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**Consumer Socialisation in Jordan: A Study of Father-Child Dyads in the  
Convenience Grocery and Food Products**

**Abdel Halim Issa Al-Zu'bi**

**A Thesis Submitted to the University of Huddersfield in Partial Fulfilment of the  
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**The University of Huddersfield**

**Ph.D.**

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## **Abstract**

Parents play different consumer roles through developing the general cognitive abilities of their young children related to consumption issues and mediating the influence of other socialisation agents such as peers and TV commercial advertising on their kids. There is no research examining the influence of fathers' consumer role, based on dyadic responses, on children's shopping consumer behaviour related to grocery and food products. The study responds to this gap of knowledge and utilises the consumer socialisation approach to examine the relative influence of Jordanian fathers' communication patterns, the cognitive development of children ages 8-12, and the structural variables on children's shopping consumer skill, knowledge, and attitudes that related to convenience grocery and food products. The study investigates young children's perception of fathers' mediation the influence of TV commercial advertising, revises, and validates the scales of fathers' communication structures. The study also investigates the degree of similarity "modelling" between young children and their fathers resulting from father-child interaction in shopping milieu.

A combination of exploratory and survey research design is employed to address the research objectives. Ten-one hour semi-structured focus group discussions and eleven structured personal interviews face-to-face experts' survey were firstly conducted to refine the research problem. Based on proportionate stratified random sampling technique, group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire and drop-off-pick-up self-administered questionnaire were respectively employed to solicit father-child dyadic responses (n = 916). The research data were analysed through six levels of analyses.

The results show that children's learning of shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products are influenced by fathers' communication patterns, children's cognitive development, and the gender of children. The effect size of children's cognitive development is more explanatory than fathers' communication patterns relating to children's shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes. The priority of fathers' consumer socialisation goals is related to fathers' co-shopping with their young children and fathers' mediation of the influence of commercial advertising on their young children. Fathers' communication patterns are varied by children cognitive development, the gender of young children, and household income. The relative influences of different communication patterns on young children's consumer role are chiefly associated with fathers' pluralistic tendency since Jordanian fathers are more likely engaged in a high concept-oriented communication structure. The results confirmed that young Jordanian children imitate their fathers' consumer attitudes and behaviours in the shopping milieu.

The results fill some gaps in the existing literature of children's consumer behaviour, afford several managerial implications for marketers and for future research in children's consumer socialisation behaviour, and provide a new opportunity to understand the diversity between culture orientations within the context of consumer socialisation behaviour.

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## **Chapter One**

### **1.1 Introduction**

This chapter is aimed at providing an overview of the research problem, objectives and questions, overall hypothesis, methodology, and research contributions. It also describes the structure of the thesis.

### **1.2 Background to the study**

There is a growing body of knowledge about the consumer behaviour of children around the world since children constitute a future market for all goods and services (Gunter and Furnham, 1998; McNeal and Ji, 2003). Scholarly, scant research in children's consumer behaviour was conducted in the 1960s, such as child's influence in family decision-making process (Berey and Pollay, 1968) and a child as new market (McNeal, 1969). The substantial extension of research occurred in mid-1970s through Ward (1974) and his colleagues Wackman and Wartella's (1977 a) contributions. In 1974, Ward weaved the scattered research and essays from different fields relating to children's consumer behaviour into coherent structure, which is introduced in consumer behaviour research by "children's consumer socialisation" (McLeod, 1974). In 1977, Ward and his colleagues classified the family influences on children's consumption behaviour into family behaviour variables and family patterns variables, which have direct influence on the development of general cognitive abilities of young children and indirect influence on the development of children's consumer skills (Ward et al., 1977 a).

In that context, the family is the primary source of cultural transmission in society and remains essential to many core questions in consumer research for the following reasons:

- It serves as a consuming, producing, distributing, and socialising unit interacting with other elements of society (Solomon et al., 1999; Schiffman et al., 2001).
- The intergenerational influence of consumption patterns and shopping orientations flow primarily from parent to child (Arndt, 1972; Saunders et al., 1973; Moore-Shay and Lutz, 1988; Moore-Shay and Berchmans, 1996).
- Parents as the core of the family unit play a crucial role in developing the shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes of their young children either directly

through deliberate training or indirectly as role models of consumer behaviour to their children (McNeal, 1969; Ward, 1974; Ward et al., 1977 b; Moschis and Churchill Jr, 1978; Moschis, 1985; McNeal, 1992; Gunter and Furnham, 1998; Carruth and Skinner, 2001; Spungin, 2004; Grant and Stephen, 2005; Strachan and Pavie-Latour, 2006).

In relation to parent-child interaction in shopping milieu, the food purchases are mostly the main area that kids are free to buy (Setlow, 2001) and grocery shopping is a marketplace function that is performed on a regular basis (Ahuja et al., 1998; Pettersson et al., 2004). Parent-child co-shopping gives children the opportunity to acquire in-store shopping skills. Parents intentionally teach their young children how to buy the right products which in turn assist them to buy products independently (Carruth and Skinner, 2001; Pettersson et al., 2004; Spungin, 2004; Wilson and Wood, 2004). A child purchasing requests and parental yielding rely on collaborative communication (Atkin, 1978; Isler et al., 1987; Rust, 1993; Darian, 1998; Hassan, 2002; Ozgen, 2003; Pettersson et al., 2004; Nørgaard et al., 2007). Children's shopping consumer role is varied according to the type of products, children's ages, gender, family type, and the frequency of parent-child co-shopping (Moschis et al., 1977; Ahuja et al., 1998; Meyer and Anderson, 2000; Geuens et al., 2003; Ozgen, 2003; Kamaruddin and Mokhlis, 2003; Dotson and Hyatt, 2005). There are few comprehensive studies investigated the influence of family demographic variables on the consumer socialisation of children (Neeley, 2005).

There is an argument that the influence of parents' consumer goals "the family variables" on children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes, transmitted through the frequency of parent-child interaction processes is ambiguous (Engel et al., 1978) because most of consumer instructions between parents and children do not take place directly (Neeley, 2005). Furthermore, parents have few educational goals in mind and make limited attempts to teach their children the consumer role. Therefore, the researchers of children's consumer behaviour have turned their attention to the influence of family communication structures and patterns "family patterns variables" on the development of children's learning of consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes (John, 1999).

In addition, there is an argument that television advertising oriented young children urging them to ask for products with greater intensity and frequency than they do in its absence. Children ask their parents to buy the food products they have seen advertised on TV (Ward and Wackman, 1974; Ward et al., 1986 and 1987; Isler et al., 1987; Dotson and Hyatt, 2000; Spungin, 2004; Marquis, 2004). The higher the level of television viewing leads to parent-child conflict across British, American, and Japanese families (Robertson et al., 1989). On the other hand, the mass media induces young people to discuss consumption matters among themselves or with their parents and peers (Moore and Stephens, 1975; Churchill Jr and Moschis, 1979). The debate about who is responsible for controlling and mediating the effects of TV commercial advertising continues to grow (Dotson and Hyatt, 2000). Should parents, the television industry, the government, or independent organizations mediate the effects of television on children's consumption behaviour? (Isler et al., 1987; Armstrong and Brucks, 1988; Walsh et al., 1998). Parental responsibility is manifested in the efficacy of parents' consumer role to mediate and monitor children's television viewing. In this respect, there is evidence that the family communication patterns "family patterns variables" are related to parental control of consumption and media usage (Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis, 1985; Carlson et al., 1990 a and b; Mangleburg and Bristol, 1998; Rose et al., 1998; Rose, 1999; Chan and McNeal, 2003 and 2006).

Furthermore, there is scant research examining children's consumer socialisation behaviour in collectivist cultures (Rose et al., 1998; John, 1999; Rose, 1999; Chan and McNeal, 2003; Bakir et al., 2005; Bristol and Mangleburg, 2005) and developing countries (Hassan, 2002). The measurements of the existing research were based on theoretical frameworks developed in Western contexts and applied on non-Western social setting (Cao and Price, 1997; Mukherji, 2005). The utmost of previous research, related to the influence of the frequency, structure, and quality of parent-child interaction "parent-child communication patterns" has focused on parents or mother-child interaction rather than father-child interaction (Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis et al., 1984; Ward et al., 1986; Foxman et al., 1989; Rust, 1993; Carlson et al., 1994; Rose et al., 1998; Ahuja et al., 1998; Hassan, 2002; Ozgen, 2003; Chan and McNeal, 2003; Mukherji, 2005; Chan

and McNeal, 2006; Nørgaard et al., 2007). Little research has focused on the influence of fathers' consumer role on children's consumption behaviour. Therefore, it is useful to examine the family communication variables at the level of father-son or father-daughter communication (Moschis, 1985; Moschis et al., 1986; John, 1999; Hsieh et al., 2006). In relation to fathers as socialisation agents within Arab culture, Hassan (2002) found that young children of ages 9-12 are more frequently co-shopping with their fathers than do with Egyptian mothers despite their being non-working mothers. Fathers are the authority figure of a family in Arab culture; father has the first and the last word and the religion drives every thing. Young children are treasured, adored, indulged, and taught to conform to norms and conventional Arab society. (TRADOC DESINT handbook 2, 2006: 12).

While little research has relied on parent-child dyadic responses, there is no research based on dyadic responses examining the influence of father-child communication patterns on adolescents or young children's shopping behaviour related to convenience grocery and food products. In this respect, John (1999) has clearly identified the pressing need to conduct research in the development of children's shopping consumer skills. In addition, shopping, as a source of influence on young consumers, has never been examined empirically, yet it appears to be a major activity for children (Dotson and Hyatt, 2005: 37). Hsieh et al. (2006) examined the influence of Taiwanese fathers and mothers' communication structures on their children's brand attitudes of ages 10-12. They noted that more studies are necessary for investigating the parental influences among parent-child dyads.

In brief, based on father-child dyadic responses, the current research responds to this gap of knowledge and extends the research into Jordanian children of ages 8-12. It investigates the relative influence of the frequency, type, and quality of father-child interaction on shopping milieu, the cognitive development of children ages 8-12, and the structural variables on children shopping consumer role relating to convenience grocery and food products and young children's perception of fathers' mediation on the influence of TV commercial advertising.

### **1.3 The research questions**

The research seeks to answer the following questions:

- Does young children's perception of fathers' communication structures differ from adolescents' perception of parents' communication structures?
- What are the general characteristics of young children's shopping consumer role related to convenience grocery and food products and fathers' orientations and attitudes towards developing the consumer role of their young children?
- What are the effects of the social structural variables on fathers' communication patterns?
- Are fathers' communication patterns effectively mediating the influence of TV commercial advertising on young children's consumption behaviour?
- What are the relative influences of fathers' communication patterns on children's shopping consumer role.
- What are the relative influences of young children's cognitive development and gender on their shopping consumer role?
- What is the relative influence of social structural variables on young children's shopping consumer role.
- To what degree do young children imitate their fathers' shopping consumer role related to convenience grocery and food products?

#### **1.4 Research objectives**

The objectives of this research are:

- to purify and validate the scales of family communication structures according to the young children's perception of fathers' communication structures;
- to describe the general characteristics of (a) young children's shopping consumer role related to convenience grocery and food products and (b) fathers' orientations and attitudes towards developing the consumer role of their young children of ages 8-12;
- to measure the relative influence of the *developmental role* of Jordanian's fathers on transferring the consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes to their young children relating to shopping milieu-convenience grocery and food products as a result of father-child communication patterns;

- to measure the relative influence of the *gate-keeping role* of Jordanian's fathers on mediating the influence of TV commercial advertising on their children's consumption behaviour as a result of father-child communication patterns;
- to measure the relative influence of young children's cognitive development, the gender of young children, and family demographic variables on father-child communication patterns and children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products; and
- to investigate the degree of similarity/dissimilarity "modelling" between young children and their fathers related to shopping consumer role as a result of father-child communication patterns.

### **1.5 The overall hypothesis**

The overall hypothesis assumes that the frequency, type, and quality of father-child interaction in conjunction with other independent variables would:

- (a) Not make obvious changes in the young children's consumer role related grocery and food shopping behaviour.
- (b) Create different levels of consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes among young children of ages 8-12 years old related to grocery and food shopping behaviour.
- (c) Mediate the effect of television commercial advertising on young children or encourage the young children to rely on another socialisation agent as a source of information for the grocery and food products such as mass media and peers.
- (d) Arise modelling to fathers' choice rules in evaluating, selecting grocery and foods products and exhibit similar attitudes and behaviours towards marketplace practices.

### **1.6 Research methodology**

The most useful distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is based on the purpose of the analysis rather than data collection method (Rust, 1993: 70). Therefore, research in hand is heavily relied on positivistic paradigm "quantitative approach" since it is aimed at investigating a gap of knowledge existing in literature review and measuring the relative effects of fathers' consumer roles on children's learning of shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes. Simultaneously, qualitative approach was adopted to refine the research problem through splitting it into major issues, determining

the types of grocery and food products of research model, and developing the questionnaire measurements; structured personal interview experts' survey and semi-structured focus group discussions were firstly conducted. *Before* collecting the primary data, a convenience sample of 100 young children was chosen from five schools to initially purify and validate the scales of family communication structures from young children's perspectives. In relation to collecting the primary data, group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire and drop-off-pick-up self-administered questionnaire were respectively employed to solicit children and fathers dyads responses. Based on the age of children, a proportionate stratified random sampling technique was employed to choose the respondents of the two samples ( $n = 916$ ). Fathers' sample is entirely corresponded with children's sample since the research design is based on dyads responses. With respect to analysis techniques, while the semi-structured focus groups discussions analysed via content analysis, Cross-tabulation Pearson chi-square test, MANOVA and ANOVA techniques were used to analyse the data of experts' survey. Measures of location, correlation analysis, cross-tabulation Pearson chi-square test and Cramer's V coefficient, factor analysis, one-way MANOVA associated with Tukey-HSD test, one-way ANOVA, one-sample  $t$  test, the independent-samples  $t$  test, the paired-samples  $t$  test, and multiple regression analyses were employed to describe and test the research hypotheses.

### **1.7 Research contribution**

The research objectives, the drawbacks of previous research with their justifications as stated in section 6.2 of chapter 6, and research contributions to knowledge and theory as stated in section 11.4 of chapter 11 determine the relative importance of research contributions to the consumer socialisation theory. Overall, the research contributions are as follows:

- There is no research in children's marketing literature at the level of collectivist cultures or individualistic cultures alike examining the influence of fathers' communication patterns on the shopping consumer role of young children in retailing milieu related to grocery and food products.

- This is the first study discrete the family communication structures into father-son and father-daughter communication, purifies, validates, and measures them according to young children's perception of fathers' communication structures.
- The first study measures the similarity "modelling" as a process between fathers' consumer role and young children's shopping consumer skills and attitudes in retailing milieu.
- The first study measures the differences in the shopping consumer role among five groups of children of varying ages, namely 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, and 6<sup>th</sup> graders of students since previous research divided the ages of young children into groups (McNeal and Ji, 1999; Rummel et al., 2000; Chan and McNeal, 2003).
- No single research examined the relationship between fathers' consumer socialisation goals, fathers' general orientations and attitudes towards marketplace practices, and young children's perception of fathers' communication structures.
- The research model clearly distinguishes between the direct and indirect influences of independent variables on children's shopping consumer role.
- the majority of previous research focused only on young children's purchase requests and their attempts to influence mothers in buying grocery and food products such as breakfast cereal, snack foods, and toys or children's clothes and shoes; it does investigate the choice rules used by young children in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products.
- This is the second study in children's consumer socialisation behaviour relates fathers consumer goals according to fathers' responses as independent variable to young children's perception of fathers communication structures as dependent variable. In this regard, Moschis and Mitchell (1986) measured the independent variables through adolescents' responses while the dependent variables were measured through mothers' responses.

Hence, these contributions are expected to enrich the theoretical frameworks of children's consumer socialisation behaviour and afford new opportunity to understand the diversity between culture orientations within the context of consumer socialisation behaviour.

## **1.8 Structure of the thesis**

In addition to this chapter, the thesis comprises ten chapters. Chapter two provides an overview of the theoretical framework of children's consumer socialisation behaviour. While chapter three presents the characteristics of children shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes at the concrete operational stage/analytical stage, chapter four discusses the influence of parent-child interaction on children's consumption behaviour in shopping milieu. Chapter five conceptualises the influence of family communication structures and patterns on developing the consumer role of children and mediating the effect of commercial advertising on children's consumption behaviour. Likewise, while chapter six justifies the research model, chapter seven describes the research methodology employed to obtain the research objectives. Chapter eight shows the implementation process, strategies, and the major findings of the exploratory research. Chapter nine presents the purification and measurement process that are used in revising and validating fathers' communication structures. Chapter ten consists of three sections. The first section demonstrates the characteristics of young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes resultant to father-child interaction in retailing milieu and fathers' orientations and attitudes towards developing the consumer role of their young children. While the second section tests the research hypotheses and presents the research findings, the third section discusses these findings. Lastly, chapter eleven presents the research conclusion, the managerial implications of research, research contribution to the knowledge and theory, research limitations, and recommendations for future research.

## Chapter Two

### The Theoretical Framework of Children's Consumer Socialisation Behaviour

#### 2.1 Introduction

Prior to reviewing the literature of children's consumer socialisation behaviour in marketplace activities, the rational step is to review the background of the theoretical frameworks of research. Hence, this chapter is considered as a background for the subsequent chapters. It is aimed at presenting the definitions of socialisation, consumer socialisation, and children's market. It presents the importance of consumer socialisation behaviour, the scope and the approaches of the consumer socialisation behaviour to derive the research approach. Finally, it will demonstrate the general consumer socialisation model.

#### 2.2 Definitions

*Socialisation* is the whole process of developing specific patterns of individuals' behaviours and experiences as a result of their interactions with other people (Zigler et al., 1982). Baumrind (1980: 640) says, "Socialisation is an adult-initiated process by which children acquire habits and values congruent with their culture through insight, training, and imitation". These definitions stress the process of orientations and the priority of social influences. Hence, socialisation is viewed as a social process by which norms, attitudes, motivations, and behaviours are transmitted from specific sources "socialisation agent" to the learner (Moschis, 1978) that involves continual adjustment between the individual and situation changes in environment (Bellenger and Moschis, 1982).

With respect to the socialisation types, the sociologists have distinguished between primary and secondary socialisation. Primary socialisation is the process by which a child becomes a participant member of society. Secondary socialisation occurs as the individual enters a specific social world that assigns him a specific social role (Berger and Berger, 1979).

***In relation to consumer socialisation***, the starting-point of identifying the research fields in children's consumer socialisation behaviour is given to Ward's contributions (1974) through his article "Consumer Socialisation." Therefore, most of the researchers'

investigations into consumer behaviour of the children are relied on Ward's (1974:2) definition in the conceptualisation of their research models. In this regard, he defined the consumer socialisation as "*the process by which young people acquire skills, knowledge, and attitude relevant to their effective functioning as consumers in the marketplace.*" This definition mirrors the learning process of children's acquisition of direct and indirect skills and places a great deal of emphasis on reasoned action, cognitive consistency, rational and utilitarian type of information acquisition and outcomes (O'Guinn and Faber, 1987). It also reflects the function of age or stage in life cycle, social structural constraints and socialisation agents, learning processes, and learning property (Moschis, 1987).

On the other hand, McLeod (1974) and Aldous (1974) commented on Ward's article. Relying on social perspectives, Aldous (1974: 15) noted "Ward introduces us to the important problem of consumer socialisation in his thoughtful review paper but leaves us with more fundamental questions: consumer socialisation for what? Is the ultimate goal of such research to develop the information-processing capabilities of consumers for making cost-quality judgments, or is it to reduce the success-failure ratio among the industries, profit organizations and governmental agencies. Is it interested in communicating with young people?" By contrast, McLeod (1974: 16) indicated, "Ward has done a remarkable job of organizing the promise of underdeveloped research field of consumer socialisation. It is difficult to weave the scattered and often methodologically flawed set of available studies into the coherent structure he imposes on the area. Ward invokes the work of Kohlberg as a basis for theoretical integration without showing the application with much specificity." This definition gave focus to a new generation of researchers and a promising field to study children as consumers. The systematic and synthesisable research in children's consumer socialisation was carried out, gaining visibility in mid-1970s (John 1999: 183).

In addition, Ward's definition is specifically related to young children who heavily relied on Brim's (1966) definition of socialisation (Gronhaug and Venkatesh, 2001).

In addition, Ward (1974) noted that the consumer socialisation includes skills, knowledge, and attitudes that are directly or indirectly relevant to the consumption behaviour of children that enabled them to play the consumer role in marketplace

activities. He referred the direct consumer skills to the content of consumption such as budgeting, pricing, knowledge of brand, and weighing purchase criteria. Indirect skills are those related to attitudes and social motivations arising from non-consumer roles that influence children's consumer behaviours. He also referred the consumer role to the interaction processes combined with physical and mental activities involved in purchase decisions, shopping, talking to others about products and brands, and weighing purchase criteria. In this regard, Hudson and Brown (1983) confirmed these perspectives, by pointing out that the consumer socialisation research is focused on the study of the acquisition of habits, beliefs, attitudes, skills and knowledge, which enable a consumer to act satisfactorily the roles expected by his/her society.

***In relation to the term child***, Ekstrom et al. (1987) indicated that the term "children" in the U.S. includes all dependent offspring's in a family. In this regard, the current research referred the term "child" to the young person whose age ranges from 8 to 12 years old. In addition, the term "tweenagers" has been adopted in marketing terminology. "Tweens" are those young people whose ages range from pre-adolescent to 14 years and have been described as "the richest generation" in history and the spending of this age group "has roughly doubled every ten years over the last three decades" (Lindstrom, 2003: 26). Tweens are neither children nor teens but something between (Nørgaard et al., 2007:197)

***In relation to the children's market***, McNeal (1969: 16) in his article "the child consumer: a new market" termed the child market as a "group of children between the ages of 5 and 13 (roughly elementary school age children) that make purchases of goods and services for personal use and satisfaction". In order for a group to be termed a market, it must be sizable, it must have the desire and must have the ability to buy." In a similar vein, Gunter and Furnham (1998: 4) indicated, "There are two important questions to ask in establishing the size of the child market. ....how many children are there in a particular area, region or country? How much money do they have to spend? The marketer and manufacturer need to know what proportion of this potential market will buy each product and how much they will buy." In other words, the importance of children's consumer behaviour can be determined by the expansion of children's market and their influences in family decision-making. On that context, the following figures illustrate the development

of children's market that enforce the marketers to better understand children's consumer socialisation behaviour to meet the children's needs effectively.

In this regard, Schiffman et al. (2001: 331) reported that while the annual cash flow of the UK children of ages 7-12 years was \$ 2.3 billion in 1999, the annual cash flow of the French children, for the same period, equals \$1.7 billion. In Germany, the annual cash flow of children aged 3-12 years was estimated \$ 2.7 billion.

In addition, National Consumer Council (2005: 32) reports, "British children aged between 10 and 19 are avid shoppers and make up a 30bn pound market. They have more pocket money and more influence over family spending than ever before. Each year, children under 16 spend their own money on snacks and sweets (£680m), clothing (£660m), music and CDs (£620m), footwear (£400m), software (£350m), magazines (£250m), and toiletries (£83m). The children's clothing market is worth £ 6bn, while toy sales are worth £2bn a year". Recently, Nairn (2006) indicated that children from 7-11 years old in UK have a personal disposable income, pocket money, gifts, odd jobs, of around £ 2.7 billion and their US counterparts \$20 billion. They influence family purchases by £30 billion in the UK and \$300 billion in the USA. They love shopping and the vast majority of children have a TV in their own bedrooms where they can receive the advertising messages without parents' restrictions.

Departing from these premises, it can be inferred that an understanding of consumer socialisation processes related to how children acquire consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes is important to the marketers because childhood experiences have an important effect on adult behaviour and knowing these processes may facilitate the prediction of certain consumer behaviour. These processes are interrelated with children's cognitive development (Moore and Moschis, 1980) and affected by a complex interaction process of environment influences such as norms, morals, ethics, technology, and organizations that are transferred over generations (Darden et al., 1981; Wilkie, 1986).

### **2.3 Multi-parties interested in children's consumer socialisation behaviour**

Parents, marketers, policy makers of industry and government, advertisers, and educators are interested in studying children's consumption behaviour. The amount and the importance of the parties' interest are typically varied and related to what outcomes are

expected in carrying out such studies. To this end, Ward (1974) indicated that the marketers are engaged in knowing some aspects of childhood experiences that affect the adulthood behaviour patterns. The public policy makers are interested in developing consumer education programmes through understanding the processes by which children acquire consumption-related skills, knowledge and attitudes. Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978) accounted this attention for the following reasons: Public policymakers and agencies wish to understand the relative influences of information sources on children such as mass media, parents, and peers. While the marketers are interested in improving their communication campaigns directed at young consumers, the consumer educators are willing to understand how the consumer skills of young people are developed as a result of the environmental stimuli process so that they can better prepare the young children to function effectively in the marketplace activities. For students of consumer behaviour, this area presents new directions and opportunities for studying and understanding the consumer behaviour. In a similar vein, Dholakia (1984: 19) identified two reasons to focus on young consumers: the relevance for public policy and consumer education programmes and the implications for future adult behaviour.

Peracchio (1992), Doss et al. (1995), Achenreiner (1997), and John (1999) confirmed the aforementioned perspectives. Specifically, Peracchio (1992) noted that an understanding of how children learning consumption issues would lead to develop educational programs to enhance their ability to play the consumer role effectively especially, that is related to children's money management behaviour (Doss et al., 1995). In addition, parents and educators have become increasingly concerned with the materialistic attitudes of youth (Achenreiner, 1997). Understanding children's consumer socialisation will continue to be important since the research (a) explains how consumer learning occurred, developed and changed, (b) provides the marketers with valuable information about children's consumption attitudes and behaviour, and (c) enables the government agencies to protect the children from bad habits "the consumption of products such as alcohol, tobacco, and illegal drugs" (John, 1999). Furthermore, McNeal and Ji (2003: 400) stated, "Another reason for marketers' increased interest in children as consumers is the recognition that they constitute a future market for all goods and services that can be nurtured through

their development so that they become a steady stream of new customers for a firm at the appropriate time”.

#### **2.4 The scope of children’s consumption socialisation behaviour**

Most of the recent research in children’s consumer behaviour was steered by the orientations of the early work conducted by (Ward and Wackman, 1972; Ward, 1974; Ward and Wackman, 1974; Ward et al., 1977 a; Moschis and Churchill Jr, 1978; Ward et al., 1987; Moore-Shay and Lutz, 1988). In this respect, Ward and Wackman (1972) indicated that research in children’s consumer behaviour should focus on the relative influence of advertising and other socialisation agents on developing the patterns of children’s consumer behaviour. By contrast, Moschis (1987: 121) stated, “No other agent of consumer socialisation has received more attention, in the literature, than the mass media.” Also, research in children’s consumer behaviour should study the impact of external influences on inter and intra children’s cognitive development (Churchill Jr and Moschis, 1979).

However, the best work of the initial studies that illustrates the fields of research in children’s consumer socialisation behaviour, at the micro level “cognitive development and processing information approaches” and at the macro level “environment influences”, was conducted by Ward and his colleagues (1977 a: 168) for the following reasons:

- This study put forwards the corner stone for future research.
- It involved many antecedent and learning property variables used by many researchers later on to explain the process of children’s consumer behaviour.
- It related children’s cognitive development to the environmental influences.

Ward and his colleagues classified the environmental influences that affect children’s consumer skills into the following types:

- Family variables behaviour: they referred it to parent-child interaction variables, parent’s consumer education goals and attitudes variables, and child’s opportunity variables.
- Family pattern variables that are referred to affection and parental power.

In relation to parent-child interaction, they suggested the following independent variables to assess the development of children’s consumer role in marketplace activities:

- Frequency of negotiating purchase requests;
- Frequency of refusal with explanation;
- Frequency of not yielding to purchase request;
- Frequency of discussing consumption issues; and
- Number of comments about commercial advertising.

Relating to children's cognitive development, they classified the variables of learning outcomes of children's consumer behaviour into the following levels:

- Higher level skills acquired by the children that need higher levels of information-processing skills such as children's awareness of the purpose of TV commercials, children asking about performance attributes in TV, children's ability to compare brands on the basis of performance, children's awareness of multiple sources of information about new products, and children's awareness of brand names.
- Lower level skills acquired by the children that need lower levels of information-processing skills such as children asking about perceptual attributes in TV purchases, children's ability to compare brands based on perceptual characteristics, children's awareness of in-store shopping for information about new products and money-use skills.
- Non-skilled behaviours that follow the general cognitive development in relation to perspective norms spending and asking for child-related products, asking for adult products, asking for brands, and the strength of brand preference.

In addition, Ward et al. (1987) indicate that research in consumer socialisation behaviour is concerned with studying the processes of how young children acquire consumer skills, attitudes and knowledge in marketplace activities, studying the influence of external environmental factors such as institutions, mass media and social influences, and investigating children's information-processing relating to evaluation and selection of various products.

Another direction emerging in consumer socialisation research was related to the intergenerational influence that was examined by Moore-Shay and Lutz (1988). In this respect, Wilkie (1986: 181) indicated, "intergenerational influence on consumer behaviour within generations (husbands and wives), and from the older (parent) to the

younger generation (children), is an interesting question that should receive a great deal of attention within consumer research”. Based on co-orientation model, Moore-Shay and Lutz (1988) noted that the intergenerational research might encompass a wide range of topics ranging from the similarity of specific brand preferences to much broader systems of beliefs and attitudes towards marketplace activities. Based on content analysis, Ward et al. (1990) reviewed the research published in various marketing journals during the period of 1980-1987 and pointed out that there is a pressing need to study children’s influence on family consumer behaviour and the impact of family variables on children’s consumer socialisation process. It is also important to identify the changes in children’s learning of consumer skills, how long the learning lasts, and how it is changed.

Despite these studies representing a wide range of guidelines for future research in the fields of children’s consumer behaviour, they ignored the influence of family communication structures and patterns on children’s consumption behaviour. In that context, a number of researchers such as Moore and Moschis (1981), Moschis et al. (1984), Foxman et al. (1989), Carlson et al. (1990 a and b), Cao and price (1997), Rose et al. (1998), Chan and McNeal (2003), Mukherji (2005), Bakir et al. (2005), Hsieh et al. (2006), Chan and McNeal (2006) investigated the influence of family communication structures and patterns on developing the consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes of children. Most of these studies did not discrete the family communication into father-son, father-daughter, mother-son, or mother daughter interactions in order to study their influences separately. In addition, most of them are based on a mono data’s collection method in soliciting the respondents’ responses. However, the overall *scope* of the current research can be classified within the concept of family influence in young children’s consumer roles.

## **2.5 Conceptualisation of the current research approach**

Prior to conceptualising the general approach of research in hand, the logical step is to discuss the concept of the main approaches used in studying children’s consumer socialisation behaviour, namely children’s cognitive development approach, social learning approach, interaction approach, and consumer socialisation stages.

### **2.5.1 Cognitive development approach**

The cognitive development approach is associated with Piaget's (1970) theory of intellectual development. It has viewed the children as searchers to understand the environment rather than decision-makers (Roedder et al., 1978). On that context, Ginsburg and Opper (1988) noted that Piaget's theory viewed the development as a systematic process consisting of a universal sequence of stages. As the child "moves" from one stage to another, she/he is assumed to be developing and integrating various learning properties and manifesting differences in the ways they select, evaluate, and use information. The child's cognitive development is expected to occur throughout the four stages that are defined in terms of the child's cognitive structures and reflected the child's ability in perceiving and coping with the environment at different ages. Specifically, the cognitive structures or *schema* mediate between the environment and the child's responses and continually develop when the child possesses new experiences. When a new knowledge or experience does not match the existing *schema*, the child modifies his/her schemas to handle the new experience. That is, each stage implies distinct and qualitative differences in children's modes of thinking and problem solving. The cognitive stages are hierarchical and integrative; higher stages become increasingly differentiated and, at the same time, integrated with lower stages at a new level of organization. In short, one stage melds into another. According to Piaget's theory, these stages are divided into sensorimotor stage "birth to 2 years old", preoperational stage "2-7 years old", concrete operational stage "ages 7-11 years old", and formal operational stage "11 and onwards". The range of ages is roughly estimated and varied among individuals and cultures. In sensorimotor stage, the child's comprehension of the world is carried out through physical contact. In pre-operational stage, the child develops an egocentric view of the world and has difficulty in seeing someone else's point of view. In concrete operational stage, children develop an ability to think logically but have a need to manipulate real objects in order to solve problems. In formal operational stage, children can reason in the abstract without the need for physical objects "cues" (Cowell, 2001: 479).

In that context, Calder et al. (1975), Roedder et al. (1978), and John (1999), Marshal et al. (2002) indicated that the cognitive development theory explains the formation of children's cognitions and behaviours according to their ages. It relates the learning process to qualitative changes in cognitive organization that occurs as a person matures and the content of learning consumer skills is expected to be formed and changed as a result of such maturation. Hence, it is basically used in the information-processing model of consumer socialisation. It is useful to understand children's selection, storage, evaluation, and use of information. Piaget's theory is important for understanding long-term development changes rather than short-term shifts; it addresses long-term socio-psychological changes (Calder et al., 1975; Wackman and Ward., 1976; Stamfl et al., 1978; Roedder et al., 1978; Ward et al., 1977 a; John, 1999; Zhang and Sood, 2002; Chan and McNeal, 2006).

#### **2.5.1.1 Drawbacks of cognitive development approach**

Piaget's theory is mainly concerned with the maturation as development, based on cognitive structures and organisational activities within the individual rather than with the environmental stimulation, which is the chief concern of the learning theories approach (Calder et al., 1975; Roedder et al., 1978; O'Guinn and Faber, 1987; Smith and Moschis, 1989). It is descriptive rather than explanatory. It marks developmental changes in cognitive processing over a fixed succession of stages (Zigler et al., 1982).

Specifically, Calder et al. (1975) argued that Piaget's theory is a structural theory rather than a dynamic theory. It is dynamic only in a long-term related to biological sense. The dynamic aspects of Piaget's theory are primarily restricted to the evolution of structures, or internalised operational schemes. It is not adequate to explain children's information processing because the dynamics of information processing essentially involves short-term phenomena regulated by cognitive structures that are determined biologically. It fails to manifest the role of the environment in children's development. It does not specify the mechanisms linking developmental states and behaviour because (Ginsburg and Opper 1988: 24) it is less interested in studying the contents of the child's thought than the basic organisation underlying it.

Roedder et al. (1978) and O'Guinn and Faber (1987) confirmed Calder et al.'s (1975) perspectives. Specifically, Roedder et al. (1978) indicated that Piaget's theory does not address the question of discriminative interpretation of the environment, and does not explain how human behaviours are learned through an interaction between personal and environmental factors. While the cognitive development theory fails to take into account the impact of interpersonal interaction, it is useful to explain the issues of short-term effects such as television advertising on children related to their recall and comprehension of commercial content (Ward, 1978). O'Guinn and Faber (1987) noted that the cognitive development theories are often criticised for their failure to address the role of the environment in shaping children's behaviour. On the other hand, Churchill Jr and Moschis (1979) and Moore and Moschis (1980) argued that the cognitive development theory is not appropriate to explain the adolescent consumer socialisation as does the social learning theory because (Roedder et al., 1978) it is only concerned with childhood and early adolescence.

### **2.5.2 Social learning approach**

Zigler et al. (1982: 25) noted, "The socialisation of the child was best viewed as a series of learning experiences: if one simply studied the way in which any child had been treated by its parents, one would understand why it later behaved as it did. If there were similarities between the developmental courses of different children, this could be attributed to similarities in the way they had been treated rather than to biologically determined stages." That is, the term "learning" refers to the acquisition of knowledge or skill through the deliberate memorising of information. On that context, Solomon et al. (1999: 65) referred the learning to *any relatively permanent change in behaviour which comes with experience that does not directly affect the learner*". According to this definition, learning can occur through simple associations between a stimulus and a response or via a complex series of cognitive activities. In addition, Williams (1984) indicated that learning is resultant to changes in individual's behaviour that may have a positive or negative direction. The changes in behaviour are relatively stable and exclude changes in behaviour that may result directly from temporary conditions but the changes in experiences or practices are not related to maturation. On the other hand, Arbib et al.

(1987: 99) pointed out that learning is to “gain knowledge, understanding or skill by study, instruction or experience.”

Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978), Bellenger and Moschis (1982), O’Guinn and Faber (1987), and John (1999) noted that the social learning theory emphasises the role of the external environment, such as marketing influences, family and peer group pressures on shaping children’s attitudes and behaviours through the interaction process. Learning is assumed to be taking place during children’s interaction with these socialisation agents in various social settings. The learner may acquire cognitions and behaviours from the agents through the process of modelling, reinforcement, and social interaction. Modelling involves imitation of the agent behaviour. Reinforcement involves either rewards or punishment mechanisms used by the agent. In addition, Chan and McNeal (2006: 37) stated, “The social learning model implies that the more interaction there is between the socialising agents and the individuals, the more likely learning will take place. In other words, children with more social interaction with parents regarding commercial communications, for example, will be more likely to understand commercial communications”.

Overall, the social learning theory can be used to understand child’s learning brand names, product uses, and the content and slogan of TV commercial messages. It is useful to study how a child distinguishes between products that have similar attributes (Robertson and Feldman, 1976). However, social learning theory is criticised for its applicability rather than addressing the major conceptual issues. O’Guinn and Faber (1987) note that social learning theory fails to take into account the sequential changes in children’s psychological structure.

### **2.5.3 The difference between cognitive development and social learning approaches**

Since the two theories are based on two different theoretical approaches, cognitive development theory (which relates to biological roots) differs from social learning theory (involving a mechanistic model) in its interpretations of child development. In Piaget’s theory, child plays an active role in development; cognitive structures mediate between the environment and the child’s responses. In social learning theory, the environment “external influences” play an active role in the child’s development (Zigler et al., 1982).

The social learning theory takes into account the effect of external environment, such as mass media, family and peer group pressures. These influences have not been clearly addressed in the cognitive development theory (Ward, 1974; Calder et al., 1975; Moschis and Churchill Jr, 1978; Moschis and Moore, 1979; O'Guinn and Faber, 1987; Ginsburg and Opper, 1988; Smith and Moschis, 1989). Overall, learning theories are considered as a complementary approach to cognitive theories. Roedder (1981) indicated that Piaget's theory has proved useful in describing age-related cognitive activities but it does not explain the causes of these differences. In addition, Ward et al. (1977 a) indicated that changes in children's consumer skills are a result of age-related cognitive changes and environment influences because cognitive development theory suggests that a child's interaction with his environment propels cognitive changes.

#### **2.5.4 Interaction approach**

Earlier, McLeod and Chaffee (1972: 50) say, "It hard for us to realise how little of our information comes from direct experience with the physical environment, and how much of it comes indirectly, from other people and the mass media. Our complex communication systems... leave us with a greater dependence on others for shaping our ideas about how things are in the world". In a similar vein, McLeod and O'Keefe (1972: 127-8) say, "to understand the human behaviour we must specify its social origin and the process by which it is learned". That is, the interaction approach assumes that the individual's attitudes and behaviour are conditioned by other individuals in his/her environment; Ward (1974) stresses the importance of situational variables depicted on parent-child interaction and family communications to study children's consumer socialisation behaviour. It consists of interpersonal theories and depends on sociological rather than psychological perspectives (Bellenger and Moschis, 1982). Heisley and Holmes (1987: 453) relate the interaction approach to family communications in decision-making processes. They say, "The family is both a major consumption unit in its own right and a partial determinant of individual consumption behaviour. The interactionist approach is a sociological and social psychological approach in which the family is conceived of as a unity of interacting personalities. Interpersonal relations and communicative processes within the family are studied as indicators of familial role

relations, status positions, and norms (role expectations)”. They also noted that the family interaction approach was heavily used in studying the effects of family role on children’s consumer socialisation behaviour. In this respect, a number of researchers such Saunders et al. (1973), Ward and Wackman (1974), Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978), Ward et al. (1986), Moore-Shay and Lutz (1988), Moore-Shay and Berchmans (1996), Darian (1998), Carruth and Skinner (2001), Hassan (2002), Ozgen (2003), Pettersson et al. (2004), Wilson and Wood (2004), and Nørgaard et al. (2007) relied on the interaction approach in their studies. On the other hand, while the family interaction approach views the family as a negotiating process instead of a static structure, it overlooks the macro issues, such as the family’s relation to economy and ignores the historical, cultural, and social context of the family’s dynamics (Heisley and Holmes, 1987: 454). However, Heisley and Holmes (1987) did not take into consideration the publications of other journals in their content analysis; they have relied only on nineteen articles published during twelve-years in the “Journal of Consumer Research” that may affect their conclusions about the importance role of interaction approach in the context of family decision-making.

#### **2.5.4.1 Family communication patterns (FCP)**

Earlier research showed that there are two distinct uncorrelated dimensions of family communications, namely the *socio-oriented* communication and *the concept-oriented* communication, typified into a four-fold typology: laissez-faire, protective, pluralistic, and consensual families (McLeod and Chaffee, 1972; McLeod and O’Keefe, 1972). The term “family communication” in consumer socialisation behaviour is used to refer both to parent-child overt and cognitive (nonverbal) interaction processes. The FCP refers to the frequency, type, and quality of communication that takes place among family members (Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis, 1985; Carlson et al., 1994). The parental messages of socio orientation tend to promote deference to parents and advocate of monitoring and controlling their child’s consumption activities. The parental messages of *concept* orientation tended to foster the development of children’s own skills and competence as consumers and help the children to develop their own views about the world. In general, parental influence is likely to be mediated by the type of communication environment in the household (Moschis and Moore, 1979; Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis et al.,

1984; Moschis, 1985 and 1987; Moschis and Mitchell, 1986; Ekstrom et al., 1987; Carlson et al., 1990 a and b; Carlson et al., 1994; Cao and price, 1997, Rose et al., 1998; Chan and McNeal, 2003 and 2006).

### **2.5.5 John's model / children's consumer socialisation stages**

Based on reviewing the research findings in children's consumer socialisation behaviour published in marketing and communication journals covering the period 1974 to 1998, John (1999) developed a conceptual framework "consumer socialisation stages" to explore the changes in children's thinking, attitudes and behaviours as consumers. The theoretical framework of this model is mainly based on Piaget's theory of children's cognitive development, information processing theories, and social development theories "social perspective role-taking and impression formation". She noted that the social development theories are useful to understand children's purchase influence and negotiation skills, and make social comparisons related to products and consumption. In addition, she proposes three stages for children to play the consumer role in marketplace activities, which are characterised according to children's knowledge structures, decision-making and influence strategies. Children as consumers move through the perceptual stage (approx. ages 3-7), the analytical stage (approx. ages 7-11), and the reflective stage ages (approx. 11-16); each stage reflects children's ability to play the consumer role in marketplace activities (Grant and Stephen, 2005; Chan and McNeal, 2004 and 2006). However, John (1999) did not take into account the findings of previous research relating to the effects of advertising strategies on children's responses to advertising, television commercials aimed at children, parental responses to children's purchase requests, and parental views about advertising and marketing practices to children.

### **2.5.6 The current research approach**

Departing from the aforementioned arguments related to the approaches of consumer socialisation research, the current research approach, as presented in figure 2.1, is mainly based on a combination of the theoretical frameworks of family interaction approach, Piaget's theory of children's cognitive development stages and the social learning theory. The position of parent in the process of social learning theory is both as a teacher and a role model. In the family interaction approach, the frequency, type, and the quality of

communication process that take place among family members affect children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes. In the developmental approach, the age of children is used as an indicator of their ability to play the consumer role in marketplace activities.

However, this conceptualisation can be justified by the following points:

- No single approach or theory has been agreed upon by the socialisation researchers to guide their research in socialisation and children's development (Zigler et al., 1982). Accordingly, there is no single approach that can be considered as prominent guidance in consumer socialisation research (Smith and Moschis, 1989).
- The application of multi-theoretical perspectives is more fruitful for future research in consumer socialisation (Robertson and Feldman, 1976). Moschis (1978) argued that a complete formal theory of behaviour processes must include person-situation interaction because some specific skills are usually learned at the time the individual enters a new role situation.
- The cognitive development stages and learning approaches do not take into account the effect of the cultural milieu in children's consumption behaviour. In this regard, Cram and Neg (1999) argue that research on consumer socialisation behaviour has been principally carried out from a psychological or a marketing perspective. Neither of them provides a full picture of the effect of cultural milieu on children's consumer socialisation behaviour.
- Consumer socialisation of children's development skills related to information processing "children abilities in selecting, evaluating and using information relevant to consumption decisions" is influenced by cognitive development stages and parent-child communication. Therefore, attention must be paid to children's cognitive abilities "based on cognitive development theories" and to the impact of external influences such as advertising and family influences (Ward et al., 1977 a). In a similar vein, Rose et al. (1998) noted that two approaches addressed children's consumer behaviour: while the micro approach addressed children's information processing and decision making at different stages of cognitive development, a macro approach addressed the effect of agent-learner interaction on children's consumer socialisation. Both of them

afford important fundamental research perspectives to study parent communication processes that mediate the effect of commercial advertising on their children.

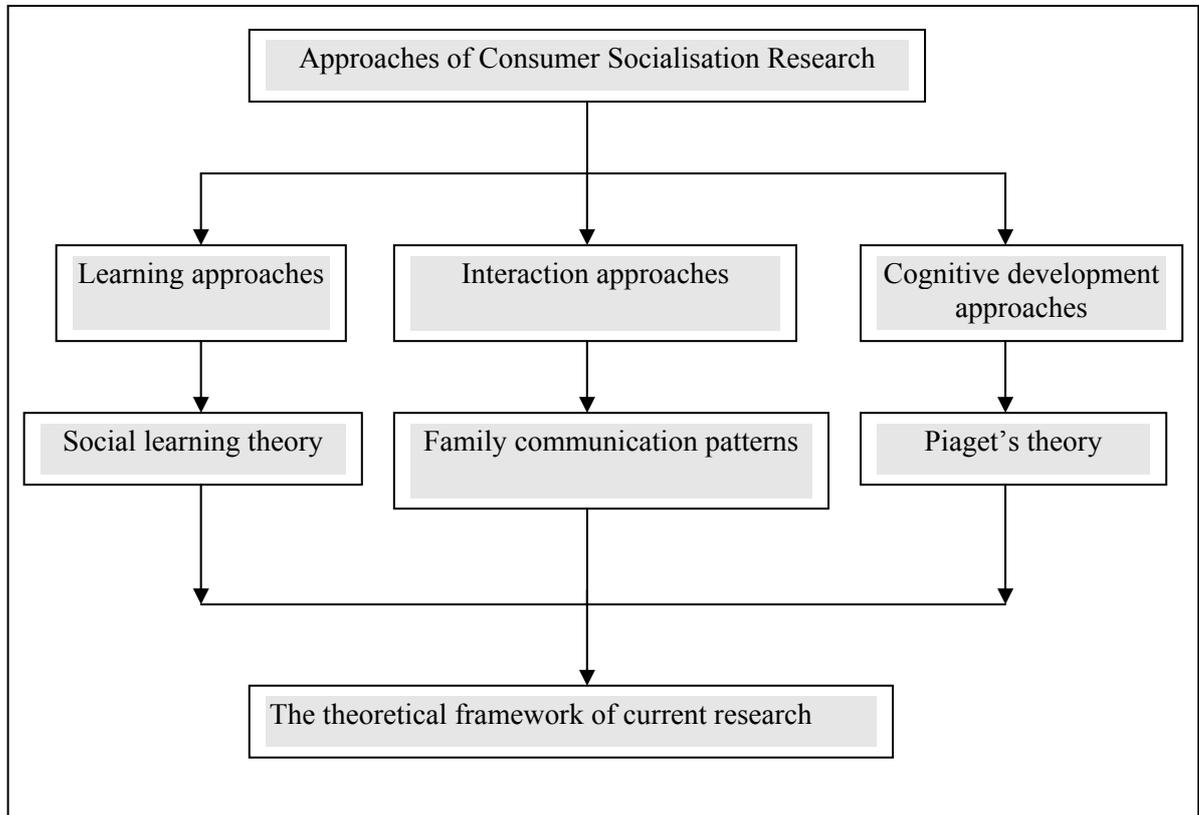


Figure 2.1: The current research approach

## 2.6 Conceptualising the general model of consumer socialisation behaviour

Socialisation models can be studied from the following dimensional frameworks: The process orientation: socialisation is studied as a process of the social forces affecting the individual attitudes and behaviours. The content orientation: socialisation is studied as an accumulation of what the individual had learnt in the past that contributes heavily to future attitudes and behaviour. The goal orientation is referred to explanatory versus descriptive approach: the descriptive approach tends to identify changes in the individual attitudes and behaviours resultant to socialisation, whereas the explanatory approach tends to explore the actual process of changes in attitudes and behaviours (Calder et al., 1975).

Within the framework of the general consumer socialisation model that is conceptualised

by (Moschis and Churchill Jr, 1978), socialisation is referred to agent-learner relationship integrated with specific learning process that affects the acquisition of consumer learning properties (McLeod and O’Keefe, 1972). This model is based mainly on the social learning and the cognitive development approaches; both of them are seen as interactive and interdependent in interpreting the children’s skills, knowledge, and attitudes (Moschis and Churchill Jr, 1978; Williams, 1984; Moschis, 1987; Smith and Moschis, 1989). In other words, learning is assumed to take place during the individual’s interaction with socialisation agents affected by the age reflecting “an index of individual’s cognitive development” in specific social (structural) settings (McLeod and O’Keefe, 1972). Therefore, consumer learning is viewed as a cognitive-psychological process of adjustment to one’s environment. Children would have more cognitive skills and their consumer experiences become vaster as they get older (Moschis and Churchill Jr, 1978). As shown in figure 2.2 the model consists of five types of variables: socialisation agents, learning processes, social structural variables, age or life cycle, and content of learning. In addition, while the age or life cycle position is referred to the degree of maturity, the structural variables are referred to race, ethnic group, family type, the birth order, household structure, family size, and family demographic variables. Both of them can be viewed as antecedent variables that affect the development of consumer learning properties directly and indirectly through their impact on socialisation processes. The socialisation agent is referred to mass media, family members, schools, and peers. Social structural variables and age can be viewed as antecedent variables. Learning processes are referred to the interaction process between the socialisation agent and the learner. Content or criterion variables are referred to children’s consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes that enable them to play the consumer role in marketplace activities (McLeod and O’Keefe, 1972; Moschis and Churchill Jr, 1978; Moschis, 1987).

*According to the learning process* of consumer socialisation model, the learning process refers to the mechanisms through which the agent influences the learner. These processes can be classified into three categories: modelling, reinforcement, and social interaction. Modelling, which is also known as observational learning involves imitation of the agent’s behaviour. Reinforcement involves reward, “positive reinforcement” or

punishment; “negative reinforcement” mechanisms that used by the socialisation agents (McLeod and O’Keefe, 1972; Ward, 1974; Ward et al., 1977 a; Moschis, 1978; Moschis and Moore, 1978; Moschis and Churchill Jr, 1978; Bellenger and Moschis, 1982; Hudson and Brown, 1983; Williams, 1984; O’Guinn and Faber, 1987; Smith and Moschis, 1989). Based on a large sample consisting of 806 adolescents of 12 to 18 year olds from 13 schools in seven towns and cities in urban, suburban, semi-rural, and rural of Wisconsin area, the first application of consumer socialisation model was conducted by Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978). They examined the influence of adolescents’ ages, parents and peer-communication, mass media, school courses, the structural variables of social class and gender on the social and economic motivations, consumer affairs knowledge, consumer activism, finance management, attitudes toward prices, and materialistic attitudes. They also examined the efficacy of the social learning and cognitive development models in predicting these skills and attitudes. The self- administered questionnaires were used in collecting the primary data. Correlation and multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the research hypotheses. They found that the frequency of parent-adolescent communication is the best predictor of consumer activism “rational consumer role” and the age of adolescents is the best predictor of consumer affairs knowledge. The age of adolescents explained four out of seven of the dependent variables.

While gender is the best predictor of materialism attitudes, the frequency of peer communication is the best predictor of social motivations. In overall, the highest explanation of the independent variables was associated with the consumer affairs knowledge followed by consumer activism and finance management. Specifically, the cognitive development model may predict better the development of adolescents’ knowledge and ability to function as a consumer in the marketplace, whereas the social learning model seems to explain better the development of his attitudes and values. Age as a deputy index of cognitive development can be used as a predictive but not as an explanatory variable. Family as a socialisation agent is important in teaching adolescents the rational aspects of consumption and there is a strong positive relationship between family communication about consumption and the adolescent’s frequency of performing socially desirable consumer acts. The adolescent’s frequency of viewing television seems

to be an important factor in learning some skills that are related to social motivations for consumption and materialistic attitudes. Adolescent's interaction with peers about consumption is significantly related to social utility reasons for viewing television programs and commercials.

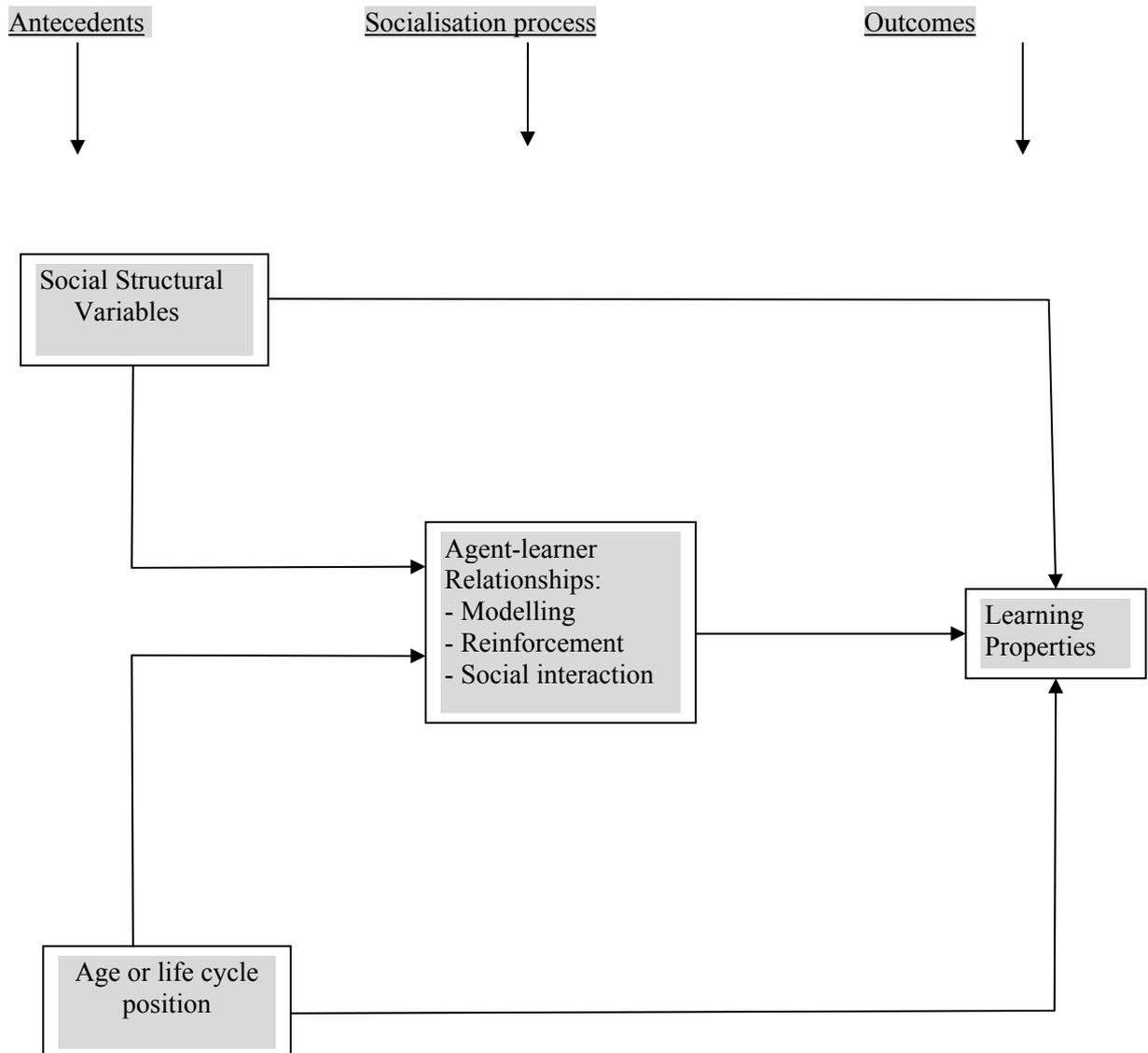
Adolescents from families of higher socio-economic status may be socialised faster than other social classes in understanding the consumer role because they have more opportunities for consumption. Male adolescents appear to know more about consumer matters and hold stronger materialistic attitudes and social motivation for consumption than their female counterparts. Females are more likely to perform socially desirable consumer behaviour than male adolescents are. Finally, they confirmed Robertson and Feldman's (1976) arguments; they stated, "Findings reinforce the thesis of applying multi-theoretical perspectives in future studies of consumer socialisation".

Despite these findings, this article is open to the following criticisms:

- Parents did not complete the part of questionnaire that related to socio-economic status. Adolescents were asked by the researchers to state their fathers and mother's occupation and place of work through open-ended questions to construct the social class measure; they may have given misleading or incorrect information.
- They did not identify the actual differences in consumer skills and attitudes between males and females; they relied on correlation analysis rather than paired sample T tests to find out the actual differences. Correlation analysis provides the strength and the direction of the relationship but it does not mean that there is a difference between males and females in consumer role.
- They used the variable of adolescent age to assess the efficacy of cognitive development in explaining adolescents' acquisition of consumer skills and attitudes. Cognitive development theory is useful in studying young children's acquisition of consumer skills but not those of adolescents, because the formal stage of cognitive development starts from 11 or 12 years old.
- They indicate that the age of children cannot be used as an explanatory variable. In this respect, Ward and Wackman (1976: 531) state, "It is misleading to conclude that developmental theory lacks explanatory or predictive power". They found that

cognitive development theory is effective in identifying the differences between young children in their ability to recall commercial advertising, evaluate and select products based on performance, price, and ingredients.

Figure 2.2: The general model of consumer socialisation



Source: Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978: 600)

## 2.7 Summary

The background of the theoretical frameworks of research was established through

identifying the general issues of children's consumer socialisation behaviour. In this regard, the consumer socialisation behaviour is viewed as the process by which young children acquired consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes to play the consumer role effectively in marketplace activities. The expansion of children's market that are combined with global and diversity markets gives strong reasons for parents, marketers, policy-makers of government, advertisers, and educators to understand children's consumption behaviour. Overall, research in children's consumer socialisation behaviour is primarily conducted to understand the direct and the indirect experiences and cognitions of children relevant to their consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes that are affected by internal and external influences. To understand the consumer role of young children of ages 8-12 years resultant to fathers-child interaction in marketplace activities, the current research adopts the cognitive development stages, social learning, and family interaction approaches to avoid the drawbacks of each approach. In addition, the theoretical framework of general consumer socialisation model was conceptualised and the results of the first study of this model were presented since it was conducted to measure the effectiveness of social learning and cognitive development approaches on children's consumer role. The overall findings showed that the consumer role of children can be predicted through employing these approaches.

## **Chapter Three**

### **Children's Shopping Consumer Skills, Knowledge, and Attitudes**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

Chapter 2 has identified the research approach and discussed the components of the general consumer socialisation model of Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978). This chapter aims to review and analyse the developmental literature of children's consumer shopping skills, knowledge, and attitudes at the concrete operational stage/analytical stage (7-11 years old). It aims to address the following questions:

- (1) What is the relationship between children's cognitive development and their consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes in shopping milieu?
- (2) What are the characteristics of children's shopping consumer skills, knowledge, attitudes in shopping milieu, and their orientations towards grocery and food products?

To address these questions, the literature review was divided into (a) experimental and qualitative research design and (b) survey research design.

Prior to reviewing and criticising these types of literature, the logical step is to present the general definitions of consumer behaviour, consumer attitude, consumer skills, general advertising attitudes, and the importance of age in children's consumer socialisation behaviour.

#### **3.2 General definitions**

Solomon et al. (1999: 8) defined consumer behaviour as "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 needs and desires". This definition reflects the ongoing process of the consumer behaviour issues that influence the consumers before, during, and after their purchases.

*In relation to the definition of attitude*, Solomon et al. (1999: 142) defined an attitude as "a predisposition to evaluate an object or product positively or negatively." An attitude is made up of "belief" (cognition) toward the object, "affect" evaluates the object, and "behavioural intention" takes action. It reflects the cognitive and affective orientations

toward marketplace stimuli such as advertising, salespeople, and pricing information (Viswanathan et al., 2000). That is, attitudes are learned through the socialisation and cognitive processes. Therefore, the individual's attitude can be changed (Grant and Stephen, 2005: 450).

***In relation to the general attitude towards advertising,*** MacKenzie and Lutz, (1989: 54) defined general advertising attitudes as “a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner toward advertising in general.”

***In relation to the consumer skills,*** (Wilkie, 1986) referred the consumer skills to the cognitions held regarding the basic, rational aspects of consumption such as budgeting, product evaluation, and the selection of purchase criteria. On the other hand, Moschis and Churchill Jr (1979) differentiate between two types of consumer skills: direct and indirect skills. Direct skills refer to the function of consumption actions or transactions such as budgeting abilities, pricing knowledge and attitudes toward specific advertising and marketing stimuli. Indirect skills refer to the children's attitudes towards materialistic values, social and economic motivations for consumption that indirectly related to the transactions. They relate the consumer role to the consumers' thoughts and actions (skills, knowledge, attitudes, predispositions, and behaviours). In contrast, Ward (1974) relates the consumer role to the set of physical and mental activities specially involved in purchase decisions-shopping, talking to others about products and brands, and weighing purchase criteria.

***In relation to consumer shopping,*** Solomon et al. (1999: 247-248) differentiate between consumer shopping and consumer shopping orientations. In this respect, they defined shopping as “an activity that can be performed for utilitarian (functional or tangible) or hedonic (pleasurable or intangible) reasons”. Consumer shopping orientation is referred to consumers' general attitudes and motivations regarding the act of shopping that vary according to the types of product categories and stores. In addition, they referred the term *consumers* to the individuals who are over six years old and able to play the consumer role in the marketplace activities and the term “marketplace” related to children shopping is used to include stores and street vendors (McNeal and Yeh, 1997).

In addition, consumers' general orientations towards shopping and buying identify their decision-making styles (Sproles and Kendall, 1986). In this regard, they defined consumer decision-making style as "a mental orientation characterising a consumer's approach to making choices" (P: 268). In accordance with the perspectives of the chief executive officers of retail chains, the retailers can be classified into children-oriented groups and non-children-oriented groups (McNeal, 1987).

### **3.3 The importance of age in children's consumer socialisation behaviour**

The term "age" is preferred to "life cycle" because it is more relevant to the particular stage of children's cognitive development (McLeod and O'Keefe, 1972) and a complex phenomenon since it involves sociological, psychological, and biological factors that give a full picture of the life span. Therefore, age should be taken into account in analysing these dimensions. While the cognitive age reflects an individual's identity and behaviour, the chronological age may be related to life events of people with similar ages that reflect similarities in lifestyle, health, and mental outlook (Hudson and Brown, 1983). Barak et al. (1988) confirmed this viewpoint; they argued that cognitive age rather than chronological age should be used as a basis for market segmentation; it does not provide an understanding of underlying consumers' motivations, attitudes and behaviours.

Early works related to the conceptualisation of children's consumer socialisation behaviour conducted by Ward et al. (1977 a), Moschis (1978), Moschis and Moore (1979 b), and Moschis and Mitchell (1986) discussed the importance of age variable in children's consumer behaviour. In this respect, Ward et al. (1977 a) found the age as the best predictor variable to measure 20 out of 24 children's skills and non-skills behaviours that are strongly related to family variables such as mother's own consumer behaviour variables "mother-child interaction variables, mother's consumer education goals and attitudes variables, and child's opportunity variables. In addition, age is a significant predictor of children's attitudes towards store, advertising, price-quality relationship, and product's knowledge (Moschis, 1978).

Moschis and Moore (1979 b) examined the effects of maturation on decision-making patterns of adolescents. They found that age was related to the number of information sources preferred; age was positively related to the adolescent's propensity to prefer

“friends” as a source of information and negatively related to his/her tendency to rely on parents for information and advice when they become older. There is an insignificant relationship between age and the number of evaluative criteria used by children. Adolescents prefer to purchase products in the absence of parental supervision.

In a similar vein, Moschis and Mitchell (1986) found that the age of children is positively associated with the four dependent measures of the adolescent’s tendency to play a more influential role than his/her parents in (a) mentioning the need for products, (b) discussing consumption with parents, (c) deciding whether to buy certain products, and (d) purchasing products independently. With increasing age, adolescents exhibit greater participation in family consumer decisions that are attributed to their increasing knowledge of the marketplace activities. Based on young adult and parent surveys to validate multi-item scales for assessing intergenerational communication influence related to consumer skills, preferences, and attitudes about consumption, Viswanathan et al. (2000) found that there is correlation between the influence of intergenerational communication and the age of respondents. The correlation coefficient between the influence of intergenerational communication and the age in Thai’s sample is higher than the coefficient value of American’s sample. In addition, the age is a good predictor to investigate how children understand and use the stereotypical consumption (Davis, 2000). Age is an important moderator of brand extension evaluations (Zhang and Sood, 2002).

### **3.4 Children consumer skills and knowledge based on experimental and qualitative research design**

The cognitive development theory suggests that a child acquires various skills and knowledge “learning properties” and manifests differences in the ways of selecting, evaluating, and using information as he/she moves from one stage to another. Therefore, the age differences according to Piaget’s theory of cognitive development are explained in terms of stages. Each stage is characterised by the cognitive structures the child uses in perceiving and handling information from the environment. Cognitive structures are viewed as mediating the child’s understanding of events and concepts. According to John’s (1999) model, the analytical consumer socialisation stage reflects the vast improvements of a child’s ability to approach consumption issues in a thoughtful and

abstract way. That is, children's ability in processing consumption information is markedly influenced by their ages. In this respect, a number of researchers such as Calder et al. (1975), Wackman and Ward (1976), Rossiter (1976), Roedder (1981), Reece (1984), Belk et al. (1984), John (1985), Brucks et al. (1986), Poiesz (1986), John and Sujan (1990), Peracchio (1992) Gregan-Paxton and John (1995), Macklin (1996), Viswanathan and Childers (1996), Underwood (1999), Hogg et al. (1999), John (1999), Moore and Lutz (2000), Zhang and Sood (2002), Marshal et al. (2002), McNeal and Ji (2003), Grant and Stephen (2005) employed experimental and qualitative research design to understand the young children's ability in acquiring consumer skill and knowledge relating to shopping activities. Specifically, the two following sub-sections reflect the developmental literature review related to the influence of children cognitive development, the verbal information, visual cues, and the heuristic tools on children's learning shopping consumption skills and knowledge.

#### **3.4.1 Children's ability in acquiring and processing information of consumer skills and knowledge at the analytical stage**

Earlier, Calder et al. (1975) argued that there is a difference between young children of preoperational stage and young children of analytical stage in their cognitive development. On that context, young children of ages 3-6 years old have difficulties in learning consumer skills and acquiring knowledge when they are exposed to new information as a result of their perceptual boundedness and centration compared to the young children of operational cognitive development stage. Wackman and Ward (1976) confirmed Calder et al.'s (1975) arguments. They investigated children's abilities of kindergarten, 3<sup>rd</sup> grade, and the 6<sup>th</sup> grade in recalling the commercial advertising messages, evaluating, and selecting products. They found that children exhibit qualitative differences in recalling the amount of material involved in the commercial advertising related to the attributes, coherent, and selling messages of commercials. Specifically, while 52% and 48% of sixth and third graders respectively recall the material of commercial TV from multidimensional attributes, coherent, and selling messages, 17% of kindergarteners focused on these aspects. In addition, the kindergarteners focus on one dimension and exhibit greater responsiveness to perceptual (physical) attributes as a

primary basis of evaluation and selection of products. In contrast, the 6<sup>th</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades of young children's focus were based on the price, ingredients, and the functional performance of products as the primary request of information. However, the authors did not identify the types of products they investigated. They also used Chi-square, means and frequencies analyses; these techniques cannot demonstrate the strength and the direction of relationship between the ages of young children and their skills.

Based on personal interviews combined with a questionnaire, Reece (1984) examined the young children's ability of young kindergartners, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> graders in identifying stores slogans from eight commercial advertisings of television, radio, and newspaper which appeared two months before the collecting data. He found that the slogan recall of retail stores is positively related to the age of young children and media exposure. While the age of young children explains 43% of the differences in children's slogan recall, the commercial TV advertising exposure explains 4% of the stores slogans compared to radio exposure (12%), and newspaper exposure (14%). He concluded that the television exposure is not useful to be used as an explanatory variable to determine the relationship between media exposure and stores' slogans recall. In addition, children's recall of the stores slogans was not high, for example, the average number of correct identifications was only two and the highest scores of correct responses did not exceed six slogans. While the third graders scored the highest average of misidentification of slogan recall compared to the kindergartners and the sixth graders, young children of 6<sup>th</sup> grade scored the highest average of correct identifications. In addition, the highest rates of the four stores' slogans recall out of eight-used music in their television commercial advertising. The author argued that the low rate of correct slogan recall is attributed to the shortage in children's memory storage because they still learn the simple consumer skills and the rate of recall would be equally low if the slogans had been part of the expensively produced commercials for children's products. These results are consistent with Wackman and Ward's (1976) findings but contradicted with Moore and Stephens's (1975) findings, who found that there is no significant relationship between age and children's slogan recall. On the other hand, Reece's (1984) results were confirmed by Dotson and Hyatt (1994

cited in Dotson and Hyatt, 2000) who found that children by the age of ten have a great level of knowledge related to the commercial advertising slogans.

However, the author did not take into consideration the variation in “cognitive defences” between the children ages of the elementary school and kindergartners when he exposed them to eight slogans in one time. He did not identify the differences between the boys and girls in recalling these slogans. Finally, these results cannot be generalised due to the area limitation as the slogans are related to the broadcasting TV station, and the newspapers of a specific area of South-Eastern Michigan.

Within the concept of children’s knowledge structure-related to shopping skills, John (1985) studied the changes in children’s schema development related to grocery shopping. In this respect, fourteen children in each group of 4-5, 6-7, and 9-11 years old were asked to describe what happens when they would go to grocery shops and remember these events orderly. He found that children’s shopping experiences varied across groups’ age. Specifically, older children have more experiences, categorical, and hypothetical scripts, give more information and show well developed scripts related to grocery shopping than do younger children. In this regard, (McNeal, 1992) supported these results; he reported that young children of 4<sup>th</sup> grade have an ability to understand the process, the purpose of shopping and the types of stores such as supermarkets, speciality stores more than do young children of the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade.

However, John’s (1985) research findings are based on a one-open-question enhanced by cues and relied on probing technique to encourage children’s memory to recall the events of grocery shopping. No information was provided on the sampling procedures used in collecting data and the limitation of sample size eliminating the generalisability of results. In addition, the author indicated that children’s knowledge structure should be studied with a variety of subjects “populations” and topics to understand the developmental differences in the children’s shopping skills and knowledge.

On the other hand, Brucks et al. (1986) referred the “cognitive defences” to children’s knowledge of the selling intent of commercial advertising associated with distrusting commercial advertising messages that did not occur until at least 8 years of age. They argued that the cognitive development of young children associated with declarative

knowledge “children’s knowledge about the advertised product” and procedural knowledge “children’s knowledge about how to solve problems and accomplish tasks” are the preconditions of cognitive defences. They differentiated between advertising knowledge and product knowledge; while the product knowledge is the starting point of comparing the information provided in commercial advertising, the advertising knowledge referred to young children’s ability to know that the commercial advertising message is an exaggeration. Therefore, they suggested providing children with a cue (s) during children’s TV viewing hours in order to remind them to adopt a critical processing strategy. However, Brucks et al. (1986) did not clarify the types of cues and to which products or brand-related that should be taken into consideration in public media to enhance children cognitive defences. In general, prior knowledge bases, which consist of information about the concepts and the relationship among them developed as the age increases. That is, prior knowledge affects the encoding and storage of new information (John and Whitney, 1986).

Children produce elaborative cognitive responses only when the concrete knowledge of the product exists in their memory and product knowledge is more effective in the concrete operational stage than advertising knowledge in producing elaborative cognitive responses in children (Brucks et al., 1986). Based on two experiments, Poiesz (1986) examined the differences between adolescents “13-14 years old” and young children “9-10 years old” on their reactions to brand-names repetition. He found that there is a relationship between the ages of respondents “13-14 and 9-10 years old” and the repetition of the brand name. The effect size of age on the frequency level of brand-names repetition in a buying situation for young children is higher than the adolescents’ effect. However, the experiments did not rely on a real stimulus such as advertising; it was based on artefact situation by using slides to measure the repetition.

