

CHAPTER 2

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CHAPTER 2

Literature review

This chapter gives an overview of literature and models that are related to the research problem discussed in the previous chapter. In this chapter, the concept of advertising to children, the attitude of children towards Television advertisements, the role of children today in Family decision making and how that influences the buying behaviour of their parents has been discussed

2.1 Introduction

Children represent an important demographic segment to the marketers because of the fact that today they have a purchasing power. They are influencers to parents in their buying decisions hence represent as future customers to the marketers. Research has revealed that children now do not exert influence only in selection of toys and cereals but it is more than that. “Whether a company wants to sell electronic gadgets, insurance policies or even cars they fall back on children” (Dewan and Thomson, 2010). These children usually nag a lot in front of their parents persuading them to purchase the products which they would not buy otherwise. “Much has been written and said about the children as being the future customers but due to the lack of a systematic research on the buying behaviour of children and then the role or influence of parents, marketers may think that it is inappropriate to consider children as a market” (McNeal, 1999). The seeds of brand recognition are planted by the marketers in very young children, by trying to attract children through various advertisements since most of the kids spend most of their time watching television. They enjoy watching TV advertisement and have an excellent recall capability. This gives the marketer the hope that the seeds will grow into lifetime relationships and make them the future customers. According to research done in various countries very small babies of just six months of age start making mental structures of the logos and mascots shown in the advertisements. Therefore, brand loyalty gets established in their minds even when they are just two years

old. This also helps marketers as these kids can recognize hundreds of brands by this age. So the product marketing begins with children. “Even if a child does not buy the product and will not for many years but the marketing must begin in childhood” (McNeal, 1999). Advertising agencies are convinced about the kid being a compelling force in the family and use children effectively as models to sell products ranging from baby soaps, insurance policies and even electronic gadgets. The illustration is simple. Children are curious and competitive and want to be popular. This can help parents guide their children, since children appearing in these advertisements are popular and also encourage good behaviour of other children.

2.2 Advertising to children

“Advertising to children is a big business” (Kunkel, 1990; Macklin, 1983; McNeal, 1999a; McNeal & ChyonHwa, 1997). Children worldwide wear the same brands of jeans, eat the same kinds of burgers and pizzas, have the same breakfast cereals, watch the same films on TV and in theatres, listen to the same music, and play the same video games. This referent is according to a report written by Birgitte Ruffle to the Danish Minister of Culture about advertising to children in 1999. The author suggests, "that a 10-year old in a small town in Denmark would be more similar to a 10-year in New York or Sao Paulo than with his or her own grandmother" (Tuftte, 1999, p.5). “As previously stated, in the United States in the year 2000, children 12 and under spent \$27.9 billion of their own income, and influenced around \$249 billion of their parents' income, while children in Europe spent around £23 billion in 2000, according to” (Lawlor & Prothero, 2002). “On the other hand, children in China are spending too, with most of their money coming from allowances and gifts” according to (McNeal and Chyon-Hwa, 1977)”. McNeal’s (1999a) “research suggests that children influence around 40 % of the family purchases in China”.

“Meanwhile, the estimated spending by Japanese children is just over 11 billion yen yearly” (Rose, et al. 1998). The large population of children worldwide is an alluring market for advertisers, and it is not surprising that firms are willing to spend large amounts of resources to attract them. “The literature suggests that approximately \$12 billion is spent by advertisers in the United States alone to bombard kids with messages on television. In the EU, estimates as of 1999 were £500 million spent on advertising to children” (Tuft, 1999). In 1996, Rose (1998) “estimated that advertisers spent only spend \$864 million on advertising to children in the United States”. “These numbers indicate that most advertisers feel that the children’s market is extremely important and are taking every opportunity to figure out the needs, wants, and desires of this market” (McNeal, 1999b).

2.3 Why Do We Advertise to Children?

There are lots of advertisements run now a days which are targeting children. Children are chosen as it is easy to lure them. The money spent on advertisements in 1980 was \$105.97 billion and it has doubled in 2001 to \$230 billion (Laws, 2003). “The average child sees an estimate of more than 20,000 commercials every year - that works out to at least 55 commercials per day” (Laws, 2003). By seeing these advertisements children keep on insisting to buy what they see or hear. This has made an influence on parents purchases. “James McNeal, a kids marketing expert, estimates children twelve and under will influence \$500 billion of family purchases by the year 2000” (Laws, 2003).

Children have been purchasing for themselves and their spending patterns has been doubling every ten years. “Kids ages 4 to 12 spent \$2.2 billion in 1968 and \$4.2 billion in 1984. By 1994, the figure climbed to \$17.1 billion and by 2002, their spending exceeded \$40 billion. Kids direct buying power is expected to exceed \$51.8 billion by 2006” (Laws, 2003). No matter how you look at it, advertisers choose children because they are the most easily influenced and will spend their money if they find something interesting.

2.4 Why Children Market is Important for Marketers?

The children's market is very important for the marketers for few reasons. "The children do not have the necessary cognitive skills to make comparisons and form impressions about Advertisements shown" (Selman, 1980). The tween's want to project themselves as individuals who are capable of making decisions which makes them vulnerable to persuasion. It has also been seen that this segment has immense marketing potential. Compared to their predecessors they are more affluent and have many choices. "They have significant influence on the purchase behaviour of their parents; through the "nag factor" or their "pester power" they can successfully negotiate purchases" (McNeal 1999) keeping all these factors in mind, this segment is most sought by the marketers. "Children are not important only because they can influence their parents purchase but also because they now a days may have their own income from allowances or jobs" (Mangleburg, 1995). "They are a generation with economic power unlike anyone before them" (Solomon and Roboly, 2004). "Children and adolescents are often becoming a part of the Family decision making process" (Mangleburg, 1995). "The family decision making can change as per the product type, attitudes to purchase decision-making roles in the family and particularly family composition (e.g. single parent families, small and large families)" (Holdert and Antonides, 1997). In many instances, now a days, children has become the primary decision maker. "Children are making decisions for both impulse purchases as well as planned purchases" (Kuhn and Eischen (1997). This is why marketers consider them a most attractive growth market. "Tweens are leaving the kids line a little younger at about the time when mom stops buying the items for them and they start buying on their own" (Levinson et al, 2001, p49).

2.5 Only Good Things Happen When You Advertise to Kids.

Children are the future of our country and need to carry further the family traditions. They are the future consumers who will drive economy. At the same time advertisements have been used to build the trust of children and make them life long consumers. According to the article Kids Upfront Outlook is Grim by Wayne Friedman and David Goetzl, "Companies

spent about \$800 million last year advertising on network, syndication, cable and local shows targeting kids aged 2 to 14.” Eight hundred million is a lot of money, and advertisers want to see a return on that kind of investment. According to Karen J. Pine and Avril Nash in the article ‘Dear Santa: The Effects of Television Advertising on Young Children’, people must understand that the advertiser’s motive is to sell a product. It is easy to see how directly advertising to children can generate huge profits for companies, thereby helping our economy. According to Marci McDonald and Marianne Lavelle authors of the article, “Call it Kid-Fluence,” James McNeal, a retired professor from Texas A&M University said, “children ages 4 to 12 last year spent \$29 billion of their own money—from allowances, baby-sitting fees, and handouts their parents doled out on trips to the mall”. If advertisements to kids brings funds for the organization, it additionally generates what specialists decision “The Nag issue.” The “Nag Factor” is once a baby sees a billboard for a product then cries and complains to a parent till the parent purchases the item. per the article “Temptation-free tv for Children?” by Pascaline Dumont, Over 1/2 all families have according to believe a child’s request simply to avoid AN argument. McNeal emphasizes the “Nag Factor” once he claims that, “2 to twelve year olds had AN indirect impact on another \$320 billion of family purchases. Over the last 5 years, there’s been a considerable increase within the quantity of influence youngsters wear sturdy goods—cars, boats, high-ticket things.

2.6 Tween's Characteristics:

Tweens are defined as 8-12 year olds by marketing practitioners. “Tweens is a consumer segment which is in between Childhood and teen-hood” (Cook and Kaiser, 2004; Siegel *et al.*, 2004). “Most commonly tweens are defined as eight to 12-year-olds” (Siegelet *al.*, 2004). According to Mintel International Group (2001), “tweenagers are aged between 10 and 14 years of age while” Clarke (2003) “classifies them as 8-12 year olds”. They are a sizable direct market for marketers because of their disposable income estimated at \$1.5 billion. The companies are really interested in this market segment as they want to start early

the brand loyalty amongst them. They are described as hyper brand conscious, who spend a lot of time with peers and are influenced by their peers. “They grow up faster, are more connected, more direct, more informed, have more personal power, more money, more influence and attention than previous generations” (Lindstrom & Seybold, 2003). Tweens do influence family buying patterns, for example, in grocery purchasing they influence parents to buy food products that the tweens can prepare for themselves since they are easy and quick. Tweens want to be catered to and they want a coupon or free gift or to be amused or entertained. “Tweens not only influence their parents but are themselves also consumers with their own consumption” (Brzezinski, 2004; Lindstrom and Seybold, 2003; Siegel *et al.*, 2004). Lindstrom (2004) argues that “the global direct - and indirect - tweens' consumption was no less than 1.18 trillion US dollars in 2003”.

