



**T.C
YEDİTEPE UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**CHILDREN & CONSUMPTION
IDENTIFYING PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOR
WITH:
INDIVIDUAL, ENVIRONMENTAL (FAMILY) AND
TELEVISION VIEWING (ADVERTISEMENTS)
DETERMINANTS.**

**by
Özlem AKBÜLBÜL**

**Submitted to the Graduate Institute of Social Sciences
In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of
Public Relations and Publicity**

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(ADVERTISEMENTS) DETERMINANTS

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ABSTRACT

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CHILDREN & CONSUMPTION IDENTIFYING PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOR WITH: INDIVIDUAL, ENVIRONMENTAL (FAMILY) AND TELEVISION VIEWING (ADVERTISEMENTS) DETERMINANTS.

This thesis aims to explore the possible effects of determinants on consumption behavior of preschool children's. It consists of eleven chapters. After the introduction a literature review about consumption, consumer and consumer behavior are given. Nature of consumer - as an individual; nature of consumer – as in her or his environment; family and household influences; consumption role of children's in a family group; defining television viewing; defining television advertising; children and television advertising; the evaluation of the research; conclusions and recommendations are the other chapters.

Thesis is also divided into three main parts. The first part that is named 'nature of consumption' identifies the consumer role and variables effecting consumption process with individual and environmental determinants. Family/household influences and consumption role of children's in a family group are also included at this part.

The second part is about television viewing and advertising variables, affecting children's (preschoolers') consumption processes.

The third part of the thesis is the evaluation of the research which includes a questionnaire implemented to families of 102 preschool children. All the work aims to analyze the effects of all determinants on children and to be useful for parents and educators to minimize negative effects of whole consumption process.

Key words:

Child	Preschool children's	Shopping	Influence
Consumption	Consumers	Television	Advertising activity

ÖZET

ÖZLEM AKBÜLBÜL

Mayıs 2012

ÇOCUKLAR & TÜKETİM OKUL ÖNCESİ ÇOCUKLARININ TÜKETİM ALIŞKANLIKLARININ BİREYSEL, ÇEVRESEL (AİLE) VE TELEVİZYON İZLEME (REKLAMLAR) ETKENLERİ İLE TESPİTİ

Bu tez okul öncesi çocuklarının tüketim alışkanlıklarının üzerinde muhtemel etkisi olduğu düşünülen etkenleri analiz etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Tez on bir bölümden oluşmaktadır. Giriş bölümünden sonra, tüketim, tüketici ve tüketici alışkanlıkları hakkında literatür araştırması verilmiştir. Tüketicinin doğası –bireysel; tüketicinin doğası –çevresel; aile ve veya hane halkının etkileri, çocukların aile grubu içindeki rolü, televizyon izlemenin tanımlanması, televizyon reklamcılığının tanımlanması, çocuklar ve televizyon reklamcılığı, araştırmanın değerlendirilmesi, sonuçlar ve tavsiyeler tezin diğer bölümleridir.

Tez aynı zamanda üç ana kısma da ayrılmaktadır. ‘Tüketimin doğası’ adı altında başlayan ilk kısım, tüketicinin rolü ve tüketim sürecini etkileyen değişkenlerden, önce bireysel sonra çevresel etkenleri, tespit etmektedir. Aile/hane halkının etkileri ve çocuğun aile grubu içerisindeki tüketim rolü de bu kısma eklenmiştir.

İkinci bölüm televizyon izleme ve televizyon reklamcılığı değişkenlerinin çocukların (okul öncesi çocuklarının) tüketim sürecine etkisi hakkındadır.

Tezin üçüncü bölümü ise, 102 anaokulu çocuğunun ailelerine uygulanan soru formlarının, araştırma doğrultusunda değerlendirilmesini içerir. Çalışma, çocuklar üzerindeki tüm etkenlerin analiz edilmesi ve bu etkenlerin tüketim sürecine yaptıkları olumsuz etkilerinin minimize edilmesi doğrultusunda ailelere ve eğitimcilere yardımcı olunması amacıyla hazırlanmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler:

Çocuk	Okul öncesi çocuklar	Alışveriş	Etkileme
Tüketim	Tüketiciler	Televizyon	Reklam etkinliği

1. INTRODUCTION

There has been a great deal written in the press over the last couple of years about changes in the child–parent purchase relationship. Concern has been voiced about the apparently growing power of children to influence their parents buying behavior and purchase choices.

Parents today are seem to buy more for their kids because trends such as smaller family size, dual incomes and postponing children until later in life mean that families have more disposable income. As well, guilt can play a role in spending decisions as time-stressed parents substitute material goods for time spent with their kids. Kids seem to have their own purchasing power, they influence their parents buying decisions and also acting like the adult consumers of the future.

As a matter of fact, today kids represent an important demographic to marketers and marketers treating the kids seriously. Market designs thousands of products especially for children ranging from candies to kid's computers. Many adult brands offer the kid's line extensions. Adult services have also been adapted to kids. Airlines giving special foods on flights (e.g. United Airlines serving McDonalds friendly skies meals.) Bargain airfares for the families. Even in-flight kids audio channel for its own. Banks offering special kid's accounts. Supermarkets and toy stores reorganizing their sections that more of the merchandise is at kid's eye level. Restaurants welcome kids with children's foods, gifts and entertainment. Especially, travel agencies have began specializing in trip planning built around kids. The hospitality industry treats children as real people and offers special entertainment and membership with kid's clubs. They all targeting kids with magazines and birthday greetings. Billions spending on media advertising to kids (mostly on television). More of it for public relations related with promotions, premiums, samplings, coupons and contests. Even industry differs in kid's packaging from those of adults. Both are expensive but these are likely to provide more profits to the market in the long turn.

Related with the issue, the sheer volume of television advertising is growing rapidly day by day and invading new areas of childhood. Volumes of advertising on television channels

and the use of more subtle forms of advertising (e.g. program sponsorship, product placement, program related merchandising etc.) regarded as being especially necessary where children are concerned because their psychological immaturity as viewers and consumers leaves them more vulnerable to advertising influences.

A dramatic example of this vulnerable effects can be given from psychologist Allen D. Kanner's life experiences. Ever since he first started practicing, Berkeley, Calif., psychologist Allen D. Kanner, PhD, has been asking his younger clients what they wanted to do when they grew up. Kids answers used to be "nurse," "astronaut" or some other occupations with intrinsic appeal. Today the answer is more likely to be "make money." For Kanner, one explanation for this gravitating can be found in ad's enormous impact on child's development. According to Kanner, the result is not only a distribution of materialistic values among children, but also something he calls "narcissistic wounding" of children. Thanks to advertising, he says, children have become persuaded that they're second-class, ordinary etc, if they don't have an endless array of new products (www.apa.org/monitor/.../advertising.aspx).

Knowing this actuality, APA's (American Psychological Association) task force continuously examine researches on advertising's impact on children and their families and consider how psychology can help to minimize ad's harmful effects and maximize its positive effects. The case is that;

Parents are willing to buy more + Marketers knowing these increasing the sheer volume of television advertisements = Children willing to buy more with "narcissistic wounding".

However, the academic analysis of this phenomenon has largely consisted of cases against advertising to children, few of them also arguing that the main influence on children's buying behavior is familial. Alternatives, assuming that, rather than marketing, in fact television via advertising, families help children learn to be consumers and thus has an important socialization role to play in their development. Parents may not always listen or give in to children's purchase requests with the result that the child becomes happy. Also

the factors which are particular importance in this context is child's parental social class, education, cultural background and television viewing.

Now, there seems to be no single approach or best way to raise a children. Parents on the one hand have a hard time raising children the way they want to, while on the other hand, kids are being increasingly influenced by commercialism that often goes against what parents are trying to do. Diversity in beliefs, family structures and family situations has allowed for the proliferation of diversity in ideas on how best to parent. Every unique idea and approach is for looking answers on how to raise a happy, healthy child.

The principle aim of the present study is to determine these possible effects of family and TV advertisements on children consumption behavior. Its purpose is to establish the status of our knowledge about how parents respond to children's consumption and how children respond advertising on television. In particular debate children consumption behavior is discussed. This debate has raised many questions about nature of children consumption. To do so, we conducted a family diary/survey investigating the consumption behavior patterns of families and children, of 5 and 6 years old preschool children.

Study consists of eleven chapters. In chapter one, a literature review about nature of consumption and the definitions of consumer is given. In chapter two, nature of consumer identified in depth. Subsequently, in chapter three individual aspects of being a consumer is identified in relation to consumer needs & motivation, personality & behavior, perceptions, learning, attitude formation & change and communication & persuasion. Different approaches to the definition of individual aspects (models, types and theories) are stated in order to understand clearly the individual nature of consumer's.

In chapter four, consumer nature is analyzed by environmental aspects such as culture, social class, status and groups influences. Types of reference groups and consumer related groups analyzed in order to understand more clearly one of the main determinants (family group). In chapter five, family and household influences are identified with functions, sociological variables, family roles and life cycles. Differences between family and other groups are defined, family types are explained. Functions of the families especially

socialization of family members are stated with cases of children. How family often is the best position to influence individual's consumption decisions are explained.

In chapter six, the role of children in a family group is studied. The child-parent purchase relationship which has largely been explored from psychological and consumer behavior perspectives and changes from a "traditional" family to a "new" family environment are presented. The aspect of childhood socialization that is particularly relevant to consumer socialization are studied with two distinct components. Also, the ethical dimension of children's shopping activities which considered through a new model of child/adult purchasing relationship presented in terms of children's social power and pester power.

Chapter seven is about television and children. As it indicates the viewing amount, TV hold values are seriously taken in consideration with USA and Turkey comparisons. TV viewing values of USA and Turkey are analyzed deeply with graphs. The babysitter role of TV for preschoolers identified. How age, household culture and gender differentiate preschooler's viewing habits studied. The nature of both television and children are explained. The nature of television viewing in Turkey is analyzed with graphs. Then the negative and positive effects of television is presented.

In chapter eight, advertising and television advertising are defined. Advertising components, functions, types and objectives examined. Then television advertising and advantages of television for advertisers are explained. As the younger children especially preschool children are more attentive to commercials than older children and they do not discriminate between program content and commercials on television properly, polisemy and persuasive style of TV advertising is identified in depth.

In chapter nine children (preschoolers as a target group) were studied with television advertisements. The issues arising from targeting children in TV advertising introduced and the concerns that this generates described. In order to understand the perceptions of preschoolers' on advertisement and branding, developmental stages of preschoolers' are identified. Then, preschooler's branding influences on perception of taste discussed with McDonald's, cartoon characters and spokes characters studies.

In chapter ten the evaluation of the research is described. A diary/survey is implemented to 102 families with children between ages 4 and 6 (18 of them were (4) years, 46 of them were (5) years old and 75 of them were (6) years old). This age group was chosen as they are compatible with the research content. With the help of the nursery school administration, the survey questions were distributed to the families and were returned in the same manner.

The other chapters are conclusion and recommendations. The results of the research are evaluated in the conclusion chapter and some recommendations are also offered.

Consumption role and variables affecting consumption process

2. NATURE OF CONSUMPTION

Consumption has been existing in our world as long back as the history records anything and could be found in every part of our habitable globe. But, the social sciences, in general, states that industrialization and the great transformation of Western societies have played an important role in creation of a new consumption role in individual's life.

Bocock defines this new consumption role briefly;

"... late twentieth-century western form of capitalism, a social and cultural process involving cultural signs and symbols, not simply as an economic, utilitarian process" (as cited in Davies and Ward, 2002:49).

But, differently from Bocock, Friedman (1994) first sees it in the 18th Century, at the Industrialization history of Europe, in that it changed European society in a multitude of ways. He states that;

- In the beginning there were only consumers who controlled the conditions of their own production. They produced what they needed.
- Then the equation of consumption and production were splinted. A new level of luxury consumption emerged with the split of society. (But luxury is defined negatively here as that which is non-essential and unnecessary for survival.)
- After that, the advent of the integrated wage-labor market increased production with an industrial revolution. New and expanding sphere of needs created. Which are unnecessary in terms of individual's survival but necessary for the owners of the capital, the dominant class.

According to the historical community, e.g. following the example of McKendrick, the "great transformation" of the West includes not just an "industrial revolution" also a "consumer revolution" (as cited in McCracken, 1988). Consumer revolution represents not just a change in tastes, preferences and buying habits but a fundamental shift, in the culture of the early modern world. The works of this new group of scholars are also diverse. For

example, McKendrick (1982) discovers the birth of consumer revolution in 18th century England, Williams (1982) discovers it in 19th century France and Mukerji(1983) discovers in 15th and 16th century England etc (McCracken, 1988).

Finally, with the globalization of mass media, the new style of consumerism associates with modern industrialized societies and a 'New Personality' or 'Modern Man' (Löfgren, 1994) spreads all over the world. These new people lack a true self but carry themselves through life with the help of commodities, consumption gives their life structure, meaning and direction. Satisfaction of their needs and desires attaches to the word of commodities. These needs and desires express themselves in an individual's wish to become a certain type of person together with having a certain lifestyle and image. According to Rosenblatt (1999), it is a strange basis for a civilization, but an effective one, consumer products make up what we are. Veblen and Simmel explains this process, briefly "*Joint production with fellow consumers, of a universe of values. Consumption uses goods to make firm and visible a particular set of judgments in the fluid processes of classifying persons and events*" (as cited in Storey, 1999:43-44).

Today, humans engage in consumption as a mean of expression and the ownership of tools and other objects provide obvious symbolic meanings to them. Everyone sends a message to others regarding status, importance and role. This process works through the language of consumption which are the signs and symbols that are attached to the products and experiences.

Mills (1999) reminds some of these clever, symbolic equations which sellers take premeditated aim at: liquor and sex, tobacco and virility, automobiles and freedom, cosmetics and allure, soft drinks and happiness, pharmaceuticals and health, cell phones and family ties. Hundreds of examples can be added to Mills examples. From this point of view, it's also possible to see the study of consumption as a symbol of increasing homogenization and the elimination of cultural differences (Miller, 1994). Where, even local cultures and their preferences for local products are being destroyed by hegemonic foreign ideologies which provide attractive images to promote new needs for consumer goods (Wilk, 1994).

It's also important to remember some additional components like the development of movie industry. Movies fed, paralleled and to some extent created a consumer revolution in our habitable globe. The growth of the moving pictures before and after World War I, came of a time of intense industrial growth in general. Movies are and always had revolutionary forces on our lives, like capitalism itself. Always, they seek out new markets, acknowledge no material boundaries and in their narratives, promote a materialistic way of life (Haskell, 1999). According to some of the scholars this materialistic way of life first starts at the cinema with the '*Coca-Colazation of the world*' (Cunningham and Reich, 1998:569).

As being one of the most important components of this process, consumption can be understood better if the definition of consumer is made clearly.

2.1. What is a Consumer?

Literature states many different definitions of a 'consumer' which have been made by the scholars. But, that is generally thought of a person "*who identifies a need or desire makes a purchase and than disposes of the product during the three stages in the consumption process*" (Solomon, 1999:6). According to Williams(2004), consumer is a much wider term than this and it's not necessarily based on any form of financial exchange. For an example, if you look at fast-food restaurants, it's clear that the consumers of children's meals are not the people who act as the customers. Because being a consumer includes some complicated situations.

Sociologist Kai Ilmonen describes these complicated situations of consumers in detail (as cited in Jarva, 2011).

- Chooser; his cycle begins in the market where the role of the consumer is a chooser.
- User; the next role of a consumer is user. Commodities can be used for several functions: they can be worn out, processed or used as utensils.

- Communicator; expressing the status and taste with the help of commodities, in that case consumer is a communicator.
- Producer/ Consumption worker; which the consumer takes when he or she processes bought raw materials in domestic production.

As, it is clearly seen in all of the definitions stated above, consumers take many forms ranging from a five year old child begging her mother for a cotton candy to an executive in a large corporation deciding on a multi-million dollar computer system. The items that are consumed can include anything from bread, car, flowers or a house. Needs and desires to be satisfied ranging from hunger and thirst to status or even love. In order to understand this complicated situation, the aims and functions of the consumers should be clarified with understanding the different consumer behaviors.

2.2. What is Consumer Behavior?

Consumer Behavior refers quite simply to the study of, how a person buys a product. Jacoby, makes a brief definition for this process; “*Consumer behavior reflects the totality of consumers decisions with respect to the acquisition, consumption and disposition of goods, services, time and ideas by (human) decision making units (over time)*” (as cited in Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997:3).

The American Marketing Association qualifies it deeply than Jacoby and says that its “*the dynamic interaction of affect and cognition, behavior and environmental events by which human beings conduct the exchange aspects of their lives. There are at least three important ideas in this definition; (1) consumer behavior is dynamic (2) it involves interactions between affect and cognition, behavior and environmental events; and (3) it involves exchanges*” (Peter & Olson, 1996:11). In other words consumer behavior both involves the thoughts and feelings of people and the experience and actions they perform in the consumption process (Peter & Olson, 2001).

Definitions assume that the field of consumer behavior covers a lot of ground. It is the study of the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use or dispose of products, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy their needs and desires. It's relatively important to mention that, the meaning of 'satisfaction' here can be likened to an individual pursuit, a goal to be attained from the consumption of products and the services (Oliver, 1997).

Also, analysis of consumption behavior represents a broader conceptual framework than buyer behavior does because it includes a lot of issues that arise after the purchase process occurs. At this point, Zaltman notes this by saying that *"a far deeper and better understanding of consumer is a much harder task than describing the virtues of a product"* (2003:9). As human behavior cannot be observed in a social vacuum and in place of laboratory controls applied during observation (Schipper, 1964).

It's clear that, in order to explain this complex behavior process, marketing theorists borrowed many concepts from other scientific disciplines such as psychology (the study of the individual), sociology (the study of groups), social psychology (the study of how an individual operates in groups) and anthropology (the influence of society on the individual). Some of the early researchers of these, were based on an economic theory that individuals act rationally to maximize their benefits (satisfactions) in the purchase of goods and services. Late researchers discover that consumers are just as likely to purchase and to be influenced not only by family and friends by advertisers and role models but also by mood, situation and emotion. All of these factors combine to form a comprehensive model of consumer behavior that reflects both the cognitive and emotional aspects of consumer decision making.

It is better to analyze in depth, the components in these definitions in order to understand the consumer behavior process better.

3. NATURE OF CONSUMER - AS AN INDIVIDUAL

The Nature of Consumer or in other words The Consumer Purchase Decision Process is generally viewed as consisting of steps through which the buyer passes in purchasing a product or a service. It involves a number of internal psychological steps which may minimize or skip one or more stages, in each other. According to Duesenberry “*a real understanding of the problem of consumer behavior must begin with a full recognition of these social character of consumption patterns*” (1967:19).

Although the features and purposes of consumers are the same, different approaches of the scientists lead to different definitions in Consumer Purchase Decision Process.

3.1. Consumer Needs and Motivation

One of the most fundamental questions about consumer behavior is ‘Why do people buy?’. Some of the researchers found an answer to this question in understanding of consumer motivation. Park and Mittal define the consumer motivation as a goal-directed arousal (as cited in Kinney, Ridgway & Monroe, 2009). According to them, consumers are motivated to purchase and consume some products in order to satisfy their needs. Some needs are fundamental to their survival (physiological, safety and health for instance). Others (such as financial security, pleasure and giving to others) may be less essential for existing but are still critical to the consumer’s sense of well-being (Engel et al., 2001). Wells, Burnett and Moriarty adds another need dimension to this scale which are called acquired needs (2000) which are learnt in response to the individual’s culture or environment.

Consequently, understanding of the mentioned components helps to get a comprehensive view of consumer needs and the motivation.

3.1.1. Model of the motivation process

Model of the motivational process, describes motivation as a state of need-induced tension. Individuals engage in a behavior that he or she believes that they will satisfy the needs and

in this way reduce their tension. Schiffman and Kanuk state that “*the specific goals that consumers wish to achieve and the courses of action they take in order to attain these goals are selected on the basis of their thinking processes (cognition) and previous learning*” (2000:64). Figure 3.1 explains how this process works.

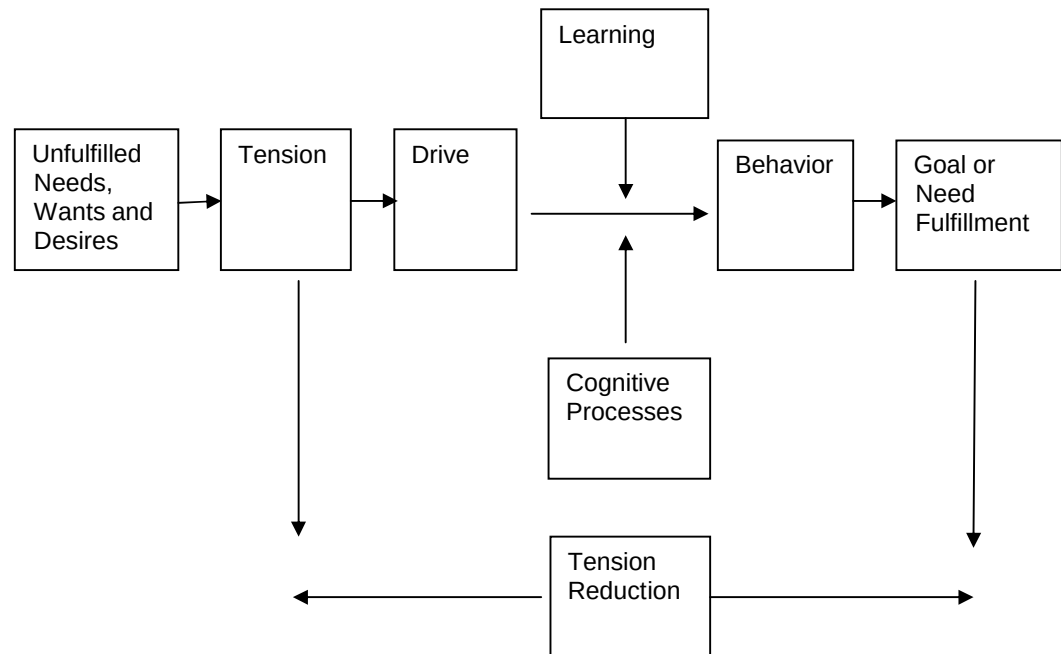


Figure 3.1: Model of motivation process.
Source: Dugree et al. as cited in Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000:64.

3.1.2. Positive and negative motivation

Motivation, also can be positive or negative in direction. Individual may feel a driving force toward some object or condition or a driving force away from some object or condition. Some psychologists refer to positive drives as needs, wants or desires and to negative drives as fears or dislikes. However although individual’s positive and negative motivational forces seem to differ in many ways related to their physical (and sometimes emotional) activity, they are basically similar in that both serve to set and sustain human behavior.

3.1.3. Rational versus emotional motives

Some consumer behaviorists draw a line between so-called rational motives and emotional motives. They use the term rationality which assumes that consumers behave rationally when they carefully consider all alternatives and choose those that give them the greatest utility. In a marketing context the term rationality implies that consumers select goals, based on totally objective criteria such as size, weight or price. Emotional motives imply the selection of goals according to personal or subjective criteria's such as pride, fear, loyalty or status (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

3.1.4. Types and systems of needs

Finally, psychologists and others interested in human behavior have developed many detailed lists of these human needs. But, most popular approaches to understanding consumer motivations are based on the classic theory of human motivation popularized by psychologist Abraham Maslow. In 1954, he defined hierarchy of needs known as Maslow's pyramid. His theory assumes five basic levels of human needs arranged in a hierarchy based on the importance; 1) Physiological needs 2) Safety needs 3) Social needs 4) Esteem needs 5) Self-actualization needs (Belch & Belch, 1998).

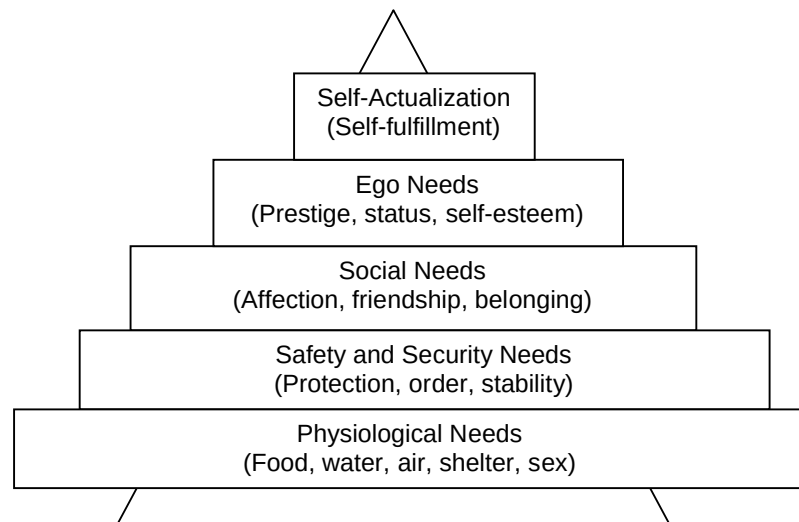


Figure 3.2: Model of Maslow's 'Hierarchy of Needs'.
Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000:80.

As it is clearly seen in figure 3.2, also in Maslow's theory individuals seek to satisfy their lower-level needs (biogenic) before their higher-level (psychogenic) needs emerge. (This may not give a false impression that a need must be satisfied 100 percent before the next need emerges. In actual fact, individual's partially satisfies all their basic needs. For instance need A is satisfied 35 percent, need B may emerge 10 percent or need A is satisfied 65 percent, need B may emerge 30 percent and so on.)

For clarity it's better to discuss each level depicted by Maslow (1987).

Physiological needs

These include the most basic needs that are vital to survival, such as the need for water, air, food and sleep. Maslow believed that these needs are the most basic and instinctive needs in the hierarchy because all needs become secondary until these physiological needs are met.

Security needs

These include needs for safety and security. Security needs are important for survival, but they are not as demanding as the physiological needs. Examples of security needs include a desire for steady employment, health insurance, safe neighborhoods and shelter from the environment.

Social needs

These include needs for belonging, love and affection. Maslow considered these needs to be less basic than physiological and security needs. Relationships such as friendships, romantic attachments and families help fulfill this need for companionship and acceptance, as does involvement in social, community or religious groups.

Esteem needs

After the first three needs have been satisfied, esteem needs becomes increasingly important. These include the need for things that reflect on self-esteem, personal worth, social recognition and accomplishment.

Self-actualizing needs

This is the highest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Self-actualizing people are self-aware, concerned with personal growth, less concerned with the opinions of others and interested fulfilling their potential.

As Maslow doesn't claim his theory ultimate or universal for all cultures (1987), it's obvious that the need hierarchy has received wide acceptance in many social disciplines. According to, some of the social scientists this theory appears to reflect the assumed motivations of many people. This is relatively more final, more universal and more basic than the other superficial desires or behaviors (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). From another point of view, theory focuses on both the internal drives that operate on a highly emotional level and the more understandable requirements that economist associate with human needs (Seeley, 1992).

3.2. Personality and Consumer Behavior

Another important component in Consumer Nature is the study of 'personality'. Literature states that, theorists have been approached personality in a variety of ways. Some have emphasized the dual influence of heredity and early childhood experiences on personality development. Others have emphasized broader social and environmental influences and the fact that personalities develop continuously over time.

The nature of personality is really a unique system of defining how one expresses themselves through emotions and actions. Schiffman and Kanuk explain personality as those inner psychological characteristics that both determine and reflect how a person responds to his or her environment (2004). How our minds react to the world around us is a direct reflection of who we are as individuals. Also, the nature of our individual personalities is what separates us from each other.

A leading psychology textbook on personality (Pervin & John, 1997) defines it as “...*those characteristics of the person that account for consistent patterns of feeling, thinking and behaving*” (as cited in Mowen, 2000:1).

3.2.1. The nature of personality

In the study of personality, three distinct properties are of central importance:

- Personality reflects individual differences

Because the inner characteristics that constitute an individual's personality are a unique combination of factors, no two individuals are exactly alike. We can say the same about personality; no two personalities are exactly alike.

- Personality is consistent and enduring

An individual's personality tends to be both consistent and enduring. Even though consumer's personalities may be consistent their consumption behavior often varies considerably as a result of various psychological, sociocultural, environmental and situational factors that affect behavior.

- Personality can change

An individual's personality can change under certain circumstances. These could be some major life events, such as the birth of a child, the death of a loved one or a divorce. Not only in response to unexpected events, but also as a part of a gradual maturing process we can see these changes in an individual's personality (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

3.2.2. Theories of personality

In this study, three theories have been chosen for discussion from among many theories of personality because each has played a prominent role in the study of the relationship between consumer behavior and personality:

(1) Freudian Theory (2) Neo-Freudian Theory (3) Trait Theory

- Freudian theory

Sigmund Freud was the first psychoanalyst and a true pioneer in the recognition of the importance of unconscious mental activity. His theories on the inner workings of the human mind seemed so revolutionary at the turn of the century. But today, his theories are

widely accepted by most schools of psychological thought. The ‘Project for a scientific psychology’ was written in 1895; it was wasted by Freud, being discovered and eventually published in 1950 (Braddock, 2006) and his psychoanalytic theory of personality became the cornerstone of modern psychology. In his theory, he assumed that, unconscious needs or drives are especially sexual and other biological drives are at the hearth of human motivation and personality.

Ego, Id and Super-Ego

Freud proposed that the human personality consist of three interacting systems: the id, the super-ego and the ego. *“The id is the; the human mind which is intrinsically fragmented and composed of representations of instinctive drives. The ego is the; interface between the needs of the id and the external world. The super-ego; is the pleasure principle yields to the reality principle”* (Brito, 2002:33). According to Freud, an adult determines his or her personality while passing through each of these three stages related to how well he or she deals with the crises that are experienced.

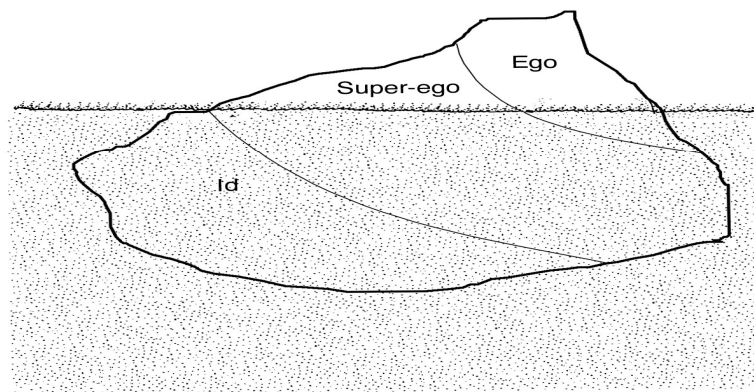


Figure 3.3: Representation of Freud's 'The Mental Iceberg'

Source:

http://www.google.com.tr/imgres?imgurl=http://www.psywww.com.intropsych/ch11_personality/11iceberg.jpg.

- Neo-Freudian personality theory

Several of Freud's colleagues disagreed with his argument that personality is primarily instinctual in nature. Instead of these, Neo-Freudians believe that social relationships are fundamental to the formation and development of the personality. For an example, Karen Horney, one of Neo-Freudians, focuses on the impact of *child-parent* relationships. As Shatz states, Horney proposed three specific neurotic trends from his work, which are rooted in how an individual interacts with and perceives other people; the **Compliant type** (moves towards people), the **Aggressive type** (moves against people), and the **Detached type** (moves away from people) (2004).

Today, in a recent research based on Horney's theory found that highly Compliant type children were found to prefer name brand products, Aggressive type children showed a preference for brands with masculine appeal, Detached type children were less likely to be brand loyal and were more likely to try different brands (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

- Trait theory

Theory focuses on the measurement of personality in terms of specific psychological characteristics, called traits. According to Guilford a trait is defined as "*any distinguishing, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another*" (as cited in Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000:99).

Although each person has hundreds of traits that make up our personality, psychologists have tried to provide a bit of guidance for people to define personality traits and to determine the most important traits. As a result, they have come up with a list of the five major personality traits (Allik et al., 2010). These five traits make up the essence of a person's personality:

- Openness: Refers to how open you are to experiencing new things. Do you enjoy learning new ideas and concepts or are you frightened of change?
- Conscientiousness: Refers to how dedicated you are. When you say you are going to do something do you follow through?

- Extraversion: Asks how comfortable you are in the company of others? Do you prefer to be by yourself or in a crowd?
- Agreeableness: Do you try to get along with people or do you go out of your way to be contentious and start a fight?
- Neuroticism: How emotionally stable are you? Do you get upset over the little things, or do they roll off your back?

3.3. Consumer Perception

To understand consumer nature deeply there is a need to know also why and how consumer perception occurs. Most of the times individuals are unaware that, they have been living in a world, overflowing with sensations. Wherever they turn they are bombarded by a symphony of colors, sounds and odors. At this point, individual's mind organize and interpret these sensory information and attain awareness or understanding of the environment. This is called perception (Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard, 1999) and there is also some aspects of the perception process, as well.

3.3.1. Aspects of perception

- Perceptual selection

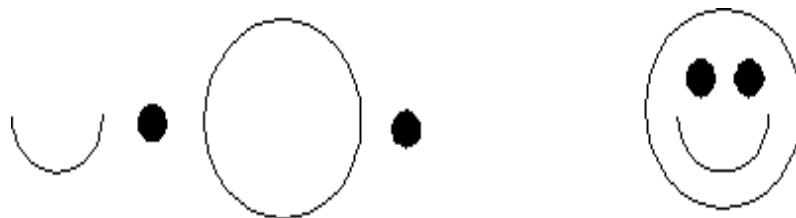
At first, there is a perceptual selection. Consumers subconsciously exercise a great deal of selectivity, related with the aspects of the environment they perceive. An individual may look at some things, ignore others and turn away from still others. In actuality, individuals receive or perceive only a small part of the stimuli which they are exposed. Processing of this information has a series of activities by which stimuli are perceived, transformed into information and stored. Hawkins, Best and Coney explain this four major stages as; *Exposure-Attention-Interpretation-Memory* and the first three of these constitute individuals perception (1997).

- Perceptual organization

Second, there is a perceptual organization. The specific principles underlying perceptual organization are often referred to the name given the school of psychology that first developed it which is, Gestalt psychology. Gestalt is the German word for "form," and as it applied in gestalt psychology it means "unified whole" or "configuration."

The essential point of theory is that, in perception the whole is different from the sum of its parts. Gestalt psychologists developed five laws that govern human perception related with this statement (Bruce, Green & Georgeson, 2003).

- Law of Proximity (Closure); Things that are close together are grouped together.
- Law of Similarity; Things that look similar are grouped together.
- Law of Common Fate; Things that appear to move together are grouped together
- Law of Good Continuation; The mind continues visual, auditory, and kinetic patterns.
- Law of Prägnanz (good form); Symmetrical images are perceived collectively, even in spite of distance.



The whole is different from the sum of its parts.

Figure 3.4: Representation of Gestalt's psychology

Source: <http://homepages.ius.edu/RALLMAN/gestalt.html>

- Perceptual interpretation

Third, there is a perceptual interpretation. People can exercise selectivity with the stimuli they perceive and then organize the stimuli on the basis of certain psychological principles. According to Schiffman and Kanuk, “ *the interpretation of stimuli is also uniquely individual, because it is based on what individuals expect to see in light of their previous experience on the number of plausible explanations they can envision and on their motives and interests at the time of perception*” (2000:138).