On the other hand, children’s ability to categorise products is affected by their cognitive development; John and Sujana (1990) examined how children of ages 4 to 10 categorised cereal and beverage products. Specifically, they asked the subjects to classify the cereal and beverage products according to perceptual attributes “product’s shape, colour, or package size” and underlying attributes “flavour, sweetness, and nutritional content”.

They found that children of 4-5 years old used more surface cues to judge product similarity. Children of ages ranging from 9 to 10 years used more deep and underlying features. As children mature, they gradually develop sophisticated information-processing skills that direct and control their learning consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes. Extending these findings to managerial implications, advertisers should focus on the perceptual cues of the products rather than the underlying attributes when they target the young children's products.

Based on casual research design, Peracchio (1992) used the product exchange events sequences namely, the "script-processing approach" to examine how young children of 5-8 years old learn to be consumers. They found that young children of ages ranging from 5 to 6 years display difficulties in acquiring the consumer knowledge of product exchange compared to the children of ages 7-8 years old. In addition, when young children of ages 5-6 years old are exposed to aural information, they are less adaptive to acquire that knowledge regardless of the exposure amount or responses formats. Young children's ability would be equivalent to older children, if they are provided with audiovisual materials in a repeated format. However, the textual response formats combined with the three stories that are related to exchange a pair of socks, doll, and shirt gifts from stores may not be useful to explore the spontaneous reactions of young children as consumers in the stores.

Moreover, older children are more selective in their search strategies, gathering more information when it is most beneficial in making informed choices and gathering less information when it is more costly to do so. Relying on cost-benefit approach, Gregan-Paxton and John (1995) studied the differences between young children of ages 4-5 and 6-7 years in adapting their search behaviour in the decision-making environment. They found that the adaptivity of children's search behaviour related to the amount of information searched is increased when they get older. Specifically, children of ages 4-5 years old adapt a very limited search cost-benefit information; the mean of search information of young children of ages 4-5 related to low benefits and high costs is higher than the mean of young children of ages 6-7 years old. They gather less information in a high cost than the low cost condition. In contrast, young children of ages 6-7 years

respond to changes in the decision environment through modifying the amount of information, gathering and altering the search strategies according to the decision condition. In the second experiment, they found that the mean of low search benefits of young children of ages 6-7 years old is less than the mean of young children of ages 4-5 years old. That is, children begin to adapt their search strategies at the age of 6-7 years old. However, these results are consistent with Davidson and Hudson's (1988) findings who found that children of the elementary school exhibit a wider range of adaptive responses. They increase the amount of information gathered in response to choice situations that are permanent, acknowledge the need to spend more time gathering information for decisions that are important or irreversible, and recognise the need to examine more brands before making a choice according to the important versus relatively unimportant.

On the other hand, Gregan-Paxton and John's (1995) study can be criticised by the following points:

- The authors relied on the cost of the small pieces of candy in studying the cost-benefit trade off. They did not clearly identify the benefits (prizes) against the costs (small pieces of candy) that may affect the results.
- The authors acknowledged that a more complex search task might produce less encouraging results. That is, different search conditions with higher task demands may not explore the same abilities in preschoolers as those observed in the two studies.
- The authors did not take into consideration the affect of peer influence during the experiments.
- The authors did not identify the sampling procedures used in the selecting the subjects.

However, the aforementioned results of Wackman and Ward (1976), Rossiter (1976), Reece (1984), Brucks et al. (1986), Poiesz (1986), John and Sujana (1990), Peracchio (1992), and Gregan-Paxton and John (1995) can be explained in accordance with Roedder's (1981) findings related to children processing-information deficiencies. Roedder (1981) assesses the adequacy of the information-processing explanation for age

differences in children's reactions to television advertising. She identifies three types of children processing-information: children of limited processors (below 6 years of age) who have difficulties in selecting information relevant to a task or event. At this age, children cannot use storage and retrieval skills and strategies even when prompted in a task environment because they have not yet acquired efficient information-processing strategies. Therefore, they are not fully able to understand the nature and the applicability of product information. Children of cued processors (ages 6 to 9 years old) display greater abilities than the limited processors; they employ efficient information storage and retrieval strategies if it is prompted by appropriate cues. Strategic processors (10 years old and above) possess developed storage memory that enables them to evaluate and select a product as an adult; they spontaneously employ storage and retrieval strategies. In addition, the quantity, the formats of information, and the instructions set affect the measurement of children's consumer skills and knowledge during the experiments (John, 1986: 648). In this respect, she referred the information quantity to the number of informational units that were necessary to complete the task and relate the information formats to the way in which task-relevant information is presented that helpful in processing information than others. While the instruction sets refer to the guidelines and strategies given to the subjects to enhance their performance on the task, the response formats refer to the manner in which subjects are required to respond to the task. All these factors affect the results of experimental research.

Twenty-five years of consumer socialisation "1974-1998" research have yielded remarkable findings related to young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes. John (1999) conceptualised the children's consumer socialisation stages. She supported the aforementioned perspectives; children at the perceptual stage (ages 3-7) focus on a single dimension of the product attributes such as the size, package, or the colour of product, and their purchase decisions rely on a surface level and on a limited information resultant to their deficiencies in encoding and organising information properly. At the analytical stage (ages 7-11), children recognise two or more dimensions of a stimulus at once and relate them in an abstract way. They recognise the brand names of products and discriminate them on more than one attribute. They are able to evaluate

and compare product premiums, use more attributes and dimensions in evaluating and selecting their preferences and adapt them to cost-benefit trade-offs. They try to influence and negotiate for desired items, and to think from the perspective of a parent or a friend and adapt their influence strategy accordingly. However, John (1999) has covered five major topics in the conceptualisation of consumer socialisation stages that represent the outputs of the consumer socialisation process such as advertising and persuasion knowledge, transaction knowledge, decision-making skills and abilities, purchase influence and negotiation strategies, and consumption motives and values. She did not take into consideration the research findings related to sensorimotor operational stage and the economic socialisation of children's consumption behaviour.

Advertising is a significant source of information for children. On that context, Moore and Lutz (2000) supported Reece (1984) and Brucks et al.'s (1986) findings. They examined the interrelated effect of advertising and product trial in forming children's attitudes towards product brands. The experimental results indicated that advertising played a significant role in shaping children's thinking until they acquire sufficient cognitive and attitudinal defences. Young children of ages 10-11 years old who are only exposed to product trial, exhibited different attitudes towards product brands compared to those exposed to advertising prior to product trial. In this respect, there is no difference between young children of ages ranging from 7 to 8 years old; they exhibit the same attitudes towards brands. Regardless of young children's ages, children's attitudes toward advertising have a direct effect on their attitudes towards brands when they are only exposed to advertising as the sole information source. When advertising exposure precedes product trial, the advertising directly influences young children's attitude towards brands. In contrast, the advertising has a direct and indirect influence on the older children's attitudes towards brands; despite the young children's ages ranging from 10 to 11 years recognise the exaggerations of commercial advertising, they influenced by advertisers' messages.

However, the authors did not take into consideration children's familiarity with the products under investigation. The limitation of the sample size that consisted of 72 subjects affects the generalisability of research findings. In addition, a one-week interval

between the two experiments may affect the successive events of the research tasks. In a similar vein, Zhang and Sood (2002) confirmed the findings of Roedder (1981), Reece (1984), John and Sujana (1990) relating to children's ability in categorising products and using music in TV advertising to recall the slogans of retail stores. They discuss the notion that age is an important moderator of brand extension evaluations. The extension evaluation process involves retrieving parent's brand information from memory, retrieving extension category information from memory, and assessing the relationship between them. In this respect, they found that there is a difference between children and adults in evaluating the brand extensions relating to use the deep and surface cues. While the adults use deep features such as category similarity judgment, children of ages 11-12 year olds rely on surface features such as brand names as the basis of extension evaluations. Surface similarity that referred to the linguistic characteristics of brand names (rhyming names) influences children's brand evaluations more than the category similarity judgement. Children evaluate extensions containing rhyming names better than extensions containing non-rhyming names. The rhyming and non-rhyming names do not affect adults' brand evaluations. In general, children rely on surface cues when they process product information that is more reliant on deep cues.

However, the researchers select the stimuli "products" which are well known to parent-adult and parent-child: pair (1), Coca-Cola (iced tea, toffee) and Wrigley's (toffee, iced tea); pair 2, Kellogg's (breakfast biscuits, canned fruit) and Campbell's (canned fruit, breakfast biscuits); and pair 3, Crest (mouthwash, shampoo) and Remington (shampoo, mouthwash). Different patterns of results may emerge if the parent brands are more neutral or even unfavourable. The sample size that consists of 24 adults and 20 sixth-grade students may affect the generalisability of research findings. Finally, they did not identify the parents involved in these brands and as such, it is not clear whether these brands are related to fathers or mothers.

Based on John's model (1999), Grant and Stephen (2005) confirmed the general results of Caruana and Vassallo (2003) who found that parents and peer groups played a fundamental role on young children's decision-making process. Specifically, the results of four-one hour structured focus group interviews showed that the buying behaviour of

Scottish girls related to clothes fashion is mainly influenced by parents, peer group, and mass media. According to parents' influence, the girls of tweenages state that their mothers play a very influential role in choosing the clothes bought for school and for special occasions. The mass media influence is associated with in-store house magazines "either paid for or free", the fashion articles, and fashion advertisements followed by billboard, cinema, satellite and "free-view" shopping channels. In general, girls of tweenages have a good knowledge about clothes fashion and have an ability to assess what clothes they should/should not buy as a result of their experiences in brands. They preferred brand names, design, and styles. The older sisters of tweenages are important sources of information in choosing clothes fashion. These results are contradicted with Meyer and Anderson's (2000) findings in that boys of twelve years old considered the clothes brand names as more important than girls at the same age did.

#### **3.4.2 The effect of verbal information and visual cues on children's shopping consumer role**

In general, children's consumption preferences depend on the visual information memory more than the verbal information memory; certain amount of picture cues and colour cues enhance children's memorizing of a brand name. The visual information differed from the verbal information with respect to the memory storage. Consequently, children's choices or preferences differed according to which types of information were firstly retrieved. In this regard, Rossiter (1976) utilised the drawing technique to examine the children's ability of first, third, and fifth graders in utilising the stored visual information of brand identification, nutrition, sweetness, and the premium offers of a cereal product. He found that the storage of visual and verbal information is linearly increased with children's ages. The first grader followed by the third grader of students is more likely to rely on the flavour of cereal products than the fifth grader of students. The premium offers "promotion" of cereal product is very important to the 5<sup>th</sup> grade of young children compared to the 1<sup>st</sup> grade of young children. However, these findings cannot be generalised to other food products but they are consistent with children's cognitive development.

On the other hand, Moschis (1987) suggested that the experience of children is increased

with the marketplace activities as a result of increasing their needs for products and services and changes on their cognitive development. Likewise, Solomon et al. (1999: 61) stated, “the degree to which the symbolism is consistent with our previous experience affects the meaning we assign to related objects”. That is, an experience related-product may be more important than the cognitive development relating to the acquisition of consumption-based on symbolism. In addition, the stereotype products are more easy to be attended, stored in memory, and retrieved compared to information that disconfirms the stereotype that referred to a knowledge structure based on inferences across products (Solomon et al., 1999: 228). Departing from these premises, Belk et al. (1984) argued that the development of children’s abilities to recognise consumption symbolism are influenced by the age, gender, and the social class of young children that lead them to have different amounts of experience with certain consumption products. Specifically, through 10 stimulus “3 types of jeans, 2 types of bicycles, 2 types of shoes, and 3 types of video games” slides combined with group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire, they asked the young children of 4<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades to judge the person who owns each of the 10 products on four-point scales measuring 10 attributes. They found that the sixth graders of students held stronger consumption-based inferences on “stereotype products” than did younger children. Girls held stronger stereotypes and more sensitivity to clothing cues than did boys. Children of higher social class held stronger stereotypes than lower social class. There is no difference between young children with older siblings and those without older siblings in having strong consumption stereotypes; the older sibling has a limited effect on consumption stereotype strength. In general, older children, females, and higher social class children drew stronger inferences than their counterparts did.

These results are consistent with Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978) and Belk et al.’s (1982, cited in Belk et al., 1984: 387) findings. Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978) found that children from higher socio-economic backgrounds have more opportunities for consumption and are more aware of their consumer environment, including the availability of products in the marketplace than the children of lower socio-economic backgrounds. Belk et al. (1982) found that the judgments of young children of ages 4-5

years old relating to adults' products were essentially random and that older children's inferences were progressively more consistent and more similar to those of college students and adults. In contrast, Belk et al.'s (1984) study may be criticised in terms of the sample structure as the authors did not adjust their data according to the proportion of the two grades and gender in making-up the total sample that may significantly affect their results. They did not take into account the influence of family communication environment on young children's orientations towards stereotype consumption.

In general, the visual cues associated with colours and pictures improve young children's memory to encode, store, and retrieve the brand names effectively. In this regard, Macklin (1996) confirmed Rossiter's (1976) findings. She investigated how young children learn brand names from visual product cues and how these cues improve children's learning of the brand names through manipulating the variables of the type and the degree of association of colours and pictures related to product packages, and young children's ages. She found that the older children across the three experiments outperformed the younger children's ability in recalling the brand names with visual cues or not. While the younger children depend on visual cues more than do the older children, the gender of young children does not affect children learning the brand names from visual cues. Overall, the associated visual cues "colours and pictures" assist all children to recall the brand names. That is, the products' packages that contain visual cues play an essential role in teaching young children the brands names.

However, despite the sample consisting of 200 boys and girls, the researcher did not identify the sampling procedures. The influence of children's intelligence and their preferences were not taken into consideration that may affect the preschoolers' memory to recall the brand names. She depends on the construction approach in manipulating the visual cues of cereal, soft drink, a candy bar, juice, and cupcake snack products. In this kind of experimental tasks, the results are completely depending on how the researcher presents the brand names to be more close to the actual situation. The author acknowledged that the study focused on the learning of brand names but not on the cues themselves. As was mentioned above, this technique is influenced by the nature, formats, and the quantity of visual cues in measuring young children's learning of brand names.

In relation to the managerial implications, packaging of product is a communication tool; the features of product packaging that include colours and graphics give the consumer a visual cue “sales talk” during shopping and usage of the product. That is, visual memory of packaging facilitates consumers’ identification and selection of products from store displays. Underwood (1999: 147) says, “Consumers may experience symbolism derived from packaging without engaging in the actual purchase and usage of the product...the package provides consumers with lived experiences with the brand and the product when they are purchased and consumed”.

On the other hand, there is a difference between the effects of numerical and verbal information in the evaluation of products. The numerical information of a product is easier to be encoded, stored, and retrieved than the verbal information because the verbal information does not convey the meaning directly as does the numerical information and some of the original information might be lost while processing and encoding the verbal information, which in turn affects the judgment of the products. Based on 12 experiments, Viswanathan and Childers (1996) investigated the processing and memory differences in retrieving the numerical and verbal information related to the calculator’s attributes of warranty length, battery life, and weight, the number of arithmetic functions, the display width, and memory. They found that the numerical information used in the evaluation of the calculator’s attributes requires less processing time than the verbal information of the product during the learning task; it is faster, more accurate, and higher than the verbal information of product attributes in recalling the product attributes. However, these results cannot be generalised to another specific product. The authors did not clearly clarify how they measured these attributes. In addition, the subjects who participated in these experiments may have greater tendency towards numerical information than verbal information that may affect their evaluation.

The mixed approach of projective techniques and focus group discussions is useful to scrutinize children’s ability in recognising the brand names of the sports wear clothes. On that context, Hogg et al. (1999) supported Belk et al.’s (1984) findings when they found that children of ages 7 to 10 years old have an ability to recognise and perceive the brand names and logos clearly for the sports wear clothes. Specifically, they found that young

children of ages 7-10 years are able to distinguish between the brand names and logos. The symbolic meaning was presented in children's collages; young children relate the attributes of sweatshirt and T-shirt to the sportsmen in their evaluation of brands. Boys demonstrate the symbolic meanings attached to the sports brands more than do girls. The symbolic dimensions were associated with different sports' stars such as footballers, rugby players, athletes and tennis players. In general, they found that the collages of the older children have more details and comments than younger children's collages.

However, these results were mainly based on the focus groups' discussions that consisted of 52 focus groups totalling "237 participants". These results are consistent with Baker's (2003) argument who noted that there are strong indications that the results of focus group technique may be used as the basis for actual decisions. In addition, the difference between boys and girls in the brand knowledge can be attributed to the type of products under investigation, for example, boys are more interested in and familiar with football sport than the girls are.

A product label is used to inform consumers about a product quality, performance, ingredients, safe use and care (Bettman et al., 1986) and the cognitive heuristics label is referred to "the mental rules of thumb that lead to a speedy decision" (Solomon et al., 1999: 226). Based on the cognitive development theory, Marshal et al. (2002) investigated the difference between children of concrete operational stage and young adult "undergraduate students" in using the cognitive heuristics cues. They exposed the respondents to three identical tubes of ice cream containing a heuristic label cue called "length is strength" and asked them to judge the quality of products. The term (length is strength) is referred to "the association between the quality and the quantity of written information in the label regardless of the actual information content" (P: 109). They found that:

- Girls display greater use of (consumer) heuristics than do the boys of the same age.
- Males' and females' response to using the heuristic cues is increased according to the increase in the levels of information in a product label.

- While the boys' perception of the quality is decreased when they are exposed to medium information levels, the young adults "females and males" exhibit a similar heuristic information processing strategy regardless of information levels.
- In general, children of the concrete operational stage have less ability to use the heuristic cues than the young adults do.

These results are consistent with Mangleburg et al.'s (1997) findings who found that females are greater users of product labels than do males. Also, these results are relatively consistent with Viswanathan and Childers' (1996) findings as stated above.

However, relying on convenience sampling procedures and selecting the children from three better-performing classes in a public primary school may negatively affect the generalisability of research findings. In this regard, Moore and Stephens (1975) found that the intelligence levels of children "Grade point accumulative average of students in schools" significantly influence children's recall slogans. In addition, the researchers did not take into account the effect of children's involvement "the level of children importance and/or interest evoked by a stimulus" in a product that may affect children's ability in making the quality judgment. Relating to the managerial implications, a consumer may be induced into a higher quality perception of a product through increasing the level of information content on the product label regardless of whether the information is positive or negative.

In a similar vein, McNeal and Ji (2003) supported Rossiter (1976) and Macklin's (1996) findings; a certain amount of picture and colour cues of product packages activates children's visual memory of brand names. On that context, McNeal and Ji (2003) investigated the influence of the visual information memory on Chinese children to recall the brand names of the cereal products. To achieve this objective, they analysed all children's cereal boxes to determine the features of each box and then asked children (n = 125) of the first, third, and fifth grades to draw a cereal box. They compared the young children's drawings with the actual cereal boxes. They found that the cues of words, colours, package components associated with the actual cereal boxes have significantly prompted the visual memory of Chinese children to reproduce the shape and the proportions of these boxes with great conformity.

Specifically, Chi-square analysis showed the following results:

- Overall, more than 34% of children added spokes-characters, 25% included slogans, and over 60% attached the manufacturers' names.
- More than 97.6% of young children relate their drawings to specific brand names. The third and fifth graders are more likely to include brand names in their drawings more than the first graders do.
- 44.4% of the fifth graders are more likely to over-represent spokes-characters in their drawings that reflect the reality of the product than the third (34.4%) and the first (33.3%) graders.
- The third and fifth graders are more likely to include brand slogans than the first graders.
- A smaller number of drawings contained young children interested in the nutrition and health matter by picturing the milk.
- 9.6% of children's visual memory attends to the premium offers of the cereals boxes.

In addition, these results are consistent with Soldow's (1985) findings who found that a cognitive development stage is the best predictor to understand the identity and function of a product package; children at the concrete development stage are able to comprehend the important aspects of packages and the functional properties of package size more than the preoperational and operational children do. However, the authors relied on Chi-square analysis; this technique cannot demonstrate the strengths/weakness and the direction of relationship between the ages of young children and the product knowledge of children.

### **3.5 Children's shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes based on survey and quantitative observation research design**

A number of researchers and research centres such as McNeal (1969), Moore and Stephen (1975), Ward et al. (1977 b), Reece and Kinnear (1986), Isler et al. (1987), Moschis (1987), Abramovitch et al. (1991), Rust (1993), Shim et al. (1995), McNeal and Yeh (1997), Gunter and Furnham (1998), Zollo (1999), McNeal and Ji (1999), Meyer and Anderson (2000), Setlow (2001), Hailing and Tufte (2002), National Consumer Council/London (2005), Chan (2005), Chan and McNeal (2006), and Cairns (2007) examined young children's orientations towards shopping and the patterns of

expenditures and how young children behave in shopping milieu, how they think, what they know, and how they express themselves as consumers. Specifically, the following sub-sections reflect the developmental literature review related to children's shopping experiences and sources information about new products, children's shopping consumption patterns and orientations, and the influence of the antecedent variables on children's shopping consumer role.

### **3.5.1 Children's shopping experiences and sources of information about products**

Shopping skills are referred to a wide array of abilities used for comparing product value prior to purchase (Bristol, 2001: 16). In this respect, children and teenagers should have a set of skills to shop effectively for themselves or for their families. They should have a range of cognitive skills such as classification skills "the ability to read and express themselves", arithmetic skills "the ability to read numerals, to know ordinal values, to divide, and to count money", and social cognition skills "the ability to identify the sales representative and cashier" (Reece, 1986). Young children visit the stores alone and with parents more than 200 times a year. They like to visit the convenience stores than others since it is easy to access, and has a lot of merchandise related to their own use, and the first store in which a child makes an independent purchase. When they get older 8-12 years old, they transfer their preferences to speciality stores (McNeal, 1998). In a similar vein, Schiffman et al. (2001) noted that 90% of Australian children of 9 years old make in average 270 purchases per/year independently. Therefore, 68% of retail chains attempt to target children as consumers through advertising, facilitating children shopping and training the stores-people to serve them conveniently (McNeal, 1992). The retailers' interest can be attributed to the following reasons (McNeal, 1998):

- Children have a high disposable income (see section 2.2 of chapter 2).
- Influence their parental purchases.
- Children establish an early loyalty to certain brands.
- Children often buy products impulsively.

In that context, National Consumer Council (2005: 32) reports, "British children influence their parents' decisions about major household purchases such as cars, holidays and leisure".

Departing from these premises, in one of the few and earliest studies on children's shopping behaviour; McNeal (1969: 20) described the young children of seven years old as "solo" consumers. By this age, they begin to refine their consumption skills through modelling parents' consumption behaviour and ask their parents to make shopping trips to stores. During in-store shopping, parents try to teach their children the purchasing procedures. They are also influenced by their peers relating to the brands and the taste of food products. Through TV commercial advertising, children learned about brands, types of stores and pricing. By the time the children reached age nine or ten "the glow of the shopping process", they can discuss the function of stores, the sources of products, and the concept of profit and exhibit discrimination in making shopping trips.

On other hand, Ward et al. (1977 b: 56-59) confirmed McNeal's (1969) arguments relating to the importance of TV advertising and peer influence on young children's consumption behaviour. Using a combination of personal interviews and questionnaires research design, they relied on the learning theory to examine children's information sources about new products. They asked kindergarteners, third, and sixth graders where they would find out three kinds of new products: toys, snacks/food, and clothing. They classified children's responses into three types namely, in-store, interpersonal, and mass media and examined the role of each source in children's learning about new products. They found that in-store experiences are the primary source of new product information for children of all ages. The mass media constitute the second most important source for all children, and particularly for the older children, with television being first in importance, newspapers second, and catalogues third. Interpersonal sources generally rank third in importance, becoming more important with age mainly due to the growing influence of peers. In this regard, the importance of in-store as a source of information about new products comes from its displays and demonstrations of various products; it helps the young children to understand some of the complex characteristics of products such as school-supplies (McNeal and Ji, 1999). However, Ward et al.'s (1977 b) study is an extension to Ward and Wackman's (1974) research related to the relative influences of family and mass media on children's consumer behaviour. The authors did not consider the influence of family communication environment and the socio-economic status on

children's perception of new product information. In addition, it merely focused on the stage of search information rather than the whole stages of decision-making process.

Reece and Kinnear (1986) established two indexes related to children's shopping behaviour; while the first index is related to young children's shopping skills, the second index advocated children's knowledge about stores as sources of goods. Specifically, they investigated what knowledge children of ages 5-12 years old possess and what behaviours they perform in shopping milieu. In this regard, 42% of children reported that they had shopped alone and 73% reported that they had shopped with friends; parents agreed with children's responses. Young children scored the highest mean in describing the department stores (2.96) followed by grocery store (2.58). They scored the highest means in the ability to handle shopping problems (2.29) followed by the ability to name payment methods (2.19), ability to match a product and a department (1.29), and ability to make price-quantity comparisons/unit pricing (1.81). Relating to the store index, they scored the highest means in the ability to match products with store types (10.28) followed by the ability to name stores of various types (10.20), ability to name store employees (3.50), and the awareness of sources of merchandise (1.73). Overall, the shopping skills and store knowledge of young children are increased when a child becomes older. These results are consistent with John's (1985) findings who found that children's shopping experiences and skills are varied across young children's ages. However, the researchers did not identify if these indexes are based on recreational orientations "to fill the after-school hours until a parent comes home" or functional orientations "to acquire family necessities since parents do not have time to shop" (Solomon et al., 1999; Schiffman et al., 2001).

Based on personal intrusive observational technique, Rust (1993) explored the purchasing experience of young children and the patterns of parent-child interactions in-store environment. In relation to children's buying experience, he reports that 27% of younger children (ages 5 and under) pointed at products or other things in the store, 9% children from 6 to 14 had this attribute. He describes the attribute of "pointing" as an indication of desire or symbolic skills. In addition, 11% of older children exhibited some sort of physical involvement with products and 27% of younger children relied on the physical attribute of the products through playing with them, opening them, consuming them, or

manipulating them in one way or another. In-store environment, children aged 5 years old and under were not seen reading the package or the label of products. Seven percent of older children were seen reading such things. However, these results are relatively consistent with John (1985), Macklin (1996), and McNeal and Ji's (2003) findings. Ethically, the observational technique is invasion of privacy because the subjects normally do not know they are being studied (Gunter and Furnham, 1998) and personal observation bias is higher than electronic observation (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

Through personal interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaires (dyadic responses), Meyer and Anderson (2000) examined the influence of parents and peers on the preadolescents' shopping behaviour related to clothing purchase criteria and shopping independence. In relation to pre-adolescents consumer skill and knowledge, they found that a majority of children have an ability to define the quality in qualitative manner; they described the quality of clothes by its durability and longevity. The quality followed by the style compared to other criteria such as the price and the brand name, which are the most important criteria in selecting clothes. Children of age 8 expressed their concern about buying clothes that fatigued quickly. While girls are more concerned about the quality of clothes than boys do, boys rated the style and quality of clothes as equally important except young children of 10 years old who considered the style is very important (93%). Price and brand were ranked as the third and fourth criteria in selecting the clothes. Boys of twelve years old considered brand name as more important than did girls at the same age. Girls aged 8-years used to shop at malls more than boys that decreased significantly by the time they reached 12 years. In general, clothes brand was clearly not as important a purchase criterion as quality, style, or price. The older preadolescents of 11-12 years old are more frequently shopping at the malls to purchase clothing items with their friends than do children of 8-10 years old. That is, children by age 8 begin making product decisions and building a foundation of product knowledge. By age 12, over 45% of pre-adolescents reported that they are frequently co-shopping with their friends to buy caps/hats, t-shirts, and jewellery. However, these results cannot be generalised since the sample was not drawn randomly. The authors ignored the influence of allowances on children's shopping consumer skills. In this regard,

Abramovitch et al. (1991) found that Canadian's children of 6 years old who received allowances or pocket money knew more about pricing. Children of ages 6-10 years old who received allowances were more sophisticated in their spending than their no allowance peers. On the other hand, these results are consistent with the findings of Zollo (1999) who found that the quality is the significant purchase criterion used by adolescents. These results are also consistent with Roedder (1981), John (1985), and Bachmann et al.'s (1993) findings.

Shopping experience and visiting stores independently are common among children in urban China. Based on group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire, Chan (2005) investigated how the urban Chinese children of ages 6-14 perceive the usefulness and the credibility of information sources for new products and assess the degree to which the age and gender of young children have influenced children's store visits. In this respect, the most popular retail shops among urban children to visit is associated with the bookstores/stationery (78%), supermarkets (72%), restaurants and fast food shops (68%). The least frequency is associated with computer (9%). The frequency of supermarkets and restaurant visits is higher than department stores and food store visits. These frequencies are influenced by the age and the gender of children. Regardless of gender, the older children are more likely to visit these stores more than do younger children. Despite children ranking television as the most useful information source, paired sample t-test result indicates that personal sources "parents, teachers, grandparents, friends and classmates" were perceived as useful as commercial sources of information for new products. Overall, televisions were perceived to be the most useful information source for new products among the urban children, followed by friends and parents. While younger children perceive grandparents and teachers as useful information sources for new products, the older children have perceived friends and classmates more useful than other sources. Older urban children are less sceptical about commercial sources than younger children are. In contrast, while parents are the most credible information sources for new products, followed by internet and grandparents, children perceived television as the most unbelievable source. However, these results are consistent with Chan and

McNeal's (2004) findings. The researcher did not take into account the variation of ages sharing to the total sample in their analysis.

Based on group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire, Chan and McNeal (2006) examined how often-rural children of ages 5 to 13 years in mainland China interact with different types of retail shops and how they learn about new products and services, and their attitudes toward different sources of product information. They found that the rural children have limited access to various types of retail shops. The three most popular retail shops among rural children were clothing stores "77%", bookstores/stationery stores "75%" and supermarkets "56%". They relied on their personal information sources "teachers, parents, friends, and classmates" to learn about new products than relying on the commercial sources "TV, newspaper, shops, radio, magazines, street ads, and internet" as a source of information. Relating to personal sources, Chinese children ranked teachers as the most useful information source followed by parents. While friends ranked as a third source, television was ranked as a fourth in perceived usefulness. They perceived grandparents as the least useful source of information. While the younger children rely on their parents and grandparents more than the older children in getting information about new products, both of them do not rely on peers, as a useful and credible source, in getting information about new products and services. Relating to commercial sources, television followed by newspapers, and retail shops were perceived as useful and credible sources than radio, magazines, street advertisements, and internet in obtaining information for new products. Street advertisements were perceived as the least credible source of information. Overall, perceived usefulness of personal sources decreased with age and perceived usefulness of commercial sources increased with age.

However, the authors did not identify the differences between boys and girls' perceptions since their research was considered as a first attempt oriented towards the rural population in China. No information was provided relating to the sampling procedures. In addition, the authors asked the young children "how many times you visit the different stores during last year". In this respect, the children's memory recall, according to the Piaget theory of intellectual development (1970), is not fully developed to recall the figurative

events as the adults do, which in turn negatively affect the research results. In addition, these results are contradicted by Ward et al.'s (1977 b) findings as mentioned above but relatively consistent with Chan's (2005) findings; there is a difference between rural and urban children of ages 6 to 13 years relating to their interaction with different types of retail shops and their attitudes toward different sources of product information.

### **3.5.2 Children's shopping consumption patterns and orientations**

Based on mothers' diaries relating to products requested by children and television viewing, Isler et al. (1987) supported McNeal (1969), Ward et al. (1977 b), and John's (1985) findings. They explored the nature and the frequency of products and services that are requested by children of 3-11 years old. They found that the highest requests for the types of products were associated with snack food "dessert products, beverages, and salty snack" (24%), candy "gum and other" (17%), toys (15%), and clothes (10%). Food represents 54% of total requests made by children. The types of products and the number of requests differed according to the ages of young children; preschool children (ages of 3-7) make significantly more requests than those made by older elementary school-age children (ages 8-11). While children of ages 3-7 years old scored the highest frequencies in requesting cereal, candy, and toys, the older children are more likely to request clothes and sport equipment than do younger children. In addition, there is a significant relationship between the frequency of requests for products and television viewing. Within product categories, the highest correlation between TV viewing and the heavily advertised products was associated with cereal products followed by candy and toys. Mothers indicated that seeing the product in the store is the primary reason why younger children request candy, but the mothers believe that several influences besides television advertising account for older children's purchase requests. However, no information was provided if mothers were engaged or not in the work force. Similarly, the researchers did not identify whether mothers diaries represented single parent household or two-parent household. They did not take into consideration the adjustment factor of weighting the sample data in their analysis since there was a difference between the ages regarding contribution in forming the total sample. On the other hand, the sampling procedures were totally based on pre-selection by the interviewing firm.

Based on two questionnaires filled out by children's parents, McNeal and Yeh (1997) conducted the first research in China related to children's consumer behaviour. They found Chinese children at the age 4 or 5 have an ability to shop independently to buy products for their own use; independently is clearer at the age of 8 and above. By age 6, the average of visiting stores independently is ranged from 1-2 trips per/week. By age 9, it is between two and three except for 12 year olds whose shopping trips decline markedly since they devote more time to school. There is no difference between boys and girls relating to the average number of store visits either with or without parents. While most stores that children of ages 4-10 frequently visit are associated with the food stores, the bookstores being number one with children aged 10 and over. Overall, the frequencies of stores visits do not differ by children's gender. In addition, young children's spending patterns are related to buying snacks "21%", books and magazines "31%", school supplies "25%", play items "8%", clothing "10%", music "2%", sporting goods "2%", and electronics "1%". There is no significant difference between boys and girls related to the spending patterns on these categories. Young children influence their parents by 75% of buying bakery items, candy, clothing, fruits, fruit juices, gum, ice cream, imported candy, movies, nuts, shoes, stationery, toys, and video games but their influence on buying toothpaste/brush is significantly increased when they get older. Girls and boys have about equal influence on 21 items, but girls have significantly more influence on buying bakery items, fruit juices, ice cream, and toys. In that context, it should be noted that the spending patterns of Chinese children related to food and clothes are consistent with American children's patterns as was reported by (Isler et al., 1987). However, the authors did not rely on probability sampling technique in the selection of respondents. They did not identify which parents filled out the two questionnaires. In addition, they did not solicit young children's responses. In this regard, Mangleburg (1990) says, "Results on children's influence vary according to who is the respondent.... whatever the focus of the study, children should be included as they are the relevant units of analysis in most studies of children's influence" (Mangleburg, 1990: 825).

Setlow (2001: 16) confirmed Isler et al. (1987), McNeal and Yeh's (1997) findings; she found that food purchases are the most area that kids are free to buy. Specifically, when

he asked the young children which area they had the most purchasing freedom, the kids ranked the food purchases firstly followed closely by entertainment and media products that include games and toys (49%), books (48%) and pre-recorded music (44%). Somewhat fewer tweens and teens reported being allowed to choose their own magazines (38%) and video games (33%).

In relation to British children's orientations related to fashion and brand-consciousness, the National Consumer Council / London (2005) conducted a national survey called "Shopping Generation" of UK's children of ages 9-12 and teenagers. It was aimed at investigating young children's views on shopping, brands and advertising. In this regard, the survey results showed that 80% of these ages enjoy shopping; 84% of children aged 9-12 years care a lot about their games and "other stuff", 78% like shopping, and two-thirds like clothes with popular labels and 50% think that the brand names are important. In addition, while 46% of children aged 10-12 confirmed the importance of brands names, 42% disagreed. When they become older, 57% of children ages 13-17 consider the brand name is important. In relation to the differences between boys and girls' shopping behaviour, the survey shows that shopping is seen as much more of a "girl thing". In this respect, 94% of girls like shopping against 68% of boys. Eighty percent of boys against 61% of girls care a lot about their games and "other stuff". While girls like shopping more than do boys, boys have more keenness than do girls to obtain the "right" things when they buy something. While 73% of boys like clothes with popular labels compared with 67% of girls, 59% of boys say that the brand name is important when they buy something compared with 46% of girls. In relation to the materialistic value, the survey shows that 41% of UK children have materialistic attitudes towards consumption. On that context, there are differences between the UK regions. Greater London emerges as the most materialistic area; 56% of children in Greater London said that they wish their family could afford to buy them more of what they want compared with 47% of children in the North of UK. In relation to commercial advertising, despite their keenness for shopping, children said that they feel exposed to mere advertising exposures. They are fully aware of the intent of the commercial messages; they said commercials tried to sell their brands. In conclusion, the survey summarised young children's perception of advertisers'

practices; children ask the marketers to be honest in their advertising messages, to treat them with respect and take them seriously through controlling the use of inappropriate advertising aimed at them, and to put tighter controls on advertising for products that are bad for young people. That is, “marketers should take note and ensure that they engage the younger generation, rather than merely fire messages at them” p: 32).

In addition, Cairns (2007: 46) confirmed the above findings; he reported that a child in the UK receives 70 toys per/year. Eight out of 10 children have their own televisions and half have a video or DVD in their rooms. A million under 10 years old have mobile phones. Sixty eight percent of British mothers spend more time on children’s clothes than their own. The UK Children are interested in brands and shopping; the average child of 10 years old has internalised some 300-400 brands. Overall, the results of the two surveys are consistent with the consumer socialisation stages and cognitive development theory.

### **3.5.3 The influence of the antecedent variables on children shopping consumer role**

Relying on group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire, Moore and Stephen (1975) investigated the factors that affect the adolescent learning consumer skills related to slogan recall, attitudes toward advertising, brand specification (comprehension), and price accuracy. They found that the older adolescents are more accurate than younger adolescents in pricing the items selected and exhibited more brand preferences for products than do the younger adolescents. There is no difference between adolescents’ ages relating to slogan recall of products. The older adolescents display negative attitudes toward advertising and search product information more than younger adolescents do prior to purchasing high, medium or low-risk items. Friends and siblings are more influential on the most recent item purchased by both younger and older adolescents than parents and media sources. In relation to media exposure times, younger adolescents are more likely to watch TV more than do the older adolescents. In contrast, the older adolescents read the newspapers and listen to the radio more than younger adolescents.

While personal weekly spending of older adolescents, and brand specification are positively associated with accurate pricing, mass media exposures were negatively related to brand specification. Grade point accumulative average (GPA) of students is positively associated with weekly spending for high school students and negatively linked for

middle school respondents. However, this study can be criticised since it is directed to rural community; it did not include adolescents from urban schools as subjects for study. This study did not include the group of young children to achieve a fuller understanding of children's development through concrete and formal operational stages in acquiring those consumer skills.

Hailing and Tufte (2002) investigated the influence of gender on Danish children's purchasing power, brand awareness, media use, and their attitudes towards advertising. The results of self-administered questionnaires showed that while the boys of ages 5-18 are more interested in computers, games and videos, girls of the same age are more interested in clothes, jewellery and make-up, which are less expensive products. Boys are more knowledgeable about brand awareness and usage than girls' knowledge relating to the product categories of instant chocolate (2), biscuits (4), ice cream (24), soft drinks (10), chocolate milk (4), fruit syrup (8), sandwich spread (4), chocolate spread (5), cereals (19), children's clothes (4), and shoes (6). Girls are more knowledgeable than boys on the categories of skin care (4). Boys have better access to TV and cable/satellite programmes and use the internet more frequently than girls do. In addition, boys display more positive attitudes towards commercials and ads than girls do. The largest gender differences emerge around age 8-12 years. These differences disappeared when children get older. In line with previous research related to children's attitudes towards TV advertising, these results are consistent with Bush et al.'s (1999) findings that young adults' attitudes toward advertising were significantly influenced by the gender.

However, the researchers employed the frequency analysis; this kind of analysis cannot demonstrate the strength and the direction of relationship between the gender of young children and their consumer skills and attitudes. They did not take into consideration the influence of family environment and the socio-economic status of mothers. In addition, parents assisted their younger children of ages 5-7 years old in filling the questionnaire.

Using a self-administered questionnaire filled out by children of ten years old, Marquis (2004) studied the environment influence on the food choices of young French-Canadian children and parents' decisions relating to food purchasing. According to the regression analysis results, he found that boys' seeing food advertised on TV (0.36) is the best

predictor of their influence on parents' decisions followed by motivation of seeing what others eat (0.20), influence from others' opinions (0.13), and eating in front of television (0.12). By contrast, girls' eating in their rooms (0.27) is the best predictor of their influence on parents' decisions relating to food purchasing followed by food advertised on TV (0.22), motivation of seeing what others eat (0.18), and others' opinions (0.16). Overall, while the boys' regression model explained 20.2 percent of the variance observed, the girls' model explained 31.5 percent of the variance observed.

However, the results are specific to ten-year-old French-Canadian participants and children from other cultures within the Canadian population and other age groups may behave differently. He did not take into account the interpersonal influence of parents. Similarly, he did not identify which types of food products young children influence parents' decisions.

### **3.6 Summary**

This chapter shows that the experimental and qualitative research designs, which heavily relied on Piaget's theory of intellectual development, have focused on the ability of a child in acquiring shopping consumer skills and knowledge more than understanding their attitudes and orientations towards shopping especially that related to grocery and food products. It explained the relationship between children's cognitive development "young children's ages" and specific learning property through controlling the effect of other factors such as family communication patterns and the structural variable of children's consumer socialisation. In contrast, the literature on survey design focused on the influence of the external variables "social settings" including the age variable on young children's shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes.

Overall, the literature review of this chapter showed that young children exhibit qualitative differences in acquiring shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes when they moved from perceptual stage to analytical stage. In this regard, young children enjoy shopping. By age 8, they begin making product decisions and building a foundation of product knowledge; young children have an ability to recall the brand names of products and the slogans of retail stores and distinguish between the brand names. They

know the price-quality relationship, make price-quantity comparisons/unit pricing, and rely on more deep attributes to judge the quality of products such as a product performance and the premium offers of the products in evaluating and selecting process. They understand the selling messages of commercials, and the commercial advertising slogans. They are influenced by the products' packages. Through co-shopping, parents try to teach their children the purchasing procedures.

In addition, children have an ability to describe the grocery and department stores, and exchange the products from stores. They can discuss the concept of profit and exhibit discrimination in making shopping trips. Young children have an ability to shop independently; they usually visit the food stores, the bookstores, clothing stores, and supermarkets to buy snack food, sandwich spread, candy, cereal, bakery items, fruits, fruit juices, gum, ice cream, clothes, toys, books and magazines, school supplies, play items, video games, sporting goods, electronics, caps/hats, t-shirts, jewellery, and shoes. Children acquired these shopping skills and knowledge, and attitudes from multi socialisation agents such as parents, mass media, peers, and in-store. Today's children are knowledgeable and sophisticated consumers. Hence, the marketers and advertisers should reckon children's purchasing power and their desires.

Finally, the literature review of this chapter confirms the complementary relationship between the experimental or/and qualitative research and the survey research designs. Specifically, while the experimental and qualitative research designs studied the effect of visual and verbal cues of the stimulus in exploring young children consumer skills and knowledge, the survey design describes the characteristics of children's consumer skills, knowledge, and orientations towards shopping and the patterns of expenditures.

## **Chapter 4**

### **Parent-Child Interaction in Marketplace Activities**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

Chapter 3 has clearly identified how young children acquire the consumer knowledge and described the characteristics of children's consumer skills, knowledge, and shopping orientations related to grocery and food products. According to the general consumer socialisation model of Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978), children's learning properties are the outputs of the agent-learner interaction in marketplace activities that are influenced by the antecedent variables such as children's ages and gender, socio-economic status, family size, ethnic background, and other demographical variables in a specific situation. A socialisation agent may refer to a number of people and organisation such as family members, peers, and school that are directly involved in the socialisation process. Therefore, this chapter is designed to review and discuss the developmental literature of parent-child interaction in shopping milieu. Specifically, it aims to address the following question:

“To what degree parents' roles and parent-child interaction in marketplace activities do influence on children's consumption socialisation behaviour?”

However, this question was addressed by a number of researchers such as Arndt (1972), Saunders et al. (1973), Ward and Wackman (1974), Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978), Robertson et al. (1985), Ward et al. (1986), Moore-Shay and Lutz (1988), Robertson et al. (1989), Rust (1993), Shim et al. (1995), Moore-Shay and Berchmans (1996), Mangleburg et al. (1997), Darian (1998), Ahuja et al. (1998), McNeal and Ji (1999), Meyer and Anderson (2000), Dotson and Hyatt (2000), Rummel et al. (2000), Carruth and Skinner (2001), Hassan (2002), Geuens et al. (2003), Ozgen (2003), Kamaruddin and Mokhlis (2003), Pettersson et al. (2004), Wilson and Wood (2004), Spungin (2004), Dotson and Hyatt (2005), Koksal (2007), and Nørgaard et al. (2007). They have studied the importance of parents' role in transferring the consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes to their children directly or indirectly through parent-child interaction in shopping milieu. In this respect, the literature review was divided into eight sections.

## **4.2 Family definition**

Prior to conceptualising parent-child interaction in shopping milieu, it would be logical to define the family. In this respect, the family is “the persons within a private or institutional household who are related as husband and wife or as parent and never-married child by blood or adoption” (Solomon et al., 1999: 306). Likewise, Schiffman et al. (2001) defined the family as two or more people related by blood, marriage or adoption, and residing together (husband and wife) have an influence on family decisions. It performs four basic functions relating to consumer behaviour studies: family-member socialisation, economic well-being, emotional support and provision of a family lifestyle. On the other hand, some studies consider a family as part of the reference groups in shaping children’s consumption behaviour, Bearden and Etzel (1982: 184) defined the reference group as “...a group of people that significantly influences an individual’s behaviour.” Shaffer (1988) argued that the reference group in consumer behaviour contexts are typically comprised of significant others from the individuals’ social network, including family members, co-workers, peers and friends as well as inspirational figures such as sports heroes, movie stars, and fictional characters. For children, family members and peers are the most dominant reference groups.

## **4.3 Conceptualisation of family as a primary consumer socialisation agent**

With respect to family-member socialisation, as shown in chapter 2, the socialisation theory suggests that individual learning is a continuous process of acquiring attitudes, norms, habits and values congruent with their culture occurring through training and imitation that prolonged into adulthood. It is a complex and a lifelong process, in which the relative influence of various socialisation agents changes over time (Ward, 1974). Earlier research conducted by Ward et al. (1977 a), Moschis and Moore (1978), Bellenger and Moschis (1982) showed that a socialisation agent may include any persons, organisations or information sources that encounter the consumer in marketplace activities such as family, church, peers, school, and mass media. The family is the primary socialisation agent for children that introduces and trains them how to be consumers (McNeal, 1992). Parents as part of a family, according to Solomon et al.’s (1999) definition, have a major responsibility for imparting consumer education to

children (Doss et al., 1995) and play a major role in shaping the general attitudes of family members toward marketplace practices-related to advertising (Bush et al., 1999). In this regard, parents did not receive a deserveable attention in the literature as primary consumer socialisation agents of children compared with that paid to the mass media (Moschis, 1987; John, 1999).

Broadly speaking, there are four main socialisation agents directly influence children's consumer socialisation: parents, schools, peers and television. Parents and peers are the two principal interpersonal sources from which children learn about products and their consumption. Of all environmental socialisation agents, parental influence is the most pervasive and important; parents play a crucial role in teaching young people the basic rational aspects of consumption, such as understanding price-quality relationships, handling money wisely and obtaining appropriate information before making purchase decisions (Ward et al., 1977 b; Moschis, 1985; McNeal, 1987; Cowell, 2001).

In that context, Ward et al. (1977 a) investigated the effects of family variables "parents consumer behaviour, parent-child interaction, child's independent consumer opportunity", and TV advertising on the processing-information of kindergarteners, third, and sixth graders related to money use, spending, saving, and purchase requests. They referred parents' consumer behaviour to mothers' goals/skills for their children as consumers. Child's opportunity refers to observing his parents' behaviour, interacting with his parents in consumption situations, and engaging in consumption activity under some degree of parental guidance. They found that the family variables explained 10% to 15% of the variance in children's use of consumer skills at each of the three grade levels. They concluded that the family has directly influenced the development of general cognitive abilities and indirectly influenced the *development* of consumer skills. The family has a direct impact on *motivating* children to apply general cognitive abilities in areas of consumer behaviour and teaching consumer skills, which are not highly integrated with cognitive abilities. Despite these findings, the study did not specifically identify the content of mothers' consumer attitudes towards developing the consumer skills of their young children. The learning process is only based on children's cognitive development; it did not take into consideration the social learning theory or social taking role in

analysing the effect of mother's variables, mother-child variables, mother's consumer goals and attitudes, and child opportunity variables in learning properties. It relates parent-child interaction to mother-child interaction; it neglects the influence of the father's role in developing his/her child's the consumer skills and promoting the processing information skills. In addition, children's consumer role is influenced by the quality of interaction or communication process that is referred to the structure and the types of family communication patterns (Moschis and Moore, 1979). It is noteworthy to indicate that Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978) and Moschis and Moore's (1979) conceptualisations complete the inadequacies of Ward and his colleagues' findings and interpret a wide range of learning properties as a result of parent-child interaction in marketplace activities. In addition, Rose (1999) pointed out that consumer socialisation is a complex environmental process and usually used the following dimensions with respect to parent-child communication: communication about consumption, children's consumption autonomy, children's influence and participation in family purchases, and restriction of consumption and media exposure.

#### **4.4 Conceptualisation of the intergenerational influence**

There is an argument that brand and product preferences as well as consumer buying styles (choice rules) may be transferred from one generation to the next within the concept of family consumption behaviour (Arndt, 1972; Miller, 1975; Moore and Lutz, 1988; Moore-Shay et al., 2001). In this regard, Miller (1975: 93) posed the following questions about how parents affect the consumption behaviour of the family members: "Are general patterns of spending, saving and management which are observed by children in the parental home reflected in similar behaviour by these children after they become adults? To what extent are specific consumer choices made from generation to generation within family lines? Are there certain products or classes of products with high brand loyalty between generations? To what degree are global patterns of marital economic management and consumption styles of interacting, arbitrating, and deciding transmitted? To what degree are broad value orientations which impinge on consumer behaviour (the conservative penny-pincher and impulsive whim satisfier) passed on between parents and children?" That is, the brand loyalty, product preferences, attitudes

and beliefs towards marketplace practices, and consumer buying styles (choice rules) are transferred from one generation to the next. These orientations flow naturally within the repetitive rhythms and rituals of everyday life (Moore-Shay et al., 2001).

Earlier, Arndt (1972) studied the similarities among family members in buying styles and perceived risk. He found that the family members tend to be like each other regarding risk perception across product classes. In addition, he divided the behavioural homogeneity between parents and children into buying style formation phase, buying style convergence phase, and buying style divergence phase. The first phase reflects the early childhood when a child becomes conscious of a buying problem and tries to develop tentative routines to solve such problems. While the second phase reflects the active learning period that children consciously or unconsciously imitate their parents, the third phase reflects the influence of peer groups on children buying styles that decrease or overlap with parents' influence.

In a similar vein, Saunders et al. (1973) investigates the agreement/disagreement between mother and daughter of seventh graders in selecting the daughter's school clothing and the factors that affect the congruity. They found that there was congruence between mothers and daughters and the less agreement was associated with favourite stores. Also, there was relatively little agreement on the mothers' insistence that the girl purchases clothing regardless of friends' approval. Both mothers and daughters agreed on the influence of peers. Despite the fact that they shared agreement on choice of store related to type or location, very little agreement related to store services. There is no agreement between mothers related to the price of the item. However, the researchers ignored the influence of mothers' communication structures on the congruity between mothers and their girls. They ignored the effect of brand loyalty in selecting the stores.

Children learned their parents' preferences through observing their parents' consumption patterns and behaviour; which brands their parents usually buy and what choice rules are used in selecting products. In line with Arndt (1972) and Saunders et al.'s (1973) research, Moore-Shay and Lutz (1988) addressed Miller's (1975) questions. They examined the accuracy of prediction between mothers and their daughters relating to specific brand preferences, the marketplace beliefs and shopping choice rules used in

grocery and food product. As they expected, the intergenerational influence flows primarily from parent to child. That is, daughters were able to report their mothers' preferences for 57% of the high visibility brands and 43% for less visible products. Similarly, mothers accurately predicted their daughters' preferences for 56% of the high visibility brands but had greater difficulty with low visibility brands (46%). Both of them are able to predict one another's unique brand preferences as well as the preferences they shared. Daughters' prediction accuracy of mothers shopping choice rules related to grocery items is more accurate than mothers' accuracy. Mothers and daughter failed to predict one another's marketplace beliefs related to buy items on sale, willing to try new brands, brand loyalty, purchase planning, impulsive shopping, and lack of reliance on the advice of others. That means children learn consumer skills and attitudes from their parents that can be easily observed. However, the researchers did not clarify the sampling procedures used in drawing the sample units where the sample itself is small; it is composed of forty-nine female college students and their mothers. The results were based on common supermarket items "toothpaste, facial tissue, aspirin/pain reliever, peanut butter, spaghetti sauce, canned vegetables, coffee, and frozen juices" to measure the agreement and the prediction accuracy between mothers and their daughters. Therefore, the results may be significantly differed if the study measurement relies on the invisible or specialised items.

On the other hand, Moschis and his colleagues' findings may explain Moore-Shay and Lutz (1988) results. Specifically, Moschis and Mitchell (1986) found that female adolescents were more likely to participate in family purchase decisions than male adolescents. The authors suggested that one possible reason for this result may be that males are socialised to be more autonomous and, hence, may have less involvement in (and as a result of less communication about) family purchase decisions than females. Similarly, females have been found to have more overt communication related-consumption with their parents compared with males (Moschis et al., 1984).

The young adults' perception of the parent's life satisfaction and financial skill influence his/her attitudes and willingness to adopt parents' views, Moore-Shay and Berchmans (1996) assess the extent to which children's perceptions of their household environment

affect their optimism about the future. They found that the four sets of independent variables that related to demographic variables, parent-child communication “frequency of communication about consumption and communication of conflict”, perceptions of parents “parent’s financial management skills and parent’s life satisfaction”, and parent-child relationship variables “frequency of contact and emotional closeness” significantly affect and shape the attitudes and monetary values of young adults. Parents holding strong financial management skills positively influence the extent to which their children adopt similar outlooks about their capacity to control the future. When conflict about money-related matters is evident in the home, children are more pessimistic about their future, more materialistic, and less likely to rely on their parents as consumer role models. Young adults fail to predict parents’ materialistic attitudes. Parents, on the other hand, succeed in predicting the materialistic attitudes of their young adults. However, the convenience sampling procedures used in drawing the respondents and the sample size affect the generalisability of results; sixty-three college students and their parents completed the self-report. It investigated the young adults rather than the adolescents or the young children. Therefore, these results cannot be generalised to young children. They based on the frequency of communication about consumption rather than the quality of parent-young adult interaction.

#### **4.5 Conceptualisation of parents’ roles in shopping milieu**

Ward et al. (1977 b) identified five methods that parents may influence the consumer socialisation of their children. Specifically, parents may act as models that allow their children to observe and imitate their behaviours, directly discuss the consumption issues with their children, allow them to learn from their own experience through giving them an opportunity to buy things independently, and prohibit certain acts. They emphasised on the impact of external influences on children’ cognitive abilities such as family, peers, and mass media in addition to the age influence. Wilkie (1986) and Bristol (2001) confirmed Ward et al.’s (1977 b) perspectives. They describe four ways in which consumer socialisation occurs within families: parents act as models for their children, parents discuss the consumer activities with their children, younger children emulate older siblings, and parents provide an opportunity for their children to be consumers in

their own right. Specifically, parents may help children to learn the consumer skills by the following means (Reece, 1986): Allow them to make a list of items that fit within a budget. Allow them to visit stores with familiar layouts. Allow them to select items from short shopping lists. Allow them to spend small amounts of money. Help them make comparisons on the basis of values other than unit price. Request their children to buy food for their own use or for the family use. Likewise, McNeal (1987) noted that parents served as role models and provided overt consumer training during co-shopping trips. During these trips, children acquire more opportunities to have money management skills. Parent-child co-shopping and children's participation in family purchasing decisions are increased when young children become older. He differentiated between direct and indirect consumer instructions used by parents in teaching their children the consumer skills. While the direct consumer learning refers to the intentional instructions used by the parent for teaching the child some aspects of consumer behaviour, the indirect learning is the unintentional instruction initiated by the child through direct observation or participation in shopping visits. Furthermore, Moschis (1987) and Gunter and Furnham (1998: 31) confirmed Ward et al. (1977 b), Reece (1986), and McNeal's (1987) perspectives about the importance of such trips. Moschis (1987) noted that parents may request their children to buy particular products as an attempt under their supervision to teach them the criteria they themselves are using, or they may allow the child to learn by trial and error. Gunter and Furnham (1998: 31) say, "While in the shop, parents can and do use it as a laboratory-showing the child subtle differences between similar-looking products or explaining expiry dates. In the home, parents talk about products, often giving elaborate and complicated evaluative judgements and reasons for the purchase....parental influence in consumer socialisation is mediated by parental concern and involvement". On the other hand, John (1999) confirmed Gunter and Furnham (1998) and McNeal's (1987) viewpoints regarding the ways of imparting consumer skills and product knowledge from parents to their children.; John reported that parents create direct opportunities by interacting with their children about purchase requests, giving them allowances, and taking them on shopping excursions. Moreover, children are still influenced by parents' views related to which product is valuable and what advertising is

good or bad since they are exposed, as their parents, to the same media influences and programming (Schiffman et al., 2001). In that context, Strachan and Pavie-Latour (2006) reported that 67% of British children aged 11-16 learn from their parents, as the most important source of trusted information, about the food and healthy eating followed respectively by the following socialisation agents: school (teachers/lessons) 11%, medical sources (doctor/nurses) 10%, and any friends/rest of the family 3%.

#### **4.6 Mothers as shoppers for grocery and food products**

Pettersson et al. (2004: 317) say, “Today the family is seen as a unit for food choice and consumption.....This makes the grocery store a context in which ordinary family life can be observed”. Australian mothers are most involved in buying weekly groceries; 84% of children said that their mothers do the weekly grocery shopping and fathers are most involved in buying fast food (41%) and choosing where to eat out (38%). Children of all ages are most involved in decisions about food purchased for school lunches. Children aged 6-10 years are more influential in food shopping than shopping for general items (GOOD Business Sense, 1998: 16). In this respect, Dholakia (1999) examined the gender role in household shopping related to groceries and personal clothing. He found that shopping is still women activity related to household grocery shopping. Specifically, there is a relationship between gender and shopping responsibility; 57.6% of women confirmed their responsibility to buy grocery products for the family use and 55.8% of men acknowledged their spousal contributions. Joint responsibility is reported by 30% of the participants of married households. That is, while the female role is dominant in household shopping in general, the males’ are responsible for about 45% of household grocery shopping, either as the primary or as a joint shopper. In addition, the family authority relations are affected by family types, which in turn directly affect children’s purchase influence (Mangleburg et al., 1999). Moreover, parents, especially mothers, within the family context have the greatest influence on children’s consumer socialisation (Cram and Ng, 1999).

According to McNeal (1992), Gunter and Furnham’s (1998) perspectives, Meyer and Anderson (2000) found that the majority of male and female preadolescents aged 8-12 participate in co-shopping trips. In relation to buying clothes, 61% of males and 68% of

females (n = 200) do shop mostly with their mothers. While 13% of males and 8% of females reported shopping with both parents, shopping alone with fathers represented only a very small percentage of the preadolescents. When adolescents become older shopping becomes varied as the more independence shopping for all items of clothing, the more decrease of parental involvement and the more shopping with friends at the mall. As was stated in chapter 3, the study may be criticised in terms of sampling procedures that relied on convenience sample that may affect the generalizability of results. In addition, these results cannot be generalised to other groups of products. It did not take into consideration the influence of family communication structure in children's ability in making product decisions and building a foundation of product knowledge.

In contrast, based on group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire, Hassan (2002) examined the effect of multi-parties on the purchase behaviour of young Egyptian children aged 9-12 related to buying shoes. He referred the multi-parties to family members "parents, siblings, grand parents and relatives" and peers "mates at school or friends outside school", and marketers "advertisers and salespersons". He found that parents are the most frequent people who accompany their children in buying shoes; parents together scored the highest mean (2.38) followed by fathers alone (1.99), mothers alone (1.92), siblings (1.70), all family (1.56), and one of relatives (1.52). Contrary to his expectation, young children of ages ranging from 9-12 years old are more frequently co-shopping with fathers than do with Egyptian mothers despite their being non-working mothers. Overall, the multi-parties affect the purchasing decision of young children. These results contradicted with Meyer and Anderson's (2000) findings; this contradiction may be accounted for the differences in gender's role between the cultures.

However, Hassan's study is not free of inadequacies. Specifically, the researcher relied on means, frequencies, cross tabulation, and chi-square analyses to measure the different influences. These types of analysis cannot explain the relative influences in particular the effect size of each party, the differences between ages and gender, and the strength and/or the directions between the two variables. The researcher did not avoid the bias; he did not take into consideration the influence of sample variations in his analysis since he used proportionate random sampling technique in selecting the sample elements. In addition,

the young children took the questionnaires that were filled out in the classroom, to their parents to fill out the demographical data of parents' socio economic status. He states, "At the end of the questionnaire the interviewers told the children that they would be back in three days to collect the completed questionnaire personally. This allowed time for children to ask the family about the family questions (p. 211).

#### **4.7 The influence of the frequency of parent-child interaction on children shopping consumer role**

Earlier, Ward and Wackman (1974), Moore and Stephens (1975), Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978) noted that children's learning consumer skills is a consequence of purposive or incidental learning influenced by culture, family members, peers, mass media, and family environment. The consumer socialisation process is significantly affected by age, gender, and the birth order of children. While the age and birth order of children have indirect influence, the gender has a direct influence, for example, male adolescents exhibited stronger expressive orientations toward consumption "materialistic attitudes and social motivations" than did female (Churchill Jr and Moschis, 1979). In this regard, Ward and Wackman (1974) relied on dyadic responses to study the development of children's consumption behaviour and the relative influences of family and mass media on children's consumer behaviour. They found that children aged 8-12 are able to understand the selling intent of TV advertising and displayed scepticism towards advertising claims more than do young children of preoperational developmental stage (2-7 years old). According to the source of product information relating to buying new clothing to wear and new snack food, children of concrete development stage rely on mass media advertising than do younger children. Younger children display perceptual experiences (looking around the store) as a means of finding out about new products. According to the frequency and the types of children's purchase requests, the negative correlation coefficient showed that the children's influence attempt is decreased with age. Relating to food and grocery products, younger children make more purchase requests than do the older children. However, the authors did not consider the influence of family communication environment and other family members in children's learning consumer

skills, knowledge and attitudes since their research was primarily designed as an execution of consumer educational programme for pre-teenage children.

Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978) found that there is a strong relationship between the frequency of family communication about consumption and adolescents' economic motivations for consumption that refer to "cognitive orientation related to the importance of product's functional and economic features; orientations toward comparison shopping and significant discriminating attributes" (p. 607). There is no strong evidence relating to the association between the frequency of family communication and the adolescent's attitudes toward products' prices. Parents as socialisation agents are preferred about twice as much as any other source of consumer information for the products such as wristwatch, dress shoes, pocket calculator, and hair dryer. Also, there is no relationship between adolescents using the criterion of on sale prices in their purchases and the frequency of family communication. This result may be accounted for parents' attempts to teach their children how to judge products on the basis of price rather than buying them from the on sale prices. In this respect, the frequency of family communication about consumption is positively associated with the accuracy of adolescents and young children pricing the products (Moore and Stephen, 1975). In addition, the authors did not identify the context of family environment; is it related to family communication patterns or parental styles? Both of them investigated the adolescents of middle and high schools rather than younger children.

Moschis et al. (1977) argued that parent-child interactions within the retail setting help children and adolescents learn shopping attitudes and behaviour, especially for consumer goods such as clothing, Shim et al. (1995) examined the influence of parental socialisation variables on children's use and their consciousness of evaluation of clothing criteria. They found that children's participation on shopping trips explains 27% of children's consciousness of clothing brands followed by parents' restriction on TV viewing (23%), parent's emphasis on brand name (22%), total amount of allowance (19%), and television products requested (17%). In addition, children's participation on shopping trips scored the highest explanations of young children's conscious prices (26%) and conscious colour (27%). Television products requested explains (35%) of peer

conscious “buying clothes independently” followed by children’s participation on shopping trips (23%), and parent’s emphasis on brand name (17%). The prediction of conscious style was respectively associated with parent’s own emphasis on style of clothing followed by television restrictions, television products requested, and shopping participation. That is, most predictors were significant in explaining parents’ perception of children’s consciousness of evaluative criteria, except for money education. In addition, young children aged between 6 and 12 years explain (38%) of conscious clothing brands, conscious clothing prices (40%). While the number of other siblings and the birth order of the child predict money education, the ages of children and the number of other children in the family influenced children’s shopping participation. This finding is consistent with McNeal’s (1987) perspectives; the more opportunities children have to manage money, the more skills they acquire in consumer behaviour. As children’s ages increased, children are more involved in the purchasing decisions. On contrast, they solicited mothers’ responses rather than young children’s responses; the authors argued that parents were assumed knowledgeable about their children’s consumer behaviour and were asked to respond to the questionnaire. In this respect, Mangleburg (1990) noted that many studies have used only parents as respondents; therefore, these studies can only provide information about parental perceptions of children’s influence. These perceptions may or may not be accurate.

A product label is used to inform consumers about a product quality, performance, ingredients, safe use and care (Bettman et al., 1986); it is used as a communication tool. In this respect, Mangleburg et al. (1997) investigated the influence of socialisation agents “parents, peers, and mass media exposure” on adolescents’ understanding and use of the product labels. They found that females understand and use the product labels more than males as a result of girl-parent overt communication. Females are greater users of products’ labels than do males. In general, exposure to marketplace communication from parents and peers positively affected teenagers’ tendencies to use product labels. Specifically, the overall regression results indicated that parents, peers, and mass media explained 18.3% of the variance in teens’ use of labels. The effect size of parents’ frequency communication explained 29% of variance against 23% of peer groups.

Counter to the authors' expectations, exposure to marketplace-related communication via television did not significantly affect teens' use of product labels. Therefore, there was no significant difference between female and male's exposure to marketplace-related communication from the mass media. These results are consistent with Moschis's (1985: 905) perspectives who found that females receive more purposive consumer training from parents than males and supported the findings of Moore-Shay and Lutz (1988).

However, these results cannot be generalised to demonstrate children's ability since the study investigated the adolescents of high school students rather than young children; the average age of respondents was 16 years. It was based on the frequency of communication about consumption rather than the quality of parent-adolescents interaction. The authors referred the term of exposure to marketplace-related communication to "the frequency with which teens are exposed to communication about the marketplace such as receiving information about prices and where products can be bought" from a socialisation agent. In addition, the study did not take into account the family demographic variables that may influence teens' understanding and use of the products label.

On the other hand, McNeal and Ji (1999) relied on group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire (for young children) and drop-off self-administered questionnaire (for parent) to investigate Chinese children's utilisation of new products information sources and their attitudes toward these sources. They found that parents play the most important informational source compared to TV, stores, and friends in informing young children about new products related to school products "books, computers, cassette players, bicycles, clothing and shoes". Boys are more likely to rely on TV commercials in buying shoes than do girls. With respect to the second group of products "soap, shampoo, and toothpaste", parents and TV play an equal role in providing children with information about personal care items. Parents' roles were not influenced by children's ages, gender, and family occupation status. According to the group of snack items, stores play a crucial role on teaching children the new products of snack food followed by TV and parents. Store visits and friends play an equal role as information sources with respect to sports items, toys, and video games. Overall, 77% of young children ranked the television as the

first source of information for new products compared to parent. The TV role is significantly increased as children become older. Parents and stores have an equal role in teaching children about new product sources. They concluded that these attitudes contradicted with Chinese family orientations. However, these results also contradicted with McNeal and Yeh (1997) and Ward et al.'s (1977 b) findings, as stated in chapter 3, who found that the primary source of new product information for children of all ages is in-store experiences. In addition, McNeal and Ji's study may be criticised since it just examined the second stage (information search) from the five stages of the decision-making process without investigating the other four stages. The authors did not identify the variations between children's ages although they classified the children into youngest (8-9 years old), middle (10-11 years old), and oldest (12-13 years old).

There is an assumption that parents know more about the low-involvement consumer products "common products that typically used in household" than their children of 6-12 years old related to brands and advertising slogans. In that context, Dotson and Hyatt (2000) relied on group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire (for young children) and drop-off self-administered questionnaire (for parent) to compare parents' and children's brand knowledge, and advertising slogans. The paired sample T-test results showed that the mere exposure of TV advertising enhanced young children of ages 9-10 years old to encode, retain, and to recall the brands slogans of low involvement products as their parents. Children's knowledge of advertising slogans related to convenience food products for their own use such as snack food and soft drinks are much better than their knowledge of advertising slogans oriented their family and parents' products. American children are more likely to watch TV (17.23 hours per week) than do their parents (13 hours per week). They also found that there is no difference between boys and girls at this age for any product. Girls and boys report watching the same amount of television per week. Relating to parent-child co-shopping, children reported that they participate in their parents' shopping visits; an average of 5 hours / per month for grocery shopping trips and 3.45 hours / per month for mall shopping trips. These results are consistent with Reece (1984) and Moore and Lutz's (2000) findings as stated in chapter 3. Relating to the amount of watching TV, this result contradicted with Ward et al.'s (1987) findings who

found that American children watch TV 11.3 hours per week; this contradiction can be accounted for the data collection method, while Ward et al. (1987) based on mothers' perceptions, Dotson and Hyatt (2000) relied on parents and child responses. However, the convenience sampling procedures used in drawing the respondents may affect the generalisability of results. The authors relied on the frequency of parent-child interaction in retailing environment rather than the quality of parent-child interaction. They ignored the influence of other mass media exposures such as radio and the newspaper on recalling the brand slogan.

The social class, gender, and the age variables influence the adolescents' purchasing role structures for several types of products consumed by them (Moschis et al., 1977). The patterns of parents' discussion affect children's attitudes towards these products. Based on group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire oriented children of 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 7<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> graders, Rummel et al. (2000) examined the influence of children's ages and parents' disapproval products on children's attitudes towards these types of products. The t-tests results indicated that while the adolescents of 7<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> graders display more tendencies to buy certain products disapproved by their parents, younger children tend to comply with parent's preferences. Similarly, adolescents' preferences were more likely to decrease than younger children's preferences when their friends disapprove such products. Male and female displayed similar attitudes and reactance effects towards products that their parents do not approve them. These results are consistent with Moschis et al., (1977). On the other hand, this study may be criticised since the limitation of the sample size (75 cases) affect the generalisability of results. The authors did not take into consideration the impact of family communication patterns on children's reactance towards parents' disapproval.

Using Sproles and Kendall's (1986) consumer decision styles "shopping orientations scales", Kamaruddin and Mokhlis (2003) investigated the influence of parents, peers, printed media, TV commercial advertising, in-school education and the social structural variables on the Malaysian adolescents' shopping orientations. They found that parent-adolescent interaction in shopping milieu does not influence the adolescents' desirable decisions-making styles "quality-consciousness, price-consciousness", undesirable styles

“impulsive buying and confused by over-choice”, social and hedonistic orientations “brand-conscious, fashion-conscious, recreational and brand loyalty” at the level of  $P < 0.05$ . Peers are the most important agents of consumer socialisation contributing to a variety of desirable and undesirable consumer decision styles. While television commercial advertising is positively associated with brand consciousness and recreational styles, printed media is positively related to the categories of social and hedonistic orientations. The structural variables significantly affect the adolescents’ decision-making styles; the highest explanations were associated with recreational decision-making styles (9%), brand consciousness (7%), fashion-consciousness (7%), and impulsive buying styles (4%). While male youngsters are more likely to interact with their peers about consumption matters than do female adolescents, female adolescents treat shopping as a pleasant activity and shop just for the fun of it. Relating to the ethnicity variable, Malay youngsters are more likely to interact with their parents and peers, and receptive to television commercials compared with Chinese youngsters. Malay youngsters are less likely to interact with their parents and peers regarding consumption matters than do Indian youngsters. Malay adolescents display more social and hedonistic decision-making, brand-consciousness, fashion-consciousness, and recreational-oriented towards shopping activities than do Chinese adolescents. On the other hand, Indian adolescents are less likely to display impulsive and quality conscious styles of behaviour. However, the result of gender effect is consistent with (Moschis, 1985) perspectives; he noted that females receive more purposive consumer training from parents than males. In contrast, the authors did not identify the categories of food products; they stated, “Respondents were asked to indicate the degree of agreement with each of these statements as a description of themselves as consumers of products such as food and clothes” (P: 148). They did not take into consideration the influence of quality of parent-adolescent interaction on adolescents’ decision-making styles. These results cannot be generalised to young children. In addition, these results confirmed two dimensions. Firstly, children when they get older, they can anticipate others’ reactions to their opinions and behaviour and consider their own preferences in combination with others’ opinions (Bachmann et al., 1993; John, 1999) and began to recognise that peer influence

is important in some of the visible consumption products. Secondly, the results showed that the ethnic micro-culture affect the children's shopping behaviour. In this regard, Shim and Gehrt (1996) found that Hispanic adolescents are more likely to exhibit a social/hedonistic shopping orientations than do Native American and white adolescents. They display a high degree of awareness relating to novelty/fashion and brand. Native American adolescents are more likely to exhibit impulsive and confused by over choices "many brands and stores" shopping orientations than do White and Hispanic adolescents. White adolescents exhibit a greater tendency toward the utilitarian "quality and price conscious" shopping orientations than do Hispanic and Native American adolescents. Food Advertising Unit "raising kids.co.uk" conducted an online survey (n = 1530 parents) relating to the family food products across the UK. In this regard, Spungin (2004) summarised the results by the following points:

- When a new product related to children's food comes onto the market, 80% of mothers are asked by their children to buy that product. In-store, the children ask their parents to buy the food products they have seen advertised; two-thirds of mothers said if their children ask for a new product it is likely to be because they had seen it advertised. This result is consistent with Isler et al.'s (1987) findings.
- Parents have a good understanding of marketing and promotional packaging and pass their views to their children. While (12%) of parents said that they would like advertising to kids to be banned, 9% said that the advertising gives them a chance to teach their children about advertising and offers them information to choose between brands (6%). This result is consistent with O'Donohoe's (1994) finding; she found that young adults use advertising as a source of information for the availability of products and prices. In this regard, parents are most instrumental in teaching young people the basic rational aspects of consumption such as understanding price-quality relationships, handling money wisely, and obtaining appropriate information before making purchases (Ward et al., 1977 a; Gunter and Furnham, 1998). The more often those parents take children shopping, the more conscious the children become of information about products such as their brands and prices (Shim et al., 1995).

