceptual style and / or a social style of communication tend to show a higher level of participation in discussion. This participation appears to represent an opportunity for parents to encourage their teenagers, whatever their style, to develop as consumers. The study had to believe that for parents using a more social style for adolescent participation is more the expression of parental control and of adolescent objectives to parental demands. Thus, it may be the amount of discussions or interactions per se that best explain this participation.

Kapoor, 2001 collected information from families in Delhi in regard to their roles across stages of purchase decision-making for six durables-televisions,
refrigerators, washing machines, personal computers, audio systems, and cars. She found that individual members were associated with multiple roles. The initiator for purchase in a family was typically a young female member, who was likely to be the wife or one of the children. She illustrated that the need for an audio system, personal computer, and television was likely to be first expressed by the children in the family. As influencers, younger members, especially children, were found to affect purchase of a personal computer, audio system, and television. The final purchases were found to be decided upon after consultation with other family members, mainly the husband. Children have not been observed to have a large impact on instrumental decisions such as how much to spend, but rather play a role while making expressive decisions such as color, model, brand, shape, at the time of purchase.

Hundal, 2001 in his study with regard to rural buying behavior in the Amritsar district of Punjab investigated the role of family members in making purchase decisions for durables including refrigerators, televisions, air coolers, and washing machines. His findings projected that product selection decisions in rural families were mostly made by spouses together but they were highly influenced by children. They further noted that brand selection decisions were also made jointly by the couple but were importantly influenced by children in the family. The store where the durables were purchased as well as the making of the actual purchase decision was also made jointly or by the husband individually (for the durables, but not for air coolers). However, children also “went to buy”, that is accompanied their parents at the time of buying televisions, washing machines, and refrigerators.

Lee and Beatty, 2002 reports on a study which examined the influence of family structure in the family decision-making process. The objective was primarily to determine if sex-role orientation and the wives’ occupational status make a difference in the amount of influence of adolescents and their parents in family purchase decisions. Influence was judged by observing family interactions while making a decisions based on a restaurant choice scenario. Data was collected from 89 families around the Auckland area in New Zealand. All respondent families were nuclear with two adolescent children aged between 12 and 19 years. The results were analysed with principal analytic technique MANCOVA and showed that in modern households, the older adolescents exert more influence during configuration stage when their mothers are housewives (mean 22.24) as compared to the
adolescents whose mothers work “in a job” (mean = 14.20). On the contrary, younger adolescent whose mothers are housewives have more influence than the younger children whose mothers work for “just a job” or career. The main limitation of study was that its scope is limited to one service category i.e. restaurant and to one type of family i.e Nuclear family with two adolescents.

Shoham and Dalakas, 2003 examined the influence of Israel teenager on family decisions as it is culturally different from the USA where many empirical studies have been carried out.

Data was collected using a convenience sample of 128 triads (father, mother, and children. 13-18 years old children were included for the research. Respondents were asked to rate their influence in the family decision-making during their buying phases (initiating the purchase, information reach and evaluation of alternatives and final decision) for six products (TV, car, vacation, electrical appliances, furniture and cereals).

The finding suggests that, the fathers had the highest influence for the final decision for TV and car, as compared to vacations, appliances, furniture and cereal products, where the parents had higher influence than their teenage children. However, product category, the decision phase and the decision aspects vary. Shoham and Dalakas, 2005 examined the impact of Israel children on family decision making. Two studies were used, replicating two different approaches that have been used to measure children’s influence with 45 children. In study one, a survey was given to each parent, whereas, in study two their survey was given to each parent and child.

The result showed that regarding children’s influence on products, the relative influences of Israel children encards 45 children in 8 of the 11 products. Kids in Israel and the 45 have similar level of influence over some products (e.g. family room furniture). The highest influence was for the children’s magazines, child dress clothes, and child’s records / CDs for Israel children and clothes for 45 children. Therefore children in both countries were very similar in regard to the product categories they had the highest influence. The two countries were also similar in regard to the product categories with the lowest influences on family car and living room furniture in both cases. The pattern of children’s general influence on buying facets was also found consistent.