The tweenagers are the new teenagers in terms of attitude (aspirations, values and experience) McNeal (1999) suggests “the number of parents who ask their children's opinions about products they are going to buy for the whole family has been steadily increasing over the years”. There is a trend in western markets which drives the spending habits of tweens. It is known as KGOY (kids getting older younger). “As per the trend children like more grown up products and reject traditional toys. Obviously this has opened a lot of opportunities for marketers to tap the tweens market. This also helps the marketers as the tweens spread brand message for them through websites and SMS” (Marketresearchworld, 2012).

2.7 Tween market in India

According to Market Research World.net (2012), “India, has the world's largest tween population”. As per an estimate the tween market in India by 2016 will be a Rs. 116.19 million market, which can be defined as a young demographic group which can be the envy of other nations. The population of India in 2002 was approximately 1.05 billion as per United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific (2002). It is likely to increase to 1.35 billion by 2025 at a growth rate of 1.5% p.a. This population size makes India an attractive market for marketers.

2.8 TV Viewing by children

“Today, TV is considered to be a member of family and is an important component in the child's development” (Winick and Winick (1979) and Verma and Larson (2002). “Children's active TV viewing begins as early as at the age of 2 and continues through till the per-adolescence (11-12 years)” (Comstock et al. 1978). “Children spend most of their time in watching TV than doing any other activity” (Guthrie, 1983). “More than peers and teachers, TV is helping the children today to socialize” (Huston et al., 1989)”. “In several research made TV has been found to be a healthy source of entertainment and information, provided more time is allocated to programs of significance” Abrol et al. (1993).

As quoted by Deshpande (2002), “according to TV Audience Measurement (TAM) which monitors TV viewing patterns in India, children between 4 and 14 years of age form the largest segment of viewers at 23%”. The ratings of varied genres of TV programming are: cartoon channels, documentary and music channels, in this order by the youngsters within the same people.

“English children watch about 2.5 hours per day of TV” (Pine and Nash, 2002). “TV viewing is the number one after school activity for 6-17 years old” (Center for Media Education, 2002). “Most children in the US watch 3-4 h of TV per day” (Oates et al., 2003; and Dotson and Hyatt, 2005). According to ACMA (2006), “Australian children up to 14 years watch almost 3 hours per day” and as per ACMA (2007), among them genres that they find most appealing were reality TV (32%), movies (24%) and comedy programs (18%)”.

“A study has been made in 1980's amongst 529 high school students in a province of China and it was found that 88 percent of the urban and 11 percent of the rural students had television sets at home” (Research Group on Adolescence and Television, 1984). It was found that TV is that the most favored supply of learning new data for youngsters. Favorite tv contents were drama among recreation classes and sports among news topics. Another

survey was done of 600 sixth grade and tenth grade students in Peiping in 1988. “It was found that young people watch television 1.3 hours each day with the time spent on radio, newspapers, and audiotapes being 0.8, 0.7, and 0.6 hours per day, respectively” (Greenberg et al. , 1991). “In a survey of 2,288 Beijing children in 1998 the most popular media were television, books and newspapers” ([2] Bu, 1998). “Media exposure in a week consisted of watching television (89 percent), reading books (73 percent), reading newspapers (73 percent), listening to cassette tapes (65 percent), listening to radio (61 percent), reading magazines (53 percent), playing with computers (32 percent), playing electronic games (14 percent) and surfing on the internet (7 percent)”. “In a survey of 460 children in grades 4 to 6 in Beijing, television viewing (97 percent) was more common than newspaper reading (73 percent) and magazine reading (60 percent), and radio listening (39 percent)” ([11] McNeal and Ji, 1999). On average, youngsters watched seventeen.2 hours of tv every week. Time spent on tv was way bigger than total time spent on newspapers, magazines, and radios. Boys spent longer on tv and magazines than women.

Another study made in Pakistan in 2012 craves to find out the impact of cartoon and non-cartoon TV advertising on attitudes of children aged between 8-12 years regarding the factors of entertainment and credibility. “Children were found to have more favourable attitudes towards Cartoon TV advertising than non-Cartoon TV advertising as it had more entertainment aspects” (Haroon, M. et.al., 2012).

2.9 Television Advertisement and Children

Several researches have been done to know what children understand about advertising, its commercial intent. “They have even tried to understand how effectively children process its messages” (e.g., Bijmolt, Claassen, & Brus, 1998; Macklin, 1984, 1994; Robertson & Rossiter, 1974; Roedder, 1982). In a research done by Roedder's (1981) on children, classified children into three segments. “He named them as ‘limited processors’ (up to 8 years old), ‘cued processors’ (8-12 years old) and ‘strategic processors’ (over 13 years old) and this has been widely adopted by researchers, though with some modification to the age boundaries on occasion” (see Macklin, 1984). After doing a review of the research on

information processing she concluded that without using certain prompts and cues, it would have been difficult to process the product information.

Now a days children are different than they were earlier as the TV advertisements are influencing them (Horovitz 1997). This topic has become very important and many books have been written on it.

Past analysis indicated that with increasing information of advertising's intent comes associate degree increased ability to resist or elaborate its messages. Moore and Lutz (2000) observe that "older kids (10-12-year-olds) are additionally able to appreciate advertisements' nuances and to attach these with however merchandise are used". However product placements could get beneath the radio detection and ranging of even older kids United Nations agency have strategic science capabilities (13 years and up). "Because product placement, once it's done well, appearance as if it's a part of the lives of the characters, it should cause less counter tilt and "internal zapping"-tuning out mentally even by adult consumers" (D'Astous & Chartier, 2000).

"Moreover, cognitive processing may not be required to affect choice if one accepts Zajonc's (1980) discussion of mere exposure and the independence of affect and cognition": It sometimes happens that we are reminded of a movie or a book whose contents we are unable to recall. Yet the affect present when leaving the movie or our general impression of the book are readily accessible (p. 159). "Indeed, some researchers indicate that awareness may actually inhibit the primary affective reaction" (Ye & van Raaij, 1997). "They point to earlier research by Kihlstrom (1987), and suggest that conscious counter control may offset any affect such that the attitude toward clearly recognized stimuli may be less favorable as a result".

2.10 Attitude towards Advertising

The current study attempts to measure attitude toward advertising through television, thereby the effects of the same on the buying behaviour of the parents. The conceptual framework of this exploratory study was derived from the concept of attitude toward advertising in general. Since the advent of research on attitude toward advertising in general in the 1960s, researchers have developed various belief dimensions about advertising in general and measured their relationships with attitudes toward advertising in general.

“One of most popular approaches characterizes attitudes as belonging to one of three classes – cognitive, affective, and behavioral (or conative)” (e.g., Breckler, 1984; Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). Rosenberg and Hovland (1960) “provided a visual representation of the three- component concept of attitude” (see Figure1).

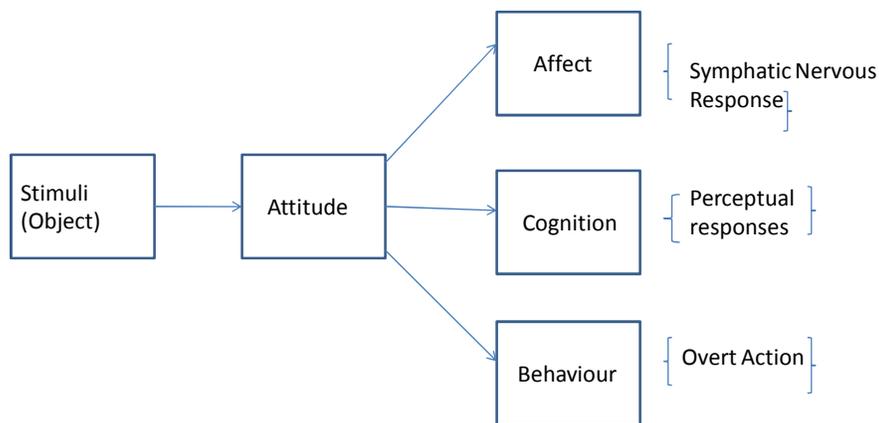


Figure 2.10. Schematic concept model of attitudes

Note: Adapted from “Cognitive, Affective, and Behavior Components of Attitude,” by M. J. Rosenberg and C. I. Hovland. In C. I. Hovland, & M. J. Rosenberg (Eds.), *Attitude*

organization and change: An analysis of consistency among attitude components (p. 3), 1960, New Haven, CT: Yale University Press. Copyright 1960 by the Yale University Press.

“The schematic figure represents an attitude as a predisposition to respond to a stimuli in one of three ways: cognition, which includes “perceptual responses” or “verbal statements of belief”; affect, which includes “sympathetic nervous responses” or “verbal statements of affect”; and behavior or conation, which would be “overt action” or “verbal statement concerning behavior” (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960, p. 3). “Cognition reflects thoughts which are associated with beliefs; affect includes feelings, emotions, or moods that people have in response to their encounter with an attitude object; behavior/conation are a person’s overt actions or intentions to act toward an attitude object” (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998). “All three components are believed to provide an understanding of the phenomenon of attitude” (Breckler, 1984; Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Rosenberg & Hovland, 13 1960). Based on the three-component perspective, changes in the cognitive structure of an attitude object are not independent of changes in an attitude toward that object.