- A young child is affected by his / her peer group; 50% of parents said that what other children eat has a big impact on what their children want to try. This result is consistent with Moschis and Churchil (1978) and Moschis and Moore (1982) findings who found that children learn the symbolic meaning of goods or expressive elements of consumption from their peers at school.
- Around 81% of parents check the product before deciding to buy, 48% read the nutritional value and 33% the cost. However, these results are also consistent with Moschis' (1987) perspectives who indicated that children learn consumer behaviour patterns from various socialising agents including parents, peers, schools, stores, media, and the products themselves and including their packages. In addition, adult females are more likely to read such labels for nutrition information than adult males (Mueller, 1991).

Based on group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire oriented children from 4th to 11th graders, Dotson and Hyatt (2005) examined the influence of children's ages and gender, amount of spending money, after-school activities, TV viewing on the children's attitudes towards and interaction with marketplace influences related to buying clothes. The authors referred the marketplace influences to parents, peers, the amount of viewing TV, the importance of shopping, and brand name influences. They found that girls are more likely to be influenced by friends and parents than boys are. Boys are more influenced by TV commercial advertising. While the influence of peers increased with children's more spending money, the influence of parents is decreased and vice-versa is true. The importance of shopping for children decreased with less spending money. While shopping is more important to girls than boys, there is no significant difference emerging between girls and boys relating to the influence of brands. The influence of TV commercial advertising, shopping, and brand name do not vary across children ages. The amount of television viewing is positively associated with peer influence and negatively related to parental influence. There is no significant correlation between the amount of television viewing and the TV commercial influences of shop and brands. In this regard, Ward and Wackman (1974) found that children's disposable income increases when children become older. These results are also consistent with Moschis and Mitchell

(1986) who found that female adolescents were more likely to participate in family purchase decisions than male adolescents. Similarly, females were more likely to have overt communication about consumption with their parents than males (Moschis et al., 1984). In addition, the results confirmed Kamaruddin and Mokhlis' (2003) findings related to the influence of peers groups and contradicted with gender influence. In contrast, the researchers did not adjust the data according to the group's sharing of the total sample in their analysis that may negatively affect the results. They did not take into account the effect of family communication structures on parents' influences and parents' perception of their influences. No information was provided on the sampling procedures. Schiffman et al. (2001) summarised the importance of parent-child interaction in shopping milieu. Parent-child co-shopping gives children the opportunity to acquire in-store shopping skills. Children see shopping as a way of spending time and simultaneously accomplish a necessary task. Through co-shopping trips, children learn how to shop, how to evaluate the attributes of products and select brands. Children's orientations towards shopping "as a chore or a fun" depend on how their parents perceive shopping. Parents may use the promise or reward of material goods as a device to modify or control his/her child behaviour.

#### **4.8 Parent-child interaction in store environments and parental yielding to children's purchase requests**

There is an argument that children's desires and requests of products passed through parents as a result of the parents' key role in editing and mediating the external influences to rule-out certain children's products. Based on personal interview, Robertson et al. (1985) examined the relationship between young children of ages 6-11, television exposure, and the level of parent-child interaction on children satisfaction and dissatisfaction with presents of toys and games. They relate the satisfaction and dissatisfaction to the young children's experiences in evaluating products. They found that parent-child interaction was positively related to children's satisfaction with presents and requests. This relationship is strongest at the first grade level and is relatively unimportant at third and fifth grade levels. The "fun" dimension of satisfaction is found to be affected more by parent-child interaction than other dimensions such as "performance

of products". The lower satisfaction resultant to TV exposure is related to the "fun" dimension of satisfaction. In contrast, Leigh and Jordan (1984) examined the children's satisfaction and satisfaction determinants related to video games conducted in two arcades; they found that parental normative beliefs regarding the child's play of video games and parent involvement in playing were negatively related to the child's age.

However, Robertson et al. (1985) did not take into consideration the influence of parent-child communication structure in conceptualising parent-child interaction that may affect the degree of the probabilities of children's expectations about receiving products or not. In addition, they did not identify the frequency of parent-child co-viewing TV and the amount of TV viewing hours that may affect the degree of children's satisfaction and disappointment when they did not receive the requested products. Moreover, children tend to exhibit a more active role in purchase discussions with their parents when they want something. They describe, persuade, and negotiate for what they want. That is, the extended discussions become more necessary as children shift purchase requests from inexpensive items such as candy and cereal for more expensive items such as sport goods, clothes, and electronic goods (McNeal, 1992).

Parent's interaction with the older children reflects some degree of collaboration between parent and his/her child in choosing what to buy. There were other signs that shopping with older children involved planning prior to making the shopping trips. Based on an intrusive observational method, Rust (1993) explores the purchasing experience of young children and the patterns of parent-child interactions in-store environment. He found that the greater amount of dialogue between parents and their young children was related to the names of products. Young children are eager to know the name of products in the store and parents appeared to nurture them this way. Kids of ages 6-9 sometimes negotiate their parents successfully. With children aged 10 and older, parent's acceptance appeared to be more automatic. Parents adopt the collaboration in their dialogue with the older children, for example, 20% of old child cases, 5% of young child cases. As criticized before, ethically, the observational technique is an invasion of privacy because the subjects normally do not know they are being studied. In general, these results are consistent with Isler et al.'s (1987) findings who found that children express their desires

to parents and parents see their responsibility to mediate the influence of TV advertising. In conclusion, they found that “Mothers generally accede to children’s requests, and the amount of conflict caused by requests appears to be quite low” (p. 39).

Based on a hidden observation technique to investigate children and parents behaviour in stores related to selecting children’s clothes, Darian (1998) confirmed Isler et al.’s (1987) findings. He found that parents are more involved in the shopping process than their young children in selecting the store, picking out clothes in response to retail display, letting their young children try clothes, and searching for clothes. In contrast, young children are more involved than do their parents in suggesting a purchase. Parent-child interaction relies on collaborative communication. Parents frequently help, advise, and persuade their young children to select the best choice of clothes; 82% of parents rely on persuasions and reasoning technique with their young children when they tend to refuse the purchase. While there is no significant difference between parents and their young children in using the criteria of clothes’ styles and the colours in their selections, parents depend on the attributes of clothes’ quality, price, and the practicality in their selections more than do their young children. These results are consistent with Rust’s (1993) findings who found that parents and children worked together collaboratively in the store. Also, a substantial minority of parent-child dyads exhibit arguments and acrimony in a supermarket (Atkin, 1978). By contrast, the results cannot be generalised to another products like shoes. The author ignored father-child interaction in buying clothes since 92% of sample elements were mothers. Ethically, the observational technique is invasion of privacy because the subjects normally do not know they are being studied (Gunter and Furnham, 1998).

In line with previous research conducted by Rust (1993), Shim et al. (1995), Darian (1998), Carruth and Skinner (2001) supported Ward et al. (1977 a and b), and McNeal’s (1992) perspectives. They examined mother-child co-shopping, in particular to which degree mothers act as role models in teaching their young children aged 5-9 the consumer role. They found that American mothers used two ways in teaching their children the consumer role: allow their children to learn from their own experiences in “buying independently” and mother-child discussions through co-shopping trips. During co-

shopping visits, mother-child-discussion is associated with the cost of products and the places of products that could be bought. They teach their young children how to get the best buy and quality for the money, cost/unit comparison, acquire them the products' knowledge and train them to avoid the impulsive buying. They give their young children some autonomy in picking snacks at the grocery store. Mothers relied on the economic motivations "products guarantees and on sale prices" in buying products rather than social motivations "buying things to impress others". In addition, the greater number of young children in a family decreases the numbers of mother-child co-shopping and the vice-versa is true. In relation to advertising, mothers strongly agreed that TV commercial advertising oriented children's food contains too much sugar and uses tricks and gimmicks to get children to buy food; most mothers display a negative and sceptical attitude towards advertising. The authors concluded that while their data do not support mothers' attitudes towards materialistic values, mother-child co-shopping and mothers acting as models are the major means used to teach their children the consumer goals/skills. These results are consistent with Ward et al.'s (1987) findings who found that American parents do not establish rules about the child's consumer behaviour and Robertson et al. (1989) who found that American mothers have higher levels of general communication with their children. It is also consistent with Shim et al.'s (1995) findings; they found that the ages of children and the number of other children in the family influenced children's participation on shopping visits. In contrast, the authors did not relate mothers' tendency towards developing the consumer skills of their children to mothers' communication patterns and/or identify the differences between mothers' consumer goals/skills according to young children ages. The study did not take into account young children's perception of mothers' role in developing their consumer role in shopping milieu since the study based on mothers' responses with at least one child aged 5-9 years. The researchers acknowledged that their findings might not be generalised to other groups of married mothers, mothers of lower socioeconomic status or of different ethnicity.

Ozgen (2003) supported McNeal and Yeh's (1997) findings related to children's consumer role and completely consistent with Carruth and Skinner (2001) and Hassan's

(2002) findings as stated above. Ozgen (2003) studied the consumer role of Turkish children aged 6, 9, and 11 in the marketplace activities. They found that the Turkish children have an ability to buy goods for themselves, namely personal care products, make price comparisons, and distinguish among the brands of products. These types of ability are influenced by their ages; the older children are more likely to have such abilities more than do the younger children. Turkish children's consumption patterns, the amount of family shopping, and their influences on the family's purchasing decisions are influenced by children's ages, gender, socio-economic factors, and the family types. They rely on TV commercials when they buy something for their own use that are affected by the children's age; the extent of purchasing without considering TV commercials was higher (45.5%) in 6-year-old children. The main socialisation agents of Turkish children are associated with mothers (86.1%), fathers (80.6%), teachers (71.9%), relatives (46.3%), siblings (31.8%), and peers 30.8%. In relation to parent-child interaction, parents give their children freedom of choice in purchasing activities and provide them explanations giving the reasons for not purchasing the products wanted by their children. Children's influences on buying decisions of families are strong; they influence their families' consumption patterns relating to food, apparel, furniture and cars that vary according to their ages. However, these results are also consistent with Rust (1993), Shim et al. (1995), and Darian's (1998) findings relating to parents' adoption of the collaborative communication in yielding to children's purchase requests. By contrast, Ozgen's (2003) result related to children's influence is contradicted by Belch et al.'s (1985) findings who found that children's influence is the lowest for car, how much to spend for vacation, and what type of furniture. Children's influence attempts were not influenced by the socio economic status. Moreover, children's influence varies according to family structure (Ekstrom, 1987). In addition, it may infer that Turkish parents have different consumer goals, patterns of behaviour and attitudes compared to those of Western parents within the concept of parent-child interaction in retailing milieu. In contrast, the shopping orientations of Turkish and Egyptian parents have the similar characteristics. However, the researchers did not take into consideration the influence of parents' communication patterns on Turkish children's consumer behaviour.

The grocery store has become a part of the family's everyday life and visiting it is an everyday practice. Through observational and personal interview techniques, Pettersson et al. (2004) studied the Swedish parent-child interaction in buying grocery and food products and to which degree Swedish children are involved in food shopping. They found that Swedish parents exhibit an informal education in teaching their young children the consumer role. These results can be summarised by the following points:

- While some parents spent much time listening to young children proposals or explaining things to their children of 1-19, the children who are not involved in such discussions were seen playing around the store. That is, the discussions and explanations varied by the age of children and the type of product. This result is consistent with Ward and Wackman's (1974) findings who found that younger children displayed perceptual experiences "looking around the store" as a means of finding out about new products.
- The involvement of the younger children in shopping activities is limited. While the younger children assist their parents in collecting fruits and vegetables, the older children were often seen yielding in discussions about candy, lemonade and other non-food products found in supermarkets (for instance, candles, toys and magazines).
- The older children assisted their parents in making purchases and girls seemed to be more involved in the shopping process than boys. The result is consistent with Moschis (1985) perspectives.
- Parents allowed their young children to choose products, especially breakfast cereals or fruits.
- Some parents tried to transfer both practical skills and theoretical knowledge to their children while making food purchases; they used to teach their children how to judge the quality of food products and how to choose the right products. This result is consistent with Carruth and Skinner's (2001) findings.
- The older children and the teenagers may also teach their parents about new products and introduce them to foreign dishes.

The overall results are completely consistent with previous research perspectives; parents may influence their children's behaviour directly through instructions "purposive

training” and indirectly via acting as models to their children (Ward et al., 1977 b; Reece, 1986; McNeal, 1992). However, the hidden observation methods in collecting data cannot explain why people behave in a particular context or situation (Chisnall, 2005). In contrast, the observational technique cannot explain the relative influence “effect size” of each party on the shopping process. On that context, Atkin (1978) found that the patterns of interaction between parents and children were unnoticeably observed in supermarkets to determine the processes and the effects of decision-making on the selection of breakfast cereals.

Based on focus group discussions and in-depth interview techniques, Wilson and Wood (2004) confirmed Carruth and Skinner (2001) and Ozgen’s (2003) findings. They investigated children’s influence on the Scottish family decisions making related to supermarket shopping through identifying the criteria used by children in evaluating and choosing the brands that were endorsed by their parents and measuring parent-child agreement on the levels of influences. They found that young children of 9-12 years old regularly participate in their parents’ supermarket visits where parents intentionally teach their young children how to buy the right things and desire to acquire them the money knowledge that assist them in buying from the supermarket independently. Eighty percent of mothers reported that they spend more money through co-shopping visits and 60% yielded to children’s request resultant to commercials. All mothers acknowledged that their children have a say in food products bought for the family use. Mothers yielded to their children’s request through trolley loading, pester power “nagging and whining” discussion, and bribery techniques that are used by their children. While the cereal product followed by frozen food is the heavily influenced category with respect to mothers yielding, the least influenced categories were associated with biscuits, meat, fruit/vegetables and pasta. Young children are influenced by products’ packaging, taste, and the inclusion of a free gift. In addition, the three focus group discussions confirmed mothers’ viewpoints relating to the frequency of parent-child co-shopping at the supermarkets and young children’s ability to acquire product knowledge “brand names”, choices “yogurts, breakfast cereals and juice”, the level of influence on purchase decisions, and children’s awareness of advertising and promotions campaigns. Children

implied that they did not impose a big influence on the products bought for the family use. In general, these results can be explained by McNeal (1992) arguments; children describe, persuade, and negotiate for what they want and the extended discussions become more necessary as children shift purchase requests from inexpensive items such as candy and cereal for more expensive items such as sport goods, clothes, and electronic goods. In addition, John (1999) noted that there is a cognitive and social growth when children get older relating to (1) their parental influence strategies, consumption motives “economic and social utilities” and values, and (2) their knowledge of products, brands and advertising. However, the results cannot be generalised to another grocery or food products since the picture cards included three different categories of products. The focus group results are not useful to explain the effect size of relative influences. In addition, the authors acknowledge that the number of the sample elements and the unequal gender balance affect the research results. Overall, these results give evidence to focus group power in exploring the shopping process qualitatively.

Based on self-administered questionnaire oriented parents, Koksal (2007) examined the factors that affected the Turkish parents’ preferences and behaviour related to children clothing market and the affect of children ages on parents’ shopping decision related to the evaluation and selection of children’s clothes. They found that 51% of the Turkish parents buy from independent shops, 30% from shopping centres and 16% from open markets. Reference groups influence 19% of parents’ decision-making related to buy clothes for their children. Relating to the selection of stores, parents consider the payment conditions as the first criterion followed by pricing, and the variety of clothes displayed in-stores. While 40% of Turkish parents agreed mutually on buying decisions related to children’s clothes, 26% of children aged 6-10 years make their own decisions. The chi-square tests showed that there is an association between the types of retailers and parents’ education, occupation, and income level. The frequency of parents’ shopping is positively associated with their education, occupation, and the number of children. The influences of clothing size, price, quality, easy shopping, and payment options are related to parents’ decisions towards shopping. Fashion, branding, and shopping through catalogues and the internet are not important factors when shopping for children’s clothing. Based on Ozgen

(2003) and Koksals (2007) findings, it can be inferred that there is a positive relationship between the evaluation and selection criteria used by Turkish children in buying clothes and those criteria used by their parents since children are able to compare product prices and distinguish among the brand names of products. That is, 26% of children aged 6-10 years who make their own decisions may acquire these criteria through co-shopping visits and parent-child discussion. These choice rules "criteria" whether related to parents or children are influenced by children's ages, gender, socio-economic variables. In addition, Koksals (2007) findings can be criticised for the following reasons: the author employed chi-square analysis to identify the relationship between demographic variables and parents' shopping orientation purchases; this technique is not useful to explain the strength and the directions of association between the two variables. The author relied on non-probability sampling procedures "judgement sampling method" in selecting the sample "400 of parents" respondents that may affect the generalisability of results.

Based on a mixed-methodology, namely personal interviews followed by a mail survey self-administered questionnaire oriented parents and their young children of ages 10-13, Nørgaard et al. (2007) confirmed the results of Foxman et al. (1989) and Caruana and Vassallo (2003). Specifically, they investigated how Danish children's influence and participation in family decision process related to buying food for the family use. The results of the qualitative study indicate that children have direct and indirect influence and most of their influence is associated with food and meals that are easy to prepare. Children's influence varies according to families' cooking and eating. On the other hand, the survey results indicate that children play a crucial role in the initiation stage of the family food buying process through generating ideas where parents respond positively to the children's suggestions. The general decisions about what food products to choose for various meals are made jointly but parents still play the deciders' role. While most of the children's influence is associated with sweets, sliced meat, fruit, soft drinks, and yogurt, the least influence is related to fish and meat. In relation to the choice stage, children frequently help their parents in initiating the shopping lists and sometimes assist their parents to find out offers of good food, but they rarely help their parents to compare food prices. Parents and children do not always agree on how much influence children have in

the various stages of the decision-making process. Overall, these results are consistent with the general findings of Rust (1993), Darian (1998), Carruth and Skinner (2001), and Ozgen's (2003) research relating to parent-child collaboration in the store. However, the authors have used the probability sampling technique in selecting the respondents but they did not avoid the bias; parents and their children filled out the related-questionnaires jointly that may negatively affect the results; they state, "It was impossible to check this, which may create a potential bias in the responses. Instead, the questionnaires include a short introduction and completion instructions" (p: 203). The authors do not identify which child's parent filled out the questionnaire, father or mother.

#### **4.9 The effects of social structural variables (demographic and culture dimensions) on parent-child interaction process**

There is an argument related to mothers' employment "dual household payment" and the family structure. That is, mothers' engagement in the work-force produces variations in the social development of young children (Greenstein, 1993) and the "dual household payment" increased young children's consumer skills and knowledge related to shopping activities (McNeal, 1992; Schiffman et al., 2001).

A child's influence varies with family structure; a child in a single parent home might be allowed to participate in family decisions to a greater extent than a child in a nuclear family. The single parent may be more receptive to advice and opinions regarding his or her own clothes and products intended for the home. A child of a single parent family has more influence on family purchase decisions compared with a child of the two-parent family (Ekstrom et al., 1987: 284). That is, the type of family structure affects parent-child interaction in shopping milieu. Ahuja et al. (1998) supported the arguments of Ekstrom et al. (1987). He found that there were no substantial differences between single mothers and married mothers' attitudes toward grocery and food shopping. In contrast, children of single mother homes are more likely to perform the family's weekly shopping and go to the grocery and food stores than children in two parent homes. In this respect, while children of single mother homes perform 7.3% of the family shopping, children in married homes do 2.8% of the family shopping. Simultaneously, while the oldest child in a single parent family performs 9.2% of the family shopping per/week, the oldest child in

the two-parent family does 3.2% of the family shopping. They shopped alone more frequently at supermarkets than do children from two parent homes. In addition, the single mother homes are more frequently co-shopping with their children than do married mothers. Despite the fact that these results relied on random sampling procedures, the authors did not adjust their data according to the composition of the two independent samples that may significantly affect their results; while the sample of the single mothers formed 56% (n = 210), the sample of the married mothers was shared by 66% (n = 311) of the total sample. In addition, they depend on mothers' responses in investigating children's consumer patterns related to buying grocery and food products for the two types of family use.

Based on drop-off self-administered questionnaire filled out by Flemish parents of children 9-13 years, Geuens et al.'s (2003) results contradicted with Ahuja et al.'s (1998) findings relating to the impact of the family types on parent-child co-shopping but consistent with Shim et al.'s (1995) findings as stated above. They found that parent-child co-shopping was related to the family size and parents' working hours per week. Children from a small family are more likely to co-shop with their parents than children of large family are. Children whose parents work more than 78 hours per week are fewer in co-shopping with their parents than those children whose parents work less than 78 hours per week. They concluded that busy parents leave fewer opportunities for their children to participate in co-shopping activities. The two parent families are more likely to make decisions for their children rather than encouraging them to seek information and make the decision by themselves. In this regard, parents of dual-income families have more discretionary income; Sellers (1989: 115) states, "Parents are busier and feeling guiltier and therefore are softer when it comes to children's requests." It can be inferred that parents of dual-income families are more likely to yield to children's purchase requests more than the single home parent. However, no information was provided about the sampling procedures to judge the generalisibility of results.

***In relation to culture differences,*** The more traditional and conservative were mothers, the children had less influence (Roberts et al., 1981) and the differences in children's ages across cultures and within the culture itself are important variables in determining the

variability of parent-child interactions in shopping milieu. Based on cross-national study, Ward et al. (1986) examined the patterns of children's purchase requests among three groups of ages 3-4, 5-7 and 8-10 and the mothers' responses to those requests across Great Britain, United States, and Japan. They found that the parental agreement to children's requests increased when children get older across the three countries. While Japanese children are less likely to request products (8.81) than American children (19.17) and British children (14.66), Japanese parents yielded to their children's purchase requests more than did U.S or British parents. The authors attribute this result to the fact that when children's ages increased, they would make fewer requests and be more selective in their requests. In addition, the differences between agreement to buy products requested by youngest children (3-4 years old) and oldest children (8-10 years old) are significant in each country. In Japan, only children of 3-4 year olds showed significant differences in the frequency of requests resultant to TV commercial advertising and in Great Britain only 5-7 year-olds showed such effects. Japanese parent's discussion and negotiation about children's requests are significantly decreased when their children get older. In general, Japanese parents are less likely to use verbal responses "negotiation and discussion" about children's requests than American and British parents and American parents are more likely to use these responses than British parents when the age of children increases. They concluded that Japanese parents are more indulgent "to agree to buy things which children request" compared to American and British parents.

Respecting the significance of these findings, the study may be criticised by the following points: the researchers did not solicit children's responses directly across the three countries; the authors relied on mothers' diary records; each respondent kept diaries to record one child's purchases request behaviour and parental responses over a two weeks period. A separate diary was maintained to record the focal child's TV watching behaviour, and a separate questionnaire was administered at the end of the two-week period to collect the demographic information and other data relating to parent and child attitudes and behaviours. They did not take into consideration the effect of parent-child co-viewing and discussion on TV commercial advertising that may affect the degree of

children purchasing requests. It was based on the frequency of communication about consumption rather than the quality of parent-child interaction.

Based on the same sample and procedures used on their research (Ward et al., 1986), Ward et al. (1987) investigated the similarities and differences in consumer socialisation behaviour among three groups of ages 3-4, 5-7 and 8-10 years old across different advanced countries (England, Japan, and USA). They found that the number of children's purchase requests across the three countries decreased with increasing the age; Japanese children scored the lowest level of purchase request across age groups. In that context, the results of Ward and his colleagues (1986 and 1987) studies related to American children are consistent with (Ward and Wackman, 1974) findings; while children's purchase influence attempts is decreased with age, mothers' yielding to children's requests increases with age. Children's purchase influence attempts relied on the type of product and younger children made more requests than did older children.

In developing a framework for analysing children's responses to advertising across U.S., Japanese, and English families, Robertson et al. (1989) confirmed Ward and his colleagues' (1986 and 1987) findings. They examined the influence of children's ages 3-4, 5-7, and 8-10 years and parental consumption rules on the amount of children watching TV, product-request frequency and the degree of parent-child conflict. The regression results indicated that Japanese children demonstrate lower levels of television viewing than U.S. or British children. Japanese and British children make fewer purchase requests than U.S. children. Parent-child conflict is explained by children's television-viewing patterns and children purchase requests. Parent-child conflict is higher within the American family than English and Japanese families since Japanese and British children make fewer purchase requests than U.S. children. However, the sample size and the convenience sampling procedures used in collecting data restrict the generalisibility of results.

#### **4.10 Summary**

Family is the primary source of cultural transmission in society and there is a high transmission of various consumer behaviours, values, and shopping orientations over

generations through parent-child interaction in marketplace activities. The literature review confirms the importance of parents as socialisation agents for young children more than do other socialisation agents related to a broad spectrum of products. Consumer role “skills, knowledge, and attitudes” seem to be acquired from parents through observation, suggesting that parents may try to act as role models to their children and then expect them to learn such roles through observation.

Parents intentionally teach their young children how to buy the right products and acquire the money knowledge that assists them to buy products independently. Parent’s interaction with the older children often reflects a high degree of collaboration in choosing what to buy. The older children make fewer requests and are more selective in their requests compared to the young children.

During co-shopping visits, parents teach their young children the concept of product cost, inform them about the places of products and teach them how to maximise the money value through getting the best buy “the highest quality with the minimum cost, cost/unit comparison”. Parents transfer the product knowledge “product label and brands” to their children and train them to avoid impulsive buying. In general, young children acquire the same consumer skill and knowledge of their parents related to the low-involvement consumer products “convenience grocery and food products”. Therefore, children have an ability to judge the quality-price relationship that is varied by the type of products, children’s ages, gender, and the frequency of parent-child co-shopping.

Despite mothers’ role being dominant in household shopping, fathers are responsible for about 45% of household grocery and food shopping. The role of mothers and fathers differ markedly across cultures and within the culture itself, which in turn affect the process of parent-child interaction in shopping milieu. For example, Japanese parents are more indulgent with their children compared with American and British parents. In addition, the percentage of children co-shopping with Turkish and Egyptian fathers is higher than that of advanced societies. While the influence of Turkish children on family decision making related to buying food, apparel, furniture and cars is strong, American children’s influence is the lowest for car, how much for vacation, and what type of furniture.

The internal variables such as “children’s ages, gender, the birth order, the family size, socio-economic status, the frequency of parent-child communication, family members, and parents’ consumer attitudes and behaviour” and external variables “mass media, peers schoolmates, salespeople, and school” affect the process of parent-child interaction in marketplace activities which in turn directly or indirectly influence children’s learning properties. Therefore, children’s acquisition of a consumer role is a developmental phenomenon acquired through their own experiences and/or the influence of other socialisation agents at specific situation.

However, it is noteworthy to highlight the following *general* comments on the literature review beyond the comments of each study:

- All studies have not clearly identified the tone of parents’ consumer attitudes towards developing the consumer skills of their children. In this regard, Ward (1974) noted that the family influences on consumer socialisation process are continuous processes carried out through a complex social interaction than purposive educational efforts by parents (Ward, 1974). A child may make a conscious effort to emulate the behaviour of his/her parents because the parents’ behaviour is the most salient alternative open to him/her. Therefore, children learn consumer skills and attitudes from their parents that can be easily observed.
- All studies have ignored the influence of family communication patterns on the adolescents or young children’s consumer role.
- All studies have ignored the influence of fathers’ role in developing the consumer role of their adolescents and/or young children; these studies referred parent-child interaction to mother-child interaction rather than father-child interaction.
- Scant research investigates the influence of parents’ attitudes towards marketplace practises on the process of parent-child interaction in shopping milieu.
- All studies have used mono-method approach in collecting data except (Arndt, 1972; Saunders et al., 1973; Ward and Wackman, 1974; Moore-Shay and Lutz, 1988; Moore-Shay and Berchmans, 1996; Dotson and Hyatt, 2000; Wilson and Wood, 2004; Nørgaard et al., 2007) studies. The studies that rely only on parents as

respondents provide information about parental perceptions of children's consumer role that may reflect subjective assessments (Mangleburg, 1990).

- Most studies did not demonstrate the effect size of each variable on children's consumer role except (Ward et al., 1977 a; Moore and Stephens, 1975; Robertson et al., 1985; Shim et al., 1995; Shim and Gehrt, 1996; Mangleburg et al., 1997; Dotson and Hyatt, 2000; Nørgaard et al., 2007) studies. There is scant research investigating the effect of parent-child interaction on children's shopping choice rules "decision making styles". Most research focuses on young children's purchase requests and their attempts to influence mothers in buying products such as breakfast cereal, snack food, toys, clothes, and shoes.
- All studies have ignored the influence of family media variables "co-viewing TV, parent-child discussion TV commercial advertising, and parent's attitude towards TV commercial advertising directed at children" on children's purchasing requests.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Family Communication Structures and Patterns**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

Chapter 4 has identified the influence of parent-child interaction on children's learning shopping consumer role in particular that related to grocery and food products. The learning processes of parent-child interaction were based on modelling occurring through children's observation of their parents' attitudes, behaviours, and on parents' purposive training. Previously mentioned studies did not investigate the effects of parental communication structures and patterns on children's consumption role; they focused on how the frequency "quantity" of parent-child communication affects children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes. Overt interaction processes could be classified as social interaction mechanisms that lack a specific structure or pattern (McLeod and O'Keefe, 1972). Hence, this chapter is aimed at reviewing and discussing the developmental literature of the effects of family communication structures and patterns, which consist of cognitions, overt interaction, structures and types on children learning consumer role. It divides into four major sections exclusive the introduction and summery sections. While the first section presents the general conceptualisation of family communication patterns, the second section conceptualises the concept of family communication structures and patterns in consumer socialisation. Section 3 and 4 are respectively designed to discuss the conceptualisation of FCP mediation the TV influence and the developmental literature related to the effect of family communication patterns on children's consumer role. Section 4 consists of four sub-sections.

#### **5.2 General conceptualisation of family communication structures and patterns**

In relation to the roots of family communication structures and patterns, early work conducted by Newcomb (1953: 393) hypothesised that communication among humans performs the essential function of enabling two or more individuals to maintain "*simultaneous orientation*" toward one another as communicators and toward objects of communication. He used the term *orientation* as equivalent to *attitude* that includes both cathectic and cognitive tendencies. The phrase "*simultaneous orientation*" is referred to

“*co-orientation*”. In addition, he viewed communication as the co-orientation of two persons toward a topic or object. He assumed that two persons, *A* and *B* are attracted to each other positively or negatively co-oriented to an object of communication *X*; *A-B-X* model treats interpersonal interaction as a series of communications between two people and the simplest possible communicative act one person *A* transmits information to another person *B* about something *X*. This model is useful to study the interpersonal communications “parent-child and husband-wife interactions” because it has a power to explain the actual interpersonal relations that related to individuals’ cognitions and perceptions against a particular object (McLeod and Chaffee, 1972; McLeod and O’Keefe, 1972; Moschis, 1985).

Similarly, McLeod and Chaffee (1972) argued that the specific pattern of parent-child communication has a more significant influence in socialisation than the frequency of parent-child interaction. They applied Newcomb’s *A-B-X* paradigm to study parent-child communication “child social relations with parents”. They interpreted the paradigm by making *A* the child, *B* the parent, and *X* the concept or idea that is focusing on two unequal relationships rather than assuming that all three relations among *A*, *B*, and *X* are present and equally prominent. They viewed the family communication environment as a set of norms that stress one of two orientations that are relatively uncorrelated, namely, socio-oriented communication and concept-oriented communication. The two dimensions create four typologies, namely *laissez-faire*, protective, pluralistic, and consensual patterns that influence the development of children’s behaviour and simultaneously reflect the parental attitudes and behaviours. The socio-oriented structure refers to the type of communication that leads to produce deference to parental authority and to foster harmonious and pleasant social relationships at home. It stresses avoidance of controversy and arguments with adults and deference to elders. The social orientation adopts passive constraints that in turn discourage children’s cognitive development. In contrast, the concept-oriented structure refers to the type of communication that focuses on positive constraints to help the child to develop his/her own views about the world and to consider more than one side of an issue. It emphasises the open expression of ideas and active engagement in debate. Parents of concept-oriented communication structure encourage

the child to evaluate all alternatives before making a decision that in turn encourage children's cognitive development. They added, "Our limited evidence from less developed societies indicates a preponderance of socio-oriented communication, with relatively little concept orientation; presumably the direction of social change is away from this pattern. A change in modal family type would imply that one of the most pervasive and fundamental communication structures within society is changing" (P: 84). Family communication patterns (FCP) was initially conceptualised in terms of family interactions in which parents and children influence each other. FCP is defined operationally by two scales that measure things parent say and is usually treated empirically as a predictor of adolescent socialisation (Saphir and Chaffee, 2002: 87). However, it is noteworthy to indicate that McLeod and Chaffee (1972) used the family communication structure and patterns to understand adolescents' attitudes and behaviour related to public affairs issues "political socialisation", school activities "academic achievement", and media socialisation.

### **5.3 The concept of family communication structures and patterns in consumer socialisation**

Within the concept of children's consumer behaviour, the family structural variables "social class, family size, and ethnic background" and the situational variables "parental consumer behaviour and parent-child interactions about consumption" influence children's consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes. An investigation of the influence of the situational variables is better to understand children's consumer behaviour than the structural variables because they can often provide specific information regarding the influence (Ward et al., 1977 a). On that context, Engel et al. (1978) noted that family plays an important role in interpersonal communication in the socialisation of children but that the specific ways it may influence consumer learning are not clear. A child may make a conscious effort to emulate the behaviour of his/her parents because the parents' behaviour is the most salient alternative open to him/her. Also, John (1999: 206) says, "Parents appear to have few educational goals in mind and make limited attempts to teach consumer skills. Given the more subtle nature of family influences, researchers have turned their attention to general patterns of family communication as a way to understand

how the family influences the development of consumer knowledge, skills, and values. Most influential has been the typology of family communication patterns-including laissez-faire, protective, pluralistic, and consensual families-studied extensively by Moschis and his colleagues...”

In this regard, Moschis and Moore (1979 a), Moore and Moschis (1981), and Moschis et al. (1984) modified, validated, and used the two dimensions of family communication patterns (FCP) to predict the children’s consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes in marketplace activities. Specifically, in 1979, they hypothesised that the adolescent’s consumer behaviour is conditioned by the structure of parent-child communication roles in the home that may activate or deactivate them to have different perception of consumer goods and services and different levels of consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes. In 1981, they investigated the relationship between family communication structures and patterns, and children’s media and consumer behaviours. They focused on mass media as a significant source of consumer information. In 1984, they studied the relative importance of various learning mechanism “processes” and the importance of family communication patterns in children’s consumer role. In these studies, they relied on McLeod and Chaffee’s (1972) arguments related to the conceptualisation of family communication structures and patterns in children’s consumer behaviour. While the socio-orientation structure leads to control and monitor children’s consumption-related activities, the concept-orientation structure leads to increase children’s consumer experiences and learning of different consumer skills and knowledge related to marketplace practices. In addition, they noted that laissez-faire families emphasise neither of the two communication dimensions (low socio-orientation and low concept-orientation); there is little parent-child communication in these families. Therefore, children in this type of environment are more influenced by external socialisation agents such as the mass media and peers. Protective families emphasise the socio-orientation dimension stressing compliance and social harmony (high socio orientation and low concept-orientation); there is little concern over conceptual matters. Therefore, parents tightly control and monitor their children’s consumption. Pluralistic families stress the concept-orientation dimension (low socio-orientation and high concept orientation);

children are encouraged to discuss ideas openly without fear of punishment and parents do not insist on obedience to authority. Therefore, parents encourage their children to possess independent perspectives to be skilled consumers. Consensual families emphasise both the socio and concept-orientation dimensions (high socio orientation and high concept-orientation); children are encouraged to explore the world around them and to form their own opinions but not disturbing the family's hierarchy of opinion and internal harmony. Therefore, parents encourage their children to formulate independent ideas, but control and monitor their children's consumption environment. In addition, they referred the family communication patterns to the frequency, type, and quality of communication that takes place among family members (Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis, 1985). Overall, the three studies have found that the concept-oriented communication structure is positively related to higher degrees of adolescent consumer competence related to consumer knowledge, cognitive differentiation of product attributes, and ability to filter puffery. However, based on Moschis and his colleagues' assumptions, it can be inferred that the family communication structures and patterns affect the children's consumer behaviour directly through developing them cognitively and indirectly through mediating the negative effects of other socialisation agents such as mass media and peers.

In a similar vein, Moschis, (1985) reviewed the research literature related to the direct and indirect families' influences on children's consumer role. He noted that the family communication patterns effectively explain children's learning consumer role more than focus on the content of learning "what young people learn from their parents without reference to specific communication processes". The family communication patterns serve as mechanisms used by parents to socialise the consumer behaviour of their children. The socio-oriented family communication structure fosters the development of consumer needs and behaviours that lead to emulate others and conform to generally accepted norms. In contrast, the concept-oriented family communication structure fosters the development of consumer needs and behaviours that lead to adopt the rational consumer skills and avoid the social consumption motives. Likewise, while a pluralistic family communication pattern fosters the development of consumer competence, the protective pattern contributes to the person's susceptibility to outside-the-home influences

such as television advertising and peers. He concluded that there is a need to examine the influence of family in the context of specific dyads such as mother-son, mother-daughter, father-son, and father-daughter. However, the study did not separate the direct from the indirect effects of family communication processes. The author focused on the effects of family communication structures and patterns on adolescents' consumer role rather than young children's role.

On the other hand, Ekstrom et al. (1987) argued that children of socio-oriented family communication structure are not able to influence their family decision-making compared with children of concept-oriented family communication structure because they have not the ability to defend and argue for their own ideas freely as do the children of concept-oriented family communication structure. Hence, children whose family communication pattern is characterised by a high concept-orientation will influence (reverse socialisation) their parents more than children whose family communication pattern is characterised by a high socio-orientation.

Unlike Moschis and his colleagues' research, Carlson et al. (1990 a) broadened the family communication pattern research by investigating the socio- and concept communication orientations from the perspective of mothers and examining the efficacy of the family communication patterns in developing children consumer behaviour. They also studied the relations between communication patterns and mother's mediation, monitoring and control of children's media use as a preliminary step toward validation of the socio and concept communication scales. They concluded that these orientations should be investigated from fathers' perspectives. Tapping multiple respondents within the same family unit would give and corroborate additional insight into the true nature of communication within a household.

Furthermore, Palan (1998) differentiates between family communication frequency, structure, patterns, and general parent-adolescent communication quality. She argues that there is no difference between the frequency of family communication "interaction" and the family communication structures and patterns; communication quality and consumption interaction are distinct constructs. Based on correlation analysis between mothers', fathers', and adolescents' responses, she found that there is a positive

relationship between (a) communication quality-consumption interaction, (b) communication quality-adolescents' consumer activity, and (c) consumption interaction-adolescents' consumer activity. She concluded that the presence of significant relationship depends on which individual family members or family member dyads' perceptions are used in the analysis. However, these constructs were not used in children's consumer socialisation research. Despite these findings, this study is open to the following criticisms:

- The researcher stemmed the construct of parent-adolescent communication quality "openness and problem dominated communication" from Noller and Bagi's (1985) intrafamily construct that measured the content of communication in 14 areas that were not related to consumer behaviour. Noller and Bagi (1985) relied on young adults' responses "16-20 years old" rather than adolescents' or young children's responses in constructing the four general dimension of communication, namely general principals vs. specific issues and external social reference vs. intrafamily references.
- The researcher focused on the positive issues of adolescent-parent communication; it appears to be the concept-orientation rather than socio-orientation.
- The sample size (n = 100 families), the divergence of sample structure "fifteen families were stepfamilies", and the convenience sampling procedures affected the generalisability of the research's constructs.

#### **5.4 Conceptualisation of FCP mediation regarding TV influence on young children's consumption behaviour**

Earlier, Bauer and Greyser (1968 cited in Pollay and Mittal, 1993) classified the effects of TV advertising into social and economic roles. The economic role is referred to the importance of advertising in developing and raising the individuals' living standards, introducing new products for the public, and offering lowers prices. The social role is referred to the misleading information TV provides or is alleged to persuade people to buy things they do not need, even insulting the intelligence of the average consumer. Following Bauer and Greyser's (1968) model, Pollay and Mittal (1993) indicated that a 2-

factor model of advertising is not a comprehensive model to fully understanding and capturing the individual's beliefs and attitudes toward advertising. Specifically, Pollay and Mittal's (1993) model treats the advertising as a provider of information and helper in enabling the individuals to keep up to date about products/services available in the marketplace and provide life style imagery. Advertising is funny in their portrayed events, amusing and entertaining. It promotes a healthy competition between producers to all consumers' benefit. In contrast, advertising induces consumers to preoccupy with commercial concerns with an endless list of goods; it urges people to live in a world of fantasy, makes people buy a lot of things that they do not really need, promotes undesirable values in the society, and purposefully mislead the consumers.

*In relation to the influence of TV commercial on children*, there is an argument that television advertising oriented young children stimulating their wants for which they frequently ask parents to buy the advertised products and services, which in turn lead to parent child conflict. Advertising induces children to ask for products with greater intensity and frequency than they do in its absence. The debate about who is responsible continues to grow taking into consideration that the amount of media children are exposed to in various countries is increasing and could lead to even greater changes in children's consumer socialisation worldwide (Dotson and Hyatt, 2000). Should parents, the television industry, the government, or independent organizations mediate the effects of television on children? Parental responsibility is manifested in the parents' role in mediating and monitoring children's television viewing.

According to Rossiter (1979 a), TV advertising has three kinds of effects on children. Cognitive effects which affect the ability of the children to understand the nature and the intent of TV ads, attitudinal effects that affect the feelings children develop towards TV ads, and behavioural effects, which determine the extent to which children are persuaded by TV ads to ask for the advertised product. In relation to behavioural effects, he reported that "children's desires for advertised products, and their requests to parents to buy these products, hardly decline at all with age and thus with cumulative exposure: heavy viewers, within age groups, want more advertised products and ask for them more often than their lighter-viewing peers" (p: 52). In a similar vein, Ward (1979: 7) summarised

the key findings drawn from the 70-page report submitted to the Federal Trade Commission in USA related to children's advertising. He noted that TV advertising plays a dominant role in shaping children's preferences for toy and food products. Children who heavily view TV ads are far more likely to request and to consume such products. Children are persuaded to want a cereal because a favourite commercial character promotes it or a toy premium is included in the box; nutritional value is not a salient factor. TV commercials contribute to intra-family conflict when parents often reject food and toy requests. Advertising also creates some disappointment and irritation for children. Parents do not play a strong direct role in educating children about TV advertising since they do not often watch these ads with their children.

In addition, the mass media induce youngsters to discuss consumption matters among themselves or with their parents and peers (Moore and Stephens, 1975; Churchill Jr and Moschis, 1979). Thus, the parental mediation is often the result of a child's requests for advertised products. Isler et al. (1987: 28) note, "It is necessary for children to express their desires to parents, and it is the parents' responsibility to mediate the advertising influence by filtering children's requests for products. Advertising induces family conflict in the United States, Britain, and Japan. The higher the level of television viewing is, the more the requests and the greater the resulting parent-child conflict. The differences in amount of television viewing, the number of purchase requests, and the level of parent-child conflict are existing across U.S., Japanese, and English families (Robertson et al., 1989).

There is evidence that the interpersonal communication about consumption among family members in particular parent-child interaction may mediate the effects of television advertising on children's consumption behaviour. This kind of interaction affects children's ability to distinguish facts from the exaggeration in commercial advertising. That is, family members' discussion about consumption issues neutralizes the effects of advertising (Moore and Moschis, 1980).

Relying on group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire, Moschis and Moore (1982) examined the extent to which the frequency of family communication environment affecting children's consumer behaviour in isolation from TV advertising.

They found that the effects of family interaction on children's perceptions of consumer role are significant only in the short-run and only among adolescents who frequently watch TV advertising. The effects of family interaction increase adolescents' tendencies to perform socially acceptable consumer behaviours in the short run in the presence of heavy TV ads viewing. The effects of family interaction in the long run on adolescents' consumer activity were seen in the absence of TV advertising viewing. Overall, these results confirmed that the family communication environment played a crucial role in mediating the effect of television advertising. In addition, television advertising may significantly develop children's attitudes towards materialism values when parents do not discuss consumption matters with their children. However, the short lag period "14 months" between the two wave panels in collecting the research data may not clearly identify or/and measure the family's mediation power and the short period cannot be used as an indication to determine the differences between such effects if they exist. The researchers ignore the types and quality of family communication. The non-probability sampling procedures may negatively affect the generalisability of research.

Among the alternatives for addressing the problems of television and children, Armstrong and Brucks (1988) suggested the following solutions: preparing children to cope with advertising, increasing public regulations of commercials and programs directed at children, encouraging parental involvement, promoting advertiser and media efforts, and developing a self-regulation system. They also argued that children need training to be able to differentiate between programs and commercials and parents are in an ideal situation to help their children deal with the effects of TV advertising. Parents' participation with their young children in watching TV would monitor their children's television viewing, get children to think about advertising claims, evaluate children's purchase requests, and help children to criticise the advertisement claims, reduce parent-child conflict, and contribute to more positive consumer socialisation of children.

Moreover, practitioners and academics have argued that research should address what consumers do with advertising, rather than what advertising does to them (O'Donohoe, 1994: 52). According to young adults' experience of advertising, O'Donohoe (1994) found that young adults use advertising as a source of information for the availability of

products and prices as well as a simplifier for the over-choices of products and stimulator for competition. While there is some recognition among young adults that advertising stimulates consumption for specific products, the advertising develops their brand and premium self-images. In relation to non-marketing uses of advertising, the entertainment value of television ads was frequently discussed in relation to the programmes; it was rarely discussed within the context of the economic values. Advertising occasionally creates tension among family members; some females display their embarrassment at watching television with male family members when personal hygiene ads come on.

However, comparing these results that are entirely based on the uses of ads and gratifications approach with the aforementioned arguments, the focus groups results confirmed that there is a difference between the effects of TV advertising on children and young adults; the negative influences are more likely associated with adolescents or children's consumptions than young adults' consumptions. That is, the gratification approach is more useful to explore the effects of advertising on adults' consumer behaviour than the other model.

On the other hand, Walsh et al. (1998: 34) examined mothers' perceptions and preferences about who should assume responsibility for the regulation of children's television. They found that the mothers are inconsistent in their views of who should assume responsibility for children's television and advertising, but are relatively consistent in their opinions on the quality of children's TV programming. They argued that if parents are dissatisfied with children's television, parents are likely to (1) urge more government or independent regulation, (2) join child-advocate groups in criticizing network offerings, or (3) encourage children to use other media.

*In relation to the influence of family communication patterns*, research literature indicates that the family communication patterns are related to parental control of consumption and media usage (Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis, 1985; Carlson et al., 1990 a and b; Mangleburg and Bristol, 1998; Rose et al., 1998; Chan and McNeal, 2003 and 2006). In this respect, the family communication patterns may indirectly influence young children's consumer role through mediating the influence of TV commercial advertising (Moschis, 1985). Discussions about advertising bolster a child's ability to filter TV misleading

claims (Moschis et al., 1986), and co-viewing provides an opportunity for parent-child discussions about advertising (Carlson et al., 1990 b). Mangleburg and Bristol (1998) argued that the family communication structures and patterns foster and develop adolescents' scepticism toward advertising. Likewise, the amount of teens' television exposure may develop adolescents' scepticism toward advertising and give them more experience to judge ads. In addition, parental attitudes toward advertising should be related to family communication patterns since these patterns are valuable tools for segmenting families across international borders and assessing the degree of parental concern about and mediation of children's advertising exposure (Rose et al. 1998: 72). Therefore, parents serve as gatekeepers and take control over children's viewing time as well as viewing content (Chan and McNeal, 2003). Parents' negative attitude toward advertising in general will have a positive impact on children's understanding of commercial communications. In other words, parents who do not like advertising will be motivated to help their children develop a cognitive defence against television commercials. Parents' perceptions of the influence of TV will have a positive impact on children's understanding of commercial communications because those who perceive that they have more influence will be more likely to help their children to develop a cognitive defence against advertising (Chan and McNeal, 2006).

### **5.5 The effect of family communication patterns on children's consumer role**

A number of researchers such as Moschis and Moore (1979 a), Moore and Moschis (1981), Moschis et al. (1984), Moschis et al. (1986), Moschis and Mitchell (1986), Ekstrom et al. (1987), Ward et al. (1987), Foxman et al. (1989), Robertson et al. (1989), Carlson et al. (1990 a, b), Power et al. (1992), Carlson et al. (1994) Cao and price (1997), Rose et al. (1998), Mangleburg and Bristol (1998), Rose (1999), Chan and McNeal (2003), Caruana and Vassallo (2003), Geuens et al. (2003), Chan and McNeal (2004), Mukherji (2005), Neeley (2005), Bakir et al. (2005), Hsieh et al. (2006), and Chan and McNeal (2006) addressed the influence of family communication structures and patterns on children's consumer socialisation behaviour. This influence can be classified into the influence of FCP on developing the general cognitive abilities of children and their

involvement in family's purchases, FCP mediation the influence of TV advertising on children consumption behaviour, and the influence of the antecedent variables on FCP.

#### **5.5.1 The influence of FCP on developing the general cognitive abilities of children**

The family communication structures and patterns affect children's perception of different consumer goods and services and afford them different levels of competence related to marketplace activities. Based on Ward et al.'s (1977 a and b) categorisation of family variables, Moschis and Moore (1979 a) examined to what degree the family communication patterns mediate the adolescents' learning of consumer skills knowledge, and attitudes. They found that there is a significant relationship between socio-oriented family communication structure and adolescents' attitudes towards materialism values. Socio-oriented family communication structure is positively related to adolescent's social utility motivations for watching TV commercials and social utility motivations for watching television programs. There is no relationship between age, gender, social class, and family communication patterns. Adolescents of pluralistic families (a) have greater consumer knowledge, (b) are better able to filter puffery in advertising even though pluralistic adolescents were less likely to watch television than their counterparts, and (c) are better able to cognitively differentiate among products than adolescents from any other types of family communication patterns. In general, the family communication structures have indirect influence on the adolescents learning of the three skills related to consumer knowledge, puffery filtering and cognitive differentiation. Therefore, pluralistic adolescents have more cognitive ability to differentiate among products and have greater independence in the performance of consumer activities than adolescents from protective home environment because they know more about consumer matters and buy products for their own use independently. Given the significance of these findings, the researchers did not solicit parents' responses along with adolescents' responses. No information was provided on the sampling procedures. According to the materialistic result, it can be inferred that parents of socio-oriented communication structure implicitly urge their children to learn from media more than do parents of concept-oriented communication structure.

Parents used different influence processes to develop the consumer role of their children. In this regard, Moschis et al. (1984) posited the following questions: what is the relative importance of various learning mechanisms in children's consumer socialisation? Are the family communication patterns important in children's learning consumer role? They found that the family communication patterns added a little to the variances of adolescents' consumer role perceptions (+1%), consumer knowledge (+2%) and consumer activity (+4%) that are already accounted for by the influence of overt parent-adolescents interaction. There was no relationship between overt parent-adolescent communication about consumption and consumer knowledge but it was significantly related to consumer role perception "the accuracy of adolescents' cognitions and perceptions of adults' consumer functions, obligations, and rights" and consumer activity "the ability of to buy and use products and services in a rational and efficient way". There was strong association between adolescents' learning through observation and consumer role perception. When children become older, overt parent-adolescents interaction decreases. As they expected, pluralistic parents are more likely to use positive reinforcement than other parents' communication patterns. Consensual parents, on the other hand, are likely to use both types of reinforcement mechanisms as well as engage in overt discussion of consumption with their children. While protective parents are more likely to use negative reinforcement than do their counterparts, laissez-faire parents exhibit little influence in the development of adolescents' consumer matters compared to other types of parents. In addition, while the age of children is a strong predictor of consumer knowledge, males tend to be more knowledgeable about consumer matters than females. White adolescents are more likely to observe their parent's consumer behaviour than do black adolescents. The socio-economic status does not affect the learning process of parent-child communication. Males are less likely than females to communicate overtly with their parents about consumption and less likely to receive positive reinforcement and more likely to receive negative reinforcement. These results are relatively consistent with Moore and Moschis's (1978 a) findings. They found that adolescents of pluralistic families prefer information from a variety of sources; they prefer parental advice more than do adolescents from other family types. In contrast,

adolescents from protective families are highly receptive to peers and to a lesser extent to television advertising. Laissez-faire children rely less on parental advice but are also less likely to rely on peers. Overall, they use fewer information sources.

Respecting the significance of these findings, it is noteworthy to present the following comments:

- There is a difference between female and male cognitions and behaviour although female interactions with their parents are more than do male. This difference may be accounted for the sample structure: the researchers did not adjust the research data according to the gender's contribution to the total sample.
- The results cannot be generalised since the sampling procedures were based on convenience sample.
- These findings suggest that parents may encourage their children to perform various positive consumer activities without explaining "why". This situation reflects the complexity of consumer socialisation process.
- The results would be more useful, if the sample units comprised young children or parents in addition to adolescents to assess the relationship between family communication measures and young children's learning properties.
- The authors did not identify to which parent the communication structures and patterns are referred; is it referred to fathers or mothers?

Moreover, adolescence is a crucial time for consumer socialisation and during this period much consumer learning takes place (Ward, 1974; Moore and Stephens, 1975) and the adolescent's cognitions, purchasing attitudes and behaviour are conditioned by the structure of parent-child communication roles in the home environment. In this respect, Moschis et al. (1986) confirmed their previous findings (Moschis and Moore, 1979; Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis et al., 1984). Specifically, they found that the adolescents of pluralistic families were more likely to have negative attitudes toward marketplace practices, preferences for brands, greater purchasing independence, egalitarian gender-role perceptions, syncretic family-role structures, and were satisfied with the products they bought or used than the adolescents of others communication patterns. Adolescents of protective families scored the lowest in these consumer attitudes

and behaviour as the protective families were characterised by a husband-dominant family role structure. Consensual families are less likely to adopt a syncretic family's role structure. Adolescents of consensual families were more likely to display positive attitudes towards the marketplace practices and express greater dissatisfaction with products they buy or use than the adolescents of other groups. Adolescents of laissez-faire families were less likely to have preferences for brands than did adolescents of other groups. However, despite the fact that the sample represented different regions, the respondents were not randomly selected from these regions that may affect the generalisability of results. The researchers did not identify how they maintained and avoided the effects of multi-collinearity in their results since they were based only on ANOVA analysis. They did not distinguish between the influence of fathers and mothers' communication structures and patterns on adolescents' cognitions and behaviours. For example, they cannot explain why the father is less likely to decide what the family should do among pluralistic families, and the mother is less likely among consensual families. Finally, the results would be more useful if the sample units comprised young children in addition to adolescents to assess the influences of family communications on young children's development of consumption-related behaviour patterns. On that context, the researchers acknowledged that their study addressed the general parent-child communication patterns, with little emphasis upon the specific parent (father, mother) and child (male, female) interactions.

Evidence suggests variance in parents' communication patterns accounts for differences in consumer socialisation than those attributed to the frequency of parent-child interaction, modelling, and positive/ negative reinforcement. In this respect, Carlson et al. (1990 b) examined twelve hypotheses relating to the influence of mothers' communication patterns on young children's consumer role. They found that the pluralistic and consensual mothers are more likely to hold positive consumer goals, discuss advertising, co-view TV with their young children, consider children's opinions about family purchases decisions, allow their children to buy independently, and to co-shop with their young children than laissez-faire and protective mothers are. Pluralistic mothers are more likely to yield for children purchases requests than other groups of

patterns. Consensual mothers impose more control on children's TV viewing compared to laissez-faire, pluralistic, and protective mothers. The consensual mothers are more likely to refuse children's request with or without explanations than laissez-faire and pluralistic mothers. Additionally, mothers' communication patterns are not varied by family income, number of children, and parents' ages. The educated mothers have more consumer goals in developing the consumer role of their young children. Yielding is associated with higher income and less educated fathers. This result is contradicted by Moschis et al. (1984) who found that consumer reinforcement of children by parents is not related to socio-economic status and son received less positive and more negative reinforcement. While these differences reflect the variations in mothers' consumer socialisation motives, these findings display the characteristics of mothers' concept-orientation. On the other hand, this study may be criticised by the following points: the authors did not solicit at least the pre-adolescents' perceptions to determine the efficacy of mothers' communication patterns since the results are entirely based on mothers' responses. Relating to mothers' mediation, the authors did not relate the family communication patterns to mothers' attitudes toward advertising in general and towards commercial advertising oriented children's products. No information was provided on the sampling procedures to judge the generalisability of results.

Parental influence is likely to be mediated by the type of communication environment that prevails in the household. Low congruence between parents and their children relating to marketplace practices is an indication that a little intergenerational influence is occurring. Following Saunders et al. (1973), Moore-Shay and Lutz's (1988) research approach, Carlson et al. (1994) relied on mother-adolescent dyads' responses to examine the relationship between family communication patterns (FCP) and mothers' marketplace motivations, attitudes, and behaviours (MAB) as well as adolescents' prediction accuracy of mothers' consumption motivations. As shown in table 5.1, the researchers found that mothers' attitudes towards materialism, shopping orientations, advertising attitudes, use of information sources, and consumption motivations are related to FCP.

The findings suggest that FCP plays a crucial role in the acquisition of marketplace MAB that in turn influences the MAB of their children.

Table 5.1: The hypotheses and the research findings of Carlson et al. (1994)

Hypotheses	Findings*
H1: Protective and consensual mothers are more materialistic than laissez-faire and pluralistic.	PR were more materialistic than PL
H2: Protective mothers are more negative about business than laissez-faire, pluralistic, and consensual.	No differences
H3: Protective mothers are more negative about advertising than laissez-faire, pluralistic, and consensual.	PL were more negative than LF
H4a: Consensual and pluralistic mothers use relatives and friends as sources of information for consumption decisions more than laissez-faire and protective.	Co used these sources more than LF and PR
H4b: Consensual and pluralistic mothers use newspaper ads as sources of information for consumption decisions more than laissez-faire and protective.	CO used these sources more than LF and PR
H4c: Consensual and pluralistic mothers use sales people as sources of information for consumption decisions more than laissez-faire and protective.	No differences
H4d: Consensual and pluralistic mothers use consumer guide books as sources of information for consumption decisions more than laissez-faire and protective.	CO used these sources more than PR; PL used them more than LF
H5: Consensual and pluralistic mothers shop more stores than laissez-faire and protective.	CO and PL shop more stores than LF and PR
H6: Consensual and pluralistic mothers are more economically motivated toward consumption than laissez-faire and protective.	For mothers of elementary children CO were more economically motivated than LF and PR; PL were more economically motivated than PR No differences for mothers of adolescents
H7: Consensual and protective mothers are more socially motivated toward consumption than laissez-faire and pluralistic.	No differences for mothers of elementary children For mothers of adolescents, CO and PR were more socially motivated than LF and PL
H8: Protective and consensual adolescents will predict higher levels of social motivations for consumption decision making for their mothers than laissez-faire and pluralistic adolescents will predict for their mothers.	PR and CO predicted higher levels of social motivations than PL but not LF
H9: Pluralistic and consensual adolescents will predict higher levels of economic motivations for consumption decision making for their mothers than laissez-faire and protective adolescents will predict for their mothers.	No differences

Source: Adapted from Carlson et al. (1994: 45)

Note: PL: Pluralistic, PR: Protective, LF: laissez-faire; CO: Consensual

In this respect, the researchers relied on a notion that the type of communication environment in the household mediates parent's consumer goals related to developing the consumer role of their children. The low congruence between parents and their children on MAB, the less development is occurred. According to these perspectives, the results showed that pluralistic and consensual mothers tend to alter their children shopping behaviour since they have a desire to expose their children to a variety of marketplace experiences; higher concept oriented mothers have a greater desire to reveal the marketplace to their children. The higher concept-oriented mothers are more likely to compare prices before purchase due to their reliance on information sources and more likely to shop at different stores that emphasise the rational aspects of consumption. On the other hand, the researchers did not measure the relationship between adolescents' MAB and mothers' orientations towards developing the consumer roles of their children. The older adolescents' perspectives were only taken into account in data analysis and the mothers were asked to answer items with respect to their youngest school-aged child to avoid multiple responses from the same family. These divergences may negatively affect the results. Finally, it is noteworthy to mention that the socio-oriented communication structure reflects the materialism issues regardless of data collection methods, whether the data solicited from mothers (Carlson et al., 1994) or children (Moschis and Moore, 1979; Moore and Moschis, 1981).

Family communication affects the transmission of brand attitudes from parents to children. Based on self-administered questionnaires, Hsieh et al. (2006) examined the influence of Taiwanese fathers and mothers' communication structures on children's "aged 10-12" attitudes towards brand. They found that the socio-oriented communication structure of fathers explains 30% of children's attitudes toward sport shoes brands followed by mothers 8%. While mothers' concept-orientation explains 22% of children's attitudes toward sport shoes brands, fathers' concept-orientation explain 12%. That is, the effect of fathers' concept-orientation and mothers' socio-oriented communication are not significant at  $p < 0.05$ . In relation to gender differences, mothers' influence on the brand attitude of their girls and boys is higher than fathers' influence. In relation to parents' communication and the intergenerational influences on children's brand attitude, there is

no significant difference between mother-son, mother-daughter dyads or father-son and father-daughter dyads. However, these results confirmed the notion that the consumer socialisation practices between fathers and mothers are differed within the culture itself and varied across cultures. In this regard, Taiwanese fathers play the gatekeeper role. Specifically, while Taiwanese fathers establish norms and standards for the children to follow and try to maintain a harmonious atmosphere at home, Taiwanese mothers want to encourage a two-way communication, independent evaluation of issues and incorporating children's opinions into consumption decisions. In addition, these results are consistent with McNeal and Yeh's (1990) findings that Taiwanese parents asserted greater control over their children's consumer behaviour than American parents did. The non-probability sampling procedures that based on convenience sample may affect the generalisability of results. These results cannot be generalised to another products since it related to sports shoes.

Through personal interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire that based on dyadic responses of Chinese parents and their young children (n =1758), Chan and McNeal (2006) investigated the relative contribution of the cognitive development and the social learning models in predicting the ability of Chinese children of ages 6-14 to understand the television advertising. Relating to the social learning model, they hypothesised that parents who adopt socio-oriented communication will discourage the children to think independently and discourage cognitive development that in turn lead a lower understanding of commercial advertising. Conversely, parents who adopt concept-oriented communication will encourage children's independent thinking and therefore facilitate their cognitive development. Likewise, the level of television viewing and attention to television commercials will have a positive impact on children's understanding of commercial communications. Chinese parents are more likely to adopt the socio-oriented communication structure (mean = 3.59) rather than concept-orientation (mean = 3.03). Therefore, TV as a socialisation agent played a crucial role more than Chinese parents did and the cognitive development theory is more predictable for children's understanding of commercial communications than the social learning theory. The older children scored the highest means; two to three times more than children of

ages 6-7 scores. R-square values for parent influence, according to the social learning model, is not significant at the level of  $P=0.05$ . The social learning model with television, as socialisation agent, was statistically significant for the understanding of what is television commercial. The family demographic variables of gender, family income, and the media environment affect children's understanding of commercial communications; boys and girls of a high family income are able to understand TV commercial advertising more than do children of low level of family income. However, the authors ignored the difference between mothers and fathers in their communication structures. These results are completely consistent with McNeal and Ji (1999) and Chan and McNeal's (2004) findings. McNeal and Ji (1999) found that Chinese children considered television to be the most important information source to learn about new products. Through personal interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire, Chan and McNeal (2004) found that 50% of the sample size ( $n = 1744$ ) of Chinese children of ages 6-14 perceived the television commercial advertising is true. The first graders scored the highest percentage in perceiving the truthfulness of commercial compared to other graders.

### **5.5.2 The influence of FCP on children's involvement in family's purchases**

Moschis and Mitchell (1986) confirmed Moschis's (1985) propositions related to the influence of family communication structures on the family decision-making. Based on dyadic responses, they found that there was no relationship between the age of adolescent and the family communication structures. In contrast, the gender was positively associated with parents' concept-oriented communication structure. Parents of socio-oriented communication structure were positively associated with adolescents' television-advertising viewing and negatively associated with (a) parent-adolescent discussion about purchases, (b) children's propensity to decide what products to buy, and (c) the actual purchase of these products. The concept-orientated family communication structure was not significantly related to the adolescent's propensity to play a more influential role than his/her parents in: (a) mentioning the need for products, (b) seeking information, (c) actually purchasing products and negatively associating with the adolescent's propensity to decide what products to buy. Finally, female adolescents were more likely to be involved in consumer decisions than male adolescents. However, the female ability can

be accounted for the early learning of gender roles associated with gender and/or parental encouragement. The insignificant associations between the concept-oriented family communication structure and the dependent measures may be due to the fact that those measures examined the household decision-making rather than adolescents' purchases. In addition, the results cannot be generalised since the sampling procedures are based on convenience sample. Unlike previous research, the authors measured the independent variables through adolescents' responses while the dependent variables were measured through mothers' responses.

Foxman et al. (1989) used self-administered questionnaire for adolescents' responses and drop-off self-administered questionnaire for parents' responses to examine the influence of children aged 11-18 on the family decision-making related to 14 products of high and low involvement. They found that family communication structures have a significant effect on the family members' perceptions relating to children's influence on the family decision-making process. The adolescents of concept-oriented families have a greater influence on the choice products, suggesting products, paying attention to new products, and learning the best buy than the counterparts of socio-oriented families. Family members perceive children's low influence in selecting price ranges. The more concept-oriented family communication structure is, the less the divergence in adolescents' influence among family members' perceptions. These results are consistent with Ekstrom et al.'s (1987) speculations. They argue that children of concept-family communication structure affect the family decision-making more than the children of socio-oriented families do. Despite these findings, this research is open to the following criticisms: the authors excluded the high and low scores from data analysis that may negatively affect the research results. In addition, Mangleburg (1990) noted that Foxman and his colleagues obtained the responses of teens and their parents on single-item influence questions for 14 diverse products and formed a summed product choice scale. This approach has several problems: (1) family members might not have bought these products recently or never bought them, (2) the authors ignore product differences, and (3) each product decision receives equal weight.

Furthermore, the influence of family communication structures on children learning consumer skills among non-western consumers are rarely found in the literature. In that context, Cao and Price (1997) supported Moschis and Mitchell (1986) and Foxman et al.'s (1989) findings. They relied on social learning theory, social cognitive learning theory and economic development to conceptualise the consumer socialisation variables of Chinese adolescents. They found that the socio-oriented family communication structure does not significantly affect the adolescents' involvement in family decision-making at the level ( $P < 0.05$ ;  $P = 0.06$ ). The concept-oriented family communication structure is a significant predictor of adolescents' involvement in family purchasing activities. In other words, despite Chinese families keep on with their traditional culture and teach their children to respect parents, parents encourage their children to speak out about family issues. They encourage their children to have the opportunities of gaining the consumer knowledge, and sharpen their consumer purchasing skills. The concept-oriented family also predicts adolescents' identification with Western values.

However, the researchers did not take into account the entire items of socio-oriented communication scale, which in turn affect the reliability of scale measurement. Specifically, while the Cronbach alpha for the socio-orientation scale was 0.56, the Cronbach alpha for the concept-oriented communication structure and other scales were ranged from 0.70 to 0.85. On the other hand, the researchers argued that the scales of family communication structures should be revised before using them in China because of culture differences. In this regard, Malhotra et al. (1996) indicated that the marketing research problem should be defined according to the influence of cultural factors such the country traits, economics, values, and habits that proposed the market culture.

Based on Maltese parents and children's responses, Caruana and Vassallo (2003) supported Foxman et al.'s (1989) findings and Ekstrom et al.'s (1987) speculations. Specifically, they examined the effect of Maltese parents' communication structures and patterns on children's perceived influence during family's outings purchases. They found that there is a positive association between children's perceived influence on consumption choice decisions and the level of concept-orientation held by their parents. Children of pluralistic family communication patterns display the highest level of perceived influence

on purchases followed by consensual, laissez-faire and protective families respectively. Child perception of influence is related to his/her age but not related to child's gender, parents' ages and gender, birth order of child, and family size. This result is consistent with Moschis and Moore's (1979) findings that there is no relationship between demographic variables and the family communication structures and patterns as well as consistent with Carlson et al. (1990 a and b) that mothers' communication patterns are not varied by family income, number of children, and parents' ages. On the other hand, the convenience sampling procedures and the categories of products related to children's catering entertainment affect the generalisation of results. In addition, the researchers did not measure the actual difference between the two dimensions in order to determine the principal pattern that prevailed Maltese parents' communication patterns. Therefore, the four cells of parental communication patterns were led to have the same perception of influence on purchase decisions among Maltese children.

### **5.5.3 The role of FCP on mediating the influence TV advertising**

The socio-oriented and concept-oriented family communication structures have differential influences on the learning of consumer skills and attitudes that may be indirect. That is, the mass media may mediate the effects of parents' communication structures on children's consumer behaviour. In this respect, Moore and Moschis (1981) confirmed Moschis and Moore (1979 a) findings. They found that the adolescents of pluralistic families scored the highest correlation coefficients relating to the consumer activities and consumer knowledge. Adolescents of consensual families scored the highest correlation coefficients relating to the materialism attitudes. While the relationship between socio-oriented communication structure and materialism values is not significant, the socio-orientation explains 30% of TV viewing motives. That is, the socio-oriented communication structure has indirectly influenced adolescents' materialisms attitudes since TV viewing motives explains 25% of adolescents' materialism attitudes. Similarly, concept-oriented family communication structure leads to acquire the adolescents' different consumer knowledge indirectly. In addition, adolescent's media usage also differed among family communication pattern group while laissez-faire adolescents reported less media use in contrast to consensual adolescents who reported

more use. They have the highest viewing levels. The family socio-economic status and the age of adolescents were positively related to consumer knowledge and materialism. While females scored lower than males on materialism attitudes and socio-orientation, the black adolescents scored higher than the white adolescents did on concept-orientation. However, despite the researchers' reliance on a path analysis, they did not split the measurement of television-viewing motive's variable into economic and social utilities. In this regard, the economic dimension includes favourable beliefs about advertising such as beliefs that advertising provides information or raises the standard of living. The social dimension, in contrast, includes the detrimental or social consequences of advertising. In addition, they combined the motives in a single dimension instead of two dimensions; they referred the adolescent's motivations to watch TV commercials and programs as a means of gathering information for consumer decision-making purposes as well as information about life styles and behaviours associated with uses of consumer products. On the other hand, Moschis (1985) and Moschis et al. (1986) call for further research on the influence of father-child and mother-child communication on young children consumer behaviour. Unlike previous research Carlson et al. (1990 a) based on mothers' perspective to explore the effects of socio-and-concept communication structures and patterns on young children's consumer behaviour. They found that the amount of children's TV viewing is not influenced by mothers' communication patterns. This result contradicts with Moore and Moschis (1981), Moschis and Mitchell's (1986) findings who found that the amount of TV viewing by adolescents is varied across family communication patterns. This contradiction may be accounted for the method used in collecting data, specifically, while Carlson et al. (1990 a) rely on mothers' perspectives, Moore and Moschis (1981) depend on adolescents' responses. In addition, Carlson et al. (1990 a) found that protective mothers scored the lowest on discussions with their young children about TV, magazine, and newspaper advertising followed by laissez-faire mothers. Laissez-faire mothers are less likely to co-view TV with their young children compared to pluralistic mothers and less likely to control children's TV viewing than pluralistic and consensual mothers are. While pluralistic mothers are higher on discussing advertising with their young children than protective mothers, protective and laissez-faire

mothers are higher than pluralistic mothers on controlling children's TV viewing. However, these results confirmed the efficacy of these patterns in revealing children's consumer role in marketplace activities. In contrast, this study did not take into consideration the responses of young children of elementary schools in measuring mothers' roles in neutralising TV ads.