Hiral Chavda et al (2005) conducted a research with an aim to get an
understanding of the level of influence adolescents perceive they have compared to the view of their parents. 100 Adolescent in the age group 11-16 and 200 parents (Mother, Father Both) were selected from five schools within the areas of Birmingham, Warwickshire, Coventry and Solihull. All products fall under the following product categories: household products, toiletries, entertainment, adolescent’s clothes, parents clothes, large products, food products and technology. The result showed that there is no disagreement between the rating of adolescents and parents with regard to influence on product categories Pearson’s value which is a strength of association showed a perfect correlation between both sets of respondents. Even there was no significant difference found between the mean values of male adolescents perceived rating and female adolescents perceived rating, except for large purchases and food categories.

Julie Tinson et al 2008 explored in their paper the growing significance of different family types in the next and explored the relationship between the compulsivity of family relationships typified in single parent, blended and intact families and the involvement of children in purchase decision. A random sample of mothers with children aged 10-16 was contacted from the TNS Postal Acers Panel. Children from intact family household reported more both for shopping and looking for information on internet about things they are thinking of buying, then children from single families chained more to go on for shopping trips for their computer games, CDs and DVDs than children from blended and intact families. Children from blended families have less say in family purchase decisions as parents reported that they did not want to increase the compulsivity of purchase giving their children a say in discussions and final outcome.

Arzu Sener, 2011 conducted a study with Turkish families to discover the perception of adolescents and their parents regarding the influence of adolescents on purchasing, and compared the results with those of other countries to provide some generalization and identify differences. The study area comprised Ha Cettepe University Central and Bey Tape campuses. 250 mother – father pairs with children aged from 13-19 years were given questionnaires. Boys perceived their influence to be stronger than that of girls with regard to purchase decisions about groceries ($p > .05$), living room furniture ($p > .05$), tooth paste for the family and the children ($p > .05$), clothes for parents ($p < 0.05$) and bicycles for the children ($p > 0.05$).

For general issues related to purchases, adolescents stated that the areas
where they influenced most were in suggesting brands, shopping with parents, drawing attention to new products and suggesting stores. The area where they influenced the least was in suggesting price. On the contrary, parents considered that three areas where adolescents had the most influence were shopping with parents, suggesting a brand and drawing attention to new products. Parents perceived that the influence of boys was stronger than the influence of girls on decision making of all specific products. The result suggested that there was agreement between parents and adolescents about the situation of decision making.

2.8 PARENT - CHILD CONFLICT RESOLVING STRATEGIES

Belch et al (1980)\(^9\) included children in their study of family conflict, and the types of strategies used, during a family decision making process for a product/decision area. The research was based on a sample of 270 nuclear families, where both parents and one child over the age of 13 answered the questionnaire. Their results indicated very little disagreement among family members although there was some variation across product class. Disagreement seemed highest for vacations and automobiles, probably due to the higher level of involvement related to these products. Problem solving tactics of information search, family discussion, delegation to the most knowledgeable member, were most often used for all products (that is, vacation, appliance, furniture) except breakfast cereal, where persuasion tactics of exertion of authority were used. Their results showed that bargaining tactics of promising future considerations and delaying of decision were rarely used across all product categories. The use of the persuasion tactic of coalition between two or more family members was also relatively low.

Johnson (1995)\(^9\) conducted a study to consider the impact of product and situational factors on the choice of conflict resolution strategies by children in family purchase decision making. She found that product type is an important variable in determining the way children will behave in family decision making. She observed that bargaining was the most common strategy adopted by children when trying to influence the purchase of products for personal use. Conflict avoidance was most commonly used for family use products. However, for products for home use, such as a personal computer, they resorted to problem solving tactics to resolve conflicts. The author also pointed out that while bargaining is most common in dyadic interactions (Qualls and Jaffe, 1992)\(^9\), problem solving is more frequent in
triadic interactions between mother, father, and child.