According to Fishbein (1967a), attitudes may be defined as “learned predispositions to respond to an object or class of objects in a favorable or unfavorable way” (p. 257). “Beliefs are defined as “hypotheses concerning the nature of objects and the types of actions that should be taken with respect to them” (Fishbein, 1967a, p. 257). “In contrast to the view of the tripartite of attitude that attitudes always depend on the direction of beliefs” (e.g., Breckler, 1984; Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960), Fishbein’s (1967a) “multi-dimensional concept holds that the measure of an attitude does not necessarily represent all three components; Fishbein maintained that beliefs and attitudes are distinct and that beliefs are indicants of attitudes”. Fishbein’s (1963) “expectancy value theory helps to clarify the relationship between beliefs and attitudes”. According to Fishbein’s theory, attitudes are the functions of beliefs; beliefs are assumed to have causal effects on attitudes. “It is hypothesized that an individual’s strongest belief has the greatest influence on his/her attitude” (Fishbein, 1963). Consider the following examples relative to Fishbein (1967a)’s

position. When watching a Major League Baseball game at home on television, people are exposed to a variety of advertising signage in a stadium. One person may have a favorable attitude toward in-stadium signage because it provides valuable information regarding new baseball products; another person may also have a positive attitude toward the signage because s/he thinks it helps to reduce the price of tickets. The two individuals would be regarded as having similar attitudes toward in-stadium signage, but the belief(s) influencing the attitudes may be different. “People may also have the same beliefs about an object, but have different attitudes toward the object” (Fishbein, 1967a).

“The preceding examples support Fishbein’s claim that cognition and affect are not always highly associated” (Fishbein, 1967a). Additionally, with respect to measuring attitudes, researchers have not been able to measure all three components together. “Scales assessing attitude usually depend on measuring people’s evaluation aspects of an attitude object” (Fishbein, 1967a). “Researchers typically attempt to measure the affective component as an indicator of a distinct attitude” (Fishbein, 1967a). Fishbein proposed that a more realistic view should include beliefs, attitudes, and behavior, as related but independent constructs, rather than considering attitude as a multi-component construct of which researchers primarily focus on one component, affect. Fishbein (1967a) further proposed, in concert with previous research, “that attitudes may be measured by affect, the strength of a person’s positive or negative feelings toward an object” (e.g., Thurstone, 1928; Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1957). According to Fishbein’s (1967a) view, “attitude can be conceptualized as “the amount of evaluation associated with the attitude object, and this need have no necessary relationship with a person’s cognitions or beliefs about this object, and certainly none with his behavior with regard to it” (as cited in Lemon, 1973, p.252). Green (1954) held a view similar to Fishbein (1967a), “that the concept of attitude may be described as a latent variable which is a function of beliefs and actions” (as cited in Kim, 2003). “A latent variable labeled attitude may be measured by assessing beliefs and/or behavioral intentions, because beliefs and/or intentions may be viewed as an antecedent or consequence of an individual’s attitude” (Green, 1954, as cited in Kim, 2003).

2.11 Attitude of children towards Advertisements

A key concern here underlying the advertising to children here is, how children feel about Television advertising directed at them. It becomes very important to understand the attitude of children towards the TV advertisements. There is some literature examining the attitude of children towards Advertisements. “Some have focused on developing measures of children's attitudes toward television advertising or attitudes toward the brand” (Derbaix and Pecheux 2003; Macklin and Machleit 1989; Pecheux and Derbaix 1999; Rossiter 1977). Others have more specifically studied the effect of advertising on attitudes. Moore and Lutz (2000) found that “young children's (seven- to eight-years-old) liking of an ad influenced their attitudes toward the brand”. They further found that older children's (10- to 11 -years-old) liking of an ad influenced their attitudes toward the brand through multiple persuasive routes, consistent with the literature concerning adults' attitude toward the brand. Similarly, Phelps and Hoy (1996) found that “third- and sixth-graders' attitude toward the ad influenced their attitudes toward both familiar and unfamiliar brands, and also impacted their purchase intentions”. “Attitudinal effects refer to the extent to which children like or dislike an advertisement” (Rossiter, 1979). “Literature has been so far in agreement that kids like entertaining advertisements especially the up-tempo music, humour and cartoon characters” (Goldberg and Gorn, 1978). “Children have been found to get attracted to memorable catchphrases and jingles” (Bartholomew and O'Donohoe's, 2003). Television and advertising touches every person's life today. Advertising to children has become a big business which includes advertising both traditional (say toys and cereals) as well as nontraditional products (say video games) to children. Over the decades, marketers have tried to find the most effective ways to reach children through television advertising. The marketers have used several different advertising mechanisms to reach the children. “These include mechanisms like portrayal of fun, action, emotion, product appearance, or highlights of new product features” (Barcus 1980; Kunkel 1992). “it has also been found in research that children do not focus much upon the product information which includes product features, price, or product performance” (Van Evra 1998). “Instead, advertisers rely on strong visual images, including both live action and animation, to reach children” (Edell 1988).

Pankaj et al. (2010) “carried out a survey amongst children in the age group of 5-11 years to analyse the impact of children's attitudes towards television advertisements on their resultant buying behavior. They found that more the child has an attitude towards an advertisement the more there is a demand for the advertised product. The formation of attitude depends upon cognitive development which different children have at different ages”. Paveleen and Raghbir (2012) “studied the nature of mediation strategies used by mothers of younger and older children in India”. The results revealed that mothers of Indian children resort to mediation of ads in general and food ads in particular. The nature of mediation is also governed by age of children. Mothers of older children primarily use active advertising mediation and mothers of younger children use restrictive mediation strategies. It is also seen that mothers mediate the exposure of food ads more strongly in younger children as compared to older children. Kim et. al (2013) wanted to “determine what can cause dislike of an advertisement's message in Asia”. Television commercials were looked at specifically to provide an insight into the construct of advertising dislikeability and how it affects purchase intention and purchase frequency. The results revealed 931 dislike attributes that were reduced to seven: style, meaningless, character, exaggeration, irresponsive, violent and hard-sell. There also appears to be a close relationship between the disliking of advertisements and purchase intention and purchase frequency.

2.12 Definition of Advertising

In 1948, the Definitions committee of the American Marketing Association (AMA) developed what today is the most acceptable definition of advertising - “Advertising is any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods and services by an identified sponsor”. It presents an explanation of what advertising is, while offering insights into what advertising is not. Dorothy Cohen (1988) “argued that the above definition did not suggest the persuasive and creative aspects of advertising or indicate its functional responsibility and offered the definition”. Advertising is a business activity, employing creative techniques to design persuasive communication in mass media that promote ideas, goods and services in a manner consistent with the achievement of the advertiser’s

objectives, the delivery of consumer satisfaction and the development of social and economic welfare. According to J.Thomas Russel and W.Ronald Lane “Advertising is a paid form of message by an identified sponsor and delivered through some medium of mass communication which makes advertising a persuasive communication”.

From the above definitions advertising can be stated as an activity to promote goods and services with the intention to persuade people to buy a certain product. It brings goods to the attention of consumers. “The effects of advertising on children have, however, been the subject of considerable research during the past three decades” (Roedder, 1981;Cardwell-Gardner & Bennett, 1999).

Since decades marketers have been trying to find ways to reach children and the most effective way to reach children is through television advertising due to its visual effect which makes a better impact on kids. “In a television advertisement targeted at children, a quick look reveals the use of several different advertising mechanisms to attract attention, such as the portrayal of fun, action, emotion, product appearance, or highlights of new product features” (Barcus 1980; Kunkel 1992). “The children ads do not focus much on product information such as product features, price, or product performance” (Van Evra 1998). “Instead, in case of advertisements targeted at children, advertisers rely on strong visual images, including both live action and animation, to reach children” (Edell 1988). According to a study conducted by (Carlson et al. 1988), “indicated that parental styles play a role in determining the manner in which mothers socialize with their children about television and television advertising”. According to (Bakir and Palan, 2010) “one aspect of advertising which may play a significant role in how a child responds to a television advertisement is the degree to which the execution of the ad evokes his or her understanding of gender”. Like adults, children naturally categorize information into fewer and simpler units as a way to reduce information-processing effort.

According to APA Task force on advertising and children, from the advertiser’s perspective, the ultimate intention of airing a commercial is for the product to be subsequently purchased

by viewers. Children have a wide range of access to media. (Crosby, 2005) “made a study on kids media consumption patterns”. Television being such a key entertainment medium for the children, 69% of the kids bedrooms in UK have a Television. Seeing the potential by the marketers, the number of kids dedicated channels has increased in UK many folds. “The frequency of children’s product-purchase requests at the supermarket was a significant predictor of the amount of television viewing done by the children” (Atkin, 1978). As found in his later studies, amongst three fourths of all the parent-child exchanges, there has been a pattern of child’s demands increasing for merchandise advertised on television. This pattern has been observed in other countries as well. “Dutch children requesting for Christmas gifts were significantly related to their television viewing” Buijzen and Valkenburg (2000). According to cross-cultural research made by (Robertson, Ward, Gatignon, & Klees, 1989) “while comparing families from Japan, England, and the United States demonstrated a positive relationship between children’s amount of television viewing and their product-purchase requests, in which the purchase-influence attempts were notably the greatest in the United States”. Over the years, the literature has been talking that children tend to favour entertaining advertisements. “For example, a study made by Goldberg and Gorn (1978) in which they found that children tend to be attracted to up-tempo music, product close-ups, swift action and attractive child models”. “Elsewhere, the entertainment aspect has been found to be a function of the use of humour, cartoon characters, famous people, animals and swift action in advertisements” (Rolandelli, 1989; Ross et al., 1984; Goldberg and Gorn, 1978; Ward, 1972). It has also been found that children tend to be attracted to memorable advertising catchphrases and jingles. “This was evident in Bartholomew and O’Donohoe’s (2003) study of ten to twelve-year-olds where the children were seen to hugely enjoy imitating advertising catchphrases for brands such as Budweiser”. Finally, research shows that children’s purchase-influence attempts have a relatively high degree of success. “Frequent parental yielding to children’s purchase requests has been reported in studies that rely on parent self-reports” (Frideres, 1973; Ward & Wackman, 1972) “as well as unobtrusive observation of behavior in the supermarket” (Atkin, 1978). Thus television advertisements towards children help companies to accomplish their goal of promoting products.