Within the concept of cultural differences, Rose et al. (1998) examined the influence of family communication patterns on mothers' general attitudes toward television advertising among mothers of children three to eight years of age in the United States and Japan. They found that American mothers are more likely to have the following attitudes and behaviours towards TV commercial advertising than Japanese mothers' attitudes: (a) negative attitudes toward advertising in general (b) negative attitudes toward children's advertising, (c) maintained greater control over their children's TV viewing, and (d) lower levels of co-viewing TV with their young children. Overall, American mothers are more likely to be concept oriented communication and discussion about TV advertising than Japanese mothers who reported higher levels of socio-oriented communication. Japanese mothers were primarily classified as either *laissez-faire* or protective communication pattern. Additionally, while the consensual and pluralistic mothers display more negative attitudes toward advertising and to children's advertising than *laissez-faire* mothers do, there is no significant difference between protective and *laissez-faire* mothers. Protective and *laissez-faire* mothers less frequently discussed TV advertising with their children than consensual and pluralistic mothers did. Consensual and pluralistic mothers also watched television more frequently with their children than *laissez-faire* mothers, but no difference was found between *laissez-faire* mothers and protective mothers. Consensual mothers followed by protective mothers are more likely to control children's viewing TV than *laissez-faire* and pluralistic mothers are. However, the importance of research is associated with relating FCP directly to mothers' attitudes toward advertising in particular that related to children's products. In addition, it can be inferred that the family communication structures are more likely to be related to the culture rather than to the economical development of these societies. By contrast, the authors did not directly measure the influence of family communication structures on

mothers' attitudes towards TV advertising in general and to attitudes towards advertising oriented young children. They did not identify the differences between the two countries relating the effects of family communication patterns on the dependent variables. They did not identify the relationship between the demographic variables and mothers' communication structures and patterns. However, these findings are consistent with Carlson et al.'s (1994) results related to American mothers and relatively consistent with the directions of culture effects on children consumer behaviour. Specifically, Ward et al. (1987) found that Japanese children's decisions and behaviour are more likely to depend on parents' decisions. Thus, Japanese children seek parent's judgment about most things. Japanese parents have a higher level of rules governing their children's consumer behaviour related to spending money and restricting the purchases "what to buy and how the child must buy and ask for things". In contrast, American children are more expressive and communicated with parents about friends, activities, feelings, and thoughts. American parents do not establish rules about the child's consumer behaviour. The researchers did not identify the differences between British parents and other parents since part of British sample was included within the American sample. Robertson et al. (1989) found that the consumption's rules within the Japanese families are significantly higher than the U.S and English families' rules. Japanese children are less demanding things, communicating, and independence than English children, who are significantly less independent than U.S children are. As a group, Japanese children watched less television, exhibited lower levels of verbal communication, and made fewer purchase requests than their American counterparts did. Based on mothers' perspectives, Power et al. (1992) investigate the cultural differences in early socialisation patterns between American and Japanese mothers for children ages of 3-6 years old. They found that mothers from the United States set many rules for their child to follow compared to Japanese mothers. American mothers, as a group, emphasise independence and individualism more than Japanese mothers, who emphasise interpersonal harmony and group goals. Mothers from the United States scored higher on nurturance, responsiveness to child input, and material/social consequences. While American mothers are

characterised by authoritative, permissive, and authoritarian, Japanese mothers are more likely to be indulgent and strict in childrearing practices.

Teens' marketplace knowledge related to stores, shopping, and prices, as an outcome of the consumer socialisation process, is an important factor in promoting the development of adolescents' scepticism toward advertising. In this regard, Mangleburg and Bristol (1998) investigated the influence of family communication structures and the amount of television exposure on enhancing teens' marketplace knowledge. They found that both concept-oriented family communication structure and the amount of TV a teen watches are positively related to teen's marketplace knowledge and his/her scepticism towards advertising. The socio-oriented communication structure has no significant effect on scepticism towards advertising and not related to teens marketplace knowledge. These results confirm that a teen's scepticism toward advertising is an attitude learned through his/her interaction with the socialisation agents. The positive relationship between the amount of teens' watch TV and the marketplace knowledge is consistent with Moschis and Mitchell's (1986) findings and supported O'Donohoe's (1994) results; young adults viewing TV give them a basis to evaluate the motives of and claims made by advertisers and provide them an informational foundation for scepticism. In contrast, this result is contradicted with Carlson et al.'s (1990 a) findings. However, these results cannot be generalised to young children since the sample was relied on adolescents rather than pre-adolescents or young children. The authors relied on a single item to tap the extent of television viewing rather than the family media variables such as co-viewing TV and parent-adolescent discussion TV advertising.

On the other hand, Rose (1999) results confirmed Rose et al.'s (1998) findings that are related to Japanese mothers who have higher levels of socio-oriented communication. He examined the consumer socialisation, parental style, and developmental timetables of U.S and Japanese mothers of children three to eight years of age. He found that Japanese mothers hold relatively late developmental timetables and allow few opportunities for independent consumption that reflect collectivist orientation compared to Americans mothers. That means there are two distinct modals profiles of socialisation that prevail in Japan and USA; Japanese childrearing is more focused on interpersonal context and

harmony than U.S. socialisation, which the latter focuses more on actively developing and promoting independent reasoning and skills. In this regard, Ward et al. (1986) noted that the culture itself is an important variable determining differences in parent-child interaction regarding consumption.

Following Rose et al.'s (1998) study, but in a single-country setting. Chan and McNeal (2003) examined how mainland Chinese parents communicate with their children about consumption and advertising. They found that Chinese parents engaged in a high level of socio and concept oriented communication structures. That is, Chinese parents are more likely to be consensual in their communication patterns than other patterns. Parents frequently control the type of products children can or cannot buy, ask children's preferences when they bought gifts for them, and sometimes discuss with children about consumption and places to buy things. While the parental communication patterns are varied by parents' ages, occupation, education, and the household income, these patterns are not varied by the gender and the age of children. Consensual and protective parents are more likely to co-view TV with their children than laissez-faire parents are. Consensual and pluralistic parents are more likely to discuss TV commercials with children than laissez-faire and protective parents are. Consensual parents perceived that they have greater influence on children's attitude toward advertising than laissez-faire parents do. Protective parents exhibit greater control over children's television viewing than pluralistic parents do. In relation to managerial implications, marketers should take into account parents' approval on the products that targeted children or at least acceptable to parents and present their messages in a credible manner in order to gain parents and children's trust. However, these results are consistent with Carlson et al. (1990 b) and Rose et al.'s (1998) relating to the relationship between family communication patterns and parental mediation of children's television viewing; pluralistic and consensual parents discuss commercials more frequently with their children than laissez-faire and protective parents. Chinese parents' communication patterns are more likely to go with Japanese parents' communication patterns than American parents are. In contrast, Chinese parents reported that they seldom consult children or ask their help in buying things for the family. This finding is contrary to the high level of children's influence on the daily

household purchases reported by (McNeal and Yeh, 1997). In addition, the researchers did not solicit at least the pre-adolescents' responses to measure the similarity between parents and their young children. No information was provided on the sampling procedures despite the survey consisted of 1,665 parents of children aged six to 14 in Beijing, Nanjing and Chengdu.

Following Cao and Price's (1997) arguments that an important concern in cross-cultural research is the applicability and use of both frameworks and instruments developed primarily in Western contexts in non-Western settings (Mukherji, 2005: 247). In this regard, Mukherji examined the linkages between Indian mothers' communication patterns, advertising attitudes and television mediation behaviours among urban middle-class mothers of children aged from three to eight years old. They found that Indian mothers are primarily classified as concept-oriented communications (56%) over socio-oriented communications (51%). The Indian mothers display positive attitudes towards television advertising and children's advertising, place fewer restrictions on television viewing, and hold fewer discussions with their children about commercial advertising. While there is no difference between protective and pluralistic mothers in their negative attitudes towards advertising in general, protective mothers are more likely to display negative attitudes toward children's advertising and maintain greater control over their children's television viewing than pluralistic mothers do. Protective mothers show more negative attitudes toward advertising in general and toward children's advertising than consensual mothers do. In addition, there are no differences between protective, pluralistic, and consensual mothers relating to maintain greater control over their children's television viewing. Pluralistic mothers are more likely to discuss television advertising with their children than protective and consensual mothers are.

Overall, these results contradict with Chan and McNeal (2003) and Rose et al.'s (1998) findings relating to the general orientations of pluralistic, protective, and consensual mothers. This contradiction may be accounted for the following reasons:

- The researcher did not use the revised measurements of Carlson et al. (1990 a); he relied on Moschis et al. (1984) scale measurements that used to solicit the adolescents responses rather than mothers' responses.

- The researcher did not collect the data by himself; a market research agency was hired to collect data from 275 mothers.
- The research ignores the orientations of laissez-faire mothers toward advertising in general and toward children's advertising as he split the two dimensions of communication structures into four typologies.
- The researcher did not take into account the social desirability effects in measuring maternal attitudes.
- The researcher acknowledged that these results reveal that the important linkages among family communication patterns, advertising attitudes and mediation behaviours and attribute this contradiction to the fact that cultural television broadcasting only started in 1985 and is therefore relatively new in Indian society.
- The sample only represented middle class urban mothers in a mid-size Indian city. Therefore, caution should be used when generalizing from these findings to Indian mothers who are not typical urban middle-class mothers. In this regard, transferring of consumer knowledge in middle class families are greater than other socio-economic status families (Moschis, et al., 1984).

Unlike previous research that relied on mothers and/or adolescents perspectives, Bakir et al. (2005) examined the consistency of perceptions between mothers, fathers, and their children regarding family communication and parental control over their children's television viewing. The results of self-administered questionnaires filled out by fathers, mothers, and their children of ages ranged from 8-12 years old in the Northern part of Israel indicated that there is a significant difference between mothers and fathers' agreement on rating concept orientation. There is no significant difference among fathers, mothers, and children related to rating parents' socio-orientation and parents' control of TV viewing. The highest pair-wise correlation is associated with mothers and fathers' evaluations of the level of socio-oriented communication followed by mothers and children's correlation assessment. Overall, fathers and children appear to disagree more about the specific types of family communication employed than the other dyads (mothers and fathers or mothers and children). The correlation coefficient between mothers and fathers' ratings related to their engagement in socio-oriented communication

is high that consistent with children's perceptions of the strength of this relationship; the correlation coefficient between children's ratings of parents engagement in socio-oriented communication structure and controlled their TV viewing is also high. Mothers did not perceive concept-oriented communication to be related to parental control of TV viewing, while both children and their fathers perceived a negative relationship between these two variables. However, the study represents one of the first efforts that directly compared the ratings of multiple family members' assessment of family communication structures. In contrast, the sample size (n = 92) and the non-probability sampling procedures in drawing the respondents may affect the generalisability of results. In addition, the researchers did not avoid the bias; they stated, "Although family members were instructed to fill out the questionnaire independently, it is impossible for us to verify that they did not communicate with each other, thus, demand effects may have occurred" (p: 55).

#### **5.5.4 The influence of the structural variables on FCP**

Based on drop-off self-administered questionnaire filled out by Flemish parents of children ages 9-13 years, Geuens et al. (2003) examined the influence of family structure on parents' communication structures. Contrary to their expectations, they found that single parent family scored significantly higher on both the socio and concept orientations than the two-parent family. In other words, the Flemish single parent families are more likely to be consensual in their communication pattern. Single parents often try to reach a consensus among family members compared with the traditional two-parent family; they are often searching for consensus, encouraging their children to be interested in many things (high concept-orientation) without allowing them to disturb the internal harmony and hierarchy in the family (high socio-orientation). In relation to products and services, Flemish children significantly influence single parent's decisions related to the places of products that could be found and family holidays. There is no difference between single parent and two-parents family relating to children's influence on a family car, home appliances, groceries, life insurance, meaning that the opinion of children in a traditional two-parent family is taken into account as much as in a single-parent family. These results are consistent with Darley and Lim's (1986) findings who examined the influence of the parental type of single and dual parent on perception of child influence in three specific

leisure time activities (movie attendance/ family type movie, family outgoing on a picnic and participant sport. They found that single parents perceived more children's influence than dual-parents in movies related to "where to go". However, the authors did not measure the differences between children's ages and gender and the effect of socio-demographic factors of family such parents' ages, education, occupation, and social on single and two parents family communication structures. The sample size and the non-probability sampling procedures in drawing the respondents affect negatively the generalisation of results.

Relying on self-administered questionnaire oriented the biological mothers of children 2-8 years old, Neeley (2005) investigates the relationship between family demographic variables (age of the child, child's gender, parent's education and ethnicity) and the parental communication structures, direct and indirect consumer instruction, and parental influence and control over media exposure. She found that parents are more likely to discuss commercial advertising with the older children more than with younger children. Parent co-view television and decide what TV programme to watch are more likely to be with younger children than older children. All ages of children participating parents in shopping for the family use. Parents co-shop and talking how to buy things more often with girls than with boys. The well-educated parents are more engaged in direct consumer instruction "intentional training; co-shopping and co-viewing television" and more scepticism towards commercial advertising than high school of parents' education.

There were no significant differences between the ethnic groups related to developing the consumer socialisation of their young children. In addition, while parents of older children marked the higher scores on the concept-orientation items than did parents with younger children, single parents' scores on the socio orientation items were higher than those of dual-parents. However, the author collects the data via convenience sample that may affect the generalisability of results and does not distinguish between parents' responses. In addition, these results enhanced Geuens et al.'s (2003) speculations related to the differences in socialisation practices resultant to the socio-demographic differences within families as well as consistent with Carlson et al.'s (1990 b) results relating to the

relationship between the family size, parents' education and family communication structures.

## **5.6 Summary**

The literature review confirms that the family communication structures and patterns are more effective in understanding and predicting the influence of parental roles on children's consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes than the frequency of parent-children interaction since the family communication structures and patterns involve frequency, types, and quality of communication that takes place among family members. The family communication structures and patterns affect the children's consumer behaviour directly through developing them cognitively and indirectly through mediating the negative effects of other socialisation agents such as mass media and peers. That is, the communication structures of parents played two roles, namely the developmental role through encouraging children to develop their own consumer skills and competencies and gate-keeping role through mediating the effects of TV commercial. The more concept-orientation of parents' communication structure, the more likely children-learning consumer will take place and vice-versa is true. In addition, the literature review indicates that there is a divergence in the research's results relating to the relationship between the demographic variables and family communication structures and patterns and differences between cultures. Culture itself is an important variable determining differences in parent-child interaction regarding consumption.

In addition, the general characteristics of parental communication patterns can be illustrated as follows: Laissez-faire parents have limited concern to market practices influences on children and children's preferences and have fewer consumer goals that enable children to learn the consumption issues. Protective parents emphasise their own views related to marketing practices influences on children's consumption choices and their role in determining children's consumption experiences. They emphasise passive gatekeepers' roles; they have few consumer goals, less co-viewing and discussion of commercial advertising, and granting children little consumption independence. In contrast, pluralistic parents are less concerned with authority relations than marketing

practices influence on children and children's independent learning. They encourage their children to explore and understand the marketplace practices that in turn lead them to be consumers. Therefore, they have more consumer goals, co-viewing, and discussion of commercial advertising. They play positive gatekeepers. Pluralistic parents are active consumer-socialisation agents who share and interpret market/media experiences with children and allow them to exercise considerable independence as consumers. Consensual parents, like pluralistic parents, emphasise children's learning about marketing practices influence and, like protective, focus on their authority roles in consumption matters. In this pattern, parents have consumer goals and like to control media exposure.

Finally, most research focused on mothers and adolescents perspectives rather than fathers' perspectives, except one study conducted on in 2005, in studying the effects of family communication structures and patterns on children consumer behaviour and children influence in family purchases decisions.

## **Chapter Six**

### **Conceptualisation of Research Problem, Objectives, Hypotheses, and Model**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

Previous chapters have clearly identified the general approach of the current research, the general consumer socialisation model, the characteristics of children's shopping consumer role at the concrete operational stage/analytical stage, and the influence of parent-child interaction frequency, structures, and patterns on children's learning shopping consumer role in particular that related to grocery and food products. Wyner (2005: 6) says, "To reach your destination, it helps to know where you're headed". That is, prior to discussing the research methodology, it would be useful to justify the research's problem, selection of children's ages, and the research's variables through linking the drawbacks of the existing literature and previous research orientations with the current research problem, objectives, hypotheses, and model. In addition to this section, this chapter comprises five sections. The second section is concerned with the drawbacks of literature review and previous research orientations. While section 3 presents a background relating to Jordan profile, the fourth section conceptualises the research problem, objectives, hypotheses, and justifies the selection of young children ages. Section 5 presents the components of research model and the flow of influences between the independent and dependent variables. Section 6 presents the summary.

#### **6.2 Drawbacks of literature review and previous research orientations**

The research protocols have indicated that the drawbacks and orientations of previous research should be taken into account prior to formulating the research problem, which in turn identify the importance of research and determine the features of research's methodology. In that context, Baker (2003: 56) says "the purpose of literature reviewed is to avoid the calamities of ignorance and the reinvention of what is already known." Departing from these premises, there are some theoretical and practical gaps relating to the influence of parents' consumer roles on children's consumer socialisation behaviour. The following drawbacks of literature review are used to justify the current research's problem, objectives, and model:

**Firstly:** the majority of previous research in family communications was conducted in North America, Western Europe, and recently emerged in the Far East countries such as China, Japan, Malaysia, Taiwan, and India. Earlier, Ward et al. (1986: 629) say, “Socialisation researchers agree that the family unit is the primary agent for socialisation among preadolescent children. Moreover, evidence suggests that family orientations and behaviours differ markedly across cultures”. Therefore, the research problem should be defined according to the influence of cultural factors such as the country traits, economics, values, and habits that make up the market culture (Malhotra et al., 1996). Similarly, Cram and Ng (1999) pointed out that most of previous studies did not take into account the influence of cultural milieu that is portrayed on social interaction processes, political and social attitudes, history, customs, and values on children’s economic development, which in turn may promote or hinder children’s cognitive development. In addition, there is scant research examining children’s consumer socialisation in non-Western countries (Rose et al., 1998; John, 1999; Rose, 1999; Chan and McNeal, 2003; Bakir et al., 2005; Bristol and Mangleburg, 2005). That is, the measurements scales were based on theoretical frameworks developed in Western contexts and applied to non-Western social setting (Cao and Price, 1997; Mukherji, 2005).

**Secondly:** most of previous research has focused on mother-adolescent interaction rather than father-adolescent or young children interaction leaving many questions open about fathers’ influences on children’s consumer socialisation behaviour. In this respect, many studies have used only parents as respondents. Therefore, these studies can only provide information about parental perceptions of children’s consumer role that may reflect subjective assessments (Mangleburg, 1990). Since much of research related to family communications has focused on adolescents (Moschis, 1985; John, 1999), studying the consumption behaviour of children ages ranging from 7 to 11 years old is useful to understand the differences between the influences of children’s cognitive development and the social environment on children’s learning consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes (John, 1999). While there were no studies entirely focused on the influence of fathers’ consumer role on children’s consumption behaviour, small body of research has been conducted by Foxman et al. (1989), Palan (1998), Hassan (2002), Chan and McNeal

(2003), and Bakir et al. (2005) studying the influence of fathers' role in combination with other socialisation agents such mothers, peers, and salespeople. These studies also did not measure the effects of fathers' consumer roles on developing children's shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products. In this respect, John (1999: 204 and 205) has clearly identified the pressing need to conduct research in young children's shopping behaviour. She says, "A second topic in need of further consideration is the development of shopping skills, involving comparisons between prices, volumes, sizes, and the like. We were able to locate only one study, conducted over 20 years ago, exploring these issues. It would appear to be an opportune time to revisit issues related to shopping skills....Virtually no studies exist with younger children on the topic of social and economic motives for consumption, and only one or two studies with younger children directly address ... the issue of materialism". In addition, the food purchases are the area where kids are free to buy (Setlow, 2001) and shopping, as a source of influence on young consumers, has never been examined empirically, yet appears to be a major activity for children (Dotson and Hyatt, 2005: 37). Recently, Hsieh et al. (2006) confirmed Moschis (1985) and John's (1999) arguments; he noted that little research has focused on the influence of fathers' consumer role on children's consumption behaviour. In general, it is useful to examine the family communication variable at the level of father-son or father-daughter communication (Moschis, 1985; Moschis et al., 1986; John, 1999; Hsieh et al., 2006). In relation to fathers as socialisation agents within Arab culture, Hassan (2002) found that young children of ages 9-12 are more frequently co-shopping with their fathers than do with Egyptian mothers despite of their being non-working mothers; fathers are the authority figure of a family in Arab culture. Father has first and last word (TRADOC DESINT handbook 2, 2006: 12).

**Thirdly:** scant research relies on parents-child dyadic responses. The dyadic responses would examine the potential differences in parents and children perceptions (Mangleburg, 1990). Likewise, Carlson et al. (1990 a: 811) stated, "Corroboration between multiple respondents within the same family unit would give additional insight into the true nature of communication within a household. This would help to answer a number of important

questions. Do children confirm the type of communication about consumption that is reported by their parents? Do female and male heads of households note similar use of each communication orientation? If disagreement exists, how does it affect the consumer socialisation process?" In addition, collecting data from parents and children enables researchers to gain an in-depth understanding of intergenerational influence (Carlson et al., 1994). Palan (1998) and Bakir et al. (2005) confirmed Mangleburg (1990) and Carlson et al.'s (1990 and 1994) perspectives; they stressed the importance of studying family communication structures through using multiple family members.

**Fourth:** the two dimensions of socio-and-concept communication structures were measured according to mothers and adolescents' perspective. In other words, neither fathers nor young children's perspectives were previously used to measure the socio and concept orientations of family communication structures. Based on mothers' perspective of children of elementary school, Carlson et al. (1990 a) noted that mothers' communication structures should be investigated from fathers' perspectives. Likewise, in investigating the impact of communication between parents and adolescents on family functioning, Palan (1998) indicated that mothers and fathers' communication structures should be examined separately.

**Fifth:** the impact of specific variables on the consumer socialisation process is affected by the researcher's assumptions (Ward et al., 1977 a). In that context, while little research investigates the influence of parents' attitudinal variables and specific demographic variables on children's consumption behaviour, no single research examines the influence of fathers' consumer socialisation goals, fathers' general orientations and attitudes towards marketplace activities, fathers' perception of young children cognitive development on children's consumer behaviour. Reece and Kinnear (1986) urged to investigate the role of children's cognitive development and parental inputs in promoting children's consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes and it causes. Investigating the effect of parental traits on children's influences in family decision-making process is a promising research (Mangleburg, 1990). Based on the content analysis, Ward et al. (1990) reviewed the research that had been published in various marketing journals during the period 1980-1987. They pointed out that further research in relation to the influence of

family variables on children's consumer socialisation processes is very important since parents play fundamental roles in developing the consumption behaviour of their children through direct and indirect communication about consumption, number of consumer goals, restricting children's consumption, and controlling the effects of media exposure on their children. Carlson et al. (1994: 51) noted, "An investigation of additional marketplace variables such as price-quality relations, usage of the media, and products evaluation strategies in conjunction with family communication patterns may expand our knowledge of how communication patterns mediate the acquisition of attitudes and behaviour". Also, it is a pressing need to explore the family variables that may facilitate or hinder the transmission of parents' beliefs and attitudes to their children (Moore-Shay and Berchmans, 1996). In addition, the majority of previous research focused only on young children purchases requests and their attempts to influence mothers in buying products such as breakfast cereal, snack foods, toys, and children's clothes and shoes. In that context, Chan and McNeal (2003) argued that future research may examine what types of products and services parents' allowing or not allowing their children to buy and why.

*In relation to the influence of demographic variables*, while there is scant research examining the effect of family size and the role of birth order on parent-child communications, there is no research examining the influence of "single boy family-and-others girls" on parent-child interaction process. In this respect, the significant findings relating to the birth order of children have yet not emerged (John, 1999) resultant to few comprehensive studies investigated the relationship between family demographic variables and children's consumer socialisation behaviour (Neeley, 2005). Bakir et al. (2005) and Bristol and Mangleburg (2005) supported John (1999) and Neeley's (2005) arguments. Bakir et al. (2005) pointed out that future research may examine the influence of family structure, number of siblings, and the birth order of children on the congruity of family member perceptions relating to the parents' communication sutures. Moreover, the influences of birth order, the consistency of parental styles across siblings, and across parents are interesting areas to be investigated in future research (Bristol and Mangleburg, 2005). In general, the replication of past studies related to the influence of family

communication patterns on children consumption behaviour would lead to better understanding the family role in the consumer socialisation of young people (Moschis et al., 1986), in particular, the studies that are based on large samples with different cultural setting (Geuens et al., 2003).

### **6.3 Jordan profile**

This section is aimed at presenting a brief about the political, economic, and socio-cultural dimensions in Jordan. *In relation to the political issues*, in 1920, Jordan was mandated by the British Monarchy for more than 25 years and expired in 1946. Since that time, the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan has been governed as a constitutional monarchy. The formal name of Jordan is “the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan” that was adopted in 1950 and the city of Amman is the capital of the Kingdom. Arabic is the official language and English language is widely understood among upper and middle social classes. Jordan presents an ideal gateway to the Middle East & North Africa (MENA) region and the rest of the world. It shares borders with five countries, Iraq, Syria, Saudi Arabia, Israel, and the Palestine National Authority territories. The multi-border characteristic of Jordan reinforces its accessibility, giving it competitive leverage over neighbouring countries that possess less exposed boundaries. Simultaneously, Jordan is seriously affected by the external political issues resultant to the outputs of the Gulf war, Iraqi crisis, and the political situation in West Bank and Gaza. In February 1999, King Abdallah II has assumed the throne of Hashemite kingdom of Jordan following his father’s death (King Hussein 1953-1999). King Abdallah II has undertaken a remarkable social and economic reform programs; he stresses on and recalls the successive governments to undertake and to focus on the socioeconomic reforms, developing a healthcare and housing network for civilians and military personnel, improving the educational system and people security (The World Factbook, 2008). As a result of insufficient natural resources such as oil, Jordan has focused on developing its human resources through improving the educational and training systems and focusing on computer literacy; therefore, 90% of population count, ages over 15, can read and write (Department of Statistics-Jordan, 2007) and the new generation of young children have the knowledge of computer literacy.

*In relation to demographic characteristics*, Jordan is a small country with an area of 89,300 sq km and a population density = 61.1 per sq. While the population count is 5.6 million, the total number of families is 1037,000. The growth rate of population is 2.3% per year and the median age is 20.3 years old; therefore, the dependence ratio is 68.4%. The different ages of 0-14, 15-64, and 65-onward respectively represent 37.3%, 59.4%, and 3.3% of population count. Gender distribution is fairly even at 52% male and 48% female. In addition, 83% of population count lived in the urban areas and the remaining percentage is related to rural areas. The life expectancy at birth related to male: 76.04 and female: 81.22 years. With respect to educational level of Jordanian age (15+): less than secondary level = 54%; secondary =18%; intermediate diploma: 8%; bachelor and above = 11% (Department of Statistics-Jordan, 2007). In addition, the standard of health services in Jordan is among the best in the Middle East since the ratio between doctors/ per 10,000 persons = 16.1. Jordan was the first country in the region to perform heart transplant surgery. This ratio entitles Jordan to be ranked ahead of many developed countries (Aldehayyat, 2006: 13).

*In relation to economic issues*, Jordan's economy is increasingly denominated by the private sector. To consolidate this orientation, Jordan recognises that the future growth of the economy depends primarily on reducing the role of the government in the economy through relying on the privatisation programme, which in turn lead to creation of a competitive market, attraction of foreign direct investments, and stimulation of the private sector to effectively participate in economic development. In addition, Jordan's foreign trade policy is based on the norms of openness and integration economic behaviour. In short time, Jordan has entered into various bilateral trade agreements through joining the Greater Arab Free Trade Area (GAFTA) and signing an association agreement with the European Union in 1997. In 2001, Jordan signed a free trade agreement with the United States of America after successfully joining the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2000. In 2004, Jordan signed Singapore Free Trade agreement and Agadir Agreement in 2006. Accordingly, Jordan concluded over 35 agreements on protection and promotion of investments and over (30) agreements on the avoidance of double taxation with Arab and non-Arab countries to develop and strengthen trade relations between Jordan and its

trading partners and to attract the foreign investments (Ministry of Industry and Trade, 2007). On the other hand, the main challenges facing Jordan are reducing dependence on foreign grants, reducing the budget deficit, attracting investments, and creating jobs since the unemployment rate is 13.5% and the inflation rate of consumer prices is 5.4% (The World Factbook, 2008).

However, as shown in tables 6.1 and 2, the trade sector that includes a wide spectrum of stores such as supermarkets, boutiques, and malls is represented by 26% of the total investment. In this respect, there are nine types of stores related to grocery and food products: neighbourhood supermarket, corner stores of vegetables and fruits, the specialised stores that are located within residence areas, the stores of vegetables, fruits, meat, chickens, and fish that are located in the central markets, vegetables and fruit central wholesale markets, bakery shops, restaurant of breakfast food, large supermarket (Mall), and street vendors. 14.5% of employed Jordanian ages 15 and over work in service and sales sector. In addition, grocery and food products represent 36% of Jordanian household consumption patterns. Meats and poultry consumption represent 9.1% of grocery and food products followed by cereal and cereals products 4.8%, dairy products and eggs 4.5%, vegetables 3.5%, oils and fats 2.7%, fruits 2.4%, and other food items such as fish, dry and canned legumes, spices, nuts, sugar, tea, coffee and beverages 9% (Department of Statistics-Jordan, 2002/2003).

Table 6.1: Number and capital of registered companies according to economic sectors as of March 2007

Sector	Capital (JD)	Number	Capital %
Trade	1890.1	61399	26%
Services	2972.3	32201	41%
Industry	1620.0	16006	23%
Construction	211.5	3448	3%
Agriculture	480.2	747	7%
Total	7174.4	113801	-

Source: The Bulletin of Ministry of Industry and Trade (2007)

The industry sector that arrayed on manufacturing of clothing, phosphate mining, fertilizers, pharmaceuticals, petroleum refining, cement, potash, inorganic chemicals, and light manufacturing is represented by (23%) of the total investment. The agriculture sector is mainly related to vegetables, fruits, and food products representing 7% of the

total investment. Overall, the growth rate of the trade balance between 2002 and 2006 is 1.3% and the GDP (Gross Domestic product) growth is 5.7% (Ministry of Industry and Trade, 2007). Tourism is a very important sector of the Jordanian economy, contributing between 10%-12% to the country's Gross domestic Product in 2006. This contribution is expected to be increased as a result of selection Petra "the Rose Red City" as one of the New Seven Wonders of the World.

Table 6.2: Summary of external trade (JD Million)

Sector	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	Growth Rate (%)
Total Exports	1,963.9	2,184.9	2,753.0	3049.5	3663.1	20.1
Domestic Exports	1,556.7	1,675.1	2,306.6	2570.2	2902.7	12.9
Re-exports	407.2	509.8	446.4	479.3	760.4	58.6
Imports	3,559.2	4,072.0	5,799.2	7442.9	8115.8	9.0
Trade Balance	-1595.3	-1,887.1	-3,046.2	-4393.4	-4452.7	1.3

Source: The Bulletin of Ministry of Industry and Trade (2007)

*In relation to socio-cultural dimension*, Jordan, during the period 1961-1985, is viewed as a society in transition, identified by a rapid change from traditional and conservative to more progressive and modern. Throughout this process of modernisation, family patterns in Jordan are complex: part of the family is traditional and part of it is modern (Ghazwi, 1985: 21). Similarly, Arab countries scored the highest levels of power distance (rank = 44-45) and the lowest levels related to individualism (Rank = 25); low on power distance tends to be more egalitarian and vice-versa is true. Subordination of individual goals to the goals of a few large in-groups is central to collectivist cultures. Individualist cultures, in contrast, tend to be characterized by multiple in-groups that are smaller and less demanding of their members (Hofstede, 1983). In this regard, Jordan society as part of Arab culture, the family is the key social unit of Jordan community that affect all aspects of life. The family members honour and respect their family and value the friendships. Father is the authority figure of a family since he has the first and the last word in his family issues. The elder son after father dominates the family activities and is responsible to provide the food and clothes to support the family members. Fathers prefer male offspring since a son is expected to care for his parents in their advanced age, whereas a daughter becomes part of the son-in-law's family. Young children are treasured, adored and indulged. On the other hand, children are taught to conform to norms and

conventional society. They are not encouraged to seek individuality as much as they are in the West. Children very seldom leave home until they marry and belong to their father's family (TRADOC DESINT handbook 2, 2006). In addition, among Muslims, divorce is extremely easy for men and extremely difficult for women. Divorced women frequently have custody of the children until the girls turn 9 years old, the boys 12. Then, if the father wants the children, the father gets the children (Durkin, 2002). In general, the Jordanian families can be described as follows: Family goals are more important than individual goals, more father-centred, has a medium family size and lower divorce rate. In this respect, the family size, in average, is 5.4 persons. While the crude marriage rate per/1000 population is 10.6%, the crude divorce rate is 2% (Department of Statistics-Jordan, 2007). Rural families are more likely to consider the family as an economic unit of production rather than unit of consumption. Jordanian parents are very concerned about the school achievement and moral behaviours of their children.

#### **6.4 Research problem**

Based on the drawbacks of literature review and previous research orientations, there is a considerable need to understand the impact of fathers' consumer roles on adolescents and young children's consumer socialisation behaviour in individualistic and collectivistic cultures alike. There is a pressing need to conduct research that based on dyadic responses. While there is a considerable need to examine the influence of particular independent variables on the process of parent-child interaction in the marketplace activities that have not yet investigated, there is no research examining the influence of father-child communication patterns on children's shopping consumption behaviour. Therefore, an exploratory research design represented by semi-structured focus group discussions and personal interview experts' survey was firstly conducted to precisely define the research problem, split it into major issues, and to determine the types of products that need to be investigated in the research model. Specifically, based on literature review in conjunction with the exploratory research's findings, the overall scope of the research's problem can be described as follows:

Jordanian children of ages 8-12 are frequently sharing their fathers in shopping trips relating to grocery and food products and heavily involved in television viewing for fun

and entertainment. Similarly, fathers' consumer socialisation goals are influenced by their orientations and attitudes towards marketplace activities, which in turn affect father-child communication structures and patterns in retailing milieu. Therefore, Jordanian fathers as socialisation agents are expected to play two different roles in developing the shopping consumer role of their young children. As a developer of young children's cognition and behaviours, they *may* develop the consumer skills and knowledge of their children in retailing milieu through co-shopping and giving them an opportunity to buy grocery and food independently. As a gatekeeper, they *may* control the flow of information through co-viewing TV, discussing the content of commercial advertisement, and controlling TV viewing. In addition, it is also expected that the consumer role of young children is influenced by the social structural variables and their cognitive development.

#### **6.4.1 Research objectives**

Based on the research's problem, the current research is aimed at addressing the following objectives:

- Purify and validate the scales of family communication structures according to the young children's perception of fathers' communication structures.
- Describe the general characteristics of (a) young children's shopping consumer role related to convenience grocery and food products and (b) fathers' orientations and attitudes towards developing the consumer role of their young children of ages 8-12.
- Measure the influence of the *developmental role* of Jordanian's fathers on transferring the consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes to their young children relating to shopping milieu-convenience grocery and food products as a result of father-child communication patterns.
- Measure the relative influence of the *gate-keeping role* of Jordanian's fathers on mediating the influence of TV commercial advertising on their young children's shopping consumption behaviour related to grocery and food products as a result of father-child communication.
- Measure the relative influence of young children's cognitive development, the gender of young children, and family's demographic variables on children shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products.

- Investigate the degree of similarity/dissimilarity “modelling” between young children and their fathers related to shopping consumer role as a result of father-child communication patterns.

#### **6.4.2 Research questions**

The research’s problem can also be answered through addressing the following questions:

- Is young children perception of fathers’ communication structures differed from adolescents’ perception of parents’ communication structures?
- What are the general characteristics of young children shopping consumer role related to convenience grocery and food products and fathers’ orientations and attitudes towards developing the consumer role of their young children?
- What are the effects of the social structural variables on fathers’ communication patterns?
- Are fathers’ communication patterns effectively mediating the influence of TV commercial advertising on young children’s consumption behaviour?
- What are the relative influences of fathers’ communication patterns on children’s shopping consumer role.
- What is the relative influence of young children cognitive development on their shopping consumer role?
- What is the relative influence of social structural variables on young children shopping consumer role.
- To which degree do young children imitate their fathers’ shopping consumer role related to convenience grocery and food products?

#### **6.4.3 Developing the research hypotheses**

To obtain the research objectives, the following main hypotheses were developed through scrutinising the pitfalls of existing research and the findings of the exploratory research:

H1: Fathers’ orientation towards co-shopping with their young children is not the supreme predictor of fathers’ attitudes towards developing young children’s consumer roles related to grocery and food products.

H2: Jordanian fathers are not engaged in a high level of socio-oriented communication.

H3: Jordanian fathers are not engaged in a high level of concept-oriented communication.

H4: There are no significant relationships between Jordanian fathers' communication patterns and the demographic variables.

H5: Young children's perception of fathers' mediation the influence of TV viewing on their consumption behaviours does not vary across fathers' communication patterns.

H6: There are no differences among young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products across fathers' communication patterns.

H7: Young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products are not varied by the ages of young children.

H8: Young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products are not varied across the gender of young children.

H9: There is no similarity between young children's shopping consumer skills and attitudes relating to grocery and food products and fathers' shopping consumer role.

H10: There is no significant relationship between fathers' attitudes towards developing young children's consumer role "fathers' consumer socialisation goals" and young children's perceptions of fathers' communication structures.

H11: There is no significant relationship between Jordanian fathers' communication patterns and the birth order of young children.

H12: There is no significant relationship between Jordanian fathers' communication patterns and fathers' orientation towards developing the consumer skills of single boy family-and-other girls "family structure".

#### **6.4.4 Justifications of selection the children of ages 8-12 as respondents**

The selection of the children's ages 8-12 as respondents "target population" can be justified by the following arguments:

- According to the cognitive development theory, children ages ranging from 8 to 12 years old roughly represents the concrete-operational stage as well as reflects the analytical and reflective stages according to John's (1999) model. In this regard, the annual report of Department of Statistics-Jordan (2005) showed that over 34% of the Jordanian's consumers can be categorised within these stages and there are no policies or regulations restricted the number of children in the family such as China. This ratio relatively equals India percentage; Mukherji (2005) reported that the statistics of the

United Nations showed that 33% of the population in India is between “0 and 14 years” and 62% between ages ranged from 15 to 64 years old.

- The general growth of children’s cognition and social development is obvious at the analytical stage because much of children learning consumer skill, knowledge, and attitudes are occurred during that period and continued over a lifetime. It is a transitional period for children’s consumer socialisation behaviour as they begin to make product decisions and build a basis of product knowledge. Specifically, children discuss the function of stores, the sources of products, the concept of profit, and exhibit discrimination in making shopping trips (McNeal, 1969), and understand the selling intent of TV commercial advertising (Brucks et al., 1986). That is, the median age for a first purchase is *eight* years old (McNeal and Yeh, 1997). In addition, they have a good knowledge about advertising, product categories, prices, and used more than one dimension in evaluating products and brands prior to making judgments that are based on a products’ performance, prices, and quality (John, 1999). They begin to co-shop with their friends to buy caps/hats, t-shirts, and jewellery (Meyer and Anderson, 2000) and the largest differences between boys and girls are emerged around age 8-12 years (Hailing and Tufte, 2002). In addition, young children are more exposure to the TV commercial advertising because most of them have a TV in their own bedroom (Nairn, 2006) and 80% of British children ages 9-12 love shopping (National Consumer Council / London, 2005). In other words, children during this period become the prime buyers of wide categories of food and products (Schiffman et al., 2001).
- Literature review indicates that parent power is at the peak during this period (Ward, 1974; Ward et al., 1977 b; John, 1999; Carruth and Skinner, 2001; Hassan, 2002; Geuens et al. 2003; Ozgen, 2003; Wilson and Wood, 2004; Nørgaard et al., 2007). Meyer and Anderson (2000) point out that the parental influence during that period was significantly higher in young children shoppers than with older children shoppers.

### **6.5 Research model**

The analytical model is a set of variables interrelated with each others designed to represent some process (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Based on previous studies conducted by a number of researchers such as Carlson et al. (1990 b), Carlson et al. (1994), Rose et

al. (1998), Chan and McNeal (2003), and the general concept of consumer socialisation model that had been discussed in section 2.6 of chapter 2, the research paradigm, as shown in figure 6.1 encapsulates the following major components:

*The independent variables* refer to the children’s cognitive development variable “age”, social structural variables, fathers’ consumer socialisation goals, and fathers’ general orientation and attitudes towards marketplace activities.

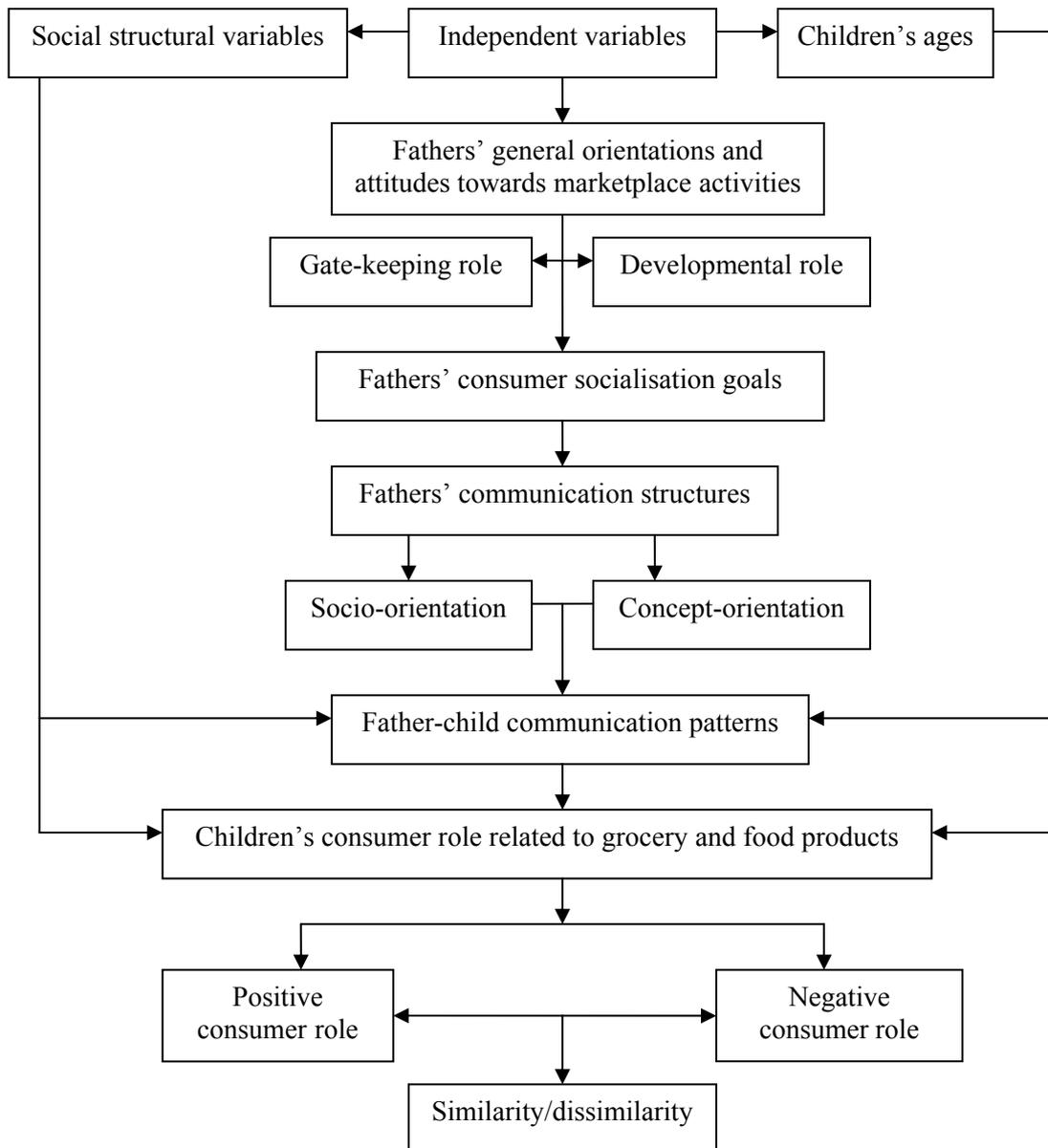


Figure 6.1: Research paradigm

While the social structural variables referred to the gender and the birth order of children, family size, household income, and family structure “single boy family-other girls”, fathers’ ages, education level, and occupation, fathers’ consumer socialisation goals referred to fathers’ attitudes towards developing the consumer role of their young children. Fathers’ orientations and attitudes towards marketplace activities refer to fathers co-shopping with their young children, fathers’ attitudes towards stores and fathers’ attitudes towards gender’s roles, fathers’ general attitude towards TV advertising, fathers’ perception of young children cognitive development, and fathers’ perception of children’s frequency of buying certain items of grocery and food products for their own use.

***Father-child communication patterns*** refer to overt father-child interaction in shopping milieu with emphasis on the frequency, structure, and quality of father-child interactions. In this regard, Moschis (1985: 902) indicated that the family communication involves several dyadic dimensions, including processes, structures, patterns, frequency, and content of communication. Also, source-learner similarity of behaviours and attitudes is referred to modelling process (McLeod and O’Keefe, 1972). Therefore, the term similarity is referred to child-modelling father’s shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products.

***Children’s consumer role*** refers to the young children’s shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products. Specifically, it refers to children’s consumer affairs knowledge, shopping independently at different stores of grocery and foods products, frequency of buying certain grocery and foods products for the family use and for their own use independently, using desirable and undesirable choice rules in evaluating and selecting a product. It also refers to children’s attitudes towards stores, scepticism towards TV advertising oriented children grocery and food products, children attitudes towards recreations and economic motivations of TV advertising, children attitudes towards materialistic values, and children perception of fathers’ mediation the influence of TV viewing on their consumption behaviours.

***In relation to the model’s mechanism***, the research’s model measures the relationships between the independent variables, fathers’ communication structures and patterns, and children’s consumer role. It has primarily based on an assumption that Jordanian’s fathers

have played development and gate-keeping consumer roles during their interactions with their young children in shopping milieu. According to the flow of influence and the direction of relationships among model's components, fathers' consumer socialisation goals are directly influenced by fathers' orientations and attitudes towards marketplace practices and directly related to their communication structures. While the consumer role of young children is indirectly influenced by fathers' consumer socialisation goals and fathers' orientations and attitudes towards marketplace practices, it is directly influenced by fathers' communication patterns. Fathers' communication patterns are also expected to mediate the influence of TV viewing on their children consumption behaviour. The structural variables and children cognitive development have direct influences on fathers' communication patterns and children's consumer role.

Overall, the influence of fathers' communication patterns may not produce significant changes in the consumer role of young children "negative consumer role" or may encourage the young children to have competitive consumer role "positive consumer role". Simultaneously, fathers' communication patterns may mediate the effects of television commercial advertising on young children "positive perception of fathers' mediation" or encourage the young children to rely on peers and mass media as a source of information for the grocery and food products "negative perception of fathers' mediation". The similarity is not related to the degree of positiveness or negativeness of children's consumer role to the extent that related to the actual attitudes and behaviours of their fathers; young children may emulate, for example, the undesirable choice rules of their fathers in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products.

On the other hand, the higher level of similarity between young children and their fathers relating to shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes is a strong indication that fathers' influence has taken place regardless of the content of attitudes and behaviours.

## **6.6 Summary**

A good research problem depends on a clear understanding of the theoretical and practical aspects of the subject derived from a thorough review of the literature. In this regard, the drawbacks of the literature review have emphasised that further understanding of how

parents do communicate with their children related to consumption in different cultures setting would:

- Enrich the theoretical frameworks of children's consumer socialisation behaviour.
- Afford new opportunity to understand the diversity between cultures orientation within the context of children's consumer socialisation behaviour.
- Assist the marketers to segment the market, which in turn leads to develop appropriate global marketing strategies.

In that context, the drawbacks of literature review have indicated that no single study has examined the influence of father-child communication patterns on children's shopping consumption behaviour related to grocery and food product. Therefore, the specific guidelines of the current research have been established to delineate the research's boundaries through identifying clearly the research problem, objective, hypotheses, and research model, which are primarily based on literature review and the findings of exploratory research. These guidelines would serve as Term of Reference (T.O.R) for the subsequent procedures in relation to the research methodology, testing the hypotheses, analysis, research findings, and research limitations.

## **Chapter 7**

### **The Research Methodology**

#### **7.1 Introduction**

After having defined the research problem, this chapter is aimed at describing the research methodology employed to measure the influence of Jordanian fathers' consumer role in developing young children's shopping consumer role and mediating the influence of TV commercial advertising on their young children's consumption behaviour. Specifically, this chapter starts with the definition of marketing research, research philosophies, mixed research strategy, the methodological issues in children's consumer research, and the current research design. The research design describes the exploratory and descriptive research, types of survey methods, the data collection methods, the research population and sampling procedures, questionnaire construction and pre-testing, measurements, translation, ethical issues, and the process of collecting the primary data. Finally, the chapter ends with a discussion of the statistical methods used in this research.

#### **7.2 Marketing research definition**

Prior to discussing the research methodology, the reasonable step is to define the marketing research since the study is concerned with children's consumer behaviour. In that context, Kotler et al. (2001: 272) have quoted the definition of the American Marketing Association "AMA, 1987" to define the marketing research. Marketing research is "the function that links the consumer, customer, and public to the marketer through information used to identify and define marketing opportunities and problems; to generate, refine, and evaluate marketing actions; to monitor marketing performance; and to improve understanding of marketing process." This definition links the research findings to the managerial implications of marketing research.

On the other hand, research in consumer behaviour is conducted to examine the processes of selecting, purchasing, using or disposing of products and services that satisfy the individuals or group needs and desires. It is characterised by its interdisciplinary because it polarises researchers from different fields who are interested in studying how people interact with the marketplace (Solomon et al., 1999). In addition, this study is fallen

within the basic “fundamental” research rather than applied research since it tends to enrich the literature of existing research related to young children’s consumer behaviour (Sekaran, 2003). It does not tend to solve an existing problem.

### **7.3 Rationalising the concept of research philosophy**

Research protocols indicate that research methodology is very important as it can guide researchers on what steps need to be taken in order to obtain the research objectives (Remenyi et al., 2003). The term of “paradigm” describes a system of ideas, or world view, used by a community of researchers to generate knowledge; it is a set of assumption, research strategies and criteria for rigour that are shared, even taken for granted, by that community (Fossey et al., 2002: 718). That is, it is referred to the overall strategy of research and the logic behind it, which will make it possible to draw more general conclusions from it (Oppenheim, 1992). In that context, Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) argued that an understanding of the philosophical issues is helpful to better clarifying the whole research design, recognising the suitable design for the research, identifying and creating designs that may be outside researcher’s experiences.

In general, there are two main research philosophies or paradigms dominant in the research context, namely, positivistic paradigms “quantitative approach” and interpretivistic paradigms “qualitative approach” (Creswell, 1994; Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Baker, 2003; Remenyi et al., 2003; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Fossey et al. (2002: 718) noted that there are three principal research paradigms that inform social research, namely, empirico-analytical “*positivism, natural sciences*”, interpretive “*hermeneutics, phenomenology, symbolic interaction*”, and critical “*Marxist, feminist, psychoanalytic*” research paradigms that represent different ways of looking at the world and involve choosing different approaches to observe and measure the phenomena being studied. While the empirico-analytical paradigm is adopted to discover the natural laws that enable prediction or control of events, the interpretive paradigm is adopted to understand social life and describe how people construct social meaning. The critical paradigm is adopted to explore myths/hidden truths that account for social relations, and empower people to change society radically. They concluded that the qualitative research methodologies are oriented towards developing understanding of the

meaning and experience dimensions of human lives and their social world. Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) differentiate between the positivist paradigm and the social constructionist paradigm; the key features of these differences are presented on table 7.1. In addition, the determination of research approach is a crucial step since the choice of any particular methodology depends on the research philosophy adopted. Therefore, the research approach should be determined before constructing the research design (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Likewise, the researcher should identify the research design prior the beginning of the research because it reflects the way of translating the research model into a practical research operation. In research, “the research design is the king and the content is the queen” (Singleton, 2003: 22).

Table 7.1: Key features of positivism and social constructionist paradigms

	positivism	social constructionism
The observer	Must be independent	Is part of what is being observed
Human interest	Should be irrelevant	Are the main drivers of science
Explanations	Must demonstrate causality	Aim to increase general understanding of the situation
Research progress through	Hypotheses and deductions	Gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	Need to be operationalised so that they can be measured	Should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Units of analysis	Should be reduced to simplest terms	May include the complexity of whole situation
Generalisation through	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	Large numbers selected randomly	Small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

Source: Easterby-Smith et al. (2002: 30)

*In relation to defining the two methodological approaches*, Creswell (1994: 1-2) defined the quantitative research as “an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analyzed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the theory hold true.” In contrast, he defined the qualitative research as “an inquiry process of understanding a social or human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants, and conducted in a natural setting.” These definitions provide an insight hinting that there are major differences

between quantitative and qualitative approaches in relation to data collection methods and analyses. In a similar vein, Strauss and Corbin (1990: 19) identify the tasks of qualitative research as “to gain novel and fresh slants on things about which quite a bit is already known”. They also stated, “Qualitative methods can give the intricate details of phenomena that are difficult to convey with quantitative methods”. Quantitative research techniques seek to quantify data and apply specific statistical analysis. The qualitative research techniques use unstructured design to give insight information about specific issues (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

*In relation to the differences between the quantitative and qualitative research*, Rust (1993: 70) argued that the difference between qualitative and quantitative research is based on the purpose of the analysis rather than the method of data gathering. While the qualitative research answers the question of how things happen, the quantitative research answers the question of how often things happen. Grounded theory development can use both qualitative and quantitative inputs. In addition, the qualitative research ignores representative sampling because it is based on a small sample of respondents’ views. It does not mirror high degrees of accuracy in numerical estimates. Conversely, quantitative research provides statistics from a large sample of consumers and reflects research findings numerically (Aaker et al., 2001; Kotler et al., 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). However, Sogunro (2002) differentiates between qualitative and quantitative research methods; the main difference between the two methodological approaches are summarised in table 7.2.

*In relation to the criteria of selection of the methodological research strategy*, the research objectives and questions, the availability of supporting literature, the nature of respondents, and the researcher’s analytical skills and experiences determine the selection of the research methodological approach (Poggenpoel et al., 2001; Sogunro, 2002). In addition, the researcher’s preferences, the sensitivity of data, the complexity of problem components, topics related to the subconscious feelings of respondents and developing theories determine the selection of the research methodological approach (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). The criteria of selection depend on researcher’s knowledge about the range and scope of research questions (Baker, 2003).

Table 7.2: The main differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods

Factor	Qualitative	Quantitative
Data Collection	Soft data, on-going observation and interview	Hard data, before and after experiment
Data Collection Techniques	Active interaction with sample population (observation by active participation)	Passive interaction through questionnaire and/or experimental design
Sample	Small population	Large population
Variables	Small number	Large number
Relationship	Intense and long term with subjects	Distant and short term
Research Context	Uncontrolled	Controlled
Data Analysis	Content/interpretive analyses through themes patterns, and narrative synthesis, using coding and descriptive statistics, including ranking, frequency, percentages, etc	Statistical analyses (e.g., descriptive, inferential statistics) using specific procedures, such as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)
Research Findings	Inductive through creativity and critical reflection	Deductive through inferences from data
Research Instruments and Tools	Researcher as instrument interview guide, tape recorder, transcribers, computer, type writer, etc.	Questionnaires, computer, calculator etc
Interpretation of Information /Results Nature of Inquiry	Subjective Interpretivism	Objective Positivism
Research Tradition	Ethnography, hermeneutics, phenomenography, case studies, etc.	Descriptive, correlational, experimental, causal-comparative, etc.

Source: Sogunro (2002: 5)

#### 7.4 Rationalising the use of mixed research strategy

The mixed methodology research of quantitative and qualitative strategy researches are viewed as the ends of a continuum because they complement each other in business decisions making which in turn produces multipliable outcomes. While the qualitative strategy research often produces changes in research direction and provides new insights to the research process that cannot be created by quantitative strategy research, the quantitative approach may create a new understanding of the research findings that cannot be created by qualitative strategy research (Bryman, 2006). It is conducted to investigate and validate the measurement of variables constructs and to improve the validity of surveys instruments and questionnaires used in quantitative research (Lillis, 1999; Fossey et al., 2002: 718) in order to sustain the research findings (Sogunro, 2002). Therefore,

focusing on one approach is ineffective to support decision-making (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Based on classical scientific method, Poggenpoel et al. (2001) noted that the qualitative research precedes quantitative research to initialise the research hypotheses followed by quantitative research to test those hypotheses.

Moreover, the qualitative approach represents less than 25% of research in marketing as well as more than 75% of all marketing research data are classified as quantitative research (Adcock et al., 1998). Based on the content analysis for research published in the five fields of social science during the period of 1994-2003, Bryman (2006) found that 57.3 percent of all articles published during that period employed a combination of a survey instrument techniques and qualitative interviewing techniques. Recently, Mason (2006) indicated that while the qualitative research techniques are able to answer the questions of “how and why” related social phenomena, the analytical tools of quantitative research techniques are able to numerically demonstrate wide relationships of patterns and changes in social phenomena. Therefore, mixed methodology research is useful to create new guidelines to understand the complexity of social phenomena.

### **7.5 The exploratory research design**

The crucial part of research process is associated with the research design. In this regard, a vast majority of textbooks tackled the topics of research methodology and referred the research design to the procedures of determination of the overall design to be whether exploratory, descriptive, or causal research, determining the sampling procedures, selecting the data collection method (s), estimating the sample size, designing the research instruments, and developing a plan for data analysis (Churchill Jr, 1999; Hair Jr et al., 2000; Aaker et al., 2001; Baker, 2003; Remenyi et al., 2003; McGivern, 2003; Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

In addition, the overall design may be classified into the types of exploratory research design and conclusive research design. Conclusive design is portrayed on the forms of descriptive and causal research that is designed to describe specific phenomena, test specific hypotheses, and examine specific relationships between the research variables. Exploratory design that is characterised by its flexibility is conducted to explore the phenomena that cannot be investigated through the conclusive research design. It involves

quantitative exploration and qualitative exploration (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

The literature review, as shown in chapter 6, has clearly pointed out that there is no research examined the influence of father-child communication patterns on children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products. Therefore, the current research relies on a mixed methodology research to measure the influence of Jordanian fathers' consumer roles in young children's consumer socialisation behaviour. It relies on exploratory research design that is portrayed on semi-structured focus group discussions and structured experts' personal interview methods to achieve the following goals:

- Refine the research problem and split it into major issues;
- Determine which types of grocery and food products that need to be investigated in the research model;
- Develop the questionnaire design and construction.

On the other hand, the descriptive survey design, as quantitative technique, is conducted to test the research hypotheses and to predict the association between the variables through using group personal interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire relating to young children's sample and self-administered questionnaire for fathers' sample.

### **7.5.1 Justification of research design**

The current research design can be justified through a range of arguments discussed by a number of researchers such as Mangleburg (1990), Rust and Hyatt (1991), Harrigan (1991), and Darbyshire et al. (2005). In that context, Mangleburg (1990) urged to use multiple methods in research design to improve the theoretical and methodological grounds and increase the confidence in the research findings. Rust and Hyatt (1991) indicated that it is traditional to use qualitative research for diagnosing the research problem and the quantitative design for evaluation. They indicated that some of their work is qualitative when they converse with children and simultaneously some of it is quantitative to achieve the goal of bringing marketers and children closer together.

Moreover, Harrigan (1991) studied children's research orientations in corporations and advertising agencies that deal with children's products related to ages of 6 to 12 years old. He found that 62% of research has employed the quantitative design while the remaining

38% of research projects are based on qualitative research design. Recently, Darbyshire et al. (2005) indicated that using a single technique is not enough to understand the children's perceptions and experiences. The mixed methodology helps children to express themselves in a variety of complementary and congruent ways. Focus group discussion as one of these techniques would be more interactive and productive when the researcher has not used model norms of classroom behaviour.

In addition, the current research relies on two separate samples that are designed to tap the responses of young children and their fathers separately without parents or family members' intervention. In this regard, Solomon and Peters (2005) indicated that parents are often interviewed instead of their children and they may inaccurately report their children's consumption behaviour. Through an exploratory study, Shim et al (1995) indicated that the dyadic approach that depends on children and parents' responses is recommended through developing a simple questionnaire or an interview schedule for children and parents. Also, it is reasonable to investigate parents' perspectives relating to the evaluations of children's products (Gunter and Furnham, 1998).

#### **7.5.2 Personal interviews face-to-face experts' survey**

Personal interviews face-to-face experts' survey involves interviews with people who have a good knowledge about the research subject (Churchill Jr, 1999). It aims to explore ideas and make new connection among them, given that the respondents are likely to give spontaneous answers about what they think on the certain issues under investigation. It is more expensive than other survey techniques (Oppenheim, 1992). This type of interviewing cannot always be linked with a proper sample survey since it is based on qualitative data. Therefore, it is unnecessary to take into account any methodological considerations relating to the representativeness of the population (Pires et al., 2003).

*Within the realm of children's consumer behaviour*, a number of researchers employed the experts' survey in their studies. Earlier, Moore and Stephens (1975) asked three sales people to estimate the prices of 12 consumer products, durable and non-durable, used as a basis to measure the young children's knowledge related-price accuracy of product features and brand specifications. In studying the children's awareness of advertisement slogans/brands by 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grades, Datson and Hyatt (2000)

depended on three independent judgements in selecting the advertisement slogans/brands to be included in their study.

Departing from these premises, the expert survey was conducted to determine which types of grocery and food products that need to be investigated in the empirical study of Jordanian fathers' influences in young children's consumer role related to grocery and food products. This procedure would give different weights for the groups of products and assist to find out the differences among young children's ages and secure that these items or groups of products are frequently purchased by young children either for the family use or for their own use.

#### **7.5.2.1 The expert survey of the current research**

Eleven structured personal interviews were conducted to solicit the shop-owners' and salespeople's perceptions about young children's ability and the frequency of buying grocery and food products independently for the family use and for their own use. The shop-owners and the salespeople of supermarkets and corner restaurants were chosen from the target population area because of their experiences and familiarity with all ages and types of consumers buying grocery and food products. The interviews were conducted in their workplace "shops and stores". They were provided with a list of twenty-six items of visible grocery and food products that are related to the household and young children's consumptions. Based on 3-points scale anchored by always = 3, sometimes = 2, never = 1, the shop-owners and salespeople were asked to report, according to their daily communication and observations, how often children of ages ranging from 8 to 12 years old buy these items independently. In other words, the personal interview experts' survey was conducted to test the following hypothesis:

*"Young children's ability and the frequency of buying twenty-six items of grocery and food products for the family use or for their own use independently are not different across their ages that ranged from 8-12 years old."*

In relation to coding and entry data, the process was very simple since the data comprised one question and relied on a closed format with three points scale. The age of young children was coded into five classes from one to five. Data entry was carried out through using SPSS for Windows version 14. While the rows of entries consisted of fifty-five

cases, the columns consisted of twenty-seven (products items inclusive of young children's age) variables.

Table 7.3: Chi-square tests related to buying specific items of grocery and food products.

Products	Chi-square Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Chocolates	1.335	4	.854
Chewing gum	7.193	8	.516
Biscuit	2.263	8	.972
Chips	5.000	4	.287
Soft drink	20.938	8	.007
Ice cream	1.860	4	.762
Dishwashing liquid	17.185	8	.028
Fruit juice	9.823	8	.278
Nuts and raisins	10.000	8	.265
Salt	9.281	8	.319
Rice	13.657	8	.051
Eggs	15.480	8	.050
School supplies	9.404	8	.309
Herbs and spices	9.246	8	.322
Sugar	12.959	8	.113
Yoghurt	19.028	8	.015
Bakery food	24.984	8	.002
Chicken	38.254	8	.000
Shampoo	20.082	8	.010
Breakfast food	24.124	8	.002
Meat	28.469	8	.000
Fish	27.699	8	.001
Vegetables	17.786	8	.023
Fruits	25.464	8	.001
Kitchen appliances	4.074	4	.396
Tinned food	17.672	8	.024

To test the null hypothesis, Cross-tabulation-Pearson associated with chi-square test, MANOVA, and ANOVA analyses were conducted to determine the items of grocery and food products that should be included in the research model. As shown in table 7.3, the chi-square tests showed that there are significant relationships at the level of  $P < 0.05$  between young children of all ages and their ability and the frequency of buying the products of dishwashing liquid, shampoo, rice, eggs, yoghurt, tinned food, bakery food, breakfast food, vegetables and fruits, chicken, meat, fish, nuts and raisins and soft drink. In addition, MANOVA test indicated that the set of dependent variables “the items of grocery and food products” were highly related to the age of young children.

Table 7.4: ANOVA table-tests of the expert survey

Items	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Chocolates	.255	4	.064	.312	.87	.024
Chewing gum	.255	4	.064	.140	.97	.011
Biscuit	.073	4	.018	.036	0.997	.000
Chips	.800	4	.200	1.25	.30	.091
Soft drink	6.655	4	1.664	5.51	.001	.306
Ice cream	.255	4	.064	.437	.78	.034
Dishwashing liquid	9.345	4	2.336	5.06	.002	.288
Fruit juice	6.109	4	1.527	2.29	.07	.155
Nuts and raisins	2.436	4	.609	2.54	.05	.169
Salt	3.273	4	.818	1.44	.23	.103
Rice	6.618	4	1.655	3.96	.007	.240
Eggs	7.091	4	1.773	3.05	.02	.196
School supplies	4.255	4	1.064	2.50	.05	.167
Herbs and spices	4.982	4	1.245	2.27	.07	.154
Sugar	5.564	4	1.391	1.81	.14	.127
Yoghurt	10.073	4	2.518	5.09	.002	.289
Bakery food	14.291	4	3.573	7.56	.00	.377
Chicken	14.727	4	3.682	15.34	.00	.551
Shampoo	8.255	4	2.064	5.67	.001	.312
Breakfast food	12.073	4	3.018	5.15	.001	.292
Meat	20.436	4	5.109	12.11	.000	.492
Fish	14.800	4	3.700	9.00	.000	.419
Vegetables	7.164	4	1.791	4.52	.003	.265
Fruits	11.382	4	2.845	7.90	.000	.387
Kitchen appliances	.073	4	.018	1.00	.42	.074
Tined food	5.818	4	1.455	3.48	.014	.218

In that context, Wilks' Lambda value = 0.025 is significant at the level of  $P = 0.022$ ,  $F = 1.49$ , (104, 101.734). The small value of Wilks' Lambda indicated that the means of dependent variables differed markedly across young children's ages. This result is consistent with the partial Eta squared of Wilks' Lambda for the joint distribution of the dependent variables; it shows that the age of young children explained 60% of total variability "means differences" of the ability and the frequency of buying grocery and food products for the family use and for their own use. According to Cohen's (1988) guidelines, it represents a very strong effect. On the other hand, a series of univariate analysis showed that the (F) ratios of these products are significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00 < 0.05$ ). As shown in table 7.4, the (F) ratios of dependent variables ranged from

0.04 (Biscuit;  $p = 0.997$ ) to 15.34 (chicken;  $P = 0.00$ ). According to ANOVA table, the highest partial Eta squared was associated with the items of chicken = 55%, meat = 49%, fish = 42%, fruits = 39%, bakery food = 38%, soft drink = 31%. The lowest proportions of variability were associated with the items of biscuit = 0.0%, chewing gum = 1%, and chocolates = 2%.

According to the experts' perspectives, the results would partially accept the null hypothesis. That is, young children's ability and the frequency of buying dishwashing liquid, shampoo, rice, eggs, yoghurt, tinned food, bakery food, breakfast food, vegetables and fruits, chicken, meat, fish and soft drink differed significantly across young children of ages ranging from 8-12 years old.

In contrast, the young children exhibited the same ability and frequency in buying the items of chocolates, chewing gum, biscuit, chips, ice cream, fruit juice, salt, herbs and spices, sugar, kitchen appliances that are not statistically significant at the level of  $P < 0.05$ .

### **7.5.3 Focus groups' discussions of the current research**

The value of this technique lies in its objectives; therefore, it is considered as one of the main qualitative methods in marketing research; it is used as a prior step to more quantitative methods of data gathering (Calder, 1977; Percy, 1982; Hair Jr et al., 2000; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Focus group discussion is an efficient technique to investigate (a) the complexity of consumer behaviour, (b) consumer responses to advertising, and (c) consumers' concern about the products (Dupont, 1976). It is used to determine the topics and the question wording related to the construction of research questionnaires (Churchill jr, 1999) but there is no opportunity to apply statistical analysis for the exploratory focus group findings because the obtained data cannot be translated into measurable units (Oppenheim, 1992; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In contrast, there are strong indications that focus group technique may be used as the basis for actual decisions (Baker, 2003).

*Within the realm of children's consumer behaviour*, Harrigan (1991) found that the mini focus group technique that consists of 3 to 7 children is classified as the second order in conducting research in children's *products for food* and toy industries. Gunter and Furnham (1998) noted that the focus group technique is widely used in children's

consumer research to derive their consumption habits, preferences, wants and desires but the peer's pressure may negatively affects the results of focus group discussions. Oates (2001) reported that researchers usually conduct focus groups' discussions with young children of ages 6 to 10 years old to explore their ability in understanding the purpose of TV commercial advertising and the extent to what they understand particularly whether the advertisement messages are truthful. Recently, Darbyshire et al. (2005) indicated that children are generally comfortable and familiar with the process of discussing matters in groups. In addition, Wagner (2003) indicated that the semi-structured empirical research technique is useful to capture the consumer cognition. The structural approach takes into account the cognitive developmental stages through which children pass as they mature. Questions are designed to be appropriate to the young children's abilities.

Departing from these premises, the semi-structured focus groups' discussions were carried out to demonstrate the general characteristics of children's shopping consumer role as a result of father-child interaction in retailing milieu. The following sections present the strategies, the implementation process, the process of coding data, and the preliminary findings of focus groups' discussions of the current research.

The following sections present the strategies, the implementation process, the process of coding data, and the preliminary findings of focus groups' discussions of the current research.

#### **7.5.3.1 Strategies used in the implementation of focus groups' discussions**

The following strategies were used in conducting the semi-structured focus groups' discussions:

- Use the topic guides and probing technique in asking questions to tap the participants' views relating to shopping skills and knowledge. This procedure would avoid the problems of structured and non-structured interviews. Probing technique is a motivational technique used when asking questions to induce the respondents to enlarge on, clarify, or explain their answers. It starts with introductory questions, transition questions, the key questions, and end questions that are critical to the analysis. In this regard, Harris and Bell (1994) noted that there are three alternatives to conduct a group discussion, namely, group members can be asked a question, a

problem could be posed to the group, and the leader can introduce the main issues and chair the consequent discussion. The last alternative is preferable as it has kept the interview tracks to the point and gets the children to think about and comment upon specific issues (Gunter and Furnham, 1998).

- Use aided heuristic tools, as an example for the situation, to explain the underlying meaning of consumption terms such as the product ingredients “labels”, brand names, packaging, foreign products, and the freshness of products in particular that are related to their own use. In this regard, Wilson and Wood (2004) used picture cards in studying the influence of children on parental purchases during supermarket shopping to stimulate young children’s responses in focus group discussions.
- Use simple verbalisation terms in operating the focus group discussions to match young children’s cognitive capacities like those verbalisations used by the young children in their free speech. Spethmann and Smith (1992) and Banister and Booth (2005) indicated that the researcher should tune his/her talks to fit the speech terms that are usually used by the young children and let them use their own words to enable the young children to see themselves as partners in the research process.
- Operate the focus groups’ discussions in an informal atmosphere through not using the model norms of classroom behaviour to reduce the hierarchical adult–child relationship. Douglas (1985) indicated that the conversational approach creates active engagement between the researcher and participants and gets them to be more warm and friendly as well as helps to reduce any feelings of an inadequate knowledge because it is based on informal communication processes (Morgan et al., 2002; Banister and Booth, 2005). Moreover, Corfman (1995) found that the degree of participants’ comfortable, interested in the topic, and getting the participants to talk freely affect the quality of focus groups’ findings because organizing students in small groups does not mean that they will automatically participate in collaborative discussion (Corden, 2001). Morgan et al. (2002) emphasised on creating a comfortable milieu in operating focus group discussions through giving an impression to the children that he has not had the teacher power because the major task of the facilitator is to encourage the spontaneous contribution of participants. Therefore,

removing the gap between the researcher (as adult) and the child provides an immediate challenge (Banister and Booth, 2005).