Kim *et al* 1997 examined adolescents for five dimensions of influence strategies used by adolescents when they wanted something bought, including persuasion, not eating, acting stubbornly, approaching the other parent, and playing on emotion. However, the development of a complete set of either adolescent of parental strategies was not the primary intent of these studies. Moreover, methods used in the studies raise questions about their findings. First, since teenagers were asked to assume a negative response to a request, the results obtained likely exclude strategies that do not anticipate denial. Second, the inability to probe and follow up on subjects’ responses may have restricted the depth of understanding of these influence strategies.

Palan and Wilkes, 1997 conducted a study to explore the strategies used by adolescents to influence decision outcomes and parents responses to these influence attempts and the perceived effectiveness of these influence attempts. A convenience sample of 100 families was attempted. A convenience sample of 100 families including mother, father and adolescent between 12 and 15 years of age was made. The adolescent sample consisted of 46 percent made and 54 females.

The study showed that teenagers make a variety of influence strategies including bargaining strategies; Promotional strategies; Emotional strategies; Request strategies, Expert-strategies, Request strategies, Expert-strategies and legitimate strategies to influence the outcome of family purchasing decisions. They are especially likely to use bargaining money deals, other deals, reasons and persuasion (opinionates begging) as strategies to influence decision outcomes.

Williams and Burns (2000) conducted research to measure children’s direct influence attempts based on social power theory. Through semi-structured depth interviews with 20 children and 12 mothers and surveys of 516 children aged 8-11, scales representing seven dimensions of direct influence attempts are developed. These scales include asking nicely, displaying anger, bargaining, showing affection, begging and pleading just asking and conning. Children’s direct influence attempt scales were shown to be significantly related to (yet distinct from) NPI’s entitlement and exploitativeness and the social power scales reward, coercion, and legitimate.

Wimalasire SF (2004) states that in 1940’s and 1950’s children were not considered as consumers in their own rights but only extensions to their parents’ purchasing power. With the advent of television and other mass media, children
have come into their own right as consumers and, consequently, they have become an important target-market for the business. Advertisers are the first to recognize children’s value as consumers who are capable of making decisions about spending. They have become active participants in the family purchase decisions. Not only the children have their “own money” to spend on a variety of products and services of their own choice, they also have extensive influence on how their parents buy products and services. They gave a detailed classification of influence tactics used by children to elicit the desired parental purchasing behaviour: pressure tactics, upward appeal, exchange tactics, coalition’s tactics, ingratiating tactics, rational persuasion, inspirational appeals and consultation tactics.

2.9 PARENTS ATTITUDE AND PERCEPTION OF TV ADVERTISEMENTS

Parents have many concerns about the effects of television advertising on their children. Some of the concerns include how advertising affects children’s product choices, how advertising can lead to family conflict, how honest are advertisements, and how advertising affects lifestyles of children. Corporate advertisers have managed to push themselves into the space between parents and their children. Since firms have large advertising budgets, they can afford to hire the best psychologists and market researchers to develop advertising that lures children to products that parents do not approve of. Parents fight these dynamic influences every day, and concern is growing that they may be fighting a losing battle. Moreover due to increase of deregulation or privatization of the broadcasting media, international concerns have increased regarding children’s advertising (Robertson et al, 1989). However, little research is found in the literature about the attitudes of parents toward television advertising and children. A few available studies are stated below:

Burr and Richard (1977) conducted a study to view the parental response to the idea of child marketing and specifically television advertising to children. They interviewed the children between the age of 2 and 10 years in the metropolitan area of Southwest United States. The results showed that parents are quite frustrated with the current state of television advertising to children. Almost three fourth believe that premiums are overemphasized to children, 65 percent are calling for greater legislative control; and more than half believe television advertising to children is misleading as to product quality. 4 out of 10 parents interviewed believe that advertising to children is as truthful as it can possibly be and in all positive
response showed the lowest percentage and was ranked last.