As, perception and learning are a continuum, overlapping to each other and each new perception that individual's file in their minds are an additional step in learning (Bovee & Arens, 1992), so it's better to go on investigating personality and consumer behavior with consumer learning.

3.4. Consumer Learning

Since not all learning theorists agree on how learning takes place, it is very difficult to come up with a generally acceptable definition of learning. The term learning expresses the total range of all learning occasions from simple to most abstract concepts.

Most learning theorists recognize the existence of different types of learning and explain the differences through the use of distinctive models of learning. This study considers only two basic kinds of these consumer learning theories: Behavioral and Cognitive.

3.4.1. Behavioral learning theories

Two behavioral theories with great relevance are classical conditioning and instrumental conditioning.

- Classical conditioning

Ivan Pavlov a Russian physiologist was the first to describe conditioning and he propose it to us, as a general model of how learning occurs. Pavlov made this observation just at the start of the 19th century and demonstrated what he meant by conditioned learning in his

studies with dogs. The dog is hungry and, when given a small piece of food (the unconditioned stimulus), salivates copiously (the unconditioned reflex).

In this experiment, experimenter employs a stimulus (e.g., a flashing light, a tone, the beat of a metronome) which, by itself, has no effect on the flow of saliva, and this is repeatedly ‘paired’ with the food, i.e., presented just prior to its delivery. After a few pairings, such a ‘conditioned stimulus’ gains the capacity to provide the same salivary response as the food itself. According to Gray, this is the ‘conditioned reflex’ (1999). What Pavlov actually wrote was “conditional reflex” which makes a lot more sense as it describes a reflex that is conditional upon learning having taken place (Corr & Perkins, 2006).

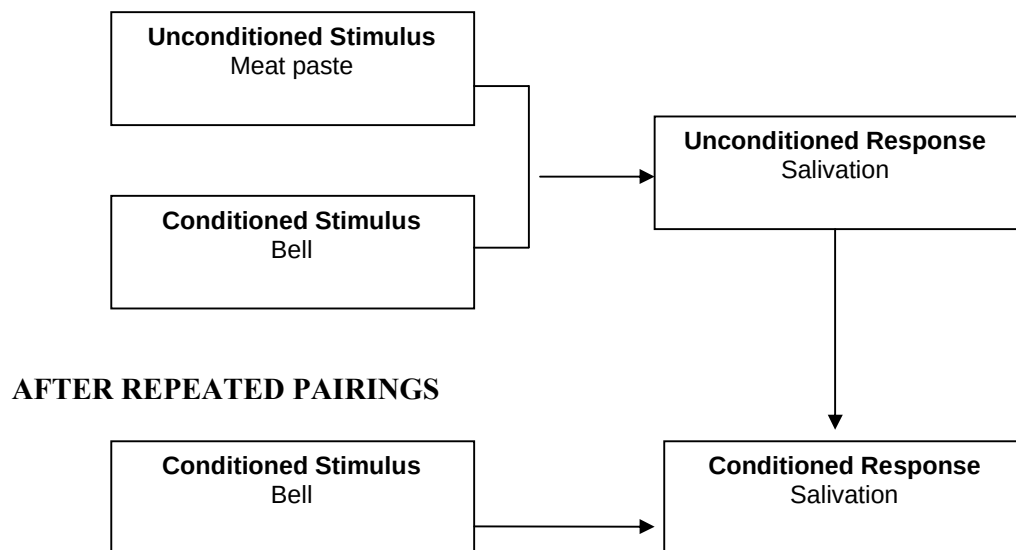


Figure 3.5: Model of Pavlovian classical conditioning.
Source: Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000:164.

- Instrumental conditioning

As it's explained in classical conditioning, also in instrumental conditioning there is a link between a stimulus and response. But differently from classical learning, instrumental conditioning occurs through a trial-and-error process with habits formed as a result of rewards received for certain responses or behaviors. The name most closely associated with instrumental (operant) conditioning is the American psychologist B.F. Skinner and his

operant conditioning has three components (i) a discriminative stimulus (ii) the response; (iii) the stimulus following the response (Dragoi, 1997).

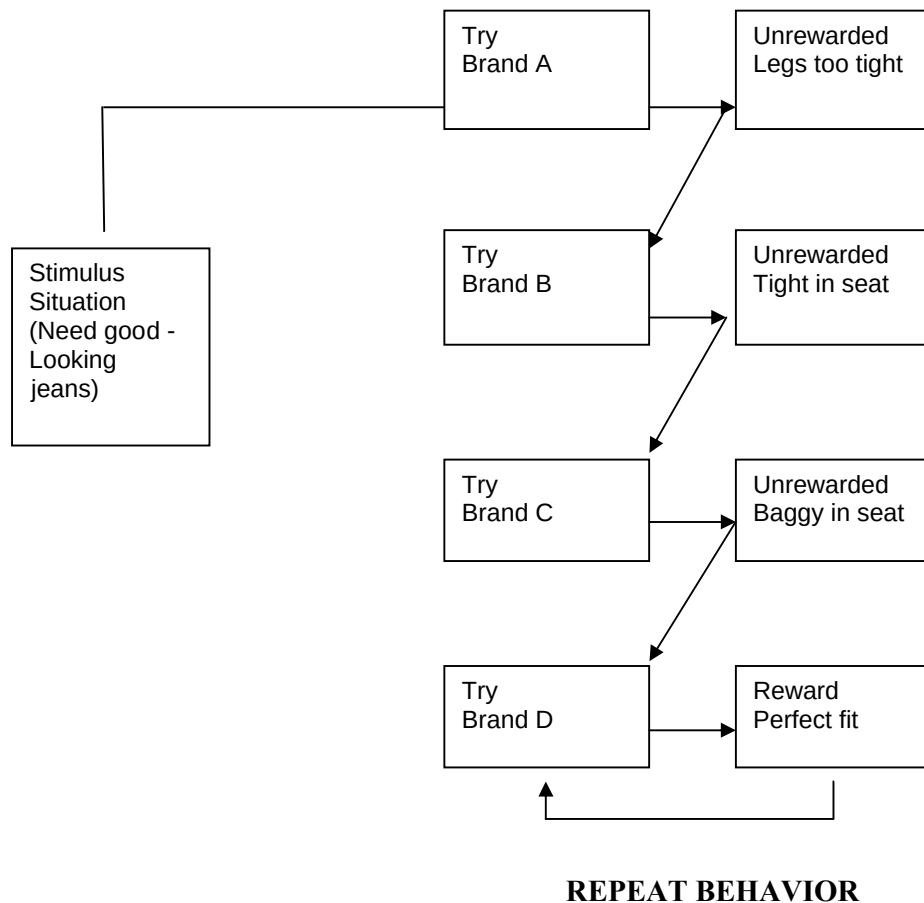


Figure 3.6: Model of instrumental conditioning.
Source: Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000:172.

3.4.2. Cognitive learning theory

Instead of stressing the importance of repetition or the association of a reward, from another point of view cognitive scientists give emphasis to other questions; how information get stored in memory?, how it is retained? and how it is retrieved? They found an answer that there are separate storehouses (e.g. the short-term store and the permanent store) in our memories where information kept for further processing. Wittrock (1992) simply explains the Cognitive learning theory as a result of an interaction between perception, short-term store and permanent store. The short-term store both maintains

external information and the information from the permanent store (as cited in Schweizer & Koch, 2001).

A little bit more of it, Cognitive Learning processes also include organization and elaboration strategies (Berthold, Nückles & Renkl, 2007). Together they enable a deep comprehension and retention of the learning contents.

3.5. Consumer Attitude Formation and Change

Consumers also develop attitudes about products, brands or advertisements and these attitudes influence their buying decisions. These are not directly observable but must be inferred from what people say or what people do. For example; whenever we are asked whether we like or dislike a product, a service, a particular retailer, a specific direct marketer or an advertising theme, we are being asked to express our attitudes (as cited in Hawkins et. al., 2000).

So, from a consumer behavior context, “*an attitude is a learned predisposition to behave in a consistently favorable way with respect to a given object*” (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000:200). A step further Katz serves, four key functions of attitudes for individuals; knowledge function, value-expressive function, utilitarian function and ego-defensive function.

3.5.1. Structural models of attitudes

- Tricomponent attitude model

According to the tricomponent attitude model, attitudes consist of three major components: *a cognitive component, an affective component and a conative component.*

Cognitive component consists of a person’s cognitions. These are the knowledge and perceptions that are earned by a combination of direct experience with the attitude object and related information from various sources. A consumer’s emotions or feelings about a particular product or brand constitute the Affective component. The final component of

the tricomponent attitude model Conative component is concerned with the likelihood or tendency that an individual will undertake a specific action or behave in a particular way with regard to the attitude object (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000).

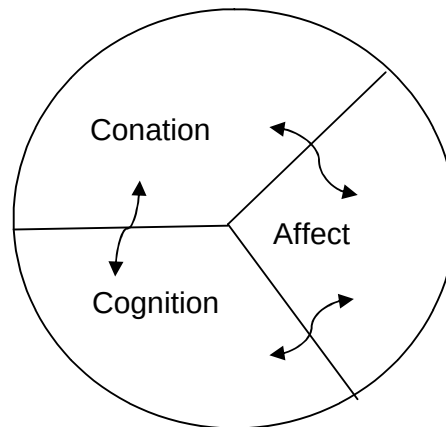


Figure 3.7: Model of tricomponent attitude.
Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000:2003.

- Multiattribute attitude models

Another model Multiattribute has been used for several years in marketing and has become an established framework for explaining attitude, intention, and choice (Agarwal & Malhotra, 2005). Models portray consumers attitudes toward to a attitude object (such as a product or service) as a function of consumers perception and beliefs and have always promised two benefits: prediction and recognition of preference (Wilkie and Pessemier, as cited in Allen et. al. 2005).

- Theory of trying to consume

“Theory is designed to account for the many cases where the action or outcome is not certain, but instead reflects the consumer’s attempts to consume (or purchase)” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000:207).

- Attitude toward the ad models

An important goal of advertising is designing effective campaigns that drive favorable attitudes toward a product and here figure 8 shows, how attitude toward a product could be influenced by one's attitude toward an advertisement (Pyun & James, 2011).

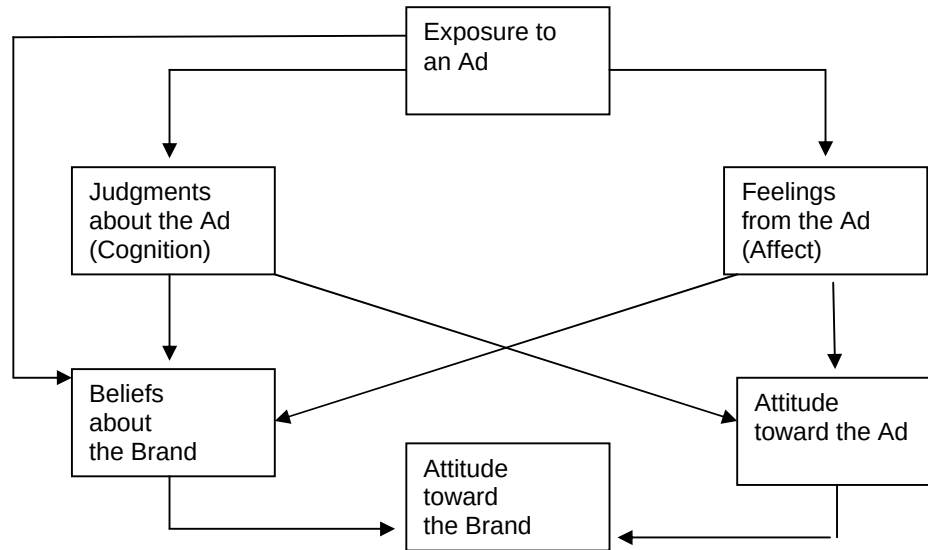


Figure 3.8: Model of attitude toward the ad.
Source: Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000:208.

As the model describes, a consumer forms various feelings (affects) and judgments (cognitions) as a result of exposure to an advertisement. Model looks quite simple but literature states also a number of different priorities related with attitude toward the ad model. These are; ad cognition, brand cognition and attitude toward the brand (Coulter & Punj, 1999).

3.5.2. Attitude formation

The formation of attitude can be regarded as a *learning process* in which a person continuously evaluates attitude based on the direct or indirect experiences with them (De Houwer, Thomas, & Baeyens, as cited in Sun, 2009). Simply, the shift from no attitude to an attitude level is a result of learning. How attitudes are learned and formed, then?

Customers form easiest attitudes towards the new products that are associated with a favorable brand name. Their favorable attitude toward the brand name is, frequently the result of repeated satisfaction with other products produced by the same company. Bhat and Reddy's research explains the 'fit' between a parent brand and a brand extension; *"there is a function of two factors (i) the similarity between the pre-existing product categories already associated with the parent brand and the new extension and (ii) the 'fit' or match between the images of the parent brand and the new extension"* (as cited in Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000:209).

3.5.3. Attitude change

Much that had been said about attitude formation is also basically true of attitude change. That is attitude changes are learned and influenced by personal experiences and other sources of information. Schiffman and Kanuk state five strategies in order to change consumer's attitude toward a product or service (2000).

- Changing the basic motivational function.
- Associating the product with an admired group or event.
- Resolving two conflict attitudes.
- Altering components of the multiattribute model.
- Changing consumer's beliefs about competitors brands.

3.5.4. Behavior can follow attitude formation

Ajzen (2005) argues that changes in attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control should produce changes in intentions, which in turn should lead to changes in behavior. In order to change these global constructs Ajzen, emphasizes that the underlying behavioral, normative and control beliefs should be targeted for change or new beliefs should be introduced and designed to produce positive changes (as cited in Chorlton & Conner, 2010).

Here, Cognitive dissonance theory and Attribution theory each provide a different explanation to why behavior might follow attitude formation.

- Cognitive dissonance

The original theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) postulates that individuals holding inconsistent beliefs, or acting in a manner contrary to their beliefs, experience dissonance. Eliminating these inconsistent beliefs is a motivator for behavioral and cognitive change (Oxoby, 2003).

According to Dijk, Minocha and Laing, dissonance generally refers to the consumers which may have an extra query, a problem, or a conflict that arises after the actual purchase. Especially, Cognitive dissonance most often occurs after the purchase of an expensive item such as an automobile (2007). A consumer who is experiencing cognitive dissonance after his or her purchase may attempt to return the product or may seek positive information about it to justify the choice. If the buyer is unable to justify the purchase, he or she will also be less likely to purchase that brand again.

- Attribution theory

The theory refers to consumer assumptions about a product or situation that are derived from the consumer's experience, personality, or attitudes. In attribution theory the underlying question is 'why?'. Attribution theorists (Heider, 1958) presume that people search for understanding in daily life, looking to determine why events happen as they do. The search for an explanation—constructing a causal attribution—is most likely when an outcome is unexpected or important (as cited in Mick & Faure, 1998).

Attribution theory describes attitude formation and change as an outgrowth of people speculations as to their own behavior (self-perception) and experiences. According to researchers such as Wortman (1976), Pittman and Pittman (1980), and Swann et al. (1981), people are motivated to form attributions whenever they are exposed to an environmental incident they have little control of. Accordingly, the more crowded a restaurant is, the less control a person has over the environment, the more will the person be motivated to form attributions of the crowding (as cited in Tse, Sin & Yim, 2002).

3.6. Communication and Persuasion

Communication is the unique tool to persuade consumers to act in a desired way. This persuasive power can be in many forms, it can be verbal (either written or spoken), visual or combination of the two.

3.6.1. Components of communication

Communication is a transmission of a message from a sender to a receiver via a medium of transmission. In this definition we can see four components of communication process; sender, receiver, medium and message. And also there is a fifth essential component of communication, feedback. Feedback alerts the sender as to whether the intended message was in fact received or not.

- Sender (Source)

Sender can be a formal or an informal source. A **formal communication source** is likely to represent either a for-profit (commercial) or a not-for-profit organization. An **informal communication (word of mouth communication) source** can be a parent or a friend who gives product information or advice. Sachse and Mangold state that word of mouth communication is more influential than communication through other sources because it is perceived to provide comparatively reliable information. Consequently, this type of communication is considered as having a great persuasiveness through higher perceived credibility and trustworthiness (2011). Sender or the source must **encode** the message in such a way that its meaning is interpreted by the targeted audience in precisely the intended way. The **credibility of the source** affects the decoding of the message. His or her perceived honesty and objectivity, has an enormous influence on how the communication is accepted by the receiver(s).

- Receiver (Consumer)

The receiver of formal communications is likely to be a targeted prospect or a customer. Receivers **decode** the messages they receive on the basis of their personal experience and personal characteristics.

A person's **level of involvement** or **mood** (e.g. cheerfulness or unhappiness) plays a key role in how much attention is paid to the message and how carefully its decoded. Mitchell et al. (1981) indicates that, differences in the levels of involvement lead to variations in decision making processes and also highlights the key qualitative and quantitative differences in purchase behavior (as cited in Bhate, 2005). Thus, a target audience's level of involvement is an important consideration in the design and content of persuasive communications.

- Medium (Channel)

The medium or communication channels can be **impersonal** (e.g. a mass medium) or **interpersonal** (e.g. a salesperson and a customer). Mass media are generally classified as print (newspapers, magazines, billboards), broadcast (radio, television) or electronic (primarily the internet, mobile phones etc.). While mass media channels are often the quickest and most efficient means of transferring a message, Rogers (2003) states that interpersonal channels among individuals with who share similar beliefs, education, and socioeconomic status have been more effective in persuading behavioral change (as cited in Veil, Rodgers, 2010).

- Message

The message can be **verbal** (spoken or written), **nonverbal** (a photograph, a symbol or a memorable logo), or a combination of the two. A verbal message combined with a nonverbal message often provides more information to the receiver than either would alone.

- Feedback

Generally, it's easier to obtain feedback (both verbal and non-verbal) from interpersonal communications than impersonal communications. E.g. a salesperson usually is alert to nonverbal feedback provided by a consumer. Such feedback may take the form of facial expressions (a smile, a frown, a look of total boredom) or body movements (finger tapping, head nodding, head shaking or clenched hands). These nonverbal actions referred to as '**body language**' (movements, postures, facial expression, glances, eye contact, automatic

reactions, spatial and touching behavior) which is meaningful in both natural and fictional communication (Corte, 1997).

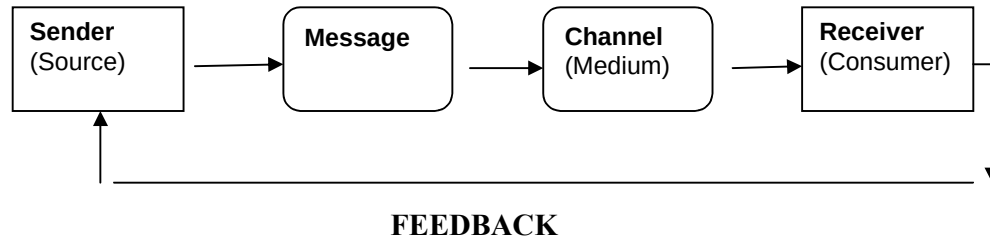


Figure 3.9: Model of basic communication.
Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000:228.

3.6.2. Designing persuasive communications

In order to create persuasive communications, a source must first establish its communication strategy, then select the appropriate audiences for the message and the appropriate media strategy through which to reach them, then a message strategy to reach each audience. The communications strategy should also include an feedback mechanism that alerts the source to any need for modifications and adjustments to the media and the message. Schiffman and Kanuk explain the persuasive communications strategy in four stages, Communications strategy, Media strategy, Message strategy and Feedback mechanism (2000).

- Communications strategy

Source must establish the primary communication objectives, e.g. *creating awareness* of a product or service, *creating a favorable image* etc. Another essential is selecting the appropriate audiences. An audience is made up of individuals, each has his or her own traits, characteristics, interests, needs, experience and knowledge. Also, **Segmentation** enables the sender to create specific messages for each targeted group.

- Media strategy

It's the placement of advertisements in the specific media. Read, viewed or heard by selected target consumers. To accomplish this, advertisers develop **consumer profiles** of

their targeted consumers and media organizations regularly develop their **audience profiles**. An effective media choice is one that closely matches the advertiser's consumer profile to a medium's audience profile.

- Message strategy

The sender must also know the targeted audience's personal characteristics in terms of education, interests, needs etc. The sender must then design a message strategy through words and/or pictures that will be received and decoded by the targeted audience. Trying to encode the message in a precise form enable the audiences to understand its precise meaning,

- Feedback mechanism

Feedback mechanism changes the communication process from one-way to two-way communication. It enables senders to determine whether and how well communication has taken place. Good communications reflect a two-way dialogue. Sender understands (what do the audiences want?), then designs and delivers audience-informed strategies, and then gathers feedback to measure the impact. The better sender listens his/her audiences, the better be able to answer their needs. In this way more messages will be believed and liked by the audiences.

4. NATURE OF CONSUMER - AS IN HER OR HIS ENVIRONMENT

Consumers are both created by their environment as well as operate within an environment. The environmental influences shape and limit individuals in their consumption decisions. These environmental influences can be classified in four categories; cultural influences, social class and status influences, group influences including family and household influences.

4.1. Cultural Influences

4.1.1. Culture

The anthropologist Clifford Geertz views culture as a “*set of control mechanisms – plans, recipes, rules, instructions (what computer engineers call ‘programs’) for the governing of behavior*” (as cited in Mooij, 2005:35). Culture consist of the abstract *values, beliefs and perceptions* of the world that lie behind people’s behavior.

- **Values**; are shared beliefs or group norms that have been internalized by individuals.
- **Norms**; are beliefs held by consensus of a group concerning the behavior rules for individual members.

Barth argues that individuals can understand the existence of these generally from established values in a culture through operational analysis. For example; “*when people interact and engage in exchange of goods and services, they need to have some common reference points of value in order to assess the offerings of one in relation to the offerings of the other*” (as cited in Salzman,2001:45). So, where do consumers get their values? This question reveals some of the basic elements of the concept of culture.

- Culture is learned

According to Hofstede (1991), culture is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from another (as cited in Pieter & Oudenhoven,

2001). Humans are not born with values and norms, they get them after sharing and learning their culture. Furthermore, culture is shared and learned behaviors and meanings that are socially transferred in various life activity settings for purposes of individual and also for collective adjustment and adaptation (Marcella, 2005).

- **Culture is inculcated**

Culture is passed from one generation to the next, primarily by institutions such as family, religion and schools. As Eijck states, cultural consumption is strongly related to the socio-economic and cultural characteristics of a person and his or her family of origin. The main reason for this association is the fact that, cultural consumption requires so-called cultural resources, which are passed on from one generation to the next (1999).

4.1.2. Dimensions of culture

Culture has dimensions. Dutch management researcher Geert Hofstede (1980) tried to prove this statement and collected empirical evidences of differences in culture. From large samples of employees of subsidiaries of the same multinational business corporation (IBM) in 40 countries, he identified four main value dimensions which cultures vary (as cited in Jandt, 2004);

- *Individualism versus collectivism*

In an individualist culture ties between individuals are very loose. People look after themselves. You tend to define people by what they have done, what kind of car they drive, or where they live. Before meeting a new person you want to know what that person does. On the contrary, in a collectivist culture people are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups that continue throughout a lifetime to protect in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.

- *Masculinity versus femininity*

Cultures that place high values on masculine traits stress assertiveness, competition and material success. Cultures that place high value on feminine traits stress quality of life, interpersonal relationships and concern for the weak.

- *Power distance*

Power distance refers to the extent to which power, prestige and wealth are distributed within a culture. People are expected to display respect for those of higher status e.g. children are expected to be obedient toward parents. These countries tend to be more authoritarian and may communicate in a way to limit interaction and reinforce the differences between people.

- *Uncertainty avoidance*

The extent to which people in a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations. Cultures strong in uncertainty avoidance are active, aggressive, emotional, compulsive, security seeking and intolerant, cultures weak in uncertainty avoidance are contemplative, less aggressive, unemotional, relaxed, accepting personal risks and relatively tolerant.

4.1.3. Dimensions of cultures (USA – Turkey comparison)

Literature records that today, Turkey is a young and vibrant society with a median age of 28.5 years (Turkish Statistical Institute Indicators, 2009) and shows a significant consumer dynamism. But, Turkey has remained in a relatively closed economy, at least in terms of consumer goods, until mid-1980s. After 80's the transition in the Turkish economy toward liberalization has had many social effects (Karabati & Cemalcilar, 2010) and Turkish economy ranked 17th globally (World Development Indicators, 2009). These changes in the economy also have some reflects on the Turkish cultural dimensions and diverse researchers determine below dimensions in different ways;

- *Individualism versus collectivism*

Hofstede (1980) assigned Turkey in an individualism index of 37, a mid- ranked (28) position on his list of 50 countries. The U.S. was the number one ranked country with an individualism index of 91 (Hofstede, 2001). In his research, Kagitcibasi (1982,1996) states that Turkey has been a collectivistic country based on cultural values of commitment to group and family. Note that, Oishi, Diener, Suh and Lucas (1999) created an index of 39 countries in which Turkey was the third most collectivistic, after China and Nigeria (as cited in Dinn & Harris, 2011).

The main indicators of individualism in USA starts with material well-being; they live in modern comforts with central heating, air conditioning, instant hot and cold water. It is almost a right to have such material things. Work is more important than play even socializing is often work related. Time is money, in doing so, they mean that people are punctual, activities are scheduled, time is apportioned for separate activities. Giving is more organized and depersonalized. The recipients are likely to be unseen and reached through a committee. McDonald's, Ronald McDonald houses and other community and national humanitarian programs is a prime example for this (Engel et al, 1990).

Accordingly, the main indicators of collectivism in Turkey starts with attribution; Turks attribute more importance to the tradition-religiosity, normative patterning, and charity domains. Gender similarities are more important than gender differences (Aygun and Imamoglu, 2002). In a qualitative research, Ger and Belk (1999) reveals that materialism loses its negative connotations in Turkey. Individuals are consumptive to achieve goals such as self-improvement, personal control and worldly progress. These goals largely represent growth needs that enhance well-being and psychological functioning of individuals (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). Turan (2007) reveals that, respondents scoring high on individuation were found to be less materialistic, especially in the success dimension (as cited in Karabati & Cemalcılar 2010).

- *Masculinity versus femininity*

Hofstede (1980) assigns Turkey in a Masculinity index (MAI) of 45, a mid ranked (32-33) position on his list of 50 countries. The U.S. was ranked 62, a relatively medium-high ranked (15) position in the same list (Hofstede, 2001).

In his Masculinity and Femininity work (1998), Hofstede represents male-female ratio of competitiveness between 42 countries. An angle of 45^0 means equal competitiveness for men and women, a smaller angle asserts more competitiveness for women. Angles were found ranging from 41^0 in Norway (woman are more competitive) to 54.1^0 in Germany (woman are less competitive). According to the research results, Hofstede states that there is an equal competitiveness in Turkey (45.6^0) and less competitiveness in U.S. (49.0^0) (Hofstede, 2001).

- *Power distance*

Hofstede (1980) assigns Turkey in an Power distance index (PDI) of 66, a medium-high ranked (18-19) position on his list of 50 countries. The U.S. was in the index of 40, a relatively mid-ranked (38) position (Hofstede, 2001). As a case of secondary correlation's with PDI, Hofstede (1998) used two questions from a survey of representative samples of the populations of 24 nations, including U.S. and Turkey (Dunlap, Gallup & Gallup, 1993). Questions were dealing with the maintenances of the economic growth and protection of the environment in order to conclude PDI rates of the countries.

Question 1; With which of the statement do you most agree? (a) Protect the environment should be given priority, even at the risk of slowing down economic growth. (b) Economic growth should be given priority even if the environment suffers in some extent. Percentage answering 'a' to question 1 is; U.S. 58 %, Turkey 43%. According to Hofstede's correlation with PDI; in high PDI countries (like Turkey) more people are accustomed to leave decisions about the environment to the authorities.

Question 2; Increased efforts by business and industry to improve environmental quality might lead to higher prices for the things to buy. Would you be willing to pay higher prices, so that industry could better be protect the environment, or not ? Percentage answering 'yes' to question 2 is; U.S. 65%, Turkey 44 %. According to Hofstede's correlation with PDI; in high PDI cultures (like Turkey) fewer people prepared to pay for the environment.

Related with the PDI, also Kagıtcıbası (1970) found that (demonstrated her research to male and female students in U.S. (lower PDI) and Turkey (higher PDI)) the various components of authoritarianism were much more strongly in Americans than for Turks. The relatively consistent authoritarian personality syndrome found in the U.S. was missing in Turkey. Although Turks tended to score higher on most authoritarian values (Hofstede, 2001).

- *Uncertainty avoidance*

Hofstede (1980) assigns Turkey in an Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) index of 85, a medium-high ranked (16-17) position on his list of 50 countries. The U.S. was ranked 46, a relatively low-ranked (43) position (Hofstede, 2001).

Hofstede (2001) claims that, the young democracies, which developed their present form of government since World War I (e.g. Turkey), tend to show higher UAI scores than do the old democracies (e.g. U.S.). Young democracies acquires its form of government after losing or winning a war in which the country played a more or less aggressive role. This means that the stress levels were not caused by the war but rather contributed to the fact that countries took part in it.

Also, Kozan and Ergin states that, in Turkey, among conflict management styles, avoidance was found to be preferred by those having strong tradition and conformity values. Conflicts with peers, the forcing style was used more by those strong in power values. When third parties were involved in the conflict, subjects high in achievement and stimulation were less likely to be the ones who invited their involvement. The tendency to leave the initiative to the third party was stronger among subjects that had high universalism values (1999).

4.1.4. Culture and society

Culture and society are two closely related concepts. Haviland defines society as a “*group of people, occupying a specific locality who share common cultural traditions*” (1996:33). Obviously, there can be no culture without a society, just as there can be no culture without a society.

“*Culture is a concept also crucial to the understanding of consumer may be thought of as a society’s personality. It includes both abstract ideas such as values and ethics and the material objects and services such as automobiles, clothing, food, art and sports that produced or valued by a society*” (Solomon & Rabolt, 2004:37). These group of values and ethics are basic to understand a society’s core values.

Values are abstract goals (e.g. freedom) that are important guiding principles in people's lives. In some sense **core values** represent "what one ideally is" while **core competencies** represent "the best of what one does" (Edgeman & Rodgers, 1999). Core values define how products are used in a society. Not only do core values determine what food should be eaten but they also determine with what other foods are they appropriate, how they are prepared and the time of the day to eat them. Also core values of a nation provide positive and negative qualifications for brands e.g. 'As American pie as apple pie' communicated well in America for Chevrolet advertisements.

4.2. Social Class and Status Influences

Three general approaches to the conceptualization of social class can be identified (Veenstra, 2007);

- (i) social class is equated with socio-economic status, i.e., income, educational attainment and/or occupational prestige,
- (ii) social class is a social group defined primarily by the nature of its relationship to the economic mode of production (Marxist perspective)
- (iii) social class is a social group defined relationally in social space by its possession and utilization of various capitals such as economic, cultural and social capital (theorist Pierre Bourdieu's perspective).

As, social class refers to grouping of people who are similar in their behavior based upon their economic position in the market place, the determinant of what consumers are able to buy is also determined by social class variables.

4.2.1. Nine variables of social class

The scientific study of social stratification in the U.S. began in the 1920's with descriptions of social classes in small towns. Research continues today with thousands of studies dealing with the measurement of social classes in large cities and nationally. From these works, nine variables emerge as most important:

- Economic variables: Occupation, income and wealth.

What a person does for a living not only determines how much the family has to spend, but it's extremely important in determining other diverse number of outcomes. For example, Socioeconomic Status (SES) is one of many terms used to characterize social stratification, and it is often used identically with socioeconomic position and social class. Linking SES with health outcomes invariably suggests that higher SES levels are almost always positively associates with health-protective behaviors and negatively associates with health-impeding behaviors (Viswanath & Bond, 2007).

- Interaction variables: Personal prestige, association and socialization.

People have high **prestige** when other people have an attitude of respect to them. A consumer analyst studies prestige in two ways; by asking people about their attitudes of respect toward others and by watching their behaviors in such things as product usage and imitations of lifestyles. E.g. Watching the lifestyle practices including activities such as golf, piano, chess, skiing, hiking, fishing and sailing or the cultural tastes including beverage choices such as ordinary red wine, sparkling white wine, mineral water, whisky and champagne, musical tastes (Bach, Stravinsky, modern jazz, Petula Clark) and favorite actors (Veenstra, 2007).

Association is a variable concerned with everyday relationships. People have close relationships with people who like to do the same things they do. **Socialization** is the process by which an individual learns the skills, attitudes and customs to participate in the life of the community. Much of the sociological researches have concluded that social class behavior and values are learned early in the life cycle. E.g. Education is strongly related to childhood social class, which will later be a determining or limiting factor for the kind of job obtained (Gisselmann, 2006).

- Political variables: Power, class consciousness and mobility

Power is the potential of individuals or groups to carry out their will over others. While this variable is central in the analysis of many theorists of social class, it is of less direct interest to marketers. According to Wallace and Junisbai, class position take priority over earlier class experiences in shaping one's class consciousness. In this regard, sudden

adverse changes in one's life circumstances can have a role in heightening awareness of class and raising **class consciousness**. The role of class identity and class interests may overlap and reinforce each other, but they may also operate in different directions, particularly for people who experience rapid upward or downward **mobility** in their lives (2003). When mobility occurs in an upward direction the possibility exists that consumers will need to learn a new set of consumption behaviors, products and brands that are consistent with their new status.

4.2.2. Social class and brand perceptions

Consumers associate with brands of products and services with specific social classes. Consumers believe one brand is higher or lower than others are more appropriate for people higher in social status than others. Barber and Lobel (1952) points out that the class right beneath the highest class wears the most expensive clothing and considers clothing a symbol of wealth and luxury, and that this means this class desires upward mobility and follows trends more eagerly. Warning (1960) explains that the diversity and utility of purchased clothing are related to social class, as well as attitude toward the importance of price, designer brands, and sophisticated clothing, and concern for the evaluation of others. After observing the lower classes, Hurlock (1929) concludes, they try to identify with the middle class by imitating their style of dress (as cited in Seo & Lee, 2008) The empirical evidences indicate that, social class determines life chances in every means of product and services.

Understanding the development of social class is important in understanding consumption for two additional reasons: consumers adopt life-styles acquired in their class and upper-middle class. They tend to filter down it and try to become generally accepted by the rest of the society.

4.2. Group Influences

According to Mowen and Minor, consumer behavior is *“the study of the buying units and the exchange processes involved in acquiring, consuming, and disposing of goods,*

services, experiences, and ideas” (1998:5). This simple definition has an important concept. It is the definition of word ‘exchange’. Consumers basically able to fulfill their daily needs variously by means of exchanges, not always of a mutual nature, within their ‘social groups’.

*“A **group** is a set of individuals who interact with one another over some period of time and who share a common need or goal” (Schor, 1999:485). Groups are characterized by the exchange processes that takes place among their members. There are many ways to classify groups such as by regularity of contact, by structure, by hierarchy, by membership and even by size. However it is difficult to offer a precise point at which a group considered large or small, a large group might be one in which a single member knows only a few of the group’s members personally or is aware of the specific roles or activities of only a few group members. In contrast, members of a small group are likely to know each member personally and are aware of every member’s specific role or activities in the group.*

Groups are an important part of social life and gaining acceptance into a group can provide value for a consumer for satisfying his or her needs for belonging. Babin and Harris summarize some of the **aspects of group life**;

- *“Group members share common goals and interests.*
- *Group members communize with and influence one another.*
- *Group members share a set of expectations, rules and roles.*
- *Group members view themselves as members of a common social unit”*
(2011:170).