- Avoid tapping sensitive information that invades the children's home privacy, embarrasses them, or has a negative impact on their ego or status.
- Divide the focus groups' discussions by gender (boys and girls focus groups' discussions). Gunter and Furnham (1998) indicated that the girls are more cooperative than boys' collaboration in discussing issues. Dividing the focus groups into boys and girls would overcome the probability of the boys' dominations over the focus group discussions.
- Avoid the lengthy period of discussion to fit the young children's cognitive development and their abilities. The actual focus group sessions lasted approximately sixty minutes. In this regard, Morgan et al. (2002) indicated that the focus group discussions lasted forty minutes, divided into two sessions that are probably the optimum for children of 7–11-year-olds.
- Operate the focus group discussions in multiple locations to reduce the potential of sampling biases.

### **7.5.3.2 Implementing the focus group discussions**

In relation to implementing the focus group discussions, figure no. 7.1 represents the process of designing focus group discussions of the research. In that context, young children of grades 2 to 6 who lived in Amman city, the capital of the Hashemite kingdom of Jordan were the target population. The consents of the Ministry of Education in Jordan, head teachers of schools, and fathers' agreement were achieved before conducting the focus groups discussions.

However, ten-one hour focus groups discussions, each consisting of five to seven participants, were carried out in six schools that randomly selected from the first directorate of education of Amman metropolitan. They were conducted in the classrooms arranged by the schools administration. The schools milieu helped the researcher to gain access to several children from many age groups (Oppenheim, 1992; Horowitz et al., 2003; Banister and Booth, 2005). In addition, the participants were chosen from different locations of Amman area, with the same grade, and with an equal number of boys and

girls to represent different grades.

Despite fathers' permission, it was emphasised to the young children that they were free to withdraw from the session at any time. It was also emphasised that the study is an academic research that is aimed at exploring how young children acquire consumer shopping skills, knowledge, and attitudes as a result of father-child interactions in grocery and food shopping milieu. Every participant heard the same set of instructions and the researcher directed the focus group discussions and requested the participants to be relaxed because the informal atmosphere helped group members to forget that they were being questioned and observed by the researcher or by the others group members. Then, the researcher requested the participants to write their names, grades, ages, addresses, and fathers' education and occupation on a card. All the focus group discussions were tape-recorded with the respondent's permission to overcome the problem of not hearing all the comments of participants, to understand, and to remember what they said about research issues. In this respect, Harris and Bell (1994) noted that the audio recording provides a complete record of what was said during an interview.

To create a harmonious relationship between the researcher and each group member as well as among the members themselves, the researcher gave the participants ten minutes to talk about their hobbies. In the first focus group discussions and before starting the main session, the young children requested the researcher to let them listen to their voices after their talks about hobbies. The researcher complied with their request and let them listen to their voice-tunes. This tactic helped to create positive group dynamics and encouraged the young children to participate effectively and openly in the real discussion. They also indicated that this kind of discussion is the first opportunity in which they were invited to give their opinions on issues not related the school topics. This tactic was used in all focus groups' discussions. However, the route of the real focus group discussions began with general questions to make respondents feel comfortable with the subject and then a series of probing questions were asked to give specific details on their shopping skills. Multiple cross discussions were adopted to encourage each participant to express his/her views and to react to the views of others. In general, the participants' discussions were interactive and focused on the topic at-hand and all were encouraged to express

his/her views.

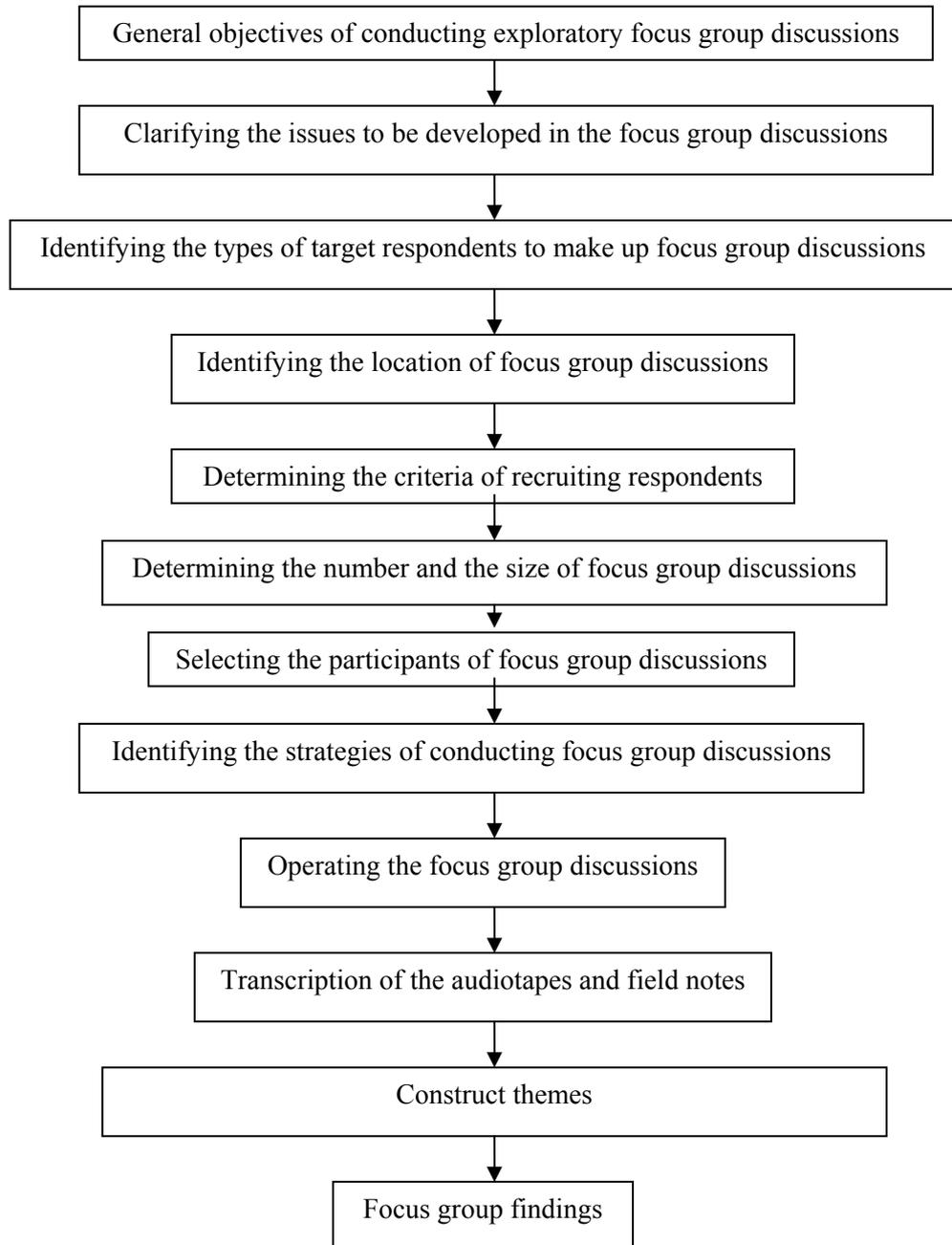


Figure 7.1: The process of designing focus group discussions of the current research.

### 7.5.3.3 Coding data and analysis of focus group discussions

Fossey et al. (2002: 726-728) referred the qualitative analysis to the process of reviewing, synthesizing and interpreting data to describe and explain the phenomena being studied.

They noted that the qualitative sampling may involve small numbers of participants but the data gathered can be large with many hours of participant interviews. Following the guidelines of Hair Jr et al. (2000: 236), the content analysis that is referred to the systematic procedures of taking individual responses and grouping them into larger theme categories was employed in focus group analyses. It was focused on the following interpretive factors in reviewing the participants' raw comments that were portrayed on audiotapes to code and analyse the data of focus group discussions:

- Young children's words: focus on the degree of similarity among the participants of each group and classifying them accordingly.
- The context of phrases: focus on the key and the actual words and phrases used by the young children, their tone and intensity.
- The frequency of comments and their intensity: focus on the words and phrases that were more extensively used by the participants of each group on specific questions or topics than other questions and topics.
- The specificity of young children's responses: give more weight on what types of consumer skills and knowledge they exactly possess.
- Construct sub-themes and aggregate themes: group the words and phrases in sub-themes and then aggregate the sub-themes into main themes related to young children's shopping consumer role and father-child interactions in retailing milieu.

In other words, the data of focus group discussions consisted of the field notes and young children's statements, and comments that were recorded on audiotapes. After having collected the data, the audiotapes were transcribed verbatim and a spreadsheet data was prepared manually for each transcript. Each transcript was coded by displaying young children's responses on a matrix with columns and rows and the above interpretive factors were employed to identify major sub-themes for each group related to the trends and patterns of the participants' comments and finally aggregated the similar sub themes among the groups to construct the principal themes. In this regard, Malhotra and Birks (2007) noted that using spreadsheets data in focus group discussions enabled the researcher to visualise the whole body of data and to make the necessary connections between ideas.

#### **7.5.3.4 The findings of focus groups' discussions**

The quality of qualitative research is based on the trustworthiness of the interpretation of data (Fossey et al., 2002) and the results of focus group discussions can be presented in narrative formats, listing raw data, summarising the discussions or using an interpretative approach (Hair Jr et. al, 2000: 238). In this respect, the findings of focus group discussions were classified into the following major themes (a) Jordanian fathers' role in developing the shopping consumer skills of their young children, (b) young children as consumers, (c) the diversity between girls and boys as consumers, and (d) The influences of TV viewing.

*In relation to Jordanian fathers' role*, fathers are used to buy grocery and food products for the family use. They request their young children to buy convenience grocery and food products for their own use and for the family use from the corner stores, supermarket, bakery shops, restaurants, and specialised stores that are located near their homes. They request their boys rather than their girls to buy specific types of grocery and food products for the family use. Fathers trust the ability of their young children to recall the types and the quantities of grocery and food products when they ask them to buy something for the family use. Young children shared their fathers in shopping trips related to grocery and food products.

*In relation to young children as consumers*, most of the young children of ages ranging from 8-12 years old are able to visit different grocery shops and specialised stores independently to buy grocery and food products for their own use and for the family use alike. They ask the salespeople about the prices of grocery and food items prior to buying them and bargain the prices of products that are related to their family use such as fruits, vegetables, and chicken. They check the caps and the cartons used in packaging the grocery and food products. They refer the quality of products to those manufactured outside of Jordan. Therefore, the grocery and food products of local origins are cheaper than the imported grocery and food products. They inspect the expiry date of products, in particular, that related to yoghurt. While they are able to differentiate between the brand names of products that are related to their own use, they have some difficulties in performing that task relating to the family brand names.

For their own use, while most of the young children compare the prices of grocery and food products to see if they have enough money to cover the cost of item, some of them used this strategy for the sake of getting the better quality at the moderate price. They have a good knowledge about the ingredients of a product related to their own use. They used to buy convenience grocery and food products that heavily appeared in TV commercial advertising. The taste is very important for them in selecting the grocery and food products. They do not care about selecting the nutrition food; they care about selecting products that denote them some offers. Boys and girls like to buy things that impress other young children.

***In relation to the diversity between girls and boys as consumers,*** girls used to buy from the corner stores, regardless of the types of products, for their own use or the family use. They are rarely bargaining the prices of grocery and food products with the sales-people or shop-owners. Boys relied on the external appearance of grocery and food products that is portrayed in varying colours on the packages, products that contain gifts, photos of famous celebrities and players in evaluating and selecting the grocery and food products.

***In relation to TV viewing,*** Jordanian young children are heavily involved in television and satellite televisions for fun and entertainment. Jordanian fathers impose restrictions on viewing the TV programmes and the amount of viewing the TV per/day. Jordanian fathers co-view TV with their young children.

## **7.6 Research objectives**

According to the drawbacks of existing research and exploratory research results related to the influence of fathers' consumer roles on young children's shopping consumer role as a result of father-child dyadic interactions in retailing milieu, the current research is aimed at addressing the following objectives:

- Purify and validate the scales of family communication structures according to the young children's perception of fathers' communication structures.
- Describe the general characteristics of (a) young children's shopping consumer role related to convenience grocery and food products and (b) fathers' orientations and attitudes towards developing the consumer role of their young children of ages 8-12.

- Measure the influence of the *developmental role* of Jordanian's fathers on transferring the consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes to their young children relating to shopping milieu-convenience grocery and food products as a result of father-child communication patterns.
- Measure the relative influence of the *gate-keeping role* of Jordanian's fathers on mediating the influence of TV commercial advertising on their young children shopping consumption behaviour related to grocery and food products as a result of father-child communication.
- Measure the relative influence of young children's cognitive development, the gender of young children, and family's demographic variables on children shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products.
- Investigate the degree of similarity/dissimilarity "modelling" between young children and their fathers related to shopping consumer role as a result of father-child communication patterns.

### **7.7 The descriptive survey design of the current research**

The exploratory research does not explain the differences among young children's ages related to shopping consumer role and does not measure the effect size of the relative influence of different independent variables on young children's shopping consumer role. Therefore, a descriptive survey research design as a part of conclusive research was employed to clarify these issues. It was employed to achieve the research objectives, examine specific relationships among the research variables, and to test the research hypotheses.

In that context, Oppenheim, (1992) noted that the survey research answering the question of "how many", generates much relevant information, and gives precise answers to the research questions. It reflects a high generalisability in the research findings for it being relied on a large sample. It is a flexible, logical, systematic, quantifiable, and deterministic research (Solomon et al., 1999; Janes, 2001; Kotler et al., 2001; Baker, 2003; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In marketing research, a descriptive research design is useful to examine consumers' attitudes and behaviours relating to products and services. It measures the influence of the family settings, reference groups, and demographic

variables in a certain consumer issue and estimates the proportion of people in a specified population who behave in a certain way towards consumer issues (Churchill Jr, 1999; Aaker et al., 2001). It provides information more quickly than observational and experimental research methods with the minimum cost (Kotler et al., 2001). Table 7.5 shows the advantages and disadvantages of descriptive survey design. In contrast, it is not competent to address the question of cause-and-effect relationship between the research variables as the casual research design do (Hair Jr et al., 2000; Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

Table 7.5: The advantages and disadvantages of descriptive survey design

<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
Deal with large sample size	Difficulty of developing accurate survey instruments (questionnaire design).
Ability to generalise the findings results	Limited in using probing questions
Ability to distinguish small differences	Lack of control over timeliness
Ease of administering and recording questions and answers	Difficulties in determining whether respondents are responding truthfully in particular that relating self-administered surveys.
Capabilities of using advanced statistical analysis	Misinterpretations of data results may be occurred if the researcher uses inappropriate analysis procedures.
Abilities of tapping into factors and relationships not directly measurable	-

Source: Adapted from Hair Jr et al. (2000: 254)

*In relation to the types of descriptive research design*, McGivern (2003: 79) indicated that the cross-sectional research design is the most common type of design in market and social research. It is used to examine the relationships between the research variables and test hypotheses. Malhotra and Birks (2007:62) classified the cross-sectional design into single cross-sectional and multiple cross-sectional designs. Single cross-sectional design refers to draw one sample of respondents from the target population and information is obtained from this sample once. Multiple cross-sectional designs refer to drawing two or more samples of respondents and each sample data is obtained only once. Despite collecting the primary data from two independent samples, young children and their fathers, to measure the effect of Jordanian fathers' roles on the shopping consumer role of their young children, the study devotes single cross-sectional design to address the research objectives. In this regard, Moore and Moschis (1978 b), Churchill Jr, and

Moschis (1979), Moschis and Moore (1982), Ward et al. (1987), and Baker's (2003) debates are used to justify the selection of cross-sectional design.

Earlier, Ward (1974), Moore and Moschis (1978 b), and Churchill Jr and Moschis (1979) indicated that the cross-sectional design is suitable to study agent-learner interactions. It is not suitable to determine the "causality" or to study the learning processes of agent-learner interaction in marketplace activities. Moschis and Moore (1982) noted that cross-sectional research is useful to clarify the correlation between the independent variables and the outcomes of children's consumer socialisation behaviour. In addition, cross-sectional design is useful to assess the interactive effects of complex stimuli such as family members, peers, schools, mass media and social influences, and children's information processing (Ward et al., 1987). It is useful to examine the dynamic changes occurring in the consumers' behaviours (Baker, 2003).

#### **7.7.1 Survey methods vs. observation methods**

Research protocols showed that the surveys and quantitative observation techniques are usually employed to collect the primary data in descriptive research design. There is a difference between the two techniques. While the survey methods are based on personal contact and personal interviews in collecting the primary data of research, the observation methods are relied on a direct or indirect observation of phenomena through recording and counting the attitudes and the behavioural patterns of individuals. While the observation methods are used to measure the actual consumers' attitudes and behaviours, the survey methods are used to measure the orientations and the characteristics of consumers' cognition, attitudes, feelings, beliefs, behaviours quantitatively. The two methods fail to explain the cause-and-effect relationships of attitudes and behaviours (Tull and Hawkins, 1993; Gunter and Furnham, 1998; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). The observation method cannot explain why people behave in a particular context or situation (Chisnall, 2005). However, the main goal of quantitative survey research methods is to create accurate predictions about relationships between market factors and consumer behaviours, understand the relationships and differences, verify, and validate the existing relationships (Hair Jr et al., 2000: 253).

In addition, Ekstrom et al. (1987) reported that the observation method of collecting the primary data is difficult to be used in studying children's influence in family decision making because it is based on intrusiveness that may sensitise the respondents. Therefore, self-administered questionnaire remains the method of choice to examine children's influence in family decisions. That is, the research to be successful is entirely relied on the designing and administering a survey instrument "questionnaire" rather than depending on the communication and interpretive skills of an interviewer or observer (Hair Jr et al., 2000).

### **7.7.2 The types of survey methods**

According to the mode of administration, Malhotra and Birks (2007) categorised the survey techniques into (a) personal face-to-face interviews that consist of in-home and in-office interviews, street interviewing, and computer-assisted personal interviewing, (b) telephone interviews that consist of traditional telephone interviews, computer-assisted telephone interviewing, and (c) mail surveys that consist of traditional mail survey, electronic mail survey, and mail panel. As shown in table 7.6, Aaker et al. (2001) illustrate the advantages and disadvantages of personal interviews, telephone interviews, self-administration questionnaire, mail surveys, drop-off questionnaire, fax surveys, and electronic mail survey.

#### **7.7.2.1 Face-to-face personal interview of survey research**

Hair Jr et al. (2000: 256) referred the personal interview face-to-face to person-administered survey; it requires the presence of a trained interviewer who asks questions and records the subjects' answers. It may rely on a structured or semi-structured question-and-answer exchange conducted in the respondent's homes or offices. This technique is characterised by its flexibility compared to other survey methods, therefore, the researcher can collect a large amount of information to explore specific issues (Kotler et al, 2001) and assures that the questionnaire questions were entirely answered (Meyer and Anderson, 2000). Face-to-face personal interview is used to explore the consumer cognition related to the past, present, and future behaviour (Wagner, 2003). In addition, it enables the interviewer to observe and note the respondent's physical reaction to the questions (McGivern, 2003).

Table 7.6: The advantages and disadvantages of different survey methods

Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Personal interviewing</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There are sample designs that can be implemented.</li> <li>• Personal interview procedures are probably the most effective way of enlisting cooperation.</li> <li>• Advantages of interview questions: probing for adequate answers, accurately following complex instructions or sequences are realized.</li> <li>• Multimethod data collection, including observation, visual cues, and self-administered sections, are feasible.</li> <li>• Rapport and confidence building are possible (including any written reassurances that may be needed for reporting very sensitive material).</li> <li>• Probably longer interviews can be done in person.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is likely to be more costly than alternatives.</li> <li>• A trained staff of interviewers that is geographically near the sample is needed.</li> <li>• The total data collection period is likely to be longer than for most procedures.</li> <li>• Some samples (those in high-rise buildings or high-crime areas, elites, employees, students) may be more accessible by some other mode.</li> </ul>
<b>Telephone interviewing</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lower costs than personal interviews.</li> <li>• Random-digit-dialling (RDD) sampling of general population.</li> <li>• Better access to certain populations, especially as compared to personal interviews.</li> <li>• Shorter data collection periods.</li> <li>• The advantages of interviewer administration (in contrast to mail surveys).</li> <li>• Interviewer staffing and management easier than personal interviews—smaller staff needed, not necessary to be near sample, supervision and quality control potentially better.</li> <li>• Likely better response rate from a list sample than from mail.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sampling limitations, especially as a result of omitting those without telephone.</li> <li>• Nonresponse associated with RDD sampling is higher than with interviews.</li> <li>• Questionnaires or measurement constraints, including limits on response alternatives, use of visual aids and interviewer observations.</li> <li>• Possibly less appropriate for personal or sensitive questions if no prior contact.</li> </ul>
<b>Self-administration questionnaire</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ease of presenting questions requiring visual aids (in contrast to telephone interviews).</li> <li>• Asking questions with long or complex response categories is facilitated.</li> <li>• Asking batteries of similar questions is possible. The respondent does not have to share answers with an interviewer.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Specially careful questionnaire design is needed.</li> <li>• Open questions usually are not useful.</li> <li>• Good reading and writing skills are needed by respondents</li> <li>• The interviewer is not present to exercise quality control with respect to answering all questions, meeting questions objectives or the quality of answers provided.</li> </ul>
<b>Mail procedures</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relatively low cost.</li> <li>• Can be accomplished with minimal staff and facilities.</li> <li>• Provides access to widely dispersed samples, and samples that for other reasons are difficult to reach by telephone or in person.</li> <li>• Respondents have time to give thoughtful answer, look up records, or consult with others.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ineffective as a way of enlisting cooperation (depending on group to be studied).</li> <li>• Various disadvantages of not having interviewer involved in data collection.</li> <li>• Need for good mailing addresses for sample.</li> </ul>

Table 7.6: The advantages and disadvantages of different survey methods (Continued...2)

Advantages	Disadvantages
Drop-off questionnaire	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The interviewer can explain the study, answer questions, and designate a household respondent.</li> <li>• Response rates tend to be like those of personal interview studies.</li> <li>• There is more opportunity to give thoughtful answers and consult records or other family members than in personal or telephone interview surveys.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Costs about as much as personal interviews.</li> <li>• A field staff is required (albeit perhaps a less thoroughly trained one than would be needed for personal interviews).</li> </ul>
Fax surveys	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relatively low cost.</li> <li>• Can be accomplished with minimal staff and facilities.</li> <li>• Provides access to widely dispersed samples and samples that for other reasons are difficult to reach by telephone or in person.</li> <li>• Respondents have time to give thoughtful answers, look up records, or consult with others.</li> <li>• Telephone charges are decreasing.</li> <li>• Local faxes are free.</li> <li>• Administrative costs are fixed.</li> <li>• It is fast.</li> <li>• Technology is improving. Listing management is easy.</li> <li>• Can send and receive by computer.</li> <li>• More reliable than mail in some countries.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Higher fixed costs for computer/fax equipment, multiple phone lines.</li> <li>• Costs increase with minutes.</li> <li>• Cost varies by time on line, time of day, distance, and telephone carrier.</li> <li>• Currently limited to organizational populations.</li> <li>• Loss of anonymity.</li> </ul>
Electronic mail survey	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can easily incorporate complex branching questions into survey</li> <li>• Can easily use respondent-generated words in questions throughout the survey</li> <li>• Can accurately measure responses times of respondents to key questions</li> <li>• Can easily display a variety of graphics and directly them to questions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• selection bias</li> <li>• Attracting potential respondents to participate in the survey</li> <li>• Respondents may provide false data</li> <li>• Limit the number of characters allowed in the fill-ins</li> </ul>

Source: adapted from Aaker et al. (2001: 251-252 and 255-256).

Therefore, the use of personal interviews that based on structured or unstructured format is a leading means of data collection method in European Marketing Research (Fill, 1995). In comparing the rate of participants' responses on research questions between face-to-face personal interview and telephone interview, Sturges and Hanrahan, (2004) found that the personal interview method did not influence the responses rate of questions used in the two methods as well as the nature and the depth of responses did not differ

significantly with the type of interview. On the other hand, the main disadvantages of personal interview are depicted as the high cost per interview with the interviewer bias and its rigidity to generalise the research findings (Hire et al., 2000; Kotler et al, 2001; Aaker et al., 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

#### **7.7.2.2 Personal interview self-administered questionnaire**

Bourque and Fielder (1995) noted that there are two types of self-administered questionnaires, namely, supervised self-administered questionnaires and unsupervised self-administration questionnaires. The first type is based on face-to-face or group self-administered questionnaires; respondents answer questionnaires in the presence of the researcher or other supervising personnel. That is, the researcher or his/her representative is available to answer any questions that the respondent has about the questionnaire content. Aaker et al. (2001) noted that face-to-face interviewing self-administered questionnaire enables the researcher to ask questions with long or complex response categories to all the respondents in the same manner.

In the second type that is depicted on the mail and drop-off surveys, the respondent completes the questionnaire with out the presence of the researcher or other supervising personnel to clarify instructions or provide additional information to eliminate confusion. In a mail survey, formal presentation of verbal instructions is given to the potential group of respondents as a whole. That is, the questionnaire stands “alone”; all the required information should be provided on the questionnaire itself (Oppenheim, 1992; Bourque and Fielder, 1995; Hair Jr et al., 2000; Aaker et al., 2001). There is no interviewer to probe for a deeper response (Hair Jr et al., 2000) and to clarify the responses of open-ended questions (Aaker et al., 2001). The low cost per survey and less interviewer bias are the main advantages of mail self-administered questionnaire (Hair Jr et al., 2000).

In the drop-off survey, a researcher or the representative of the researcher handed the questionnaires forms to the respondents to be completed later. The completed surveys are returned by mail or picked up by the researcher or his/her representative (Hair Jr et al., 2000; Aaker et al., 2001). Oppenheim (1992) indicated that this type of survey is characterised by a low refusal rate, accurate sampling and a minimum of interviewer bias. Bourque and Fielder, (1995: 9) noted that the main disadvantages of unsupervised self-

administration questionnaires are as follows:

- No control over who responds;
- No direct information on answerability of questions;
- Questionnaire must be alone.

### 7.7.2.3: Group interview Face-to-Face self-administered questionnaire

Oppenheim (1992) referred the group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire to the groups of respondents assembled together, such as schoolchildren, to tap their responses on specific issues. Since the instructions of the questionnaire are clear, the self-administered questionnaire may be conducted by the researcher or by a schoolteacher (Oppenheim, 1992). In supervised group self-administered questionnaire that may take place on a classroom and workplace settings, the interviewer is available to explain the questionnaire's questions, provide consistent instructions about the process of filling out the questionnaire, provides some information on the answerability of questions, monitor the communication between respondents, and monitor the completion of questionnaire by all respondents. Every participant hears the same set of verbal instructions, and everyone's questions or comments are handled in a similar way (Bourque and Fielder, 1995: 8).

Table: 7.7: The differences between personal, group, telephone interviews, and mail survey

Assumptions	Personal interviews	Group interviews	Telephone interviews	Mail survey
Cost per response	High	Fairly high	Low	Very low
Speed of data collection	Fast	Fast	Very fast	Slow
Quantity of data collectable	Large	Large	Moderate	Moderate
An Ability to reach dispersed population	Low	Low	High	High
Likely response rate	High	Very high	Fairly high	Low
Potential for interviewer bias	High	Very high	Fairly high	None
Ability to probe	High	High	Fairly high	None
Ability to use visual aids	High	High	None	Fairly high
Flexibility of questioning	High	Very high	Fairly high	None
Ability to ask complex questions	High	High	Fairly high	Low
Ability to get truth on sensitive questions	Fairly low	Fairly high	Fairly high	High
Respondent anonymity	Possible	Fairly Possible	None	None
Likely respondent cooperation	Good	Very good	Good	Poor
Potential for respondent misunderstanding	Low	Low	Fairly low	High

Source: Adapted from Brassington and Pettitt (2003: 234)

In addition, the researcher collects the completed responses within a short period and any misleading questions can be clarified to the respondents (Sekaran, 2003). Aaker et al. (2001) indicated that the strength of group-administered surveys is depicted on the high rate of responses; it reaches nearly 100 percent. Brassington and Pettitt (2003) indicated that the interview survey involves direct face-to-face personal interview or direct face-to-face group interview, telephone interview, and mail survey. They differentiate among the four techniques relating to their performances as shown in table 7.7.

### **7.7.3 Selection of the survey method**

The selection of survey method is influenced by the type of universe to be surveyed, the nature of the research problem, the flexibility of data collection, sample control, response rate, and the potential of interviewer bias (Adler, 1965; Malhotra et al., 1996). It is not influenced by the monetary incentives (Michael et al., 1996). In a similar vein, Aaker et al. (2001) noted that the selection of the survey methods is affected by the way of selecting the sample plan, the type of target population related to the reading and writing skills of the population, the question formats (closed or open-end questions), question contents, the rate of responses, the cost restrictions, and the available facilities. The interview's environment that is portrayed on the mood of the respondent and the restrictions of time and place affect the selection of the personal interview method. That is, there is no superior method in collecting the survey data (Aaker et al., 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

### **7.8 Research data collection methods**

Group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire and drop-off self-administered questionnaire were respectively employed to tap young children and fathers' responses. The two methods of collection data can be justified by the following points:

- The nature of research problem and its objectives determine the data collection method. According to the research objectives, the two methods are useful to describe the characteristics of children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products as a result of father-child interaction and also useful to measure the influence of multi-independent variables on this process. Within the context of children's consumer socialisation behaviour, in establishing the two indexes of young children's

shopping skills and knowledge related to the retail settings, Reece and Kinnear (1986) relied on the personal interview method to collect the primary data from the young children of ages 5-12 years old. They also used self-administered questionnaire to tap parent responses in relation to their children's shopping experience, parental shopping habits, and the parent's efforts to teach their children how to shop. Oppenheim (1992) noted that there is an increase in the number of surveys among children in school through using self-administered questionnaire completed in the classrooms. In addition, personal interview survey in children's consumer behaviour gives the researcher an opportunity to get further information and record any additional comments respondents expressed when answering questions and get assured that all questions are completely filled out (Meyer and Anderson, 2000). In studying children's responses to the TV advertising in china, Chan and McNeal (2004 and 2006) conducted group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire to tap the responses of children of grades one to six (ages 6 to 14). They read out the questions as well as the answers and asked the children to check the most appropriate answers. Children in grades 3 to 6 were asked to fill out the questionnaire by themselves in the class. In studying children's decision-making related to buy shoes in Egypt, Hassan (2002) used group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire to tap the responses of young children of ages ranging from 9-12 years old. In addition, self-administered questionnaire technique was used by a number of researchers such as Moore and Stephen (1975), Moschis and Moore (1979 a), Moore and Moschis (1981), Moschis et al. (1984), Reece and Kinnear (1986), Foxman et al. (1989), McNeal and Yeh (1997), Cao and Price (1997), Palan (1998), McNeal and Ji (1999), Dotson and Hyatt (2000), Rummel et al. (2000), Hailing and Tufte (2002), Geuens et al. (2003), Chan and McNeal (2003), Marquis (2004), Chan (2005), Datson and Hyatt (2005), Bakir et al. (2005), and Hsieh et al. (2006).

- The survey questionnaires remain the most important technique for primary data collection for it is being used to obtain facts, knowledge, intentions, demographic characteristics, behaviour, opinions, attitudes, motivations, other psychological

characteristics, and lifestyle (Hair Jr et al., 2000; Aaker et al., 2001; McGivern, 2003; Malhorta and Birks, 2007).

- Group face-to face interviews with young children avoid the reporting of children's behaviour by their parents who are not always aware of some of their young children's behaviour. In addition, when the child fills out the questionnaire in his/her home, the researcher should ensure that the questionnaire was completed in a setting that prevents the influence of other family members (Palan, 1998). In a similar vein, Datson and Hyatt (2000) noted that the researcher should take the necessary precautions if he/she employed the technique of completion of the self-administered questionnaires in the home by the young children.
- While the method of drop-off self-administered questionnaire has only one major disadvantage that the surveyor is not available to explain the questionnaire to the respondent and clarify responses to open-ended questions (Aaker et al., 2001), the group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire has the following advantages:
  - Speed of data collection is fast;
  - Quantity of data collectable is large;
  - Response rate is very high;
  - Flexibility of asking and answering question is very high;
  - Ability to ask complex questions is high;
  - Respondent cooperation is very good;
  - Ability to get truth on sensitive questions is fairly high;
  - Potential for respondent misunderstanding is low; and
  - The external validity is very high.

### **7.9 Research population**

A number of researchers such as Tull and Hawkins (1993), Oppenheim (1992), Hussey and Hussey (1997), Churchill Jr (1999), Hair Jr et al. (2000), Aaker et al. (2001), Chisnall (2005), and Malhotra and Birks (2007) indicated that the sampling process of research design should answer the following basic questions:

- What kind of population will be studied?

- What are the available means that permitted to access the population?
- What are the determinations and boundaries of the sampling frame?
- How many will be sampled to give the required accuracy?

Hussey and Hussey (1997: 144) defined a population as “a body of people or any other collection of items under consideration for research purposes”. There is a difference between population and the targeted population. The population is the identifiable total set of elements of the whole population whereas the target population is a small part of the population identified to represent the whole population (Hair Jr et al., 2000).

Departing from these premises, young Jordanian children of ages 8-12 years old (boys and girls) who lived in Amman metropolitan / the capital of the Hashemite kingdom of Jordan represent the research population. In contrast, the target population involves all young Jordanian children, boys and girls, who are in the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, and 6<sup>th</sup> grades of the state schools at the first directorate of Amman education / ministry of education. The primary schools of that directorate echo the sampling frame of the population. It was divided into west and east areas. The sampling frame of research depends on the records and the statistics of the first directorate of ministry of education and its schools used as secondary data in the stratification of research sample. The sampling frame of students' names is based on the lists of schools. To that extent, Oppenheim (1992) indicated that the structure of the educational system provides an appropriate sampling frame in terms of age, gender, educational level, and geographical areas.

### **7.9.1 The distribution of the target population**

As shown in appendix C1-1, 2, and 3, the target population was divided into the west and east areas of Amman metropolitan. The two areas have 106 schools. The target population of the west area forms 26% of the total number of schools and 22.5% of the target population. It represents 18% of the total count of boys and 27% of the total count of girls. The target population of the east area forms 74% of the total number of schools and 77.5% of the target population. It represents 82% of the total count of boys and 73% of the total count of girls. Respectively, young children of ages ranging from 8-12 years old amount to 19.3%, 19.5%, 19.7%, 20.7%, and 20.8% of the target population. Therefore, the difference between the highest proportion and the lowest proportion of grades'

contribution is 1.5%. There is no significant difference between boys and girls' contribution in the formation of the target population; the girls contribution precedes the boys contribution by 1.6% (girls = 50.8%, boys = 49.2%). Within each grade, boys and girls have the same ratio of contribution in making-up its stratum. In addition, the number of female schools at the west and the east areas exceed the number of males and mixture schools (males and females) by 5% and 18% respectively.

### **7.9.2 The type of research sample**

A number of researchers such as Tull and Hawkins (1993), Hussey and Hussey (1997), Churchill Jr (1999), Hair Jr et al. (2000), Aaker et al. (2001), Chisnall (2005), Cooper and Schindler (2006), and Malhotra and Birks (2007) indicated that the sampling plan is aimed to obtaining the maximum information about the characteristics of specific population with minimum cost, time and labour. Since covering the whole number of units of population in a survey research is neither possible nor advisable, the representative sample drawn from the population is useful to study the characteristics of that population. To this extent, those authors classified the research sampling techniques into probability and non-probability sampling techniques. Probability sampling techniques that are depicted on simple random sample, stratified, systematic, cluster, and multistage samples are usually employed in descriptive research. These techniques rely on objectivity judgment that eliminates the interviewer influences on the interviewees' responses. By contrast, non-probability sampling techniques that portrayed in convenience, judgmental, quota, and snowball samples are based on the personal judgement of the researcher. Therefore, the potential for bias is present. The strengths and the weaknesses of each technique are shown in table 7.8. Choosing non-probability versus probability sampling techniques are influenced by the nature of the research and its complexity, required amount of data, desired accuracy, sample control, time requirements, acceptable level of non-response, and the cost (Tull and Hawkins, 1993). Also, it is influenced by the homogenous and the heterogeneous population, statistical, and operational considerations (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Oppenheim (1992) indicated that the random sample represents the whole population and every member of the population has an opportunity to be chosen.

Table 7.8: The strengths and weaknesses of research sample types

Technique	Strength	Weakness
Non-probability sampling		
Convenience sampling	Least expensive, least time consuming, most convenience	Selection bias, sample not representative, not recommended for descriptive or casual research
Judgemental sampling	Low cost, convenient, not time consuming, ideal for exploratory research designs	Does not allow generalisation, subjective
Quota sampling	Sample can be controlled for certain characteristics	Selection bias, no assurance of representativeness
Snowball sampling	Can estimate rare characteristics	Time consuming
Probability sampling		
Simple random sampling (SRS)	Easily understood, results projectable	Difficult to construct sampling frame, expensive, lower precision, no assurance of representativeness
Systematic sampling	Can increase representativeness, easier to implement than (SRS), sampling frame not always necessary	Can decrease representativeness
Stratified sampling	Includes all important sub-population, precision	Difficult to select relevant stratification variables, not feasible to stratify on many variables, expensive
Cluster sampling	Easy to implement, cost-effective	Imprecise, difficult to compute and interpret results

Source: Adapted from Malhotra and Birks (2003: 374)

Cooper and Schindler (2006: 416) stated “The reasons for using stratified random sampling: to increase a sample’s statistical efficiency, to provide adequate data for analysing the various sub-populations or strata, to enable different research methods and procedures to be used in different strata”.

*In relation to stratified random sampling procedures*, Earlier, Boyd Jr and Westfall (1972) argued that the stratified random sampling provides more reliable estimates than simple random sampling. It is referred to the divisions of the target population into groups “called strata” and samples are selected from each stratum (Hair Jr et al., 2000). Lehmann (1998), Baker (2003), and Malhotra and Birks (2007) noted that there are two methods for deriving samples from strata, namely, proportionate stratified sampling and disproportionate stratified sampling. In proportionate stratified sampling, the number of sampling units chosen from each stratum is proportionate with the stratum’s share to the total population. In disproportionate stratified sampling, the sample size of each stratum is not relied on its

relative share to the total population. In addition, Hair Jr et al. (2000: 349) pointed out that drawing a stratified random sample involves dividing the target population into homogeneous strata, drawing random samples from each stratum, and combining the samples from each stratum into a single sample of the target population.

Departing from the above premises, proportionate stratified random sampling technique provides an adequate basis to investigate the diversity of young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes as a result of father-child interaction in shopping milieu. Young children's age was employed to stratify the research sample because of its correlation with children cognitive development. Earlier, McLeod and O'Keefe (1972) indicated that using age, as a criterion variable for sampling, is better than other variables such as socio-economic status to study the changes occurred in attitudes and behaviour patterns. However, this technique was employed for the following reasons:

- To address the objectives of the research in particular that describe the qualitative changes occurring in shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes for each age of young children. This required the division of the defined target population into homogenous strata to overcome the issue of heterogeneity in population, which provides in turn the advantages of making the relative comparisons among young children of different ages and assures their representativeness in the sample (Hair Jr et al., 2000; Chisnall, 2005).
- To generalise the research results for the whole population through giving each member of stratum a chance to be chosen. Rossiter (1979 b) pointed out that the researcher should pay a great attention relating to the generalisability results in children's consumer research.
- To obtain more efficient and accurate results through eliminating the personal bias of the researcher, minimising sample error, minimising the variability (skewness) within each stratum and maximize the differences between strata. Stratified random sampling avoids bias and improves the sampling efficiency by increasing the accuracy at a faster rate than the cost increase (Hair Jr et al., 2000).

- To obtain greater reliability, Boyd Jr and Westfall (1972) noted that the stratification leads to have a greater reliability than other techniques as a result of similarity among the units of strata.
- A number of researchers in children's consumer behaviour such as Ward and Wackman (1974) Robertson et al. (1985), Reece and Kinnear (1986), Hassan (2002) employed this technique in their studies.
- Replacement of subject is easy in this method if the original case is not accessible to study.

### 7.9.3 Sample size

The size of sample refers to the number of sampling units selected from the population for investigation. Lehmann et al. (1998: 286) defined the sample size as “the number of useable responses, not to the number of individuals in the target sample”. The determination of the sample size is very complex because it is influenced by qualitative and quantitative factors. The qualitative factors are referred to the nature of study, the type of sample, the nature of the sample's elements, the type of data analysis techniques used, the number of the research variable and its scales, time and resources, and the homogeneity of the population. In contrast, the quantitative factors are referred to the sample statistics such as the accuracy of estimation relating to the accuracy level “allowable interval”, confidence level, and population proportion (Oppenheim, 1992; Malhotra et al., 1996). It is also influenced by the number of strata (Lehmann et al., 1998). The sample size can be determined through a pilot sample or through the researcher's judgment (Remenyi et al., 2003 and Malhotra et al., 2007).

According to the sample size formula of population proportion through using simple random sample (Lehmann et al., 1998: 390; Aaker et al., 2001: 402; Remenyi et al., 2003: 197), the sample size of research was statistically determined as follows:

$$n = (z)^2 (p) (100\% - p) \div (\text{tolerance})^2$$

Where

n = sample size

Z value = the number of standard errors a point is away from the mean. It is based on the level of confidence desired.

P = population proportion

Tolerance or the sampling error = the level of general precision (how tightly/accurately one needs to measure the dependent variable of interest).

Since the population proportion was not exactly known, a conservative procedure was applied through assuming  $p = 50\%$  (Lehmann et al., 1998, Aaker et al., 2001). Under the conditions of the population proportion equals 50% of the whole population, and  $Z = 1.96$  for a 95% confidence level and 5% level of significance, the sample size needed at the aggregate level is 384.16 calculated as follows:

$$(1.96)^2 (0.50) (1.00 - 0.50) \div (0.05)^2 = (3.8416) (0.50) (0.50) \div 0.0025 = 384.16$$

#### **7.9.4 Stratification process**

As shown in tables C1-1, 2, and 3 of appendix C, the strata's elements relied on the number of state schools in the two areas of the first directorate of Ministry of Education, the students' population count per area, and the students count per school. Therefore, the following criteria were employed to stratify and select the research sample:

- (a) Divide the schools of the first directorate of the Ministry of Education into the west and the east area of Amman metropolitan.
- (b) Proportionate the count of each area to its sharing with the target population's count that mirrors the number of schools and elements to be chosen from that area. Each area contributes with different numbers of schools and children in the research sample.
- (c) Partition the target population into five strata, in accordance with the age of the children, in order to obtain a homogenous stratum with similar attributes and heterogeneous strata with different attributes.
- (d) Each age or grade that involves boys and girls represents a separate stratum.
- (e) The small number of the school count, the smaller number of student engaged in the research sample.
- (f) The stratum size depends on the following formula:

$$\text{The children count in each grade} = (F) * (P^a) * (Pg)$$

Where:

F: total number of fathers' agreement to their children's participation

$P^a$ : the proportion of area sharing to the total count of the target population (West area =

22.5% and East area = 77.5%).

Pg: the proportion of grade contribution to the total count of the target population (grade 2 = 19.3%, grade 3 = 19.5%, grade 4 = 19.7%, grade 5 = 20.7%, and grade 6 = 20.8%).

#### **7.9.5 Sampling procedures**

Sixteen schools were randomly chosen by using the lottery method in each area as described by Hassan (2002: appendix B2) and Chisnall (2005: 104). In order to identify the schools' location, the schools names of each area were written in slips. These slips are placed in a jar to provide an equal probability for each school to be selected within each area. The jar is shaken to draw out the names of schools. After each selection, the slip was returned to the jar to keep-up the same probability of selection for all the schools. If there is more than one classroom for each grade at the school, random procedures were used to choose classes of students within each school. Choosing the students of each grade was proportionate with the schools population share to the total population count of each area. The selection of students within each school was based on simple random sampling procedures. Fathers' sample is entirely corresponded with children sample since the research design is based on dyads responses. In coordination with the schools' administration, one thousand and two hundred formal letters in standards format were sent to the fathers of young children asking them to participate and to agree on the participation of their young children in the group interviews. It was divided equally among the five grades because there is a minor difference among the five grades in its sharing of the target population count as shown in table C1-3 of appendix C.

#### **7.9.6 Research sample profile related to schools and grades distribution**

As shown in the table C2-1 of appendix (C), the research sample consisted of three types of schools, namely, boys' schools, girls' schools, and mixed schools. The mixed schools are referred to the schools that have jointly at least one grade of boys and girls.

However, the research sample consisted of 16 schools divided into the west and the east area. The students' counts of these schools were ranged from 79 to 802. It is formed 19.5% of the target population count. While the west area was represented by five schools that form 20.5% of the research sample and 31% of the schools number, the east area was represented by 11 schools that form 79.5% of the research sample and 69% of the schools

number. The boys' count of the two areas form 48.5% of the research sample and the remaining proportion maintains the girls' contribution. These ratios are similar to the ratios of its sharing the total of the target population. As shown in the tables C2-2, 7, and 8 of appendix C, there is a small difference between the grades' proportion to the selected schools count; the range of grade's contribution extends from 18.2% (grade 3 and 6) to 22% (grade 2). Specifically, young children of ages ranging from 8-12 years old, contribute 22%, 18.2%, 21.2%, 20.4%, and 18.2% respectively. The maximum difference is (+ 2.7%) and the minimum difference is (- 0.3%). As shown in the table C2-3 of appendix C, there is a slight difference between boys and girls' contribution in the formation of each stratum; the difference being: grade 2 = 1.6%, grade 3 = 1.4%, grade 4 = 0.03%, grade 5 = 0.04%, grade 6 = 0.06%.

#### **7.10 Questionnaires design**

A questionnaire is a list of carefully structured questions that are chosen after considerable testing to achieve a reliable response from a chosen sample (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Malhotra and Birks (2003: 326) define the questionnaire as “a structured technique for data collection consisting of a series of questions, written or verbal, that a respondent answers”. These definitions involve selecting, approaching and questioning respondents and establishing sets of scale measurements for communicating with and collecting data from respondents. On the other hand, a questionnaire design is a matter of art rather than science because there is no scientific rule leading to an optimal design of questionnaire; it is based on the researcher's experiences (Aaker et al., 2001; Chisnall, 2005; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). By contrast, Hair Jr et al. (2000: 440) argued that the questionnaire design is a combination of art and science “while there is some level of creativity involved in designing a questionnaire, the process itself should be a scientific one that integrates established rules of logic, objectivity, discriminatory powers, and systematic procedures”. However, the questionnaire design should take into account the following considerations:

- The characteristics of target population such as the respondents' ages, in this respect, Abel (1996) reported that the respondents' ability to answer questions is significantly correlated with the age of interviewees. The older respondents found the questions

easier to respond. Questions that are appropriate for young children may not be appropriate for adults (Aaker et al., 2001).

- The type of data collection method, for example, the questionnaires designed for personal and telephone interviews should be written in a conversational style (Malhotra and Birks, 2003: 330).
- To what degree the respondents are willing and capable of answering the questionnaire questions (Aaker et al., 2001).
- The theoretical components of the questionnaire that are referred to the question words, questions/setup (Boyd Jr and Westfall, 1972; Hair Jr et al., 2000) and the general appearance of the questionnaire, variables categorisation, and scales are the major components of designing the questionnaire (Sekaran, 2003).

In addition, Bourque and Fielder (1995: 39-40) recommended using the following guidelines relating to the content of the questionnaire:

- Rely on a literature review to define the parameters of the study to know what others have done, and learn what others have recommended.
- Adopt standard questionnaires to maximize closed-ended questions, because questions and instructions have already undergone development and testing.
- Adapt questions from other studies because the original questionnaire is too long, the mode of administration has changed, a different population is being studied, or translations must be made. Pilot testing must be repeated, and reliability and validity reassessed.
- Develop questions when no existing sets of questions can be adopted or adapted for the purposes of the study.

#### **7.10.1 The process of research questionnaires design**

According to the aforesaid recommendations, the current research emphasises that the literature review of chapters 3 to 5, the findings of focus groups' discussions, and experts' survey results, as was stated in sections 7.5.2.1 and 7.5.3.4, are the basic sources of the two questionnaires contents in order to maintain and maximise the questions' reliability and validity. In addition, the two questionnaires content were quite similar; most items were simply reworded to match the respondents' cognition abilities.

The following criteria were employed to design the research questionnaires:

- Make a connection between the gap of literature reviewed and the exploratory research findings.
- Convert the research problem and its objectives into variables used to test the research hypotheses.
- Employ the type of closed-ended questions because it needs less effort to tabulate and analyse the research data (Remenyi et al., 2003) to be used in large-scale surveys (Oppenheim, 1992).
- Employ the formats of nominal, ordinal, and interval scales in the two questionnaires' measurement scales. While the variables of an interval and ratio scales refer to as quantitative variables, the variables of nominal and ordinal scales are referred to as qualitative or categorical variables (Remenyi et al., 2003: 153).
- Use non-comparative itemised rating scales that have three, four, or five-point balanced scales to measure the young children's consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes as a result of father-child interaction in a shopping milieu; the rating scale is frequently used in business research (Sekaran, 2003).
- Use non-forced scales that have "no opinion" choice to measure the consumer affairs knowledge of young children, as stated in section (1) of young children's questionnaire, and to measure fathers' perception of young children's performance in marketplace activities as stated in section (7) of the fathers' questionnaire. Non-forced scale gives enough flexibility to the respondent not to select the middle or the neutral point of the scale (Hair Jr et al., 2000; Malhotra and Birks, 2007).
- The proper descriptors were used in the two questionnaires scales. That is, the adjectives or adverbs were matched with the type of raw data to be collected in each section. For example, to measure the degree of frequency, the adverbs of "always, often, sometimes, seldom, and never" were used to tap the fathers' and young children's perceptions. Agreement/disagreement of summated Likert scale, anchored by the adverbs "strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and strongly disagree" was used to tap the fathers attitudes and opinions.

- Numerical open question was used in questions 37-1 to 37-5 and 64 of young children questionnaire.
- Dichotomous questions were used to collect the demographical and behavioural data such as gender, religion, and “yes and no” responses.
- Use the multiple choice single answer question “numerical categories” relating to the family size, children’s grades and fathers’ occupation, education, and income.
- Use the ordinary words and simple terms to match the young children’s cognitive development. In the investigation of the influence of children in family decision-making, Caruana and Vassallo (2003) used the simple terms in the development of young children’s questionnaire.
- Use the multiple choice single answer question “numerical categories” relating to the family size, children grades and fathers occupation, education, and income.
- Avoid using the ambiguous words such as usually, normally, frequently, often, regularly, occasionally, and sometimes in wording the questions.
- Keep the question short enough to reduce the risk of fatigue and to reduce its influence in the respondent answers.
- Use the funnel approach for ordering questions in a questionnaire; it starts with the general question followed by progressively specific questions to prevent specific questions from biasing general questions (Chisnall, 2005).
- Questions that require some thought to answer were placed at the end of the questionnaire; for example, the first fourteen statements of young children questionnaire were used to examine the general consumer knowledge of young children relating to marketplace activities. These questions in their wording and phrasing are easy to be answered by every child. It is used to win the child’s interest in the topic.

### **7.10.2 Pre-testing and piloting test the questionnaires**

Green et al. (1988) distinguished between a pre-test and a pilot survey. Pre-testing is concerned whether or not the questionnaire has asked good questions, flowed smoothly and the questions sequences are logical. A pilot survey is concerned with the validity of the questionnaire questions. The pilot-test may be conducted through using personal

interviews, group administrations, and focus group discussions (Bourque and Fielder, 1995). A pilot study is useful if a questionnaire is a new one and not a repeat of a previous job that was conducted with members selected from the target population (McGivern 2003: 228). The pilot interviews can be classified into formal and informal approaches; while the informal approach relies on consulting friends, colleagues, experts and people of diverse opinions, the formal approach is based on a pilot study that consists of a small number of respondents selected from the target population (Green et al., 1988; Remenyi et al., 2003).

Departing from these premises, the pre-testing and pilot testing of the research questionnaires were conducted in two stages:

***(1) Informal stage (pre-testing)***

At this stage, the initial drafts of the two questionnaires in English versions were revised and modified by the research supervisors who are specialised in the area of marketing and consumer behaviour at the University of Huddersfield. Valuable comments were received from them in respect of the question structures, wording and its formats. In addition, five Jordanian research students who are undertaking Ph.D. degrees in marketing, business, economics, and accounting at Huddersfield University Business School (HUBS) revised the initial drafts of the two questionnaires in English and Arabic versions. Jordanian students were chosen for the following reasons:

- As adults consumers brought-up in Jordan society, they are familiar with the consumers' attitudes and behaviours related to shopping environment;
- Speak English and Arabic languages; and
- Display enough experiences as to how to conduct research.

The comments of Arab research students that are particularly related to the translation of the two questionnaires from English to Arabic language besides other comments were taken into account at this stage.

***(2) Formal stage (pilot study)***

At this stage, the second drafts of the two questionnaires in Arabic versions were respectively tested via group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire and

personal interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire to tap the young children's and fathers' comments on the two questionnaires.

*In relation to young children questionnaire*, two pilot group interviews were conducted at the schools of the first Directorate of Education of Amman Metropolitan / Ministry of Education during the regular classroom hours that were arranged by the schools administration. Each group interview consists of 10 participants selected from the target population in accordance with their attendance of the school classes.

However, the following procedures were employed to solicit young children's comments on the questionnaire:

- ◆ At the beginning of each interview, the researcher assured the young children that they could withdraw at any time if they felt uncomfortable during the group interview session.
- ◆ Use the debrief approach to identify the problem. This approach is based on asking the participants what kind of problems they encountered when they filled out the questionnaire.
- ◆ To explore young children's ability to complete a written survey and prior to filling out their answers, each of them was asked to read loudly *some* of the questionnaire statements. In this regard, young children's ability ranged from moderate to good in reading the questionnaire statements.
- ◆ Before filling out the questionnaire, an example of a question was written on the blackboard and explained to each group how to complete the questionnaire questions.
- ◆ To avoid the probability of guessing answers, boys and girls were asked to omit any question if they faced difficulties to answer it or where the answers took long time to think. In studying the effects of the Chinese adolescents' involvements in family purchasing activities, Cao and Price (1997) used this procedure in pre-testing the research questionnaire; they asked the respondent to feel free to omit questions.
- ◆ After having completed the questionnaire, the questionnaire questions were specifically debriefed with the participants relating to the meaning of each question. They were also asked to mention the problems that encountered them throughout reading and answering the question choices.

According to young children's comments, the results of the two pilot group interviews suggested the following points:

- Children would be more comfortable in filling out the questionnaire, if the researcher read out the questionnaire questions question by question accompanied with necessary explanations before the participants filled out their answers.
- Reduce the number of the scale categories, wherever it is possible, without altering the number of categories of major scales used in previous studies such as family communication structures.
- Rephrase and reword some questions and instructions to improve its clarity and readability.
- Rewrite some questions in simple terminologies.
- Delete five questions from the first section of the questionnaire, consumer affairs knowledge, for its difficulties; they do not fit the children's cognitive development.
- Add four questions to the section of basic information such as fathers' occupation, fathers' education, family size, and residence place that are usually filled out by their parents; most of previous research asks the children to pick-up the questionnaire with them to fill out these questions by their parents.

*In relation to fathers' questionnaire*, fifteen personal interviews face-to-face self-administered questionnaire were conducted with fathers who have at least one boy or girl of ages ranging from 8-12 years, chosen from the target population. These interviews were carried out in the homes of participants.

However, the following strategies were employed in the pilot test of fathers' questionnaires:

- ◆ At the beginning of the interview, the researcher thanked the interviewees for their agreement to conduct the interview in their homes and gave them a copy of the research objectives to enable them to evaluate the questions as well as give them a brief on the nature of the study, its aims, the questionnaire questions and its formats.
- ◆ The researcher also emphasised that the study was an academic research, aimed at exploring how young children acquired consumer shopping skills, knowledge, and attitudes as a result of father-child interactions in retailing milieu.

- ◆ In each personal interview, father received a copy of the questionnaire draft and he was asked to fill out the questionnaire questions.
- ◆ Use of the debrief approach to identify the problem.
- ◆ Fathers were asked to omit any question, which was difficult to answer or where the information was too time-consuming to obtain.
- ◆ After having completed the questionnaire, the researcher revisited the questionnaire answers with the participant.

The results of personal interviews suggested the following points:

- The questionnaire is understandable and easy to complete.
- Reduce the number of questions provided that does not deflect the section or the groups of questions.
- Reword some questions to improve its readability.
- Add two questions relating to culture dimensions and mothers responsibility.
- Divide the questionnaire sections into groups and sub-groups provided that do not affect the homogeneity of groups' items.

In summary, taking into account the feedbacks of the second pilot study, the two questionnaire designs were finalised. In addition, the two pilot studies before collecting the primary data confirmed the clarity of research issues and measurements, and confirmed the young children ability to understand the questionnaire content.

### **7.10.3 The final form of the questionnaires**

The two questionnaires questions have the following general patterns:

- The number of scale categories in young children's questionnaire was ranged from three-point scale to five-point scales because they cannot handle more than a few categories. In this respect, Abel (1996 cited by Malhotra and Birks, 2007) recommends using the three-point scale related to children's questionnaire questions because children have some difficulties to understand the four or five-point agree/disagree scale and become fatigued more quickly than adults. Dotson and Hyatt (2000: 226) noted, "When working with children, measures have to be designed so as to maintain attention and avoid confusing respondents. The need to compare directly parents and children's responses puts further limitations on the

type and the number of questions that can be asked". In addition, a simple questionnaire is recommended in the studies of parent-child interaction that is based on in a dyadic approach (Shim et al., 1995). In the investigation of the influence of children in family decision-making, Caruana and Vassallo (2003) found that a three-point scale was more appropriate to tap data from the youngest children of ages varying between three and ten years.

- The number of scale categories in fathers' questionnaire also ranged from three-point scale to seven-point scales that are usually used to measure the participants' opinion (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Hair Jr et al., 2000; Aaker et al., 2001; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Cooper and Schindler (2006: 315) indicate that a scale should be appropriate for its purpose; it relies on the complexity of the attitude object, concept, or construct. A product that requires little effort or thought to purchase can be measured with a simple scale, for example, a 3-point scale. When the product is complex such as luxury goods automobiles a scale with 5 to 11 points should be considered.

In that context, using a four and five-point summated scale in young children's questionnaire can be justified by the following points:

- To be consistent with the scale measurements and procedures that were previously employed to validate the scales of adolescents and mothers' perception of family communication structures and patterns. For example, the five-point scale was used by Moschis and his colleagues (1979 and 1984) and Carlson et al. (1990 a) to validate respectively the measurement of adolescents' and mothers' perception of family communication patterns. In addition, a number of researchers such as Moschis and Moore (1979 a), Moschis et al. (1984), Cao and Price (1997), McNeal and Ji (1999), Meyer and Anderson (2000), Hassan (2002), Chan and McNeal ( 2003, 2004 and 2006), Dotson and Hyatt (2000), Rummel et al. (2000), Hailing and Tufte (2002), Geuens et al. (2003), Chan (2005), Bakir et al. (2005), and Hsieh et al. (2006) used the 5-point scales in measuring the influence of family communication structures and patterns on children's consumer behaviour.

- Using a four-point scale with no midpoint is advisable in studying young children attitudes to prevent children opting for “don’t know” as a means of avoiding attention to the question. Children are quite comfortable with the two mid-scale choices (Rossiter, 1977: 180). Therefore, “no opinion” option sometimes distorts the measures of central tendency and variance (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).
- There is no single optimal number of categories because the number of scale categories is influenced by the data collection method, the respondents’ knowledge about the subject, the nature of the objects, and the type of analysis (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

#### **7.10.4 Questionnaire translation**

Since the two questionnaires were constructed firstly in English language and then translated into Arabic language to make it very clear to the respondents (Akroush, 2003; Aldehayyat, 2006), the logical step is to clarify the procedures that are used in the translation process. In this respect, Saunders et al. (2003) noted that the translation process can be conducted through direct translation, back translation, parallel translation or mixed techniques. In that context, the translation process of the two questionnaires was relied in two stages. In the first stage, the first draft was preliminarily checked by five Arab research students at Huddersfield University Business School (HUBS) during the pre-testing stage of the two questionnaires.

In the second stage that includes the final draft of the research questionnaires, the two versions were revised and modified by a professional service office that is licensed by the government for official translation from English to Arabic and vice-versa. To secure the appropriate translation, the two questionnaires were translated to Arabic and then the Arabic versions were translated back into English language. Only few refinements to the questionnaires were made. In this context, Cao and Price (1997) relied on a Nanjixing computer software program in translating the questionnaire content from English to Chinese language and vice-versa. Rose (1999) depends on a Japanese language instructor in translating the questionnaire content from English to Japanese language. In studying the effect of parents’ communication patterns in Chinese children of 6-14 years old in Beijing, Chan and McNeal (2003: 322) stated, “one of the authors translated the

questionnaire from English to Chinese and a research assistant then back-translated it into English in order to enhance translated equivalence”.

#### **7.10.5 Measurement considerations**

Earlier, Kinnear and Taylor (1983: 298) referred the measurement to the assignment of numbers or symbols to represent certain characteristics of objects, persons, states, or events, according to rules. That is, the scale measurements can be divided into scale validity measurement and scale reliability measurement. It is aimed at answering the following questions (Green et al., 1988: 259):

- ✓ Do the scales really measure what the research is trying to measure?
- ✓ Do respondents’ responses remain stable over time?
- ✓ If the research has a variety of scaling procedures, are respondents consistent in their scoring over those scales that purport to be measuring the same thing?

In this respect, these questions can be approached through (a) the assessment of measurement validity, which involves content validity, criterion validity or construct validity, (b) the assessment of measurement reliability, which involves test-re-test reliability, alternative-forms reliability or internal consistent reliability (Lehmann 1979; Green et al., 1988; Sekaran, 2003; Malhotra and Birkes, 2007). One or more of these approaches can be used to validate and reliable the research measurements (Hair Jr et al., 2003).

On the other hand, there is a relationship between the measurement reliability and measurement validity. If a measure is valid, a measure will be reliable. Conversely, a reliable measure may not give an indication that a measure is valid because the reliability of measurement is only contaminated by the random errors (Malhotra and Birkes, 2007) that lead to lower reliability (Green et al., 1988; Hair Jr et al., 2000). By contrast, the validity of measurement is contaminated by random and systematic errors (Malhotra and Birkes, 2007). Therefore, the reliability is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for validity (Aaker et al., 2001: 296). Also, a certain scale may possess reliability but not be valid for specific research project (Chisnall, 2005).

*In relation to the validity of research scales*, it was based on content validity and construct validity. Content validity or face validity refers to the ability of a measure to include all relevant dimensions of the construct. In order to achieve content validity, the construct should have more than one item (Green et al., 1988). It involves a review of the questionnaire content to ensure that the selected variables make logical sense in the context of the problem being studied (Litwin, 1995) that can be achieved through a group of experts who judge and comment on the suitability of the questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2000). On the other hand, construct validity refers to the ability of a measure to explain what characteristic or concept underlying the scale tends to measure (Green et al., 1988; Sekaran, 2003; Malhotra and Birkes, 2007).

However, the content validity and construct validity of the research scales were secured through conducting the following procedures:

- A careful identification of the research problem and its purposes was carried out through rigorous exploratory research as stated in sections 7.5.2.1 and 7.5.3.4.
- Use scales that are easily understood by the respondent.
- Select the research scales, where it is possible, from previous research to measure the different issues of father-child interaction in marketplace activities, in particular, those related to the influence of parents on children's consumer behaviour. These scales were tested at a different time with different populations who had the similar characteristic of research population.
- Slight modifications on these scales were made according to the results of the initial pre-test of the questionnaires to examine the suitability of the questionnaires instruments in capturing the relevant data particularly that related to the father's questionnaire. The second modifications were made according to the results of the first pilot test to eliminate or at least to minimise any potential errors or biases that could happen with the research instruments. In the measurements of the shopping skills and stores knowledge of young children, Reece and Kinnear (1986) depended on literature review and personal interviews with young children of 5-12 years old to validate the two indexes of shopping skills and store knowledge.

- The design of the self-completion questionnaire for young children is more difficult because it requires more intensive pilots' surveys than the questionnaire of adults. As was stated in chapter 8, a pilot test for 100 young children, "10% of the original sample" who are selected through a convenience sampling procedure was conducted before collecting the primary data to develop the scales of family communication structures according to the young children's perception of father communication structures.
- Factor analysis principal components method combined with varimax rotation was employed to assess the unidimensionality of research scales (before / after) collecting the primary data for young children's questionnaire scales as well as after collecting the primary data relating to fathers' questionnaire scales. In this context, all items of each scale were tested to determine whether they measure a single dimension. The results of factor loadings for each scale were presented in appendix D; the lowest loading was 0.30.

*In relation to the reliability of research scales* that refers to the consistency from one measurement to another at different time with different groups (Cronbach and Shavelson, 2004), Cronbach's alpha coefficients "the internal consistency method" that is based on the average of inter-items-correlations were employed to measure the reliability of scales. For each scale of the research questionnaires, Cronbach's alpha coefficients of reliability were over 0.60. It is the best method to measure the internal consistency of multi-item summated scales (Green et al., 1988; Litwin, 1995; Hair Jr et al., 2000; Malhotra and Birkes, 2007) and is equivalent to reliability (Cronbach and Shavelson, 2004). Theoretically, the coefficient value is varied from zero to one (Hair Jr et al., 2000) and the coefficient value of 0.60 or less is an unsatisfactory internal consistency of measurement reliability (Malhotra and Birkes, 2007) and greater than 0.50 according to Nunnally's (1978) criterion. On the other hand, Churchill Jr and Peter (1984) found that the number of items in a scale, type of a scale, and the number of scale points had a major influence on obtained reliability estimates of rating scales. In contrast, sampling characteristics and measurement development processes had little impact on alpha coefficient. It is

influenced by the random errors that lead to lower reliability (Green et al., 1988; Hair Jr et al., 2000).

### **7.11 Data collection process**

Research in hand has used two questionnaires to solicit the primary data of young children and their fathers. It has relied on the following mechanisms to collect the primary data:

- Upon the request of the Minister of Education and prior to conducting the research fieldwork, the director of research and studies at the Ministry of Education in Jordan was contacted in early 2005 to verify the ethical issues, if they existed, in the questionnaire's content. Based on the recommendation of the chief education officer, the Minister of Education conveyed his agreement to the first directorate of education of Amman metropolitan to facilitate the researcher's task. The director of education sent a written consent to the relevant schools (106).
- A head teacher of each school was contacted and nominated two staff members to coordinate with the researcher in conducting the groups' interviews. The two coordinators are specialised in childhood education. The head teachers and the coordinators displayed full cooperation in conducting the fieldwork of research.
- Two weeks prior to conducting the group interview of each school, the researcher met the two coordinators for two hours to clarify the research objectives, sampling procedures, the questionnaire formats and layout, reading the questionnaire profoundly, fixing the time and the place of interviews, and giving them written instructions about the administration of questionnaire survey. Caruana and Vassallo (2003) indicated that the researcher should administer the questionnaire to the youngest children to reduce the bias. The schoolteachers assisted Cao and Price (1997) in administering the fieldwork of research. In this respect, the roles of the coordinators were restricted to the following tasks:
  - ✓ Prepare the young children in groups for the interview and obtain the teacher's permission to allow the respondents to leave during the lessons.

- ✓ Help the researcher in providing the interviewees with some standard explanations related to the meaning of some questions to secure the understanding of all questions by the young children.
- ✓ Monitor and verify the extent to what degree the questionnaires are fully filled out by the young children.
- ✓ While they were not allowed to interpret the answers or deflect the meaning of questions, the familiarity of the coordinators in teaching young children and their experiences in delivering information assisted the young children to mirror the precise responses on all questions. Caruana and Vassallo (2003) assisted the young children through standard explanations in answering the questionnaire questions. Hailing and Tufté (2002: 61) stated, “Regardless of the type of research and the methods used, it is important to emphasise that young children need instruction and guidance when filling the questionnaires”.
- Choose the young children whose fathers gave them permission to participate in the groups interviews.
- Conduct the group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire during regular classroom hours that arranged by the coordinators. No monetary or other incentives were offered to the participants.
- The number of young children in the group interview ranged from 15 to 30 students. Groups of forty can be easily controlled (Oppenheim, 1992).
- In all the groups interviewed, the researcher welcomed the interviewees and gave them a brief on the nature of the study, its aims, the questionnaire questions and its formats. The researcher emphasised that the interviewees’ responses will be treated as confidential and any information identifying the respondent will not be disclosed. The researcher also emphasised that the study is an academic research that aims to explore how young children acquire shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes as a result of father-child interactions in grocery and food shopping activities. Despite fathers’ permission, young children were free to participate in the study or not and to withdraw from the session at any time. Every participant heard the same set of instructions.

- To remove the feelings of an examination environment, the researcher did not request the participants to write their names in the covering page of the questionnaire.
- An example of the question was written on the blackboard and explained to each group about the completion of the questionnaire. No completion of questionnaire began until each participant knew clearly the mechanism of answers.
- The researcher read out the questionnaire questions one by one with its choices and asked the children to mark the most appropriate choice that reflects their attitudes, orientations, or frequency towards each question. In studying young children's attitudes towards materialistic values, Achenreiner (1997) stated, "To help control for limited reading skills in the youngest age group, the directions and questions were read aloud as the students read along silently. Students in this age group were also required to stay on the same page until all subjects had finished the page".
- Allow the interviewees to raise questions and comment as the researcher moved through reading out the questionnaire's questions. Everyone's question or comments were handled and explained in a similar way.
- Before closing the interview, the researcher and the coordinators went in parallel through the questionnaires in the presence of respondents to ensure that there were no omissions or errors. The omissions and errors were settled immediately.
- After closing the interview, a serial number was given to each participant and fixed on the covering page of the questionnaire; the questionnaires of young children and their fathers had the same serial number to secure the dyads responses.
- At the end of each interview, the researcher thanked the respondents and the coordinators.

Drop-off and pick-up technique was used to tap fathers' responses because the response rate for mail survey studies in Jordan is fewer than 13% (Hajjat, 1998). The young children who participate in groups interviews were considered as representatives of the researcher in tapping fathers' responses. Specifically, fathers' questionnaires were picked up by the young children to deliver them to their fathers to complete the questionnaire and return it to the coordinators. Fathers were asked to fill the questionnaire items in respect of the young children who picked up the questionnaire. The questionnaires were collected

two weeks after distribution through the coordinators. This technique incorporates the advantages of both personal interviews and self-administered questionnaires. It is inexpensive and yields a higher response rate than mail questionnaires. In addition, a number of researchers such as Ward and Wackman (1974), Moschis and Mitchell (1986), Moore-Shay and Lutz (1988), Rose et al. (1999), McNeal and Ji (1999), Meyer and Anderson (2000), Dotson and Hyatt (2000), Chan and McNeal (2003, 2004, and 2006) used this technique in their studies.

### **7.12 Research ethics issues**

The research procedures relating to tap young children's responses were approved before carrying out the research fieldwork. Specifically, the Ministry of Education in Jordan was consulted on May 2003 and agreed to the implementation of the research fieldwork in its public schools. The Ethics Committee of Huddersfield University was also consulted through the HUBS Research Committee about the nature of the study and approved the proposed methods and the criteria suggested to avoid the ethical issues. In addition, fathers were officially consulted, through the schools, for the participation of their young children in the focus group discussions or in-group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire before carrying out the fieldwork of research. Despite fathers' permission, the researcher also assured both fathers and their young children that the young children are free to withdraw from the group session or group interview at any time and they are volunteered to answer the questions.

### **7.13 Data verification**

Reviewing and revising the research data help the researcher to check the inconsistencies of responses that affect the research analysis (McGivern, 2003). In this respect, the research data were thoroughly inspected for errors, omissions, and inconsistency of responses as well as to ensure that the respondents filled out the entire questionnaire questions in particular that related to father's responses. In a self-administered questionnaire or a drop-off and pick-up technique, the researcher is not present to exercise quality control over answering all the questions and meeting questions objectives (Aaker et al. 2001: 252). To this end, thirty questionnaires of fathers' sample were discarded from the analysis for being incomplete reasons. On the other hand, the incomplete

answers in young children sample is zero because the data collection method used in tapping young children's responses has sustained the researcher to conduct the quality control over young children's answers. In other words, the data collection method gave the researcher an advantage to code and categorise the data easily for analysis (Sekaran, 2003).