“The average child in the UK watches about 17 hours of television per week” (Ofcom, 2004). “It is estimated that in the USA, children spend more time watching television than they do anything else besides sleeping” (Prevention Institute, 2002). “The average American child sees more than 40,000 television advertisements a year” (Kunkel *et al.* , 2004). “Advertisers are spending more than US\$15 billion per year to target the US youth market” (CSPI, 2005). “According to (Bakir and Vitell, 2010) the children’s market has become significantly important to marketers”. “Many marketers spend millions of dollars on advertising to reach this growing segment” (Jardine and Wentz, 2005). “More specifically, food and beverage companies in the USA spend an estimated US \$10–12 billion targeting children and adolescents” (McKay, 2005). “The substantial investment in promotion to children is attributed to the strong contribution of children to the consumer economy. Children age 12 and under are estimated to make US\$35 billion in direct purchases and influence US\$670 billion worth in family purchases” (Kelly and Kulman, 2004). “Advertisements for food and drinks during children's programmes are estimated to constitute 37 per cent of all advertisements in the USA, 49 per cent in the UK, and 30 per cent in Australia” (Furnham *et al.* 1997; Lavelle, 2004). “Food and soft drinks manufacturers and chain restaurants in the UK together spent £727 million (US\$1,276 million) on advertising in 2003, £522 million (US\$916 million) of which went to television” (Ofcom, 2004).

Mothers observe what foods their children eat and don't eat, what clothes they wish to wear and which ones they do not, and which toys and games they like to play with. When mothers have no other criteria left for selection, they rely mostly on their observations to decide which product to purchase. “Research studies revealed that when children asked for particular food items such as cereals, candy or snacks, parents complied about 75% of the time” (Donohue *et. al*, 1980). “According to the Kaiser Family Foundation, children are exposed to more than 7,600 commercials on candy, cereal, and fast food in any given year” (Kotz, 2007). “In another study, mothers recalled yielding to about half of such requests for food” (Ward and Wackman, 1972a). “Some children and their parents were observed shopping in a supermarket, children were successful in influencing their parents' purchase of cereal and candy in 61% and 52% of the times attempted, respectively” (Wells, 1966).

“Children may exert influence in a subtler manner also called as "passive dictation" in addition to making direct requests, both at home and in the store” (Wells, 1966). There have been further studies made which have revealed some factors which affect the mother's likelihood of being influenced by the Television advertisements. One of the influencing factors is the child's age. “Although older children make lesser direct attempts to influence their parents' choice, but older children are also more successful with these attempts” (Ward and Wackman, 1972; Wells, 1966). Even, parents seek opinions from older children about purchases, so the opinions of older children are more likely to be considered; and with an increase in age; the suggestions of girls begin to encompass products related to family as well as personal needs, while those of boys remain personally oriented. “This sex difference is seen as a result of the mother, with whom most shopping is done, imparting the traditional female role to her daughter” (McNeal, 1969). Based on such studies, gender-related content is a frequent executional element in children's advertising. For example, “male characters have been found to dominate children's advertising” (Barcus 1977; Browne 1998; Hoek and Laurence 1993; Larson 2001; Smith 1994) “and are more often depicted as knowledgeable, active, aggressive, dominant, and in control than are girls” (Browne 1998; Welch et al. 1979). “Moreover, boys are more likely to describe or demonstrate products and recommend product purchases than are girls” (Browne 1998). “In contrast, girls are overwhelmingly depicted in cooperative interactions” (Larson 2001; Smith 1994) “and are generally portrayed as being shy, giggling, or covering their faces” (Browne 1998).

“According to a research made by (Tinson et al. 2008) on a sample of mothers with children aged between 10-16 years in which he explored the growing significance of different family types in the west and the involvement of kids in purchase decisions”. The study revealed that in single parent homes the involvement of the child is greater and in blended homes (where there are step-parents and step children present) a child's involvement may be less marked. “Another study concerned with cereal purchase found that there was no significant relationship between a child's assertiveness and his mother's purchase behavior” (Berey and Pollay, 1968). “In a UK study made by (Noble et. al, 2007) found that, despite believing that vegetables were good for children's health, mothers also perceived that it was extremely difficult to encourage children to eat them”. “Food products, which are most often requested

by children, are most often bought on request” (Ward and Wackman, 1972). “Parents rely on the desires of their children almost 75% of the time in selecting toys which cost over five dollars” (Frideres, 1973). For such items like toys, price may be the decisive element for the parents.

Whether it’s having the latest Barbie doll or Hot Wheels car or mini motor bike because the kid down the street has it the parents will continue to buy them for their children. Even the time of the year can make a difference. “Toys continue to be one of the top choices for children's Christmas gift requests and current annual sales of toys are around US\$21.3 billion” (The NPD Group Inc., 2006). Otnes *et al.* (1994) “suggest that nearly all of the advertising expenditures for the most popularly requested toys occur in the September quarter”. “Parents were considerably more influenced by their children's desires for toys at Christmas time (87%) than in the summer (58%)” (Frideres, 1973). During Christmas there is a ritual in west to ask children what they would like to have as gifts. This helps in the children’s socialization process and helps them to become consumers further. (Clarke, 2008) “explored the aspects of parental approaches to their children’s request behaviour within the family”. After conducting a survey of parents prior to Christmas found that the parents encourage a positive exchange of desire and opinion from children and try to generate an atmosphere of open request behavior within the family.

Sometimes when parents deny their children’s requests, the children often need an explanation of why the product has not been purchased. Although mothers often feel that they have provided a sufficient reason for not buying the product, but sometimes the children feel that they have not received a satisfactory explanation. According to (Howard, Hulbert and Lehmann, 1973; McNeal, 1969) the explanations provided to older children are more detailed than those for younger children”.

Discussions about requests for products are important in the consumer socialization of the child. “They are part of the basis for the cross-generation transmission of consumer behavior; because the child learns to evaluate products by those criteria his parents use” (Ward and Wackman, 1972). In China the advertisers have recognized the enormous potential of the Children market. “These children in China are often known as "Little

Emperors or Empresses", because they are the main focus of their parents and grandparents and receive virtually anything they want" (Liu, 2007). "Chinese children determine approximately 68 per cent of their parents' spending, perhaps the highest rate of influence in the world" (Sayavera, 2006). (Predergast and Wong, 2003) found in his research that "many parents tend to buy luxury brands of clothing for their infants, when the infants are too young to appreciate Armani, Versace, and other such labels"? Whom are these parents trying to impress? "The declining birth rate in the Hong Kong population is replicating the common trend in industrialised countries toward smaller families" (Speece and So, 1998). They have higher disposable income and can spend more on children's wear and child-related products which has been increasing. "In particular, more parents are moving away from traditional low-cost local brands to more upmarket luxury brands" (Corral, 1999: Speece and So, 1998). "In fact, parents are actively purchasing well-known brand name products for their children" (McNeal, 1987). In this sense, the concept of the "little emperor" is not only a Mainland China phenomenon, but exists in Hong Kong, too. "Darian (1998) suggests that buying luxury brands for children reflects favourably on the financial status of the parents". Much research has looked at parent-child decisions when buying children's apparel.

A mother who watches a lot of advertisements and has positive attitude towards advertising is more influenced by her child's requests. Brand recall seems to be another important predictor of influence. "A mother's brand recall of her child's favorite cereals was found to be significantly related to her purchase of those cereals" (Berey and Pollay, 1968). "Similarly, the more restrictions parents place on their children's television viewing, the less receptive they are to influence attempts" (Ward and Wackman, 1972). Some research has revealed that advertising to children has also been criticised for several decades. Burr and Burr (1976) "reported that US parents had strong doubts about the honesty of advertising to children and displayed a strong degree of cynicism about its perceived misleading aspects". Grossbart and Crosby (1984) state that "positive parental nutritional tendencies lead to objections to television food advertising aimed at children". Chan and McNeal (2003) concluded that "Chinese parents held negative attitudes towards television advertising in

general, children's advertising and food advertising to children in particular, because they believe that it encourages bad eating habits”.

One of the factors by which a mother can be influenced by her child depends upon the mother's child-centeredness (as determined by her time involvement in her child's activities). Also this mother's child-centeredness is expected to be positively related to her brand recall of her child's favorite cereals. However, this may not be the case always. “Highly child-centered mothers tend to purchase their child's favorite brand of cereal less frequently” (Berey and Pollay, 1968).