*“**Group influence** refers to the ways in which group members influence the attitudes, opinions and behaviors of others within the group” (Babin & Harris, 2011:170). Consumers belong to numerous **Reference groups** each of which has some impact on their buying behavior (Schor, 1999). These groups provide standards (norms) and values that can become the determining perspective for how a person thinks and behaves. Looking*

from a consumption perspective, literature assumes that they serve as frames of reference for individuals in their purchase or consumption decisions.

An individual's reference group can range from a family to a nation or a culture. Orlove argues that individual's consumption of goods can demonstrate also the identity of these particular groups or social categories (1994).

4.3.1. Types of reference groups

- Primary versus Secondary groups

Primary group - is composed of people with whom the individual is in interaction with on a regular basis. Members have frequent direct contact with another (face to face relationship). *“Primary reference groups generally have the most influence on their members and social ties for these groups are very strong. (A **social tie** is a measure of the strength of connection between group members)”* (Babin & Harris, 2011:170). E.g. friends, family members, neighbors, colleagues.

Secondary group - is composed of people with whom the individual interacts on an occasional basis. The member's interaction within the group is much less frequent than primary group and tend to have somewhat less influence on the members. Accordingly social ties are not as strong as in primary groups. E.g. members of a boating club that one encounters only during week-ends are likely to have their influence limited to consumption during that time period.

One special type of secondary group (or associative group) is a brand community. *“**Brand communities** are groups of consumers who developed relationships based on shared interests or product usage. A popular example for a brand community is Harley Davidson's (Harley owners group)”* (Babin & Harris, 2011:170). Fans of the Harley Davidson meet regularly at events related with the group interests. Members of a brand community not only buy the product repeatedly, but they are extremely committed to it. Share their information and excitement with other consumers and influence other members

to remain loyal to the brand. Such communities may survive even after the brand is discontinued (Hoyer & Macinnis, 2008).

- Formal versus Informal groups

Formal groups - include defined list of members with specific purposes. Individuals formally become a member of the group. Group has stated rules, accepted values and codes of conduct than members are expected to join to them. E.g. Students having a particular task to complete.

Informal groups - are more loosely defined. Has no membership or application requirements. Have a short life time and they are generally created quickly. E.g. like friends meeting once a month for lunch or dinner. Although informal group influence may not be as strong as formal group influence, informal groups also can have an impact on consumer behavior (Babin & Harris, 2011).

- Aspirational versus dissociative groups

An aspirational - group is a group to which an individual aspires (wishes) to belong (but are not currently a member of). Aspirational groups have approved group values. Individuals have a desire to adopt the norms and values of the group.

According to Babin and Harris, group membership also appeals to the consumer's **ideal self**. The ideal self is an important part of the consumer's self-concept (2011). Related with the consumption activity, aspirational group refers to those others, against whom one would like to compare oneself. E.g. many firms use athletes as spokespeople, and these represent what many people would ideally like to be.

Dissociative Groups - groups with whom an individual does not wish to be associated; groups whose use of a product will drive away other buyers. There are many examples of consumers avoid using products associated with particular groups: the teenager who doesn't want to wear his dad's aftershave, the college student who avoids dressing "geeky," the baby boomer who won't use products associated with being "elderly," etc. (*"Many so called 'Baby Boomers' (born between 1946 and 1964) have turned their backs*

on the exaggerated materialistic lifestyle of a segment in their age cohort known as 'yuppies'. Ever since the October 1987 stock market slump and the evidence of widespread stock manipulation there has been a decline in some of the more extreme forms of conspicuous consumption” (Engel et al., 1990:149)).

Schiffman and Kanuk also name secondary groups as **Membership groups** and aspirational groups as **Symbolic groups** (1997). For instance professional golfers may constitute a Symbolic group for an amateur golfer who does not qualify for a membership as a professional golfer because he or she has neither the skills nor the opportunity to compete professionally.

Forms of reference group influences

There are three types of reference group influences;

Informational influence (when advice is asked for by a less knowledgeable individual from a more knowledgeable individual). Utilitarian influence (fitting into the group due to fear of penalty or appreciation from a significant few). Value expressive influence (when an individual internalizes the group goals, beliefs and aspirations and acts accordingly) (Engel et al., 1990).

4.3.2. Consumer related reference groups

The consumer reference groups are widely recognized and referred to by consumers from all around the world. They play an unbiased role in the sales of products and services. The buying decisions are taken on the basis of the personal preferences and the recommendations of the group. Cowan, Cowan & Swann's, analysis recognize three reference groups of consumers whose behavior will influence an individual's preferences;

- **Peer group**

These are similar consumers. The individual interacts on a regular basis and desires to share some common consumption activities.

- Contrast group

With whom the individual seeks actively not to interact, and from whom the individual wishes to distinguish himself/herself.

- Aspirational group

The individual does not interact on a regular basis, but wishes that he/she did. Also the individual would like to share some common consumption activities, but cannot (1997).

Schiffman & Kanuk, states six reference groups of consumers;

- Family group: an individual's family often is the best position to influence his or her consumption decisions.
- Friendship groups: after an individual's family his or her friends are most likely to influence.
- Formal social groups: members of a formal social group often consume certain products together.
- Shopping groups: two or more people who shop together or simply to pass the time.
- Consumer- action groups: those that organize to correct a specific consumer abuse.
- Work groups, people spending time at their works (frequently more than 35 hours per week) and influence each other (1997).

5. FAMILY AND HOUSEHOLD INFLUENCES

For many people the family is the most essential primary group. While mature adults will vary in their motivations and desires, larger differences are likely to exist between generations, particularly adults and children. According to Thornton, Shaw & Williams, in many cases the 'significant commonality' behind groups are family relationships (1997). Researchers compare the family groups with the other groups.

Table 5.1: Relative differences between families and other groups
Source: Park, Tansuhaj & Kolbe as cited in Mowen, 1993:582)

Family	Other groups
Formation by marriage or birth	Formation by job or task
More permanent relationship	More contractual relationship
More oriented to interpersonal	More goal oriented relations
More emotional ties	More rational ties
More intrinsic value seeking	More extrinsic value seeking
Group oriented (cooperative)	Self-oriented (competitive)

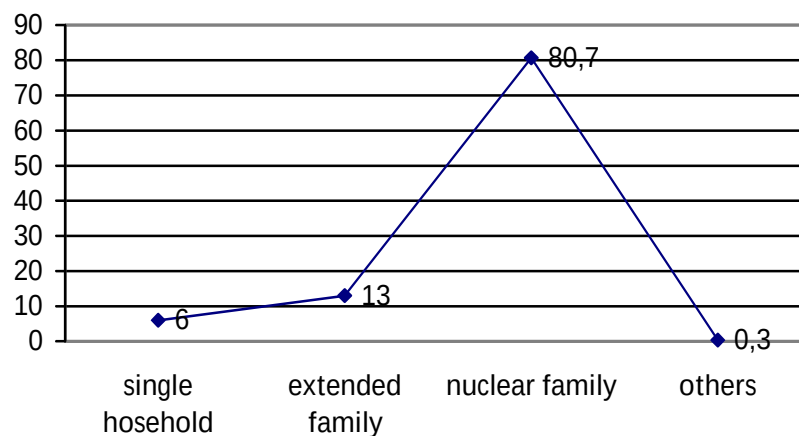
A **family** is a group of two or more people related by blood, marriage or adoption who resides together. The term family is actually a subset of a more general classification-the household. Families have higher median incomes than do households because of the greater number of employed individuals in families. Families are like corporations; they are organizations formed to accomplish particular functions more effectively than individuals on their own. The most obvious function that two people can accomplish better than one is to have children. (Engel et al., 1990). A family not only shapes the individual's personality and general view of others, but also influences the children's values and attitudes about consumption. Members of the family are always in interaction with the consumer (children) and they give different ideas and suggestions or advice to them to buy a specific product or brand. Studies reveal that especially parental influence on children's shopping and saving behavior can be quite strong.

A **household** is composed of all those people who occupy a living unit (Mowen, 1993). Also, households shape the consumption process and help for socialization of children, i.e. what type of purchasing and consumption habits the person will develop (Hawkins as cited in Bilgin, 2001).

The **nuclear family** is the immediate group of father, mother and child(ren) living together. According to Zillman, “*in sociological lingo, the nuclear family is deemed an optimal child-rearing structure*” (1994:201).

The **extended family** includes the nuclear family plus other relatives such as grandparents. Note that, (intergeneralization influence – information, beliefs and resources being transmitted from grandparents to the children) can also play a powerful socializing role at the extended families. This factor explains why the Office of National Drug Control Policy (in U.S.) advertises to encourage grandparents to talk to their grandchildren about the drugs. Grandparent’s less emotionally charged relationship with their grandchildren and sometimes this makes them for children better information sources than parents (Hoyer & Macinnis, 2008).

Graph 5.1: Percentage of family structures in Turkey, published 2006.
Source: Turkish Statistical Institute, Family Demographics, 2006.



Please note that, in Turkey family structure heavily basis on nuclear family type with a highly valued percentage of 80.7.

5.1. Functions of a Family

Four basic functions provided by the family are particularly relevant to a discussion of consumer behavior. These include;

Economic well-being; providing financial means to its dependents is a basic family function. **Emotional support;** providing support and encouragement. Assisting it is members in coping with decision making and personal or social problems (including love, affection and intimacy). **Suitable family lifestyles;** with upbringing experiences and jointly held goals spouses determine the importance placed on education, on career, on reading, on television viewing, on dining etc. **Socialization of family members;** in the case of young children this process includes informing to children the basic values and modes of behavior consistent with the culture. Socialization skills like manners, goals, values and other qualities are informed to a child directly through instruction and indirectly through observation. (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997).

5.2. Sociological Variables Affecting Family

How families make decisions can be better understood by considering their sociological variables such as ***cohesion, adaptability and communication.***

- Cohesion is the emotional bonding that family members have toward one another. It is a measure of how close to each other family members feel on an emotional level. Decisions about a new car, a vacation trip are consumption decisions usually made within the context of a cohesion levels high family settings. When cohesion levels are high there is a high identification with the family. Such families do most things together and probably choose the same brands, colors, type of homes and so forth. Family members may even express preferences in low-involvements such as the brand of toothpaste or the kind of toilet tissue to buy.
- Adaptability is a measure of how well a family can meet the challenges, presented by changing needs.

- Communication is also a facilitating dimension. Positive Communication Skills (such as empathy, reflective listening, supportive comments) enable families to share with each other their changing needs and preferences as they relate to cohesion and adaptability. Negative Communication Skills (such as double messages, double binds, criticism) minimize the ability of a family to share feelings and change the dimensions of cohesion and adaptability (Engel et al., 1990).

5.3. Family Decision Making (family roles)

A family is a buying center reflecting the activities and influences of the individuals who make up the family. Individuals buy products for their own use and for use by other family members (Engel et al., 1990). There are five distinct roles in the family decision making process:

Influencers; Family member(s) who provide information to other members about a product or service. **Gatekeepers;** Family member(s) who control the flow of information about a product or service into the family. **Deciders;** Family member(s) with the power to determine whether to shop for, purchase, use, consume, or dispose of a specific product or service. **Buyers;** Family member(s) who make the actual purchase of a particular product or service. **Users;** Family member(s) who use or consume a particular product or service (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997).

These roles may be assumed by the husband, wife, children or other members of a household. But, also both multiple roles and multiple actors are normal and although, the husband and wife are seem the family's chief decision-makers, the child's influence cannot be ignored.

According to Assael (1995), children play an important part in family decision-making and their influence varies by product categories, services and different decision stages (as cited in Wang, Hsieh, Yeh& Tsai, 2004). Several empirical studies have tried to test this relative influence of children and parents in family decision making.

Belch et.al. (1985) revealed the growing influence of children in family decision making and interviewed children, as parents, about their perception of children's influence. Research have showed that children's influence increases as the child gets older, when the product is less expensive and when it is intended for children. In contrast, children have little influence on the amount spent, the choice of purchase location and the final decision (as cited in Labrecque & Richard, 2001).

5.4. Family Life Cycles (FLC)

A Family changes over time, passing through a series of stages. This process historically has been called the Family Life Cycle (FLC). The main life stages of families are described as follows:

- Younger singles; Head of household single and younger than 45 years with no children present.
- Younger couples; Married couple with head of household younger than 45 years with no children present.
- Younger parents; Head of household younger than 45 years with children(s).
- Midlife families; Head of household between the ages of 45 and 64 years with child(ren) either present in or financially supported by the household.
- Midlife households; Head of household between the ages of 45 and 64 years with no child(ren) either present in or financially supported by the household.
- Older households; Head of household aged 65 years or older or retired (Engel et al., 1995).

6. CONSUMPTION ROLE OF CHILDREN IN A FAMILY GROUP

Mangleburg discusses the role of children in a family group as influencers, decision makers and users of products and services. Clearly, though children do make a difference in family decisions (as cited in Mowen, 1993). Clulow (1993) also predicted some of these shifts in his work, where he states the changes from a “traditional” family to a “new” family environment (as cited in Flurry, 2007);

Table 6.1: Changes from a “traditional” family to a “new” family environment.
Source: Clulow (1993) as cited in Flurry, 2007.

Traditional family	“New” family	Possible implications for child purchase influence
Families as producers	Families as consumers	Children encounter consumption decisions earlier.
Multi-member households	Limited member households	Due to the changing (postponed childbearing, single parents, etc.), households are smaller.
Hierarchical relationships	Horizontal relationships	Family decision-making is more egalitarian, with children having more equality in the family; children are taking on more decision-making responsibility.
Collective values	Individual values	Children form values as a result of external influences.
Biological family ties	Social family ties	Families are no longer necessarily biologically related, changing in traditional familial roles.
Unpaid care	Paid care	Children encounter non-family socialization agents earlier.
Differentiated relationships	Fused - relationships	Stereotypical family decision making forms are declining.
Rights	Responsibilities	Children are achieving equal-shareholder status.
Belonging	Isolation	Children make more decisions autonomously.

“Reduced family size, the increase in divorce and in single –parent families and the general increase in disposable income combined with the new ‘valorization’ of childhood have all given children greater say in household purchasing decisions” (Buckingham, 2000:147). These changes have been documented and lamented by a large number of diverse authoritative. Also they have argued that while investigating the individuals in the family, especially the children should be the primary focus of the studies.

6.1. Consumer Socialization of the Children

The aspect of childhood socialization that is particularly relevant to the study of consumer behavior is the **consumer socialization** which is defined as the process by which children acquire the skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary to function as consumers. Children of all ages struggle to understand their physical and social environment. Moreover, their level of understanding determines to a large extent their tastes and preferences for products, information, and entertainment, and as a result, their consumer behavior norms (Valkenburg & Cantor, 2001). More of it, many children acquire these consumer behavior norms through observation of their parents who function as role models. A child learns how to enjoy a candy by observing an older brother or sister. Learns the use and value of money by listening to and watching his or her parents.

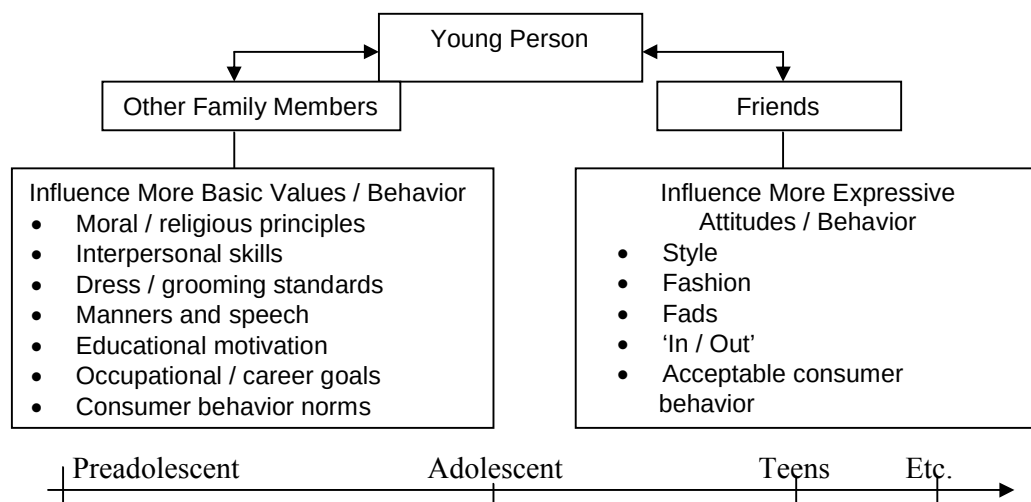


Figure 6.1: Model of children’s socialization process.

Source: Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997: 353.

Although it looks like preadolescent children tend to rely more on their parents, according to Moschis, Moore & Smith “*the major sources of cues for basic consumption learning adolescents and teenagers are likely to look to their friends for models of acceptable behaviors*” (as cited in Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997:350).

There are two components of consumer socialization of children;

- **Direct socialization;** Parents purposively train children in consumer knowledge. Includes budgeting, pricing, brand attitudes and actual product usage.
- **Indirect socialization;** A more passive learning, through observation. Includes motivations (Arnold et.al., 2002). Both components are a life-long process without a predetermined end- point (Brim et.al., as cited in Gronhoj & Thogersen, 2009).

Direct or indirect consumer socialization of children is often related to demographic characteristics such as the culture of the households, social class of the households and age and gender of the child etc.

E.g. different parenting styles and socialization patterns (direct or indirect) vary from culture to culture in families. In individualistic cultures like U.S. many parents are relatively permissive and children develop consumer skills at an earlier age. In contrast, children in a collectivist culture like Turkey parents tend to be limiting and children understand advertising practices in a later age (Hoyer & Macinnis, 2008).

There are many examples of how the families influence the consumption behaviors of its members in different cultures. In some occasions, consumer socialization also serves as a tool by which parents influence other aspects of the socialization process. As Schiffman & Kanuk , state parents frequently use the promise or reward of material goods as a device to modify or control a child’s behavior in U.S. (2000).

Although it is found that early school years are the times a child is changing in the way he or she interacts with agents of socialization (media, family, peer etc. influences)

researchers found that, with appropriate tuition, pre-school children can acquire a degree of consumer literacy which would not develop naturally before the age of eight (Moschis et al., 1980 as cited in Gunther & Furnham, 1998).

6.2. Consumer Socialization of the Children with ‘Coshopping’

Communication with family members plays an important role in shaping consumer learning like shared shopping experiences. Shared shopping experiences (i.e. coshopping when mother and child shop together) also give children the opportunity to acquire in-store shopping skills.

Mothers taking their children to shopping, often explain to them what they are doing during the shopping process. This provides children a powerful role model. By the time children gets older, most of them acquires fairly sophisticated consumption orientations though this may differ by gender and class.

Literature states that, a child’s consumer socialization begins at a very early age. As a result, long before children are able to purchase products they are already express their preferences to parents (Reynolds & Wells, (1977) as cited in Gunther &Furnham, 1998). From another point of view, Carruth found that although parents reported frequently refusing children’s requests, they also often asked children their preferences as they “co-shopped’ (as cited in O’Dougherty,et.al. 2006).

Possibly because of their more harried life styles, working mothers are more likely to undertake coshopping with their children than are non-working mothers(Grossbart et. al, 1988 as cited in Gunther &Furnham,1998). This style enables mothers spending time with their children while at the same time accomplishing a necessary task. Also, because the frequent extreme time pressure faced by working mothers there is evidence that the children more of a say on what they get simply because an exhausted mother is more likely to yield and say ‘Yes’ (Holmes as cited in Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997).

During the coshopping process, parents also play a key role in the formation of the child's knowledge about nutritional values by commenting on the nutritional quality of various food products. According to Schneider (1987), the foods usually purchased or the comments made by parents about food products when actually shopping with their child may have a powerful influence on the child's knowledge on the consumption behavior toward various types of foods (as cited in Gunther &Furnham, 1998).The consumer knowledge structure of children becomes more sophisticated as they grow older. John (1984) suggests that young children (4-6) years describe grocery shopping with their mothers in highly specific terms as older children (7-10) years tend to give very general descriptions (as cited in Gunther &Furnham,1998)

According to Babin and Harris (2011), family members generally and directly affects behavior in the marketplaces additionally related with the financial issues. Parents who openly discuss financial matters such as developing saving accounts can greatly influence their children.

6.3. Consumption Role of Children's in relation to 'Age'

According to McNeal (1999), children aren't born consumers but they are born to be consumers. They become consumers when they complete a certain level. They begin their consumer ship early in life. At first, this process works slowly, than at older ages like 4 and 5 years process works very rapidly. Most of them learn half of their consumer attitudes and skills by the average age of ten.

Ages at around 1-3 years; Children gain little consumer competence during the early years. The median age of a child's first marketplace visit was two months. At around, 24 months children make their first in-store requests to parents.

Ages at around 4-5 years; Children consumer competence gains increases rapidly. This is a time when children are learning to make their own purchases. Consumer competence gains stays at the same level till age 9, where a new level starts upward.

Ages at around 9 year; A consumer reaches functionality during approximately the first 100 months of life – a little over eight years. Many aspects of consumer behavior learnt in this early period will manifest themselves through a individual's life.

Through in depth interviews with 222 mothers from a wide variety of geographic and socioeconomic background McNeal (1999) investigated what kind of stores and products were involved in children's first consumer acts and what ages these interactions took place. The results are summarized in five stages.

- **First store visit**

The median age of a child's first marketplace visit was two months. Most had visited one or more stores by the age of six months. The first type of store visited in 78 percent of cases was a supermarket.

- **First in-store request**

Children first made a request (through pointing, gesturing, talking) for a product, the median age reported was 24 months (2 years), with the earliest began 7 months. At around 18 months many children recognize some products on the shelves of food stores. These products are cereals for 47 percent, sweets-snacks 30 percent, toys 21 percent. This is the beginning of market influence among children. Supermarkets are the biggest beneficiaries of such first requests with 76 percent since supermarkets are likely to be the first type of store children visit.

- **First in-store selection**

The median age at which this physical act toward becoming a consumer begins in 42 months (3.5 years), although its often witnessed as early as 24 months. In these months children learn to talk and seek independent actions. They arrive at the 'I can do it, I want to do it' stage. Related with this, they begin to retrieve requested products from the shelves without asking. This first self-selection behavior makes its first appearance in supermarkets 56 percent, mass merchandisers 23 percent, toy stores 11 percent. At this point, we see that, these new consumers start to pay much more attention to the mass merchandisers. The

first products selected in this phase are cereals 35 percent, toys 28 percent, snacks 24 percent.

- **First assisted purchase**

By a median age of 66 months (5.5 years), they have been coming close by making many selections that parents actually buy for them. They have learnt to count and finally have a basic understand of concept of the money. They recognize that the retailer owns the products and you have to pay for them. Also, it is a important fact that children have ready money at this age. Somewhere between ages 4 and 6 children request permission to buy something while shopping with their parents. Child's first purchase attempt takes place at a mass merchandiser 43 percent rather than a supermarket 19 percent. Almost 20 percent takes place at toy stores. Toys are the chief objects of kid's desires on the first purchase 54 percent while sweet and snacks continue at a reasonable important level of 24 percent. At this age a child's range of wants has broadened and only mass merchandisers or superstores can satisfactorily meet them.

- **First solo purchase**

The median age for the first independent purchase is 96 months (8 years). The retail outlets where kids make their first purchases are convenient ones 50 percent – close to home, school and where mothers go. Supermarkets gets 14 percent, malls 12 percent, mass merchandisers 12. Children first solo purchases are snacks 53 percent, toys 19 percent, food 12 percent. Once this independent purchase act has occurred, they are likely to make independent purchases frequently to confirm their new found status. They start to ask 'Mom do you want me to go to the store for you ?'

6.4. Consumption Role of Children's in Relation to 'Gender'

Findings suggest that, boys go through the consumer development process, faster than girls do. It appears that parents expect boys to mature earlier than girls. Also they hold on tighter to girls when it comes to making independent shopping trips to nearby stores (McNeal, 1999).

6.5. Consumption Role of Children's in Relation to 'Parenthood'

As McNeal (1999) states, children in one-parent households (single mother or single father) become independent consumers earlier than those in two-parent households (mother and father). In often cases, this age difference amounts to a half-year between two parenthood styles.

Children in one-parent households seem to be viewed as functioning members at a younger age and get to select and purchase products earlier and more often. It may not be the one-parent home just to make differences. Typically one-parent family income is less according to two-parent family and this may encourage children to greater responsibility at an earlier age.

6.6. Consumption Role of Children's in Relation to 'Social Classes'

Family influence on consumer socialization of children is often related with the demographic characteristics such as the socioeconomic status of the households. Ward and Wackman (1972) showed that, parents general consumer socialization goals also included teaching their children about price-quality relationships (as cited in Gunther &Furnham, 1998).

Parents may, play a key role in formation of the child's knowledge to use price as a criterion in evaluating products. Thus, this is related with the socioeconomic background of the family and effects on decision making patterns as well as the development of these patterns. Judging good value for money, spending to a budget, comparing prices before buying something seem to be learnt at different ages from parents and though different class attitudes and values.

Gunther & Furnham's (1998) findings may explain some of these;

Middle-class parents are more likely overall than are working-class parents to attempt to teach their children to become consumer literature.

While working-class parents may have lower incomes than middle-class parents they may nevertheless often give their children greater exposure to the economic world and consumer experiences than middle class parents do.

Working class children receive more pocket money and undertake more purchasing trips on their own. Also, they are exposed to the market place earlier and more extensively than middle-class children.

6.7. Consumption Role of Children's in Relation to 'Needs and Wants'

Products and programs satisfying children's needs and wants could be in the short term or in the long term. A colorful snack package with a cartoon character on it provides a kid's **short-term needs** and satisfaction. Mattel's Hot Wheel's cars year after year continue to provide young boys **long-term needs** with something they need and want. This small, easily persuasive, colorful mini cars are fun and also they are very suitable for accumulating and collecting.

Accumulating vs. Collecting

According to Acuff and Reiher (1997), before the age of approximately 6, children are interested in accumulating lots of toys or other fun objects just for the number and the mass that this represents. Also they gravitate toward toys that transform themselves into something else (Clay, 2000). As they shift toward the 8/12 years of age they develop the cognitive capacity to differentiate more precisely. This leads to the term collecting.

Collecting involves, more comparison of details, more involvement with and more attention to detail. E.g. Marvel-comic-book-character cards describe the character's various attributes, special skills and abilities. Before the age of approximately 6, the capacity to meaningfully relate to these details is not in place. After six these details become very important and essential part of the product what provides fun and entertainment.

6.8. Consumption Role of Children's in Relation to 'Moms'

According to Coffrey et.al.(2006), mom and her child is so strong in consumer relationship – partnership- that we see the kid and mom as one, virtually joined at the hip, one 'Four eyed- four legged consumer'. Moms and children seem to have become a closer entity

The key facts of moms;

- Moms feel their kids feelings. They love it when their kids giggle, laugh and generally otherwise get pleasure from a product.
- They are usually on the same side as their kids. Mom gets pleasure from giving things to her child that make her child happy. Also, she has a general need to please her children and affirm that she is a good mom.
- Moms feel a strong need to teach their children. Teaching them to be consumers is one of their job. Also they encourage their children to take the risk of trying something new (Coffrey et. al.,2006)

The key facts of today's moms;

Today's mom are dramatically different from their predecessors. Lot of what she does, what she buys and what she demands of her family is centered around her children. Coffrey et. al., (2006) states some of these realities;

Today's moms are always searching for tips how to be better moms. The way an interacting parent and the child behave is quite different than either of them would act alone. According to Rust, moms alone wouldn't buy kids novelty products. Because the child is present, mom feels a measure of joy even excitement in seeing her child so pleased with an item.

Today's moms had to depend more on mental or passive activities. Her TV and telephone became her best companions. (Reality: kids television viewing amount increases, relatively).

Today's mom report to be at least trying to be healthy agreeing that, they should exercise more to work at eating well-balanced diets and healthier foods. Acting against this fact, according to Parenting Magazine (2003) about 40 percent of moms admit that their children ate no green vegetables the night before. They give in and relax the rules to the need for peace and convenience at home. (Reality; kids are more independent in their food consumption).

Today's moms are seeking for flex-career, where by mom takes some time out of the work force, when her children are young and then returns later. In a latest study, it found that 28 percent of women 'who don't yet have children' were planning to leave the workforce for a period of time when they had children. (Reality; mom and kids have more time spending for coshopping).

Today's moms don't want to spend time or money 'guessing' what her children may or may not like. She'd rather know for sure. She don't want to waste money on stuff her kid doesn't like so it's important what the kids think.
(Reality; kids become independent consumers in an earlier age.)

However, mom is certainly not a pushover for her kids desires. Rather she seems a balanced approach when it comes to raising her children.

Mom's attitudes regarding children (percent of moms agreeing)

Children should be allowed to express themselves	61%
Want to provide my kids with things I didn't have	66%
Want to indulge my kids with little extras	68%
Yet:	
Do not find it difficult to say no my kids	63%
Believe kids are exposed to too much materialism	75%

Source: Simmons Research as cited in Coffrey et. al., 2006

6.9. Consumption Role of Children's in Relation to 'Family Authority'

Another way of classifying families is by how authority is exercised in the family. Different parental styles can give rise to different attitudes towards different consumerism practices on the part of the children.

Carlson and Grossbart (1988), found that mothers different at communicating with children about consumption also different in the manner in which they controlled their children's media usage and in their attitudes towards advertising (as cited in Gunther & Furnham, 1998). These different parental styles of socialization have been observed by the scholars that parents can be classified according to the way they handle their children's misbehavior. To show warm towards their children or anxiety about them or in the way they protect them.

Related with these different parental styles Lackman & Lanasa, classifies families on the basis worldwide into four types (as cited in Sheth, Mittal & Newman, 1999);

- **Authoritarian families**

The head of the household exercises strict authority on children and children learn to obey their elders in all matters (expect unquestioned obedience). Strictly enforce rules. Believe children have few rights but have adult responsibilities. Such families are found most in Asian societies.

- **Neglectful families**

Parents are distant from their children, because they place more priority on their individual affairs. Same like in authoritarian families they see children as having few rights that require parental attention. Single parent families risk this behavior most some due to time pressure, others due to undisciplined life style of the single parent.

- **Democratic families**

Every member is given equal voice. View rights and responsibilities of adults and children as complimentary. Most family matters are discussed among family members especially

those who affected by the decisions. Self expression, autonomy and mature behavior are encouraged among children. While opinions are sought from all affected members the decision could be a joint one or it could be exercised by the family head. According to Gardner et. al (1978), democratic families explain rules, offer alternatives and solicit the child's opinion. They attempt to enrich the child's environment with cultural and educational activities (as cited in Gunther &Furnham, 1998).

- **Permissive families**

Children are given relative independence in conducting their own affairs, especially in their adolescent years. Unlike parents in the neglectful families, however permissive parents closely watch children's interests and exercise of freedom.

The presence of these types differ across different countries and the proportions would change in the same country over time. Also families could have partial tendencies of more than one type.

Table 6.2: Children's consumption role related with 'authority'
Source: Sheth, Mittal & Newman, 1999:585.

CHILDREN'S ROLE				
	FOR OWN-USE PRODUCTS		FOR FAMILY-USE PRODUCTS	
FAMILY TYPE	DIRECT CONTROL	SHARED INFLUENCE	DIRECT CONTROL	SHARED INFLUENCE
Authoritarian	Low	Low	Low	Low
Neglectful	High	High	Low	Low
Democratic	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate
Permissive	High	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate

Children's consumer socialization and consumption role would obviously differ across these four types. It would be LOWEST among authoritarian families. In neglectful families children would exercise NO influence on parents purchases. In democratic families children would SHARE influence with other members. Finally in permissive families children would exercise RELATIVE autonomy for products for which they are the principal or sole user.

6.10. Consumption Role of Children's in Relation to 'Family Communication'

The child-rearing and communication styles of today's families have changed significantly over the past two decades. Until the early 1980s, child-rearing patterns were characterized by authority, obedience, and respect. In today's families, however, the parent-child relationship typically is not regulated by authority and command, but rather by negotiation (Torrance as cited in Valkenburg, 2000).

In modern families, children's opinions and participation in decision making processes are encouraged and taken seriously, children not only play an important role in family decision making, but have responsibility as consumers in their own rights. Also, parents permit their children to participate in the role of consumer to a large degree. In their study Rose, Boush and Shoham examines the effect of family communication patterns on the purchasing influence of children aged 3–8 in the US and Japan (2002). They stated with their research that family communication processes, as well as child's age, influence both the direct and indirect purchasing power of children.

Also, family communication patterns in its original conceptualization refer to the frequency, type, and quality of communication among family members. In consumer socialization research, however, the concept is more closely identified as a characterization of parental messages to children or an aspect of parental socialization practice. Two dimensions characterize parental messages – socio-orientation and concept-orientation.

- **Socio-oriented messages;** Promote respect to parents and adaptation on the part of the child to parental control. Stress obedience and social harmony, with little consideration

for developing the child's opinions. Therefore, children are not free to develop their own preferences. According to Hsieh, Chiu and Lin's research, parents with socio-oriented communications are also expected to exert more influence on their children's brand attitudes (2006).

- **concept-oriented messages;** Encourage children to develop their own views of the world and promote an open exchange of ideas and feelings in parent–child relationships (Mangleburg et al., as cited in Kim, Yang & Lee, 2009). Parents maintain a low degree of parental control; children therefore are free to develop their own preferences, regardless of obedience to their parents. Parents provide children more consumption independence. According to Rose, Dalakas and Kropp, concept-oriented family communication also starts at early developmental timetables (2002).

6.11. Consumption Role of Children's in Relation to 'Social Power'

One approach that may be useful in explaining the differences in children's influence on purchases is social power theory. This theoretical framework suggests that social power acts as a resource that individuals may locate to exert influence on others.

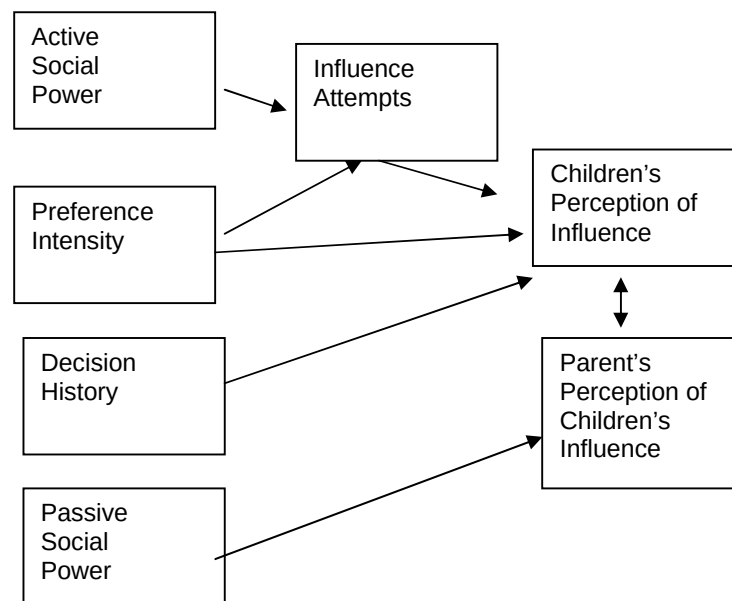


Figure 6.2: Model of children's influence in purchase decisions.
Source: Flurry & Burns, 2005.