Austin et al (1999) investigated positive and negative mediation styles and parental perception of television usefulness as a learning tool. 225 parents and with at least one child between the ages 2-17 were selected as respondents. The study investigated positive and negative mediation styles, and parental perception of television usefulness as a learning tool. Parents may embrace both positive and negative mediation strategies, one or neither. Positive mediation may occur more due to happenstance, while negative mediation associated more often with critical viewing and protective motivations. The results showed the existence of at least four distinct styles of parental mediation, each with unique motivations and associated behaviours. The data showed striking differences among four mediation groups identified as (1) non-mediators (Low level of engagement in both positive or negative mediation); (2) optimists (high level of engagement in positive mediation but low in negative mediation) Cynics (high level in negative mediation but low level in positive mediation) and (4) selective (high level of engagement in both positive and negative mediation). Optimists expressed more positive opinions on television considering it as good babysitter; on the other hand cynics were the least to consider TV a good learning tool. Non-mediators and selective took the middle ground.

The study identifies some positive parent views on TV as well as active parental media consumption and concluded that parents liking of TV inspires more co-viewing and using television as a tool to reinforce positive lessons, rather than a source of examples of what not to do. The main Limitation was parents’ perception is primarily descriptive and is limited in its predictive value for explaining media uses and effects for children.

Chan and McNeal (2002) conducted a benchmark study to examine mainland Chinese parents attitude towards advertising and parental mediation of television viewing. A survey of 1665 parents of elementary school children aged six to fourteen years in Beijing, Nanjing and Chengdu was conducted from Dec. 2001 to March 2002. Results indicated that Chinese parents hold negative attitudes towards television advertising in general and children’s advertising specifically. The belief that advertising is deceptive and annoying (Ninety-eight percent of parents exercise some control over the contents and time of television viewing. It was found that negative attitudes exist towards television advertising and strongest was noted
among parents with higher educational levels, and among teachers and researchers. Parents of younger children were more critical than parents of older children as they were worried about children’s inability to identify misleading content in commercials.

Ninety eight percent of parents exercise some control over the contents and time of television viewing, but the result shows that they did not tighten the control for watching even if they had more negative attitudes. Parents strongly feel that advertising should be banned during children hours which seems to suggest that Chinese parents rely on the government to set and enforce the rules to control the effects of advertising on children. They found that parents who have more negative attitudes towards advertising exercise their control through coercion, rather than through communication.

Young et al (2003) investigated attitudes of parents towards advertising to children in the UK, Sweden and New Zealand. A questionnaire consisting of 34 attitude statements on advertising to children was constructed. 172 adult sample in UK and 371 adult sample in Sweden ranging in the age from mid 20’s to 70’s were selected. The result revealed that parents in both the groups disapprove advertising to children and majority of people were of opinion that advertising to children puts pressure on the their parents to buy them things; the more advertising children watch, the more they will want advertised products and advertising persuades people to buy products they do not really need.

Spungin (2004) undertook an online family food survey with 1530 parents across. The UK to research the burning issue of “what do parents think about advertising to children?” In order to investigate, parents were asked a number of questions about their attitude to advertising and marketing to kids. The results showed that parents do have reservations about advertising to children. 84% in the survey said advertising “manipulates children”; but at the same time accepted it as fact of life in a consumer society. Parents recognize their own responsibility to educate their children as 96% of parents agreed with the statement “It’s up to parents to explain to children that they cannot have everything they see advertised.”

A particular negative potential effect of children’s advertising is the ‘pester power’ or ‘nag factor’ i.e. “advertising encourages children to nag their parents into something that is not good for them, they don’t need or the parents cannot afford” (Spangin 2004).
Nathalie Dens et al (2007) investigated parents’ attitudes toward advertising to children and advertised foods in particular as well as parental concern regarding children’s nutrition habits and the degree to which these perceptions influence television monitoring by parents. Data was collected among parents of Belgian primary and secondary school children. A structural equation model was built using data from a sample of 485 parents. The study found that parental nutrition attitudes and the degree to which advertising causes rary. Family conflicts and pestering are among the most important drivers of restrictive mediation of television. Attitudes towards food advertising the degree to which children can understand the commercial intent of advertising and the perceived influence of advertisements on children do not directly affect restrictive mediation. The main limitation of study was that data was based on a single-country, and did not distinguish between parents of different socio-economic backgrounds or between parents with children in different age categories.