(Dounens et.al, 2007) “made study on the behavioural effects of advertising and found that television watching by children is correlated with requests for advertised products”. (Valkenburg, 2000) “Children have more autonomy and decision-making power within the family today than in previous generations”. In some product categories, kids can be active initiators, information seekers, and buyers; whereas for other product categories, they can play the role of influencers in purchases made by the parents. “Children do not only influence overall family decision making, they are also presumed to impact the purchase of innovative products” (Cotte and Wood, 2004). “Being more knowledgeable on certain novel products like consumer electronics or multimedia, they participate in the innovation buying process quite actively” (Ekstrom *et al.* , 1987). “In the USA, children influence up to \$360 million of parental spending” (Kindel, 1992). “Therefore, it is absolutely vital for companies to know whether and how children influence their parents with regard to the purchase and use of innovative products” (Lee and Collins, 2000). This amount of influence exerted by children varies by product category and stage of the decision making process. “This influence of children is termed as the "pester power" or "nag factor"”(Young, 2003; Spungin, 2004; Clarke, 2003), i.e. "advertising encourages children to nag their parents into something that is not good for them, “they don't need or the parent cannot afford" (Spungin, 2004, p. 37)”. “One-third of food and beverage purchases have been reported by parents as "nagging driven"” (Preston, 2005)”. This means that marketing to children is all about creating pester power as it is a powerful marketing tool. “Children exert this power on their parents as to what food will be purchased for the household” (Darlan 1998).

The children's market is very important to advertisers because of its large size and their pester power. Kaur and Singh (2006) point out "children constitute three different markets: the primary, the influencer, and the future market". Children are primary users for some products. They either purchase or select a product themselves and ask parents to purchase it. For other products which are to be used by entire family they can influence parents. For influencing they can directly influence or use pestering as a strategy. For other products, parents' buying patterns are affected by prior knowledge of the tastes and preferences of their children. McNeal and Ji (1999) point out that "children learn their consumer-related skills, knowledge, and attitudes through interaction with various social agents in specific social settings, a process that is usually termed consumer socialization" (Ward 1970) or consumer development (McNeal 1964). McNeal (1998) "notes that parent's today worry that their children should have it as good as other children, and therefore are giving them more money, more things, and more opportunities to better compete". Seeing such opportunity, marketers today use multiple techniques and channels to reach even toddlers to foster brand building.

2.13 Dimensions of beliefs about Advertising as an Instrument

Mittal (1994) "tested the relationship between three evaluative dimensions of television advertising and overall attitude". The three evaluative dimensions were information/disinformation, enjoyment/annoyance, and silliness. The information factor included attributes such as being informative and helpful as well as attributes related to credibility of advertising, such as being believable and honest. As the label indicated, the enjoyment/annoyance factor included attributes such as being enjoyable, entertaining, annoying, or offensive. "The silliness factor was similar to the falsity/no sense factor in the model" Pollay and Mittal (1993). All three factors contributed to the prediction of overall attitude, with information/disinformation making the largest contribution, and silliness the least.

“From a uses and gratifications perspective, Ducoffe (1995, 1996) proposed that the consumer has both benefits and costs in processing advertising messages, which taken together decides the value of advertising to the consumer”. In a mall-intercept survey, Ducoffe (1995) “found significant correlations between advertising value in general and multiple-item measures of information, entertainment, and irritation”.

Brackett and Carr (2001) “further validated Ducoffe’s (1995, 1996) model and added one more factor: credibility”. MacKenzie and Lutz (1989) “defined credibility as “consumers’ perceptions of the truthfulness and believability of advertising in general” (p. 51). “Compared with respondents in Ducoffe’s sample, respondents in Bracett and Carr’s study (2001) rated Internet advertising as less entertaining and informative, and more irritating”. “Tsang, Ho, and Liang (2004) also adopted the four belief factors (entertainment, informativeness, irritation, and credibility) in predicting overall attitude toward advertising, although the specific items they used to measure each factor were not identical with those in Bracett and Carr’s model”. Perceived entertainment, informativeness, and credibility were positively related to overall attitude, whereas irritation was negatively related to overall attitude.

Shavitt et al. (1998) “identified four perceptive dimensions from the literature: enjoyment/indignity, trustworthiness/usefulness, price effects, and advertising regulation”. The two factors that dealt with price effects and advertising regulation were socioeconomic effects factors. “The enjoyment/indignity factor was similar to the enjoyment/annoyance factor in scale” Mittal’s (1994). The trustworthiness/usefulness factor included items related to advertising’s credibility and informativeness

Zhou and Bao (2002) “also tested the relationship between overall attitude toward advertising and perceived informativeness and perceived entertainment”. Both perception factors were positively related to overall attitude. Edwards, Li, and Lee (2002) “examined

several dimensions of consumers' perceptions of ads, including perceived informativeness, entertainment, intrusiveness, and irritation". However, their model specifying the interrelations among the variables is conceptually confusing and inconsistent with the literature. For example, perceived informativeness and entertainment were specified as antecedents of perceived intrusiveness and influencing advertising avoidance through perceived intrusiveness. It can be argued that although perceived informative and entertainment are very likely related to perceived intrusiveness, their role in affecting avoidance is more direct and parallels that of perceived intrusiveness. A test of possible competing models would have made this clear.

2.14 Elements creating attitude towards an advertisement and their importance

2.14.1 Likability

Advertisements are made of certain entertaining elements like music, slogans, messages etc. Children like all these elements of advertisements and his own traits also influence him. The point is what creates this likability of children towards advertisements. It is the music, songs and slogans which create this likability. That is why children tend to memorise them and is used by children in their social communication.

2.14.2 Annoying

(Gorn and Goldberg, 1977) observed that "children tend to dislike advertisements due to the repetition and the degree to which an advertisements is perceived to interrupt a programme in progress" (Gunter et al; 2001). "Advertisements for supermarkets, advertisements using fear appeal and public service announcements have been found to be annoying by children"

(Chan, 2000). (Ward, 1972) found in his study that “children feel annoyed with boring or dull advertisements”.

2.14.3 Believability

Rossiter 1979 in his research found that younger children have more positive attitudes towards TV advertising which tends to diminish significantly with age. Hence as children grow older, they question advertising more. “Children become more distrustful towards advertising as they grow older” (Derbaix and Pecheux, 2003; Boush et al; 1994). Burr and Burr (1976) reported that “US parents had strong doubts about the honesty of advertising to children and displayed a strong degree of cynicism about its perceived misleading aspects”.

2.14.4 Persuasiveness

Children who are able to identify the persuasive intent of advertisements are less likely to be influenced by that advertisement. This shows that they are less trusting towards it. Advertisements to children raises a lot of societal concerns. “Some researchers believe that children as old as three to four years do understand the persuasive intent of advertisements” (Donohue, Henke and Donohue, 1980) “while others believe that children do not understand the persuasive agenda behind an advertisement and hence become targets for commercial persuasion” (Wilcox, 2004). “Children from the age of five can understand the difference between a programme and an advertisement, and that, from eight years onwards, they also understand the commercial intent of advertising” ([31] Kunkel *et al.* , 2004; [41] Preston, 2005; [52] Wright *et al.* , 2005).

2.14.5 Peer Influence

Dotson and Hyatt (2005) “identified the role peers and media - primarily television, in eliciting a response for advertised products among children”. These studies amply describe the influence of secondary reference teams, which has peers, as intervening variables in evoking a response from the youngsters, with the exception of the first reference teams consisting of fogeys. “Peers also refer to children in the older age groups, whom the children in the lower age group tend to emulate ([21] Gunter and Furnham, 1998), thus highlighting the role of aspiration group”. “Emulation is not a universal phenomenon, as children may develop a dislike for a product or situation due to age difference and identifying with older siblings” ([29] Laulor and Prothers, 2003), hinting at the dissociation aspect of the children's reference group.

2.15 Invasive Marketing and Children

(Baker and Vitell, 2010) found that “the effects of advertising on children have been highly debated among various groups, including parents, researchers, industry experts, and government agencies”. One of the first debates has been the potential impact of food advertising directed at youngsters. a spread of establishments square measure concerned during this dialogue. “Some of these organizations such as public advocacy groups criticize the food companies and television networks concerning the increased amounts spent as well as the types of promotional efforts targeted at children” (York, 2007). There is conjointly dialogue among practitioners on advertising practices directed at kids, with even promoting professionals indicating concern regarding advertising targeted at kids. There are endless promotions and special offers being targeted at consumers these days. Mitchell and Papavassiliou (2005) points out that “confused consumers become vulnerable to such marketing practices and are not able to process information logically”. Advertising therefore adds confusion in the minds of the consumer due to the information overload of complex and conflicting messages. These weaken the effect and decrease the recall rate of individual messages thereby leading to more problems of decision making. “There is great concern about children as viewers of advertisements primarily because young children are exposed to thousands of commercials each year in India” (George 2003) as well as in the West

(Kunkel et al. 2004). Due to the confusions created by marketing and advertising, and also consumers having more disposable incomes with better life styles has left very little time for the decision making and is being delegated. “Confused consumers can often involve another person (i.e. spouse, family member, and friend) in the purchasing decision or even delegate the task to them completely” (Mitchell and Papalassiliou 2005). Certain companies in Europe have come forward by stopping junk food advertising to children so that the issues related to child obesity is addressed. They have even stopped marketing to children under 12 years of age. “The companies also have pledged to limit soft-drink sales at schools” (Wentz, 2005). “Other countries in Europe, however, have been taking an even stricter stance on regulations; for example, starting in 2005, Ireland introduced a ban on celebrities who appear in food and beverages targeted at children” (Jardine and Wentz, 2004). Furthermore, some corporations have conjointly saw government calls by promoting active lifestyles once targeting kids in food ads.