Social power theory distinguishes between influence derived from active and passive power, a notion that is conceptually compatible to direct and indirect influence. According to French and Raven (1959) use of power to influence is commonly active, or the result of an knowingly action. However, sometimes this influence may be passive, such as when the only presence of power is having a good credit rating (as cited in, Flurry & Burns, 2005).

- **Children's active social power**

In the conceptual model, a child's power bases give rise to influence attempts; that is, a child's influence attempts should be largely shaped by his/her social power attributes. Descriptive studies have documented that children use a number of different influence attempts, including, but not limited to, asking, pleading, bargaining, persisting, using force, telling, being demonstrative, sugar-coating, threatening, and using pity (Atkin, 1978; Isler et al., 1987; McNeal, 1992; Williams and Burns, 2000, as cited in, Flurry & Burns, 2005).

- **Children's passive social power**

A child's influence may also be passive, where there is no evidence of speech or open actions on the part of the child. In other words, a power source is passive if the parent feels its presence on the part of the child. Roedder and John state that (1999), as children age, they influence family purchase decisions in a more passive way, as parents learn their children's likes and dislikes and make purchase decisions accordingly (as cited in Flurry & Burns, 2005).

- **Decision history**

Defined as a person's perception of his or her past success in a similar decision exchange. As such, a person's perception of his/her decision history in a similar purchase context should shape to some extent his/her perception of his/her potential for influence (Corfman and Lehmann (1987), as cited in Flurry & Burns, 2005).

- **Preference intensity**

Is a concept in the family decision making literature that has the potential to affect children's influence perceptions. Persons who strongly desire a particular outcome or product are more likely to exert influence in a group decision.

- **Children's influence**

According to Coleman, influence is defined as the use of power to achieve an outcome (as cited in Flurry & Burns, 2005). By definition, influence may only be achieved as the result of a face to face exchange process between two or more parties (Sprey (1975), as cited in Flurry & Burns, 2005).

6.12. Consumption Role of Children's in Relation to 'Pester Power'

Today's kids have more autonomy and decision making power within the family than in previous generations and they are more vocal about what they want their parents to buy. In general this "Pester power" refers to children's ability to nag their parents into purchasing items they may not otherwise buy.

Pestering is a common influencing technique and can take a number of sophisticated forms depending on the age/maturity of the child. Thus, pester power may be defined as a child's attempts to exert influence over parental purchases in a repetitive and sometimes confrontational way, but—and this is important—also with some degree of success. Moreover, researches state us that pestering often proves to be one of the most successful influencing technique (McNeal, et. al. as cited in Nicholls & Cullen 2004).

Parental pestering is often associated with particular types of product. Children are more likely to generate their pester power to influence parents decisions for child related products such as foods or toys to buy but also vacations, eating out and so on. Especially, the level of pester power generated can be overwhelming when its directly concerned with child related products and parents will frequently give in to the child's demands (Ekstrom et.al. as cited in Blythe, 1997).

Since children do not have much disposable money of their own, they are dependent upon their parents for many of the items they wish to own. At this point, marketing to children is all about creating pester power, because advertisers know what a powerful force it can be. According to Procter and Richards (2002), children's desire to possess products they have seen on television are also said to lead to pester power which means that children pester their parents or other adults to buy things for them (as cited in Gunter, Oates & Blades, 2005)

Not all children respond to television advertising in the same way. One concern is that, advertising contributes to intra-family conflicts by encouraging children constantly to pester their parents to buy them things (Gunter & Furnham, 1998). Parents may not always listen or give in to children's purchase requests with the result that the child becomes happy. Also the factors which are of particular importance in this context is child's parental social class, education, cultural background, television viewing and peers.

Also, pester power could be in the long term when children wage a campaign of requests in demands of birthdays and new years. As Crouch (1999) states, three quarters of children's had started to asking for their new year presents before October (as cited in Gunter, Oates & Blades, 2005).

6.12.1. 'Pester power' and conflicts

Most of the developed countries especially European countries and USA declare the principle of a child's right to participate in decision-making on all matters that might affect it. Relevant to an analysis of children's purchase behavior, Nicholls and Cullen suggest as it does that children have a (legal) right to be involved in purchase decisions that affect them. Of course, this must be counterbalanced by an understanding that parents also have rights and, indeed, in many situations are better equipped to make an informed purchase choice (2004).

Both parents and children have a set of *rights* that allows them to participate in purchase decisions. However, balancing these rights are *responsibilities*. The point at which the rights of the child and rights of the parent cease to be in balance is the point at which conflict seen here as '*pester power*' can be found.

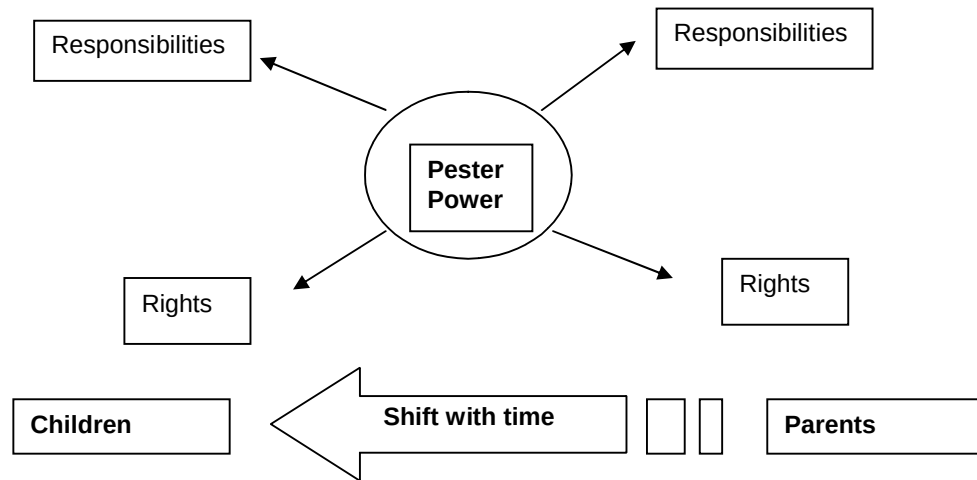


Figure 6.3: Model of child–parent rights and responsibilities.
Source: Nicholls & Cullen 2004

When parents refused to buy products, either because they can’t afford to buy them or because they believe them to be inappropriate to their children e.g. snack foods, children’s pestering can lead to family conflicts and this may lead to anger, frustration and disappointment at the children (Swain, 2002 as cited in Gunter et. al 2005).

Or, it may be that the parent’s feel obliged to disregard the child’s decision making rights for their own good (typically to ‘teach the value of money’). But at this point, whatever the reason is, according to McNeal (1992) child tries to use pester power with some semantics like; social (‘My friends will laugh at me if I don’t have it’), nurturing (‘ If you loved me, you’d buy it’) or even physiological (‘I’ll die if I don’t have it!’) (as cited in Nicholls & Cullen 2004). Prout (2000) states that these conditions for conflict are particularly strong in more developed countries e.g. England. (as cited in Nicholls & Cullen 2004).

6.12.2. Likelihood of conflicts

However, conflict within the child–parent purchase relationship is not an absolute issue and when it is considered in a retail context, also some various operational dimensions can be identified.

For the conflicts, there are three main product categories that are of direct interest to most children: clothing, toys, and food (Euromonitor, 2001, as cited in Nicholls & Cullen, 2004). Each of the main groups offer a different context for the child–parent purchase relationship with the likelihood of conflict increasing from clothes to toys to food.

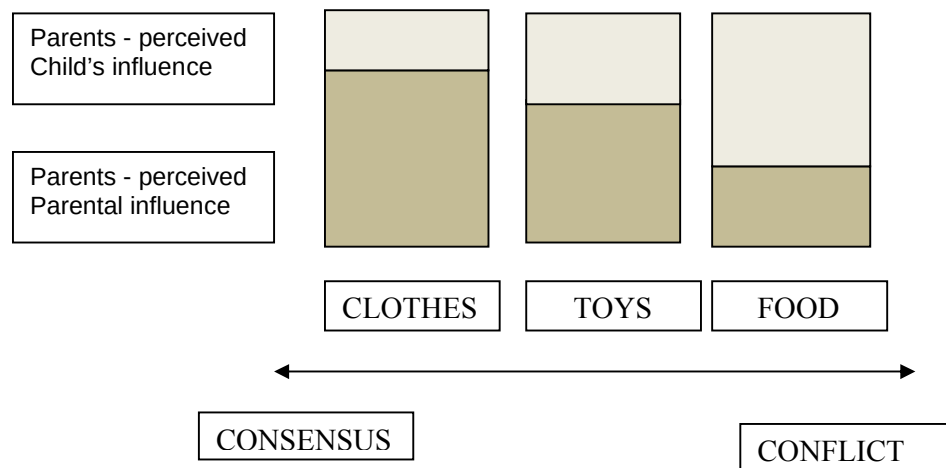


Figure 6.4 : Model of continuum child–parent purchase situations.
Source: Stoltman et al., 1999, as cited in Nicholls & Cullen, 2004.

Here, the key issue in determining the level of consensus or conflict in a purchase situation is the level of parent-perceived influence shared between parent and child during the shopping trip. For an example, Gelperowic et.al.(1994) suggests that the most stressful shopping environment for a parent and child is to enter a supermarket. The parent and child may have radically different agendas as the shopping process gets underway. Most likely the parent will be focusing on completing the grocery shop efficiently and quickly, whereas the child will possibly be influencing the purchase of a product in which it has an interest.

In his discussion of children as ‘little naggers’, McNeal (1992) suggested that children, on average, make 15 purchase requests during a typical shopping visit. He also estimated that between 40% and 80% of these requests were granted, depending on the product group. In fact, a small number in comparison with the 20,000 or so lines likely to be on display in an average supermarket (as cited in Nicholls & Cullen, 2004).

According to McNeal (1992) sophisticated ‘pestering’ is not merely limited to the retail context but also occurs at home before the shopping trip begins (Nicholls & Cullen 2004). Especially, shopping for toys and breakfast cereals much depends on what has been agreed prior to entering the shop—namely who has initiated the visit and what has been agreed beforehand.

From the literature we can see that, the influence of children on the purchase of breakfast cereals has been extensively investigated with many different researches and Mowen (1993), lists some of these results as an example for the conflicts;

- Children make requests for breakfast cereals more frequently than for other product categories.
- Almost one half of mothers mentioned that their child had asked for a particular breakfast cereal.
- The greater the amount of TV viewing at Saturday morning and the greater the tendency to make requests for specific cereals.
- Mothers exert little influence over cereal brand preferences among children less than ten years of age.
- Parents tended to initiate the choice of cereal more often for older children.
- Percentage of occasions when conflict occurred tended to be at a maximum when the children were between the ages of six and eight.

Television viewing and advertising variables affecting children (preschooler's) consumption process

7. DEFINING TELEVISION VIEWING

As Lindlof and Meyer state, television is the symbol of greatest commonality for all, regardless of region, ethnicity, class position or any other cultural distinction one could name (1998). Television is above else a popular cultural medium. Television attempts to define, tries out explanations, creates narratives, talks over, makes intelligible, tries to marginalize, harnesses speculation, tries to make fit, and very occasionally anathematizes (Ellis,1999).

More of it, television is another important influencer at the children's consumer socialization process addition to influences of parents. It is no secret that children watch a lot of television. As a result they are constantly bombarded with messages about consumption, both contained in commercials and in the programs themselves.

Knowing these, the economics determine its production and distribution demand that it reaches a mass audience and the mass audience in Western industrialized societies is composed of numerous subcultures or sub audiences with a wide variety of social relations, a variety of socio cultural experience and therefore a variety of discourses that they will bring to bear upon the program in order to understand and enjoy it. According to Fiske for its own purposes television attempts to homogenize this variety (including kids) so that the one program can reach as many different audiences as possible (1997).

Despite being a significant part of the everyday lives of millions, technology has overwhelmed its ability to provide programming for the hundreds of ours available each week. Today the medium of television is available to advertisers in two principal forms: broadcast and cable TV. Broadcast TV reaches its audiences by transmitting electromagnetic wave through the air across some geographic territory. Cable TV reaches its audiences through wires which may be strung from telephone poles or laid underground. As Hartley states, beyond the forms there's also a 'class division' for

consumers, as some go for digital decoding, wide-screen formats or high-definition screens etc.(1999). Today, digitalization means not only more television channels for viewers to choose from but also greater permission for interactivity. This gives more power to consumer what to watch, when to watch and how to watch.

7.1. TV Hold Values (USA – Turkey comparison)

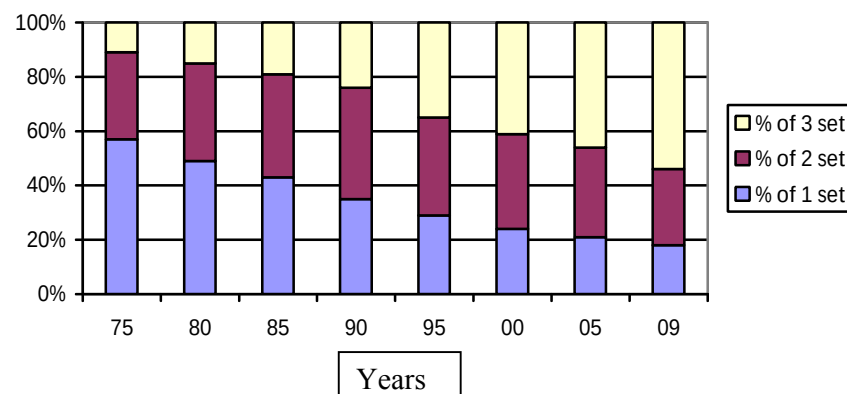
As it indicates the viewing amount TV hold values via set amounts are important to a starting point.

USA

As television broadcasting in the USA began on May 2 1941, (Murray, 1998) few inventions have had as much effect on contemporary American society as it. Before 1947, the number of USA homes with television sets could be measured in the thousands. By the late 1990s, 98 percent of USA homes had at least one television set. As television became a fixture in increasing numbers of homes, the industry realized the market would soon be saturated. The net effect was the development of multi television-set households. According to Steiner in this situation “the set first purchased or the smaller set or the set less attractive for other reasons often became the children’s unit and under some circumstances the children’s babysitter” (as cited in Andreasen, 1994:27).

- In 1950, only 10% of the households in the United States had a television set; by 1980 it rose to 98% and it has not declined since (Gentile & Walsh, 2002).

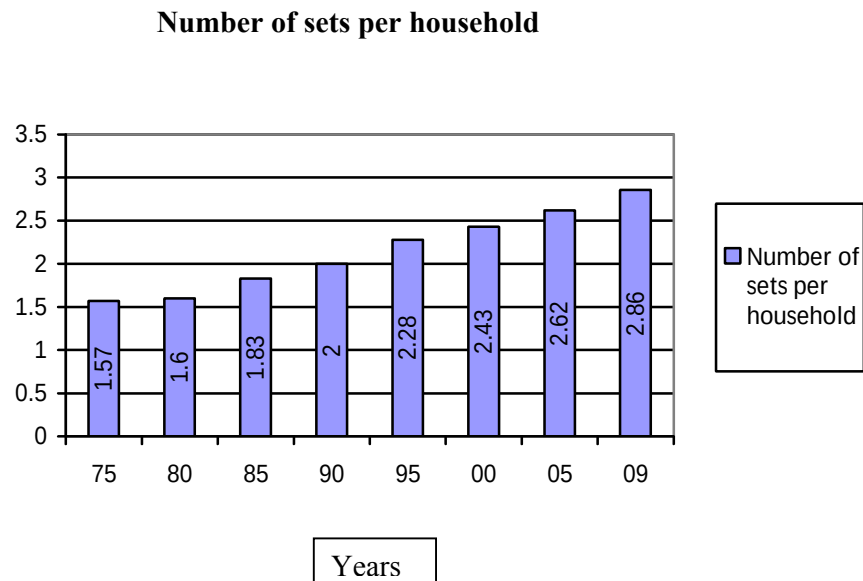
Graph 7.1: Percentage of set numbers in USA, for years (1975-2009)
Source: The Nielsen Company.



More sets than people at homes

- Nielsen's research indicates that, USA homes has more TV sets in it than people. According to the research firm, in **2009** the average USA household had just 2.5 people but had 2.86 TV sets. This represents a 86 percent increase since 1990, when the average American home had only 2.0 TV sets.
- Another key, stats from Nielsen's Television Audience Report **2009**: 82% of homes have more than 1 television set.
- According to Nielsen's latest Television Audience Report **2010**, the average American home *now* has 2.93 TV sets per household, up from 2.86 sets per home in 2009. This is the largest year-over-year increase since 2006.

Graph 7.2: Number of sets per household in USA, for years (1975-2009)
Source: The Nielsen Company.

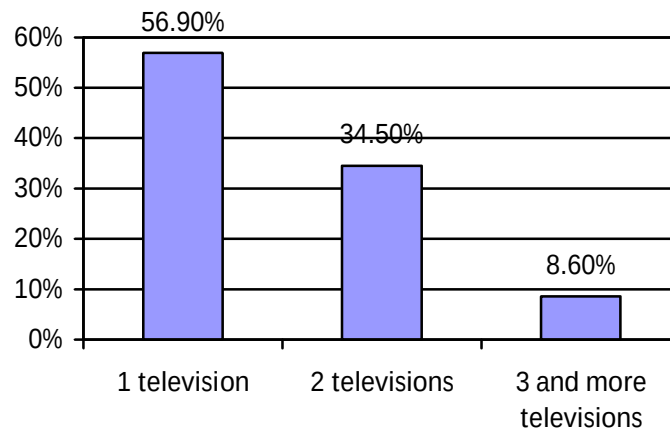


TURKEY

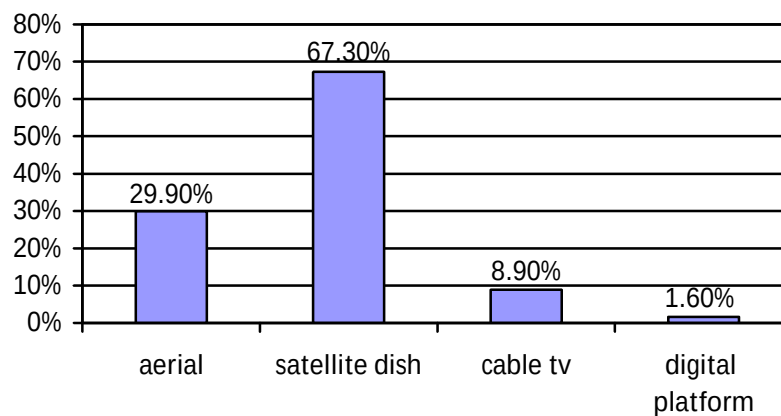
Turkish people had to wait for 32 years to receive the first domestic television transmission signal. It was 1968 when the newly established (May 1, 1964; law #359) Turkish Radio and Television Corporation (TRT) started to broadcast from a small studio located in the capital, Ankara.

According to Turkish Radio and Television Corporation (TRT) evaluations in **2010**, 56.9% of the households in Turkey had at least one television set, 34.5% of the households in Turkey had two television sets and 8.6% of the households in Turkey had three or more television sets.

Graph 7.3: Percentage of set numbers in Turkey for year 2010.
Source: Radio and Television Supreme Council of Turkey.



Graph 7.4: Percentage of connection types in Turkey for year 2010.
Source: Radio and Television Supreme Council of Turkey.



Please note that the total ratio is more than 100 as some of the homes were indicated more than one connection type.

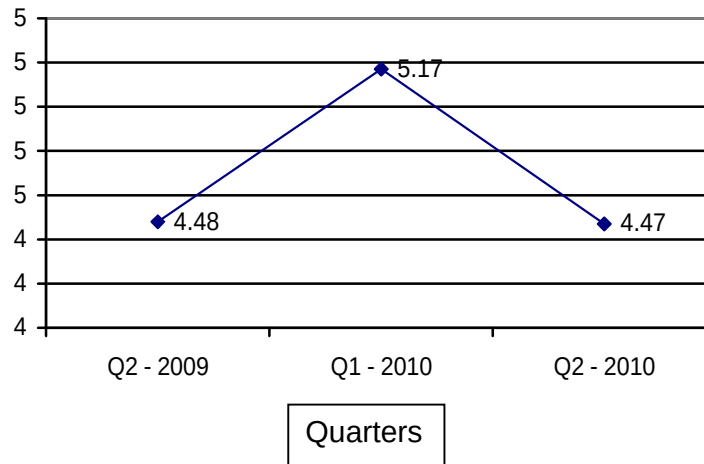
7.2. Family TV Viewing Values (USA – Turkey comparison)

Why viewing values (audience measuring) are important for television channels and advertisers? The advertising industry has long valued a knowledge of family consumption behavior, and broadcasters have arranged versions of a family viewing policy over many years (Paterson,1995). For commercial television stations this is linked to a need, to be able to provide particular audiences with very specific profiles to advertisers. The ways in which broadcasters fantasize of their audiences also link with wider issues and concerns, such as gender, race and class. The conception of audiences by broadcasters can be identified through their scheduling strategies clearly assists advertisers terms of where they place their promotional material in order to reach their target audience or market (Taylor & Willis, 1999). As such needs require, television audiences are measured in two main ways: using diaries, and using meters.

USA

Graph 7.5: Average viewing hours (hour: minutes/day), (age 2+) in USA for years (Q2 2009 - Q1 2010 – Q2 2010).

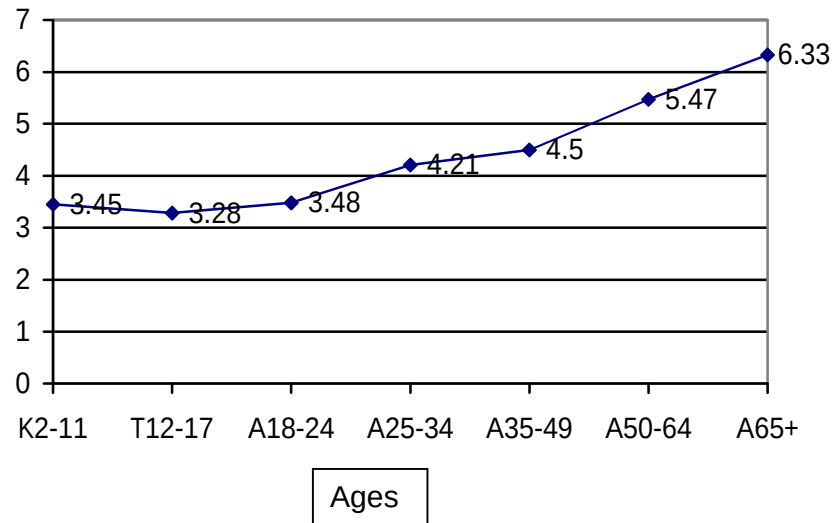
Source:http://blog.nielsen.com/nielsenwire/media_entertainment/state-of-the-media-tv-usage-trends-q2-2010/



Please note that in USA, audience measurements are divided into two quarters. Quarter one (Q1) indicates the viewing at winter season, Quarter two (Q2) indicates the viewing in summer season. As the graph indicates, in summer seasons (Q2-2009 and Q2-2010) viewing frequencies are relatively low than winter season(Q1-2010).

Graph 7.6: Average viewing hours (hour: minutes / day), (age 2+) in USA for year (Q2 - 2010), by age demographic.

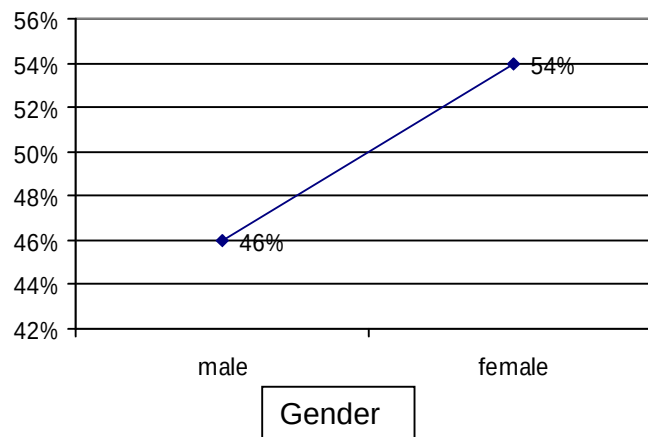
Source:http://blog.nielsen.com/nielsenwire/media_entertainment/state-of-the-media-tv-usage-trends-q2-2010/



Please note that in USA, the lowest overall viewing is done by teens (T12-17), as viewing increases with each older age break.

Graph 7.7: Percentages of viewing according to gender (hours : minutes / day), (age 2+) in USA, for years (Q2 2010).

Source:http://blog.nielsen.com/nielsenwire/media_entertainment/state-of-the-media-tv-usage-trends-q2-2010/



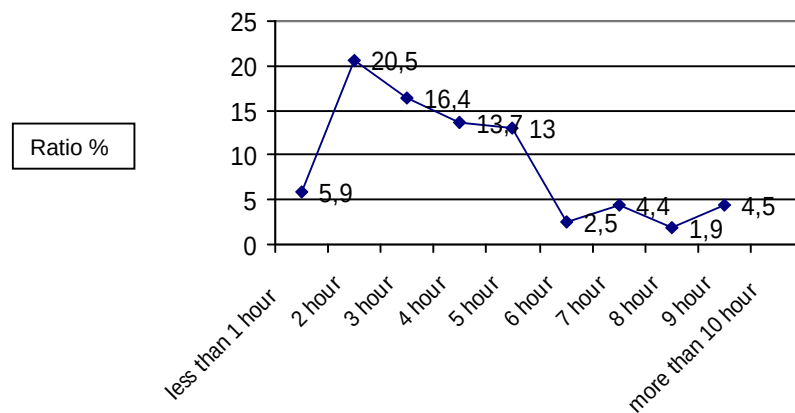
Please note that in USA, ratio of female's TV viewing is 54 relatively more than males with 46.

TURKEY

According to Turkish Radio and Television Corporation (TRT) evaluations in 2001, 97% of the households, evaluations in 2005, 97.6% of the households viewing television around Turkey (TRT, 2001& TRT, 2005).

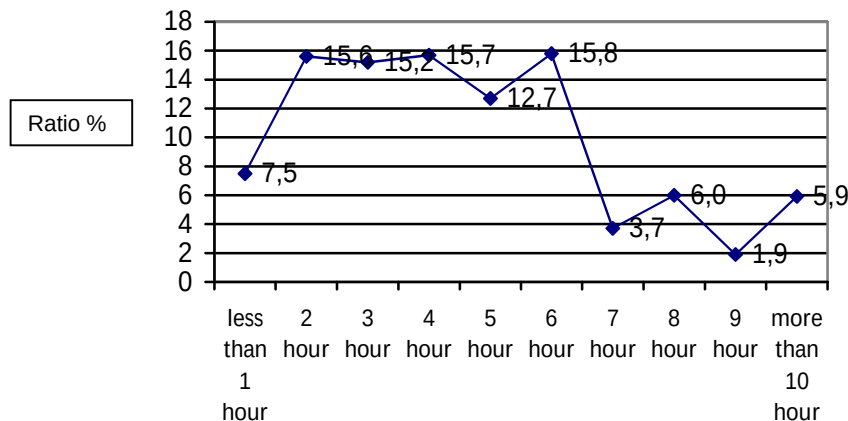
Graph 7.8: Average weekdays viewing hours (hours : minutes / day), (age 6+) in Turkey for year (2009), by ratio.

Source: Radio and Television Supreme Council of Turkey, Television Tracking Movements Search at February 2009.



Graph 7.9: Average weekends viewing hours (hours : minutes / day), (age 6+) in Turkey for year (2009), by ratio.

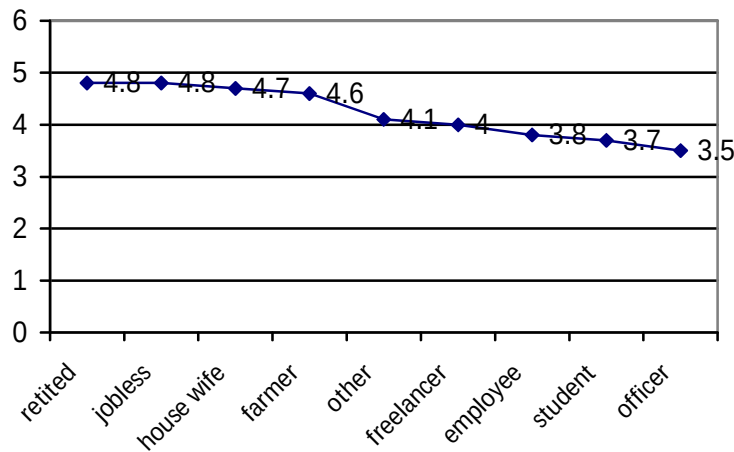
Source: Radio and Television Supreme Council of Turkey, Television Tracking Movements Search at February 2009.



Please note that in Turkey, weekends are heavy viewing days if it is compared with weekdays.

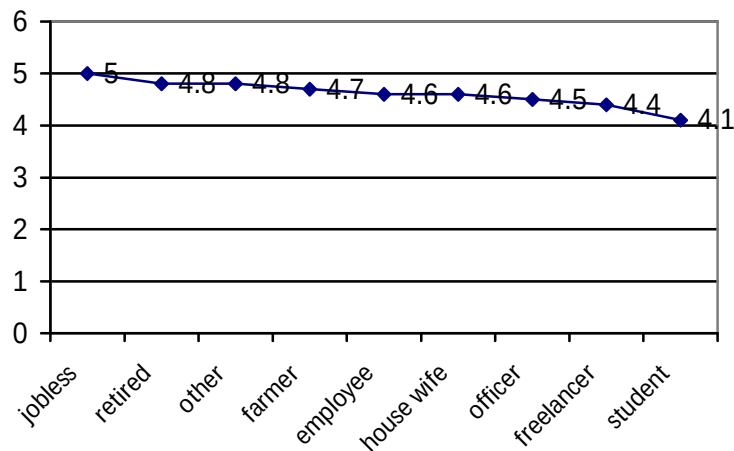
Graph 7.10: Average weekdays viewing hours (hour: minutes / day), (age 6+) in Turkey for year (2009), by occupation demographic.

Source: Radio and Television Supreme Council of Turkey, Television Tracking Movements Search at February 2009



Graph 7.11: Average weekends viewing hours (hour: minutes / day), (age 6+) in Turkey for year (2009), by occupation demographic.

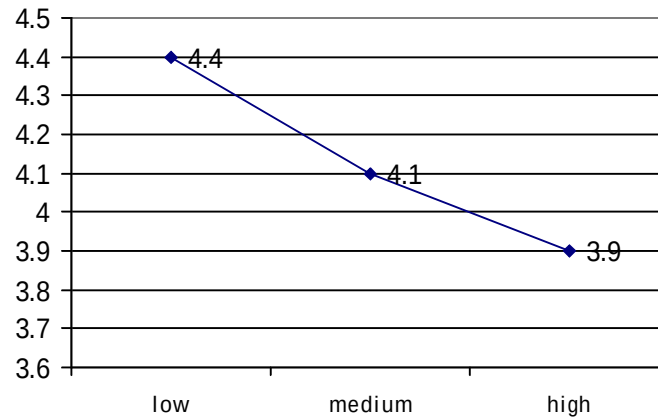
Source: Radio and Television Supreme Council of Turkey, Television Tracking Movements Search at February 2009.



Please note that in Turkey, hours of housewife's TV viewing decreases only at weekends (weekdays 4.7 hours and weekends 4.6 hours) while the other all occupation's viewing hours increases relatively.

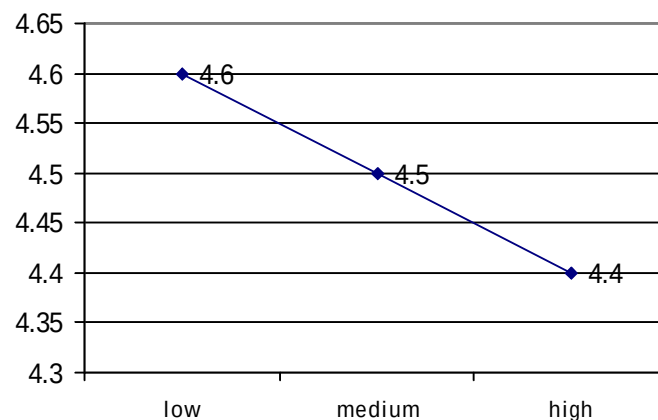
Graph 7.12: Average weekdays viewing hours (hour: minutes / day), (age 6+) in Turkey for year (2009), by education demographic.

Source: Radio and Television Supreme Council of Turkey, Television Tracking Movements Search at February 2009.



Graph 7.13: Average weekends viewing hours (hour: minutes / day), (age 6+) in Turkey for year (2009), by education demographic.

Source: Radio and Television Supreme Council of Turkey, Television Tracking Movements Search at February 2009.



Low educated = no literacy and primary school educated.

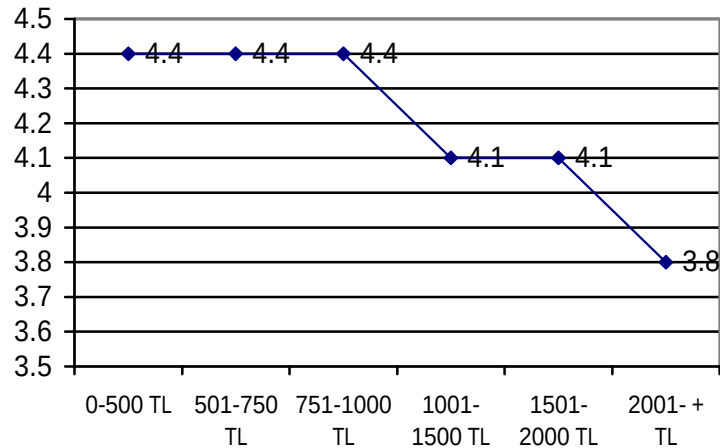
Medium educated = secondary school and high school graduated.

High educated = university graduated and post graduate educated.

Please note that, in relation to the education demographic graph 7.13, an assumption can be done that who have low education levels feels closer to the masses (high in viewing hours), who have high education levels have a greater sense of self-worth and low in viewing hours.

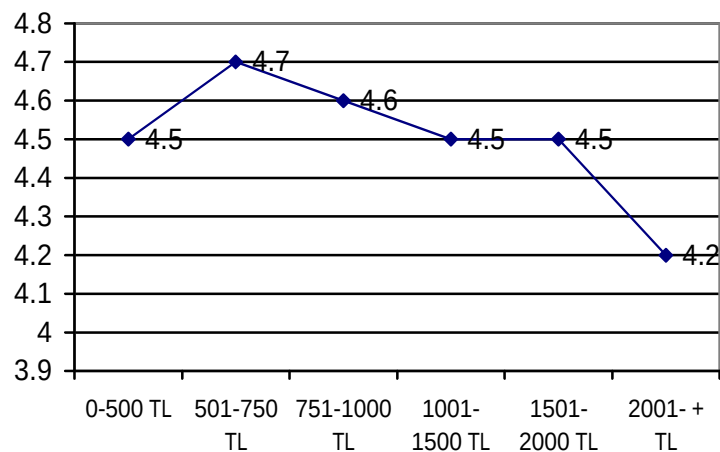
Graph 7.14: Average weekdays viewing hours (hour: minutes / day), (age 6+) in Turkey for year (2009), by income demographic.