#### **7.14 Sample profile**

Young children and their fathers filled out 916 pairs of questionnaires out of one thousand over a period of 20 weeks. Boys and their fathers completed (434) questionnaires which represent 47.4% of the usable responses. The remaining percentage of the usable responses (52.6% = 482) represents girls and their fathers responses. Table C2-5 of appendix C shows that the west area contributes by 22% of boys and fathers' responses and 25.5% of girls and fathers responses. In contrast, the east area forms 78% of boys and their fathers' responses and 74.5% of girls and fathers responses. Table C2-6 of appendix C shows that eighty-four of young children's responses were discarded from the sample for the following reasons: Fifty-four questionnaires of fathers' responses were not returned within the allowable period of two weeks given to fathers to fill out the questionnaires. Several questions were left blank or checked with two or more answers in thirty of fathers' questionnaires. In addition, the contribution rates of young children and their fathers' responses are not significantly different among the five grades; the difference between the highest contribution rate that portrayed in grade 3 = 21.5% and the lowest contribution rate that depicted on grade 5 = 18.9% is 2.6%. The usable rate is 92%; it ranged from 87% of grade 6 to 94% of grade 5.

The research relied entirely on fathers' responses relating to the factual data despite tapping some demographic data from young children. According to the fathers' sample profile, table C2-9 of appendix C shows that the largest category of fathers' ages ranged from 35 to 44 years old representing 55% of a research sample. In contrast, the smallest category of fathers' ages was ranged from 55 to 64 years old representing 4% of a research sample. Fathers reported that fifty-eight percent of Jordanian monthly income is under 300 JD and 14.6% above 600 JD. Forty-five percent of fathers sample is well educated and 55% of fathers are employed in private sector. Sixteen percent of fathers

sample has owned private businesses and 28.2% are governmental employees. In addition, the smallest size (1-4 persons) of Jordanian family represents 41% of research sample and the largest size (six and above) represents 39% of research sample. The medium size that consists of five persons represents 20% of research sample.

### **7.15 The importance of research sample**

The large sample minimises the standard error of sample mean (Adler, 1965; Boyd Jr and Westfall, 1972; Aaker et al., 2001), and maximises the confidence and generalisability of results (Oppenheim, 1992; Tull and Hawkins, 1993; Brassington and Pettitt, 2003). In addition, the large sample reduces the risk of both “type I error ” that is referred to reject the null hypothesis, which is in fact true, and “type II error /  $\beta$  error” that occurs when the sample results lead to accept the null hypothesis which is in fact false (Malhotra and Birks, 2007: 515). The sample size should be large if a sample has many groups (Lehmann et al., 1998). The larger the variation between the groups, the larger the sample (Aaker et al., 2001) as well as the higher response rate, the lower rate of non-response bias (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). The large size of sample is useful to learn more about the effects of social structural variables on children’s consumer socialisation processes (Shim and Gehrt, 1996).

On the other hand, the size of the research sample is similar to that of previous researchers on young children’s consumer socialisation behaviour. In this regard, a number of researchers such as Churchill Jr (1999), Malhotra et al. (1996), Lehmann et al. (1998), and Malhotra and Birks (2007) noted that the sample size can be determined by the average of the sample sizes used in the similar studies. As shown in table 7.9, the average of the sample size of seven studies carried out previously in children’s consumer behaviour is 993 respondents as usable responses.

### **7.16 Data coding and entry**

The framework of coding data was determined in the early stages of the research design process. It is referred to assign a number to each possible answer to each question (Malhotra and Birkes, 2007). This issue was addressed by using SPSS software packages (version 14) in entering and analysing the research data. That is, the base system of SPSS software packages does not accept the duplication of variable names; each variable must

be unique.

Table 7.9: Comparisons between the research sample and the previous research samples

Study	Data collection method	Children*	Sample size (usable response)
Ward and Wackman (1974)	Self-administered questionnaire	Mother-young child dyads	615
Moschis and Churchill Jr (1978)	Self-administered questionnaires	Pre-adolescents	806
Atkin (1978)	Observation	parent-child dyads	516
Moschis et al. (1986)	Self-administered questionnaires	Pre-adolescents	734
Shim and Gehrt (1996)	Self-administered questionnaire	Mothers of young children	1954
Rose (1999)	Self-administered questionnaires	Mothers of young children (31-40 years old)	661
Chan and McNeal (2003)	Self-administered questionnaire	parent-young child dyads	1665
Average			993

(\* )Young children: children of ages ranged from 7-11 years old. Pre-adolescent: children of ages ranged from 12 to 15 years old.

In addition, the structure of questionnaire questions as stated in section 7.10.3 has simplified the coding and tabulation process of the two questionnaires questions. A numeric code was used in all research variables, inclusive of the demographic variables along with the column of SPSS window. After having assigned the space “categories” for each variable, the primary data of the two samples were entered into a separate SPSS window. Each case “respondent” occupies a row. The total number of rows for each sample equals (916). Moreover, cleaning data was conducted through the SPSS order called “exploring” that is used to screen data, identify the outliers, describe, check the assumption, and characterize differences among groups of cases. It also helps to determine the appropriateness of statistical techniques that could be used in data analysis.

### 7.17 Statistical methods used in data analysis

The analysis and interpretation of any data depend on the objectives of the study and the nature of data (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). In this respect, there are two main groups of inferential statistical tests, which can be used in data analysis: parametric and non-parametric tests. Non-parametric tests are used when the variables are non-metric. The normal distribution of data and the types of research scales used in tapping data that

arrayed in nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio scales determine the group of analysis techniques that should be undertaken in research analysis. In a nominal scale, the numbers are used to classify the objects under investigation. The numbers in the ordinal scale are used to identify the relative position of the objects but not the magnitude of difference between them. By contrast, the interval scale permits a comparison of the differences between the objects under investigations (Green et al., 1988; Oppenheim, 1992; Lehmann et al., 1998; Churchill Jr, 1999; Hair Jr et al., 2000; Aaker et al., 2001; Bryman and Cramer, 2001; Remenyi et al., 2003; Sekaran, 2003; Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

However, despite using itemised rating scales, the research advocates the parametric tests along with non-parametric techniques to test the hypotheses of the research model since the research data has complied with the assumptions of parametric tests; the data are normally distributed, the distance among the categories of each scale is equal, and the participants' responses are independent. In this respect, a skewness or kurtosis shape of distribution in large samples does not make significant differences in the analysis (Stevens, 1996; Tabachink and Fidell, 2001: 74-75) and a skewness value greater than one indicates that the distribution of data differs significantly from a symmetric distribution.

According to the types of scales, some writers have argued that it is only appropriate to use parametric tests when the data fulfil the following assumptions (Bryman and Cramer, 2001: 115; Field, 2006: 48-49):

- The level or scale of measurement is equal interval or ratio scaling, that is, more than ordinal.
- The data are from a normally distributed population.
- The variances should not change systematically throughout the data.

In addition, Kinnear and Taylor (1983) indicated that the majority of the researchers treat the attitudes scales, that require the respondents to state their degree of agreement or disagreement with a statement, as equal interval scales despite the equal distance between the categories is doubtful. Green et al. (1988: 246) discussed the relationship among the four types of scale, they stated, "From a purely mathematical point of view one can

obviously do arithmetic with any appropriate set of numbers-integer ranks, numbers used to label classes, and so on". In a similar vein, Bryman and Cramer (2001: 59) stated, "Certainly, there seems to be a trend in the direction of this more liberal treatment of multiple-item scales as having the qualities of interval variables". The semantic differential and rating numerical scales, strictly speaking, are not interval scales but they are often treated as such in data analysis (Sekaran, 2003: 202; Remenyi et al., 2003: 153-154). Hair Jr et al. (2003: 157) stated, "It has become customary in business research, however, to treat the scale as if it were interval. Empirical evidence that people treat the intervals between points on such scales as being equal in magnitude provides justification for treating them as measures on interval scale". In marketing research, attitudinal data obtained from rating scales are often treated as interval data (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). However, the non-parametric tests that depicted on cross-tabulation analysis associated with Pearson chi-square test and the parametric tests represented by correlation analysis, principal component factor Analysis (varimax rotation), t tests, one-way ANOVA and one-way MANOVA analyses, and multiple regression analysis were used to test the research hypotheses. The concept and assumptions of these techniques are presented in appendix E.

### **7.18 Transformation data**

Before conducting regression and MANOVA analyses, the scales were transformed to Z scores through using "standardisation" procedures since some variables had been measured on different scales. Norman and Streiner (1999: 14), Field (2006), Malhotra and Birks (2007: 491) noted, if the research data consist of different measurement scales, the standardisation procedure that is referred to Z scores of variables (mean = 0.00 at standard deviation = 1) can be applied on research data because a Z-score transformation places variables on a common scale for easier visual comparison. Mathematically, standardisation is conducted by subtracting the mean of the variable from each score and dividing it by the standard deviation. The distribution of Z scores has the same shape as that of the original data; therefore, calculating Z scores is not used to resolve the normality distribution of data. In addition, the correlation coefficient between two

variables is not influenced by the number of scale categories (Malhotra and Briks, 2007: 575).

### **7.19 Summary**

This chapter has explained and justified the different aspects of research methodology. A combination of interpretivistic and positivistic paradigms were employed to address the research objectives. While the interpretivistic approach was used to diagnose the research problem and achieve additional insights before confirming research findings, the positivistic approach was used to test the research hypotheses that developed via literature review and the exploratory research as well to predict the association between the research variables. The research survey design relied on a cross-sectional design that involves collecting the primary data from two independent samples via quantitative interviewing techniques. Group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire and drop-off self-administered questionnaire were respectively employed to tap the dyadic responses of young children and their fathers. Proportionate stratified random sampling technique according to the age of young children was employed to select the two research samples. Father-child dyads, rather than an individual, served as the unit of analysis; two questionnaires were developed, one for a child and another for his/her father. The two questionnaires were quite similar; most items were simply reworded to match the respondents' cognitive development. The process that used to develop the research questionnaires and measurement considerations was also described. The chapter concluded with a description of data collection process, the issues of methodological ethics, translation procedures and a justification of the statistical tools that will be used to analyse the research data. In the next chapters, purification analysis of family communication patterns, descriptive analysis, testing research hypotheses, discussion, conclusion, managerial implications, limitations and future research will be presented.

## **Chapter 8**

### **Purification the Measurements of Fathers' Communication Structures**

#### **8.1 Introduction**

This chapter is aimed at obtaining the first objective of research relating to purify and validate the scales of family communication structures according to young children's perception of father communication structures. Relying on previous research, the two dimensions of family communication patterns are not associated with any types of product-related consumption; each dimension mirrors different frequency, type and quality of communications that take place among family members relating to consumption (Moore and Moschis, 1981).

#### **8.2 Justifications of purification of family communication structures**

Great attention was paid to the measurements of young children's perception of fathers' communication structure and patterns. In this context, previous research indicated that the effect of culture environment should be taken into consideration in the application of measurements designed in western countries (Cao and Price, 1997; Mukherji, 2005). In addition, the applications of family communication patterns (FCP) in consumer socialisation behaviour were conceptualised, measured and validated by Moschis and his colleagues (1979 a and 1984) and revised by (Carlson et al., 1990 a). While the former authors relied on adolescents' perspectives to develop these scales, Carlson et al. (1990 a) depended on mothers' responses to assess the influence of family communication structures and patterns on children's consumer behaviour. On the other hand, the current research relies on young children's perspectives to measure the effect of fathers' communication patterns on young children's consumer behaviour. Palan (1998) indicated that previous research did not distinguish between mothers and fathers' communication structures.

Departing from these premises, the research revised and measured the validity and the reliability of these scales before and after collecting the primary data to measure the influence of fathers' communication structures and patterns in young children consumer roles. In this context, Bakir et al. (2005) depended on Moschis et al.'s (1984) scales to

measure young children perception of parents' communication structures. They did not take into consideration that these scales were constructed upon adolescents' viewpoints and not young children's perspectives. They did not recognise that there are differences in children's perception of (FCP) as age develops.

### **8.3 The process of purification and evaluation of fathers' communication structures**

As shown in figure 8.1, the two scales of fathers' communication patterns were developed and evaluated through four stages. Stage 1 and 2 were intensively discussed in chapters 7 (see sections 7.5.2.1, 7.5.3.4, and 7.10.2). Two items were added to the initial pool of statements that entirely derived from previous studies (Moschis and Moore, 1979 a and 1984; Carlson et al., 1990 a). The two items are related to culture differences:

*“Your father says that buying good or bad things is due to luck” (socio) and “Your father says that buying good or bad things does not depend on luck” (concept).*

In the second stage that represents pre-testing the questionnaire design, no omissions were made on the two scales' statements (17). In the third stage and prior to collecting the primary data, a convenience sample of 100 young children (10% of the original sample) of second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grades was chosen from five schools, in coordination with the schools' administration, to purify and test the dimensionality, reliability, and validity of family communication structures. Slightly more than half of the respondents are boys and the remaining are girls. These differences were not statistically significant.

To collect the pilot data, five-group interviews face-to-face self-administered questionnaire were conducted at the schools of the first directorate of education of Amman metropolitan / Ministry of Education during the regular classroom hours. Approximately, each group consisted of 15-25 participants. To measure fathers' communication structure and patterns, young children were asked to indicate on (17) statements how often (1 = very seldom, 2 = seldom, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often) their fathers ask them to comply with some specific rules and talk with them about the *general consumption issues* in their overt communication. In collecting the pilot data, it followed the same procedures of data collection process that is illustrated in section 7.11 of chapter 7.

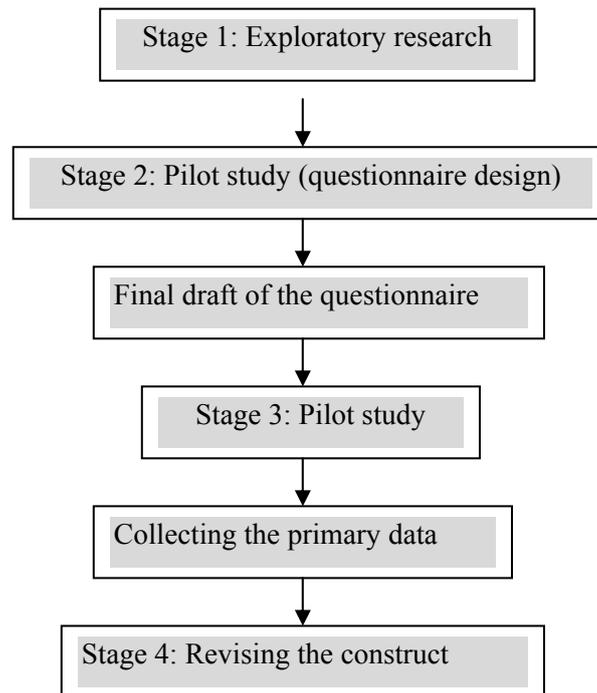


Figure 8.1: The steps of purifying and evaluating the constructs of fathers' communication structures

### 8.3.1 Analysis procedures of the pilot study (third stage)

After having edited, coded, and entered the data in the computer, the collected data were analysed by using a Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Versions 14) for windows. The procedures of data analysis comprised weighting data, principal component factor analysis, the reliability analysis, and constructs validity.

#### 8.3.1.1 Weighting data

Earlier, Boyd Jr and Westfall (1972) noted that it is necessary to weight the estimated stratum means in order to provide an estimate of the overall universe. The data were weighted by the age of young children. As shown in table 8.1, there is a difference between young children's contribution in the pilot sample resultant to sampling procedures, for example, the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade of young children of 9 years old represents 10% of the total sample but they actually contribute to 19.50% of the target population. To remove the sampling bias and to rectify the difference between the contribution by ages in the sample and to make the sample data more representative in terms of young children's ages, the sample data was weighted by dividing the population percentage by the

corresponding sample percentage and multiplying the sample data by the weight factor of each age.

Table 8.1: The distribution of pilot sample

Grade	No. of young children	Sample %	Population%	Weight factor
2nd grade	23	23.00	19.30	0.84
3rd grade	10	10.00	19.50	1.95
4rth grade	23	23.00	19.70	0.86
5th grade	24	24.00	20.70	0.86
6th grade	20	20.00	20.80	1.04
Total	100	100.00	100.00	-

That is, age groups under-represented in the sample received higher weight, whereas over-represented age groups received lower weight. In this context, Malhotra and Birkes (2007) noted that the weighting procedures used in research should be documented and made a part of the study.

### 8.3.1.2 Internal validity

Factor analysis principal components extraction procedure with varimax rotation was employed to investigate the dimensionality of the two scales of father-child communication structures. Factor analysis technique is used to assess the ability of a set of variables in measuring one concept and reducing the number of scale variables. Varimax rotation is a type of orthogonal rotation used to simplify and interpret factors by maximising the variance of the factors' loadings (Bryman and Cramer, 2005).

The procedures that were used by Moschis and his colleagues (1979 a and 1984) were followed in the pilot data analysis. Moschis et al. (1984: 315) used factor analysis principal component method to test the internal validity. As shown in table 8.2 of appendix (B), the initial solution of factor analysis extracts six factors that explain 59.35% of the total variances. The criterion of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) = 0.60 and Chi-square value of Bartlett's test of sphericity = 272.00 is significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ . Therefore, the data are appropriate to be analysed through factor analysis.

To determine the critical factors of father-child communication structures, the following

criteria were used to estimate the number of factors that should be kept:

- Ignore the eigenvalue less than one unit (Norman and Streiner, 1999; Pallant, 2005; Field, 2006). The eigenvalue is referred to the amount of variance in the original variables associated with a factor.
- Use a scree plot criteria proposed by (Cattell, 1966) to identify the discontinuity of factors. Scree is “a geological term that refers to the rubble that accumulates at the base of cliff; here the cliff is the steep part of the graph, and the rubble factors are those that appear after the curve flatten out”. It is used to determine the optimal number of factors or components to retain in the solution (Norman and Streiner 1999: 145; Bryman and Cramer, 2005). Cattell recommends retaining all factors above the elbow, or break in the plot as these factors contribute the most to the explanation of the variance in the data set (Pallant, 2005: 175).
- Use the factor loadings matrix in the selection of the construct’s variables. Factor loadings are considered moderately high if they are greater than or equal to 0.30 (Kline, 1997). Therefore, other loadings can be safely excluded because they did not imply that the variables are critical (Antony et al., 2002).
- Depend on Alphas coefficients and inter-item correlations in retaining factors.

Antony et al. (2002) used these criteria to identify the critical success factors of TQM implementation in Hong Kong industries.

In the next step, factor analysis of principal components method was used at the cut-off margin equalling 40% to determine the critical factors that underlie the communication dimensions as well as to reach a meaningful and a manageable set of variables through employing varimax rotation method (Aaker et al., 2001). As shown in table 8.4 of appendix (B), the correlation coefficients between the variables from 9 to 17 and the unrotated factors (1) were ranged from 0.41 to 0.60 and the second factor loadings were ranged from 0.49 to 0.64 for the variables 1 to 6. One variable was removed from the analysis. In addition, figure 8.2 of appendix (B) shows that there is a steep slope “discontinuity” after factor (2) and Cronbach alpha coefficients of factors 3, 4, 5, and 6 were less than 0.50. That is, the variables of factors one and two represent the two hypothesized dimensions of father-child communication structures. While the first factor

represents the concept orientations, the second factor represents the socio orientations. These factors confirm the multidimensionality of father-child communication structures and simultaneously confirm the unidimensionality of each construct. While the first dimension, socio-oriented communication structure, measured the degree to which parents request their children to conform to parental standards of consumption, the second dimension, concept-orientation, measured the extent to which parents encourage their children to develop their own consumption preferences. Finally, the insignificant correlation coefficient between the two factors ( $r = .048$ ) suggests that the two factors measure two different dimensions.

### 8.3.1.3 Fathers' communication patterns

According to Moschis and Moore (1979 a), Moore and Moschis (1981), Moschis et al. (1984) Carlson et al.'s (1990 a) procedures, "high" and "low" frequency groups were constructed by splitting the raw scores of socio and concept dimensions at the median to place fathers into one of the four cells of the communication patterns as shown in figure 8.3. Specifically, the two dimensions were summed (concept mean = 28.99 and std. dev. 6.731.; socio mean 22.25 and std. dev. 5.81), divided at the medians (concept = 29 and socio-orientation= 22) and combined to yield a four-fold typologies of family communication patterns (Laissez-faire = 26, Protective = 21, Pluralistic = 31, and Consensual = 22).

Figure 8.3: Family communication patterns

Socio Concept	Low orientation	High orientation
Low orientation	<p><i>Laissez-faire</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- little communication with children</li> <li>- little parental impact on consumption</li> </ul>	<p><i>Protective</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- stress vertical relationships</li> <li>- obedience and social harmony</li> <li>-children's exposure to outside information is limited</li> </ul>
High orientation	<p><i>Pluralistic</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- stress horizontal relationships</li> <li>- issue-oriented communication</li> <li>- children are encouraged to explore ideas and express opinions</li> </ul>	<p><i>Consensual</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- maintain control over children's behaviour</li> <li>- stress both issue-oriented communication and the consideration of others</li> </ul>

Source: Adapted from Rose et al. (1998: 74)

### 8.3.1.4 Internal reliability

The internal consistency method “Cronbach’s Alpha” was used to measure the two scales reliability. Cronbach Alpha for the scale of socio communication structure is 0.61 (7 items) and 0.67 for concept communication structure (9 items) above the minimum level of 0.50 recommended by (Nunnally, 1978). Bagozzi and Yi (1988) suggest that the composite reliability should be greater than or equal to 0.60.

Table: 8.5: The inter-item reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) of previous research

Source	Sample count and type	Socio scale	Concept scale
Moschis and Moore (1979 a) original scales	United States; 301 adolescents were not randomly selected, number of schools (NA)*	0.67	0.71
Moschis et al. (1984) revised the original scales	United States; 734 adolescents were not randomly selected, based on 12 schools	0.54	0.71
Carlson et al. (1990 a) original scales	United States; 499 mothers were not randomly selected, based on 3 schools	0.51	0.72
Carlson et al. (1990 b)	499 mothers of children in three elementary schools, not randomly selected	0.56	0.71
Rose et al. (1998) two samples	United States; 418 mothers of young children ages 3-8 years old not randomly selected	0.70	0.77
	Japan; 243 mothers of young children ages 3-8 years old not randomly selected	0.68	0.76
Chan and McNeal (2003)	China; 1665 parents of children ages 6-14 years old not randomly selected	0.71	0.66
Chan and McNeal (2006)	China; 1751 parents of children ages 6-14 years old randomly selected	0.71	0.66
Hsieh et al. (2006)	Taiwan; 550 of young children ages 10-12 not randomly selected from ten elementary schools		
	- Mothers	0.78	0.74
	- Fathers	0.77	0.71

\*The authors did not identify the number of schools.

In addition, Cronbach’s Alpha for socio dimension as shown in table 8.5 is greater than those coefficients reported in previous studies. Conversely, Cronbach’s Alpha for concept scale is relatively smaller than previous studies.

### 8.3.1.5 The external validity

Even for applied research, internal validity is a precondition for external validity. Therefore, it is a mistake to follow procedures meant to enhance external validity that compromises internal validity (Cook and Campbell, 1979: 81-85). Nevertheless, Moschis and his colleagues (1979 a and 1984) employed the media use habit variables, namely, the amount of viewing TV, frequency of viewing TV for entertainment and news, and frequency of reading news that have used the traditional family communication measures to assess the external validity.

The amount of TV viewing was measured by the number of hours watching TV prior to the day of administering the groups' interviews. The response categories for other media variables were measured on a five-point scale anchored by very seldom = 1 to very often = 5. To be consistent with Moschis and his colleagues' (1979 a and 1984) procedures, father-child communication structures and patterns were correlated with media use variables. As shown in table 8.6, there is a significant relationship between father-child communication structure, patterns, and media use variables. Specifically, there is a negative relationship between young children of socio fathers orientations and frequency of reading news ( $r = -0.20$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). On the other hand, there is a positive relationship between young children of concept fathers' orientations and frequency of viewing TV news ( $r = .211$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), and frequency of reading newspapers ( $r = 0.41$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) as well as negative relationship with frequency of viewing TV for entertainment ( $r = -0.20$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

Table 8.6: Pearson product moment correlation coefficients between father-child communication structures and patterns and media use

Frequency Construct	Amount of TV viewing	Frequency of viewing TV for entertainment	Frequency of viewing TV news	Frequency of reading news
Socio orientation	-.021	-.049	-.109	-.205(*)
Concept orientation	-.092	-.205(*)	.211(*)	.413(**)
Laissez-faire	-.070	0.010	-0.102	-0.109
Protective	.141	-0.036	-0.075	-0.232(*)
Pluralistic	.057	0.100	0.229(*)	0.285(**)
Consensual	-.125	-0.084	-0.064	0.038

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

In addition, the results showed that there is a significant relationship between the young children of pluralistic fathers' communication pattern and frequency of viewing TV news ( $r = 0.23$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and frequency of reading news ( $r = 0.29$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). There is a negative relationship between the young children of protective fathers' communication pattern and frequency of reading newspapers ( $r = - 0.23$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). The two results are consistent with Moschis and Moore's (1979 a) findings. There were no differences between fathers' communication patterns and the amount of children's TV viewing. This result is consistent with Carlson et al.'s (1990 a) findings and contradicted with Moore and Moschis' (1981) results. Young children of laissez-faire fathers' communication pattern are the lowest on both communication orientations and media use variables because very little parent-child communication occurs in laissez-faire families (Moore and Moschis, 1981). These results support the external validity of family communication structures and patterns that based on young children's perspectives of fathers' communication structures.

### **8.3.2 Analytical procedures of stage four**

At this stage, the primary data collected from the original sample was employed to reduce the redundant variables, if they existed, and to maximise the reliability and validity of the two constructs through identifying the successful critical variables. It was used to achieve the generalisability of scales, given that the sample size is large and the respondents were randomly selected through proportion stratification sampling procedures. Factor analysis of principal components extraction procedures with varimax rotation was employed to determine the critical variables and factors.

On that context, the rational step is to follow the same procedures and analysis techniques that were employed in the pilot study and previous research. As shown in table 8.7 of appendix (B), the initial Eigenvalues of factor analysis suggested that there were four factors explaining 47% of the total variances. These solutions support the multi-dimensionality of fathers' communication structures. The criterion of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) greater than 0.60 (0.776) and Chi-square value of Bartlett's test of sphericity = 2391.89 is significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ . Therefore, the data are appropriate to be analysed through factor analysis.

According to figure 8.4 of appendix B, the discontinuity “steep slope” in the scree plot after the second factor supports the unidimensionality of each measurement. To delineate precisely the boundaries of each dimension, the cut-off margin 0.40 and 0.50 were respectively used to determine the critical variables of each dimension. As shown in tables 8.8, 9, and 10 of appendix B, there were no changes in the two rotated factors loadings. At the cut-off margin 0.40, the correlation coefficients between fathers communication variables and the first two factors are higher than 0.40. While the correlation coefficients between the first seven variables and the first unrotated factor “the socio dimension” ranged from 0.44 to 0.62, the correlation coefficients between the variables no. 11 to 16 and the second unrotated factor loadings “the concept dimension” were ranged from 0.45 to 0.54. In addition, while alpha coefficient of factor 3 = -2.6, factor 4 consists of one item. The association between the two dimensions is negatively correlated ( $r = -0.12$ ,  $P = 0.00$  at the significance level of  $P < 0.01$ ). This result confirms that the two scales of fathers’ communication structures measure two different constructs. As shown in tables 8.10 of appendix B, the matrix of rotated factors loadings suggests deleting two variables (5 and 8) from the socio dimension to be 6 items instead of 8 items and subtract four variables (9, 10, 12, and 17) from the concept dimension to be in total 5 items instead of 9 items. The final versions of the two dimensions are presented in table 8.11 of appendix B.

### **8.3.2.1 Fathers’ communication patterns**

Following the same procedures used in the pilot study relating to the family communication patterns, median splits on the socio and concept orientations raw scores were used to produce the four typologies of fathers’ communication patterns (McLeod and Chaffee, 1972; McLeod and O’Keefe, 1972). While the raw score of median (16.00) divided the concept orientation into “High” and “Low” groups, the total raw scores of median (18.00) divide the socio dimension into “High” and “Low” groups. However, table 8.12 shows that the pluralistic fathers represent the highest ratio 30.5% compared to other patterns of fathers communication. The other features of fathers’ communication patterns will be discussed in depth in the section of descriptive analysis and testing hypotheses.

Table 8.12: The sample distribution according to of fathers' communication patterns

Communication pattern	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Laissez-faire fathers	188	20.5	20.5
Protective fathers	236	25.8	46.3
Pluralistic fathers	279	30.5	76.7
Consensual fathers	213	23.3	100.0
Total	916	100.0	-

### 8.3.2.2 The internal reliability

The reliability coefficient, Cronbach's Alpha, for the scale of socio-oriented communication structure is 0.704 (six items) and 0.68 for concept-oriented communication structure (five items) above the minimum level of 0.50 recommended by (Nunnally, 1978; Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). The two reliability coefficients are fully consistent with previous studies, as was shown in table 8.5, in particular, those related to Moschis and Moore's (1979 a) results. On the other hand, there is a difference in the reliability coefficient between the pilot study and the final research sample relating to socio-oriented scale; Cronbach's Alpha was improved by 0.10 compared to the reliability coefficient of the pilot study. The concept construct of the final research sample has the same reliability coefficient of the pilot study.

### 8.3.2.3 The external validity

The external validity was also tested after collecting the primary data through correlating father-child communication structures and patterns with the media use habits variables. As shown in table 8.13, the results confirmed the external validity of the two constructs, which are consistent with the pilot study findings. That is, there is a significant relationship at the level of  $p = 0.00$  between the concept orientation of father-child communication structure and the frequency of viewing TV for news and reading newspapers as well as negative relationship with viewing TV for entertainment. In contrast, the socio orientation of father-child communication structure was negatively associated with the frequency of viewing TV for news and reading newspapers and positively associated with viewing TV for entertainment at the significant level of  $P = 0.00$ .

Table 8.13: Correlation between young children’s media use habits and fathers’ communication structure and patterns

Construct \ Frequencies	Amount of TV viewing	Frequency of viewing TV entertainment	Frequency of viewing TV news	Frequency of reading news
Socio	-.012	.224(**)	-.084(**)	-.174(**)
Concept	.013	-.134(**)	.233(**)	.281(**)
Laissez-faire	.014	-.013	-.118(**)	-.081(**)
Protective	-.017	.125(**)	-.133(**)	-.207(**)
Pluralistic	.016	-.226(**)	.159(**)	.232(**)
Consensual	-.014	.142(**)	.070(**)	.027

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

In addition, one-way ANOVA analysis was also employed as another indicator of external validity through comparing the means of media use habits as dependent variables across the independent variable of fathers’ communication patterns.

As shown in ANOVA table 8.14, the results support the correlation results and confirm the effect of fathers’ different communication patterns on young children’s media use habits. That is, F values are significant at the level of  $P < .05$  ( $P = 0.0$ ) for frequency of viewing TV for entertainment, frequency of viewing TV news, and frequency of reading newspapers. In contrast F value = 0.183 related to the amount of watching TV is not significant at the level of  $P < .05$  ( $P = 0.91$ ).

Table 8.14: ANOVA test of media use habit (Tests of between-subjects effects)

Media use habits	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The amount watching TV yesterday	.802	3	.267	.183	.908
Frequency of Viewing TV for entertainment	30.547	3	10.182	12.537	.000
Frequency of Viewing TV news	46.480	3	15.493	12.082	.000
Frequency of Reading newspapers	70.509	3	23.503	18.640	.000

#### 8.4 Discussion

Based on young children’s perspectives, the purification and the evaluation process of family communication structures and patterns provide evidence to the generalisability of the two scales. In this regard, the two constructs were theoretically depending on the family communication theory, namely, the framework of family communication orientations and patterns in political socialisation (McLeod and Chaffee, 1972; McLeod

and O'Keefe, 1972) that relied on Newcomb's (1953) general model of affective communication. This framework had been adapted to consumer socialisation behaviour by a number of researchers in marketing such as Moschis and his colleagues (1979 a, 1981, 1984, and 1986) and Carlson et al. (1990 a). In addition, the pilot study that was preceded by an initial pre-test and pilot testing of young children's questionnaire has confirmed the validity and reliability of the two constructs. The primary data results have also supported the validity and reliability of the revised items. The high internal consistency among general and specific items further suggests that the general family communication structures are specifically related to consumption matters. Through using factor analysis technique, the two scale items of Moschis and his colleagues (1979 a) were reduced from (15) to (11) statements that equal the number of items modified by Carlson et al. (1990 a). The lowest (0.53) and the highest (0.68) rotated factor loadings of the two scales associated with negative correlation between them ( $r = -.12$ ,  $n = 916$ ) provide an evidence that the two scales measured two different dimensions and satisfies the criteria set forth by (Carmines and Zeller, 1979) for accepting that the constructs are unidimensional.

In addition, the consistency between the pilot study, the original study, and previous research results provides another indication of the validity and reliability of the two scales. In this regard, the correlation and ANOVA analyses showed that young children of pluralistic fathers pay a considerable amount of time in watching TV news and reading newspapers. They do not spend much time in watching TV for entertainment. By contrast, young children of protective fathers spend much time in watching the TV for entertainment. They do not spend time to watch TV news or to read newspapers. There is a significant relationship between young children of consensual fathers and viewing TV for entertainment. They spend time in viewing TV news but they do not spend much time in reading newspapers. Young children of laissez-faire fathers' communication pattern are not interested in watching TV for news, in reading newspapers, or watching TV for entertainment; there is a negative relationship between young children of laissez-faire fathers and the media use habits. Moreover, there were no differences between family communication patterns across the amount of watching TV. This result is consistent with

Carlson et al.'s (1990 a) finding and contradicted with Moschis and Moore (1979 a), Moore and Moschis' (1981) results. The remaining results are consistent with Moschis and Moore (1979 a) Moore and Moschis' (1981) findings. Specifically, they found that laissez-faire group is low on all media use variables and there is a positive relationship between adolescents of pluralistic parents' communication patterns and watching TV for news, reading newspapers and watching TV for entertainment, which is negatively associated.

On the other hand, there was a difference in the reliability coefficient between the pilot study and the final sample results relating to the socio-oriented scale. The difference = 0.10 can be attributed to the sampling random error. Specifically, while the participants of the pilot survey were chosen through a convenience sample, the primary data collection was based on stratified random sampling procedures. That is, the final sample results are more accurate than the pilot study for its being based on a large sample and chosen randomly.

In summary, the process of purification stages met the criteria that were already suggested by a number of researchers. For example, the process of modification should reduce the number of scale items, collect more data from a different sample, and assess the scale reliability, validity, and generalisability (Malhotra and Birkes, 2007). Collect data from a large pretest sample of respondents (McGivern, 2003) and use the quantitative analysis such as correlations, factor analysis, cluster analysis, discriminant analysis to purify the scale (Aaker et al., 2001; Malhotra and Birkes, 2007).

## **Chapter 9**

### **Analysis and Discussion**

#### **9.1 Introduction**

After having achieved the first objective of research relating to purification and evaluation of fathers' communication structures, this chapter is aimed at obtaining the remaining objectives of the research. It consists of three sections. The first section demonstrates the characteristics of young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes as a result of father-child interaction in retailing milieu and fathers' orientations and attitudes towards developing the consumer role of their young children. While the second section tests the research hypotheses, the third section is designed to discuss the research findings.

#### **9.2 Descriptive analysis of the research findings**

In social and business researches, data analysis begins by obtaining the frequency distribution and descriptive statistics for questions or statements asked in the survey. Univariate analysis that refers to the analysis of one variable at a time was used to describe the characteristics of father-child dyadic responses. Specifically, it is entirely based on the frequency distributions and percentages associated with the measures of location that arrayed in descending means and medians. Some of the research variables related to fathers-young children dyadic responses were factored by principal component analysis with varimax rotation to describe the dimensionality of these variables. These factors will also be utilised in the subsequent analysis to test the research hypothesis and to avoid the undesirable effects of collinearity or multicollinearity on the Regression and MANOVA analyses.

##### **9.2.1 Father-child communication structures and patterns**

To explore the traits of Jordanian fathers communication structures and patterns, young children (N = 916) were asked to indicate how often (1 = very seldom, 2 = seldom, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often) their fathers ask them to comply with some specific rules and talk to them about the general consumption issues in their overt interaction.

As shown in table 9.2.1, the descending means values of children's perception of fathers' communication structures were ranged from 3.49 to 2.92 and the highest means values were associated with fathers' concept orientation. To that extent, 52.5% of young children who scored often or very often reported that their fathers have frequently asked them about their preferences before buying things to them whereas 38.5% of young children indicate that their fathers often talk with them about the consumption issues.

In addition, fathers ask their young children's opinion in buying certain things for themselves: 33% of young children scored the choice of often or very often; 38.4% and 34.7% of young children respectively scored often or very often relating to fathers' permissions to decide their purchases and to buy certain products for the family use. 38.4% of young children indicated that their fathers are frequently talking with them about the places of buying products.

In contrast, Jordanian fathers of socio-orientation avoid the questions of their young children relating to consumption; 44.7% of young children scored often or very often. Fathers decide what things their young children should or should not buy and complain when their young children buy something for themselves they do not like it (mean value = 3.04). Fathers keep in their mind that their young children are not able to buy things; therefore, they do not request them to buy things for the family use (mean value = 3.01). Finally, Jordanian fathers of socio-oriented communication structure rarely said to their children that they know what the best things to buy for them and their children should not argue with them (mean value = 2.96); this trait may reflect the low socio orientation since the mean value is less than the median.

In general, the overall mean values of concept orientation items = 3.15 is higher than the mean values of socio-orientation items = 3.02. In this respect, 40% of young children scored often or very often relating to the concept items and 34% of young children scored below the median (3.00) of socio orientation items. These percentages give preliminary indications that Jordanian fathers adopt the concept-oriented communication structure more than the socio-oriented communication structure relating to general consumption issues. That is, Jordanian fathers may play pivotal roles in developing the young

children’s consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes as a result of adopting the concept orientation.

Table 9.2.1: The descending means of fathers communication structures

Father-child communication structures	Mean	Standard Deviation	% Rating (1 & 2)	% Rating (3)	% Rating (4 & 5)
q26: Ask young children’s preferences **	3.49	1.345	23.8	23.7	52.5
q24: Talk about buying things. **	3.18	1.262	27.1	34.4	38.5
q19: Avoid young children’s questions*	3.11	1.434	34.3	21.0	44.7
q28: Ask young children’s help **	3.10	1.303	28.7	32.9	38.4
q14: Determination of buying things *	3.08	1.242	27.6	37.7	34.7
q29: Talk about places of buying products **	3.07	1.391	32.1	29.5	38.4
q17: Fathers annoying *	3.04	1.299	34.2	30.2	35.6
q16: Distrust of young children’s ability*	3.01	1.370	35.9	25.1	39.0
q15: Prohibit buying certain things *	2.99	1.333	36.0	26.9	37.1
q20: Distrust of young children’s cognition*	2.96	1.419	36.0	28.5	35.5
q27: The importance of children’s opinion **	2.92	1.384	38.5	28.5	33.0
Socio communication structure (6 items)	3.03	-	34.01	28.23	37.76
Concept communication structure (5 items)	3.15	-	30.04	29.80	40.16

\*Socio-oriented communication

\*\*Concept-oriented communication

### 9.2.2 Consumer affairs knowledge

This section investigates the young children’s knowledge held with respect to several marketplace terminologies and activities such as finance, stores, product quality and brands, and sale prices (Moschis and Moore, 1979 a; Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis et al., 1984). In this regard, young children were asked to respond to seventeen “True-False-I do not know” statements. Correct responses were summated to form a 0-to-17 point’s accuracy index. To avoid any response bias, Moschis and his colleagues’ procedures were followed; eleven statements required “True” answers to be correct while the remaining statements required “false” answers to be correct. As shown in table 9.2.2, young children scored the highest points on the products’ knowledge and knowledge on sale prices (mean value =.83). Eighty-three percent of young children are aware that the quality of product is associated with the product’s ingredients. In contrast, 60.8% of young children considered the colour and the appearance of products as part of products’ ingredients.

Table 9.2.2: The components of consumer affairs knowledge

Consumer affairs knowledge	Std. Deviation	Mean	% (0.0)	% (1)
Product knowledge (q 9/1)	.376	.8297	17.0	83.0
Finance and price knowledge (q 10/1)	.376	.8297	17.0	83.0
Consumer legislation Knowledge (q 6)	.432	.7511	24.9	75.1
Stores knowledge (q 1)	.444	.7303	27.0	73.0
Consumer legislation Knowledge (q 13)	.454	.7096	29.0	71.0
Finance and price knowledge (q 5)	.455	.7074	29.3	70.7
Consumer legislation Knowledge (q 8)	.456	.7052	29.5	70.5
Finance and price knowledge (q 4)	.462	.6900	31.0	69.0
Product knowledge (q 9/4)	.464	.6856	31.4	68.6
Product knowledge (q 9/5)	.476	.6528	34.7	65.3
Finance and price knowledge (q 11)	.476	.6517	34.8	65.2
Stores knowledge (q 2)	.477	.6507	34.9	65.1
Product knowledge (q 3)	.488	.6081	39.2	60.8
Product knowledge (q 9/3)	.497	.5491	45.1	54.9
Product knowledge (q 9/2)	.500	.5033	49.7	50.3
Finance and price knowledge (q 10/2)	.499	.4683	53.2	46.8
Product knowledge (q 12)	.492	.4127	58.7	41.3

In addition, 68.6% of young children referred the quality of a product to its durability and longevity without damages. This result is consistent with Meyer and Anderson's (2000) findings who found that the majority of children from age 8 to 12 years surveyed, have defined quality qualitatively, namely durability and longevity. Sixty-five percent (q 9/5) of young children indicated that the quality of products depends on the nature of the product that differed across products. Moreover, they relate the quality of product to its price (55%) and to product' size (50.3%). In addition, they scored the lowest point in products knowledge; (41.3%) of young children related the brand name of goods and products to a specific name of product.

In relation to finance and price knowledge, 83% of young children reported that the sale prices are concurrent with a certain period of price reduction. They linked the sale prices with gifts given to the buyers when they buy something (46.8%). They also related the price of product to the brand name of product (65.2%) as well as realised the concept of money-exchange in their purchases (70.7%) and are aware that a Jordanian Dinar equals one hundred fils.

According to consumer legislation knowledge, 75.1% of young children recognise that bargaining the price with salespeople is the buyers' right in marketplace practices. In general, they display a weak knowledge. Specifically, while (71%) of young children reported that the government do not impose taxes on private stores, (70.5%) of respondents indicate that the government owns the private stores.

On the other hand, they have a good knowledge about the stores; (73%) of young children referred the Mall to different departments located in one place that sell various goods, services and products and simultaneously referred the specialised stores to the stores that sell one product or similar products such as fish stores (65.1%). This trend of knowledge may account for shopping independently for own use or for their family use and co-shopping with their parents.

In addition, the similar items were summated to differentiate between these groups. As shown in table 9.2.3, approximately 50% of young children's responses exceed the mean value of the general consumer affairs knowledge of 17 items. However, young children display well-established knowledge relating to product, finance and price knowledge, and price-quality relationship knowledge; they almost scored the similar points, namely 39% scored over the mean values. The lowest performance is associated with the sales price knowledge and store knowledge; 29% of young children in average scored over the mean values. The worst scores of young children were associated with product's brand knowledge; 23.5% of young children scored zero points and 72.02 % scored less than the mean value.

Table 9.2.3: Consumer affairs knowledge classified into groups of knowledge

Consumer affairs knowledge	Std. Deviation	Mean	% 0.0*	% ≤ Mean	% > Mean
General consumer knowledge	2.785	11.13	0.1	51.10	48.90
Product knowledge	1.414	4.24	0.4	60.06	39.04
Finance and price knowledge	1.201	3.35	1.9	60.91	39.09
Legislation knowledge	.857	2.16	4.5	65.05	34.95
Store knowledge	.712	1.38	13.5	68.06	31.94
Price-quality relationship knowledge	1.250	3.83	0.5	61.57	38.43
Product brand knowledge	.728	1.06	23.5	72.02	27.98
On sales price knowledge	.675	1.30	12.3	70.53	29.47

\* Included within % ≤ Mean

However, these results are consistent with John's (1999: 186 and 204) model of consumer socialisation stages; children at the analytical stage of ages 7-11 years old can consider several dimensions of a stimulus such as brand names, quality and prices at a time and relate these dimensions to each other in a thoughtful way. They approached the matter in more detailed and analytical ways. They are aware of the brand of product categories and understand the symbolic aspects of consumption in comparison with young children of ages 3-7 years old. In general, they are able to focus on deeper aspects of stimuli directly related to product's performance.

### 9.2.3 Shopping independence

In this part, the respondents were asked to indicate how many times during the previous week prior to conducting the groups' interviews they shopped independently at the neighbourhood stores. As shown in table 9.2.4, the highest mean value was associated with the supermarket stores (6.67). According to the median values, 47.7% of young children were shopping more than six times per/week independently and 0.9% of young children made zero visits. The second order of mean value = 3.19 is referred to the bakery shops; 39% of young children visited the bakery shops more than three times per/week independently.

Table 9.2.4: Neighbourhood stores of grocery and food products

Stores	Mean	Stand. Deviation	Median	% 0.0*	% ≤ Median	% > Median
Supermarkets	6.67	3.415	6.00	0.9	52.3	47.7
Corner stores of vegetables and fruits	1.42	1.616	1.00	40.7	58.7	41.3
Specialised stores of chicken, meat, and fish	.91	1.407	.00	56.8	56.8	43.2
Bakery shops	3.19	2.440	3.00	17.5	61.0	39.0
Restaurants of breakfast food	3.06	2.279	3.00	13.3	63.2	36.7
Libraries	.97	1.006	1.00	34.7	77.3	22.7
Total visit	15.23	8.322	14.00	0.4	53.0	47.0

\* Inclusive within the percent of ≤ median

The restaurants of breakfast food represent the third order of mean value = 3.06; 36.7% of young children reported that they went independently to buy breakfast food "Homous, Fuol, Falafel, and Shawarma" more than three times per/week. In addition, the highest zero

frequency visits is respectively associated with visiting the specialised stores of chicken, meat, and fish 56.8%, corner stores of vegetables and fruits 40.7%, and libraries 34.7%. The variations of frequencies may be attributed to the variety of respondents' ages. On the other hand, these frequencies provide evidence that young children are used to visit multi-stores to buy grocery and food products either for their family use or for their own use; on overall, 47% of young children visit different stores more than 14 times per/week independently.

#### **9.2.4 Buying grocery and food products for the family use independently**

The respondents were asked if their fathers request them to buy grocery and food products for the family use independently. It is not surprising, as shown in table 9.2.5, that 96.2% of respondents replied “Yes” and 3.8% “No” since their fathers adopt the concept orientation in their interaction. In addition, young children were asked to point out how often (1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = always) they buy independently a certain group of grocery and food products for the family use. As shown in table 9.2.6, young children scored the highest mean value = 2.68 in buying yoghurt, salt, rice, eggs, and deli for the family use.

Table 9.2.5: Fathers request young children to buy grocery and food product

Buying grocery and food products for the family use	Yes	No	Total
Father request	881	35	916
% Frequency	96.2	3.8	100%

While 69.2% of the respondents are always buying these products, 1.1% of respondents never buy them for their family use. Respectively, 58.9% and 42.1% of young children are always buying loaves of bread and breakfast food for the family use. In contrast, 55.6% and 40.3% of young children respectively scored below the mean values in buying the groups of (chicken, meat, and fish) and (vegetables and fruits). However, these results are consistent with the results of visiting the neighbourhood stores as was mentioned in section 9.2.3 of shopping independence. In total, 370 young children scored above the mean value in buying these types of grocery and food products for their family use and 511 of young children scored below or equal the mean.

Table 9.2.6: The groups of products related to the family use

Type of products	Mean*	Stand. Deviation	% Rating (1)	% Rating (2)	% Rating (3)
Dishwashing liquid and shampoo	2.23	.584	8.3	60.7	31.0
Yoghurt, salt, rice, eggs, and deli	2.68	.490	1.1	29.6	69.2
Bread loafs	2.53	.614	6.4	34.7	58.9
Breakfast food	2.34	.617	7.7	50.2	42.1
Vegetables and fruits	1.69	.636	40.3	50.2	9.5
Chicken, meat, and fish	1.50	.596	55.6	39.2	5.2
Total groups	13.00	2.280	58% ≤ Mean	42% > Mean	
Fathers trustful young children memory to recall products	1.73	.690	40.7	45.3	14.0

(\*) Represents “Yes” responses = 881 of respondents

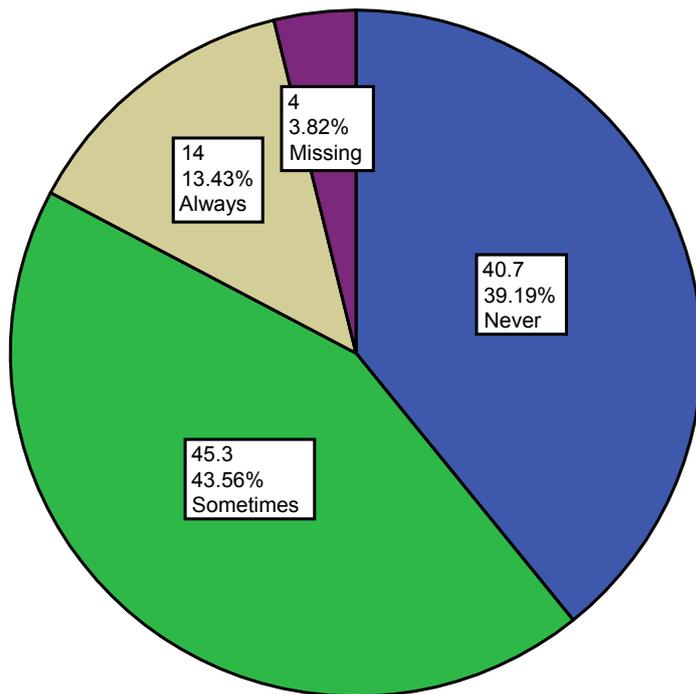


Figure 9.2.1: Fathers’ trustful the storage memory of their young children

\*Missing 3.82%: Fathers do not ask them to buy grocery and food products for the family use.

Moreover, figure 9.2.1 shows that 41% of young children reported that their fathers never wrote them a shopping list “script cues to activate their memories” to deliver it to the

shop-owners or salespeople in order to recall what to buy or to explain what the family needs, against 14% of Jordanian fathers who always wrote-down a shopping list.

### 9.2.5 Buying grocery and food products for own use independently

The young children were questioned if their fathers allowed them to buy grocery and food products for their own use independently; 100% of young children indicated that their fathers allowed them to go shopping independently to buy grocery and food products for their own use. In addition, young children were asked to point out how often (1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = always) they bought independently certain grocery and food products for own use. As shown in table 9.2.7, young children scored the highest frequencies in buying chocolates, chewing gum, chips, soft drink, fruit juice, ice cream and sandwiches for own use. While 89.2% of the respondents indicated that they always buy chocolates, chewing gum, and chips, (72.5%, 50.4%, and 45.6%) of respondents respectively indicated that they are always shopping independently to buy (soft drink, fruit juice, ice cream), (sandwiches), and (school supply) for own use. In total, 40% of young children scored above the mean value related to buying these types of grocery and food products for own use and 60% of young children scored below or equal the mean value.

In addition, the young children were asked to indicate to what degree fathers have control over buying things for their own use when they go shopping independently. In this respect, 55.1% young children indicated that their fathers have little impact on their purchases when they go to shops independently.

Table 9.2.7: The groups of products related to the young children use

Type of products	Mean	Stand. Deviation	% Rating (1)	% Rating (2)	% Rating (3)
Chocolates, chewing gum, and chips	2.89	.316	0.1	10.7	89.2
Soft drink, fruit juice, and ice cream	2.72	.464	0.7	26.9	72.5
School supplies	2.42	.560	3.5	50.9	45.6
Sandwiches	2.47	.571	3.8	45.7	50.4
Total groups	10.50	1.270	60% ≤ Mean	40% > Mean	
Fathers influence	2.12	.659	16.3	55.1	28.6

### 9.2.6 Choice rules used in buying grocery and food products

Young children were asked to point out how often (1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = always) they use certain choice rules in evaluating and selecting the grocery and food products

when they go to shop independently. To be consistent with Moore-Shay and Lutz's (1988) procedures, principal components factor analysis (varimax rotation) was conducted to differentiate between these groups.

As shown in tables 9.2.8, 9, and 10 and figure 9.2.2 of appendix (D), the initial solutions of factor analysis extract six factors that explain 51% of the total variances. The rotated factor loadings suggest the following interpretations: (a) rational buying processes, (b) price-quality relationship, (c) irrational buying processes, (d) external appearance of products, (e) TV commercial advertising, and (f) buying impulsively. According to the scree plot that is used to determine the optimal number of factors, these factors can be grouped into desirable and undesirable choice rules. The desirable choice rules are the aggregation of factors (a) and (b) and the undesirable choice rules are the aggregation of factors (c) and (d), (e), and (f). As shown in table 9.2.11, the highest frequencies within the groups are associated with the external appearance of products. That is, 45.8% (n = 420) of young children who scored above the mean value = 8.97 rely on the external appearance of products and 45.4% (n = 415) of young children scored above the mean value = 19.92 of the rational choice rules and strategies in the evaluation and selection of grocery and food products. In addition, 50% (n = 458) of young Jordanian children who scored over the mean value = 28.96 display undesirable choice rules. Specifically, they rely only on the cheapest price for the selection of products regardless of quality and buy new brands of products for social utilities. They used to buy only from the corner store that is located close their homes. In addition, they depend on the TV commercial advertising in their choice rules. They focus on the taste, colour, and the package of products and select a product that gives them a gift. They select products that have photos of famous celebrities and players and buy products that they had not intended to buy before entering the store.

On the other hand, 45.7% (n = 418) of young Jordanian children scored above the mean value of desirable choice rules. They ask the salespeople about the prices before buying the products and frequently bargain the prices of the products with the salespeople and choose the right quality at the right price as well. They buy products that are on sale and buy the family brand. They always check the appearance of the products such as the cap

and the carton of product's packaging. Prior to buying the products, they check other products that have similar ingredients and compare between different brands prior to selection. Moreover, they select the products that have the freshness date of production and simultaneously check a product label (ingredients) prior to selection.

Table 9.2.11: Factors of choice rules used by young children

Choice rulers	Mean	Standard Deviation	% ≤ Mean	% > Mean
Rational buying process	19.92	4.894	54.5	45.4
Price-quality relationship	4.67	.918	67.7	32.3
Irrational buying process	12.19	2.169	57.7	42.3
The external appearance of products	8.97	2.043	54.2	45.8
Based on TV commercial advertising	3.94	1.180	68.0	32.0
Buying impulsively	3.85	.834	74.0	26.0
Desirable choice rules	24.59	5.274	54.3	45.7
Undesirable choice rules	28.96	4.120	50.0	50.0

### 9.2.7 Father-child co-shopping related to grocery and food products

In this part, young children were asked to indicate how often (1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = always) their fathers approach the consumption matters and yield to their requests relating to grocery and food products through co-shopping trips.

As shown in table 9.2.12, the highest mean value is associated with the determination of products taste used by young children; 67.4% of young children reported that their fathers are constantly allowing them to determine the taste of products related grocery and food products used by them. By contrast, 35.2% of young children indicate that their fathers never allow them to determine the ingredients of grocery and food products related to their own use. At the levels of summing variables, 38% (n = 348) of young children scored above the mean value = 4.10. That is, Jordanian fathers ask their young children to try new brands of products for training purposes and guide them how to check the quality of products through co-shopping trips. 42.5% (n = 390) of young children scored above the mean value = 10.83; they reported that their fathers allow them to determine the ingredients of products, choose the types of products, and to determine the colour, taste, and the external appearance of products related to grocery and food products consumed by themselves.

Table 9.2.12: Father-child co-shopping

Father-child co-shopping	Mean	Stand. Deviation	% Rating (1)	% Rating (2)	% Rating (3)
Training issues					
Teach how to check the quality of products	2.24	.752	19.0	37.6	43.4
Introduce new brands of products	1.84	.764	38.8	39.0	22.3
Fathers' yielding to young children's requests					
Determine the taste of products.	2.59	.631	7.9	24.8	67.4
Determine the colour of products.	2.31	.727	15.7	37.6	46.7
Determine the external shape of products.	2.10	.666	17.7	54.7	27.6
Select the types of products	2.04	.763	27.1	41.7	31.2
Determine the ingredients of products.	1.79	.670	35.2	50.8	14.1
Total of training issues	4.10	1.280	62% ≤ mean	38% > mean	
Total of fathers yielding	10.83	2.180	57.5% ≤ mean	42.5% > mean	

### 9.2.8 Young children orientations towards marketplace activities

In this respect, young children were asked to indicate their level of agreement on twenty-two statements that anchored by (1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree). In order to describe these orientations, principal components factor analysis (varimax rotation) was conducted. As shown in tables 9.2.13, 14, and 15 of appendix D, the initial solutions of factor analysis extract six factors that explain 47.5% of the total variances. The rotated factor loadings greater than 0.40 suggest the following interpretations: social and hedonistic orientations, scepticism attitudes towards the credibility of TV advertising oriented children's grocery and food products, positive general attitudes towards TV advertisement, young children's attitudes towards stores, store loyalty, and materialism values.

As shown in table 9.2.16, 47% (n = 431) of young children who scored above the mean value = 10.97 display the highest scepticism attitudes towards the credibility of TV advertising oriented children's grocery and food products. They strongly believe that TV commercial advertisements do not provide a true picture for the advertised products and use tricks and gimmicks to get the young children to buy the advertised products. They believe that TV commercial advertisements urge young children to buy things they do not really need and present much grocery and food products that contain much sugar and artificial flavours.

The second order of the highest orientation is associated with young children's attitudes towards social and hedonistic issues; 46% (n = 421) of young children who scored above the mean value = 18.64 used to go shopping for fun and watch TV commercial advertising to give them something to talk about with their friends. They usually buy the newest brand of grocery and food products. The extra school allowances "pocket money" will make them happy because they usually buy more than three different things in each trip when they go to shop independently.

In addition, young children scored the same frequencies across their attitudes towards general TV commercial advertising, materialism values, and stores loyalty. In this respect, 41% (n = 375) of young children watched the TV commercial advertisement because it tells them good-stories and presents funny pictures as well introduce much grocery and food products-related to children's grocery and food products. They used to buy the most expensive and the newest brands of grocery and food products and received a pleasant sound from their fathers when they want to buy something. They believe that the famous stores sell high quality products. These stores are able to catch the young children's attention related to the new grocery and food products.

Table 9.2.16: Young children's attitudes and orientations towards marketplace activities

Interpretations of rotated factors analysis	Mean	Stand. Deviation	% ≤ Mean	% > Mean
Social and hedonistic orientations	18.64	3.12	54.0	46.0
Positive attitudes towards general TV commercial advertising	8.96	1.950	59.0	41.0
Scepticism attitudes towards the credibility of TV advertising related to children grocery and food products	10.97	2.903	53.0	47.0
Materialism values	7.59	1.908	59.0	41.0
Attitudes towards stores	7.71	1.653	59.0	41.0
Store loyalty	2.53	1.029	65.5	34.5
Positive attitudes toward marketplace practices	54.47	6.613	53.0	47.0

The lowest orientation is associated with stores loyalty. That is, 34.5% (n = 316) of young children who scored over the mean value = 2.53 display positive attitudes towards store loyalty. This result is consistent with the findings of choice rules; 35% of young children never buy from different stores. In total, after having reversed the scores of negative

statements into positive statements, 47% (n = 431) of young children have scored above the mean value = 52.47; they displayed positive attitudes towards marketplace practices.

### **9.2.9 Young children's perception of fathers' mediation of TV commercial influence**

In this section, young children were asked to point out how many hours they watched TV prior the day of conducting group interviews. According to young children's responses, the amount of viewing TV during those days ranged from 1 to 5 hours. While 32% (n = 293) of young children who scored above the mean value = 3.00 indicated that they watched TV more than 3 hours, 41% of young children watched TV from 1 to 2 hours.

In order to describe fathers' mediation of media influences "family media variables", young children were asked to indicate how often (1 = very seldom, 5 = very often) they co-viewed the TV with their fathers, discussed with them the commercial advertising in various media and to what degree their fathers placed restrictions on viewing TV.

As shown in table 9.2.17, the highest mean value of fathers' mediation groups was associated with father-child co-viewing TV (mean value = 10.60). Within this group, the highest mean value = 3.98 is related to co-viewing TV on Friday. It is not surprising that Jordanian fathers are used to co-viewing the TV with their young children on Fridays "often or very often = 72.6%" more than other weekdays "51.9%" or Saturdays "38%" because the official weekend in Jordan is Friday and Saturday for the employees of public sector. At the level of summated variables, 47% (n = 430) of young children scored above the mean value = 10.60; they stress on the continuity of co-viewing TV with their fathers on weekdays, Friday, and Saturday. The second order of group mean value = 9.16 is associated with fathers' control of viewing TV. Within this group, the highest mean is associated with fathers' restrictions placed on the time of viewing TV; 41.6% of young children reported that their fathers frequently placed restrictions on when they could watch TV.

On the other hand, there is a little difference between the two other variables of this group. That is, Jordanian fathers relatively placed similar weights of restrictions on which programs their children can watch the TV (mean value = 2.99) and how many hours their children can watch the TV (mean value = 3.03). As a total, 46% (n = 421) of young

children scored above the mean value = 9.16; they showed the highest perception of fathers' control over viewing TV.

Table 9.2.17: Young children's perception of fathers' mediation of TV influence

Variables	Mean	Stand. Deviation	% Rating (1& 2)	% Rating (3)	% Rating (4 & 5)
Watch TV with their fathers on weekdays	3.52	1.174	17.9	30.2	51.9
Watch TV with their fathers on Fridays	3.98	1.117	10.5	16.9	72.6
Watch TV with their fathers on Saturdays	3.09	1.227	31.0	30.7	38.3
Sub-total	53% ≤ 10.60 = mean			47% > mean	
Father places restrictions on TV programs	2.99		33.7	30.5	35.8
Father places restrictions on TV time	3.14		29.4	29.0	41.6
Father places restrictions on the number of hours	3.03		32.2	31.6	36.2
Sub-total*	54% ≤ 9.16 = mean			46% > mean	
Father discuss newspaper advertising	2.67		44.8	31.8	23.4
Father discuss magazine advertising	2.06		71.0	19.0	10.0
Father discuss TV advertising	2.69		43.3	30.7	26.0
Sub-total	56.7% ≤ 7.42 = mean			43.3% > mean	
Watch TV for entertainment and fun	4.25		5.0	14.1	80.9
Watch TV news	2.36		53.1	30.6	16.3
Read the newspaper	2.19		61.6	23.9	14.5
Sub-total	60% ≤ 8.79 = mean			40% > mean	
Positive perception of fathers mediation (*) reversed.	53% ≤ 26.86 = mean			47% > mean	

The lowest mean value (7.42) of fathers' mediation is associated with the discussion of media commercial advertising. Within this group, the highest mean value = 2.69 is associated with the TV commercial advertising; 26% of young children reported that their fathers frequently discussed the content of TV commercial advertising with them while co-viewing the TV programmes. In addition, 23% of young children (mean value = 2.67) indicated that their fathers constantly discussed the content of newspaper commercial advertising and 71% and 45% of young children respectively indicated that their fathers rarely or never discuss the content of magazines and newspaper advertising. In general, 47% (n = 430) of young children who scored above the total mean value displayed the highest positive perception of fathers' mediation on the influence of TV advertising in their consumer behaviour.

### **9.2.10 Fathers choice rules of buying grocery and food products**

Jordanian fathers were asked to point out how often they depend on twenty-seven of choice rules and strategies that are typically used in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products in shopping milieu. Fathers responses for each statement ranged from 1 = very seldom to 5 = very often. As shown in table 9.2.18, the descending means of the highest seven choice rules of grocery and food products indicated that the first priority is given to the freshness date of products (mean value = 4.40): 86.5% (n = 792) of Jordanian fathers frequently used this criterion in the evaluation and the selection of grocery and food products. According to the second mean value = 4.34, 85% (n = 777) of fathers often choose the right quality at the right price of grocery and food products. In addition, while 69% (n = 635) of fathers are used to buy products that are free of sugar and flavour additives, 66% (n = 604) of Jordanian fathers frequently employed the bargaining strategy with salespeople before buying grocery and food products and read the product label (ingredients) prior to selection. Sixty-two percent of fathers are often buying grocery and food products from the corner stores. However, the young children's results as was stated in section 9.2.6 are relatively consistent with their fathers' choice rules and strategies. Specifically, 62% of young children buy from the corner stores that located near their homes and score above the mean value relating to select of the right quality at the right price, select the freshness date of products, and choose the cheapest price in evaluating and selecting the grocery and food products. On the other hand, the lowest means are associated with the undesirable choice rules. In that context, while 14% of fathers who scored above the mean value = 2.10 are relying on reading newspaper advertisement before they shopped, 15% of fathers who scored above the mean value = 2.34 depend on the TV commercial advertisement in their purchases. Moreover, 51% of Jordanian fathers scored below the mean value = 2.43 in choosing the expensive products.

To be consistent with the analysis procedures that used in young children's responses, principal components factor analysis (varimax rotation) was conducted to differentiate between the groups of fathers' choice rules. The initial solutions of the Eigenvalues extract eight factors that explain 52.4% of the total variances.

Table 9.2.18: The choice rules of grocery and food products used by Jordanian fathers

Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation	% Rating (1& 2)	% Rating (3)	% Rating (4 & 5)
Select the freshness date of production.	4.40	.924	4.8	8.7	86.5
Choose the right quality at the right price.	4.34	.865	3.7	11.4	84.9
Bargain the price of a product.	3.88	1.068	9.0	25.4	65.6
Buy nutrition food.	3.88	1.138	12.4	18.3	69.3
Read the product label.	3.81	1.120	13.2	21.2	65.6
Buy from the corner store.	3.75	1.084	11.6	26.6	61.8
Buy from different stores.	3.63	1.073	15.3	26.2	58.5
Buy the products whose ads you like the best.	2.54	1.153	50.9	28.2	20.9
Select the expensive prices of products.	2.43	1.033	51.1	36.1	12.8
Buy the heavily advertised product.	2.34	1.125	58.6	26.3	15.1
Depend on newspapers advertisement.	2.10	1.233	65.1	20.5	14.4

As shown in table 9.2.19, 57% of Jordanian fathers are rarely buying the expensive products, selecting products that contain gifts, and relying on media on buying grocery and food products. As a group of variables, these results are consistent with young children results. Specifically, 56% of young children are frequently buying the cheapest price of products. In contrast, young children rather than their fathers are apt to select the products whose advertisement they like the best and they are influenced by the heavily advertised products; 26% of young children who scored above the mean value = 1.98 depends on the commercial advertising criteria. While 45% of Jordanian fathers who scored over the mean value constantly plan their purchases through allocating a specific budget for each shopping trip and prepare a shopping list before going to shop, 65% of fathers rarely shopped at the same store in each trip. Moreover, 58% of fathers do not constantly buy grocery and food products from the corner stores that are located near their home, selecting the cheapest products, and buying the products of local brands (manufactured in Jordan). The young children result-related to the corner store is contradicted with their fathers' result; 62% of young children are always buying from the corner stores and 30% scored over the mean value = 2.54.

Furthermore, 53% of Jordanian fathers who scored below or equal the mean value = 16.13 are not frequently depending on the country of origin in buying products and

comparing different brands prior to selection of products. On the other hand, 56.5% of fathers scored below or equal the mean value = 14.18 of the group of conscious prices.

Table 9.2.19: The interpretations of rotated factors loadings matrix at 0.30% cut-off margin

Fathers choice rulers	Mean	Standard Deviation	% ≤ Mean	% > Mean
Based on media and external appearance	13.03	3.675	57.0	43.0
Conscious of product-(price, quality, and knowledge) relationship	20.33	3.237	51.0	49.0
Planning the purchases	6.83	2.187	55.0	45.0
Based on a one store of each shopping trip	3.04	1.138	65.0	35.0
Based on corner stores	10.19	2.191	58.0	42.0
Conscious of brands	16.13	3.652	53.0	47.0
Conscious of prices	14.18	2.903	56.5	43.5
Based on social utilities and impulsive orientations	12.58	2.766	56.0	44.0
Desirable choice rules (aggregation of 2, 3, 6, and 7)	57.49	7.649	50.0	50.0
Undesirable choice rules (aggregation of 1, 4, 5, and 8)	38.86	6.042	55.0	45.0

They do not frequently select the high quality of products at the least prices, buy the products that are on sale or promotions, bargain the prices of the products, and select the cheapest prices of products. These results are consistent with young children's results, 54.5% of young children scored below or equal the mean values, as a group of variables, relating to bargain the prices of the products with the salespeople, buy the products that are on sale, and choose the right quality at the right price.

In addition, 44% of fathers who scored above the mean value = 12.58 displayed social motivation utilities and impulsive orientation towards buying grocery and food products, specifically, they used to select the highest quality of products at the highest prices, buy from specialised stores, and buy products that they do not intend to buy before entering the store. In general, as shown in table 9.2.20, there are minor differences between young children and their fathers in relation to using certain choice rules in buying grocery and food products. That is, while 55% of Jordanian fathers scored ≤ mean value relating to the undesirable choice rules and strategies, 50% of young children scored below or equal to the mean value of undesirable choice rules. Conversely, while 50% of fathers scored

above the mean value of desirable choice rules, 45.7% of young children scored > mean value of desirable choice rules.

Table 9.2.20: The summated variables of fathers' choice rules

Choice rules	Fathers' responses		Young children' responses	
	% ≤ Mean	% > Mean	% ≤ Mean	% > Mean
Desirable choice rules	50.0	50.0	54.3	45.7
Undesirable choice rules	55.0	45.0	50.0	50.0

### 9.2.11 Fathers orientations towards co-shopping

In this section, fathers were asked to indicate how often (1 = very seldom to 5 = very often) they ask their young children's help to buy ten groups of products. To this end, the highest mean value = 2.62, as shown in table 9.2.21, is portrayed on buying "Bread loaves"; 68% of fathers are always asking their children's help to buy bread loaves from the bakery shops for the family use. In contrast, 45% of fathers never asked their young children to buy chicken, meat, and fish for the family use.

According to the family products, the frequencies showed that 47% (n = 430) of fathers always requested their young children to buy bread, yoghurt, salt, rice, eggs, dishwashing liquid and shampoo, deli, vegetables and fruits, chicken, meat, and fish. In this context, these results are relatively consistent with young children's responses, for example, 59% of young children indicate that they are always buying bread loaves from bakery shops and 42% of young children scored above the mean values in buying these types of grocery and food products for their family use. In relation to young children's use, 74% of fathers indicate that their children are always buying chocolates, chewing gum, and chips independently for their own use. In general, 41% of fathers scored above the mean values of young children's products. This result is entirely consistent with young children's responses; 40% of young children scored above the mean value in relation to buying these types of grocery and food products for their own use. However, it should be noted that the overall mean value of buying family products = 13.45 is greater than young children's products = 9.98. That is, fathers are more likely to rely on their young children to buy certain products independently for the family use. In addition, fathers trust their young children's cognition and memory in recalling things. That is, 38% (n = 348) of fathers who scored above the mean value never used a shopping list "script cues". This result is

consistent with young children’s responses since 41% of young children indicated that their fathers have never written them a shopping list “script cues” to activate their memories.

Table 9.2.21: Fathers’ request their young children to buy certain products

Type of products	Mean	Stand. Deviation	% Rating (1)	% Rating (2)	% Rating (3)
For the family use					
Bread loaves	2.62	.600	6.2	25.7	68.1
Yoghurt, salt, rice, eggs, and deli	2.50	.575	4.0	42.1	53.8
Breakfast food	2.40	.626	7.6	45.1	47.3
Dishwashing liquid and shampoo	2.32	.685	12.6	42.6	44.9
Vegetables and fruits	1.87	.783	38.0	37.0	25.0
Chicken, meat, and fish	1.74	.759	44.8	35.9	19.3
Overall group variables	13.45	2.901	53% ≤ mean	47% > mean	
For young children use					
Chocolates, chewing gum, and chips	2.72	.484	1.6	24.7	73.7
Soft drink, fruit juice, and ice cream	2.49	.556	2.9	44.5	52.5
School supply	2.42	.592	5.3	47.4	47.3
Sandwiches	2.34	.654	10.2	45.5	44.3
Overall group variables	9.98	1.597	59 % ≤ mean	41% > mean	
Father trusts young children’s cognition	3.23	1.212	62 % ≤ mean	38% > mean	
Fathers’ controllability	3.30	1.031	65.5% ≤ mean	34.5% > mean	

By contrast, 34.5% of fathers who scored above the mean value = 3.30 have a little control over the quantity and the types of grocery and food products when his/her child goes independently to buy things for his/her own use. This result is relatively contradicted with young children’s responses, specifically, 25% of young children who scored above the mean value reported that their fathers have a little control over their purchases when they go shopping independently.