Manish Mittal et al (2010) examined parents’ perception of the impact of Television Advertisements on Children’s Buying Behavior. Primary data was collected by communicating with the parents with the help of a structured questionnaire in Indore city (in Central India) during February-March 2008. The study employed non-probabilistic quota sampling, selecting a sample size of 300. The result revealed that parents believe that television advertisements are changing the pattern and behavior of children. They have negative impact on children since children demand, nag and pester their parents to purchase the advertised products. Television advertisements are an important factor which drives their product choice and inculcate unhealthy eating ‘habits in them. It also indicated that Indian children love watching television and prefer it over social interaction, physical and development activities. It also indicates that TV advertisements provide children knowledge about products and brands. It demonstrates that children demand more of the product of which advertisements they like.

Buijzen and Valkenburg (2003) investigated how television advertising is related to children’s purchase requests, materialism, disappointment, life dissatisfaction, and family conflict. A sample of 360 parent-child (8 to 12 years-old) dyads was selected and tested for the study. They found that television commercials lead to increase in number of requests for advertised products which also increases number of product denials because parents cannot honor all requests made by their
children. This makes the child unhappy. They observed a direct relationship between unhappiness and exposure to commercials. This may also be because when a child watches an advertisement, he compares his situation with the idealized world in the commercials and the gap between the two makes him unhappy. Parent-child consumer communication and parental mediation of advertising are important moderators of the effects of advertising on children’s purchase requests and materialism.

Wilson and Wood (2004) found that television advertisements targeted at children force them to nag their parents due to the increase in desire in them to acquire the advertised product, thereby influencing the family buying decisions. Due to the constant exposure of children to television advertisements, they are able to differentiate between good and bad products and are in the situation to convince their parents easily to purchase the product they desire. Their research study points that parents have agreed to the fact that children play a very imperative role in influencing decisions of the family, sometimes parents even seek their children’s advice. For example, many parents (71%) consult their children when they want to purchase computers.

**Research Gap**

There is little empirical research available in India investigating the role of television advertisements in children life and extent to which children further influence on parents’ purchasing. Most of the researches on impact of television advertisements on children purchase influence were conducted in the U.S.A. This research will make a contribution to this area by examining the influence of television commercials on Indian children and further examining their influence on family purchase decision. India provides a useful setting because it is culturally different from the USA and other European countries. Specially, substantial difference exist between two nations on two of Hofstede’s cultural dimensions (1984). India is less individualistic, less power distant, and more uncertainty avoiding than the USA. (Hofstede, 1984). Therefore, India provides a meaningful context to examine children influence due to television advertisements on family decision making with regard to different products. Hofstede (1984) two dimensions on which India and USA differ and their hypothesized impact are discussed below.

**Individualism**
Hofstede (1993) defined individualism (IDV) as “the degree to which people in a country prefer to act as individuals rather than as members of group” The USA is ranked as the most individualistic country of the 50 countries. This aspect has several implications. First we expect individual initiative to be more discouraged in India than in the USA. Within the family setting this implies that Indian children’s attempt to influence family decision making would be restricted. Second, expertise, order, and duty are more likely to be provided by an Indian family but not a US family. Thus, Indian children should be more obedient and follow the expert advice of their parents compared to US children. In US children are encouraged to think of themselves as “I” rather than part of “We” and consequently are likely to show respect to their in-group or follow the parental lead. Finally Indian children should have more faith in family and less in individual decisions than US children do: therefore, family decisions, rather than children’s decisions, should be the norm in India.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance is defined as “the degree to which people in a country structured over unstructured situation”. India is more uncertainty avoiding culture than USA. High uncertainty avoiding cultures do not like change, avoid risk-taking, and tend to be suspicious of younger people. Along with these lines, we expect Indian children to show preference for clear requirements and instructions compared to US children (Hofstede, 1984). Moreover, children in India strive to avoid conflict with their parents and seek consensus more than their USA counterparts.

In summary, the difference between India and USA on two dimensions (individualism and uncertainty avoidance) is consistent in their hypothesized impact on the differences between India and US children’s influence on family decision making. Based on these dimensions, we should expect Indian children to have limited influence on family decision making and certainty less than US children. Based on these above mentioned facts, the comparative study (Rural vs Urban) has been designed to investigate in India the role of television commercials on children-family purchase decisions.
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