Source: Radio and Television Supreme Council of Turkey, Television Tracking Movements Search at February 2009.



Graph 7.15: Average weekends viewing hours (hour: minutes / day), (age 6+) in Turkey for year (2009), by income demographic.

Source: Radio and Television Supreme Council of Turkey, Television Tracking Movements Search at February 2009.



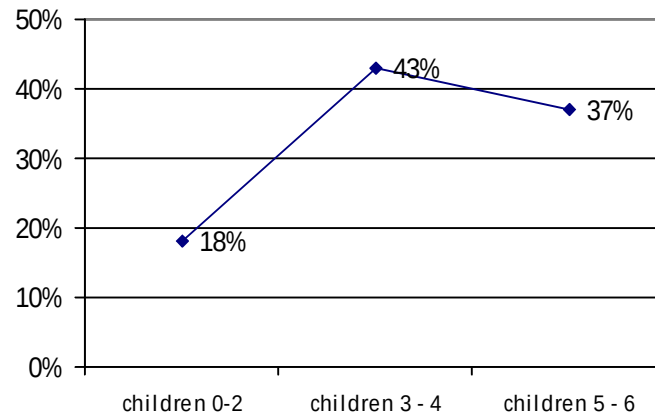
Please note that, as the income level increases, viewing hours decreases relatively.

7.3. Children's TV Viewing Values

7.3.1. Children's viewing in relation to age

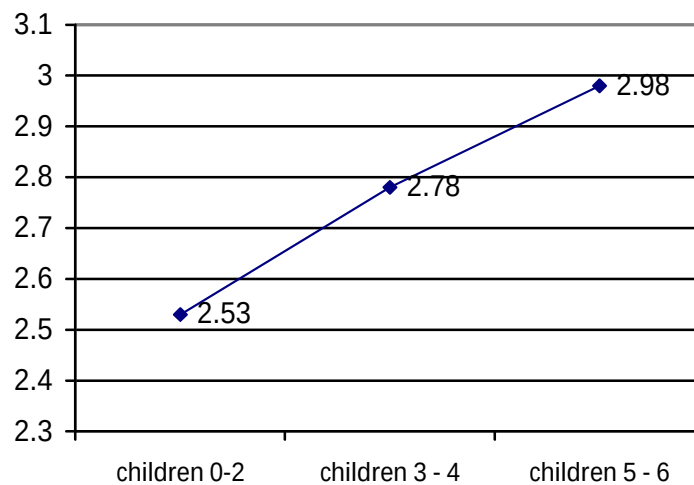
- American children between 2 and 17 years of age watch an average of 3.5 hours of television each day, with one in five watching for more than 5 hours (Gentile & Walsh, 2002).
- Hager (2006) suggests that 5–7-year-old children are watching television, and playing video and computer games between 2.5 and 4.5 hours/day, respectively. An extrapolation of this data would indicate that children spend more than three years of their waking lives watching television and playing video/computer games by age 17. If children spend more than three hours daily watching television, this means that when calculated over one year, it is the single most time-consuming activity for them, second only to sleeping.
- The daily estimated hours of television watched by a typical child is almost double the suggested guidelines by American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP). AAP recommends 2 hours or less of quality programming in a given day for children of age two and above, and for children under age two it suggests that television be avoided altogether (Munasib & Bhattacharya, 2010).
- The location of a TV within the child's bedroom is a physical environmental factor associated with increased TV watching (Gorely et al., 2004). Some 75% of young children (age 0-6) watch television each day, often in their own bedrooms, according to AAP researches (2007). Fairly large proportions of very young children in USA had televisions in their bedrooms. This was true of almost one fifth (18%) of the 0-2-year-olds and more than one third of 3-4-year-olds (43%) and 5-6-year-olds (37%).

Graph 7.16: Percentage of preschooler's having own bedroom sets, in USA, published by AAP (2007). Source:<http://www.marketingcharts.com/television/study-even-the-youngest-children-besieged-by-tv->



Graph 7.17: Average number of working television (hour: minutes/day) at preschooler's household, in USA, published by AAP (2007).

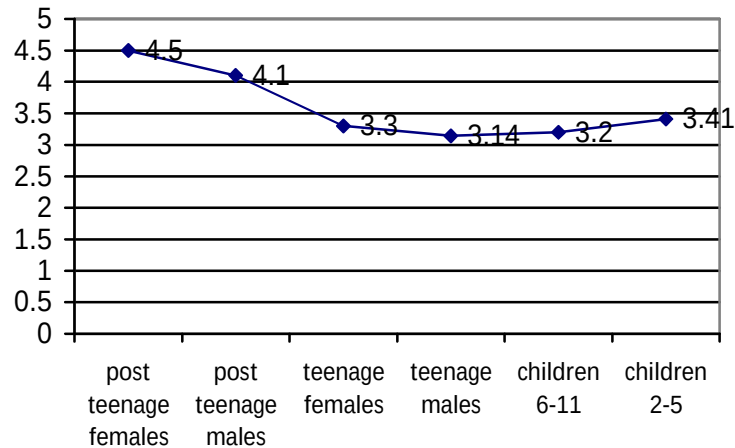
Source:<http://www.marketingcharts.com/television/study-even-the-youngest-children-besieged-by-tv->



Please note that, among the households with a television set present, the average number of working television was 2.53 hours, 2.78 hours, and 2.98 hours per day for the three age groups.

Graph 7.18: Average viewing hours (hour: minutes/day), among children (age 2+), in USA, published November 1988.

Source : Nielsen Media Research, November 1988 (as cited in Bryant & Rockwell, 1994:184).



According to Anderson et.al. (1981) among children, attention to the screen increases up to 10 years of age and then declines; it rises as comprehension grows and then falls as attention becomes less necessary to understand what is taking place (as cited in Comstock, 1998).

7.3.2. Children's viewing in relation to household culture

- Medrich's point is that, in relation to concerns about children's viewing, the world of parentally controlled TV exists primarily in middle class and upper middle class families, whereas in families with lower income levels and crucially where the mother has a lower level of education (which category Medrich claims to represent over one-third of American inner-city families) the set is always on and provides a constant backdrop to home life as a form of 'background noise' whether anyone is watching or not to almost all family activity (as cited in Morley, 2002).

- Medrich adds that, the poor and the less well educated – those with fewer material and cultural resources and those who often live with less privacy in crowded homes represent the majority of constant TV households. Television is an especially powerful force in these circumstances, for the children in these households have generally limited

out-of-school opportunities or fewer perceived time-use alternatives in the home (as cited in Morley, 2002).

- A child's intention may also explain the unexpected correlation between high home chaos and high levels of attention to the television e.g. children in homes with high amounts of chaos may choose to “tune out” of the disorder of the home environment and “tune in” to the television (Brown et.al. 2010).
- Of concern, a recent cross sectional time-use study of more than 1700 children aged 0—12 years in the USA found that the time children spent watching TV with or without parents or siblings was inversely associated with time spent interacting with parents or siblings in other activities (Salmon et.al., 2006).

7.3.3. Children’s viewing in relation to gender differences

Television programs that children like, may vary with specific characteristics of a child, such as age or gender.

- For instance, programs that are age-appropriate—that are just about at the target age or slightly older than the viewer—seem to be better liked (Acuff, 1997).
- Similarly, boys show a strong preference for television programs that feature male casts and male interests e.g. programs that feature action–adventure plots (Huston, Wright, Rice, Kerkman, & St. Peters, 1990).
- Girls, unlike boys, strongly prefer programs that feature social and emotional themes (Calvert et al., 2002).
- While educational television programs often appear to be gender neutral (Jordan et al., 2002), girls and younger children may find educational programs to be more appealing than boys and older children do.

- By contrast, boys prefer and hence may learn more information from, programs that are more strictly entertainment based, e.g. that are not designed to carry an educational message (Calvert & Kotler, 2003).

7.4. Nature of Viewing

As well as being built into the lives of individuals, television is integrated into the households in which they live – *“physically as a point of focus in the arrangement of one or more rooms but more importantly socially as a locus of attention and social interaction”* (Gauntlett and Hill, 1999:35).

According to Alexander, television may serve an almost limitless range of diverse uses and functions. Family members can watch television to be together or to get away from each other, as a basis for talk or to avoid talk, television can be source of conflict or an escape from conflict and so on (1994). These approaches assume that television is used by its viewers to satisfy their psychological needs in a more or less conscious way.

Five basic needs to be fulfilled by the mass media.

Cognitive needs; The acquiring of information, knowledge and understanding.

Affective needs; The need for emotional and aesthetic experience, love and friendship, the desire to see beautiful things. **Personal integrative needs;** The need for self-confidence, stability, status, reassurance. **Social integrative needs;** The need for strengthening contacts with family, friends and others. **Tension-release needs;** The need for escape and diversion (Katz et.al. as cited in Fiske & Hartley, 1994; 2003).

7.4.1. Nature of children’s viewing

There is an emerging psychological evidence that, motivations and temporary moods can and do influence the way people use the mass media. According to Gunter and McAleer children are no different (1997). In the context of television viewing their individual personalities and current moods can effect how and why they watch television.

- Viewing as habit or time filler
- Viewing to learn
- Viewing for companionship
- Television as babysitter
- TV people as companions
- Viewing as a source of conversation
- Viewing for escape
- Viewing as arousal
- Overcoming boredom
- Improving on bad moods
- Reassurance and comfort from TV

Briefly, all the satisfactions above come from, having a superlative means of entertainment, in one's living room and the first direct experience with television's satisfactions typically comes at age of two. Kid watches a program someone else is tuned in. But soon he begins to explore the world of television and develops tastes and preferences of his own. By the time they are three years old, they already are committed to favorite programs. A little later, they astonish their parents by being on time for a favorite program. Television keeps them from being bored. Why this generation has such a capacity for being bored is not entirely evident. When children talk about this aspect of television, they leave no doubt that entertainment reason is the chief reason or at least the chief conscious reason, why they watch television. But there is nevertheless, a significant component of information which children also get, without seeking, from television. This represents the second great class of reason for viewing. Most children will acknowledge that they learn something from television. (Schramm, Lyle & Parker, 1989)

According to Bignell, watching television and talking about television programs also play a significant role in the process by which children learn to understand themselves, other people and society (2004). They set up idols and find leaders to imitate on television. For an example, children of a earlier generation believed in Tarzan and pretend to swing through trees and scream like Tarzan, today's children make believe Sponge Bob (Nickelodeon's most viewing cartoon character) and gallop over the imaginary range.

7.4.2 Nature of children's viewing in Turkey

Turkish Statistical Institute's family viewing amount (%69.2) indicates that watching TV together is a social activity and brought people together, in Turkey (2006). The whole family watched the same program on the same TV set, and when people went to work the next day they could be fairly sure that most other people had also seen the same program.

Besides the productions of foreign origin, domestic productions on television also hold an important place. Especially in recent years news, competitions, discussions, panel discussion programs and Turkish serials attract great interest in Turkey.

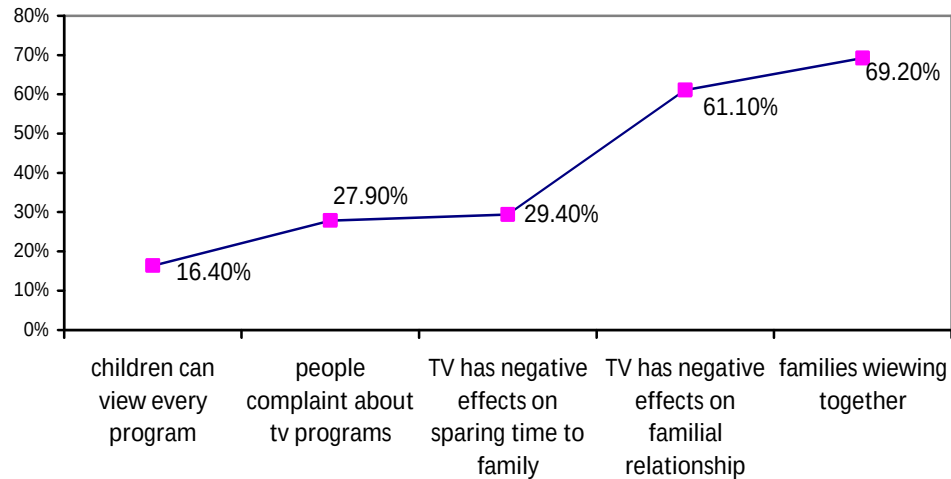
Although social television indicates a very high value (%69.2) in Turkey, television's negative effects on familial relationships points a very high value (%61.1) indeed. Values showing that contemporary parents work a lot, but when they come back at their homes they are not eager to spend time with their child. Instead of playing together and having emotional talks, kids are given to themselves. Family members seemingly do not have to apply any efforts to talk or listen to complaints while "communicating" with TV. As a contrast, negative effects on sparing time to family is relatively low in Turkey (%29.4).

People complaining about TV programs are relatively (%27.9) high valued. TV channels are not totally free to broadcast the programs completely bound to the viewers desires. Same as in many other countries, a Audio-visual broadcasting in Turkey, is regulated by the laws; Establishment and Broad- casting of Radio Stations and Television Channels Law No:3984 (for private channels) and TRT Law No:2954. These laws has certain restrictions on the subject of providing a balanced distribution in broadcasts. E.g. television channels have to include education and culture programs in certain proportions in their broadcasts.

Children can view every program value is noteworthy (%16.4). According to the value we can assume that parents are monitoring the content of TV programming. But this does not indicates as they are setting or not setting viewing limits to ensure that kids don't spend too much time on watching TV.

Graph 7.19: Percentage of familial conceptions about nature of television viewing, in Turkey, published at 2006.

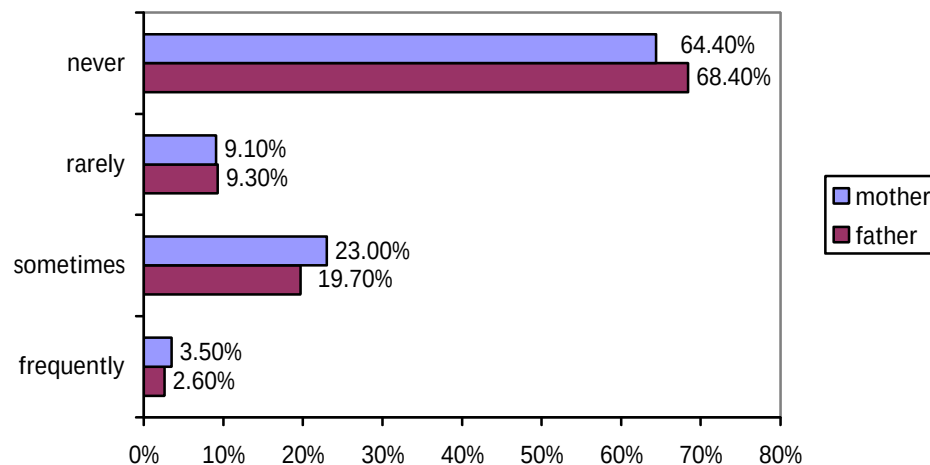
Source:, Turkish Statistical Institute, Family structure research, 2006.



Percentage of families who block viewing television as a means of punishment, for their kids

Graph 7.20: Percentage of families using television as a means of punishment, in Turkey, published at 2006.

Source:, Turkish Statistical Institute, Family structure research, 2006.



Please note that, sample group families' children are aged 3 to 17 years and values estimate only the past last one year.

7.5. Effects of Children's Viewing

7.5.1. Negative effects of children's viewing

Almost all children born in the United States till 90's live in a home with at least one television set from day 1 onward (Huston & Zillman, 1994). But anxieties about this situation and its undesirable side effects tend to be founded on ill-formed assumptions about the nature of children's television watching. We are told for instance that, children watch too much television and stay up late to watch programs that are unsuitable for them. Another common belief is that children increasingly are exposed to heavy diets of violence-laden programming. The worst is the research literatures showing that parents are frequently unaware of their children's fright reactions (Cantor,1994).

Fraiberg points that, for today's child, because of this situation a home is no longer a shelter against the dangers outside. A child is a fascinated spectator of the whole of adult's dangerous world. *"The worst fears of a child can be confirmed in reality, the child loses his own best means of dealing with external danger... None of us can imagine what is like to be a child today, to be helpless against the most extreme dangers and to be confronted in his own living room with the full knowledge of the real dangers, that exist in our world"* (as cited in Derdeyn & Turley, 1994:131-132).

As kids get older, also too much screen time can interfere with activities such as being physically active, reading, doing homework, playing with friends, and spending time with family. According to Huston and Wright this argument implies that it is not just the content of television, but something about the medium itself that may induce laziness, passivity, hyperactivity or many other ills (1994).

On the other hand, television in moderation can be a good thing. Preschoolers can get help learning the alphabet on television, grade schoolers can learn about wildlife on nature shows and parents can keep up with current events on the evening news. No doubt about it, TV can be an excellent educator and entertainer. As Allen states even can be the best friend of a missing child's family (1994).But despite its advantages, too much television can be detrimental.

- Violence or aggression

Kids who view violent acts are more likely to show aggressive behavior but also fear that the world is scary and that something bad will happen to them. Young kids are particularly frightened by scary and violent images. Simply telling kids that those images aren't real won't console them, because they can't yet distinguish between fantasy and reality. Behavior problems, nightmares and difficulty sleeping may be a consequence of exposure to media violence. Bushman and Huesmann report that, the amount of violent content televised in dramatic and comedic programming is far greater than the amount of violence occurring in real life. Based on viewing patterns and television content, Huston et al report that, children will view more than 8,000 murders and 100,000 total act of violence by the time day head off to their first day in junior high school (as cited in Kirsh, 2006). The general conclusion of most reviewers that observation of violence is often followed by increases in both physical and verbal aggression (Geen, 1994). Bandura, Ross & Ross's previous randomized experiments conducted in a laboratory had shown that, children's aggression toward inanimate objects when playing alone increased following exposure to televised aggression (1998).

- Risky Behaviors

TV programs and commercials also represent risky behaviors such as drinking alcohol, using drugs, smoking cigarettes and having premarital sex. Studies have shown that teens who watch lots of sexual content on TV are more likely to initiate intercourse or participate in other sexual activities earlier than peers who don't watch sexually explicit shows. Sex acts even daytime soaps are more frequent per program hour than, during preferred prime-time series (Greenberg, 1994). Although there are few data showing that drug advertising or drug content has a direct, cause-and-effect on adolescents drug use but two legal drugs, tobacco and alcohol pose a far greater danger to children and teenagers.

- Obesity

Excessive TV-watching to obesity is a significant health problem today. While watching TV, kids are inactive and tend to snack. They're also bombarded with ads that encourage them to eat unhealthy foods such as potato chips and empty-calorie soft drinks that often become preferred snack foods. According to estimates, from the Centers for Disease

Control and Prevention, 10% of 2- to 5-year-old children and 15% of 6- to 19-year-old youths in the United States have weights above gender- and age-specific 95th percentile values. The association between levels of television viewing and risk of overweight and obesity is well established (Connor, 2006).

- Replace reading

TV can discourage and replace reading. Reading requires much more thinking than television, and we know that reading fosters young people's healthy brain development. Kids from families that have the TV on a lot, spend less time reading and being read to, and are less likely to be able to read. Also, television appears to have a more negative effect on the achievement of socially advantaged students than on disadvantaged ones, presumably, because it displaces other, more beneficial alternatives (Evra, 2004).

- Lack of language skills

Language skills are best developed through reading and interactions with others in conversation and play. Children learn language when adults or others interact with them, returning their expressions and responding to noises and questions. Excessive television watching can impede this development (Gunter & McAleer, 1997).

- Leading to depression

Many advertisements and programs shown on television focus on beauty products and physical beauty, shifting kids' interest from studies. They start paying more attention to their overall outlook. In extreme cases, they develop inferiority or superiority complex; leading to depression and underestimating themselves (Evra, 2004).

- Poor academic performance

Devoting more time towards watching television leads to poor academic performance, as a child neglects his/ her studies. In an experimental study by Pool et. al. (2000) to investigate the impact of different types of background television programs on homework performance, Grade 8 students were matched for reading ability and then randomly assigned to three TV conditions including a soap opera, music videos and no TV at the

background. Homework performance was impeded only when it was done with the soap opera as background (as cited in Evra, 2004).

- **Stereotyping**

Also, TV viewing creates the concept of gender-role and racial stereotypes in children, as they start considering it as very natural affair. Heroic acts are expected out of males, while women are displayed as objects and less powerful. According to Graves (1999), minority group members have generally been negatively stereotyped on television for years (as cited in Persson and Musher-Eizenman, 2003). This suggests that even preschool children have been absorbing pro-prejudice information for several years. Potentially, these negative characterizations could influence the world views and attitudes of viewers over time. The behavioral link of television viewing for children in the 11-to-15 year old age group have generally reported associations of gender stereotyping and potentially create a risky behavioral orientations with heavy television viewing (Singer & Singer, 1994).

- **Promotes passivity / lack of creativity**

Studies investigating the influences on children's physical activity states that in many developed countries, children are less active than previous generations (Arundell, Salmon & Hume, 2010). For researchers, this is essentially the "couch potato" hypothesis, whereby time spent with television and video games is thought to be negatively related to time spent in more energy expending activities (Vandewater, Shim &Caplowitz, 2004). Also television watching promotes lack of creativity and child shies away from mental and physical workout.

7.5.2. Negative effects on preschooler's perceived reality

During the years about 3 to12, children gradually acquire an understanding of the distinctions between real and fictional content. By the middle childhood time at least two dimensions appear to be discriminated in children's judgments of reality; factuality and social realism.

1. Factuality--Is the content represents events in the world outside the television, or is it fictional?
 2. Social Realism--Are the people, places, and character actions believable or representative of the real world, even if they are fictional?
- (Dog,1983;Potter,1988, as cited in Huston et al.1997)

Children's understanding of television reality described on age demographics:

- Some of the first steps in understanding factuality occur by about age 4 as children learn to distinguish the images on television from the objects they represent (Flavell et.al.1990 as cited in Huston et al. 1997).
- By age 5 or 6, children begin to learn about different genres, some of them start to know that cartoons are not real. They understand at least partially that news is real. A little later, they understand that situation comedies are not real, but many are still uncertain about soap operas (Condry et.al. 1988 as cited in Huston et al. 1997).
- By the age of 7, children recognize cues for live broadcasts of real events (e.g. print on screen, long shots) versus fictional content (e.g. flashback, dream sequences) (Gunter & McAleer, 1997). Factuality here is discriminated primarily on the basis of format and form cues.
- Telling children a program is "not real" is somewhat effective in reducing fear, but only after about age 8 (Cantor et.al.1984, as cited in Huston et al. 1997).
- By age 10 or so, most children make judgments about fact and fiction that are similar to those of adults (Hawkins et.al. 1977, as cited in Huston et al. 1997).

By the late childhood, children become more concerned about whether or not the content is socially realistic or whether it is fact or fiction and acquire more "real world" knowledge from factual than from fictional programs. According to Gunter & McAleer, perceived social realism does not decline with age, but varies with the content of the program (1997).

7.5.3. Positive effects of children's viewing

Television viewing is a vehicle for providing information and entertainment as well as the degree to which young children engage in active cognitive traffic. Between this medium and their viewing environment, there are important implications for how it functions as a teacher and how young children learn from it. According to Berry it is also true that television has been effecting in teaching values, social roles and behaviors to children. Thus, television has taken its place along with the family, school, religious institutions etc. as one of the agents of socialization in modern society (1998).

- Television gives exposure to children on different cultural experiences.
- Television keeps children aware of current events and news related items.
- Watching educational programs on television help the kids use it effectively, as a complement to school education.
- Quality shows on television can impart knowledge and important values and lessons.
- Watching music concerts and art shows can make the kids aware of the various genres of music around the world.
- Television helps a child in spending time with family members, when all of them are watching the same show.
- Watching documentaries, especially fragmented for children, open the doors of world in their mind (Gunter & McAleer, 1997).

There is also a fairly large body of evidence demonstrating that, educational programming emphasizing language skills can have valuable and long-lasting effects on children's early reading and later academic success. A recent report (Wright et al., 2001) found that children who watched educational programming between the ages of (2) and (3) scored higher at age (3) on tests of vocabulary, letter and word recognition, and school readiness. There is even evidence that these positive effects can persist through high school.

For an example, watching Sesame Street during the preschool period predicted by the researchers that it brings in the ability to read storybooks alone, and was negatively related

to receiving help for reading problems in school during first and second grade. Moreover, Anderson et al. (2001) found that educational television viewing (especially Sesame Street) in preschooler was related to higher high school GPA among boys (as cited in Vandewater & Bickham, 2004). Taken together, these studies provide evidence that, the educational television experience can have positive, long-lasting academic effects on preschool children.

7.5.4. Positive effects on preschooler's education

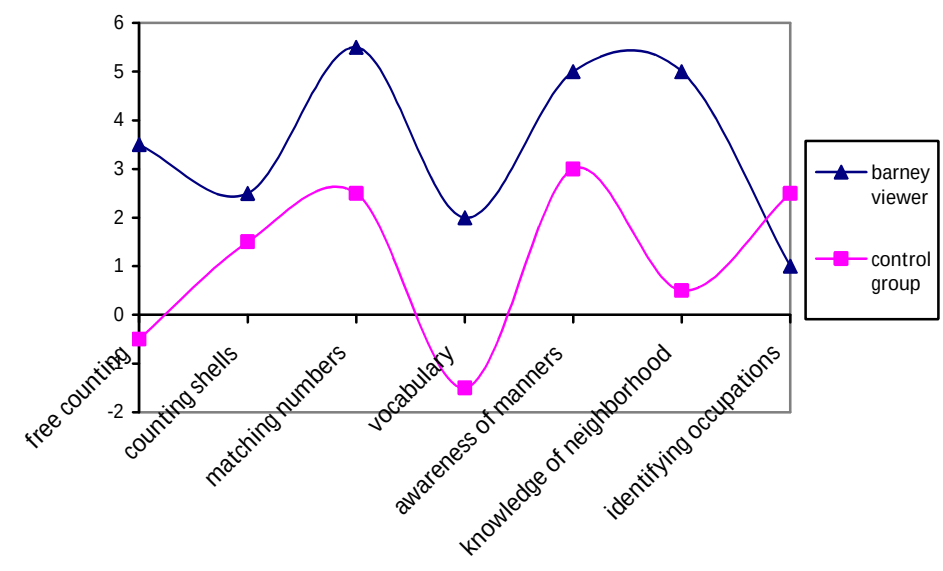
Examining the fact with Barney & Friends example;

In 1993, the Connecticut Public Broadcasting Station aired a new educational series aimed at preschool children called Barney & Friends. Within months after, the show spread to national Public Broadcasting System (PBS) exposure and it had moved to the leadership in terms of viewers of all children programming.

Also, the attraction of the show for the children between (2-7) years of age was reflected in a remarkable economic event. Incomes from licensed plush toys (Barney soft toys, Barney pillows, blankets, etc.) quickly put the company of the television series near the very top of the list for entertainment figures nationally. Indeed, Barney was listed as third in income for 1994 alongside personalities such as Oprah Winfrey and Michael Jackson.

At this point of view, the exposing effects of Barney & Friends on preschool children also caught the researchers. From the experimental results it was seen that children exposed to Barney & Friends group made strong gains compared with the control group on each of the measures which are some specific patterns of differences such as; free counting, counting shells, matching numbers, vocabulary, awareness of manners, knowledge of neighborhood and identifying occupations (Singer and Singer, 1998).

Graph 7.21: Number of gains among preschool children exposed to Barney&Friends and non exposed control group, published at 1998.
Source: Singer and Singer, 1998:335.



Television advertising and variables affecting children (preschooler's) consumption role.

8. DEFINING TELEVISION ADVERTISING

“Advertising is a paid, non personal communication from an identified sponsor, using mass media to persuade or influence an audience” (Wells, Burnett and Moriarty, 1992:8).

OR *“Ads are just a taste of paradise, they are utopian” (Davidson ,1994:143).*

Today definitions of advertising are numerous. Journalists for example might define it as a (communication), (public relation) or (persuasion) process, business people can see it as a (marketing process), economists and sociologists tend to focus on its economic, societal or ethical significance. And some consumers might define it simply as a (nuisance) as a result each of these perspectives has some merit.

8.1. Components of Advertising

Advertising is the structured and composed non personal communication of information, usually paid for and usually persuasive in nature, about products (goods, services and ideas) by identified sponsors through various media. If we analyze its components through the definition; advertising is (first) of all a type of communication. It is actually a very structured form of applied communication, employing both verbal or nonverbal elements that are composed to fill specific space and time formats determined by the sponsor. (Second) advertising is typically directed to groups of people rather than to individuals. It is than a non personal, mass communication. Most advertising is paid for by sponsors (Arens, 2002) .

8.2. Functions of Advertising

Classic theories of how advertising works are mainly of the single model kind that is explains by shortly AIDA. Which states that “Awareness is necessary before, end leads to Interest which is necessary before, and leads to Desire, and which is necessary before end

leads to Action.”(Clemmow, 1997:22). According to the roles of advertising Wells et. al. (2006) also states, the functions of advertising;

- Builds awareness of products and brands
- Creates a brand image
- Provides product and brand information
- Persuades people
- Provides incentives to take action
- Provides brand reminders
- Reinforces past purchases and brand experiences

8.3. Objectives of Advertisements

“Advertising communications are often regarded as a relatively indirect form of persuasion based on information or emotional appeals about product benefits designed to create favorable mental impressions that ‘turn the mind toward purchase’”(Rossiter & Percy, 1996, 1997:3). But more of it, literature indicates that, it is the creating of a brand and establishing loyalty, awareness, attitude and intention toward the brand created.

- **Brand**

One of the most important advertising objectives is to build a global brand and corporate image. According to Davidson, start work in an ad agency and the first thing they teach you is the difference between a product and a brand. This is because it is advertising’s job to change one thing into another. Brands are products with something extra. All brands are products, but not all products are brands and the difference is advertising (Barker, 1997).

- **Brand Loyalty**

The aim of brand loyalty is to develop lifetime customers for products. The goal is not just to get people to try a product also to get them to experience a relationship to a brand. In this situation, children are targeted at least three ways:

- Persuading them to spent their own money
- Influencing parental spending

-Creating a steady stream of new customers (Spence & Heekeren, 2005)

- Brand awareness

It is the buyers ability to identify (recognize or recall) the brand within the category in sufficient detail to make a purchase. Brand awareness (either brand recognition or brand recall) must be regarded as a universal communication objective—that is as a communication objective to all campaigns.

- Brand attitude

Buyers evaluation of the brand with respect to its perceived ability to meet a currently relevant motivation (this evaluation is based on brand benefit beliefs and the motivation related emotional weights of the benefits and of possible freestanding emotions).

8.4. Types of Advertising by Target Audience

Advertising is a complex process, as so many diverse advertisers try to reach so many different types of audiences.

- National advertising; the term national advertising has a special non geographic meaning in advertising. It refers to advertising by the owner of a trademarked product (brand) or service, sold through different distributors or stores wherever they may be.

- Retail (local) advertising; retail advertisements include a number of products in a single advertisement showing the range of merchandise available. To accomplish these dual tasks, retailers often include price information, service and return policies, location of their stores and hours of operation – that the national advertiser can not provide.

- End-product advertising; builds a consumer demand for an ingredient, that will help in the sale of a product.

- Direct-response advertising; any form of advertising done in direct marketing. Uses all types of media.

- Trade advertising; before consumers have an opportunity to purchase a product it must be available in retail stores. Manufacturers use trade advertising to promote their products to wholesalers and retailers.
- Industrial advertising; addressed to manufacturers who buy machinery equipment, raw materials and components needed to produce the goods they sell.
- Professional advertising; directed at those in professions such as medicine, law or architecture who are in a position to recommend the use of a particular product or service to their clients.
- Corporate (or Institutional) advertising; what an organization does, when it speaks of its work, views and problems as a whole in order to gain public goodwill and support rather than to sell a specific product. Sometimes called public-relations advertising.
- Idea advertising; advertisements used to promote an idea or cause.
- Service advertising; advertising that promotes a service rather than a product (Russell & Lane, 1996)

8.5. Effects on Values and Lifestyles

Because of its role as a persuasive vehicle it is argued that it has an impact on the values and lifestyles of society and that this impact has it is negative as well as positive side. Three issues that have attracted particular attention are:

- The relationship of advertising to materialism.
- The role that advertising has played in creating harmful stereotypes.
- The possible contribution of advertising, in promoting harmful products (Batra, Myers & Aaker, 1996)

8.6. Advertising Channels

According to Clow and Baack, the average person is exposed to more than 600 advertisements per day and people are bombarded with messages through an expanding variety of media (2002). Recently number of ways to contact customers has grown. These are;

- Media advertising
(TV, radio, newspaper, magazines and in many countries cinema).
- Direct response advertising
(usually in main media but sometimes via direct mail or interactive TV or PC).
- Outdoor advertising (billboards, posters).
- On-package or point-of-purchase (POP) advertising.

8.6.1. Television advertising

Simply, advertising on television usually means running a TV commercial, typically between 15 and 60 seconds in length. Under an official control, insertion of these advertisements could be at the beginning or end of a program but also in the natural breaks therein (Davis, 1985). Besides, television advertising has been a popular medium for large retailers ever since the TV first began to appear in living rooms. With the arrival of cable television came lowered production costs and the opportunity to reach smaller, more targeted markets, making it a viable option for small to medium-size businesses as well. As Fisher states, all aim here is to persuade consumers to recognize and prefer a particular product or brand (Ferguson, Hardy & Williams, 2003).

Though, user habits are rapidly changing, television advertising has long been considered the most effective mass-market advertising format. According to Barker, TV is primal to the production and reproduction of a promotional culture. Which will be focused on the use of visual imagery to create value added brands or commodity signs. Coca-cola culture summarizes the global reach of this promotional culture and highlights the alleged link between global capitalism, advertising and cultural homogenization (2003).

There are also alternatives for television marketing that don't include TV commercials. Your product or business can now appear, for a fee, within a television show, via **product placements and sponsorships**. These practices states us that, more opportunities to advertise as part of a television show are developing every day.

8.6.2. Advantages of TV advertising

It has often been said that television is the ideal advertising medium. It is ability to combine visual images, sound, motion and color presents the advertiser with the opportunity to develop the most creative and imaginative appeals of any medium.

- Mass coverage

The primary advantage of TV as an advertising medium is that, it reaches virtually everyone. In many respects, television is moving from a mass medium to a niche medium with characteristics common to radio and magazines.

- Creativity and impact

The interaction of sight and sound offers tremendous creative flexibility and makes possible dramatic lifelike representations of products and services. TV commercials can be used to convey a mood or image for a brand as well as to develop emotional or entertaining appeals that help make a dull product appear interesting.

- Coverage and cost effectiveness

Television makes it possible to reach large audiences. Nearly everyone regardless of age, sex, income or educational level watches at least some TV. Most people do so on a regular basis. Because of its ability to reach large audiences in a cost-efficient manner, TV is a popular medium among companies selling mass consumption products.

- Captivity and attention

Television is basically intrusive in that commercials, impose themselves on viewers as they watch their favorite programs. Unless we make a special effort to avoid commercials, most of us are exposed to thousands of them each year.

- Selectivity and flexibility

Selectivity is possible due to variations in the composition of audiences as a result of program content, broadcast time and geographic coverage e.g. Advertiser can select and serve directly to children with Saturday morning TV programs or can be flexible between a number of advertising formats, from the 15 second announcements to the 30 minute program-length commercials.