*In relation to fathers orientations towards co-shopping with their young children, 47% (n = 430) of Jordanian fathers scored often or very often relating to permit their young children to go with them in the shopping visits of grocery and food products. As shown in table 9.2.22, the highest mean of stores frequencies is associated with neighbourhood*

supermarkets = 3.74 and the restaurant of breakfast food = 3.62. The lowest scores are associated with the stores of vegetables, fruits, meat, chickens, and fish that are located in the central markets = 2.81, and the specialised stores located nearer to home (3.0).

Table 9.2.22: Father-child co-shopping

Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation	Median	% ≤ median	% > median
Fathers permission	3.46	.922	3.0	53.0	47.0
Neighbourhood supermarket	3.74	1.019	4.0	74.6	25.4
Restaurant of breakfast food	3.62	1.082	4.0	76.4	23.6
Bakery shops	3.47	1.129	3.0	51.0	49.0
Library stores	3.35	1.149	3.0	52.6	47.4
Corner stores of vegetables and fruits	3.31	1.087	3.0	56.2	43.8
Large supermarket (Mall)	3.08	1.242	3.0	61.7	38.3
The specialised stores located to home	3.00	1.190	3.0	66.3	33.7
The central markets stores	2.81	1.158	3.0	72.2	27.8
Overall group variables	52% ≤ median = 26			48% > median = 26	
Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation	% Rating (1& 2)	% Rating (3)	% Rating (4 & 5)
Allow them to select the types of products	3.65	.946	10.6	29.8	59.6
Determine the taste of products	3.33	1.139	22.5	29.8	47.7
Determine the ingredients of products	3.12	1.128	27.2	36.2	36.6
Determine the shape of products	3.04	1.108	29.8	35.9	34.3
Check the quality of products	3.93	1.007	36% ≤ mean	64% > mean	
Introduce new brands of products	3.44	1.119	52.6% ≤ mean	47.4% > mean	
Overall group variables	20.52	4.327	53.5% ≤ mean	46.5% > mean	
Ask the advertised products	3.10	1.122	66% ≤ mean	34% > mean	
Fathers controls over buying things	3.72	.997	66% ≤ mean	34% > mean	

That is, 48% (n = 440) of fathers noted that they are very often asking their young children to accompany them in their shopping visits to different stores. This result is completely consistent with young children's responses; 47% of young children scored over the median value of shopping at supermarkets, corner stores of vegetables and fruits,

specialised stores of chicken, meat, and fish, bakery shops, restaurants of breakfast food, and libraries.

Throughout co-shopping trips, 43% of fathers are very often training their young children how to check the quality of grocery and food products and asking them to pay attention for the newest types of grocery and food products. This result is relatively consistent with young children's responses; 38% of young children pointed out that their fathers are always asking them to try new brands of products for training purposes and guiding them how to check the quality of products through co-shopping trips.

In a similar vein, 34% of fathers reported that their young children are regularly asking them to buy the advertised grocery and food products. They also have enormous influence over the quantity and the types of purchases related to the use of their young children. Moreover, 44% of fathers very often yield to young children's purchase requests, for example, they allow them to select the types of products, determine the taste, the ingredients of products, and the external appearance of products. This result is consistent with their young children's responses; 42.5% of young children have the same perspectives.

#### **9.2.12 Fathers attitudes towards developing the consumer skills of their young children**

In this section, fathers were asked to indicate their level of agreement on 34 statements that were measured on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree = 5 to strongly disagree = 1". Principal components factor analysis (varimax rotation) was conducted to identify these orientations. As shown in tables 9.2.23, 24, 25, and figure 9.2.3 of appendix D, the scree plots indicate that there are five factors explaining 37% of the total variances. The rotated factors loadings that are greater than 0.40 suggest the following interpretations: Fathers' attitudes towards developing the materialism values of their young children "8 items", general attitudes towards developing young children consumer skills "6 items", fathers attitudes towards gender "6 items", fathers yielding to young children requests "4 items", and fathers perception of the sex roles "2 items".

As shown in table 9.2.26, the highest orientation is associated with fathers' general attitudes towards developing young children's consumer skills and knowledge, 50% (n = 458) of Jordanian fathers scored above the mean value = 25.03. While 93% of Jordanian fathers emphasised the importance of talking to their young children about how to buy things, 82% of fathers agree that young children should participate in the shopping trips of grocery and food made by their fathers. Ninety-two percent of Jordanian fathers always try to understand the viewpoints of their young children relating to their purchases and requests. On the other hand, 74% of fathers believe that fathers should talk with their young children about the contents of TV commercial advertising. By contrast, while 91% of Jordanian fathers emphasise that fathers should place restrictions on the number of hours that their young children could watch the TV, 88% of fathers stress the importance of co-viewing TV with their young children to know what kinds of programmes and commercial advertising they usually watch. These results are consistent with young children's perspectives. Based on young children's responses, the highest means are associated with fathers' concept orientation as was stated in table 9.2.1, fathers' control of viewing TV, and father-child co-viewing TV as was stated in table 9.2.17.

In relation to fathers' attitudes towards gender, 47% (n = 430) of fathers scored above the mean value = 19.90. In this respect, 57% of Jordanian fathers emphasise that the society's values, norms, and religion restrict the female's consumer roles related to buy grocery and food products independently and 54.5% of Jordanian fathers are satisfied that a woman with children should not work. While 71% of fathers indicate that fathers should only ask the boy's help to buy grocery and food products for the family use, 39% of fathers believe that fathers should tell the boys only about the places of buying different grocery and food products.

The lowest orientation is associated with fathers' general attitudes towards sex roles, yielding to the young children's requests, and developing the materialism values of their young children; 44% (n = 403) of fathers scored above the mean values. In this respect, 63% of Jordanian fathers perceived that the development of young children's consumer roles is fathers' responsibility rather than mothers' responsibility.

In addition, while 45% of fathers who scored above the mean value = 3.27 perceived that buying grocery and food products for the family use is the chore of husband rather than wife's task, 72% of fathers perceived that mothers role is the second order of responsibility relating to evolve the young children's consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes. In relation to fathers' attitudes towards yielding to their young children requests, fathers perceived that the multi-requests of their young children make them annoyed; therefore, the young children should not talk with their fathers about buying grocery and food products if their fathers are not in a receptive mood. On the other hand, 39% of fathers linked their yielding to young children's requests together with doing some household chores and 33% of fathers indicate that their kids should firstly get mothers' support to back up their requests with them.

In relation to fathers' attitudes towards developing the materialism values of their young children, 37% of fathers agree that the possession of money can buy the happiness. In contrast, 50% of fathers perceived that increasing the school's allowances of their young children would make them happy. While 57% of fathers do not allow their young children to buy expensive grocery and food products, 25% of fathers usually buy for their children what they want, and 26% of fathers buy things for their children that other kids like to have it. In addition, 16% of fathers have no objections relating to the types and quantity of grocery and food products when their young children buy something for themselves and 11% of fathers scored agree or strongly agree relating to buying the expensive grocery and food products or buying new brands of grocery and food products.

Table 9.2.26: Fathers orientations towards developing the consumer skills of their young children

Components	Mean	Standard Deviation	% ≤ Mean	% > Mean
1) Fathers attitudes towards developing the materialism values of their young children	21.11	5.507	56.0	44.0
2) General attitudes towards developing young children consumer skills	25.03	3.134	50.0	50.0
3) Fathers attitudes towards gender	19.90	4.815	53.0	47.0
4) Fathers yielding to young children requests	12.44	2.798	56.0	44.0
5) Fathers perception of the sex roles	7.62	1.787	56.0	44.0

These results are entirely consistent with young children's perspectives; 46% of young children who scored above the mean value perceived that having extra school allowances

would make them happy. Therefore, they used to buy more than three different things for their own use in each shopping trip.

### **9.2.13 Fathers orientations towards grocery and food stores**

Fathers were asked to indicate their level of agreement on eight statements of attitudes related to grocery and food products anchored by (1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = agree, and strongly agree = 5). In order to identify these orientations, principal components factor analysis (varimax rotation) was conducted. The initial solutions of factor analysis “Eigenvalues” extract three factors that explain 54.5% of the total variances. The rotated factors loadings greater than 0.40 suggest the following interpretations: Stores loyalty, general attitudes towards stores, fathers attitudes towards children grocery and food products.

As shown in table 9.2.27, the highest negative orientation is associated with fathers’ attitudes towards young children grocery and food products. Sixty-eight percent of fathers scored below or equal the mean value = 7.79 because they are concerned about the grocery and food products consumed by their young children. Therefore, they try to avoid buying products that contain additive flavours. They displayed negative attitudes towards grocery and food products consumed by their young children because most of these products contain artificial flavours. On the other hand, 56% of fathers scored above the mean value = 7.36 relating to general attitudes towards stores. Fathers are satisfied that the famous stores of grocery and food products offer better customer services and the more famous the stores, the better the products they sell. In this regard, this result is contradicted with young children’s orientation: 41% of young children scored above the mean value.

In relation to the stores’ loyalty, 43% of fathers who scored above the mean value = 11.58 hate to change their favourite grocery and food stores and like to shop in stores where they feel at home. They like to shop in the stores that enable them to buy all family products. This result is consistent with young children’s attitudes towards stores; 34.5% of young children scored above the mean value. In general, Jordanian fathers have

relatively exhibited negative attitudes towards grocery and food stores; 44% of fathers scored above the mean value = 26.46.

Table 9.2.27: Fathers orientations towards grocery and food stores

Components	Mean	Standard Deviation	% ≤ Mean	% > Mean
Attitudes towards young children grocery and Food products	7.79	1.960	68.0	32.0
Stores loyalty	11.58	1.957	57.0	43.0
Fathers attitudes towards stores	7.36	1.806	44.0	56.0
Positive attitudes towards stores (q34 and 35 are reversed)	26.46	3.604	56.0	44.0

#### 9.2.14 Fathers orientations towards TV commercial advertising

Fathers were asked to indicate their level of agreement on nine statements anchored by strongly agree = 4, agree = 3, disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1. As shown in table 9.2.28, the highest mean is associated with fathers' control on the TV commercial influence on their young children; 88.5% of fathers believe that they should override the young children's orientations towards the TV commercial advertising. In contrast, the lowest mean is associated with the importance of TV commercial advertising in presenting the reality of the of grocery and food products; 81% of fathers are doubtful about the credibility of the TV commercial advertising in presenting a true picture for the advertised products.

As a group of variables, 40% (n = 366) of Jordanian fathers scored above the mean value = 15.0 in relation to their attitudes towards TV commercial advertising oriented young children in particular those related to the grocery and food products. In this respect, they believe that TV commercial advertising uses tricks and gimmicks to get young children to buy the advertised products (83%), presents much grocery and food products that contain much sugar and artificial flavours (81%), and urges young children to buy things they do not really need (78%). They described the TV commercial advertising by an annoyance visitor (54.5%). On the other hand, 65% of fathers scored below or equal the mean value = 8.85 relating to the usefulness of the TV commercial advertising in consumption issues and social utilities.

Table 9.2.28: Fathers orientations towards TV commercial advertising

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	% Rating (1 & 2)	% Rating (3 & 4)
Overrule the young children's orientations	3.28	.750	11.5	88.5
Use tricks and gimmicks	3.13	.813	17.2	82.8
Contain much sugar and artificial flavours	3.06	.782	18.6	81.4
Urge to buy things they do not really need	2.97	.753	21.6	78.4
Poor taste and very annoying visitor.	2.63	.771	45.5	54.5
Fun and pleasantries more than other media contents	2.34	.759	58.5	41.5
Helpful in decision-making	2.26	.729	67.8	32.2
Likeability	2.22	.728	71.2	28.8
Present a true picture	2.04	.772	81.0	19.0
Positive attitudes TV advertising ( 4 items)	8.85	65% ≤ mean	35% > mean	
Negative attitudes towards TV commercial advertising related to grocery and food of young children( 5 items)	15.0	60% ≤ mean	40% > mean	
General negative attitudes (9 items, reversed score 80, 82, 83, and 86)	26.21	57.7% ≤ mean	42.3% > mean	

In that context, 32% of fathers perceived the importance of TV commercial advertising in making the right purchase decisions related to grocery and food products; therefore, 29% of fathers like to buy grocery and food products whose advertisement they like the best. They usually watch the TV commercial advertising for fun because it is more pleasant to watch than other media contents (41.5%). This result is consistent with the young children's perspectives; 41% of young children usually watch the TV commercial advertising because it presents funny pictures and introduces much grocery and food products related to their consumption.

### 9.2.15 Fathers' perception of children's ability to understand the marketplace practices

In order to evaluate the young children's ability relating to consumer skills and knowledge based on their fathers' perspectives, fathers were asked to respond to 21 statements anchored by "I do not know = 0, unable = 1, very low ability = 2, low ability = 3, able = 4, high ability = 5, very high ability = 6". As shown in table 9.2.29, the highest means values were delimited to the first five items. Specifically, more than 60% (n = 550) of fathers who choose the response of "high and very high ability" perceived that their young children have a high ability to differentiate between the television program and the

television advertisement, recognise the value of coins as a means of exchange and are aware of the role of the sales people.

Table 9.2.29: Fathers' perception of young children's ability to understand the marketplace practices

Variables	Mean	% 0.0	% (1)	% (2&3)	% (4)	% (5 & 6)
Recognise the meaning of TV advertising	5.13	0.0	1.7	6.4	9.9	81.9
Realise the value of coins	4.86	0.0	2.0	9.9	13.2	74.4
Know the role of the sales people.	4.53	0.0	3.7	13.4	19.1	63.8
Recognise the reality of TV advertising	4.53	0.0	3.3	15.6	20.0	61.3
Understand the content of TV advertising	4.42	0.0	5.6	16.2	18.9	59.3
know the technical specifications of a product	4.29	0.0	4.0	17.9	27.4	50.7
Buy independently for his/her use.	4.08	1.7	3.8	15.7	46.5	32.2
Tell the TV advertising is exaggerating	3.90	3.5	6.4	20.1	35.6	34.4
Manage his/her allowances carefully	3.88	2.0	6.0	21.9	40.7	29.4
Realise the role of advertising actors	3.80	5.2	6.8	20.8	35.2	32.1
Realise the importance of healthy food	3.71	2.1	7.9	26.9	36.7	26.5
Inspect the products	3.71	2.1	9.3	26.1	35.9	26.7
Understand the intent of TV advertisement	3.66	2.9	7.6	24.8	41.0	23.6
Buy independently for the family use	3.46	1.4	12.0	30.3	37.6	18.8
Check the external appearance of the products	3.40	2.8	12.1	29.6	35.5	20.0
Know the ingredients of products	3.29	2.5	12.8	35.2	32.6	16.9
Compare the prices of products	3.21	3.1	13.0	36.6	31.2	16.0
Bargain the prices	3.15	2.8	15.1	40.2	27.5	14.4
Aware of the quality-price relationship	3.04	3.2	17.7	37.7	27.2	14.2
Distinguish the brands of products.	2.98	4.7	18.0	37.0	27.3	13.0
Buy independently from a Mall.	2.87	5.8	24.0	28.4	28.6	13.2

They also perceived that their young children possess high ability to recognise the reality of TV commercial advertising and to understand the content of TV advertising, for example, the young children are able recognise that the actors who endorse a product in the TV advertising may not truly use that product. This result is entirely consistent with the young children responses; 59.0% of young children scored below the mean value = 8.96 relating to the positive attitudes towards TV advertising and 47% displayed the highest scepticism attitudes towards the credibility of TV advertising oriented to their grocery and food products.

On the other hand, the lowest mean values were associated with the last five items.

In this context, more than 53% (n = 485) of Jordanian fathers who scored the choices of “unable, low ability, and very low ability” perceived that their young children possess a very low ability to precisely compare the prices of grocery and food products, to bargain the prices with the sales people, and to realise the quality-price relationship. They have a very low ability to differentiate between the brands of a product and to buy from a Mall independently. In this regard, these results are also consistent with young children’s perspectives. As shown in section 9.2.2, young children scored the lowest means and simultaneously scored below the means values in relation to store knowledge (68%), product brand knowledge (72%), and price-quality relationship knowledge (61%).

### 9.3 Testing the research hypotheses

This section is aimed at obtaining the last four objectives of the research in hand; it aims to measure *the developmental role* of Jordanian fathers in transferring the shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes to their young children of ages ranging from 8 to 12 years old related to convenience grocery and food products. Further, it aims to measure the *gate-keeping role* of Jordanian fathers in mediating the influence of TV commercial advertising on the consumption behaviour of their young children as a result of fathers' communication structure and patterns. Also, it aims to measure the differences in young children's shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products as a result of children's cognitive development and to measure as well the degree of similarity and dissimilarity between the children and their fathers in relation to shopping attitudes and behaviours as a result of father-child interaction in retailing milieu.

Departing from these premises, the main research hypotheses can be typified into three categories in accordance with data collection:

- (1) Hypothesis completely based on fathers' responses was tested to measure fathers' orientations towards developing young children's consumer role "fathers' variables".
- (2) Hypotheses completely based on young children's responses were tested to measure the effect of fathers' communication structures and patterns and the structural variables (age, gender, and socio-economic status) on young children's consumer role.
- (3) Hypotheses based on dyadic responses were tested to measure the relationship between fathers' communication structures based on young children's responses and fathers' orientations towards developing young children's consumer role and to measure the agreement/disagreement between young children and their fathers on shopping consumer skills and attitudes as a result of father-children interaction in shopping milieu.

As was discussed in section 8.3.1.1 of chapter 8, the research data as shown in table 9.3.1 were statistically adjusted through balancing each stratum by its weighting factor. Cooper

and Schindler (2006: 416) indicated that the results could be weighted (based on the proportion of the strata to the population) and combined into appropriate population estimates. Despite the insignificance of these variations in the research results, adjusting data was taken into account to precisely present the relative importance of each stratum and to remove the sampling bias caused by none/ inaccurate responses.

Table 9.3.1: Weighting factors of research data

Stratum	No. of young children	% Sample	% Population	% Deviation	% Weight factor	Frequency after correction
2nd grade	188	20.50	19.30	+1.20	0.94	177
3rd grade	197	21.50	19.50	+2.00	0.91	179
4th grade	181	19.80	19.70	+0.01	0.99	180
5th grade	172	18.80	20.70	-1.90	1.10	189
6th grade	178	19.40	20.80	-1.40	1.07	190
Total	916	100.0	100.00	00.00	-	916

The weight factors were determined by dividing the population percentage by the corresponding sample percentage (Malhotra and Birks, 2007: 488).

### 9.3.1 Hypothesis based on fathers' responses

**H1: Fathers' orientation towards co-shopping with their young children is not the supreme predictor of fathers' attitudes towards developing young children consumer roles related to grocery and food products.**

In order to test the null hypothesis, a standard multiple regression analysis was conducted through entering the following summated independent variables into a regression model to measure the relative contribution of each variable in fathers orientations towards developing young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes (6 items):

- Fathers' orientation towards co-shopping with their young children (15 items);
- Fathers' positive attitudes towards stores (8 items);
- Fathers' negative attitude towards TV advertising (9 items);
- Fathers' attitude towards sex role (2 items);
- Fathers' perception of young children cognition (21 items);
- Fathers' perception of young children's frequency of buying grocery and food products for their own use (4 items).

In that context, it should be noted that the independent variables of the regression model were derived through principal component varimax rotated factor analysis. This

procedure decreases the correlation coefficients between the independent and dependent variables and reduces the inter-correlations coefficients among the independent variables. The tolerance values of collinearity statistics that referred to the proportion of a variable's variance and not accounted for by other independent variables were very high; the lowest value = 0.69. Therefore, there were no violations noted relating to the preliminary assumptions of conducting the regression analysis such as normality, collinearity, and singularity between the independent variables. In addition, despite the fact that the software Programme of SPSS takes into account the different numbers of scales categories through standardising the coefficients of "Betas" in the regression model, the model variables were transformed into Z scores prior to conducting the regression analysis since the data based on different measurement scales. In this case, the standardised beta coefficients are the same as unstandardised coefficients.

As shown in table 9.3.2, the correlation coefficients between the independent variables can be categorised as medium size, in accordance with Cohen's (1988) guidelines, except the lowest correlation coefficient between fathers' negative attitude towards TV advertising and fathers positive attitudes towards stores ( $r = 0.08$ ,  $P = 0.007$ ). By contrast, the highest positive correlations between the independent variables were associated with fathers' orientation towards co-shopping with their young children and fathers' perception of young children's cognition related to market practices ( $r = 0.47$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ). The second order of correlations were also associated with fathers' orientation towards co-shopping and fathers perception of young children's frequency in buying grocery and food products for own use ( $r = 0.33$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ), followed by fathers' attitudes towards stores ( $r = 0.32$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ). On the other hand, the highest positive correlation between fathers' orientations towards developing young children's consumer roles as a dependent variable were associated with the independent variables of co-shopping ( $0.49$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ), fathers' perception of young children cognition ( $0.39$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ), and fathers' general negative attitude towards TV advertising ( $0.38$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ).

As shown in table 9.3.3, the model summary suggests that the multiple correlation coefficient between the independent variables and the dependent variable is ( $R = 0.62$ ). It also suggests that 38.5% ( $R^2$ ) of the variance in fathers' orientations towards developing

young children's consumer skills is explained by these variables; the F ratio = (94.79; 6, 909) of the regression model is statistically significant at the level of (P = 0.00).

Table 9.3.2: The correlation coefficients between dependent and independent variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1) Fathers orientations towards developing children consumer roles (dependent variable)	1.00						
2)Fathers orientation towards co-shopping	.49	1.00					
3) Fathers positive attitudes towards stores	.31	.32	1.00				
4) Fathers general negative attitude towards TV advertising	.38	.22	.08*	1.00			
5) Fathers attitude towards gender roles	.34	.25	.21	.26	1.00		
6) Fathers perception of young children cognition	.39	.47	.27	.19	.20	1.00	
7) Children use	.33	.33	.23	.20	.19	.29	1.00

Correlations are significant at P = 0.00 (2-tailed)

(\*)Correlations is significant at P = 0.007 (2-tailed)

In addition, the independent variables make significant unique contributions in predicting of fathers' attitudes towards the development of young children consumer roles. That is, the t values of Beta coefficients, as shown in table 9.3.4, for the independent variables were statistically significant at the level of (P = 0.00 < 0.05). In this respect, fathers' orientation towards co-shopping with their young children is the best predictor of fathers' orientations towards developing young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes. This variable explains 27% of fathers' attitudes followed by fathers' general attitudes towards commercial TV advertising 23%. According to these contributions, fathers played two roles in developing their young children's consumer skill, knowledge, and attitudes; the developmental role through co-shopping with their young children and gate-keeping role through mediation on the influence of TV commercial advertising on their young children's consumption behaviour.

In that context, they strongly believe that fathers should talk with their kids about how to buy things through co-shopping visits and should understand the viewpoints of their young children relating to their buying requests. They strongly believed that children should join their fathers in grocery and food shopping trips; 47% of fathers who scored often and very often reported that they allowed their children at this age to accompany them on the family shopping trips related to grocery and food products. Forty-eight

percent of fathers very often yielded to young children's purchases request through co-shopping trips. They often allowed them to select the types of products, determine the taste, the ingredients of products, and the external appearance of products and 40% of fathers reported that their young children are regularly asking them to buy the advertised grocery and food products. By contrast, fathers were strongly believed that they should control the TV commercial influence on their young children.

Table 9.3.3: The summary of regression model

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	Std. Error of the Estimate		
1	0.62	0.385	0.381	0.7869		
ANOVA statistics						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	352.163	6	58.70	94.792	0.00
	Residual	562.837	909	0.62		
	Total	915.00	915			

On the other hand, the lowest unique contributions were related to fathers' perceptions of the sex roles (14%), young children's cognition (12.5%), attitudes towards stores (12%), and young children's use (10%). However, these results would lead to rejecting the null hypothesis and accept the alternative one. That is, fathers' orientation towards co-shopping with their young children is the best predictor of fathers' attitudes towards developing the consumer role of their young children related to grocery and food products followed by fathers' negative attitudes towards TV commercial advertising.

Table 9.3.4: Regression coefficients\*

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T value	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B**	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
Constant	-9.9E-15	.026	-	.000	1.00	-	-
Co-shopping	.27	.031	.27	8.55	.00	.69	1.46
stores	.12	.028	.12	4.25	.00	.85	1.17
TV advertising	.23	.028	.23	8.35	.00	.89	1.13
Gender roles	.14	.028	.14	5.09	.00	.87	1.15
young children cognition	.125	.030	.125	4.13	.00	.74	1.36
children use	.10	.028	.10	3.52	.00	.84	1.19

(\*) Dependent variable

(\*\*) the Unstandardised coefficients of (B) are the same as standardised coefficients since the variables scores are transformed to Z scores.

However, these results are consistent with the perspectives of previous research. To this end, Parents may influence their children's behaviour directly through instructions "purposive training" and indirectly via acting as models to their children (Ward et al., 1977 b; Reece, 1986; McNeal, 1992). Parents who usually discuss children's requests encourage them to develop the skills of evaluation and selection of products and interpreting product information (Ward et al., 1986). Through co-shopping trips, parents tried to transfer both practical skills and theoretical knowledge to their children; they used to teach their children how to judge the quality of food products and how to choose the right products (Rust, 1993, Shim et al., 1995; Darian, 1998; McNeal and Ji, 1999; Carruth and Skinner, 2001; Pettersson et al., 2004). Moschis and Moore (1982) found that families who discuss consumption issues with their children are more capable to neutralize the negative effects of television advertising on the consumer socialisation of adolescents.

### **9.3.2 Hypotheses based on young children's responses**

**H2: Jordanian fathers are not engaged in a high level of socio-oriented communication.**

**H3: Jordanian fathers are not engaged in a high level of concept-oriented communication.**

Based on a survey design that consisted of 1,665 of parents' perspectives, Chan and McNeal (2003) studied how the mainland Chinese parents communicate with their young children of ages ranging from six to fourteen years about consumption and advertising issues. In the classification of parents' communication structures, they stated, "*As the current study is a single-country study, we are not able to compare the results with other cultures. We select the mid point of the five-point scale to be the mean value for the null hypothesis. In other words, we hypothesised that the mean of social-oriented communication will be greater than 3.00*" (Chan and McNeal, 2003: 321).

In line with these orientations, the research employed the parametric test of one sample *t* test to examine the two hypotheses. Since the scores of the two scales were summated on two separate variables, the values of mid 5-points scale = 3.0 multiplied by the number of construct's items were used as test values. Therefore, the null hypothesis is concerned

with whether the observed mean of young children's perception of fathers' communication structures conforms to the test values or not. In relation to fathers' socio communication structure, the results indicate that there is no difference between the test value ( $6 * 3 = 18.00$ ) and the observed mean = 18.15. That is,  $t$  value = 0.947 with standard deviation = 5.24 is not significant at the level of  $P = 0.344 > 0.05$ . The sample mean of socio communication structure is slightly greater than the hypothesised mean by + 0.15. This result suggests accepting the null hypothesis. That is, Jordanian fathers are not highly engaged with socio-oriented communication.

By contrast,  $t$  value = 5.04 with standard deviation = 4.37 related to the observed mean of concept-oriented structure = 15.76 is significantly differed from the hypothesised mean ( $5 * 3 = 15.00$ ) at the level of  $P = 0.00 < 0.01$ . That is, the observed mean is greater than the hypothesised mean by + 0.76. This result would lead to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative one; Jordanian fathers are more engaged in a high level of concept-oriented communication. In addition, the paired-samples  $t$  test analysis was conducted to compare the two means of fathers' orientations. The  $t$  value = 2.847 with standard deviation = 1.34 suggests that there is a significant difference between the means of the two dimensions at the level of  $P = 0.005 < 0.01$ ; fathers concept-orientation was higher than the level of socio-oriented communication and negatively correlated ( $r = - 0.12$ ,  $P = 0.00 < 0.01$ ) since they measured two different dimensions. These findings are entirely consistent with the descriptive analysis. That is, while 40% of young children, in average, marked the choice of "often or very often" across the concept-oriented items, 34% of young children marked the choice of "often or very often" across the socio-oriented items.

Furthermore, the overall mean value of Jordanian fathers' socio communication structure for six items = 3.02 is less than the overall mean value of Chinese parents of socio communication structure for five items = 3.59. Conversely, the overall mean value = 3.15 of Jordanian fathers' concept-oriented communication structure for five items is higher than the overall mean value = 3.03 for the eight items of Chinese parents concept-orientation structure (Chan and McNeal 2003: 325). That is, Jordanian fathers are more likely to be concept-oriented in their communication compared to the Chinese parents. By

contrast, the Chinese parents are more socio-oriented in their communication with their young children than do the Jordanian fathers. In addition, Mukherji (2005) found that 56% of Indian mothers advocate the concept-oriented communication structure despite India being classified as collectivistic culture.

**H4: There are no significant relationships between Jordanian fathers' communication patterns and the demographic variables.**

Bivariate analyses that involve cross-tabulation technique associated with Pearson chi-square statistics and Cramer's V coefficient were conducted to examine the relationship between fathers' communication patterns and the demographic variables of research model. In that context, Bryman and Bell (2007:356) indicated that the contingency tables, chi-square, and Cramer's V coefficient are employed when one of the two cross-tabulated variables is nominal. In this regard, chi-square measures test the hypothesis that the row and column variables in the cross-tabulations are independent "unrelated". It is appropriate for all types of data but it does not measure the strength and the direction of relationship. The lower the significance value, the less likely it is that the two variables are not related (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). Departing from these premises, the main hypothesis was partitioned into the following sub-hypotheses:

***H4/1: There is no significant relationship between fathers' communication patterns and the ages of young children.***

As shown in table 9.3.5 and according to the highest frequencies of the two cross-tabulated variables across fathers' communication patterns, the laissez-faire communication pattern was more likely associated with the young children of 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades followed by young children of 4<sup>th</sup> grade. While the protective communication pattern was mainly related to the young children of 2<sup>nd</sup> grade, the pluralistic communication pattern was more likely related to young children of 6<sup>th</sup> grade followed by young children of 5<sup>th</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grades respectively. The consensual communication pattern was associated with the young children of 3<sup>rd</sup> grade followed by 2<sup>nd</sup> grade. To this end, Chi-square value = 82.17 (df = 12) is significant at the level of P = 0.00 and Cramer's V coefficient value (0.17, P = 0.00) confirms the strength of association between the two variables. This result would lead to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative.

That is, there is a significant association between fathers' communication patterns and the age of young children.

In addition, Pearson correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.33$ ,  $n = 916$ ) suggests that there is a positive relationship between the concept communication structure and the young children's ages at the significant level of  $P = 0.00$ . In contrast, the negative relationship between the socio-communication structure and the age of young children ( $r = -0.01$ ,  $n = 916$ ) was not statistically significant at the level of  $P < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.68$ . In line with previous research, this result is consistent with Moschis et al.'s (1984) findings who found that there was an association between overt family communication about consumption and the ages of adolescents. They did not investigate the direct relationship between adolescents' ages and the four typologies of fathers' communication patterns. This result is consistent with Moschis' (1985) arguments; he noted that the different communication processes that involved direct transmission of specific values and behaviours from parent to child are varied by the socio-demographic characteristics.

By contrast, this result is contradicted with Moschis and Moore (1979 a), Carlson et al. (1990 a), Chan and McNeal (2003), and Caruana and Vassallo's, (2003) findings; they found that there was no relationship between parental communication patterns and young children's ages.

***H4/2: There is no significant relationship between fathers' communication patterns and their ages.***

As shown in table 9.3.5, the value of Pearson chi-square test of cross-tabulations (10.81,  $df = 12$ ) suggests that there is no relationship between fathers' communication patterns and fathers' ages at the significant level of  $P < 0.05$ , ( $P = 0.54$ ). That is, the highest frequencies of the four typologies of fathers' communication were only related to fathers' ages ranging from 35-44 years old. Cramer's V coefficient value (0.06,  $P = 0.54$ ) confirms the insignificant strength between the two variables. This result would lead to accept the null hypothesis; fathers' communication patterns do not vary by their ages. In line with previous research findings, this result is consistent with Carlson et al.'s (1990 a) findings; they found that American mothers communication patterns were not affected by their ages. This result is also contradicted with the finding of Chan and McNeal (2003);

they found that laissez-faire and protective communication patterns were respectively associated with parents of ages ranging from 40 to 49 and 50 to 59 years.

***H4/3: There is no significant relationship between Jordanian fathers' communication patterns and the gender of young children.***

As shown in table 9.3.5 and according to the highest frequencies of the two cross-tabulated variables across fathers' communication patterns, laissez-faire and pluralistic communication patterns were more likely related to girls' fathers. The protective and consensual patterns were associated with boys' fathers. To this end, Pearson chi-square value = 45.07 (df = 3) is significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$  and Cramer's V coefficient value (0.22,  $P = 0.00$ ) confirms the strength of association between the two variables. This result would lead to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative one; there is a significant association between fathers' communication patterns and the gender of young children. Comparing this result with previous studies, this result is consistent with Moschis et al.'s (1984) findings who found that there was an association between overt family communication about consumption and the gender of adolescents. They did not investigate the direct relationship between adolescents' gender and the four typologies of fathers' communication patterns. It is also consistent with Chan and McNeal's (2003) findings who found that Chinese parents' communication patterns were varied by the gender of young children and parents' gender. They found that laissez-faire communication pattern was more likely related to girls' parents. While the protective and consensual communication patterns were associated with boys' parents, the pluralistic communication pattern was associated with boys and girls parents. By contrast, it is contradicted with Moschis and Moore (1979 a) and Caruana and Vassallo's (2003) findings who found that there was no relationship between children's gender and the family communication structures and patterns.

***H4/4: There is no significant relationship between Jordanian fathers' communication patterns and the number of children in the family.***

As shown in table 9.3.5, the cross-tabulation matrix indicates that the highest frequencies of laissez-faire and consensual communication patterns were principally related to the small size of families. The protective and pluralistic communication patterns were

associated with the large size of families. Pearson chi-square's value (10.50,  $df = 6$ ) suggests to accept the null hypothesis since the association between the two cross-tabulated variables are not significant at the level of ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.10$ ). This result was supported by the weak association between the two variables; Cramer's V coefficient = 0.08 is not significant at the level of  $p < 0.05$ ,  $p = 0.10$ . In addition, Spearman's rho coefficient value ( $r = 0.02$ ,  $n = 916$ ) is not significant at the level of the ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.44$ ). Therefore, there is no significant association between fathers' communication patterns and the family size. According to previous research, this result is consistent with Carlson et al.'s (1990 b) findings. They found that the number of children in the family did not vary mothers' communication structures and patterns.

***H4/5: There is no significant relationship between Jordanian fathers' communication patterns and the household income.***

The cross-tabulation matrix, as shown in table 9.3.5, indicates that the highest frequencies of fathers' communication patterns were mainly related to family income less than 300 JD; 57% of Jordanian families' income is fallen within this category. This may be attributed to sampling procedures. Specifically, the research samples exclude private schools from the sampling frame that may reflect a high household family income. While fathers of low families' income (less than 300 JD) were more likely to be consensual, fathers of medium families' income (300 JD less than 600 JD) tend to be more Laissez-faire in their communication patterns. Fathers of high families income (600 JD and above) were associated with pluralistic communication pattern. Pearson chi-square's value (10.50,  $df = 6$ ) suggests rejecting the null hypothesis since the association between the two cross-tabulated variables is significant at the level of ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ). That is, fathers' communication patterns are varied by the household income. This result was supported by the weak association between the two variables; Cramer's V coefficient = 0.09 is significant at the level of  $p < 0.05$ ,  $p = 0.01$ . In line with previous research, while this result contradicted with Carlson et al.'s (1990 b) findings, it is partially consistent with Chan and McNeal's (2003) findings. Carlson et al. (1990 b) found that mothers communication patterns were not affected by family income. Chan and McNeal (2003) found that parents' communication patterns were differed by parents' income. While the

laissez-faire parents associated with the low household income, the pluralistic and consensual parents were associated with the highest levels of household income.

***H4/6: There is no significant relationship between Jordanian fathers' communication patterns and fathers' educational levels.***

As shown in table 9.3.5, Pearson chi-square value = 15.84 (df = 15) is not significant at the level of  $P < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.39$ , and Cramer's V coefficient (0.08,  $P = 0.039 > 0.05$ ) confirms the insignificant strength between the two cross-tabulated variables. This result would lead to accept the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between fathers' communication patterns and fathers' educational levels. In line with previous research, this result is consistent with Moschis and Moore (1979), Moschis et al. (1984), and Carlson et al.'s (1990 b) findings; they found that there is no relationship between parents' educational levels and their communication patterns. By contrast, this result is contradicted with Rose (1999) and Chan and McNeal's (2003) findings. In that context, Rose (1999) studied the consumer socialisation of American and Japanese young children and mothers' expectations of young children's development related to consumer skills and their ability to understand the TV advertising messages. He found that the educational levels of American and Japanese mothers were positively related to their communication about consumption and negatively related to consumption autonomy. On the other hand, Chan and McNeal (2003) found that the laissez-faire parents were associated with the low educational level and the protective parents were more likely to be associated with a medium level of education. The pluralistic and consensual communication patterns were associated with the high levels of parents' education.

***H4/7: There is no significant relationship between fathers' communication patterns and fathers' occupation.***

As shown in table 9.3.5, the cross-tabulation matrix indicates that the highest frequencies of fathers' communication patterns were associated with the employees of private sector; 55% of fathers are working in private sector. While fathers who worked in the state sector were more likely to be consensual, fathers of self-employed tend to be more pluralistic in their communication. According to Pearson chi-square value (7.33, df = 6), these frequencies are not significant at the level of ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $p = 0.29$ ).

The strength of association between the two cross-tabulated variables was not supported by the value of Cramer V coefficient = 0.06 which is not significant at the level of ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $p = 0.29$ ).

Table 9.3.5: Cross-tabulation tests / the relationship between the antecedents variables and fathers' communication patterns

Variables	Fathers communication patterns*				%Total sample
	Laissez-faire	Protective	Pluralistic	Consensual	
<b>1) Young children ages</b>	Pearson Chi-Square = 82.17, P = 0.00 < 0.01, df = 12				
- 8 years old (2 <sup>nd</sup> grade)	17%	32%	8%	23%	19.3%
- 9 years old (3 <sup>rd</sup> grade)	24%	13%	18%	25%	19.6%
- 10 years old (4 <sup>th</sup> grade)	23%	15%	23%	17%	19.7%
- 11 years old (5 <sup>th</sup> grade)	12%	25%	24%	19%	20.6%
- 12 years old (6 <sup>th</sup> grade)	24%	15%	27%	16%	20.7%
<b>2) Fathers ages</b>	Pearson Chi-Square = 10.81, P = 0.54 > 0.05, df = 12				
- Under 25 years old	4%	4%	4%	3%	4%
- 25- 34 years old	24%	22%	18%	18%	20%
- 35- 44 years old	51%	57%	54%	58%	55%
- 45-54 years old	15%	13%	20%	16%	16%
- 55 years old and above	6%	4%	3%	4%	4%
<b>3) Gender:</b>	Pearson Chi-Square = 45.07, P = 0.00 < 0.01, df = 3				
- Boys	32%	54%	45%	64%	49%
- Girls	68%	46%	55%	36%	51%
<b>4) Family size</b>	Pearson Chi-Square = 10.50, P = 0.10 > 0.05, df = 6				
- Small size (1-4)	48%	39%	36%	41%	40%
- Medium size (5)	15%	19%	21%	23%	20%
- Large size (6 and above)	37%	41%	43%	36%	40%
<b>5) Family income</b>	Pearson Chi-Square = 15.71, p = 0.01 < 0.05, df = 6				
- Less than 300 JD	56%	58%	52%	66%	57%
- 300-less than 600 JD	29%	27.5%	27.9%	24.8%	27%
- 600 JD and above	15%	15%	20%	9%	15%
<b>6) Fathers education</b>	Pearson Chi-Square = 15.84, P = 0.39 > 0.05, df = 15				
- Under Al-twjihi	21%	27%	24%	32%	26%
- Alt-wjihi	33%	31%	29%	22%	29%
- Diploma certificate	24%	21%	23%	25%	23%
- Bachelor degree	16%	17%	18%	19%	18%
- Master degree	4%	2%	4%	1.9%	3%
- PhD degree	2%	.8%	1%	.5%	1%
<b>7) Fathers occupation</b>	Pearson Chi-Square = 7.33, P = 0.29 > 0.05, df = 6				
- Government officials	29%	28%	25%	31%	28.0%
- Private sector	50%	58%	56%	56%	55.2%
- Self-employed	20%	14%	19%	13%	16.8%

(\*) Zero cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5.

This result would lead to accept the null hypothesis that there is no significant association between fathers' communication patterns and fathers' occupation. However, while this result is consistent with Carlson et al.'s (1990) finding who found that the family communication patterns were not affected by mother's occupation, it was contradicted with Chan and McNeal's (2003) finding. They found that laissez-faire parents comprise a higher proportion of government officials. Pluralistic parents were more likely to be teachers/researchers while consensual parents were more likely to be engaged in professional or administrative positions.

**H5: Young children perception of fathers' mediation of the influence of TV viewing on their consumption behaviours does not vary across fathers' communication patterns.**

Attention to television commercial depends on personal factors and stimulus factors. Personal factors include parental and peer influences, level of motivation and attitudes towards commercial. Stimulus factors include the nature of the television programme, the content of the commercial and the product advertised (McNeal, 1987) whereas parental mediation of TV advertising influences is occurred through the intentional activities such as making restrictions on a child's TV viewing and parent-child critical discussion about the television advertising (Fujioka and Austin, 2002). Therefore, the hypothesis tends to answer the following question:

Do fathers' communication patterns have an equal impact in mediating the influences of viewing TV commercial advertising on young children's consumption behaviours?

To this end, a Multivariate Analysis Of Variance (MANOVA) and one-way Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) techniques were employed to examine which type(s) of fathers' communication patterns has/have superiority over neutralising the influences of TV commercial advertising on their young children's consumption behaviour. The variable of fathers' communication patterns was identified as an independent variable and young children's perceptions of (a) co-viewing TV with their fathers, (b) fathers control of viewing TV, and (c) fathers' discussions about the media advertising were identified as dependent variables. A number of researchers such as Carlson et al. (1990 a), Rose et al.

(1998), Chan and McNeal (2003), and Mukherji (2005) employed MANOVA and ANOVA techniques in exploring the impact of family communication patterns in mediating the influence of television viewing on children's consumer behaviour.

In this regard, Pallant (2005) and Field (2006) noted that MANOVA technique is useful to be employed prior to conducting a series of ANOVA analysis to protect the inflation of type I error. MANOVA technique is also preferred when the dependent variables are correlated. Therefore, the correlation analysis was firstly conducted to measure the association between the three dependent variables prior to conducting the MANOVA technique. As shown in table 9.3.6, the results indicate that fathers discussion about the content of media commercial advertising was positively associated with fathers-children co-viewing TV ( $r = 0.27, p = 0.00 < 0.01$ ) and negatively associated with the control of viewing TV ( $r = - 0.10 p = 0.003 < 0.01$ ). The moderate correlations among the dependent variables avoid the effect of multicollinearity between the dependent variables. In addition, there is a non-significant association between co-viewing TV and fathers' control on viewing TV ( $r = 0.04, p = 0.24 > 0.05$ ). Chan and McNeal (2003) found that parents who watched television more frequently with children were more likely to discuss commercial advertising with them and parents who discussed less with children about TV commercial were more likely to exert control on children's television viewing. They also found that there is a very weak relationship between co-viewing TV and fathers' control on viewing TV ( $r = 0.02, p < 0.05$ ).

Table 9.3.6: Correlation coefficients between the dependent variables of young children's perception of fathers' mediation the influence of TV

Variables	Co-viewing TV	Control viewing TV	Discuss advertising
Co-viewing TV	1	0.04	0.27(**)
<i>Sig. (2-tailed), p =</i>	-	0.24	0.000
Control viewing TV	0.04	1	- 0.10(**)
<i>Sig. (2-tailed), p =</i>	0.24	-	0.003
Discuss advertising	0.27(**)	- 0.10(**)	1
<i>Sig. (2-tailed), p =</i>	0.000	0.003	-

\*\* Pearson correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In addition, the assumptions of MANOVA and ANOVA analyses were explored before conducting the analyses. The large sample removes or at least reduces the effect of violations on research results; it would not make significant differences in the analysis

(Tabachnik and Fidell, 2001; Pallant, 2005; Field, 2006) and the modest departures from ANOVA assumptions (normality and a constant variance) do not seriously affect the validity of the analysis (Malhotra and Birks, 2007: 555). In that context, the large sample of research,  $n = 916$  for each sample of fathers and young children, and the size of each cell of fathers communication patterns are large and relatively equal; pluralistic fathers 30.5%, protective fathers 25.8%, consensual fathers 23.3%, and laissez-faire fathers 20.5% of research elements.

Moreover, Mahalanobis distance test was conducted to secure the effect of the outliers; it measures how many cases values on the independent or dependent variables differ from the average of all cases. It based on the degrees of freedom value that reflects the number of the dependent variables (Pallant, 2005: 250). In this respect, the value of a Mahalanobis distance = 14.0 was compared to the critical value of chi-square at the level of alpha significant = 0.001. It was less than the critical value of chi-square = 16.27.

However, the MANOVA test indicates that there was a significant difference among fathers' communication patterns on the combination of the three dependent variables. That is, young children's perceptions of fathers' mediation of the influence of TV viewing were related to fathers' communication patterns; Wilks' Lambda value = 0.767 is significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ , F-ratio (9, 2215) = 28.35; the proportion of the variance in the dependent variables that are explained by fathers' communication patterns (partial Eta squared) = 0.085. In addition, the robust tests of Pillai's Trace value, F-ratio (9, 2736) = 0.243 is significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ ; partial Eta squared = 0.081. Fathers communication patterns were related to all the dependent variables at the level of  $P = 0.00$  albeit include the grade, gender, and the household income as covariates variables. In that context, the values of Wilks' Lambda = 0.786 and F-ratio (9, 2207) = 25.575 are significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$  and the partial Eta squared was decreased by 0.8%. In order to determine the differences among fathers communication patterns, the overall MANOVA followed by a univariate ANOVA's and Tukey-HSD paired comparison were conducted to examine how the four types of fathers' communication patterns differed in mediating the influence of television viewing.

As shown in table 9.3.7, the (F) ratios suggest that at least one of fathers' communication patterns differs from others across the dependent variables; the F ratios ranged from 23.05 to 44.46 and were statistically significant at the level  $P = 0.00$  at the degree of freedom = 3. The size of F ratios reflects a high variability between young children's perceptions of fathers' mediations caused by fathers' communication patterns. On the other hand, the F ratios do not reflect which pattern(s) of communication has/have the superiority across the dependent variables.

### 9.3.7: Univariate analysis of variance (between-subjects effects)

Dependent variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta squared
Co-viewing TV	391.550	3	130.517	23.05	.00	.07
Control viewing TV	837.481	3	279.160	30.44	.00	.09
Discuss advertising	947.360	3	315.787	44.46	.00	.13

According to Tukey-HSD paired comparisons test, as shown in table 9.3.8, the pluralistic fathers were more likely to co-view TV with their young children on weekdays and weekends than laissez-faire fathers (mean diff. = 1.53) and protective fathers (mean diff. = 1.37); these differences are significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00$ ). While consensual fathers were more likely to co-view TV with their young children than laissez-faire fathers (mean diff. = 1.15) and protective fathers (mean diff. = 1.00) at the level of ( $P = 0.00 < 01$ ), consensual and pluralistic fathers have the same degree of frequency related to co-view TV with young children (mean diff. = 0.38,  $P = 0.30 > 05$ ).

In addition, Tukey-HSD test showed that protective fathers were more likely than laissez-faire (mean diff. = 1.86) and pluralistic fathers (mean diff. = 2.28) to place restrictions on the time of viewing TV, TV's programmes and on the number of hours of watching TV. These differences are significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00$ ). There is insignificant difference between protective and consensual fathers' control TV of viewing (mean diff. = -0.55,  $P = 0.22 > 05$ ).

Table 9.3.8: Descriptive statistics of ANOVA's test

Fathers' com. patterns	Co-viewing TV		Control viewing TV		Discuss ads.	
	Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation	Mean	Std. deviation
Laissez-faire fathers	9.83	2.79	8.50	2.99	6.87	2.57
Protective fathers	9.99	2.47	10.36	3.06	6.02	2.67
Pluralistic fathers	11.36	2.01	8.08	3.19	8.58	2.53
Consensual fathers	10.98	2.33	9.81	2.79	7.94	2.88

In relation to fathers' discussions about commercial advertising, Tukey-HSD test showed that the pluralistic fathers scored the highest paired differences compared to other fathers' communication patterns. Specifically, pluralistic fathers discuss more frequently the commercial advertising with their young children than laissez-faire (mean diff. = 1.71), protective (mean diff. = 2.5), and consensual (mean diff. = 0.64) fathers. These differences are significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00 < 0.01$ ) except consensual fathers ( $P = 0.04 < 0.05$ ). Consensual fathers scored significant differences with laissez-faire (mean diff. = 1.07) and protective fathers (mean diff. = 1.9) at the level of  $P = 0.00$ . Fathers of laissez-faire communication pattern discuss the commercial advertising with their young children more than protective fathers (mean diff. = 0.84,  $p = .007$ ).

Finally, a univariate ANOVA and Tukey-HSD paired comparison were conducted to examine children's positive perception of fathers' mediation of the influence of TV commercial advertising across fathers' communication patterns. This variable was not entered with other dependents' variables into a MANOVA model to avoid the multicollinearity and singularity; it represents the total scores of the dependent variables and is highly correlated with them. In this regard, Pallant (2005) and Field (2006) noted that if the researcher chooses to conduct a series of univariate ANOVA's analysis without conducting the initial MANOVA, he/she should reduce the alpha value (typically 0.05) through dividing it by the number of dependent variables before considering the significant results that should not be greater than 0.017 (Pallant, 2005). Therefore, alpha value was reduced to 0.01. When the variances of dependent variable are not equal across groups, the Welch and Brown-Forsythe statistics are alternatives to the usual F test (Pallant, 2005). As the sample size increases, the distributions of these statistics converge to an F distribution.

However, the F ratio of Brown-Forsythe (3, 898) = 78.17 is statistically significant at the level of  $p = 0.00 < 0.01$ . Tukey-HSD and Games-Howell comparison means tests have the same results across the categories of the independent variables. Games-Howell test is usually used when the variances of dependent variable are not equal (Field, 2006). These results confirmed the arguments that when the sample size is increased, the significance of results is not likely to be influenced by the violations of parametric tests assumptions.

However, the pluralistic children scored the highest mean value = 29.85 followed by consensual = 27.11, laissez-faire = 26.19, and protective children = 23.65 relating to children's positive perception of fathers mediation of the influence TV on their consumer behaviour.

Games-Howell and Tukey-HSD tests showed that the pluralistic children are more likely than other children to perceive the positive gate-keeping role of their fathers against the influence of TV commercial advertising; laissez-faire: mean diff. = 3.67, protective: mean diff. = 6.20, and consensual children: mean diff. = 2.74 are significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00 < 01$ ). While the consensual and laissez-faire children have shared the same degree of perception of fathers' gate-keeping role ( $P = 0.23 > 0.01$ ), the consensual children are more likely to perceive fathers role as positive (mean diff. = 3.46,  $P = 0.00 < 0.01$ ) than the protective children. Children of laissez-faire fathers communication pattern are more frequently perceived the positive gate-keeping role of their fathers (mean diff. = 2.54,  $P = 0.00 < 01$ ) than protective children.

Consequently, MANOVA, One-way ANOVA and Tukey-HSD results would reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. That is, fathers' communication patterns play different gate-keeping roles in mediating the influence of television viewing in young children's consumption behaviour.

In line with previous research, these results are entirely consistent with Rose et al.'s (1998) findings. They found that American mothers maintained greater control over children's TV viewing and lower levels of co-viewing than Japanese mothers did. American mothers held negative attitudes toward children's advertising as a result of mother-child discussion. In general, they found that consensual and pluralistic mothers discussed TV advertising with their children more frequently than protective and laissez-faire mothers did. Consensual mothers have higher levels of control of TV viewing than laissez-faire and pluralistic mothers did, whereas protective mothers maintained a greater control of TV viewing than laissez-faire mothers did. In a similar vein, Carlson et al. (1990 b) found that pluralistic and consensual mothers were more likely to discuss the commercial advertising and co-viewing the TV with their young children than laissez-faire and protective mothers. Consensual mothers impose more controls on children's TV

viewing than laissez-faire, pluralistic, and protective mothers do. Recently, Bristol and Mangleburg (2005) found that teens' television viewing is significantly varied by the family communication patterns; teens of protective and consensual families were more likely to viewing TV than the teens' of pluralistic or laissez-faire families.

**H6: There are no differences among young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products across fathers' communication patterns.**

Previous literature suggests that children's consumption behaviour of socio-oriented family communication structure that mainly portrayed on "protective communication pattern" is usually associated with non-rational or social influence model; they are more susceptible to outside-the home influences both commercial advertising and non-commercial advertising and have less competence skills related consumption issues. In contrast, children of concept-oriented communication structure that mainly portrayed on "pluralistic communication pattern" are more likely to rely on a rational or economic model in their consumption behaviour (Moschis, 1985). In this regard, the general null hypothesis was partitioned into the following sub-hypotheses:

H6/1: The consumer affairs knowledge of young children is not varied by fathers' communication patterns (an aggregation of 17 statements/interval scale).

H6/2: The frequency of young children shopping independently at different stores of grocery and food products is not varied by fathers' communication patterns (an aggregation of 6 items/interval scales).

H6/3: Young children's ability to buy a certain grocery item and food products for the family use independently is not varied by fathers' communication patterns (an aggregation of 6 items/ three-points scale).

H6/4: Young children's ability to buy a certain grocery item and food products for own use independently is not varied by fathers' communication patterns (an aggregation of 4 items/three-points scale).

H6/5: The desirable choice rules and strategies used by young children in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products are not varied by fathers' communication patterns (factor of 12 items/three-points scale).

H6/6: The undesirable choice rules and strategies used by young children in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products are not varied by fathers' communication patterns (factor of 13 items/three-points scale).

H6/7: Young children's attitudes towards stores are not varied by fathers' communication patterns (factor of 4 items/four-points scale).

H6/8: Young children's scepticism towards TV advertising oriented children's grocery and food products is not varied by fathers' communication patterns (factor of 4 items/four-points scale).

H6/9: Young children's attitudes towards recreations and economic motivations of TV advertising are not varied by fathers' communication patterns (factor of 3 items/four-points scale).

H6/10: Young children's attitudes towards materialistic values are not varied across fathers' communication patterns (factor of 3 items/four-points scale).

To test the null hypothesis, One-way MANOVA technique followed by a series of a univariate ANOVA tests were conducted to investigate the differences of fathers' communication patterns as independent variable across the ten dependent variables of young children's consumer skill, knowledge, and attitudes. Since these variables had been measured on different scales and prior to conduct the correlation analysis to examine the degree to which the dependent variables are associated, the dependent variables were transformed to Z scores through using "standardisation" procedure. This procedure was used by Moschis and Moore (1979 a), Moore and Moschis (1978 a and 1981) in the investigation of the family influences on the acquisition of consumer skills during the adolescence period; they set the overall mean of a group of dependent variables "scale" at zero with a standard deviation = 1.00. In addition, a number of researchers such as Norman and Streiner (1999: 14), Field (2006) and Malhotra and Birks (2007: 491) have noted that if the research data consist of different measurement scales, the standardisation procedure that is referred to Z scores of variables (mean = 0.00 at standard deviation = 1) can be applied on research data. This procedure allows the researcher to compare the results of tests that use different scales.

As shown in table 9.3.9, there were significant associations among the dependent variables that ranged from coefficient ( $r = -0.10$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) to ( $0.64$ ,  $P = 0.00 < 0.01$ ). The highest correlation coefficients were associated with the frequency of young children shopping independently at different stores of grocery and food products, young children's ability to buy grocery and food products for the family use or for own use independently, and the desirable and undesirable choice rules used by young children in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products.

Table 9.3.9: Correlation coefficients between the dependent variables of children's consumer role

Dependent variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1) Consumer affairs knowledge	1								
2) Shopping independently	.20**	1							
3) Family use	.26**	.60**	1						
4) Own use	.28**	.45**	.58**	1					
5) Undesirable choice rules		-.21**	-.21**	-.10**	1				
6) Desirable choice rules	.43**	.47**	.64**	.64**	-.22**	1			
7) Attitude toward stores	.24**	.11**	.11**	.20**	.12**	.24**	1		
8) Scepticism to children grocery and food advertising	.26**	.13**	.15**	.22**	.19**	.20**	.25**	1	
9) Recreations and economic motivations attitudes TV ads		.14**	.17**	.231**	.10**	.32**	.19**	.12**	1
10) Materialistic attitudes	.20**	.11**	.22**	.28**		.38**	.31**	.10**	.36**

(\*\*) Pearson correlation is significant at the  $0.0 < 0.01$  level (2-tailed).

However, the overall multivariate test showed that the set of dependent variables of young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes of grocery and food products were highly related to fathers' communication patterns. In that context, Wilks' Lambda value = 0.76 is significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ ,  $F = 8.73$ , (30, 2651) and the other robust tests of MANOVA Pillai's Trace;  $F$  value = 8.39 (30, 2715), Hotelling's Trace;  $F = 9.07$ (30, 2705) are also significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ .

Even though include young children's ages, gender, and household monthly income as covariate variables, fathers communication patterns were related to all dependent variables at the significant level of  $P = 0.00$ . Based on Wilks' Lambda test, the partial Eta squared indicates that fathers' communication patterns explained 9% of means

differences of young children consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes related to grocery and food products. According to Cohen (1988) guidelines, it represents a moderate effect. This ratio is consistent with previous research. Earlier, Ward et al. (1977 a) found that family variables explained 10%-15% of the variance in children’s consumer skills.

According to these results, a series of univariate analysis of variance and Tukey-HSD and Games-Howell paired comparisons were conducted to examine how young children’s consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes relating to grocery and food products differed across the four typologies of fathers’ communication patterns. As shown in table 9.3.10, the (F) ratios of dependent variables ranged from 2.84 to 42.80 and statistically significant at the levels of ( $P < 0.05$  or  $0.01$ ). Each F ratio indicates that at least one pattern of fathers’ communication typology differs from others across the dependent variables except the variable of young children’s attitudes towards stores ( $F = 1.47$  (3, 912),  $P = 0.22 > 0.05$ , Eta squared = 0.5%). that is, young children’s attitudes towards stores are not varied by fathers communication patterns.

Table 9.3.10: ANOVA test (between-subjects effects)

Dependent variables	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Consumer affairs knowledge	77.156	3	25.719	2.841	.037	.009
Shopping independently	5550.645	3	1850.215	26.868	.000	.081
Family use	873.554	3	291.185	23.373	.000	.071
Own use	154.084	3	51.361	22.092	.000	.068
Desirable choice rules	4874.318	3	1624.773	42.796	.000	.123
Undesirable choice rules	1057.139	3	352.380	29.311	.000	.088
Attitude toward stores	13.479	3	4.493	1.475	.220	.005
Scepticism to advertising	73.972	3	24.657	2.692	.045	.009
Recreation and economic ads	44.543	3	14.848	3.611	.013	.012
Materialistic attitudes	100.287	3	33.429	8.088	.000	.026

On the other hand, the partial Eta squared “the strength of association” indicates that fathers’ communication patterns explained 12% of means variations of young children’s desirable choice rules and 9% of undesirable choice rules that used in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products. In addition, these patterns explained 8% of the frequency of young children’s shopping independence at different stores of grocery and food products and 7% of young children ability to buy certain grocery and food products for the family use and for own use. The lowest explanation 0.9% was associated with

young children consumer affairs knowledge. According to Cohen's (1988) guidelines, the proportion below 6% represents a small variation. The highest proportion of fathers' communication patterns related to the choice rules of grocery and food products can be accounted for the concept-orientation and frequency of co-shopping devoted by fathers to develop the shopping consumer skills of their young children.

Table 9.3.11: Descriptive statistics of ANOVA's test

Variables	Laissez-faire fathers		Protective fathers		Pluralistic fathers		Consensual fathers	
	Mean	Std. dev.	Mean	Std. dev.	Mean	Std. dev.	Mean	Std. dev.
Consumer affairs knowledge	10.70	3.20	11.18	3.04	11.53	2.88	11.14	2.96
Shopping independently	12.71	6.70	12.82	7.18	18.28	9.01	16.59	9.65
Family use	11.70	4.08	11.63	3.33	13.93	3.34	12.52	3.46
Own use	10.35	1.58	10.15	1.42	11.13	1.57	10.27	1.52
Desirable choice rules	23.69	5.96	22.34	5.59	28.17	6.63	24.32	6.29
Undesirable choice rules	28.59	3.26	30.27	3.75	27.47	3.53	29.25	3.22
Attitude toward stores	7.49	1.89	7.83	1.62	7.77	1.83	7.73	1.63
Scepticism to advertising	10.45	3.13	11.11	3.08	11.02	3.13	11.26	2.72
Recreation and economic ads	8.77	2.18	8.69	2.00	9.18	1.91	9.15	2.06
Materialistic attitudes	7.63	2.10	7.16	2.02	8.04	1.99	7.53	2.04

As shown in table 9.3.11, the pluralistic children scored the highest mean in all dependent variables compared to other young children except for the variables of undesirable choice rules and scepticism to TV commercial advertising oriented grocery and food products. While the undesirable choice rules of evaluation and selection of grocery and food products were associated with protective children, the consensual children scored the highest mean in scepticism towards TV commercial advertising oriented grocery and food products. The laissez-faire children hold the least attitudes towards stores of grocery and food products. Since the F's ratios and the descriptive statistics of ANOVA tables do not reflect the significance levels of the means differences, Tukey-HSD and Games-Howell paired comparisons were conducted to determine which group has the superiority across the dependent variables.

***In relation to consumer affairs knowledge,*** Tukey-HSD test showed that pluralistic children are more knowledgeable about the marketplace terminologies and activities related to finance, stores, products' quality and brands, and on sales prices than laissez-

faire children (mean diff. = 0.83,  $P = 0.02 < 0.05$ ). While there were no differences between laissez-faire and protective (mean diff. = - 0.48,  $P = 0.37 > 0.05$ ) and consensual children (mean diff. = - 0.44,  $P = 0.46 > 0.05$ ), there was also no difference between consensual and protective young children (mean diff. = -.035,  $P = 0.999 > 0.05$ ).

***In relation to shopping independence*** at different stores of grocery and food products, Games-Howell test indicated that there was no difference between laissez-faire and protective young children relating to shop independently at supermarkets, corner stores of vegetables and fruits, specialised stores of chicken, meat, and fish, bakery shops, restaurant of breakfast food, and libraries. That is, the mean difference is not significant at the level of  $P < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.999$ . In contrast, pluralistic and consensual children are more likely to go shopping independently at these stores than laissez-faire (mean diff. = 5.57,  $P = 0.00$ , consensual: mean diff. = 3.88,  $P = 0.00$ ), and protective young children (mean diff. = 5.46,  $P = 0.00$ , consensual: mean diff. = 3.77,  $P = 0.00$ ). Pluralistic and consensual young children have the same degree of frequency relating to visit these stores ( $P = 0.20 > 0.05$ ).

***In relation to buying products for the family use***, Games-Howell test showed that pluralistic children are more likely to buy the groups of grocery and food products (dishwashing liquid and shampoo), (yoghurt, salt, rice, eggs, deli), bread loaves, breakfast food, (chicken, meat, and fish), and (vegetables and fruits) for the family use than laissez-faire (mean diff. = 2.24,  $P = 0.00$ ) and protective (mean diff. = 2.31,  $P = 0.00$ ), and consensual children (mean diff. = 1.42,  $P = 0.00$ ). While there were no differences between consensual and laissez-faire children in buying these products for the family use ( $P = 0.138 > 0.05$ ), the consensual children are more frequently buying these products for the family use than protective children do ( $P = 0.04 < 0.05$ ). There was no significant difference at the level of ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.998$ ) between protective and laissez-faire young children in buying these kinds of products for the family use.

***In relation to buying products for own use***, Tukey-HSD test showed that pluralistic children are more frequently buying the groups of products (chocolates, chewing gum, and chips), (soft drink, fruit juice, and ice cream), school supply, and sandwiches for own use than the protective (mean diff. = 0.97,  $P = 0.00$ ), the consensual (mean diff. = 0.86,  $P$

= 0.00) and the laissez-faire children (mean diff. = 0.78,  $P = 0.00$ ). By contrast, there were no differences between protective, consensual and laissez-faire children at significance level of  $P < 0.05$  in relation to buying these products for their own use.

***In relation to desirable choice rules***, according to Games-Howell test, pluralistic young children were more likely than protective (mean diff. = 5.83,  $P = 0.00$ ), laissez-faire (mean diff. = 4.48,  $P = 0.00$ ), and consensual young children (mean diff. = 3.85,  $P = 0.00$ ) to rely on desirable choice rules and strategies in evaluating and selecting the grocery and food products bought either for the family use or for own use. Specifically, pluralistic children followed by consensual young children are frequently bargaining the prices of the products with the salespeople and choosing the right quality at the right price, based on sales prices, checking the cap and the carton of product's packaging, checking the expiry date of products prior to selection. On the other hand, while there was no significant difference between consensual and laissez-faire children relating to the use of these choice rules (mean diff. = 0.63,  $P = 0.73 > 0.05$ ), the laissez-faire and protective children have the same degree of frequency in using the desirable choice rules and strategies (mean diff. = 1.3482,  $P = 0.083 > 0.05$ ). There was a significant difference between consensual and protective young children at the level of  $P < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.004$ , diff. = 0.58. Consensual children were more likely than protective children to rely on desirable choice rules and strategies in evaluating and selecting the grocery and food products bought either for the family use or for own use.

***In relation to undesirable choice rules***, Tukey-HSD test showed that the protective young children scored the highest mean differences related to the undesirable choice rules used in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products compared to the pluralistic children (mean diff. = 2.80,  $P = 0.00$ ), laissez-faire (mean diff. = 1.68,  $P = 0.00$ ), and consensual children (mean diff. = 1.01,  $P = 0.01 < 0.05$ ). In that context, they were frequently based on the cheapest price of products regardless of quality, paid more attention for the social utilities in selecting the products, relied on the external appearance of products and based on TV commercial advertising in the evaluation and selection of the grocery and food product that used by them. For the sake of non-repetitions, please see section 9.2.6 of descriptive analysis. In addition, laissez-faire children were more

likely to rely on the undesirable choice rules more than the pluralistic children (mean diff. = 1.123,  $P = 0.004 < 0.01$ ) and shared with the consensual children the same degree of using the undesirable choice rules (mean diff. = -0.66,  $P = 0.22 > 0.05$ ). The consensual children more frequently used the undesirable choice rules than the pluralistic children did (mean diff. = 1.78,  $P = 0.00$ ).

***In relation to scepticism attitudes towards TV advertising oriented children's grocery and food products,*** Tukey-HSD test indicated that there were no differences between protective, pluralistic, and consensual children in their scepticism attitudes towards TV advertising oriented children's grocery and food products. These differences were not statistically significant at the level of  $p < 0.05$ . Specifically, while the mean diff. between consensual and protective children is 0.15, ( $P = 0.95 > 0.05$ ), the mean diff. between protective and pluralistic children equals 0.08 ( $P = 0.99 > 0.05$ ). The mean diff. between pluralistic children and laissez-faire children is 0.57 ( $P = 0.19 > 0.05$ ). In this regard, it is not surprising that studies find children from protective homes to be susceptible to the influence of external sources, such as peers and television advertising (Moschis, 1985: 909). In contrast, the consensual children showed more scepticism attitudes towards the credibility of TV commercial advertising oriented children grocery and food products than the laissez-faire children (mean diff. = 0.81,  $P = 0.04 < 0.05$ ). They believe that TV commercial advertisements do not provide a true picture for the advertised products and use tricks and gimmicks to get the young children to buy the advertised products. They believe that the TV commercial advertisements urge young children to buy things they do not really need them and present much grocery and food products that contain much sugar and artificial flavours.

***In relation to young children's attitudes towards recreations and economic motivations,*** Games-Howell test showed that pluralistic children exhibited more positive attitudes towards recreations and economic motivations of viewing TV commercial advertising than protective children (mean diff. = 0.49,  $P = 0.02 < 0.05$ ). They watched the TV commercial advertising because it presents funny pictures and introduces much grocery and food products-related to children's grocery and food products. On the other hand, there were no differences between protective, consensual, and laissez-faire children

on their attitudes towards recreations and economic motivations of TV advertising; these variations were not statistically significant at the level of  $P < 0.05$ .

***In relation to young children's attitudes towards materialistic values***, Tukey-HSD test showed that pluralistic children exhibited more positive attitudes towards materialistic values than protective children did (mean diff. = 0.88,  $P = 0.00$ ); they used to buy the newest brands and expensive grocery and food product and they usually get what they want. By contrast, there were no statistically significant differences either between pluralistic, consensual, and laissez-faire children or between other patterns of communication at the level of  $P < 0.05$ . In this regard, there is a positive association between fathers' concept oriented communication structure and the young children's attitudes towards materialism values ( $r = 0.23$ ,  $P = 0.00 < 0.01$ ), and likewise there is a weak negative association between socio-oriented fathers' communication structure and young children's attitudes towards materialism values ( $r = -0.07$ ,  $P = 0.04 < 0.05$ ). This result is contradicted with Moore and Moschis's (1981) findings. They found that there was a significant correlation between socio-oriented family communication structure and adolescent attitudes towards materialism values. By contrast, the relationship between the concept-oriented communication structure and the adolescent attitudes towards materialism values was not significant at the level of  $P < 0.05$ . Adolescents from pluralistic homes know more about consumer matters and are more likely to perform consumer activities portrayed as socially desirable. In addition, these children tend to score lower on materialism than do their counterparts.

In summary, these results would lead to accept partially the main null hypothesis. That is, while there is no difference among young children's attitudes towards stores across fathers' communication patterns, the other consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes, as stated in table 9.3.10, were varied across fathers' communication patterns. However, these results are consistent with the general findings of previous research. Specifically, Moschis and Moore (1979 a) found that the adolescents of pluralistic families (a) have greater consumer knowledge, (b) are better able to filter puffery in advertising, and (c) are better able to cognitively differentiate among products than adolescents from any other types of family communication patterns. Moore and Moschis (1981) found that the

adolescents of pluralistic families scored the highest correlation coefficients relating to the consumer activities and consumer knowledge. In addition, while the pluralistic parents are more likely to use positive reinforcement, protective parents are more likely to use negative reinforcement (Moschis et al., 1984). Carlson et al. (1990 b) found that the pluralistic and consensual mothers are more likely to hold positive consumer goals, discuss advertising, co-view TV with their young children, consider children's opinions about family purchases decisions, allow their children to buy independently, and to co-shop with their young children than laissez-faire and protective mothers are. By contrast, Bristol and Mangleburg (2005) examined the relationship between teenagers' deception in purchasing and family communication patterns. They found that the teens of protective and consensual families have more orientations towards materialism values than teens of pluralistic and laissez-faire families.

**H7: Young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products are not varied by the ages of young children.**

The main null hypothesis was partitioned into the following sub-hypotheses:

H7/1: The frequency of young children's shopping independence at different stores of grocery and food products is not varied by the age of young children.

H7/2: Young children's ability to buy a certain grocery and food products for the family use independently is not varied by the age of young children.

H7/3: Young children's ability to buy certain grocery and food products for own use independently is not varied by the age of young children.

H7/4: The rational buying skills of young children used in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products are not varied by the age of young children.

H7/5: The irrational buying skills "external appearance" of young children used in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products are not varied by the age of young children.

H7/6: Young children's attitudes towards stores are not varied by the age of young children.

H7/7: Young children's scepticism towards TV advertising oriented children's grocery and food products is not varied by the age of young children

H7/8: Young children’s attitudes towards recreations and economic motivations of TV advertising “social utilities” are not varied by the age of young children.

H7/9: The product knowledge of young children is not varied across their ages.

H7/10: The finance and price knowledge of young children are not varied across their ages.

H7/11: The legislation knowledge of young children is not varied across their ages.

H7/12: The stores’ knowledge of young children is not varied across their ages.