“In communication and advertising research, the social learning model has often been a popular choice for explaining consumer behavior” (Moschis, 1985). “Children try to emulate and develop general behaviors and attitudes by modeling the behavior of others” (Bandura 1977). “This model typically become “role” models for the individual, influencing the career aspirations, instructional objectives, and self-views of young people” (Mitchell et al. 1979). Halan (2002) opines that “marketing to Children is no longer Child stuff”. Belch *et al.* (1985) and (Beatty and Talpade 1994) reported in a study that ““teenage” children see themselves as exerting more influence on the family decision process (for example regarding both how much to spend and where to purchase) than do their parents”. The studies revealed that parents felt that children have more knowledge of brands than they have as parents, therefore they took their opinion before purchasing. It is of course possible that whilst the decision may appear to be that of the child, it is set within pre-determined boundaries established by the parents (such as the parent deciding on the model of car and the child choosing the colour). A free smurf with a Mc Donalds Happy meals encouraged children to buy more Happy meals which shows how much children are susceptible to advertising (Parents’ Jury 2002). Solomon (1996) argues that “children are targeted directly with messages of what food products to buy, which will influence them to pester their parents when shopping”. “Parents often find it difficult to deny their children food that

features their favorite cartoon characters or celebrities that they have seen on television” (Keane and Willetts 1994). Even in Indian context there are several examples of successful advertisements targeting children like for Surf Excel “Daag Acche Hain” or Dhara’s “My Daddy Strongest”. According to (Kaur and Singh, 2006) “advertising to youngsters avoids any charm to the rational, accenting instead that ads square measure for diversion and “enjoyable for his or her own sake” as against providing any real shopper information. The foremost common persuasive strategy used in advertising to youngsters is to associate the merchandise with fun and happiness, instead of to produce any factual product-related information. “Hence, children in the age category 8-10 years have a positive attitude towards advertisements” (Seiter 1993). Hastings et al. (2003) points out that “children receive advertising messages which have more to do with fantasy and fun than health and nutrition”. As per Canadian Pediatric Society, children advertisement is mostly aimed at selling fast foods, soft drinks, candies and the healthy food advertisement is only 4% of the shown. So parents also hold negative attitudes to food advertisements which is shown to children. Grossbart and Crosby (1984) state that “parent’s tendencies towards nutrition lead to objections to television food advertising aimed at children”. “The UK Consumers Association recently reported that parents find that food advertising makes it hard for them to provide a healthy diet to their children” (Preston, 2005). Chan and McNeal (2003) concluded that “Chinese parents held negative attitudes towards television advertising in general, children's advertising and food advertising to children in particular, because they believe that it encourages bad eating habits”.

2.16 Family Communication and Children’s role in Family decision making

“Family communication is a very important aspect of the consumer socialisation process” (Peterson & Rollins 1987, cited in Palan 1998; Caruana & Vassallo 2003). “It is generally believed that the family context of interpersonal communication has a greater impact on the acquisition of consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes than mass-media advertising” (Peterson & Rollins 1987. cited in Palan 1998). Mcleod and O’Keefe (1972) found that

“socio- and concept-orientation were determinants of family communication patterns”. “This is further supported by Caruana and Vassallo (2003), who state that socio and concept-orientation are two principal parental communication styles that can affect the perceived influence a child believes it has”. In a socio oriented communication child is more obedient and has good relationships at home. So whatever decisions children make, it is more accepted by others. “Parents who adopt this style of communication are said to be controlling towards what their child learns as a consumer, and they do not discuss consumption-related activities with the child” (Moschis & Moore 1979; Caruana & Vassallo 2003).

The concept oriented communication in contrast helps a child to make his own views and decisions. This may cause differences between child and parent. “They are encouraged to make decisions and purchases even though these may be different from others’ opinions” (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003). Caruana and Vassallo (2003) “based their study on these parental communication styles and their results showed that children of concept-oriented and parents have an influence on purchase decisions, while those with socio-oriented parents do not”. “Therefore, the lower the socio-orientation and the higher the concept-orientation the more influence the child exerts on its family’s decision making” (Geuens *et al.* 2003). As such, the way in which a parent communicates with a child can affect the level of influence the child perceives they have in terms of family purchases.

“Also, parental employment status (single versus dual income) appears to affect teens’ influences for some product categories (stereo phones) but not for others (TVs, VCRs, furniture)” (Beatty and Talpade, 1994). “For instance, adolescents from traditional homes, whose mothers have a career, are more influential in family decision making, possibly due to guilt on the mothers’ part” (Lee and Beatty, 2002).

When trying to influence their parents, children use different types of influence, e.g. bargaining, persuasion, emotional, and request strategy. “According to importance and time frame of the presumed purchase, six kinds of response strategies are normally used by parents (bargaining, persuasion, emotional, expert, legitimate, and directive strategy)” (Palan and Wilkes, 1997).

In India, comparatively there is not much research done on the Indian sample investigating the role of children in family decision. “Research studies made by (Kaur et. al, 2003) have expressed that children constitute a major consumer market, and have a direct purchasing power for snacks and sweets, and indirect purchase influence while shopping for big-ticket items” (Halan, 2002; Singh, 1998). Indian children have recently attracted considerable attention from marketers because the market is rapidly growing and children's products offers tremendous potential (pegged at Rs. 5000 crore/\$1110mn). “According to available industry data, the chocolate and confectionary market is estimated at Rs. 1300 crore/\$290mn, the apparel market at Rs. 480 crore/\$110mn and kids footwear at Rs. 1000 crore/\$220mn” (Bhushan, 2002). “In addition to this, 54% of India is estimated to be under the age of 25” (Bansal, 2004). Singh (1992) “studied the role played by family members while purchasing a television across five occupational categories: teachers, doctors, businesspeople, lawyers, and engineers”. Berey and Pollay (1968) “studied mother and child dads making purchases of ready-to eat breakfast cereals”. “The extent of influence a child may have on a parent’s purchase decision depends on at least two factors: the child’s assertiveness and the parent’s child-centeredness” (Kaur and Singh, 2003). Kotler (2000) “identified a number of buying roles in the decision-making process”. “These are initiator, influencer, decider, buyer, and user” (Brassington and Pettitt, 2000). “Generally, the role of children in persuading (or influencing) their parents to move is known to be significant” (Allen *et al.*, 1992). “There has been extensive debate by (Adcock *et al.* (2001); Antonides and van Raaij (1998); Herr *et al.* (1991) among others, about the roles of other people involved in the generic decision-process”. “However a study done by Holdert and Antonides (1997) reported that children’s influence was higher in the later stages of the decision making process- that is, at the time of alternative evaluation, choice, and purchase”. The

buying intentions may be mediated by parents. Thus parental authority holds significance in the purchase decisions. Parents of young children have an important role to play in protecting their children from invasive marketing, and in educating them about advertising from an early age. Chan and McNeal (2003), in a study on Chinese parents, also reported that “parents indulged in considerable gate keeping for children’s products”. They allowed some freedom to their children to choose brands but only for products that they wanted their children to buy thereby keeping strict control on what kind of products were bought by or for the child. Belch et al. (2005) proposed that “since teenagers are high users of the internet, they have greater access to market information which could impact their influence in family decision making”. They found that tweens perceive themselves to be internet mavens and even parents relied on their decisions. Child also has a certain degree of influence depending upon the age of the child, what is the stage of decision making and what is the type of product. (Dunne, 1999) found that “mid teenagers have been identified as engaging in a "consultancy" role for family holidays”. Of course, shopping savviness or marketing literacy is likely to correlate with age.

“A parent child conflict may arise when refusals occur in response to children’s purchase-influence attempts” (Robertson, 1979), since parents cannot honor all purchase requests triggered by television advertising. “In few studies made by Atkin (1975) found that more than half of children reported arguing or becoming angry when a toy request was denied; in another” (Atkin, 1978), he observed high rates of child anger in response to the majority of parent refusals for cereal requests at the supermarket. It can be said that the more the child has advertising exposure, the more frequently he will have purchase requests which may place a strain on parent–child interaction.

2.17 Influence of Children by Product Category

“In Western literature, children have been reported to wield a lot of influence in purchase decisions for children products such as snacks” (Ahuja and Stinson, 1993); toys (Burns and

Harrison, 1985; Jensen, 1995; Williams and Veeck, 1998); children's wear (Converse and Crawford, 1949; Foxman and Tansuhaj, 1988; Holdert and Antonides, 1997; Van Syckle, 1951); and cereals (Belch et al., 1985; Berey and Pollay, 1968). "Children have been observed to influence decisions for family products also, such as holiday/vacations" (Ahuja and Stinson, 1993; Belch et al., 1985; Dunne, 1999; Holdert and Antonides, 1997; Jenkins, 1979); movies (Darley and Lim, 1986); and eating at particular restaurants or even decision making for the family to eat out (Filiatrault and Ritchie, 1980; Williams and Veeck, 1998). "Some researchers investigated the role children play in purchase of children and family products together" (Foxman and Tansuhaj, 1988; Geuens et al., 2002; Hall et al., 1995; Mangleburg et al., 1999; McNeal and Yeh, 1997). Jensen (1995) "studied three categories of products—those that are primarily for children (e.g., toys, candy), products for family consumption (food, shampoo, toothpaste), and parents' products (gasoline, coffee, rice)".