- Prestige

Because, the public considers TV is the most authoritative and influential medium, it also offers advertisers a prestigious image. From an advertising perspective, surveys indicate that, television has the most positive image of all media.

- Social Dominance

Most people under age 35, grew up with TV as a window to their social environment. Researchers showed that, most people think their most credible information comes from TV news. A study by Bruskin Associates indicates, the television as; most authoritative, most exciting and most influential if compared to other media (Russell & Lane, 1996; Arens, 2002; Belch & Belch, 1998).

8.6.3. Polysemy of TV advertising

Television advertising presents a speech on modern life, in a culture based on buying and selling. It tells us, what it means to be a consumer and suggests activities we should follow as consumers. Principally, it is telling us to buy commodities but often it does this so quiet and indirect manner.

All ads contain the fundamental meaning ‘buy this product !’ but they also suggest various other meanings, to us. These are socially defined meanings, values and illusions – these are the polysemy- that are commonly employed in the service of selling products.

Butler (2002) identifies, eight broad categories of such polysemy meanings, commonly employed in advertisements, with some specific examples;

- Luxury, leisure, conspicuous consumption

Luxury items by definition are ones that are not necessities, that one could do without and still survive. In addition to providing material comfort and utility, luxuries as cars, jewelry, clothing and electronics serve significant social functions to us. Such goods offer a way for the consumer to emulate members of an elevated social class e.g. Tommy Hilfiger jeans are no better at keeping one's legs warm than are generic pants, but they serve an important function. They allow the wearer to emulate members of a social group.

- The individualism

One longstanding conflict in USA ideology is, the rights of the individual versus those of the community. There is a social contract with the government and other citizens that holds that citizens will limit certain freedoms in exchange for a civil, well-ordered society. Advertising however, is not following these rules strictly. Many ads quietly override the social contract of individualist values- both good and bad. These individualist values are often based in the self: self-fulfillment, self-reliance, self-expression, self absorption, simple selfishness e.g. Nike's 'just do it' campaign suggests that, determination and self-expression will come to all who wear its clothing or shoes.

- The natural

Here, commodities associate with nature and aspects of the natural signs are; wholesomeness, healthfulness and purity. Medical products or food and beverage products often emphasize their natural ingredients and thereby suggest that, the products are wholesome, healthy and pure e.g. Pertussin cough syrup was first promoted in the 1960's as a 'safe natural way to relieve night cough'. Its ads resembled those of homeopathic medicine, claiming that it is 'made from nature's healing medicinal'. The ads didn't specify which medicinal, but they do stress that Pertussin does not contain 'codeine, antihistamines and nerve dulling drugs'.

- Folk culture and tradition

Closely follower of the naturalness is the folk culture. Advertising calls on folk culture to represent traditional principles such as trustworthiness, simplicity, authenticity and raw

patriotism e.g. earlier 1970's Chevrolet's television commercials sang the virtues of 'baseball, hot dogs, apple pie and Chevrolet'. In this instance, small town folk values are blended with patriotism. Baseball and hot dogs connote the positive values of team support while apple pie carries implications of motherly nurturing, down-home nutrition.

- Novelty and progress

The other side of advertising is, its continual reminding of the new. Longstanding marketing researches show that, consumers are caught to the packaging with the words 'new' and 'improved' written on it. But manufacturers and advertising agencies are not prepared to risk all-out newness e.g. 2001 model of the Dodge Caravan closely resembled other minivans but it then advertised with 'New, new, new !. Dodge Grand Caravan the best minivan ever' jingle . For reality, there is nothing that is literally 'all-new' or completely different in the world of merchandise. Anyway, if you changed everything in the design of a minivan it would no longer be a minivan. It'd be something completely new and different.

- Sexuality and romance

'Sex, sells', it has often been said in the advertising industry. There is two most obvious ways that sexual imaginary sells. First, meaning that the product will make its viewer more sexually appealing this appeal is evident in products such as perfumes and shampoos. Second, associating the product itself with sexuality and thereby stimulating a hormonal rush in order to draw the viewer's attention to it. This situation comes into play in ads for beer and cars, designed for heterosexual men that have attractive woman posing by the product e.g. one famous metaphoric sex example is a 1960's commercial, for Noxzema shaving cream. In tight close up, Gunilla Knutson, a former Miss Sweden, suggestively runs her lips across a string of pearls with her distinctly Swedish accent, she breathlessly intones 'Men, nothing takes it off like Noxzema Medicated Shave'. A brass band then, begins to blare 'the stripper' which accompanies close-up's of a man shaving his face. 'Take it off' Knutson commands 'Take it all off'.

- Alleviation of pain, fear, anxiety and guilt

Numerous commercials use a simple story; someone is in pain or feeling anxious and the ad's product alleviates that pain or anxiety. All medicinal ads are based on this premise including many hygiene (e.g. deodorants, mouth washes, feminine douches) and food products. Also guilt is often attached to issues of pain and suffering at the advertisements e.g. the viewer is really a loving mother and homemaker when, she uses Downey softener to make her towels soft or Pampers diaper to keep her baby dry.

- Utopia and escape from dystopia

In her consideration of children's advertising and consumer culture, Seiter argues that, like most popular entertainments, commercials are utopian in many respects-portraying a childhood world more exiting, energetic and cheerful than everyday life. Needless to say that, utopianism is not limited to children's commercials. Numerous commercials invite the adult viewer into utopia of experience, exhilaration of emotion and frequently unbridled hedonism (a total lack of responsibility). A dystopia is the exact opposite of utopia. It is a land where freedoms are restricted and life is depressive and colorless e.g. Simply McDonald's ad 'You deserve a break today' promotes consumers to escape from the dystopian home – soiled laundry, dirty bathrooms and unfed children and enter a world of culinary surplus and happy circus characters (Ronald McDonald). Although this list does not exhaust all of the meanings that commercials invoke it does contain the principal values that advertisers use to take in the consumers.

8.6.4. Persuasive style of TV advertising

Commercials rely on a fairly predictable polisemy to persuade consumers to buy products. We can see it in every television program which is interrupted by advertising with the message being communicated either implicitly or explicitly that owning something will improve the quality of one's life (Kubey, 1994). One clear persuasive strategy, is to built an argument with an advertisement that a particular product is associative with some positive meanings and images or eliminates the other negative ones. Some commercials so carefully hide their persuasion that viewers are left wondering just what was being

advertised. According to Butler (2002) the majority of TV commercials rely on one or more of these persuasive arts;

- Metaphor

The most common way that advertisers assert the desirability of their products is to associate them with activities, objects or people that are themselves desirable. Essentially, such association constructs a metaphor to a product and the desirable activity to a object or a person e.g. Gatorade's suggestion is to 'be like Mike' by drinking its beverages. Viewers are told that they can become similar to someone else (here Michael Jordan), who is a famous basketball player in USA, by consuming a Gatorade product.

- Utopian style

Commercials promise admission to utopia through the purchase of commodities e.g. soda commercials offer particularly clear examples of utopianism style. Consider a Coca-Cola spot from 2000 which presents a rave party in the woods. A mass of people turn round cheerfully near a fire with the music of Basement Jaxx's 'Red Alert'. The only words in the ad appears on the bottom of Coke cans. In total, they are 'Bliss...comes from...within. Enjoy'.

- Product differentiation and superiority

At the core of all advertising is the establishment and maintenance of a product's identity, its brand. To survive in the market place this helps every product to distinguish itself from others in the same category. The key to identity is the product's unique selling proposition (USP). USP terms that certain something that separates a product from the rest of the field e.g. the announcer explains, 'Aspirin has just one pain reliever. Only Anacin has special ingredients to relieve pain fast, help overcome depression fast, relax tension fast'. The special ingredient in Anacin is aspirin (acetylsalicylic acid) itself. Instead we are allowed to imagine that its ingredients are wholly different from aspirin. If we examine the text of the ad carefully we found that the announcer does not deny that Anacin contains aspirin.

- Repetition and redundancy

Repetition in advertising serves one major, obvious function; reinforcement. The first time you hear a word or see an image, you may not remember it. Each repetition of it makes recall more likely. Another technique that is closely related to repetition is redundancy. Most of the information that we hear and see repeated in TV commercials is redundant information. Sound and image often redundantly convey identical information in commercials e.g. “Just do it, Nike” commercials.

- Extraordinary and excessive style, ‘Televisuality’ and counter television

One of the main principles of television commercials is that, television classicism may be exceeded- and- even violated- in order to attract the viewer’s of attention. Stylistic excesses and violations are used by commercials to snap viewers out of their dreamlike connection with television narrative and make them sit up and take notice of the advertised product e.g. in 1980’s, Federal Express featured fast talker John Moschitta, Jr. in a series of successful ads. Moschitta’s ability to speak at the rate of 530 words per minute served a dual purpose for Fedex, to capture viewers attention and to make a metaphoric connection between their delivery services rapidity and Moschitta’s speech.

- Graphics and animation

Almost every commercial we see on television contains some graphics (letters, numbers, cartoon characters and corporate logos). Because there is an ability of graphics, to catch viewers eyes to look at the screen. The most important device for graphical liking is the ability of text and cartoon elements. Also, moving graphics are enormously more attention-grabbing than are static ones e.g. in the case of 1984, the distinctive Apple logo with a rainbow-colored apple with a bite taken out, followed the concluding text and caught most of the viewers.

- Violating reality (special effects)

One of the surest ways of attracting viewer’s attention on ad is to violate the reality. The advantages in digital graphics of the 1990’s helped to create the widespread incorporation of special effects in commercials. Here, what makes digital special effects particularly successful is, their mysterious resemblance to historical reality e.g. In Cinnamon Toast

Crunch cereal ad there was a man slaving away in his office cubicle. Suddenly a giant, special effects hand reaches down to him and gives him tasty cereal to eat and a video game to play with. It looks like the familiar office scene but then an unsuitable and fantastic element intrudes into that reality.

- Reflexivity and intertextuality

TV commercials frequently parody films, television programs, other commercials and even themselves in their efforts to market a product. A close relation to parody (consuming other commercials) is pastiche (use of fragments of previous texts). Parody and pastiche are two examples of TV's high degree of intertextuality. Here, a commercial refers to another. Familiar songs and images provide a shorthand for developing the persuasive argument for a product e.g. in essence, the Energizer Rabbit spots are commercials consuming other commercials and remarkable for the accuracy of their parodies.

9. CHILDREN AND TV ADVERTISING

Today, television programs and advertising efforts are increasingly being aimed at younger children. Even, the number of advertisements on preschooler's television channels would come as a surprise to many adults who do not have any occasion to view preschool programming regularly.

Although, estimates of, how many advertisements vary depend on the age of the child, the country in which they live and the channels they watch, Kunkel (2001) suggests that, contemporary children in USA may view 40.000 advertisements in every year. Kunkel and Gantz (1992) also found that more than 10 minutes of every hour of TV programs were given over to advertising material. Numbers indicate that today many children spending a significant proportion of their lives watching these advertising (Gunter et.al. 2005)

Similar to Kunkel and Gantz study, also recent studies of television advertising on children's programming additionally found that among all product advertising, food products made up the majority of these advertisements in USA. Cereals (comprising one third of food-product advertisements) are the most frequently seen food-product type among children 2 to 11 years olds (Powell et.al. 2007). Unfortunately, 91% of these food ads are for foods or beverages high in fat, sodium, or added sugars or are low in nutrients. Cartoon characters were used in 74% of food advertisements, and toy or other giveaways were used in 26% of food advertisements. About half of food advertisements contain health/nutrition or physical activity messages and 86% of food advertisements contain emotional appeals (Batada, Seitz, Wootan & Story, 2008).

Also the viewing amounts in popular children programs (e.g. BBC's Teletubbies in United Kingdom) changed advertiser's minds and these are designed again creatively to open up new opportunities for selling toys and associated materials to ever younger age groups (Hind 2003 as cited in Gunter et.al. 2005).

This literature on children and advertising indicate us that children and adolescents respond very differently to advertising than adults due to their cognitive, emotional, and social

differences between adults and children. To drive an effective marketing to children, advertisers need to know what makes kids tick. Today, advertisers are very lucky and have no difficulty to do this. Because with the help of researchers and psychologists they have an access to in-depth knowledge about children's developmental, emotional and social needs at different ages.

Especially, using research values, that analyzes children's behavior, fantasy lives, art work or even their dreams, companies are able to craft sophisticated marketing and advertising strategies to reach at the children.

9.1. Children's Developmental Stages

Children perceive and react to elements in their environment based on their experiences and level of development. Their reactions change over time as their base of experience and developmental stages changes. There are three stages for this development; Infant, Toddler and Preschooler

Infant and Toddler stages

Infant is the period from birth to age one. Toddler is the period from one-to- two and a half- of three years. Also, we can say that toddler is the stage a child grows from an infant to a preschooler.

- Biologic, cognitive and psychological development begins and advances quite rapidly during the infant and toddler years.
- **Infants** usually love colors, talking, music and being physically held. These are needed for their appropriate grow up.
- The attention moment of infants are short but they enjoy sharing pictures, songs or nursery rhymes which can also encourage their cognitive development.
- **Toddler** stage is a time of rapid development and increasing autonomy.
- As language skills develop, toddlers gradually start to recall past events.
- By 2 or 3 years of ages, a toddler can solve a problem through his/her physical and mental experimentation, differentiate space and colors and identify symbols.

- Toddlers think primarily on concrete terms and have no concept of the abstract. They are unable to reason and instead take words literally.
- As their vocabulary increases also their ability to express thoughts, needs and desires increases. (Samour, Helm, Lang, 2004).

Toddler is a dynamo, full of unlimited energy, enthusiasm and curiosity. The toddler begins this period with limited abilities of an infant and ends with the relatively sophisticated skills of the young child. It is the time when a child begins to move from dependence to independence.

Preschoolers

Preschooler is the name given to kids between three years to six years.

Three to Four year olds

- The need for social experiences increases.
- Child can understand his or her physical needs such as hunger or tiredness, but usually has a poor perception of time.
- Child may be able to express his/her fears and frustrations but may often use play to express these feelings.
- Social skills start to develop as the child attempts to model observed behaviors.
- Puzzles and building blocks are popular activities for four years olds. Most three years olds can build a 9 or 10 block tower of blocks. A four years old can work 10 to 20 pieces of puzzles.
- Four years olds begin to use lines, shapes and designs to represent reality.
- Child will be cutting straight lines in fourth years of life.

Five years olds

- Between four and five years of age, child may be making letters in his name. These letters may show up randomly in his drawings at first. You may also see a person emerge in his drawings. Drawings of people are often the most recognizable pictures.

- At five years of age produce drawings with good detail e.g. a house with windows, a door, a roof and a chimney.
- Social interaction increases as the child more actively participates in play, both real and imaginary. Children began to interact with one another, as well as to communicate with imaginary playmates.
- Five year olds can construct detailed models using kits. Can copy a square and at 5.5 years a triangle. Can copy letters. Can count the fingers on one hand using the index finger of the other. Can do jigsaw puzzles with interlocking pieces.
- Maturing cognitive skills produce endless curiosity, as evidence by the question 'Why ?'. Also ask about abstract words e.g. what does beyond mean ?
- Can give their full name, age and address and often their birthday.
- Are interested in reading and writing. Recognize their name and attempt to write it.
- Talk about the past, present and future with a good sense of time.
- Love to be read stories and will then act them out in detail later, either alone or with friends.
- Have very definite likes and dislikes, some with little apparent logic e.g. a child might eat carrots when cut into strips but not when cut into rounds.

Six years olds

- Can skip in time to music, alternating their feet.
- Draw people in detail including for instance eyebrows and eyelashes and buttons and laces on clothes.
- Can pronounce the majority of the sounds of their own language.
- Talk fluently with confidence.
- Are increasingly influenced by cultural conventions in drawing and writing.
- Are interested in basic scientific principles and are beginning to understand e.g. what happens to everyday materials if they are soaked or heated.
- Can remember and repeat nursery rhymes and songs.
- Are steadily developing literacy skills (reading and writing), although the ability to read independently with confidence usually begins between 7 and 9 years of age.
- Choose friends mainly because of their personality and interests (Samour et. al. 2004; Nisha, 2006; Meggitt, 2006).

9.2. Preschooler's Developmental Stages in Relation to Advertisements

Today, from the junk food to toy advertisements, during Saturday morning cartoons to the appealing promos on the backs of cereal boxes, marketing messages surrounding kids of all ages. And to them, everything looks ideal, like something they simply have to have. As it all sounds so appealing to them, Ashbach states that this 'constant struggle' between fantasy and reality can be seen in the child's deep hesitation about accepting the difference between 'what's real and what's made up' (1994).

While, children growing older, their understanding of TV ads moves through several stages (Gunter et.al. 2005). APA Task Force on Advertising and Children states these stages (the implications of children's cognitive development) for understanding the potential effects of exposure to advertising and to specific harms that might result from exposure to advertising, in their recent research. They stated, two important information processing tasks that are required for any person to achieve a mature understanding of advertising messages.

According to APA, at first, the individual must be able to distinguish between commercial and noncommercial content. In other words, an individual must be able to differentiate the ads from the programs. Studies indicate that, children below the ages of 4–5 years do not consistently distinguish a program from a commercial content, even when program/commercial separation devices are used. These children (age of 4–5 years), only perceive a categorical distinction between commercials and programming, but primarily on the basis of affective ("commercials are funnier") or perceptual ("commercials are shorter") cues only.

For understanding the potential effects of exposure to ads and specific harms that might result from exposure to ads, APA's second essential cognitive task states that, individuals have to involve in a mature comprehension of advertising or in other words mature understanding of advertising messages. This is mainly the ability to recognize the persuasive intent of advertising. Basic developmental research on persuasive intent within advertisements, establishes clearly that, most children younger than 7–8 years of age do not recognize the persuasive intent of commercial appeals.

Briefly, as a key conclusion of the APA task force, which is supported by a strong base of empirical evidence we can note that young children below 7–8 years of age clearly lack an understanding of the persuasive intent of television advertising
(<http://www.apa.org/pubs/info/reports/advertising-children.aspx#>)

9.2.1. Piaget's theory

The theory that has been most frequently cited in the literature about children's understanding of advertisement's is Piaget's theory which describes the development of children's logical thinking. He demonstrates the levels of logical thinking in each stage with experiments which involve also nonverbal tasks. He uses nonverbal tasks assuming that children may have knowledge that they are unable to express in verbal responses. On the basis of these experiments, he draws his conclusions about children's abilities or lack of abilities in each mutual stage. Aspects of his theory influence today's researches into children and advertisements, relatively.

According to Piaget, children's cognitive development has four stages of logical thought (as cited in Gunter, Oates & Blades, 2005);

Sensorimotor stage

The first stage has known as the sensorimotor stage (0-2 years of age). This stage includes, period of development from birth to the development of early independent thought and simple problem solving about the age of two years. For Piaget, simple problem solving starts when children being able to plan limited series of actions (e.g., to work out how to reach a toy that isn't immediately available). Nearly end of this sensorimotor stage, children may be start to produce two and three word sentences. So, in this period, children's limited language and cognitive development prevents any possibility of understanding advertisements.

Preoperational stage

The second stage has known as preoperational stage (2-7 years of age). Piaget assumes that children at this stage had limited reasoning in terms of performing logical operations to

solve problems. Children's cognitive abilities develop rapidly during this stage, but they are again limited in a number of ways. He applies several key experiments identifying these limitations.

Limitation one, Piaget assumes that, at preoperational stage children have difficulty in tasks which involve the transformation of materials. E.g. if children are shown two same glasses with the same quantity of liquid in each glass, the children will be able to say that there is the same quantity in each glass. But, if the liquid from one glass is then poured into a taller and narrower glass, many of them will think that there is now more liquid in the taller glass. Therefore, at preoperational stage a child isn't able to overcome the perceptual qualities of a stimulus. Without the ability overcome superficial changes, children find it hard to reason logically also in problem-solving tasks. To reason logically, children need to consider two dimensions (both the height and the width) at the same time. In other words, realize that, the greater height of the liquid is balanced by the narrower width of the glass. But, Piaget suggests that children often focus only on one dimension and this limits their reasoning.

Also, some other researchers, Kunkel (1988) and Young (1990) claim that, this is one of the main reasons why children in this period do not have a well-developed understanding of advertising. Children who cannot consider different aspects of television will view television as a 'monolithic entity', which means they will only concentrate on a single aspect of what they are watching. They will have difficulty distinguishing advertisements from programs because they will be less sensitive to the differences between the two.

Limitation two, Piaget assumes that, at preoperational stage children have egocentrism. E.g. if a child asked to sit at one side of the table and a doll placed at the opposite side of the table and asked the child to describe what the doll saw, children at this stage have difficulty to describe the view seen by the doll. Often they describe their own view of the landscape. Because of this, Piaget calls children at preoperational stage as egocentric. As they are egocentric, in conversation also they may have difficulty appreciating the viewpoint of another person. Children cannot work out logically, how another person views the world when that view was different from their own. It is likely that, they will

have difficulty in understanding the persuasive nature of advertisements. A child may see an advertisement from one point of view (e.g. as a source of information), but this is not the same as the advertiser's persuasive point of view.

Concrete operational stage

The third stage has known as concrete operational stage (7-11 years of age). Piaget assumes that children at this period can usually solve tasks (like the liquid task before) because they are tasks that the children can see or experience directly through playing with liquids and containers. They can consider two aspects of the task at the same time and can reason logically in problem solving. They have abilities to consider the relationship between the height and width of the glass because task components like glasses or liquid physically exist in the world and they are concrete components. But applying Piaget's theory to children's understanding of advertisements is not clear.

On one hand, it is a reality that children's reasoning is developing; on the other hand, Piaget argues that this reasoning is better in concrete contexts. Children have not got any direct experience of television (the images they view) so we might expect that, their reasoning will be less developing than in other domains which involves interacting with the stimuli.

Formal operational stage

The fourth stage has known as formal operational stage (11 years of age to adulthood). Piaget assumes that, after 11 years of age a child starts to begin abstract reasoning e.g. all cats with pink eyes have six legs. Fred is a cat with pink eyes. So, how many legs does Fred have? Although this stage lasts at adulthood, at the beginning their logical reasoning is not as sophisticated as adults reasoning.

After 11-12 years of age their understanding of advertisements should be similar to adult's understanding, more likely to be the result of different experiences rather than the result of different cognitive abilities.

9.2.2. General conclusions

Age 8 to 10

Many researchers agree that most children recognize the persuasive intent of advertising nearly about eight years of age (Kunkel & Roberts, 1991 as cited in Gunter et.al. 2005). This age group becomes aware that ads don't always tell the whole truth. Children start to recognize advertiser's attempts at persuasion.

After the age of 9, children even show steady improvement in understanding of the ambiguous wording, humor and imaginary found in advertisements (Gunter & McAleer, 1997).

Even so, this situation doesn't mean that ads don't work after the age of eight. Gorn and Goldberg's research suggest that regardless of age and understanding of persuasive intent, advertisements work. Because in this situation, exposure to commercials increases the youth's desire for that product and repeated exposure to the same commercial increases the desire more and more (as cited in Kirsh 2006). After age 8, again another dimension of ads comes to life. Older children and adolescents become easily persuaded than younger children when well-known people sell the products. Influences by celebrity endorsements appears to be in a greater extent (Atkin & Block as cited in Kirsh 2006).

Age 6 to 8

Under the age of 8 years, most kids don't understand that commercials are for selling a product. Most children under eight years, believe what the adverts tell them.

At this age level, children use commodified objects and experience both to connect with each other to achieve a certain visibility, rather than to dominate others, in their social worlds (Pugh, 2011). According to Kirsh, to children under 7 or 8 years of age, commercials are perceived as a source of information for this new and better commodified objects, rather than as an attempt to persuade them to buy certain goods (2006).

Age 3 to 6 (Preschooler)

- *Have trouble in distinguishing programs from commercials*

One significant aspect of children's understanding of television advertising is their ability to tell the difference between advertisements and programs. Early signs that advertisements are distinguished from programs emerged with the observation that, children's level of visual attention would often shift when a program broke for a commercial (Gunter & McAleer, 1997). Children's ability to make this distinction develops with age.

A study by Duffy and Rossiter (1975), using changes in visual attention as a measure found that, clustering did not enhance the ability of 5 years olds to discriminate between advertising and program material (as cited in Gunter et.al. 2005). Children in this age group have trouble distinguishing programs from commercials and often have difficulty discriminating between reality and what they see on television, even when programming is animated (Connor,2006).

For more early aged children commercials are often interpreted as short, funny programs or a continuation of the television show that they were viewing (Kunkel as cited in Kirsh 2006). What children seem to look for in an advertisement is a state of mind, where special elements can be strong enough to generate a feeling of pleasure. For commercials as for other TV programs, positive or negative reactions will essentially depend on details such as the tone of voice, the presence of a small animal etc. Kapferer (1985) states that, when the message interests them, their emotional reactions immediately become intense. These are laughter, annoyance, mimicry and pleasure (as cited in Derbaix & Bree, 1997).

- *Lack the ability to comprehend an advertisement's intent*

Preschool aged children are likely to view advertisements as objective statements of fact, that is, unbiased informational pieces designed to tell them information about a toy or food product. As Connor states, they lack the ability to comprehend an advertisement's intent to sell (2006).

Ward and Wardman state that the cognitive ability of the child explains this developmental pattern. Children less than 7 years of age tend to have difficulty in recognizing the perspective of another person and as such they are unable to take the perspective of the advertiser. Thus, because of their egocentric perspective young children perceive advertisements as being consistent with their own use of the advertised products: a source of entertainment and happiness. In contrast, because older children can take the perspective of the advertiser they are better able to recognize the fact that advertisements are simply attempts to persuade the viewer to buy their products (as cited in Kirsh 2006).

While older children are very much like adults in their skepticism, younger children especially preschool children are more attentive to commercials than older children. They don't discriminate between program content and commercials on television and are relatively trusting of advertisements. They treat television more like a word-of-mouth medium than like a commercial mass medium (Adler & Comstock as cited in Schudson, 1993).

- *More exposed, more requested*

The more children are exposed to television commercials, the more they request and prefer advertised foods. Galst and White state that, in their research with 4- to 6-year-olds, who worked hardest to watch more television commercials (by exerting pressure on a button every four seconds to maintain watching television) also made more purchase-influencing attempts at the supermarket after watching the ads. Their conclusion was that more exposed ones by pressing button were more requested (as cited in Hiddin, Contento & Gussow, (2004). This age group often wants what is advertised and pesters with all sorts of reasons for parents to buy.

- *Can be misled or tricked*

Children with little understanding of language at these ages can get the wrong meaning, such as thinking 'good to eat', or 'fruit flavored' means 'good for me'. With the advertising techniques that are used, children can be misled or tricked by the shape, speed, size and way a product works. Furthermore, according to Liebert, Sprafkin, Liebert and Rubenstein, the limited cognitive ability of these younger children prevent them from understanding

disclaimers that accompany ads, such as ‘batteries not included’, ‘some assembly required’, ‘or each part sold separately’ (as cited in Kirsh 2006).

Dixon, Scully, Wakefield, White, and Crawford (2007) expand the findings of Halford and colleagues by exploring changes in children’s attitudes towards ‘junk’ foods following exposure to adverts. ‘Junk’ food was defined by these authors as any product with a high fat or sugar content. These authors showed in a pre-test survey that children who had been exposed to more food adverts had more positive attitudes towards ‘junk’ foods (as cited in Dovey, Taylor, Stow, Boyland & Halford, 2011). In studies of children as young as 3 years of age, exposure to television advertising was correlated positively with recall of, request for, and consumption of advertised food products (Connor, 2006).

- *Can be endorsed with celebrities*

Children 6 years and under are unable to distinguish program content from commercials, especially if their favorite character is promoting the product. With regard to the Ross’s research, it has shown that, products advertised by celebrities receive more favorable evaluations than the same product advertised without celebrity endorsement (as cited in Kirsh 2006). To further the enhancement of the desire for products among children, also advertisers use celebrities to pitch products with promoting the product by including a premium prize (eg. a toy) with every purchase.

- *Can be endorsed with familiar characters*

Younger preschooler’s may be especially liable to the effects of foxy marketing strategies because they can express their desire for certain products and characters. According to Roberto and her colleagues, the use of licensed characters to promote foods to children are much more effective because children lack the ability to understand the persuasive intent behind advertisements and by the age of 2 or 3 years, children can recognize and develop liking for familiar characters (2010).

9.3. Preschooler’s Developmental Stages in Relation to Branding

The potency of television in conditioning youngsters to be loyal enthusiasts of a product, (whether they are old enough to consume it or not), first became obvious, early in the

fifties (Packard, 1981). After this time, numerous studies have done about preschooler's developmental stages related with branding. Today, most of the studies have shown that adverts are obviously effective especially in changing food brand preferences in young children (Borzekowski & Robinson, 2001; Brody, Stoneman, Lane, & Sanders, 1981, as cited in Halford et al. 2007) and even babies as young as six months of age can form mental images of these corporate logos and mascots (Gunter et al. 2005).

Knowing these marketers are planting the seeds of brand recognition in very young children, till fifties (in the hopes that the seeds will grow into lifetime relationships). In other words, marketers are eager to reach very young children but not necessarily to promote specific products; instead, the goal is often to build brand loyalties, on the basis of the theory that, the younger the age at which brand awareness is established, the stronger the brand loyalty will be as a child grows.

Brand awareness and recall

Research on the brand awareness of young children has focused on two aspects of brand awareness; brand recognition and brand recall. Both brand recognition and recall have usually been functional by showing children a series of brand logos, brand characters or commercials. In the case of brand recall, children were asked to name the specific brand when cued by the stimulus. In the case of brand recognition, they were invited to choose from a number of available visual options.

According to Connor, brand recognition begins as early as 2 years of age, particularly when cartoon (Tony the Tiger) or cartoonish (Ronald McDonald) licensed characters are used to sell products (2006).

Researches into toddlers' and preschoolers' brand recognition (Derscheid et al., 1996; Fischer et al., 1991; Goldberg, 1990; Macklin, 1983; Mizerski, 1995) and brand recall (Macklin, 1983), makes it clear that children's ability to recognize brands starts earlier in development than their ability to recall these brands. An observational study by Macklin (1983), for example, demonstrates that 4- to 5-year-olds had significantly more difficulty recalling a set of brand names than they had recognizing these names. This observation is

in line with general research on young children's memory development (e.g., Kail, 1984; Siegler, 1998), which has found that preschoolers usually have an excellent recognition memory, whereas their recall memory performance is considerably weaker (as cited in Valkenburg & Buijzen, 2005).

According to Macklin (1996), this brand recognition and recall memory are both important especially when making real purchase decisions. He assumes that, for a decision, for a particular brand in the retail environment, only recognition is necessary because the various alternatives are alongside one another on the shelf. For a decision to be made in another context, recall is necessary, because the various alternatives are not available at that time. But, in order to be able to function as a real consumer, a child must therefore be capable of both brand recognition and recall (as cited in Valkenburg & Buijzen, 2005).

In such a case, we can summarize that, three developmental processes may account for the relative difficulty that preschoolers experience with recall memory. First, it is not until about 7 years of age that children start to develop sophisticated strategies to help their recall memory, including rehearsal, categorization, visualization, and mnemonics. After 7 years of age, children start to use these types of strategies increasingly often, thereby helping to increase their recall memory (Roedder John, 1981, 1999; Siegler, 1998). Second, several basic memory processes, such as speed of information processing and the capacity to form associations, increase particularly during the preschool years. For example, speed of information processing (e.g., the rate with which children retrieve information from long-term memory) increases most rapidly between 4 and 8 years of age, (Kail, 1991; Siegler, 1998). Finally, older children have more content knowledge than younger children about almost everything (as cited in Valkenburg & Buijzen, 2005).

Brand loyalty

Knowing that, brand loyalties can be established as early as age two and by the time children head off to school most can recognize hundreds of brand logos, researchers focus on especially fast food advertisements which are seemed to build brand loyalty best.

One of the, 'Food advertising on preschooler's television' research, which includes fast food advertisements was 'particularly McDonald's and Chuck E. Cheese' ads. These ads were seemed to focus on building brand recognition through the use of licensed characters, logos, and slogans and seemed to be designed to build social or emotional associations with products or brands. According to Connor's (2006), it was interestingly found that, generally, food was not associated with the brand in most fast food advertising, even on Nickelodeon. Taste, nutritional value, or even the presence of food was not presented as an inducement to visit a fast food outlet. Rather, advertisements seemed to focus on building familiarity and brand loyalties, with the occasional added inducements of free toys or the chance to play games.

The messages sent by these advertisements were that people go to McDonald's for toys and fun, not fries, and people go to Chuck E. Cheese to play games and win things, not to eat pizza.

9.4. Preschooler's Branding Influences on Perception of Taste

9.4.1. Fast food - study of McDonald's

Research claimed that, preschooler's perception of what tastes better can be heavily influenced by the food packaging, if it's branded by a widespread food brand - in this case, like McDonald's . The study included 3 to 5-year-olds from low-income families. Sample foods in taste tests were wrapped in McDonalds and either in unmarked wrappers.

In his research, study author Dr. Tom Robinson et. al. (2007) was stated that, kid's perception of taste was "physically altered by the branding." Even carrots, milk and apple juice tasted better to the kids if they thought the food was from McDonald's. The study involved 63 low-income children, however ; only two of the 63 said they'd never eaten at McDonald's; about one-third ate there at least weekly. The 63 children performed a total of 304 individual tasting comparisons. In general, McDonald's-labeled foods were the necessarily favorites.

- Almost 77% said McDonald's-labeled fries tasted better; only 13% preferred the fries in generic packaging.

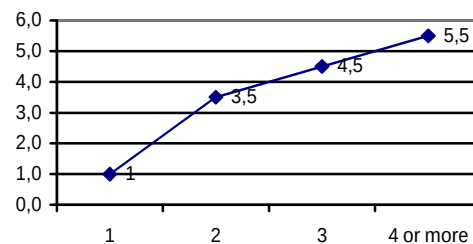
- 54% preferred McDonald's-wrapped carrots, versus 23% pointing to the plain-wrapped sample.
- Only in the case of hamburgers were the results not clear-cut: 29 kids chose McDonald's-wrapped burgers; 22 chose unmarked ones.
- Fewer than one-fourth said both samples of all foods tasted the same.

Table 9.1: Children's taste preferences table.
Source: (Robinson et al. 2007).

Food or drink item	Plain	Taste the same or no answer	McDonald's
Hamburger	22 (%36.7)	9 (%15.0)	29 (%48.3)
Chicken nuggets	11 (%18.0)	14 (%23.0)	36 (%59.0)
French fries	8 (%13.3)	6 (%10.0)	46 (%76.7)
Milk or apple juice	13 (%21.0)	11 (%17.7)	38 (%61.3)
Carrots	14 (%23.0)	14 (%23.0)	33 (%54.1)

Number of TV sets at households as a moderator of taste preferences The researchers also found that children with more television sets in their homes and children who ate food from McDonald's more often were more likely to prefer the taste of foods/drinks if they thought they were from McDonald's.

Graph 9.1 Number of sets among specific preschooler research group
Source: (Robinson et al. 2007).



Note: Total preference scores may range from -1 (preferred the unbranded food in all comparisons) to +1 (preferred the McDonald's branded food in all comparisons)

9.4.2. Packaged foods – study of licensed cartoon characters

Popular licensed cartoon characters appearing on food packaging also effect young children's taste and snack preferences. Character licensing is a marketing strategy through which food companies place the image of a popular movie or television character on product packaging to promote that food product to children. For children, package serves not only as a selling tool for the product by means of a distinguished structure and colorful graphics design to effect and excite both buyer (parent) and the user (children).

For this purpose, also Roberto et. al. adopted a research design, described by Robinson et al. (McDonalds's study above), to examine whether licensed characters appearing on food packaging influence children's taste preferences and snack choices. 4 to 6-year-old children tasted 3 pairs of identical foods (graham crackers, gummy fruit snacks, and carrots) presented in packages either with or without a popular cartoon character.

The three cartoon characters used in this study were Scooby Doo, Dora the Explorer, and Shrek. These characters were chosen because of their popularity among young children, their frequent appearance in television programs, commercials, and movies, and their common presence on items marketed to this age group.

According to Roberto and her colleague's results, children significantly preferred the taste of foods that had popular cartoon characters on the packaging, compared with the same foods without characters. 90% of the children identified Dora the Explorer correctly, 77.5% identified Scooby Doo, and 60.0% identified Shrek. The majority of participants favored the taste of the licensed-character samples according to all three taste comparisons. (50%– 55% indicated that the food with the character tasted better, 25%– 37.5% indicated that the foods tasted the same, and 7.5%–25% indicated that the food without the character tasted better (2010). Overall, results provide evidence that licensed characters can influence children's eating habits negatively by increasing positive taste perceptions and preferences for junk foods.

According to Federal Trade Commission 2006 report, marketers are using this negative perception of taste to promote children's meals with animated characters generally from Nickelodeon's Nick, Cartoon Network and Disney programming. The product range is

also diverse; canned pastas and soups, snack crackers, snack chips, cookies, clementines, baby carrots, bagged spinach, yogurt, macaroni and cheese, lunch kits, children's frozen meals, fruit snacks, and breakfast cereals. Characters are appearing on packages and store displays. However, Sesame Street licensed its characters only to fruit and vegetable companies as part of its Healthy Habits for Life Program. Data also provides support for actions such as Walt Disney Company ending its 10-year contract with McDonald's (as cited in Roberto et. al, 2010)

Among all cartoon characters, Roberto et al. (2010) states that, for today, Nickelodeon's youth-directed show *SpongeBob Square Pants* is the most popular brand among children. Show have an average child audience (aged 2-11) of about 2.4 million and character also generate high amounts at annual sales of these both branded goods and foods.

9.4.3. Packaged foods – study of licensed spokescharacters

Spokescharacters may also be incorporated into campaigns and are often feature both in advertisements and on product packages. This, strategic combination, includes (1) the effects related to the use of spokescharacters versus verbal attributes (2) advertisement–package coordination. Character creates favorable brand information that may compete for cognitive resources on packages.

Some studies also have examined the effects of animated spokes characters, such as Tony the Tiger for Kellogg's Frosted Flakes cereal. Spokescharacters seem to be more effective in creating favorable brand attitudes than verbal cues or any other form of information presented on a food package, which suggests that this also might be true for licensed characters. In addition, trust and familiarity with spokescharacters are tied to increased liking for the characters and the brands and products they promote. In other words, the more established and recognizable the spokescharacter is, the more effective it is in promoting sales of associated products (Roberto et.al.2010).

The use of media characters on food packaging effects children's subjective taste assessment according as cartoon characters more of it even nutrition cues does not affect young children's taste assessment of products. In their research over preschoolers (mean age 5.6), Lapierre, Vaala and Linebarger state that messages encouraging healthy eating

may resonate with young children, but the presence of licensed characters on packaging potentially overrides children's assessments of nutritional value (2011).

9.5. Preschooler's Population (USA – Turkey comparison)

A very basic demographic segmenting variable is age, for the total consumption. Kids represent an important demographic to consumption because they have their own purchasing power, they influence their parents' buying decisions and they are the consumers of the future. As Öcel states, “children are the bridges between the advertisers and adults” (2002:331). Nonetheless they have a great percentage in their population.

USA

The U.S. Census Bureau (2010) reported the population of U.S. residents as, 308,745,538 which is the third largest in the world. Children under 13 represent %20.1 of the U.S. population in 2009 which is relatively high in amount. The total fertility rate in the United States estimated for 2009 is 2.01 children per woman, which is below the sub-replacement fertility threshold of 2.1.

However, U.S. population growth is among the highest in industrialized countries, since the vast majority of these have below-replacement fertility rates and also the U.S.'s higher levels of immigration.

Table 9.2: Children population related with age demographics (USA- 2009)

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, <http://www.census.gov/ipc/www/idbpyr.html> IDB Population Pyramids.

Age groups	Number of girls/women	Number of boys/men	total
0 - 14	30.305.704	31.639.127	61.944.831
15 – 65 and over	125.701.017	119.566.275	245.267.292
Total population	156.006.721	151.205.402	307.212.123
% of kids to the general population	%19.4	%20.9	%20.1

TURKEY

Government Statistical Institute reported the population of Turkish residents as, 73.722.988 in 2009, which is the largest among many European countries.

Children under 14 represent %25.6 of the Turkish population in 2009 which is a relatively high amount.

Table 9.3: Children population related with age demographics (Turkey- 2009)

Source DIE Statics- <http://report.tuik.gov.tr/reports>

Age groups	Number of girls /women	Number of boys/men	total
0 – 4	3.005.631	3.173.092	6.178.723
5 - 9	2.982.908	3.148.210	6.131.118
10 - 14	3.198.746	3.369.995	6.568.741
Total population of kids	9.187.285	9.691.297	18.878.582
General population	36.679.806	37.043.182	73.722.988
% of kids to the general population	%25.0	%26.1	%25.6

10. IDENTIFYING PRESCHOOLER'S CONSUMPTION DETERMINANTS

10.1. Research Purpose

Research aims to provide a context for the discussion of children as consumers in modern society and the child–parent purchase relationship as a distinct phenomenon within their shopping behaviors. This approach brings ethics theory to develop a new perspective on the child–parent purchasing relationship as yet unexplored in the existing literature.

The total value of the global children's market —that is goods sold specifically for children—is growing day by day relevant to the child population growth. The largest single product group here includes the food and than other key groups with toys, games and clothing (Euromonitor, 2001, as cited in Nicholls & Cullen, 2004).

In addition to this market, children also influence purchases beyond product groups clearly targeted at them. As a summary, the majority of spending on children's products was by adults in the form of secondary purchases. Literature estimates that children influencing their family purchases including cars, holidays and even houses. Knowing these, retailers attempt to exploit and develop this lucrative market and generate powerful arguments over the development of children as consumers. Generally, they use the role of marketing—particularly advertising—in influencing kids' behavior (Engel et al., 1990).

Here, much of the arguing (whether they should be 'protected' from marketing influences or not) over children as consumers focuses on, notably television advertising. The 'ethical' argument suggests that children below the age of 8 cannot always distinguish between television advertising and entertainment or, indeed, factual programming and that, therefore, they are very vulnerable to improper manipulation by advertisers (<http://www.apa.org/pubs/info/reports/advertising-children.aspx#>).

The possibility to isolate a child from such marketing information and the behaviors or marketing activity generating in the child–parent purchase relationship should be well argued today.

Finally, this research explores the attitudes of Turkish high class families to children as consumers and the child–parent purchase relationship in both operational and ethical terms. Analysis of this data provides a further context for the theoretical models developed earlier in the paper and also leads to some concrete familial and academically recommendations.

10.2. Research Method

Data were collected during the spring of 2011, in an urban, middle-upper district at Balmumcu, in Besiktas, Istanbul. To be able to provide a detailed and accurate assessment of the amount and nature of advertisement that children are exposed to, and the amount and nature of products they consumed a parent questionnaire form were used.

Children aged between 4 to 6 years, and their parents were recruited from Atanur Oguz Kindergarten, department of ISTEK Foundation Schools and ISTEK Atanur Oguz Primary School at Balmumcu, in Besiktas, Istanbul. The research was conducted in partnership with the school management.

The principal of the child care center prepared a letter to parents that introduced the study. The children were given an envelope to take home to their parents containing principal's letter and a parent questionnaire. A written questionnaire was developed based on social cognitive theories, recent literature on factors that influence children's consumption behavior. Children took home the questionnaires. After family participation, children took back the questionnaires to school. In both of the two stages materials (principal's letter and questionnaires), were distributed and collected by the teachers.

10.3. Research Limits and Sample

Assuming that low income families may encounter problems with children's purchase request, children who are in private school were chosen, as they live in an environment where families who have high income stay so that the children have more purchasing power.

The children are chosen from among 4 to 6 years old preschooler students. As it was explained in previous chapters, children develop cognitive abilities to recognize the nature of advertisements by that age. The ages of four, five and six are fundamental ages in this development if it was compared with the other age groups under four.

Respondents are chosen to be mothers as in most families daily market purchase is done by them. Students from middle-upper class families, questionnaire was sent to 139 mothers. A total of 102 parents completed the questionnaire and handed it at the school (with a total response rate of 73 %).

10.4. Research Findings

Findings include the two following categories.

10.4.1. Demographics of children

A total sample of **139** mothers with children between the ages of 4 to 6 years (**77 boys and 62 girls - with boys 52% and girls 43%**) were invited to participate the research. After the mothers participation detailed information about return numbers, gender and age groups of the child participants prepared and are given below at Table 10.1.

Table 10.1: Gender and age groups of the child participants.

Gender and age groups of the child participants									
G E N D E R	Age of 4			Age of 5			Age of 6		
	Number of Distribution	Number of Response	Ratio of Response	Number of Distribution	Number of Response	Ratio of Response	Number of Distribution	Number of Response	Ratio of Response
Girls	8	4	57%	21	15	71%	33	27	82%
Boys	10	2	20%	25	18	72%	42	36	86%
Total	18	6	35%	46	33	72%	75	63	84%
Total number of distribution				139					
Total distribution (number of girls’)				62					
Total distribution (number of boys’)				77					
Total response (number of girls)				46					
Total response (number of boys)				56					
Total number of response				102					
Total ratio of response				73%					
The mean age of children who participated in the study was 5.5 years.									

10.4.2. Demographics of mothers

In the sample group of mothers, it was seen that most of the respondents were relatively well educated. University graduates of them represented with a ratio of 76 and the ones having master's degree were represented with a ratio of 10. As a sum, at least 86 percent ($76\% + 10\% = 86$) of the mothers have a university degree. It was also seen that the number of mothers who are primary school graduates represented with a ratio of 1. Which is as few as to affect the outcomes of the research.

Table 10.2: Mother's education

Mother's education	Number	%
Primary school	1	1%
High school	13	13%
University graduates	78	76%
Master's degree	10	10%
Total	102	100%

The great majority of the mother's work with a ratio of 73 and 27% of them are nonworking mothers as housewives.

Table 10.3: Mother's working status

Mother's working status	Number	%
Number of working mothers	74	73%
Number of nonworking mothers	28	27%
Total	102	100%

In relation to the mothers occupations, it was seen that mothers of bank employees constitute the first group with 15%, financial advisers constitute the second group with 12%. Other occupations are teachers with 11%, sales directors with 9% and engineers with 9%.

Table 10.4 Mothers' occupations

Occupation	Number	%
Bank employee	11	15%
Financial adviser	9	12%
Teacher	7	11%
Sales director	7	9%
Engineer	6	9%
Public relations	4	5%
Pharmacist	4	5%
Doctor	3	4%
Government officer	2	3%
Naval engineer	2	3%
Human resources	2	3%
Sub-total	57	77%
Other occupations	17	23%
Total	74	100%

Structure of the families was represented with 85% as nuclear families, 6% of them are extended and 9% of them are single mothers.

Table 10.5 Family structures

Family structures	Number	%
Nuclear family	87	85%
Extended family	6	6%
Single mother	9	9%
Total	102	100%

Family incomes ranged between (Less than 5.000TL per month & More than 10.000TL per month). 35% of the sample mothers constituted the (Less than 5.000TL) group. 53% of them constituted the income range of (between 5.000TL-10.000TL) group. 12% of the sample constituted the (More than 10.000TL per month) group.

Table 10.6 Family income

Family income	Number	%
Less than 5.000TL	36	35%
5.000TL-10.000TL	54	53%
More than 10.000TL	12	12%
Total	102	100%

10.5. Research Evaluation

Information regarding respondent's (mothers) demographics (education and occupation), family type (i.e., household size, marital status) and household income were collected in the first part of the questionnaire.

Information regarding respondent's (mother) and child's market shopping (coshopping) habits were collected at the second part of the questionnaire.

Information regarding respondent's (mothers) and child's frequencies of TV viewing were collected at the third part of the questionnaire.

Information regarding, nature of children's consumption in relation to mothers and TV advertisements were collected at the fourth part of the questionnaire.

The reviews and correlations were made through the received the responses.

10.5.1. Consumer socialization of the child with ‘coshopping’

Communication with family members plays an important role in shaping consumer learning like shared shopping experiences. Shared shopping experiences (i.e. coshopping when mother and child shop together) give children the opportunity to acquire in-store shopping skills. In order to analyze this process (Consumer socialization of the child with ‘coshopping’) mothers’ were asked the frequency of shopping and coshopping within a week.

Though the number of shopping and coshopping frequencies a “**comparison of mothers in relation to their shopping and coshopping frequencies**” were made and depicted below in Table 10.7.

As the results indicate, 99% of all mothers go to market shopping at least 1 or 2 times in a week ($53+38+8=99\%$) and also they do coshopping with their children at least 1 or 2 times in a week with the same frequency of 99% ($94+5=99\%$). Not forgetting the presence of fathers, results indicate that mothers are playing an important role in shaping child’s consumer learning in relation to their coshopping frequencies.

Table 10.7 Shopping and coshopping frequencies of the mothers’

Frequency of market shopping in a week	Total Number of Shopping	Total Ratio of Shopping	Total Number of Coshopping	Total Ratio of Coshopping
any	1	1%	1	1%
1 or 2 times	54	53%	96	94%
3 or 4 times	39	38%	5	5%
5 or 6 times	8	8%	0	0%
7 or more	0	0%	0	0%
Total	102	100%	102	100%

10.5.2. Coshopping frequencies of the mothers' in relation to "working status"

Sample group indicates that the great majority of the mother's are working mothers with a ratio of 73% and the other 27% of them are non-working mothers as housewives (Please see Table 10.3).

Related with the literature statement assuming that working mothers are more likely to undertake coshopping with their children (Grossbart et. al, 1988 as cited in Gunther &Furnham,1998), **coshopping frequencies of mothers' in relation to their working status were scaled.**

Research results indicate that (Table 10.8), both working mothers and nonworking mothers (housewives) have a relatively great number of coshopping frequencies with their children. Working mothers coshopp at least 1 or 2 times in a week with 99% ($93+6=99\%$) nearly same as housewives frequency of 100% ($97+3=100\%$). An assumption can be made that, possibly, because of their more harried life styles, working mothers are predisposed to coshopp and this style may enables them spending time with their children while at the same time accomplishing a necessary task. But, just like the working mothers, housewives are also taking their children with them (coshopping) in a proportion of unexpected.

Table 10.8 Coshopping frequencies of the mothers' in relation to "working status"

Frequency of market shopping in a week	Total Number of coshopping	Total Ratio of coshopping	Number of Working mothers	Ratio of Working mothers	Number of Non-working mothers	Ratio of Non-working Mothers
any	1	1%	1	1%	0	0%
1 or 2 times	96	94%	69	93%	27	97%
3 or 4 times	5	5%	4	6%	1	3%
5 or 6 times	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
7 or more	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Total	102	100%	74	100%	28	100%

10.5.3. Coshopping frequencies of the mothers' in relation to "marital status"

Research literature examining family type found that children who live in single-parent households are often not socialized to have a clear role distinction between parent and child. The status of children is often equal to that of the single parent in the absence of a second parent. Children have been found to participate more in household tasks, including shopping, cleaning, and food preparation (McNeal,1999). Related with the literature statement, **coshopping frequencies of the mothers' in relation to their marital status were scaled.**

Taking in consideration the limited number of single mothers in sampled group (9 in 102 are single mothers) results indicate that also dual parent's children participate in household tasks including coshopping at least (1 or 2 times in a week) with 99% ($94+5=99\%$) as nearly as the same value with 100%, in single parents. As it is seen in Table 10.9, nine of the participants are single mothers while eight of them are working mothers. Assuming that, working single mothers have the minimum of time in comparison with the other main groups (single-mother/housewife, dual-parents/housewife, dual-parents/ working-mother), they coshopp (1or2 times in a week) with a frequency of 100%.

Table 10.9 Coshopping frequencies of the mothers' in relation to "marital status"

		Dual parents		Single mothers	
Frequency of market shopping in a week	Total number of coshopping	Number of coshopping	Ratio of Coshopping	Number of coshopping	Ratio of Coshopping
any	1	1	1%	0	0%
1 or 2 times	96	87	94%	9	100%
3 or 4 times	5	5	5%	0	0%
5 or 6 times	0	0	0%	0	0%
Total	102	92	100%	9	100%

10.5.4. Coshopping frequencies of the mothers' in relation to "child's gender"

According to his research done by at 1999, McNeal suggests that, boys go through the consumer development process, faster than girls do and it appears that parents expect boys to mature earlier than girls (1999). To investigate the possible changes from past researches, the **coshopping frequencies of the mothers' in relation to child's gender were scaled.**

As seen in Table 10.10, coshopping frequencies of boys and girls compared and no difference were found between male and female children. Related with the total number of coshopping frequencies, results show that, mothers are mostly visiting market (1 or 2 times in a week) at a ratio of 94 and among these mothers 96% of them coshopp with their girls and 93% of them coshopp with their boys .

Depending on the results an assumption can be done that, today, changes in the contemporary family, such as delayed child-bearing, decreasing household size and fused relationships can be moderating effects of balancing gender differences. Parents coshopp with their sons and daughters equally in regard to their gender differences.

Table 10.10 Coshopping frequencies of the mothers' in relation to "child's gender"

Frequency of market shopping in a week	Total Number of coshopping	Total Ratio of coshopping	Number of girls	Ratio of girls	Number of boys	Ratio of boys
any	1	1%	0	0%	1	2%
1 or 2 times	96	94%	44	96%	52	93%
3 or 4 times	5	5%	2	4%	3	5%
5 or 6 times	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
7 or more	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Total	102	100%	46	100%	56	100%

10.5.5. Comparing children and mothers in their product requesting and buying habits

Literature states that, a child's consumer socialization begins at a very early age. Long before children are able to purchase products they are already express their preferences to parents (Reynolds & Wells, (1977) as cited in Gunther &Furnham, 1998). Related with the issue, **in the questionnaire mothers were asked whether their children ask or do not ask them to buy individual products for themselves during their coshopping processes. Also mothers were asked whether they generally buy or do not buy the demanded products. Relevant with the results a comparison of child's and mother's requesting and buying habits were presented.**

As the results indicate in Table 10.11, great majority of the children (almost all of them- 98%) asking to buy individual products for themselves at the market place but mothers have some interferences to buy or not to buy these products. Mothers of 61% are buying these products while 49% of them are refusing to buy (nearly, they go half and half with each other).

Table 10.11 Comparing children and mothers in their product requesting and buying habits

	Number	Ratio		Number	Ratio
Number of children who ask to buy individual products for themselves during the coshopping process	100	98%	Number of mothers who buy these products	62	61%
			Number of mothers who do not buy these products	40	49%
Number of children who do not ask to buy individual products for themselves during the coshopping process	2	2%			
Total	102	100%		102	100%

10.5.6. Comparing dual parents with single mothers in their product buying habits

As the literature states, children in one-parent households seem to be viewed as functioning members at a younger age and get to select and purchase products earlier and more often. It may not be the one-parent home just to make differences. Typically one-parent family income is less according to two-parent family (McNeal,1999). Related with the characteristics documented by prior assumptions **product buying habits of dual parents' and single mothers' were compared.**

As seen in Table 10.9, although single mothers' frequency of coshopping is (100% for at least 1 or 2 times in a week) relatively same as with dual parents frequency (99% for at least 1 or 2 times in a week), single parents buy these requested products less than, dual parents with a ratio of 33. According to the results, taking in consideration the fewer number of single mothers in sample group (9 in 102), an assumption can be done that dual family mothers are more likely to say yes to their children. As single mothers may more likely to be economically disadvantaged, children in these families could be less likely to have the resources to exert influence in purchase decision-makings.

Table 10.12 Comparing dual parents with single mothers in their product buying habits

	Number	Ratio		Number	Ratio
Number of children who ask to buy individual products for themselves during the coshopping process	100	98%	Number of dual parents who buy these products	59	64%
			Number of dual parents who do not buy these products	34	36%
			Number of single mothers who buy these products	3	33%
			Number of single mothers who do not buy these products	6	67%

10.5.7. Comparing working mothers with non-working mothers in their product buying habits

Research result indicates that, both working and nonworking mothers (housewives) have a relatively great number of coshopping frequencies with their children (please look at Table 10.8.) Working mothers are coshopping at least 1 or 2 times in a week at a frequency of 99%, nearly same as housewives' frequency of 100% .Also, the great majority of the children (almost all of them- 98%) asking to buy individual products for themselves at the market place but mothers have some interferences to buy or not to buy these products with a ratio of 61 and 49 (nearly they go half and half with each other) (please look at Table 10.11).

Taking in consideration the information above **in their product buying habits working and non-working mothers were compared.** As it is seen in Table 10.13, non-working mothers are more predisposed to say yes to their children's buying requests at the market place with a ratio of 72, if it is compared to working mothers with a ratio of 58. Results are at the opposite side of the literature assumption which states, because the frequent extreme time pressure faced by working mothers, the children more of a say on what they get simply because an exhausted mother is more likely to yield and say 'Yes' (Holmes as cited in Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997).

Table 10.13 Comparing working mothers with non-working mothers in their product buying habits

	Working mothers		Nonworking mothers	
	Number of working mothers who buy these products	Number of working mothers who do not buy these products	Number of non-working mothers who buy these products	Number of non-working mothers who do not buy these products
Number	43	31	20	8
Total	74		28	
Ratio	58%	42%	72%	28%

10.5.8. Number of children who prefer specific brand-name products

Literature states that, adverts are effective at changing food brand preference in young children (Dr. Tom Robinson et. al. (2007) and even babies as young as six months of age can form mental images of corporate logos and mascots (Gunter et.al. 2005). Going through this information, Brand loyalties can be established as early as age two, and by the time children head off to school most can recognize hundreds of brand logos. Building brand recognition through the use of licensed characters, logos, and slogans; advertisements seem to be designed to build social or emotional associations with products or brands. At this point, Brand recognition begins as early as 2 years of age, particularly when cartoon or cartoonish licensed characters are used to sell products (Connor, 2006).

According to assume child's brand preferences during the coshopping process, mothers were asked whether their children prefer or do not prefer specific brand names in these buying requests. Mothers were given the (brand-name coke and any-name cola) example. As seen in Table 10.14, results indicate that, the children with a ratio of 50 satisfy themselves with any name products while 47 % of them preferring specific brand-name products.

Contrary to the literature which assumes that, the median age 5.5 children have very definite likes and dislikes including product preferences (McNeal,1999), results indicate that these two groups of children state a ratio of nearly half to half to each other.

Table 10.14 Number of children who prefer specific brand-name products

	Number	Ratio
Number of children who prefer specific brand-name products	48	47%
Number of children who satisfy with any name products	51	50%
Number of mothers who have no idea	3	3%
Total	102	100%

10.5.9. Number of children who use pester power during the coshopping process

"Pester power" refers to children's ability to nag their parents into purchasing items they may not otherwise buy and related with the issue literature states that, Pestering is a common influencing technique among the kids and can take a number of sophisticated forms depending on the age/maturity of the child (McNeal, et. al. as cited in Nicholls & Cullen 2004).

In order to scale the number of children using their pester power during the coshopping process, mothers were asked whether their children use or do not use this power (by crying, by exciting pity or by threatening example; Then I am not going to eat my dinner) when he/she desires to buy a product.

Even literature assumes that, today's kids have more autonomy and decision making power within the family than in previous generations and they are more vocal about what they want their parents to buy (McNeal, et. al. as cited in Nicholls & Cullen 2004), research results indicate that pestering is not a common influencing technique among the sampled group of children.

According to the research results ,as seen in Table 10.15, relatively fewer children with a ratio of 17, are using pester power on their mothers, at the market place. This conflict with the mentioned literature, may be calls attention to higher incidence of heavy disciplining among Turkish parents.

Table 10.15 Number of children who use pester power during the coshopping process.

	Number of children who use pester power	Number of children who do not use pester power	Total
Number	16	86	102
Ratio	17%	83%	100%

Taking in consideration the fewer number of pestering kids among the sampled group (16 in 102) (please see in Table 10.15), also other aspects of the related literature taken in consideration (which states that, pester power may be defined as a child’s attempts to exert influence over parental purchases with some degree of success and even proves to be one of the most successful influencing techniques (McNeal, et. al. as cited in Nicholls & Cullen 2004)) and **mothers were asked whether do they give in and buy these product(s) or not.**

As seen in at table 10.15, ratio of children using pester power is fewer with 17 and ratio of mothers giving in to her child’s pestering among them is only 6 (please see in Table 10.16). Through the sum of the results, we can assume that, today’s moms may be trying to be healthy and exercise more to work at eating well-balanced diets and healthier foods. They don’t give in and relax the rules at the marketplace accordingly kids aren’t too much independent in their consumptions.

Or, both parents and children are aware of their sets of rights that allow them to participate in purchase decisions. They are balancing these rights with responsibilities. (Maybe because of this, the point at which the rights of the child and rights of the parent were in balance and the point at which conflict seen here as ‘pester power’ cannot be found).

Or, child’s influence may also be passive. For a child, a power source is passive if the parent feels its presence on the part of the child where there is no evidence of speech or overt actions on the part of the child. Mothers learn their children’s likes and dislikes and make purchase decisions accordingly.

Table 10.16 Number of mothers who give in to child’s pester power

	Number of mothers who give in to child’s pester power	Number of mothers who do not give in to child’s pester power	Total
Number	1	15	16
Ratio	6%	94%	100%

10.5.10. Number of mothers who apply consumer socialization goals to their children

As the literature states, mothers provide children a powerful role model during the coshopping and often explain to them what they are doing during the shopping process. By the time children get older, most of them acquire fairly sophisticated consumption orientations though this may differ by gender and class. Also, Ward and Wackman (1972) states that, these mothers influence, on consumer socialization of children is often relates with the demographic characteristics such as the socioeconomic status of the households. Teaching their children about price-quality relationships and nutritional values are their general goals (as cited in Gunther &Furnham, 1998).

In order to scale mother's mentioned consumer socialization goals, they were asked if they don't want to buy a product that the child ask to buy for, do they explain the reason why. (Example: I don't want to buy this chocolate because it's too much expensive or I don't want to buy this soft drink because it's useless for your health.)

As the results indicate (please see in Table 10.17), almost all mothers with a ratio of 98, apply consumer socialization goals to their children at the market place. An assumption can be done that, in these consumer socialization goals mothers may play a key role in formation of the child's knowledge about prices and nutritional values. Assumingly, kids are learning to use price as a criterion in evaluating products or developing knowledge about nutritional values by their mothers comment on the nutritional quality of various food options.

Table 10.17 Number of mothers who apply consumer socialization goals to their children

	Number of mothers who apply consumer socialization goals to their children	Number of mothers who do not apply consumer socialization goals to their children	Total
Number	100	2	102
Ratio	98%	2%	100%

Previous literature states that, the foods usually purchased or the comments made by parents about food products when actually shopping with their child may have a powerful influence on the child's knowledge about the consumption behavior toward various types of foods. With this process (orientation), the consumer knowledge structure of the children becomes more sophisticated as they grow older (Schneider (1987) as cited in Gunther &Furnham, 1998). Related with the issue, **in order to scale the number of mothers who apply orientation, they were asked whether they orient or do not orient their children during their coshopping. (Example, mother says: I don't want to buy this brand name chocolate to you but, I can buy that brand name to you.) Combined with the first question mothers were also asked whether their children influence by their orientation or not.**

As seen from the results in Table 10.18, a relatively high ratio of mothers (85) orient their children toward her choice of products during the coshopping process when children asked to buy a product and they didn't want to buy. Number of children influencing by their mothers' choice are also relatively high with a ratio of 97. An assumption can be done that, moms feel a strong need to teach their children and teaching them to be consumers is one of their jobs. Accordingly children show a strong obedient towards them.

Table 10.18 Number of mothers who apply consumer orientation and number of children who obey this orientation

	Number	Ratio		Number	Ratio
Number of mothers who orient their children	87	85%	Number of children who influence by orientation	84	97%
			Number of children who do not influence by orientation	3	3%
Number of mothers who do not orient their children	15	15%	Total	87	100%
Total	102	100%			

10.5.11. Number of children who express their own opinion related with the familial products and the number of mothers who obey these suggestions

Going through the assumption of modern families today, where children's opinions and participation in decision making processes are encouraged and taken seriously; Parents permission degree to their children to participate in the role of consumer taken in consideration. **In order to scale the degree of children's participation in decision making processes mothers were asked, during the coshopping process whether their kids express or do not express their own opinions related with the products which were for the use of whole family. (Example, kid says, "mother please don't buy that detergent, buy this detergent for us".) Also, mothers were asked whether they obey their kid's suggestion or not.**

As the results indicate in Table 10.19, children at a high ratio of 60 express their own opinions related with the familial products and accordingly mothers at a high ratio of 74 obey these suggestions. Clearly, though children do make a difference in family decisions as influencers and decision makers.

Table 10.19 Number of children who express their own opinion related with the familial products and the number of mothers who obey these suggestions

	Number	Ratio		Number	Ratio
Number of children who express their own opinion related with the familial products	61	60%	Number of mothers who obey the kid's suggestion	45	74%
			Number of mothers who do not-obey the kid's suggestion	16	26%
Number of children who do not-express their own opinion related with the familial products	41	40%	Total	61	100%
Total	102	100%			

As the Table 10.19 indicates, in order to scale the degree of children's participation in decision making processes the preceding measurement made on the number of children who express their own opinion related with the familial products. At the second part of the scale, a mutual evaluation were done and this time on the contrary, number of mothers who ask their kid's suggestion were calculated. **For this scale, mothers were asked (during the coshopping process) whether they ask or do not ask the kid's opinions related with the products which are for the use of whole family. (Example, mother asks the kid, "do you have any suggestion which toilet paper we buy to our home?") Related with the first question mothers were also asked whether they obey their kid's suggestion or not.**

As shown in Table 10.20, ratio of mothers who ask kid's suggestion represented with 47, as not asking mothers represented a bit more of it with a ratio of 53. The representation of these two groups appears to have been half. Also, results indicate that among the asking mothers group, almost all mothers obey their kid's suggestion with a ratio of 96. Although, mothers seem like the family's chief decision-makers at the market shopping we can assume that, the child's influence cannot be ignored.

Table 10.20 Number of mothers who ask kid's suggestion and number of mothers who obey these suggestions.

	Number	Ratio		Number	Ratio
Number of mothers who ask kid's suggestion	48	47%	Number of mothers who obey the kid's suggestion	46	96%
			Number of mothers who do not obey the kid's suggestion	2	4%
Number of mothers who do not ask kid's suggestion	54	53%	Total	48	100%
Total	102	100%			

10.5.12. Number of children who have their own bedroom TV set

As the literature indicates, television is the referent of greatest commonality for all, regardless of region, ethnicity, class position or any other cultural distinction (Lindlof and Meyer, 1998). Television is above else a popular cultural medium. More of it, television is another important influencer at the children's consumer socialization process in addition to influences of parents. It is no secret that children watch a lot of television. As a result they are constantly bombarded with messages about consumption, both contained in commercials and in the programs themselves.

Also, presence of a TV within the child's bedroom is a physical environment factor associated with increased TV watching. **In order to scale the assumptions above, mothers were asked whether there is a television set present within the kid's bedroom, or not.**

As the results indicate (please see Table 10.21), the majority of Turkish kids don't have any bedroom sets with a ratio of 76. Results also indicate that the literature about young children (age 0-6) watch television each day, often in their own bedroom's (AAP researches (2007)) is not an exact value for our families. Because, fairly large proportion of preschooler children haven't got any televisions in their bedrooms.

Table 10.21: Number of children who have their own bedroom TV set

	Number	Ratio
Number of children who have their own bedroom TV set	25	24%
Number of children who do not have their own bedroom TV set	77	76%
Total	102	100%

10.5.13. The frequency of children's TV viewing on weekdays and weekends

As the literature indicates, AAP recommends 2 hours or less of quality programming in a given day for children of age two and above. But, researches' show that more American children are watching on the contrary. American children between 2 and 17 years of age watch an average of 3.5 hours of television each day, with one in five watching for more than 5 hours (Gentile & Walsh, 2002). **Related with the assumptions' above, in order to scale the frequency of children's TV viewing, mothers were asked how much time does her child spend watching TV on weekdays and weekends.** As seen in Table 10.22, results indicate that, on weekdays children watch TV mostly between (1-2 hours) at a ratio of 72 and on weekends mostly between (3-4 hours) at a ratio of 54. Results shown that, they relatively spend more time in front of the TV on weekends.

Given the evaluating criteria of APA, results include an evidence that, 75% percent of the children in weekdays watching TV in APA's recommendations (2 hours or less). But on weekends 63% percent of children viewing TV more than APA's recommendations with a viewing amount of more than 3 hours or more. Assumption made that on weekdays, television is not an especially powerful force in these circumstances, for the children in these households. Children may have more out-of-school opportunities and perceived time-use alternatives in the home. But on weekends, they spend more time in front of the TV because the schools are off.

Table 10.22: The frequency of children's TV viewing on weekdays and weekends.

	The frequency of Weekdays viewing		The frequency of Weekends viewing	
	number	ratio	number	ratio
Any	3	3%	1	1%
1-2 hours	73	72%	37	36%
3-4 hours	24	23%	55	54%
5-6 hours	2	2%	8	8%
7 or more	0	0%	1	1%
Total	102	100%	102	100%

With respect to the topic above (The frequency of children's TV viewing on weekdays and weekends,) number of mothers who interfere with kids viewing in relation to the programs and time spending were scaled.

As the results indicate (please see Table 10.23), the majority of mothers interfere in their kids' TV viewing in relation to the programs at a ratio of 90 and also interfere in their kids' TV viewing in relation to the time spending at a ratio of 89.

Assuming that mothers are even unaware of the criteria considered to be APA, they keep children under control. They somehow learned that too much screen time can be a handicap for activities such as being physically active, reading, doing homework, playing with friends, and spending time with family. As a result, they know that, despite its advantages, too much television can be detrimental.

Table 10.23 Number of mothers who interfere with kids' viewing in relation to programs and time.

	Number	Ratio		Number	Ratio
Number of mothers who interfere with kid's TV viewing in relation to the programs	92	90%	Number of mothers who interfere with kid's TV viewing in relation to the time spending	91	89%
Number of mothers who do not interfere with kid's TV viewing in relation to the programs	10	10%	Number of mothers who do not interfere with kid's TV viewing in relation to the time spending	11	11%
Total	102	100%	Total	102	100%

In order to scale, mother's opinion about kid's heavy viewing amounts, **mothers were also asked more than how many hours mean excess viewing for them?**

As seen in Table 10.24, 58 percent (any %1+ 1 hour 20% + 2 hours 37 = 58% totally) of mother's were shown compatible opinions with APA's criterion (viewing less than 2 hours). Taking in consideration the results in the previous table (Table 10.23) together with the Table 10.24 an assumption can be done that mothers are highly aware of negative and positive effects of TV viewing.