"Similarly, Johnson (1995) selected products as categorized by Sheth (1974)—products for individual use, those for family use, and finally products for the household". We have reviewed the influence of children on product categories and how parents have responded to that. Berey and Pollay (1968) "studied mother and child dyads making purchases of ready-to-eat breakfast cereals". They found that children cannot directly influence purchases but the extent of influence may depend upon how assertive the child is and how much parents are centered around the child. So, more assertive the child more the parents give into child's requests. Chan and McNeal (2003), "in a study of Chinese parents, also reported that parents indulged in considerable gate keeping for children's products". They exhibited strict control over the kinds of products that children can or cannot buy while at the same time allowing children some freedom in choosing brands of permissible products. Atkin (1978) "pointed out that children tend to rely on pre-established preferences based more often on premium incentives offered on a purchase than the nutritional features of a cereal at the time of influencing cereal purchases".

Mehrotra and Torges (1977) and Williams and Veeck (1998) “further noted that no particular attitude or set of attitudes uniquely determines for all products whether a mother would be influenced by her child or not”. “Children’s influence is also seen to vary by who is the user and the perceived importance of the product to the user” (Beatty and Talpade, 1994; Foxman and Tansuhaj, 1988). Jensen (1995) proposed that “parents’ involvement is a function of financial risk, their role as users, and their perception of product differentiation whereas children are mostly involved in the purchase due to their role as users”. She in her research concluded that children also influence parents for products to be bought for family consumption. Geuens et al. (2002) observed that “the relative influence of children varies by the extent to which the parents are busy”. Foxman et al. (1989) concluded that “children have more influence in less expensive products. He also found that certain factors like older father’s age, a concept oriented communication style, lesser children etc had effect on the adolescents purchase decisions.

Palan and Wilkes (1997) “observed adolescent-parent interaction in decision making and reported that besides direct requests, adolescents are likely to use bargaining (money deals, other deals, and reasoning) and persuasion (opinions, begging) as strategies to influence decision outcomes”. “In India, Singh (1992) studied the role played by family members while purchasing a television across five occupational categories: teachers, doctors, businesspeople, lawyers, and engineers”. “Children of engineers and doctors were found to have remarkable influence in the purchase decision. Hundal (2001) “in a study of 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”. He found that in these families the decision regarding product selection was influenced by children and in rural areas by spouses (Halan, 2002).

2.18 Children’s Influence on buying decision of parents

McNeal and Yeh (1997) demonstrated that “children have great influence on their parents

spending”. “In a review of marketing literature, from the USA mainly, Roedder John (1999) finds that older children have more influence than younger children”. “Younger children influence indirectly by their mere presence and by their special needs, setting certain limits and demands to what the family can do” (Fodness, 1992; Thornton *et al.* , 1997). “Some children have been observed to influence decisions for family products also, such as holiday/vacations” (Belch et al. 1985); movies (Darley and Lim 1986); and eating at particular restaurants or even decision making for the family to eat out (Filiatrault and Ritchie 1980). Children usually have most influence in early stages of decision making and it goes on lowering as the stages increase in buying cycle. “Pleasing the child is an important motive for parents”, mentioned by Ryan (1992) and Johns and Gyimothy (2002). “The satisfaction of children is highly rated by parents” (Thornton *et al.* 1997).

“Children influence indirectly and in a passive way by indicating what they like and what they do not like” (Roedder John, 1999) and young children might use very direct approaches to influence (Rust, 1993). Pestering means that child will directly influence by insisting to purchase an item and also involves repeated requests, exchanges and bargains by child. “Children might initiate the purchase, collect information about alternatives, suggest retail outlets, and have a say in the final decision” (Roedder John, 1999). “As children grow older, strategies such as bargaining, compromising and persuasion are employed, and asking for products with no argumentation turns into discussions and compromises between parents and children” (Rust, 1993). Lindstrom (2003) maintains that “children's indirect influence is very important as well. The influence of children is not just a one-way unsophisticated process with a screaming child in a supermarket, as the process is thought of stereotypically, but a two-way communicative and multifaceted process between the child and an adult often encouraging the child's participation”.

“A study was done on how children impact family buying decisions which focused on goods particularly interesting to children, such as cornflakes, chocolate bars, and lemonade” (Berey and Pollay, 1968; Mehrotra and Torges, 1977; Atkin, 1978; Roberts et al., 1981; Isler

et al., 1987; Rust, 1993). “Up to the present, a vast array of products and services has been included in research, e.g. household applications, furniture, vacations, restaurant choice, and life insurance” (Ward and Wackman, 1972; Szybillo and Sosanie, 1977; Jenkins, 1979; Moschis and Moore, 1979; Nelson, 1979; Belch et al., 1985; Darley and Lim, 1986; Foxman and Tansuhaj, 1988; Beatty and Talpade, 1994; Mangleburg et al., 1999). Results evidenced that children have major influence on purchasing decisions of parents. “This influence is larger for products the children use themselves” (Foxman et al., 1989; Beatty and Talpade, 1994; Shoham and Dalakas, 2003), for less expensive products (Foxman et al., 1989), and for durables if the teenager expects that he/she will use them intensively (Beatty and Talpade, 1994). “For example, children influence buying decisions of TV-sets, but also of home furniture, or sometimes even cars” (Swinyard and Sim, 1987). However, it was also argued that children’s influence is used as an official argument for adults’ purchase of products, e.g. computers. It seems that children are a prominent site on which different social groups, such as parents, teachers, and politicians project their own desires, hopes, fears, and expectations, e.g. about new technology and the information age. “Therefore, researchers have asked to assess children’s influence” (Selwyn, 2003, 2004). (Gotze, et. al 2007) “investigates not only children’s influence at particular stages in the buying process but also the Intermediating role of specific product types and intended users”.

Further, demographic factors play a major role in children’s power to influence their parents. “For example, Foxman et al. (1989) argue that age is a relevant variable as older children are presumed to be more knowledgeable about products and family needs”. “This is mainly due to their increase in cognitive development” (Piaget, 1972). “However, findings on whether product knowledge has a positive impact on teenagers’ influence differ” (Beatty and Talpade, 1994). “Adolescents were found to have greater influence in concept-oriented families, and if they had better grades” (Foxman et al., 1989).

Now a days children have the luxury of both being a part of decision making as well as pestering their parents to buy their desired products. (Mc Neal 1999) found that “children

are now a days active participants in family decision making”. “Researchers have also observed that children exert considerable influence during the problem recognition and search stages and the least influence in the final decision stage” (Belch et al, 1985; Filiatrault and Ritchie, 1980; Hempel, 1974) for family activities such as choice of vacations and restaurants and consumer durables. Belch et al. (2005) proposed that “since teenagers are high users of the Internet, they have greater access to market information which could impact their influence in family decision making”. “Children were not seen to have a large impact on instrumental decisions such as how much to spend” (Belch et al., 1985; Jenkins, 1979; Szybillo and Sosanie, 1977), but do have on expressive decisions such as color, model, brand, shape and time of purchase (Belch et al.,1985; Darley and Lim, 1986). “However, Williams and Veeck (1998) reported that in China, where most families have a single child, the child exerted considerable influence during all stages while buying products for family use”. This means that families having only one child, the children make more influence on decisions of parents. “Children have not been observed to have a large impact on instrumental decisions such as how much to spend” (Kaur, 2003; Singh and Kaur, 2004; Verma, 1982), but rather play a role while making expressive decisions such as color, model, brand, shape, and time of purchase (Sen Gupta and Verma, 2000; Singh, 1992; Singh and Kaur, 2004; Synovate, 2004) as validated in the West as well. “More recently, ‘concern has been raised about the apparent growth in children’s power to influence parents’ buying behaviour and purchase decisions, a set of tactics sometimes characterised as pester power” (Nicholls and Cullen, 2004:76). “Often families actively encourage their child’s participation within the family decision-making unit” (Ekstrom *et al.* 1987).

2.19 Research gap and hypothesis development

After doing the review of literature it was found that several researches have been done in the past individually on finding the critical constructs which influence the attitude of children towards TV advertisements, whether attitude of children towards TV advertisements causes pester power. Also research has been made on finding out whether Pester power of children influences Buying behaviour of parents. Since this study is a conceptual replication throughout the remainder of this study, which will examine the same

issues of a previous study, but is free to use different procedure, measurement instruments, and sampling procedure to investigate the same issues. There were very less studies done in 2013-14 related to this topic. There has been no research done in the past which answers a set of interrelated questions as proposed in the problem statement above. A gap has been thereby identified and in this research, there are a lot of inter-related questions which need to be investigated. Confirmatory factor analysis and Structural Equational Modeling has been used as a procedure to understand the inter-relationships between the constructs, represented by multiple measured variables and fill the gap. The concept is similar to estimating a series of multiple regression equations. These equations model all the relationships among constructs, dependent as well as independent.

Based on the literature review done by the researcher, the current study purports to measure different factors which influence the attitude of children towards TV advertisements. It further finds out whether attitude of children towards TV advertisements causes pester power and how this pester power of children influences Buying behaviour of parents.