Results predict that, in heavy viewing amounts mothers' educational levels are to be effective. As it was shown in Table 10.2, mothers have at least a university degree with a ratio of 86 (which assumes that it's a relatively well educated group). If a consideration also made with the existence of fathers (please see Table 10.5 these are nuclear families with a ratio of 85) an assumption can be done that kids can be considered to be affected by either mother or father.

Total results at the third part of the questionnaire may point that these families are of those families with higher material and cultural resources and those who often live at the contrary side of the families with less privacy in crowded homes.

Table 10.24 Mother's opinion about kid's excess viewing

	Numbers	Ratio
Any	1	1%
1 hour	20	20%
2 hours	38	37%
3 hours	24	23%
4 hours	11	11%
5 hours	6	6%
7 hours	0	0%
More than 8 hours	2	2%
Total	102	100%

10.5.14. Number of working mothers who create feelings of guilt against their kids in relation to their “working status”

Assuming that guilt can play a role in spending decisions of time-stressed parents (working mothers) and they may substitute material goods for time spent with their kids. **Working mothers were asked whether their inability to spend sufficient time with their children (to be working) create feelings of guilt against their kids and make them more responsible to their kid’s buying requests?**

As the results indicate in Table 10.25, relatively more than half of the working mothers (54%) do not create any guilty in relation to being at work and their working situation don’t make them more sensible through the kid’s buying requests. As shown in earlier results (please see in Table 10.3), the majority of the mothers are working-mothers at a ratio of 73. But also it was seen in Table 10.13 that, these (working mothers) are less predisposed to say yes to their children’s buying requests at the market place with a ratio of 58, than non-working mothers (72%).

An assumption can be done that, being in business is a normal situation for moms and do not require them to be more tolerant especially in kids’ consumption habits.

Table 10.25 Number of working mothers who create feelings of guilt against their kids in relation to their “working status”

	Number	Ratio
Number of working mothers who create feelings of guilt against their kids in relation to their working status	30	40%
Number of working mothers who do not create any feelings of guilt against their kids in relation to their working status	39	54%
Number of working mothers who have no answer	5	6%
Total number of working mothers	74	100%

10.5.15. Range of pester power conflicts among mothers and children

Literature states that, children are more likely to generate their pester power to influence parents decisions for especially child related products such as foods or toys (Ekstrom et.al. as cited in Blythe, 1997). In relation with the literature **mothers were asked at which product requests they(children) often argue with them. Product alternatives were given as food, toys, cloth and others.**

Shown in Table 10.15 even relatively less children (17%) use pester power toward their mothers, results in Table 10.26 indicate that, with a ratio of 65 kids having pester power conflicts about toys. If it was taken in consideration the other toy options, results indicate a ratio of 79 (Toy 65%+Food&Toy 10%+ Clothing&Toy 4%=79%), which we can assume that at least 3 in 4 children argue with their mothers about their toy requests.

Also seen that, both clothing (6%) and clothing & toy (4%) options were indicated with 10% and among them only one of the respondent is a boy. Results expose that, 9 in 10 children who argue with their mothers about their cloth requests are girls. In addition, boys mostly argue for toys at a ratio of 90 (including toy, food&toy, clothing&toy alternatives) than girls at a ratio of 65 (including toy, food&toy, clothing&toy alternatives).

Table 10.26 Range of pester power conflicts among mothers and children.

Product Alternatives	Total Number	Total Ratio	Boys Number	Boys Ratio	Girls Number	Girls Ratio
Food	8	8%	3	5%	5	11%
Toy	66	65%	42	75%	24	52%
Food &Toy	11	10%	8	14%	3	7%
Clothing	6	6%	0	0%	6	13%
Clothing &Toy	4	4%	1	1%	3	6%
Other	3	3%	1	1%	2	5%
Non-argues	4	4%	1	1%	3	6%
Total	102	100%	56	100%	46	100%

10.5.16. Nature of children's consumption in relation to advertisements

Since children do not have much disposable money of their own, they are dependent upon their parents for many of the items they wish to own. At this point, marketing to children is all about creating pester power, because advertisers know what a powerful force it can be. Children's desire to possess products they have seen on television is also said to lead to pester power which means that children pester their parents or other adults to buy things for them. **In order to scale these possible effects of TV advertisements on children's consumption process, mothers were asked whether their kids want or do not want products they see on TV. Mothers were also asked whether they buy or do not buy these requested products.**

As can be seen in Table 10.27, most of the children with a ratio of 81 request products they see on TV advertisements. But, the mothers of these group do not buy these products to their kids at a ratio of 64. Through the results an assumption can be done that, although mothers did not take, children continue to request in a relatively high ratio.

Table 10.27 Number of children who request products from TV advertisements and the number of mothers who buy these requested products.

	Number	Ratio		Number	Ratio
Number of children who request products from TV advertisements	83	81%	Number of mothers who buy these requested products	30	36%
			Number of mothers who do not buy these requested products	53	64%
Number of children who do not request any products from TV advertisements	19	19%	Total	83	100%
Total	102	100%			

Although, estimates of, the numbers of advertisements vary depending on the age of the child, the country in which they live and the channels they watch, literature suggests that, more than 10 minutes of every hour of TV programs were given over to advertising material (Kunkel and Gantz, 1992). The results indicate that many children spend a significant proportion of their lives watching advertising.

Assuming that, today television programs and advertising efforts are being aimed at increasingly younger children and the number of advertisements even on preschooler's television channels would come as a surprise to many adults who do not view preschool programming regularly, **in order to scale, possible effects of advertisements on children, mothers were asked in which direction TV advertisements affect their children. Do they think that ads affect their kids positively? Or do they think ads affect them adversely?**

Seen in Table 10.28, mothers at a ratio of 80 think that TV advertisements affect their kids negatively. Taking in consideration the children requesting products from TV advertisements at a ratio of 81 (Please see in Table 10.27) and mothers approaching TV advertisements as negative at a ratio of 80, an assumption can be done that practically same percent of children and mother having conflicts about TV advertisements.

Table 10.28 Number of mothers who consider TV advertisements as positive

	Number	Ratio
Number of mothers who consider TV advertisements as positive	11	10%
Number of mothers who consider TV advertisements as negative	81	80%
Number of mothers who have no answer	10	10%
The total number of mothers	102	100%

As the literature states, preschool age children are likely to view advertisements as objective statements of fact, that is, unbiased informational pieces designed to tell them information about a toy or food product. They lack the ability to comprehend an advertisement's intent to sell (Connor, 2006). The cognitive ability of the child explains this developmental pattern. Children less than 7 years of age tend to have difficulty recognizing the perspective of another person and as such they are unable to take the perspective of the advertiser. Thus because of their egocentric perspective kids perceive advertisements as being consistent with their own use of the advertised products. In contrast, because older children can take the perspective of the advertiser they are better able to recognize the fact that advertisements are simply attempts to persuade the viewer to buy their products (Ward & Wardman as cited in Kirsh 2006).

Related with the literature above, mothers were asked whether they educate or do not educate their kids on the real purpose of TV advertisements. (Example: mother tells the kid; “every food you see in TV advertisements is not something healthy. The main purpose of advertising is to sell products”) Results indicate that the majority of the mothers educate their kids about TV advertisements real intent at a ratio of 86. Comparing the children requesting products from TV ads at a ratio of 81 (Please see in table 10.27) with the mothers educating their kids about TV ads real intent at a ratio of 86 (Please see in table 10.29), an assumption can be done that mothers simultaneously providing training to their kids about the real intent of advertisements when they request products.

Table 10.29: Number of mothers educating their kids about TV advertisements real intent

	Number	Ratio
Number of mothers who educate their kids about TV advertisements real intent	88	86%
Number of mothers who do not educate their kids about TV advertisements real intent	14	14%
Total number of mothers	102	100%

11. CONCLUSIONS

As, Zaltman notes “*a far deeper and better understanding of consumer is a much harder task than describing the virtues of a product*” (2003:9)

A real understanding of the problem of consumer behavior must begin with a full recognition of the social character of consumption patterns including *Reference Groups*. Consumers belong to numerous Reference Groups each of which has some impact on their buying behavior (Schor,1999). Reference groups provide norms and values that can become the determining perspective for how a person thinks and behaves. An individual's reference group can range from family to a nation or a culture as family often is the best position to influence his or her consumption decisions.

A *family* not only shapes the individual's personality and general view of others, but also influences the children's values and attitudes about consumption. Members of the family are always in interaction with the consumer (children) and they give different ideas and suggestions or advice to them to buy a specific product or brand. Especially parental influence on children's shopping and saving behavior can be quite strong.

The aspect of childhood socialization that is particularly relevant to the study of consumer behavior is the *Consumer Socialization* which is defined as the process by which children acquire the skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary to function as consumers. Direct or indirect consumer socialization of children is often related to demographic characteristic such as the culture of the households, social class of the households, age and gender of the child. Different parenting styles and socialization patterns (direct or indirect) also vary from culture to culture in families (Hoyer & Macinnis, 2008).

Also in some situations, the socialization of children can be extended to family members of all ages. Arrows run both ways between the child and other family members and between the child and his or her friends. This two-directional arrow signifies that socialization is really a two way-street in which the young child is both socialized and influences those who are doing the socializing (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997).

There are diverse examples of how a family influences the consumption behavior of its members. The fact is that, children aren't born consumers but they become consumers when they complete a certain level. They begin their consumer ship early in life. At first, this process works slowly, than at older ages at 4 and 5 years process works very rapidly. By a median age of 5.5 years, they have been coming close by making many selections that parents actually buy for them. They have learnt to count and finally have a basic understand of concept of the money. They recognize that the retailer owns the products and you have to pay for them. Also, it's an important fact that children have ready money at this age. Somewhere between ages 4 and 6 children request permission to buy something while shopping with their parents (McNeal, 1999).

It's a matter of fact that, mom and her child are so strong at totally of all this consumer relationships. Lot of what she does, what she buys and what she demands of her family is centered on her children. They are partnerships at most of the consumption circumstances such as market shopping. The statistics of the questionnaire which are presented above support this idea.

According to the results of the questionnaire, 99 percent of all mothers go to market shopping at least 1 or 2 times in a week and also they do coshopping with their children at least 1 or 2 times in a week with a same ratio of 99. Both working mothers and non-working mothers (housewives) have high rates of coshopping with their children. Working mothers coshopp at least 1 or 2 times in a week at a ratio of 99 which is almost same as the rate of housewives ratio (100 percent). Dual parent's children participate in coshopping at a ratio of 99 as nearly as the same value in single parents (100 percent).

As the literature and results indicate, mothers are playing an important role in shaping child's consumer learning. There is no difference between mothers in relation to their occupations and marital status. Whether she is a housewife or a working mother with a harried life style or a single working mother with a much more crowded timetable.

To investigate the possible gender differences, ratios of coshopping boys and girls compared and no difference were found among the male and female children. Mothers

shop 1 or 2 times in a week with a ratio of 94 and 96 percent of them coshopp with their girls while 93 percent of them coshopping with their boys.

*Mothers socialize their sons and daughters equally,
in relation to their rate of coshopping.*

Also, the majority of children (almost all of them- 98%) asking to buy individual products for themselves at the market place but mothers have some interferences to buy or not to buy these products. Mothers of 61 percent are buying these products while 49 percent of them refusing to buy. Relatively, they go half and half with each other. As the literature mentions before, children's influence on purchase decision-making has also been shown to vary by the child-rearing attitudes of the parents (Torrance as cited in Valkenburg, 2000). If we take in consideration the non-buying mothers of 49 percent we can assume that children are credited with less influence when their mothers are more traditional or conservative. Mothers could be conservative about teaching her child financial issues or nutritional values. Because, literature suggests that, family members generally and directly affect behavior in the marketplaces also related with the financial issues. Parents who openly discuss financial matters such as developing saving accounts can greatly influence their children (Babin and Harris, 2011).

Although single mothers' frequency of coshopping is relatively same as with dual parents' frequency, single parents buy these requested products less than, dual parents with a ratio of 33. According to the results, taking in consideration the fewer number of single mothers in sample group (9 in 102), we can assume that dual family mothers are more likely to say yes to their children. An assumption can be done that, single mothers are more economically disadvantaged and in relation to this children in these families are less likely to have the resources to exert influence in purchase decision-making. Nevertheless, non-working mothers are more predisposed to say yes to their children's buying requests at the market place with a ratio of 72, if it is compared to working mothers with a ratio of 58.

Results are at the opposite side of the literature assumption which states, because the frequent extreme time pressure faced by working mothers, the children more of a say on

what they get simply because an exhausted mother is more likely to yield and say 'Yes'
(Holmes as cited in Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997).

It is noteworthy that, relatively more than half of the working mothers (54%) do not create any guilty in relation to being at work and their working situation don't make them more sensible through their kid's buying requests. The majority of the mothers are working-mothers at a ratio of 73. But also these (working mothers) are less predisposed to say yes to their children's buying requests at the market place with a ratio of 58, if compared with non-working mothers. An assumption can be done that, being in business is a normal situation for moms and do not require them to be more tolerant especially in kids' consumption habits.

Result assumes that, dual parents with non-working mothers are the most likely to yield and say 'yes' to their children, if it is compared with other three mother statuses which are (dual parents with working mothers, working single mothers and non-working single mothers).

Another important effect on children consumption is the brand awareness of young children which focuses on two aspects of brand awareness: brand recognition and brand recall. Researches into toddlers' and preschoolers' brand recognition (Derscheid et al., 1996; Fischer et al., 1991; Goldberg, 1990; Macklin, 1983; Mizerski, 1995) and brand recall (Macklin, 1983), makes clear that children's ability to recognize brands starts earlier in development than their ability to recall these brands (as cited in Valkenburg & Buijzen, 2005). Preschoolers usually have an excellent recognition memory, whereas their recall memory performance is considerably weaker (Valkenburg & Buijzen, 2005). If we are taking in consideration, a decision for a particular brand in the retail environment, only recognition is necessary because the various alternatives are alongside one another on the shelf. However, preschoolers usually have an excellent recognition memory, results indicate that 50 percent of the children satisfy themselves with any name products while 47 percent of them preferring specific brand name products.

As the literature states above, preschoolers have excellent brand recognition memories and an assumption can be done that children of the sample group recognize brand name products very well (group's median age is 5.5) and also they are expected to be high in demand of these well known brand name products. But in contrast, from the results it was seen that sampled group of children do not demand an expected high insisting on brand name products.

When comparing the literature often cited on children's pester power and the results of the present study, notable findings also emerge. Relatively fewer children with a ratio of 17 using pester power to their mothers, at the market place. Between 102 mothers, the ones giving in to her child's pester power is only 1 mother.

Taken as a whole, pestering is not a common influencing technique used by the children. Even pestering children are fewer, conclusion is that mothers don't give in this pester power.

As it was assumed that, pestering is not a common influencing technique between sampled children. However, conflict within the child–parent purchase relationship is not an absolute issue and when it is considered in a retail context, various operational dimensions can be identified. There are three main product categories that are of direct interest to most children: clothing, toys, and food. Each of the main groups offers a different context for the child–parent purchase relationship with the likelihood of conflict increasing from clothes to toys to food (Euromonitor, 2001, as cited in Nicholls & Cullen, 2004). Related with the sample group, 75 percent of pester power conflicts include toys and relatively children 3 in 4 arguing with their mothers about their toy requests. Also results, exposing that, 9 in 10 children are girls for arguing with their mothers about their clothing requests. Besides, boys mostly arguing for toy requests in a relatively high ratio of 89 than girls which indicates a ratio of 59.

In contrast to the literature, most of the conflicts within the child–parent purchase relationship occur related with toy requests instead of food.

Expectedly, results indicate that, almost all mothers with a ratio of 98 apply consumer socialization goals to their children at the market place. Assumption can be done that; in these consumer socialization goals mothers may play a key role in formation of the child's knowledge about prices and nutritional values. Assumingly, kids are learning to use price as a criterion in evaluating products or developing knowledge about nutritional values by their mothers comment on the nutritional quality of various food options.

We can assume that, moms feel a strong need to teach their children and teaching them to be consumers is one of their main jobs.

Mothers with a ratio of 85 orient their children toward her choice of products during their market shopping when children asked to buy a product and they didn't want to buy. But unexpectedly, number of children influencing by their mothers' choice are also relatively high with a ratio of 97. An assumption can be done that, moms feel a strong need to teach their children and teaching them to be consumers is one of their jobs. Accordingly children show a strong obedient to them.

Several characteristics were found that, children use fewer pester power to their moms and also show higher obedience to moms' choices.

As seen at the literature, dramatic changes in the family over the past decades documented and lamented by a large number of diverse authoritative sources. Some of these shifts predicted from a "traditional" family to a "new" family environment. In the "new" family, children encounter decision-making at an earlier age and are taking on greater roles and responsibilities in family purchases (Clulow (1993) as cited in Flurry, 2007). Researches indicate that children's influence extends far beyond what is traditionally thought to only include areas where children were primary product users. Children have been found to have strong influence on nontraditional areas such as the products which were for the use of whole family. Consistent with the literature, results shown that children relatively at a high ratio of 60 suggest their own opinions related with the familial products at the market place and accordingly mothers at a high ratio of 74 obey their kid's suggestions, even where the children were considered to be less knowledgeable than their mothers.

Clearly, though children do make a difference in family decisions as influencers and decision makers. Children's brand preferences even for familial products carry a significant weight in the decision, indicating that children's opinions were given "major importance".

An assumption also made that, today social forces, demographic shifts, and changes in parents' attitudes may all work to increase the child's status as an active decision-maker. Going through the assumption, number of mothers who ask their kid's suggestion and number of mothers who obey these suggestions at the market place were investigated. Results indicate that, mothers are relatively half to half for asking the kids' suggestion. Ratio of mothers asking their kid's suggestion are 47 as non-asking mothers represented by a bit less of it with a ratio of 53. Also, results indicate that among the asking mothers group, almost all mothers obey their kid's suggestion with a ratio of 96. Although, mothers seem like the family's chief decision-makers at the market shopping we can assume that, the child's influence cannot be ignored.

Going through the evidence of profound results which collectively suggest that in today's families, children are facing with a different decision-making environment.

Literature states that, children are increasingly being socialized by agents external to the family additionally they are also facing with an unprecedented technological environments. For preschooler children's television is the most effective mass media tool among the others with a significant role of socialization. It is no secret that children watch a lot of television. Literature indicates that, nearly half of the American kids have a television set in their bedroom and the location of a TV within the child's bedroom is a physical environmental factor associated with increased TV watching (Gorely et al., 2004). Not consistent with the literature, research result reveal that relatively high amount of Turkish kids (with a ratio of 76) don't have any bedroom TV sets.

We can assume that, the literature about young children (age 0-6) watch television each day, often in their bedrooms (APA researches (2007), is not an exact value for our families. Most of the kids in our sample group watching TV with their parent's

accompaniment which give rise to more parental control on TV viewing frequencies and content.

However, APA recommends 2 hours or less of quality programming in a given day for children of age two and above (Munasib & Bhattacharya, 2010), literature suggests that, 5–7-year-old American children are watching television more than APA's recommends with between 2.5 and 4.5 hours/day, respectively (Hager, 2006). Because the TV is the most effective mass media and vehicle for children's education and socialization, it should be used carefully otherwise it may have negative effects as well as positive ones. In relation to assumptions above, results indicate that sample group kids at a ratio of 75 are watching TV in weekdays suitable with APA's recommendations (2 hours or less). But at weekends at a ratio of 63 are viewing TV more than APA's recommendations. As viewing frequencies also give hint, expectedly great majority of the mother's interfere in their kid's TV viewing related with programs with a ratio of 90 and related with time spending with a ratio of 89. Also it was seen that, 58 percent of the mother's opinions (viewing less than 2 hours) is agreeable with APA's criterion.

The vast majority of the mothers are aware of both negative and positive effects of TV viewing and feeling totally responsible to protect their kids from that those of all negative effects.

Even, mothers of the sample group seemingly very responsible through TV viewing frequencies and contents, advertisements are also very attractive for children in preschool ages while cartoons, licensed spokescharacters, celebrities, fantasy, jingles and animations increase the level of this attractiveness. These significant elements attract children more to the ads and indirectly encourage to consume the products in those ads. The problem is that, many researchers agree that most children recognize the persuasive intent of advertising about eight years of age (Kunkel & Roberts, 1991 as cited in Gunter et.al. 2005). Under age of six, children are more attentive to commercials than older children, they do not discriminate between program content and commercials on television and are relatively trusting of advertisements. They treat television more like a word-of-mouth medium than like a commercial mass medium. Also, the more children are exposed to television

commercials, the more they request and prefer advertised products (Adler & Comstock as cited in Schudson, 1993). Consistent with literature, research results shown that, kids are in generality (81 percent) requesting products from their mothers that they have seen at TV advertisements. However, mothers of this requested group non-buying these products at a ratio of 64.

Although mothers don't favorable to fulfill TV advertisements' related requests, children keep on requesting at a relatively high frequency.

As the results indicate, mothers at a ratio of 80 think that TV advertisements affect their kids negatively. Taking in consideration, the ratio of children (81) requesting products from TV advertisements, it is possible to assume that practically same percent of children and mother having conflicts about TV advertisements. Results also indicate that the majority of the mothers educate their kids about TV advertisements real intent at a ratio of 86. Again, comparing the children requesting products from TV ads at a ratio of 81 with the mothers educating their kids about TV ads real intent at a ratio of 86, an assumption can be done that mothers simultaneously providing training to their kids about the real intend of advertisements when they request products.

Generally, mothers do not allow the requests from ads. They block most of those advertisement related requests on behalf of their children. Children in sample group families are receptive to external socialization agents but mainly shaped by mothers as future consumers.

The findings of this study support the notion that children are a viable target market, not only for products for their own personal use, but also for products to be consumed by the entire family. In contrast, in traditional married households, both parents are present, children are more likely to input of in the decision to purchase family products. Children are assimilating marketplace knowledge at earlier ages, but putting them in the unique position of developing brand loyalties may be exists at much older ages.

RECOMMENDATIONS

For researchers;

Supportive replications and extensions of this and other studies on children's purchase influence are needed. Future research directions are readily identifiable from the limitations of this research. An important issue to consider when evaluating these findings is the composition of sample. The sample for the working mother's group was much larger, in comparison to the smaller, non-working mother's sample. This limits also viable in dual parent and single parent categories.

Areas to consider in the future can be;

Child's income (amount of pocket money) As money is a valuable social resource, pocket money of the kids would be investigated. If they are getting pocket money, how and where they are spending would also be valuable findings.

Child's birth order Research literature suggests that, also status is an important social resource. Churchill and Moschis's (1979) suggestion (a child's birth order could be related to a child's participation in decision-making, with first-born children exerting greater purchase decision influence (as cited in Flurry, 2007)) could be taken in consideration.

Amount of children at households Decreasing birth rates could mean more households with fewer children and many households with single children. As a result, birth order may have less importance in contemporary family structures. Then, children's influence in purchase decisions in smaller households and in larger households would be taken in consideration.

The way parent and child act alone As the literature states, the way an interacting parent and the child behave is quite different than either of them would act alone (Rust as cited in Coffrey et. al., 2006). Because the child is present, mom feels a measure of joy even excitement in seeing her child so pleased with an item.

Deeper understanding the effects of ads Some new interesting areas of research would be the, a deeper understanding of positive and negative effects of advertisements. Changes through ages in defining advertisements and brand awareness, recognition, recall and loyalty stages would be taken in consideration.

Effect of popular licensed cartoon characters appearing on food packaging would be researched with kid's taste and snack preferences. Effects of animated spokes characters would be compared with licensed cartoon characters as the literature states, spokescharacters seem to be more effective in creating favorable brand attitudes than verbal cues or any other form of information presented on a food package, which suggests that this also might be true for licensed characters (Roberto et.al.2010). In addition, trust and familiarity with spokescharacters would be studied with the brands and products they promote.

Other areas to consider in the future would be the incorporation of fathers in data collection and an investigation of these hypotheses in a wider age range of children. These variables could provide a useful knowledge in targeting children as consumers.

For families;

Children's identities shouldn't be defined by their consumer habits; yet that is the main way they see themselves reflected in the media—as consumers and advertisers are targeting younger and younger children with this message. At this situation, parents of young children have an important role to play in protecting their kids from this invasive marketing, and in educating them about advertising from an early age.

Parents should be aware that advertising is a powerful force. If you don't help your child make sense of advertising, your child may be influenced in ways that you don't value. As a parent, be a guide to help your child become aware of advertising and how it affects him or her. As a starting point, keep young children away from advertising as much as possible.

The American Psychological Association recommends that advertising targeted to children under the age of 8 should be restricted.

Instead of letting young children watch TV, have them watch age-appropriate, pre-recorded movies and TV shows. If you record TV shows, skip through the commercials when your child watches the show. If you are watching a TV show live with your child, mute the channel during commercials and do jumping jacks together.

Make shopping lists before you go shopping. Talk about what you're going to buy and why. If your child sees something in the store that he or she saw advertised, say, "That's not on our list. We can think about it for another shopping trip, but we aren't buying that today." If your child continues bringing up the topic of that item, talk through why you think it's worth buying—or not.

Parents should be concerned about that excessive materialism can have an effect on the development of their children's self image and values. A healthy society raises children to be responsible citizens rather than just consumers.

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Turkish Version Of The Questionnaire

Soruların ANNE tarafından cevaplanmasını, birden fazla çocuğunuzun olması durumunda, sadece 1.Bölüm’de belirttiğiniz bir çocuğunuzu dikkate alarak işaretlemenizi ve cevabınızı soruların altındaki seçeneklerden sadece birini işaretleyerek belirtmenizi rica ederiz!

1.BÖLÜM

Adınız soyadınız : Yaşınız:.....

Eğitiminiz: ilkokul: (....) Ortaokul: (....) Lise: (....) Üniversite: (....)
Yüksek Lisans: (....)

Çalışıyor musunuz ? Evet(....) Hayır (....) Mesleğiniz:.....

Çocuğunuzun cinsiyeti Kız (....) Erkek (....) Çocuğunuzun yaşı

Aile yaşam tipiniz seçeneklerden hangisine uymaktadır ?
Anne, baba, çocuk (....) Anne, baba, çocuk, aile büyükleri (....) Bekar anne (....)

Ailenizin ortalama aylık geliri aşağıdaki seçeneklerden hangisine uymaktadır ?
5.000 TL altı (....) 5.000 – 10.000 TL arası (....) 10.000 TL ve üstü (....)

2.BÖLÜM

Bir hafta içerisinde mutfak alışverişiniz için kaç kez markete gidersiniz?
Hiç (....) 1-2 (....) 3-4 (....) 5-6 (....) 7 ve daha fazla (....)

Bu ziyaretlerinizin kaçında çocuğunuzu yanınızda götürürsünüz?
Hiç (....) 1-2 (....) 3-4 (....) 5-6 (....) 7 ve daha fazla (....)

Alışveriş sırasında oda kendisine bireysel ürünler bulur, almanızı ister mi?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Markette talep ettiği bu ürünlerde belirli markaları mı tercih eder?
(Kola istiyorsa, Coca Cola’da ısrar mı eder? Yoksa kola ihtiyacının karşılanması yeterlidir, başka bir markanın kolası da olsa kabul eder mi?)
Belirli markaları seçer (....) Marka fark etmez, ör: kola olması yeterlidir (....)

Markette talep ettiği bu ürünleri, çoğunlukla alır mısınız?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Bir ürünü almayı çok arzu ettiğinde ağlayarak, acındırarak, tehdit ederek (örnek: Ben de o zaman akşam yemeğimi yemeyeceğim gibi) baskı uygular mı? Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Bu baskı sonucunda pes ederek istediklerini alır mısınız?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Almak istemediğiniz taktirde neden almak istemediğinizi ona açıklar mısınız? (örnek: Bu çikolatayı almak istemiyorum çünkü çok pahalı yada bu gazozu almak istemiyorum çünkü sağlığına faydası yok gibi)
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Almak istemediğiniz taktirde onu başka bir ürüne yönlendirir misiniz?
(örnek: Sana bu marka çikolata almam ama şu markanın çikolatasını alabilirim gibi)
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Yönlendirdiğiniz ürünü kabul eder ve elindeki üründen vazgeçer mi?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Market alışverişiniz sırasında O SIZE bazı genel aile tüketimiyle ilgili ürünlerde fikrini belirtir mi? (örnek: Çocuğunuz o deterjanı almayalım, bunu alalım anne der mi ?)
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Fikrini dinler ve onun yönlendirdiği ürünü alır mısınız?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Market alışverişiniz sırasında SİZ ONA bazı genel aile tüketimiyle ilgili ürünlerde fikrini sorar mısınız?
(örnek: Çocuğunuza evimize hangi tuvalet kağıdını alalım diye sorar mısınız?)
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Fikrini dinler ve onun yönlendirdiği ürünü alır mısınız?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

3.BÖLÜM

Çocuğunuzun yatak odasında televizyon var mı ? Evet (....) Hayır (....)

ÇOCUĞUNUZ **hafta içi** bir günde ortalama kaç saat televizyon izler ?
Hiç (....) 1 - 2 (....) 3 - 4 (....) 5 - 6 (....) 7 ve daha fazla (....)

ÇOCUĞUNUZ **hafta sonu** bir günde ortalama kaç saat televizyon izler ?
Hiç (....) 1 - 2 (....) 3 - 4 (....) 5 - 6 (....) 7 ve daha fazla (....)

Hangi programları izleyebileceğine dair müdahalede bulunur musunuz?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Televizyon izleme süresi ile ilgili müdahalede bulunur musunuz?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Sizce kaç saatten sonrası çocuğunuz için fazla televizyon izleme süresidir ?
Hiç (....) 1 (....) 2 (....) 3 (....) 4 (....) 5 (....) 6 (....) 7 (....)
8 ve daha fazla (....)

4.BÖLÜM

Çalışan bir anne iseniz, bu siz de çocuğunuza yeterli zaman ayıramamaktan dolayı suçluluk duymanıza ve isteklerinde daha hassas davranmanıza neden oluyor mu?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

İstediklerinin alınıp-alınmaması doğrultusunda çocuğunuzla aranızda tartışma yaşadığınız anlar çoğunlukla hangi ürün grubu için olur?
Gıda (....) Oyuncak (....) Giysi (....) Diğer (....)

Televizyon reklamlarında gördüğü ürünlerin alınmasını talep eder mi?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Siz, çoğunlukla bu isteğini yerine getirmeye çalışır mısınız?
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Televizyon reklamlarının çocuğunuzun tüketim alışkanlıklarına nasıl yansıdığını düşünüyorsunuz?
Olumlu (...) Olumsuz (....)

Televizyon reklamlarının ana amacı ile ilgili çocuğunuza bilgi verir misiniz ?
(ör:Reklamlar tüketim amaçlıdır. Reklamlarda gördüğün her gıda sağlıklı gıdalar değildir gibi bilgiler)
Evet (....) Hayır (....)

Appendix B: English Version Of The Questionnaire

We request mothers to answer the questions, if you have more than one child please answer the questions by taking in consideration with your one child you mentioned at the first part of the questionnaire and please sign your answers with only one option stated under the questions!

1.PART

Name surname:.....Age:.....

Education: Primary school: (....) Secondary School: (....) High school: (....)

University graduates: (....) Master's degree: (....)

Working status: Yes (....) No: (....) Occupation:

Child's gender: Girl: (....) Boy: (....) Child's age:.....

Which option is suitable for your family structure ?

Mother, father, child (....) Mother, father, child, family grandparents (....)

Single mother (....)

Which option is suitable for your average family income, as if considered within a monthly median?

under 5.000 TL (....) between 5.000 – 10.000 TL (....) 10.000 TL and more (....)

2.PART

In a week, how many times do you visit a market for culinary shopping?

Any (....) 1-2 (....) 3-4 (....) 5-6 (....) 7 and more (....)

In these visits, how many times do you take your child with you?

Any (....) 1-2 (....) 3-4 (....) 5-6 (....) 7 and more (....)

During your shopping, does your child find individual products for herself/himself and ask you to buy these products?

Yes (....) No (....)

Do these products include brand name products?

(If he asks for cola, does he insist on Coca Cola? Or, eliminating his cola need is enough for him and he accepts any name branded cola)

He chooses brand name products (....)

Brand name does not important, e.g.: cola is enough (....)

Do you generally, buy the products that your child demanded?

Yes (....) No (....)

Does he/she use pester power (by crying, by exciting pity or by threatening example; Then I am not going to eat my dinner) when he/she has too much desire to buy a product during your shopping process ?

Yes (....) No (....)

Do you give in and buy these products after your child's pester power?

Yes (....) No (....)

When you don't want to buy a product that your child asked for, do you explain the reason why?

(Example: I don't want to buy this chocolate to you because it's too much expensive or I don't want to buy this soft drink to you because it's useless for your health.)

Yes (....) No (....)

Do you orient your child to your choice of products when he/she asked to buy a product during your shopping process when you didn't want to buy?

(Example: I don't want to buy this brand name chocolate but, I can buy that brand name chocolate to you.)

Yes (....) No (....)

Does your child accept your orientation and give up his/her insistence?

Yes (....) No (....)

During your shopping process, does YOUR CHILD EXPRESS his/her own opinions related with the products which were for the use of whole family?

(Example: Does your child say, "mother please don't buy that detergent, buy this detergent for us?") Yes (....) No (....)

Do you listen to him/her opinion and buy his/her suggested product?

Yes (....) No (....)

During your shopping process, do YOU ASK your child's opinion related with the products which were for the use of whole family?

(Example: Do you ask your child, "which toilet paper do you prefer to buy to our home?")

Yes (....) No (....)

Do you listen to him/her opinion and buy his/her suggested product?

Yes (....) No (....)

3.PART

Does your child have a TV set located in his/her bedroom?

Yes (....) No (....)

How much time does your child spend watching TV on weekdays on the average?

Any (....) 1-2 (....) 3-4 (....) 5-6 (....) 7 and more (....)

How much time does your child spend watching TV on weekdays on the average?
Any (....) 1-2 (....) 3-4 (....) 5-6 (....) 7 and more (....)

Do you interfere with the programs your child watches on TV ?
Yes (....) No (....)

Do you interfere with the amount of time your child spends on TV ?
Yes (....) No (....)

In your opinion, more than how many hours means excessive television viewing for your child?
Any (....) 1(....) 2(....) 3(....) 4(....) 5(....) 6 (....) 7(....) 8 and more (....)

4.PART

If you are a working mother, does your inability to spend sufficient with your child cause any feelings of guilt and make you more responsible to your child's buying requests?
Yes (....) No (....)

Generally, for which group of products, do you and your child argue to buy or not to buy these requests ?
Food (....) Toy (....) Cloth (....) Other (....)

Does your child request to buy the products he/she has seen on TV advertisements?
Yes (....) No (....)

Do you generally buy the products that he/she requested?
Yes (....) No (....)

In your opinion, how do TV advertisements effect your child's consumption behavior?
Positively (....) Negatively (....)

Do you inform your child related with the real aims of the TV advertisements?
(Example: advertisements are for consumption. Every food you see in TV advertisements may not be the healthy ones.)
Yes (....) No (....)

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