A series of hypotheses has been developed by the researcher. The hypotheses developed were statistically tested and a research model was developed as discussed below:

2.19.1 Informativeness as a measure of Children's attitude towards Television advertisements.

“Advertisements play an important role in the life of children by making them aware of the brands and helping them learn how to use them” (Peter and Olson, 1994). “Some researchers claim that children do not understand the persuasive agenda behind an advertisement and hence become targets for commercial persuasion” (Wilcox, 2004). “These children interpret advertising claims as truthful with accurate information” (Kunkel, 2004). The information sent through television advertising falls into two categories. One is the information related to business called as commercial information and the other falls into the category of educating children called as educational information. When it is about commercialisation, the children feel advertisements offer information about products and product availability. Children either feel that advertisements tell them about things that might be in the shops or refer to

the informative nature of advertising with regard to his favourite advertisements which tell them how a product will look like when they are made. “Children have addressed the informative nature of advertising to be good as otherwise they wouldn't get that much info about new toys, new sweets, new games and all that stuff” (Mark, 8). With respect to the educational information, Children feel that advertisements teach them about the benefits of consumption of certain products.

Calfee and Ringold (1994) reported that “advertising provides product information, leading to consumer education which helps in more exact matching between consumers' needs and wants and producers' offerings”. “Apart from creating meanings that relate to the children's universe of values, goals and expectations, advertising plays a vital role in providing information about products” (Freidmann & Zimmer, 1988; Kwan, & Eze, 2012). When it comes to product information it affects the attitude towards advertising by providing information about product improvement, newly launched products, and so forth. Taylor, Bonner & Dolezal (2002) stated that “appeals intended at providing information can be effective in Bulgaria and Romania, given the positive function of product information on general attitudes toward advertising”.

Hence following hypothesis has been framed::

H1: Informativeness through a TV advertisement has an effect on Children's attitude towards TV advertisements.

2.19.2 Entertainment as a measure of Children's attitude towards Television advertisements.

Over the years literature has been in agreement that children tend to favour entertaining advertisements. Goldberg and Gorn (1978) found that “children get attracted to advertisements with up tempo music, swift action and attractive child models”. “Entertainment has also been found to be a function of the use of humour, catchphrases and

jingles” (Rolandelli, 1989; Ross et al, 1984; Goldberg and Gorn, 1978; Ward 1972). “In 2003, Bartholomew and O'Donohoe's made a study on 10-12 year old kids whereby children were seen enjoying and imitating catchphrases and jingles for brands such as Budweiser. Children, therefore have been seen to draw upon advertising for enjoyment and entertainment”. “Some other authors also have recognised that children are attracted to entertaining advertisements incorporating humour, cartoon characters, famous people, child models, animals and swift action” ([36] Ross *et al.* , 1984; [4] Blosser and Roberts, 1985; [35] Rolandelli, 1989; [9] Collins, 1990; [23] Maher *et al.* , 2006).

Hence following hypothesis has been framed::

H2: Entertainment through a TV advertisement has an effect on Children's attitude towards TV advertisements.

2.19.3 Credibility as a measure of Children's attitude towards Television advertisements.

(Chan and Mc Neal, 2002) found that “younger children are more confident about the TV advertised product while older children tend to rely on the quality of the advertised product”. “This shows that older children are quite sceptic about the credibility and truthfulness of the advertisements which does not allow them to develop a positive attitude towards advertisements” (Rieken and Yavas, 1990). It therefore appears that the children's perception of credibility and believability about the advertised messages is also a function of their age. “According to Pollay and Mittal (1993), beliefs are descriptive statements about object attributes (e.g., advertising is truthful) or consequences (e.g., advertising lowers prices), whereas attitudes are summary evaluations of objects (e.g. advertising is a good/bad thing)” (p. 101)”. “They proposed that attitudes could be explained by beliefs, “being the integration of weighted evaluations of perceived attributes and consequences” (p. 101), based on Fishbein’s (1963) theory of reasoned action. “The kernel of Fishbein’s theory is that beliefs and attitudes are distinct, and beliefs usually function as indicants of attitudes” (e.g., Dillon

& Kumar, 1985; Fishbein, 1967a; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1974; Fishbein & Raven, 1962). Derbaix and Pecheux (2003) “developed a new scale to assess children's attitude towards television advertisements”. Credibility and entertainment aspect was developed as two major factors to measure attitude. Credibility was further reinforced by Ashill and Yavas (2005) who also developed believability as a predictor to attitude towards advertising.

Hence following hypothesis has been framed::

H3: *Credibility of a TV advertisement has an effect on Children's attitude towards TV advertisements.*

2.19.4 Likability as a measure of Children's attitude towards Television advertisements.

“Attitude of children towards TV advertisements depends on the extent to which a child likes Television advertising and views it favorably or unfavourably” (Rossiter, 1979). In the literature, it has been noted that children have a liking towards TV advertisements due to the animated characters which engages children's attention. “Some researchers have found that children's liking for TV advertisements have resulted into strong recall and high levels of recognition for adult targeted advertisements” (Fischer et al, 1991). “Children’s liking or dislike also depends upon the nature of the product being advertised” (Scammon and Christopher, 1981). “Children have been found to like advertisements for FMCG products and Toys because not only these advertisements are interesting but also children like these products” (Chan, 2000).

Hence following hypothesis has been framed::

H4: Likability of a TV advertisement has an effect on Children's attitude towards TV advertisements.

2.19.5 Children's attitude has an influence on the Pester Power of Children.

“It has been seen that children who have a positive attitude towards Television advertisements either buy these products themselves or ask their parents to purchase them; and those children who have a negative attitude towards the Television advertisements either ignore the advertisements or do not ask their parents to purchase them” (Evra, 1990). “Television advertisements had certain effects on children: they tend to create appeal in such a manner that it often leads to continuous requests to parents for purchase, which many a times further leads to parent child conflict” (Andguladze, 2007). (Wartella and Alexander, 1979) found that “children who are eleven or more, they watch advertisements with a view to form an attitude towards them”. “In other words, children in their tweens are able to form beliefs about products and brands which helps them make the actual purchase or ask their parents to purchase them the product” (Mc Neal and Ji, 1999).

Hence following hypothesis has been framed:

H5: Children's attitude towards Television advertisements is related to the Pester Power of Children.

2.19.6 Pester power of child as a measure of influence on Buying behaviour of Parents

“Even advertisements featuring products meant for adult use are being featured on the channels meant for children, as children influence much higher purchase (hinting at pester power) [60]” Nichols and Cullen (2004). Goldstein (1994) suggests that “the standard argument is “children are naïve and therefore vulnerable to advertising; that advertising creates undesirable demands and results in parent-child conflict” (p. 10). “In contrast,

McNeal (1999b) found the term *pester power* to be misleading and negative. McNeal feels that the term *pester power* is negative because of two factors:(a) children are taught by their parents to ask for things even before they can walk and (b) the new family that came about in the late 1980's assumes children are active participants in family decision-making". In fact, today's child may have so much decision-making power in the family that we can aptly describe the thousand European families. (p. 75). A study done in Europe found, however, that "...television advertising does not cause children to pester their parents. "According to John (1999), teenagers are sceptical about advertising when they are in the reflective stage". Today children are very important consumers who exert an influence on purchases which goes beyond toys and cereals. "According to McNeal, the typical child in the United States is exposed to some 20 000 advertisements a year, and these young consumers (between the age of four and 12) spent almost \$25 billion of their own money in 1998" (Geary, 1999). "They also exert a substantial influence on their parents' consumer decision making and spending" (Hawkins et al., 2001:207). Blackwell et al. (2001:748) state that "adolescent influence on household spending varies by product user and by degree". They have a greater influence in decisions on purchases of products for their own use. "In South Africa there are approximately 12,9 million school-going children of whom the 35% in secondary school command a disposable income of R4 billion per/year" (Mulrooney, 1999). "According to Koenderman (2001), children (of all ages) spend R4.5 billion/year in South Africa and influence the spending of another R20 billion/year including the purchase of items such as television sets and cars". Hence following hypothesis has been framed:

H6: Buying behaviour of Parents will be influenced by Pester power of child.

In addition to concerns regarding children's advertising in general, many parents also hold negative attitudes towards food advertising to children in particular. [22] Grossbart and Crosby (1984) state that "positive parental nutritional tendencies lead to objections to television food advertising aimed at children". "Parents in a US focus group discussion questioned the truthfulness of food claims in advertisements, and some even suggested that the advertisements deliberately lied" ([18] Flinders University, 2004). "The UK Consumers Association recently reported that parents find that food advertising makes it hard for them

to provide a healthy diet to their children” ([41] Preston, 2005). [10]. Chan and McNeal (2003) concluded that “Chinese parents held negative attitudes towards television advertising in general, children's advertising and food advertising to children in particular, because they believe that it encourages bad eating habits”.

2.20 Concluding Remarks

“Tweens who are defined as 8-12 year olds by marketing practitioners, is a market segment which is in between Childhood and teen-hood” (Cook and Kaiser, 2004; Siegel *et al.*, 2004). According to Mintel International Group (2001), “tweenagers are aged between 10 and 14 years of age while Clarke (2003) classifies them as 8-12 year olds”. They are a sizable direct market for marketers because of their disposable income estimated at \$1.5 billion. The companies are really interested in this market segment as they want to start early the brand loyalty amongst them. The extant literature review apprises of three prominent things (1) identifying what creates attitude of these tweens towards TV advertisements, (2) How this attitude creates pester power and lastly (3) how the pester power of these tween’s influences the buying decision of their parents.