The same procedures that used in testing the impact of fathers’ communication patterns on children’ consumer role were employed to investigate the effect of young children’s ages on their consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products. Based on “standardisation” procedure, the correlation analysis was firstly conducted to secure the associations between the dependent variables as a pre-requisite for conducting the MANOVA test. As shown in table 9.3.12, there were significant associations among the dependent variables that ranged from coefficient ( $r = -0.07$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ), to ( $0.64$ ,  $P = 0.00 < 0.01$ ). The highest correlation coefficients were associated with the frequency of young children shopping independently at different stores of grocery and food products, their ability to buy grocery and food products for the family use or for own use independently, and rational buying skills employed by young children in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products. The moderate and strong correlations among the dependent variables keep-down the multicollinearity influences on the results of multivariate analysis. The correlation coefficient among the dependent variables should not exceed 0.80 (Pallant, 2005: 255).

Table 9.3.12: Correlation coefficients between the dependent variables of young children’s consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes

Dependent variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1) Shopping independence	1							
2) Family use	.60**	1						
3) Own use	.45**	.58**	1					
4) Rational Buying skills	.46**	.64**	.64**	1				
5) Irrational Buying skills	-.11**	-.11**		-.16**	1			
6) Attitudes towards stores	.11**	.11**	.20**	.24**	.09**	1		
7) Scepticism towards ads	.13**	.15**	.22**	.19**	.15**	.25**	1	
8) Social utilities	.11**	.17**	.24**	.25**	.22**	.33**	.30**	1

Continued Table 9.3.12

Dependent variables	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1) Shopping independence	.13**	.24**	.146**	
2) Family use	.20**	.20**	.26**	
3) Own use	.22**	.18**	.27**	.07*
4) Rational Buying skills	.34**	.29**	.39**	.09**
5) Irrational Buying skills				
6) Attitudes towards stores	.11**	.18**	.23**	.17**
7) Scepticism towards ads	.12**	.23**	.19**	.20**
8) Social utilities	.07*	.16**	.17**	.11**
9) Product knowledge	1	.35**	.33**	.23**
10) Finance and price knowledge		1	.33**	.21**
11) Legislation knowledge			1	.23**
12) Stores knowledge				1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The overall test of multivariate analysis of variance showed that young children's ages portrayed in the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade (8 years old), 3<sup>rd</sup> grade (9 years old), 4<sup>th</sup> grade (10 years old), 5<sup>th</sup> grade (11 years old), and 6<sup>th</sup> grade (12 years old) were related to the dependent variables. Specifically, Wilks' Lambda value = 0.198 is significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ ,  $F = 37.780$  (48, 3469) and the robust test of MANOVA Pillai's Trace = 0.998;  $F$  value = 25.91 (52, 3612) is also significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$  albeit including fathers' communication patterns and other structural variables as covariate variables. In addition, the small value of Wilks' Lambda indicates that the means of dependent variables markedly differed across young children ages. This result is consistent with Wilks' Lambda partial Eta squared for the joint distribution of the dependent variables; it shows that young children's ages explained 33% of total variability "means differences" of young children's consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes related to grocery and food products. According to Cohen's (1988) guidelines, it represents a very strong effect.

The aforementioned results afford a permission to examine how the young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products differed across the five groups of ages. In this regard, a series of univariate analysis of variance and Tukey-HSD paired comparisons were employed. As shown in table 9.3.13 of ANOVA table, the ( $F$ ) ratios of dependent variables were ranged from 6.77 (choice rules

based on the external appearance of a product) to 483.58 (rational buying skills) and statistically significant at the levels of ( $P = 0.00 < 0.01$ ). That is, the means of the consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes differed significantly among the young children's ages.

According to ANOVA table, the highest partial Eta squared was associated with the rational buying skills adopted by young children in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products; 68% of means variations was attributed to young children's ages. The age of young children also explained 39% of their ability to buy grocery and food products for own use and 31% for the family use. The lowest proportions of variability were associated with the irrational buying skills "based on the external appearance of products"; young children's ages explained 3% of differences in the mean of irrational buying skills. According to Cohen's (1988) guidelines, four dependent variables out of twelve have a strong effect size (17% to 68%), six variables considered as a moderate effect size (6% to 14) and two variables below 6% represent a small effect size.

Table 9.3.13: ANOVA table-tests (between-subjects effects)

Dependent variables	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Shopping independently	5738.180	4	1434.545	20.87	.000	.08
Family use	3810.939	4	952.735	103.03	.000	.31
Own use	880.858	4	220.214	143.96	.000	.39
Rational buying skills	22066.897	4	5516.724	483.58	.000	.68
Irrational buying skills	105.609	4	26.402	6.77	.000	.03
Attitude toward stores	323.553	4	80.888	29.85	.000	.12
Scepticism to advertising	1187.336	4	296.834	37.35	.000	.14
Social and hedonistic orientation	1044.857	4	261.214	28.02	.000	.11
Product knowledge	269.470	4	67.367	35.89	.000	.14
Finance and price knowledge	127.813	4	31.953	22.26	.000	.09
Legislation knowledge	127.035	4	31.759	46.75	.000	.17
Stores knowledge	27.377	4	6.844	13.96	.000	.06

In that context, Ward et al. (1977 a) indicated that consumer socialisation of children's development skills related to process information "children abilities in selecting, evaluating and using information relevant to consumption decisions" are influenced by children's cognitive development stages.

As shown in table 9.3.14, the 6<sup>th</sup> and the 5<sup>th</sup> grades of young children scored relatively the highest means in all dependent variables compared to other grades. These directions were also supported by the correlation analysis. There were positive relationships between young children's ages and various dependent variables at the level of  $P = 0.00$ . The highest associations were related to the rational buying skills of grocery and food products ( $r = 0.77$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ), young children's ability to buy grocery and food products for their own use ( $r = 0.57$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ), for the family use ( $r = 0.52$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ), legislation knowledge ( $r = 0.40$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ), and product knowledge ( $r = 0.37$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ). In contrast, the relationship between young children's ages and stores' knowledge and reliance on the external appearance of products were not significant at the significant level of ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Table 9.3.14: Descriptive statistics of ANOVA's test

Grade \ Variables	2 <sup>nd</sup> grade		3 <sup>rd</sup> grade		4 <sup>th</sup> grade		5 <sup>th</sup> grade		6 <sup>th</sup> grade	
	Mean	Std. Dev.								
Shopping independence	12.42	7.73	12.64	6.88	16.02	7.65	17.94	8.88	18.20	10.12
Family use	9.67	4.36	10.86	2.50	13.34	2.72	15.03	2.78	14.25	2.35
Own use	9.42	1.26	9.45	1.20	10.71	1.11	11.78	1.22	11.44	1.38
Rational buying skills	14.33	2.23	14.66	2.52	22.67	3.43	24.87	4.69	25.32	3.62
Irrational buying skills	9.24	1.47	8.79	1.50	8.50	2.16	9.43	2.56	8.75	2.06
Attitudes towards stores	7.39	1.51	7.05	1.53	7.36	1.83	8.58	1.77	8.33	1.58
Scepticism towards ads	11.15	2.35	9.69	2.82	9.81	2.99	12.64	2.93	11.82	2.97
Social utilities	18.30	3.16	17.41	2.58	18.05	3.42	20.57	3.16	18.99	2.91
Product knowledge	3.56	1.58	3.80	1.32	4.30	1.36	4.74	1.25	4.99	1.30
Finance and price knowledge	2.99	1.23	3.03	1.01	3.23	1.23	3.98	1.40	3.63	1.104
Legislation knowledge	1.78	.80	1.78	.86	2.19	.80	2.58	.92	2.65	.73
Stores knowledge	1.56	.52	1.14	.70	1.23	.72	1.53	.84	1.46	.70

Since the F ratios' tests do not reflect the differences in the means of the dependent variable, Tukey-HSD multiple paired comparisons were used to determine the differences across the dependent variables. These differences can be summarised by the following points:

***In relation to shopping independence***, there were no significant differences at the level of ( $P < 0.05$ ) among young children of 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades in the total amount of shopping independence at different stores of grocery and food products ( $p = 0.19, 0.09$  and  $1.00$  respectively). They used to visit supermarkets, corner stores of vegetables and fruits, specialised stores of chicken, meat, and fish, bakery shops, and restaurants of breakfast food more than the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades. While the 4<sup>th</sup> grade scored significant differences in shopping independence at these stores against the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade ( $P = 0.00$ ) and 3<sup>rd</sup> grade ( $p = 0.001$ ), the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades scored significant differences with the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades at the level of ( $p = 0.00$ ). These differences were confirmed by the correlation analysis; there is a positive significant association between young children's ages and visiting the stores of grocery and food independently ( $r = 0.28, P = 0.00$ ). In this regard, Moschis and Moore (1979 a) examined the effects of maturation on decision-making patterns of adolescents. They found that adolescents preferred to go shopping independently. McNeal and Yeh, (1993) reported that children as young as two years of age begin to make requests for desired objects and by four years of age begin to make their own in-store selections. By the age of eight years, children are making independent purchases.

***In relation to buying grocery and food products for the family use***, the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades of young children have the same degree of frequency in buying the groups of products (dishwashing liquid and shampoo), (yoghurt, salt, rice, eggs, deli), bread loaves, breakfast food, (chicken, meat, and fish), and (vegetables and fruits) for the family use ( $P = 0.12 > 0.05$ ). Both of them are more frequently buying these groups of products than the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, and 4<sup>th</sup> grades at the level of ( $p = 0.00$ ). While the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade is more frequently buying these kinds of products for the family use than the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade ( $P = 0.001$ ), the 4<sup>th</sup> grade is also more frequently buying these products for the family use than the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades at the level of ( $p = 0.00$ ). However, these directions of differences are consistent with the correlation analysis; the positive association ( $r = 0.52$ ) between the age of young children and buying these types of products is significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00$ ).

***According to buy grocery and food products for own use***, the 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades of young children are more frequently buying certain groups of products (chocolates,

chewing gum, and chips), (soft drink, fruit juice, and ice cream), school supply, and sandwiches for own use than the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades of young children ( $p = 0.00$ ) do. While, the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades of young children have the same levels of frequency in buying these kinds of products ( $P = 1.00 > 0.05$ ), there is no difference between 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades ( $P = 0.07 > 0.05$ ) in buying these kinds of products. The 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades are more frequently buying these groups of products than the 4<sup>th</sup> grade young children ( $P = 0.00$ ). The positive direction of association between the two variables was confirmed by the correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.57$ ) that is statistically significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00$ ).

***In relation to rational buying skills related to grocery and food product***, the 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades more frequently employed the rational consumer skills than the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades, on buying grocery and food products either for their family use or for own use ( $P = 0.00$ ). Specifically, they used to ask the salespeople about the prices before buying the products, bargain the prices of the products, read the label of a product, compare between different brands, check the appearance of a product, select the freshness date of a product, focus on sale or promotion prices, and buy from different stores. While, there is no difference between the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades in using the rational buying skills ( $P = 0.88 > 0.05$ ), the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades have the same levels of skills in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products ( $P = 0.72 > 0.05$ ). The 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades are more frequently using the rational consumer skills in buying these groups of products than the 4<sup>th</sup> grade young children ( $P = 0.00$ ). The strong and positive direction of association between the two variables was confirmed by the correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.77$ ) that was statistically significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00$ ). Earlier, Moschis and Moore (1979 b) found that there is no significant relationship between the age of children and the number of evaluative criteria used in their purchases; they did not identify the types of products. John (1985) found that children's shopping experiences varied across children's ages; the older children have more experiences, categorical, and hypothetical scripts, give more information and show well developed scripts related to grocery shopping than do younger children. In addition, the age of young children affect the rational aspect of consumption (Shim et al., 1995).

***In relation to the irrational buying skills related to the external appearance of grocery and food product bought for own use***, there is no significant difference between 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, and 6<sup>th</sup> grades at the level of ( $P = 0.16, 0.11, 1.00 > 0.05$ ) respectively. They used to select a product that contains gift, photos of famous celebrities and players, focused on the taste, package and colour of the products. While the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade more frequently used the irrational buying skills than the 4<sup>th</sup> grade ( $P = 0.003 < 0.01$ ), the 5<sup>th</sup> grade has more frequently used the irrational consumer skills more than the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade ( $P = 0.02$ ), 4<sup>th</sup> grade ( $P = .000$ ) and 6<sup>th</sup> grade ( $P = 0.01$ ). The weak and negative direction of association between the two variables was confirmed by the correlation coefficient ( $r = - 0.03$ ) which was not statistically significant at the level of ( $P < 0.05, P = 0.41$ ). Rossiter (1976) found that the premium offers “promotion” of cereal product is very important to the 5<sup>th</sup> grade of young children compared to the 1<sup>st</sup> grade of young children. In a similar vein, Comstock and Paik (1991) indicated that children recalled premium offers more than the attributes of a product and premium played an important role with younger children in choosing a product.

***In relation to young children’s attitudes towards stores***, there is no significant difference between 6<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades at the level of ( $P < 0.05, P = 0.63$ ). They believed that the famous stores sell high quality products and are able to catch children’s attention towards new grocery and food products. They also believed that children should buy natural food most of the time. In that context, the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades have more positive attitudes towards stores than the young children of 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, and 4<sup>th</sup> grades at the significance level of ( $P = 0.00$ ). Young children of 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, and 4<sup>th</sup> grades have the same levels of attitudes towards stores ( $P > 0.05, P = 0.25, 0.37, \text{ and } 1.00$  respectively). The positive direction of association between the two variables was confirmed by the correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.27$ ) that is statistically significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00$ ).

***In relation to young children attitudes towards the credibility of TV commercial advertising***, the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades displayed the same level of scepticism towards the credibility of TV commercial advertising oriented young children’s grocery and food products ( $P = 0.16 > 0.05$ ). While there is no significant difference between the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grades in their attitudes towards TV commercial advertising ( $P = 0.99 > 0.05$ ), the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>,

and 6<sup>th</sup> grades are more sceptical towards the credibility of TV commercial advertising than the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grades of young children ( $P = 0.00$ ). The 5<sup>th</sup> grade has more negative attitudes towards the credibility of TV commercial advertising than the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade ( $P = 0.00$ ) and shared with the 6<sup>th</sup> grade the same levels of scepticism towards the credibility of TV commercial advertising oriented children's grocery and food products ( $P = 0.052 > 0.05$ ). The positive direction of association between the two variables was confirmed by the correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.20$ ) that is statistically significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00$ ). Based on a survey research consisting of 460 children in Beijing, McNeal and Ji, (1999) found that Chinese children from age 8-13 years old were more likely to depend on TV, parents, and stores to learn about new products; the new consumer generation of Chinese children perceive TV as the most important of these to obtain new product information.

***In relation to young children's attitudes towards social and hedonistic orientations,*** there is no significant difference between the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grades ( $P = 0.25$ ). While the 5<sup>th</sup> grade of young children has more social and hedonistic orientations towards shopping and viewing the TV for social and economic utilities than the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades, the 6<sup>th</sup> grade scored significant difference with the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade ( $P = 0.00$ ) and the 4<sup>th</sup> grade ( $P = 0.03$ ) of young children. In addition, the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade has more social and hedonistic orientations than the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade of young children ( $P = 0.04$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) and did not score significant difference with the 4<sup>th</sup> grade ( $P = 0.94$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) and the 6<sup>th</sup> grade ( $P = 0.19$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ). The positive direction of association between the two variables was confirmed by the correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.20$ ) that is statistically significant at the level of ( $P = 0.00$ ). In this regard, Shim and Gehrt (1996) found that Hispanic adolescents manifested a greater tendency toward the social/hedonistic shopping orientation than Native American and white; they tended to approach shopping as a recreational activity. Native American adolescents manifested a greater tendency toward the overpowered approach to shopping than did White and Hispanic adolescents. White adolescents manifested a greater tendency toward the utilitarian approach to shopping than did Hispanic and Native American adolescents.

***In relation to a product knowledge,*** the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades of young children have the same levels of understanding the meaning of a product's quality, ingredients, price, size, and brand ( $P = 0.42 > 0.05$ ). The 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades have also the same levels of product knowledge ( $p = 0.40, P > 0.05$ ). While the 5<sup>th</sup> grade is more knowledgeable about the products than the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> ( $P = 0.00$ ), and 4<sup>th</sup> grades ( $P = 0.02 < 0.05$ ), the 4<sup>th</sup> grade is more knowledgeable about the product than the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades ( $P = 0.00$ ). In addition, the 6<sup>th</sup> grade is more knowledgeable about the products than the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, and 4<sup>th</sup> grades at the significant level of ( $P = 0.00$ ). These differences were confirmed by the correlation analysis; there is a positive significant association between young children's ages and the product knowledge ( $r = 0.37, P = 0.00$ ).

***In relation to finance and price knowledge,*** the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, and 4<sup>th</sup> grades of young children displayed the same levels of cognition related to the importance of money value in their purchases, and understood the meaning of the on sale prices and the relationship between brands and prices ( $P = 0.34, 0.53, p > 0.05$  respectively). In a similar vein, the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades have also the same levels of understanding the finance and the price knowledge ( $P = 0.053, P > 0.05$ ). While the 5<sup>th</sup> grade is more knowledgeable about the finance and prices of products than the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grades ( $P = 0.00$ ), the 6<sup>th</sup> grade is more knowledgeable about the finance and the prices of products than the 2<sup>nd</sup>, and 3<sup>rd</sup> at the level of ( $P = 0.00$ ), and 4<sup>th</sup> grade ( $P = 0.01$ ). These differences were confirmed by the correlation analysis; there is a positive significant association between young children ages and finance and the price knowledge ( $r = 0.25, P = 0.00$ ).

***In relation to consumer legislation knowledge,*** there is no difference between young children of 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades ( $P = 0.08 > 0.05$ ) related to the role of consumer legislations in marketplace activities. They have the same knowledge about the rights of consumers in bargaining prices with salespeople and recognise the meaning of the private stores and taxes that are imposed by the government on private stores. The 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades displayed the same levels of cognition related to the role of consumer legislations in marketplace activities ( $P = 0.09 > 0.05$ ). While, the 4<sup>th</sup> grade is more knowledgeable about the consumer legislations than the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades ( $P = 0.00$ ), the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades are more knowledgeable about the role of consumer legislations than the other

grades at the significant levels of ( $P = 0.00$ ). These differences are consistent with the positive direction of associations between young children ages and consumer legislation knowledge ( $r = 0.40$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ).

***In relation to stores knowledge***, there were no differences among young children of 2<sup>nd</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades in recognising the differences between Malls and the specialised stores ( $p = 0.99$ ,  $0.61$ , and  $0.86 > 0.05$  respectively). While the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade is more knowledgeable about the stores than the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grades at the significant level of ( $P = 0.00$ ), the 5<sup>th</sup> grade is more knowledgeable about the stores than the 3<sup>rd</sup> ( $P = 0.00$ ) and 4<sup>th</sup> grades ( $P = 0.001 < 0.01$ ). Simultaneously, the 6<sup>th</sup> grade is more knowledgeable about the mall and specialised stores than the 3<sup>rd</sup> ( $P = 0.00$ ) and 4<sup>th</sup> grades ( $P = 0.02 < 0.05$ ). In this respect, the positive correlation between young children ages and stores knowledge ( $r = 0.04$ ) is not significant at the level of  $P < 0.05$ .

However, these results would lead to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. That is, young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food shopping are significantly affected by the levels of young children's ages.

**H8: Young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products are not varied across the gender.**

The null hypothesis was partitioned into the following sub-hypotheses:

H8/1: The frequency of young children's shopping independence at different stores of grocery and food products is not varied by their gender.

H8/2: Young children's ability to buy a certain grocery and food products for the family use independently is not varied by their gender.

H8/3: Young children's ability to buy a certain grocery and food products for own use independently is not varied by their gender.

H8/4: The rational buying skills of young children used in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products are not varied by their gender.

H8/5: The irrational buying skills "external appearance" of young children related to evaluate and select grocery and food products are not varied by their gender.

H8/6: Young children's attitudes towards stores are not varied by their gender.

H8/7: Young children's scepticism towards TV advertising oriented children's grocery and food products is not varied by their gender.

H8/8: Young children's attitudes towards recreations and economic motivations of TV advertising "social utilities" are not varied by their gender.

H8/9: Young children's product knowledge is not varied by their gender.

H8/10: Young children's finance and price knowledge is not varied by their gender.

H8/11: Young children's legislation knowledge is not varied by their gender.

H8/12: The store knowledge of young children is not varied by their gender.

To examine the main null hypothesis, One-way MANOVA test was firstly employed to answer the following question: Do boys and girls differ in the overall consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food shopping? In that question, the associations between the dependent variables as was stated in table 9.3.12 sustain the opportunity of using MANOVA test to meet that question.

However, MANOVA test showed that the gender of young children was related to the dependent variables. Specifically, Wilks' Lambda value = 0.635 is significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ ,  $F = 43.194 (12, 903)$  and the robust test of MANOVA Pillai's Trace = 0.365;  $F$  value = 43.194 (12, 903) is also significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ . According to the partial Eta squared value of Wilks' Lambda statistics for the joint distribution of the dependent variables, the gender explained 36.5% of total variability "means differences" of young children's consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes related to grocery and food products. It represents a very strong affect in accordance with Cohen's (1988) guidelines. Since Tukey-HSD paired comparison test cannot be employed when the categories of the independent variables are fewer than three groups, the univariate analysis of variance was followed by the analysis of independent-samples T test compares means for two groups to identify the significant of means differences of the dependent variables across the gender of young children. As shown in table 9.3.15, the ( $F$ ) ratios of dependent variables were ranged from 0.219 (legislation knowledge) to 330.71 (shopping independence at different stores). In this regard, the  $F$  ratios of product knowledge ( $F = .851$ ,  $P = 0.36 > 0.05$ ), legislation knowledge ( $F = 0.219$ ,  $P = 0.64 > 0.05$ ), stores knowledge ( $F = 3.68$ ,  $P = 0.055 > 0.05$ ), attitudes toward stores ( $F = 0.598$ ,  $P = 0.44 > 0.05$ ), and their attitudes towards

the credibility of TV commercial advertising ( $F = 1.93$ ,  $P = 0.17 > 0.05$ ) were not statistically significant at the levels of ( $P < 0.05$ ). These results were also confirmed by the statistics of independent-samples T test. Specifically, as shown in tables 9.3.16 and 17,  $t$  values of young children's product knowledge, legislation, and stores knowledge and their attitudes towards stores and the credibility of TV commercial advertising were not significantly differed at the level  $P < 0.05$  and the magnitudes of the differences in the means were minimal (Eta squared less than 0.01%).

Table 9.3.15: ANOVA table-tests (between-subjects effects)

Dependent variables	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Product knowledge	1.841	1	1.841	.851	.36	.001
Finance and price knowledge	46.648	1	46.648	30.70	.000	.033
Legislation knowledge	.179	1	.179	.219	.64	.000
Stores knowledge	1.901	1	1.901	3.68	.055	.004
Shopping independently	18161.120	1	18161.120	330.71	.000	.27
Family use	915.404	1	915.404	73.91	.000	.075
Own use	36.561	1	36.561	14.93	.000	.016
Rational buying skills	302.865	1	302.865	8.61	.003	.009
Irrational buying skills	108.332	1	108.332	27.91	.000	.030
Attitude toward stores	1.825	1	1.825	.598	.44	.001
Scepticism to advertising	17.721	1	17.721	1.93	.17	.002
Social and hedonistic orientation	145.940	1	145.940	14.20	.000	.015

By contrast, the means of other dependent variables were statistically differed across the gender of young children at the level of  $P < 0.05$ . These variations can be summarised as follows:

***In relation to finance and price knowledge***, boys are more knowledgeable than their counterparts (girls) relating to the importance of money value in their purchases, understanding the meaning of the on sale prices and the relationship between brands and prices. The mean diff. = 0.45,  $t$  value = 5.59 is significant at the level of  $P < 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.00$  and the magnitude of the differences in the means was very small (eta squared = 3.3%). The direction of association was confirmed by the correlation coefficient; there is a negative and significant correlation between the gender and young children's knowledge about finance and prices ( $r = -0.17$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ).

***In relation to shopping independently at different stores***, boys were more frequently

shopping independently than girls did at different stores of grocery and food products; the mean diff. = 8.92, t value = 17.83 is significant at the level of  $P < 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.00$  and the magnitude of the differences in the means were very large (Eta squared = 27%). The direction of association was confirmed by the correlation coefficient; there is a negative and significant correlation between the gender and young children shopping independently at supermarkets, corner stores of vegetables and fruits, specialised stores of chicken, meat, and fish, bakery shops, restaurant of breakfast food, and libraries ( $r = -0.53$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ).

***In relation to buying grocery and food products for the family use***, boys outperformed their counterparts relating to buying certain groups of grocery and food products for the family use. Specifically, the mean diff. = 2.00, t value = 8.77 is significant at the level of  $P < 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.00$  and the magnitude of the differences in the means was moderate (Eta squared = 7.5%). The gender and young children's ability to buy certain groups of products for the family use are negatively associated ( $r = -0.27$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ).

***In relation to buying grocery and food products for their own use***, boys were more frequently buying certain groups of products for their own use than girls did. The mean diff. = 0.40, t value = 3.88 is significant at the level of  $P < 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.00$  and the magnitude of the differences in the means was very small (Eta squared = 1.6%). There is a negative and significant correlation between the gender and young children's ability to buy certain groups of products for own use ( $r = -0.13$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ).

***In relation to rational buying skills related to grocery and food product***, boys were more frequently employing the rational consumer skills than girls in buying grocery and food products either for their family use or for own use. In this regard, the mean diff. = 1.15, t value = 2.95 is significant at the level of  $P < 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.003$  and the magnitude of the differences in the means was very small (Eta squared = 0.9%). There is a negative and significant correlation between the gender and rational buying skills employed by young children in evaluation and selection of grocery and food products ( $r = -0.10$ ,  $P = 0.002 < 0.01$ ).

***In relation to the irrational buying skills related to the external appearance of grocery and food product bought for own use***, girls were less frequently selecting a product that

contains gift, photos of famous celebrities and players, relying on the taste, package and colour of the products than boys. In this regard, the means differences between boys and girls = 0.69, t value = 5.30 were statistically significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$  and the magnitude of the differences in the means were small (Eta squared = 3%). The negative direction of association between the two variables was confirmed by the correlation coefficient ( $r = -0.18$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ).

Table 9.3.16: Independent samples T-test

Variables	Equal variances assumed			Equal variances not assumed			Mean Diff.
	T	df	Sig.	T	df	Sig.	
Product knowledge	.922	914	.36	.93	913	.35	.09
Finance and price knowledge	5.54	914	.000	5.59	908	.000	.45
Legislation knowledge	.468	914	.64	.469	909	.64	.03
Stores knowledge	-1.92	914	.055	-1.92	909	.055	-.09
Shopping independently	18.18	914	.000	17.83	748	.000	8.92
Family use	8.60	914	.000	8.77	850	.000	2.00
Own use	3.86	914	.000	3.88	913	.000	.40
Rational buying skills	2.93	914	.003	2.95	913	.003	1.15
Irrational buying skills	5.28	914	.000	5.30	913	.000	.69
Attitude toward stores	-.773	914	.440	-.774	909	.440	-.09
Scepticism to advertising	1.39	914	.170	1.39	904	.17	.28
Social and hedonistic orientation	3.77	914	.000	3.78	912	.000	.80

Table 9.3.17: Descriptive statistics of the independent-samples T Test

Variables	Male		Female	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Product knowledge	4.30	1.40	4.21	1.53
Finance and price knowledge	3.59	1.11	3.14	1.33
Legislation knowledge	2.20	.89	2.17	.916
Stores knowledge	1.33	.71	1.42	.729
Shopping independently	20.03	8.77	11.11	5.93
Family use	13.60	2.76	11.60	4.08
Own use	10.73	1.50	10.33	1.62
Rational buying skills	20.77	5.68	19.62	6.15
Irrational buying skills	9.30	1.88	8.61	2.04
Attitude toward stores	7.67	1.72	7.76	1.77
Scepticism to advertising	11.13	3.03	10.85	3.03
Social and hedonistic orientation	19.04	3.09	18.24	3.30

*In relation to young children attitudes towards social and hedonistic orientations*, boys have a more social and hedonistic orientations towards shopping and viewing the TV for social and economic utilities than girls do. The means differences between boys and girls = 0.80, t value = 3.77 were statistically significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$  and the magnitude of the differences in the means were small (Eta squared = 1.5%). The negative direction of association between the two variables was confirmed by the correlation coefficient ( $r = - 0.18$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ).

In conclusion, these results would partially lead to reject the main null hypothesis. That is, young children's product knowledge, legislation, stores knowledge, young children's attitude toward stores, and their attitudes towards the credibility of TV commercial advertising are not varied by the gender of young children. In contrast, the finance and the price knowledge, the total amount of shopping independently, the frequency of buying certain grocery and food products for the family use or for own use, the frequency of using rational and irrational buying skills differed significantly by the gender of the young children. On line with previous research, Dotson and Hyatt (2000) found that there were no significant differences in brand-slogan recognition between boys and girls for any single product. In contrast, Mangleburg et al. (1997) found that there were differences among adolescents' gender in acquiring product label skills use. Females were more likely to use product labels than males. They concluded that females learn more about the marketplace from communicating with specific socialisation agents and this learning enhances the tendency to read product labels in making purchase decisions.

### **9.3.3 Hypotheses based on dyadic responses**

**H9: There is no similarity between young children's shopping consumer skills and attitudes relating to grocery and food products and fathers' shopping consumer role.**

To test the null hypothesis, paired samples t-test and correlation analysis were conducted to examine to what degree the shopping consumer role of young children is similar to their fathers relating to convenience grocery and food products as a result of father-child communication processes. At the level of each grade, paired sample-sample t-test was conducted to examine the significance of means differences between fathers and young children's scores related to father-child choice rules, attitudes towards grocery and food

stores, attitudes towards materialism, orientations towards social and economic utilities and attitudes towards TV commercial advertising oriented children grocery and food products. At the level of all grades, the correlation and partial correlations analyses that based on Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient were conducted to examine the strength of a dyadic relationship “similarity” between young children and their fathers. The partial correlation was used to control the effect of young children gender, if it existed, on the strength of the relationship between the two pairs of variables.

Earlier, Stamfl et al. (1978) and Moschis (1985) noted that the learning process that involves modelling “imitation or emulation” of the socialisation agent’s behaviour is typically inferred from the correlation data of a socialisation agent-learner interactions. Moore-Shay and Lutz (1988) used paired samples t-test to measure mothers-daughters’ agreement and accuracy in relation to brand preferences, choice rules and marketplace beliefs. On the other hand, a number of researchers such as Moore-Shay and Berchmans (1996) and Viswanathan et al. (2000) relied on the correlational data in their investigations. In studying the role of family environment in the development of shared consumption values, Moore-Shay and Berchmans (1996) used Pearson correlation coefficient to determine the association between young adult’s predictions of parents’ materialism attitudes and parents’ actual attitudes. Viswanathan et al. (2000) used the correlation analysis and percentages of agreement to measure the similarity of consumer orientations observed between young adults and their parents.

However, the data were split into five separate groups to measures the similarity of each grade with their fathers. In addition, prior to conducting the two techniques of analysis, fathers and young children’s scores were transformed into *Z* scores through using “standardisation” procedure across the summated variables of attitudes towards stores and materialism values to unify the scales measurement. As shown in table 9.3.18 and 19, *t* values of choice rules and strategies, summated of 18 items, for 2<sup>nd</sup> grade (11.61, *P* = 0.00), 3<sup>rd</sup> grade (9.32, *P* = 0.00), 5<sup>th</sup> grade (2.69, *P* = 0.008), and 6<sup>th</sup> grade (3.48, *P* = 0.01) were statistically significant at the level of (*P* < 0.05). That is, there were significant differences between fathers and their young children in using the choice rules and strategies across these grades; fathers are more likely to use the rational choice rules and

strategies than their young children do. On the other hand, fathers and young children of 4<sup>th</sup> grade ( $t$  value = 1.52,  $p$  = .130 > 0.05) used the same choice rules in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products.

9.3.18: Fathers and young children's means across the consumer skills and attitudes

Grade \ Variables	2 <sup>nd</sup> Grade		3 <sup>rd</sup> Grade		4 <sup>th</sup> Grade		5 <sup>th</sup> Grade		6 <sup>th</sup> Grade	
	*F mean	*C mean	F mean	C mean						
Choice rules	38.16	34.18	36.51	32.97	40.04	39.36	44.02	42.69	43.15	42.14
Attitudes towards stores	16.88	14.83	16.62	13.75	18.22	14.27	19.78	16.40	19.21	15.72
Attitudes towards materialism	16.58	17.75	16.29	18.61	18.50	19.30	21.19	22.49	20.20	20.75
Social and economic utilities of TV viewing	8.40	10.74	7.99	10.36	8.73	11.75	9.77	12.85	9.59	11.91
Scepticism towards advertising oriented children	8.79	8.36	8.31	7.16	9.26	7.30	10.00	9.60	9.56	8.81

(\*) F: Fathers, C: Children

9.3.19: Paired samples T test

Variable \ Grade	Choice rules	Attitudes towards stores*	Attitudes towards materialism*	Social and economic utilities of TV viewing	Scepticism to advertising oriented children
<b>2<sup>nd</sup> Grade</b>					
Mean difference	3.980	.334	-.150	-2.345	-.425
T-value	11.615	3.283	-1.785	-13.214	-2.354
significant	.000	.001	<b>.076</b>	.000	.020
<b>3<sup>rd</sup> Grade</b>					
Mean difference	3.543	.002	.131	-2.374	-1.150
T-value	9.320	.026	1.878	-14.107	-5.867
significant	.000	<b>.98</b>	<b>.06</b>	.000	.000
<b>4<sup>th</sup> Grade</b>					
Mean difference	.674	-.305	-.116	-3.022	-1.961
T-value	1.521	-3.036	-1.139	-14.642	-9.446
significant	<b>.13</b>	.003	<b>.26</b>	.000	.000
<b>5<sup>th</sup> Grade</b>					
Mean difference	1.337	.018	.200	-3.082	-.403
T-value	2.693	.191	1.902	-13.608	-1.886
significant	.008	<b>.85</b>	<b>.06</b>	.000	<b>.06</b>
<b>6<sup>th</sup> Grade</b>					
Mean difference	1.004	-.064	-.063	-2.326	-.751
T-value	2.465	-.731	-.648	-10.390	-3.608
significant	.015	<b>.47</b>	<b>.52</b>	.000	.000

(\*) based on Z scores

As shown in table 9.3.20, Pearson correlation coefficient for *all groups* indicate that there was a positive association between fathers and young children's choice rules ( $r = 0.43$ ,  $n = 916$ ) at the significance level of ( $P = 0.00$ ). In addition the partial correlation suggests that there is no effect on the strength of association between the two variables as a result of the gender of young children ( $r = 0.42$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ). However, these results are consistent with the findings of descriptive analysis. Specifically, while 55% of Jordanian fathers scored  $\leq$  mean value relating to the undesirable choice rules and strategies, 50% of young children scored below or equals the mean value of the undesirable choice rules. Conversely, while 50% of fathers scored above the mean value of desirable choice rules, 45.7% of young children scored  $>$  the mean value of desirable choice rules. In relation to the similarity between fathers' and young children's attitudes towards stores,  $t$  values of paired comparisons for the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade (3.28,  $P = .001$ ) and 4<sup>th</sup> grade (-3.036,  $P = .003$ ) were statistically significant at the level of  $P < 0.05$ . Fathers are more sceptical towards young children's grocery and food products and become more apt to buy products that are free of additives and flavours than their young children of 2<sup>nd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grades. Fathers have more positive attitudes towards the famous stores of grocery and food products than their young children; they believe that the famous stores of grocery and food products offers better customer services; the more famous the stores, the better the products they sell.

In addition,  $t$  values of 3<sup>rd</sup> grade (0.026,  $P = 0.98$ ), 5<sup>th</sup> grade (2.254,  $P = 0.85$ ), and 6<sup>th</sup> grade (3.48,  $P = 0.47$ ) suggest that fathers and young children have similar orientations towards stores; there were no significant differences between their scores at the level of  $P < 0.05$ . According to the correlation analysis, Pearson correlation coefficient for *all groups* indicates that there was a positive association between fathers and young children's attitudes towards stores ( $r = 0.17$ ,  $n = 916$ ) at the significant level of ( $P = 0.00$ ). In addition the partial correlation indicates that there was no effect on the strength of association between the two variables as a result of young children's gender ( $r = 0.17$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ). In this regard, Cohen (1988) suggests the following guidelines in relation to the size of the correlation coefficient: small:  $r = \pm .10$  to  $.29$ ; medium:  $r = \pm .30$  to  $.49$ ; large:  $r$

= ± .50 to 1.0. On the other hand, the correlation coefficient decreases with a reduction in the number of scales categories (Malhotra and Briks, 2007).

In relation to the similarity attitudes towards materialism values, the significance of *t* values for the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade (-1.785, *P* = 0.08), 3<sup>rd</sup> grade (1.878, *P* = 0.06), 4<sup>th</sup> grade (-1.139, *P* = 0.26), 5<sup>th</sup> grade (1.902, *P* = 0.06), and 6<sup>th</sup> grade (-0.65, *P* = 0.52) suggests that there were no differences between fathers and young children at the level of *P* < 0.05. Fathers and young children have shared the same degree of agreement, for example, they used to buy the expensive and the newest brands of grocery and food products and fathers allow their young children to buy grocery and food products that other kids like to have it. Pearson correlation coefficient for *all groups* indicates that there is a positive relationship between fathers' and young children's attitudes towards materialism values (*r* = 0.23, *n* = 916) at the significant level of (*P* = 0.00). In addition, the partial correlation indicates that the strength of association between the two variables was not influenced by the gender of young children (*r* = 0.23, *P* = 0.00). Moreover, *t* values of paired comparisons for the 2<sup>nd</sup> (-13.21), 3<sup>rd</sup> (-14.11), 4<sup>th</sup> (-14.64), 5<sup>th</sup> (-13.61), and 6<sup>th</sup> grades (-10.39) indicate that there were significant differences at the level of *P* = 0.00 between fathers and young children's attitudes towards social and economic utilities of viewing TV commercial advertising.

Specifically, young children of ages ranging from 8 to 12 years old are more apt than their fathers to view the TV commercial advertising for social and economic utilities. They believe that the TV commercial advertising gives them something to talk about with their friends and presents funny pictures. The TV commercial advertising introduces much grocery and food products-related to their own use and helps them in decision-making to buy grocery and food products. On the other hand, Pearson correlation coefficient for *all groups* indicates that there is a positive association between fathers' and young children's orientations towards social and economic utilities of viewing TV commercial advertising (*r* = 0.20, *n* = 916) at the significant level of (*P* = 0.00).

The partial correlation indicates that the strength of association between the two sets of variables was not influenced by the gender of young children (*r* = 0.20, *P* = 0.00).

In relation to the similarity attitudes towards TV commercial advertising oriented young children, *t* values suggest that there were significant differences between fathers and their

young children at the level of  $P < 0.05$ ; 2<sup>nd</sup> grade (-2.354,  $P = .02$ ), 3<sup>rd</sup> grade (-5.867,  $P = 0.00$ ), 4<sup>th</sup> grade (-1.961,  $P = 0.00$ ), and 6<sup>th</sup> grade (-3.608,  $P = 0.00$ ). Fathers are more sceptical than do their young children towards the credibility of TV advertising oriented children's grocery and food products.

Table 9.3.20: Correlation coefficients / fathers and young children's responses related consumer skills and attitudes

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1) choice rules ( <b>children</b> )	1								
2) Attitudes towards stores ( <b>children</b> )	.31	1							
3) materialism Attitudes ( <b>children</b> )	.40	.31	1						
4) Social and economic utilities of TV viewing ( <b>children</b> )	.39	.28	.47	1					
5) Attitudes towards TV oriented children( <b>children</b> )	.25	.36	.21	.10	1				
6) choice rules ( <b>fathers</b> )	<b>.43</b>	.21	.21	.17	.23	1			
7) Attitudes towards stores ( <b>fathers</b> )	.32	<b>.17</b>	.21	.11	.20	.47	1		
8) materialism attitudes ( <b>fathers</b> )	.31	.15	<b>.23</b>	.18	.13	.31	.24	1	
9) Social and economic utilities TV ( <b>fathers</b> )	.28	.14	.20	<b>.20</b>	.07*	.32	.18	.46	1
10) Attitudes towards TV oriented children ( <b>fathers</b> )	.26	.14	.13	.11	<b>.24</b>	.18	.28	.04	-.08*

\*Correlations are significant at  $P = 0.00$  except (9\* 5) and (10 \* 9) at level  $P < 0.05$  (2-tailed)

Also, the  $t$  value indicates that fathers and young children of 5<sup>th</sup> grade (-1.886,  $P = 0.06$ ) shared the same attitudes towards TV commercial advertising oriented young children; they believe that TV commercial advertisements do not provide a true picture for the advertised products and use tricks and gimmicks to get the young children to buy the advertised products. They believe that the TV commercial advertisements urge young children to buy things they do not really need and present much grocery and food products that contain much sugar and artificial flavours. However, the correlation analysis for *all groups* indicates that there was a positive association between fathers and young children's scepticism towards the credibility of TV advertising oriented children ( $r = 0.24$ ,  $n = 916$ ) at the significant level of ( $P = 0.00$ ). In addition, the partial correlation indicates that the strength of association between the two sets of variables was not influenced by the gender of young children ( $r = 0.24$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ).

However, the aforementioned results would partially lead to accept the null hypothesis at the level of each grade "five units of analysis" and reject it entirely at the level of all grades' combination as a unit. While there were no differences at the levels of all grades

relating to father-child attitudes towards materialism, there were some differences across young children's ages between father-child choice rules used in the selection and evaluation of grocery and food products, father-child attitudes towards stores, and attitudes towards TV commercial advertising oriented young children. At the level of groups' combination, the correlational data at the significant level of  $P = 0.00$  stressed the similarity between fathers-young children's consumer skills and attitudes relating to grocery and food products. According to previous research, Dotson and Hyatt (2000) assessed the brands and the advertising slogans' knowledge of American parents and their children (ages 6-12). They found that children around the age of nine or ten years old have a sufficient advanced stage of cognitive development to retain advertising information as adults do when they are exposed enough to product information. Children have an ability to remember slogans for low involvement products as do their parents. Children's knowledge of advertising slogans for products targeting them is much better than their knowledge of advertising slogans that primarily targeted the household and adult products. Parents are more familiar with products that specifically targeted adults than their children. Zhang and Sood (2002) found that there is a difference between children and adults in evaluating the brand extensions relating to use the deep and surface cues. While the adults use deep features such as category similarity judgment, children of ages 11-12 year olds rely on surface features such as brand names as the basis of extension evaluations.

**H10: There is no significant relationship between fathers' attitudes towards developing young children's consumer role and young children perceptions of fathers' communication structures.**

To test the null hypothesis, the correlation analysis was conducted to examine the strength of relationship between young children's perception of fathers' communication structures based on young children's perspectives and fathers' attitudes towards developing young children consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes that were based on fathers' responses. In that context, the results of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients suggest that there is a positive and significant association between the two summated variables of young children's perception of fathers' concept-communication structure and fathers

attitudes towards developing young children consumer role ( $r = 0.25$ ,  $n = 916$ ) at the level of  $P = 0.00$ . By contrast, the negative association ( $r = - 0.04$ ,  $n = 916$ ) between young children's perception of fathers' socio-communication structure and fathers' attitudes towards developing the consumer role of young children is not significant at the level of  $P < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.24$ . According to these results, this is a preliminary indication that Jordanian fathers are more likely to adopt the concept orientations rather than socio-oriented communication with their young children related to consumption issues.

In line with previous research, Moschis and Mitchell (1986) found that the more socio-oriented the family communication, the less is children's influence in the stages of alternative evaluation and choice of products. In addition, the adolescents of concept-oriented families have a greater influence on the choice products, suggesting products, paying attention to new products, and learning the best buy than the counterparts of socio-oriented families (Foxman et al., 1989). Cao and Price (1997) found that family concept-oriented communication structure was a significant predictor of adolescents' involvement in family purchasing activities. Moreover, Caruana and Vassallo (2003) found that Maltese young children of family concept-oriented communication have an influence on family purchase decisions while those with socio-orientation do not have an influence. Hsieh et al. (2006) found that the socio-oriented communication structure of fathers explains 30% of children's attitudes toward sport shoes brands.

**H11: There is no significant relationship between Jordanian fathers' communication patterns and the birth order of young children.**

The cross-tabulation matrix, as shown in table 9.3.21, suggests accepting the null hypothesis; there were no variations among fathers' communication patterns across fathers' keenness towards developing the consumer skills of the eldest kid. To this end, the chi-square value ( $= 3.09$ ,  $df = 3$ ) is not significant at the level of  $p < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.38$  and Cramer's V coefficient value = 0.06 confirms the independence of the two cross-tabulated variables; it is not significant at level of  $p < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.38$ . That is, the highest frequencies of fathers' communication patterns were only related to fathers' motivation to develop the consumer skills of their kids notwithstanding the birth order of kids. The highest frequency is associated with pluralistic fathers followed respectively by

consensual, protective, and laissez-faire fathers. In addition, Spearman's rho coefficient value ( $r = -0.05$ ,  $n = 916$ ) is not significant at level of the  $P = < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.15$ . According to previous research, this result is consistent with Carlson et al.'s (1990 b) finding who found that mothers communication structures were not varied by the birth order of young children. In contrast, Neeley (2005) found that parents of older children marked the higher scores on the concept-orientation items than did parents with younger children.

**H12: There is no significant relationship between Jordanian fathers' communication patterns and fathers' orientation towards training the consumer skills of single boy family-and-other girls "family structure".**

The cross-tabulation matrix, as shown in table 9.3.21, indicates that the highest frequencies of fathers' communication patterns were only associated with fathers' motivation to develop the consumer skills of single boy family-and-other girls. Therefore, Pearson Chi-square value = 4.80 is not significant at the level of  $p < 0.05$ ,  $p = 0.19$ . This result is supported by a weak association between the two cross-tabulated variables; the value of Cramer's V coefficient = 0.07 is not significant at the level of  $p < 0.05$ ,  $p = 0.19$ .

Table 9.3.21: Cross-tabulation results / fathers' communication patterns and fathers' orientations

Variables	Fathers communication patterns				%Total sample
	Laissez-faire	Protective	Pluralistic	Consensual	
- Developing the consumer skills of the eldest child	Pearson Chi-Square = 3.09, $P = 0.38 > 0.05$ , $df = 3$				
- Yes	47%	44%	39%	41%	42%
- No	53%	56%	61%	59%	58%
Single boy family-and-others girls	Pearson Chi-Square = 4.80, $P = 0.19 > 0.05$ , $df = 3$				
- Yes	72%	80%	78%	80%	78%
- No	28%	20%	22%	20%	22%

However, this result would lead to accept the null hypothesis that there is no significant association between fathers' communication patterns and fathers' orientations towards developing the consumer skills of single boy family-and-other girls. In addition, Spearman's rho coefficient value ( $r = -0.05$ ,  $n = 916$ ) is not significant at level of the  $P = < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.12$ . In line with previous studies, the relative influence of family members in the family decision-making relating to restaurant service is differed by the gender and the

position of adolescents “12 to 18 years old” in the family. In this regard, Lee and Collins (2000) found that the influence of the mother in the negotiation and outcome stages of family decision-making was varied over the gender mixes; she is the strongest when both her children are male. Father influence is increased when he has only an elder daughter and younger son. Father-elder daughter collation is obvious during the configuration stage. The elder daughters exhibit more influence than their male counterparts do during the negotiation stage.

## **9.4 Discussion**

This section is aimed at discussing the research findings of descriptive analysis and testing research hypotheses. It was designed according to the following interrelated process of the research model:

- Identify fathers' variables that are uniquely formed and directly affect their orientations towards the development of young children's consumer shopping skills, knowledge, and attitudes in grocery and food products.
- Measure the relationship between fathers' orientations towards the development of young children's consumer roles and fathers' communication structures.
- Measure the influence of the social structural variables on father-child communication patterns.
- Measure to which extent fathers' communication patterns mediates the influence of TV commercial advertising on young children's consumption behaviour.
- Measure the relative influence of fathers' communication patterns on children shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products.
- Measure the relative influence of young children's cognitive development on their consumer role related to grocery and food products.
- Measure the relative influence of young children's gender on children's shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products.
- Measure the similarity between young children's consumer role and fathers' shopping consumer roles related to convenience grocery and food products.

### **9.4.1 Fathers' orientations towards developing young children's consumer behaviour**

Previous research indicates that parents as the core of the family unit play a crucial role in developing the shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes of their young children either directly through deliberate training or indirectly as role models of consumer behaviour to their children (McNeal, 1969; Ward, 1974; Ward et al., 1977 b; Moschis and Churchill Jr, 1978; Moschis, 1985; McNeal, 1992; Gunter and Furnham, 1998; Carruth and Skinner, 2001; Spungin, 2004; Grant and Stephen, 2005; Strachan and

Pavie-Latour, 2006). Therefore, the first consideration in data analysis was given to measuring the degree to which Jordanian fathers influence the development of young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes in marketplace activities since the utmost of previous research, as shown in literature review, examined mother-child interactions in marketplace activities rather than father-child interaction. In this respect, the results of regression analysis suggest that six factors configured fathers' orientation towards developing young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes. The relative importance of these factors indicates that fathers' orientations towards co-shopping with their young children in retailing milieu-grocery and food products and fathers' attitudes towards young children's commercial advertising respectively are the best unique factors to predict fathers' orientations towards developing young children's consumer behaviour. Jordanian fathers played two crucial roles in developing the shopping consumer skill, knowledge, and attitudes of their young children related to grocery and food products. In this regard, they played a developmental role through father-child interaction on co-shopping trips and the gate-keeping role through mediating the influence of TV commercial advertising on their young children's consumption behaviour, in particular that related to grocery and food products. This result is entirely consistent with Hassan's (2002) findings; he found that parents are the most frequent people who accompany the child to buy shoes. Young children of ages ranging from 9-12 years old are more frequently co-shopping with fathers than do with Egyptian mothers despite their being non-working mothers. Despite American mothers' role is dominant in household shopping, fathers are responsible for about 45% of household grocery and food shopping (Ahuja et al., 1998). Martin and Bush (2000) investigated the influence of fathers, mothers, entertainers, and athletes roles on teenagers' purchase intentions and behaviour. They found that fathers explained 59% of adolescents' purchase intentions followed by mothers 35%, entertainers 33%, and athletes 20%. Overall, the direct role models (fathers and mothers) have a great influence on adolescent purchase intentions and behaviours than vicarious role models (favourite entertainers and athletes). In addition, the food purchases are mostly the main area that kids are free to buy (Setlow, 2001), grocery shopping is a marketplace function that is performed on a regular basis

(Ahuja et al., 1998), and visiting the food store is an everyday practice (Pettersson et al., 2004). On the other hand, the results of the relative influence are also completely consistent with young children's perception of fathers' influence. For example, 38% (n = 348) of young children reported that their fathers always ask them to try new brands of products for training purposes and guide them how to check the quality of products. In a similar vein, 42.5% (n = 390) of young children reported that their fathers allow them to determine the ingredients of products, choose the types of products, and to determine the colour, taste, and the external appearance of products related to grocery and food products consumed by themselves. In this regard, Ward et al., (1986) indicated that parents who satisfied children's requests would encourage them to be attentive to advertising and to ask for things more frequently. In relation to fathers' perceptions of the gender roles, 72% (n = 660) of their sample marked the choice of agree or strongly agree in respect of their responsibility rather than mothers' responsibility to evolve the consumer skills and knowledge of their kids related to *grocery and food products*; they ranked mothers as the second order of responsibility. These orientations were also confirmed by the content analysis of focus groups discussions conducted prior to launching the survey research. Based on culture perspectives, the first theme of focus groups discussions transcripts indicates:

*“Buying grocery and food products for the family use is part of Jordanian fathers’ chores. Therefore, Jordanian fathers’ role in evolving the consumer cognition of their young children is more evident in the aspect of convenience grocery and food shopping than other aspects of marketplace activities”.*

#### **9.4.2 Fathers communication structures and patterns**

Understanding the quality of father-child interaction through fathers' communication structures and patterns predicts consumer learning and provides an explanation for the differences in young children's consumer role. In this regard, previous studies have suggested that there were two major types of parents' communication: the concept-orientation, which relied on reciprocal communication between parents and children, fosters the development of children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to

marketplace activities through encouraging children to develop their own consumption preferences and competence as consumers. By contrast, the socio-orientation, which is based on one-sided communication mode between parents and children, emphasises children's deference to parental standards of consumption, conforming to parents' authority and avoidance of controversy with parents relating to consumption issues. This type of communication leads to the control and monitoring of children's consumption activities and discourages the development of children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes (Moschis and Moore, 1979 a; Moschis et al., 1984; Carlson et al., 1990 a; Rose et al., 1998; Chan and McNeal, 2003; Caruana and Vassallo, 2003; Mukherji, 2005).

However, according to previous research recommendations (Ward et al., 1977 a) and procedures (Moschis and Mitchell, 1986), the research links the father variables with child's variables to measure the effect of fathers' consumer roles on young children's shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes. In this respect, Ward et al. (1977 a) noted that the earlier research that concerned with the family influences showed that there is a low correlation between family communication patterns and child consumer behaviour because it did not link parent's variables with child's variables. In addition, Moschis and Mitchell (1986) examined the effects of television advertising and interpersonal communications on the adolescent consumer behaviour. They relied on mothers' responses to measure the dependent variables that related to television viewing and family communication about consumption, and simultaneously depended on adolescents' responses in measuring the independent variables. They noted that children are in a better position to provide accurate responses on their interaction with TV, peers, and family and their motives behind these interactions and, likewise, mother is in a better position to assess the children's influence on consumer decisions making. Therefore, correlation analysis was conducted among fathers' orientations towards developing young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes and young children's perceptions of fathers' communication structures. The results showed that there were positive relationships and statistical significance at the level of  $P = 0.00$  between young children's perceptions of fathers' concept-oriented communication and fathers' orientations towards developing young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes. In contrast, there

was an insignificant and negative relationship between fathers' orientations and young children's perception of fathers-socio-orientation. To confirm these results, parametric tests of one sample *t* test and paired-samples *t* test analysis were conducted. The mean of fathers' concept-orientation is significantly higher than the mean of fathers' socio-orientation at the level of  $P = 0.00$ .

In relation to fathers' communication patterns, past research has categorised the family communication patterns into four typologies through splitting the summated scores of concept and socio dimensions by its median (McLeod and Chaffee, 1972; McLeod and O'Keefe, 1972; Moschis and Moore, 1979 a; Moschis et al., 1984; Carlson et al., 1990 a; Rose et al., 1998; Chan and McNeal, 2003). In this regard, paired-sample *t* test analysis suggests that Jordanian fathers are principally classified as pluralistic fathers in their communication relating to consumption issues resultant to their engagement in high levels of concept-orientation and low levels of engagement in socio-oriented communication.

In addition, the highest frequencies as shown in figure 9.4.1 were associated with pluralistic typology; it forms 30.5% ( $n = 279$ ) of the sample elements followed by the protective fathers (25.8%,  $n = 236$ ), consensual fathers (23.3%,  $n = 213$ ), and laissez-faire fathers (20.5%,  $n = 188$ ). Comparing the trends of Jordanian fathers' communication patterns to other studies conducted in the U.S.A, Japan, China, India, and Malta, table 9.4.1 showed that Jordanian fathers are the highest in the pluralistic tendency pattern and the lowest in laissez-faire pattern. There were no differences between Maltese parents in their communication styles with their children. The difference between the highest "laissez-faire and consensual fathers" and the lowest "protective fathers" is 7%. While the Japanese mothers are more apt to be protective, the American mothers tend to be pluralistic and consensual. The Chinese parents are consensual; they represent 38.3% of the research sample. On the other hand, the total percent of pluralistic and consensual family patterns across U.S.A, China, India, Malta, and Jordan are relatively equal excluding Japan. That means the categorisation of countries based on the collectivistic and individualistic cultures does not necessarily signify that the individuals of collectivistic societies are more likely to be socio-oriented communication, and the vice-versa is true (Mukherji, 2005).

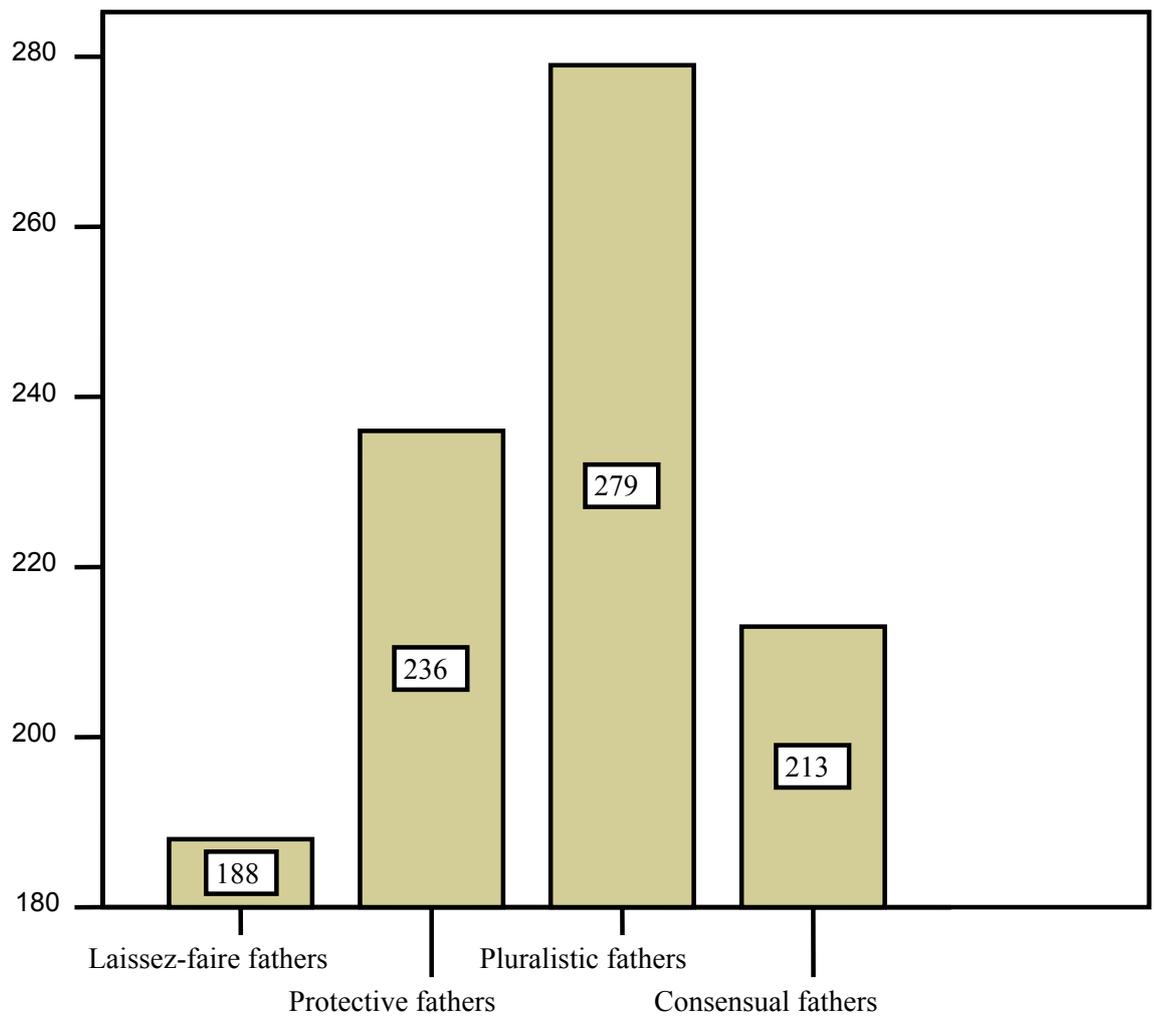


Figure 9.4.1: Fathers' communication patterns in Jordan

The divergence of results may be due to the respondents who are under investigation. Specifically, while these studies have relied on mothers or parents' responses, the research sample was based on young children's perspectives. To that extent, Palan (1998) reported that the results depend on which individual family members' or family member dyads' perceptions were used in the analysis. Recently, Bakir et al. (2005) confirmed this

viewpoint. They investigated the relationship between family communication patterns and parental control over children’s TV viewing among multiple family members (father, mother, and the child) in a northern part of Israel. They found that there is a significant difference across mothers, fathers, and children’s ratings for concept-orientation; a mothers’ rating is higher than children and fathers’ ratings related to the dimension of concept-orientation that dominates the Israeli family communication. There is no difference among the respondents’ ratings related to socio-orientation.

Table 9.4.1: Family communication patterns in Malta, Japan, America, China, India, and Jordan

Communication pattern*	Percentage%					
	Malta	Japan	U.S.A	China	India	Jordan
Laissez-faire fathers	27	35.4	22.1	24.5	28.8	20.5
Protective fathers	20	40.9	23.4	24.5	15.3	25.8
Pluralistic fathers	26	5.9	27.3	12.8	20.3	30.5
Consensual fathers	27	17.7	27.3	38.3	35.6	23.3
Pluralistic and consensual fathers	53	23.6	54.6	51.1	55.9	53.8

\*Malta: reported by Caruana and Vassallo (2003), Japan and America: reported by Rose et al. (1998), China: reported by Chan and McNeal (2003), India: reported by Mukherji (2005).

### 9.4.3 The relationship between fathers’ communication patterns and the antecedent variables

The results of the Bivariate analyses, Pearson chi-square tests of cross-tabulations, suggest that the process of father-child interaction portrayed on fathers communication patterns are varied by the age, gender of young children, and household income. Conversely, fathers’ communication patterns do not vary by the birth order of young children, the number of young children in the family, the family structure, fathers’ ages, educational levels, and occupation. As shown in table 9.4.2, the research results showed that there were discrepancies between the research results and Moschis and Moore’s (1979 a) research findings relating to the measurement of family communication influences in the consumer learning of children and adolescents.

In that context, the inconsistency of results can be accounted for the following reasons:

- (a) The sampling procedures: while the research sample (n = 916) depends on proportionate stratified random sampling procedures, Moschis and Moore's (1979 a) research sample was relied on non-probability sampling procedures in selection of respondents. Respecting the significant findings of that study and its great contributions in children's consumer behaviour, the type of non-probability sampling procedures was more likely to rely on the subjectivity judgment of the researcher, which in turn leads to selection bias. It is not representative and not recommended for descriptive or casual research and affects negatively the generalisation of research findings (Malhotra and Birks, 2007: 410).
- (b) The divergence in the respondents' ages: the research results are based on young children's perceptions of fathers' communication structures, in contrast to Moschis and Moore's (1979 a) findings relying on adolescents' perspectives.
- (c) The first version utilizing family communication patterns in children's consumer behaviour conceptualised by Moschis and Moore (1979 a) was not fully related to consumer matters, therefore, the traditional items were revised to include items directly related to consumer matters (Moschis et al., 1984: 315).

According to Chan and McNeal's (2003) research findings, the discrepancies can be attributed to the mode of conducting the analysis, specifically, they divided young children's ages (6-14 years old) into four categories spanned by two years that may cause the discrepancies between the two research results.

Table 9.4.2: Comparisons between studies of purifying and validating the usage of family communication patterns in children's consumer socialisation behaviour except Chan and McNeal's (2003) study.

Research variable	Moschis and Moore (1979 a)	Carlson et al. (1990 a)	Chan and McNeal (2003)	Research results
Children Age	Not varied	Not investigated	Not varied	Varied
Gender	Not varied	Not investigated	Varied	Varied
Household income	Not varied	Not investigated	Varied	Varied
Birth order	Not investigated	Not varied	Not investigated	Not varied
Family size	Not investigated	Not varied	Not investigated	Not varied
Fathers ages	Not investigated	Not investigated	Varied	Not varied
Fathers education	Not investigated	Not investigated	Varied	Not varied
Fathers occupation	Not investigated	Not investigated	Varied	Not varied

In addition, while there is no policy in Jordan restricting the number of children in the families, the adoption of a one-child policy for families in China (McNeal and Yeh, 1997; Chan and McNeal, 2003) may not mark variations due to age on parents' communication structures and patterns. Regrettably, the researchers provide no information about how they select the research sample.

#### **9.4.4 Fathers' communication patterns mediate the influence of TV commercial advertising on young children's consumption behaviour**

There is an argument about the undesirable effects of the commercial advertising; it instils the undesirable values such as encouraging the materialism values and increasing the need to consume more products (Rossiter, 1979; Ward, 1979; Robertson et al., 1989). The mass media induce youngsters to discuss consumption matters among themselves or with their parents and peers (Moore and Stephens, 1975; Churchill Jr and Moschis, 1979). Thus, the parental mediation is often the result of a child's requests for advertised products.

In addition, John (1999) reported that there was limited evidence to date suggesting that the family serves as an important buffer against undesirable media influences. Previous studies suggest that parents' communication process indirectly modified the effects of mass media in particular TV advertising through placing restrictions on a child's TV viewing, discussing TV advertising with a child, and co-viewing TV (Moschis 1985, 1987; Carlson et al., 1990 a, Rose et al., 1998; Chan and McNeal, 2003). That is, parents' mediation may comprise (a) positive reinforcement "positive mediation" through father-child discussions about TV ads, (b) negative reinforcement "negative mediation" through placing restrictions on watching TV, or (c) a combination of the two mediation strategies (Fujioka and Austin, 2002). In this regard, the results of one-way MANOVA technique followed by a series of univariate ANOVA analyses confirmed the main findings of previous research. The research results suggest that Jordanian fathers through their communication patterns played a gate-keeping role in neutralising the influence of television viewing on young children's consumption behaviour and the patterns of fathers' communication have a different impact in mediating these influences.

According to the MANOVA test, the analysis confirmed the notion that family communication patterns mediate the influence of TV viewing on children's consumer behaviour; children's perceptions of fathers' mediation of the influence of TV viewing were related to fathers' communication patterns even though grade, gender, and the household monthly income are included as covariate variables. In that context, the partial Eta of Wilks' Lambda statistics was only decreased by 0.8% and the value of Wilks' Lambda = 0.786 is significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ . In addition, young children's perception of fathers' positive mediation is higher than the negative mediation that is based on prohibiting certain television programs for a child. That is, Jordanian fathers played an active role in the discussion of television content with their children through TV co-viewing.

In relation to the relative influence of each pattern, the pluralistic and consensual fathers were more likely to co-view TV with their young children on Friday than laissez-faire and protective fathers did; 73% of young children marked the choice of "often or very often" of co-viewing TV with their fathers on Friday. The pluralistic and laissez-faire did not frequently place restrictions on TV viewing compared to protective and consensual fathers. Protective and consensual fathers put rules at home regarding how long their children could watch TV. The pluralistic fathers discussed more frequently the commercial advertising with their young children than the laissez-faire, protective and consensual fathers did. The surprising result is that fathers of laissez-faire communication pattern discuss the commercial advertising with their young children more than the protective fathers do. This orientation can be accounted for the sample mean of socio communication structure that was slightly greater than the hypothesised mean by + 0.15; fathers who are highly engaged with socio-oriented communication teach children to yield to their authority, which in turn reduce father-child discussion about commercial advertising.

#### **9.4.5 Measure the relative influence of fathers' communication patterns on children's shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products.**

Earlier, Ward et al. (1977 a and b) had identified five methods used by mothers to teach children consumer skills: (a) Prohibit certain acts through reinforcement such as placing restrictions on watching television. (b) Give lectures on consumer activities that are based on one-way lectures. (c) Hold discussions with a child about consumption matters. (d) Act as an example during co-shopping trips. (e) Allow the children to learn from their own experiences through giving them money and allowing them to make buying decisions. In addition, the children's consumer behaviour is conditioned by the structure and the quality of parent-child interaction in the home that may activate or deactivate them to have different perception of consumer goods and services and different levels of consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes (Moschis and Moore, 1979 a; Moschis et al., 1984; Moschis and Mitchell, 1986; Foxman et al., 1989; Carlson et al., 1990 a and b; Carlson et al., 1994; Cao and price, 1997; Rose et al., 1998; Mangleburg and Bristol, 1998; Chan and McNeal, 2003; Caruana and Vassallo, 2003; Geuens et al., 2003; Chan and McNeal, 2004; Mukherji, 2005; Neeley, 2005; Bakir et al., 2005; Hsieh et al., 2006; Chan and McNeal, 2006). In that context, while the frequency measures are important to develop children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes, the family communication patterns have an ability to explain more clearly children's consumer activity than do communication's frequency measures. Consumer activity "consumer role" is referred to children's ability to buy and use products and services in a rational and efficient manner (Moschis and Moore, 1979; Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis et al., 1984; Moschis, 1985). Therefore, the researchers have turned their attention to general patterns of family communication as a way to understand how the family influences the development of consumer knowledge, skills, and values (John, 1999).

In this respect, the results of one-way MANOVA technique followed by a series of univariate ANOVA analyses are consistent with the aforementioned research orientations related to the influence of family communication patterns in interpreting children's consumer role. The research results suggest that Jordanian fathers through different

communication patterns played a developmental role in young children's consumer-shopping skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to convenience grocery and food products. In addition, one-way MANOVA and ANOVAs' statistics suggest that the dependent variables are statistically varied by fathers' communication patterns albeit including young children's ages, gender and household monthly income as covariate variables. In that context, the partial Eta of Wilks' Lambda statistics of fathers communication patterns was only reduced by 0.4% and the value of Wilks' Lambda = 0.769 is significant at the level of  $P = 0.00$ . ANOVA test showed that young children's attitudes towards stores were not varied across fathers' communication patterns. In this respect, there were no significant correlations between fathers' communication patterns after splitting them into four variables and young children's attitudes towards stores at the level of  $P < 0.05$  exclusive laissez-faire pattern ( $r = -0.07$ ,  $P = 0.04 < 0.05$ ). In general, they have not possessed competence knowledge about the stores. The descriptive analysis showed that there were no clear differences among young children's scores across the statements of children's attitudes towards stores, for example, 51% of young children marked the choice of "agree or strongly agree" and similarly 49% of young children marked the choice of "disagree or strongly disagree about changing their favourite stores.

At the level of dependent variables, the highest explanation of fathers' communication patterns was related to the desirable choice rules used in the evaluation and the selection of grocery and food products. It was consistent with fathers' attitudes towards developing the shopping consumer role of young children through co-shopping trips; young children observed how their fathers selected and judged the grocery and food product during co-shopping trips. In this regard, Moschis (1985) noted that the cognition processes, especially consumer behaviour norms, appear to be transmitted from parents through observation; parents try to act as an example during co-shopping trips and they expect their children to learn and acquire such norm through observation. On the other hand, the lowest explanation was associated with young children's consumer affairs knowledge; it was probably related to children's cognitive development rather than fathers' communication patterns.

Table 9.4.3: The differences according to Tukey-HSD and Games-Howell paired comparisons tests

Patterns Variables	Laissez-faire	Protective	Pluralistic	Consensual	Highest mean	Lowest mean
Consumer affairs knowledge	Less than pluralistic and no differences with others patterns	No differences with others patterns	More than laissez and no differences with others patterns	No differences with others patterns	Pluralistic	Laissez-faire
Shopping independently	No difference with protective	No difference with laissez	More than laissez and protective and no difference with consensual	More than laissez and protective	Pluralistic	Laissez-faire
Family use	No differences with consensual and protective	Less than all patterns except laissez	More than all patterns	More than protective	Pluralistic	Protective
Own use	No differences*	No differences	More than all patterns	No differences	Pluralistic	Protective
Desirable choice rules	No differences	Less than all patterns and No difference with laissez	More than all patterns	More than protective and no difference with laissez	Pluralistic	Laissez-faire
Undesirable choice rules	More than pluralistic and no difference with consensual	More than all patterns	Less than all patterns	Less than protective	Protective	Pluralistic
attitude toward stores	No differences	No differences	No differences	No differences	Protective	Laissez-faire
Scepticism to advertising	less than consensual and no differences with other patterns	No differences	No differences	More than laissez	Consensual	Laissez-faire
Recreation and economic ads	No differences	Less than Pluralistic and no differences with other patterns	More than Protective and No differences with other patterns	No differences	Pluralistic	Protective
Materialistic attitudes	No differences	Less than pluralistic and no differences with other patterns	More than Protective and no differences with other patterns	No differences	Pluralistic	Protective

(\*) No sig. diff. with other patterns

In that context, Ward et al. (1977 a) noted that parental consumer-oriented goals were related to (a) money skills, (b) price/bargain skills and knowledge, (c) quality/product

skills and knowledge (d) information source use skills and knowledge. Moreover, since the effects of fathers' communication patterns on young children's consumer role according to Tukey-HSD and Games-Howell's paired comparisons tests were thoroughly explained through the section of "testing hypotheses", for the sake of non-repetitions, the general features of a major pattern effects will be discussed.

As shown in table 9.4.3, the pluralistic children were more knowledgeable about the consumer affairs knowledge, shopping independence at different stores, and buying certain groups of grocery and food products independently for the family use or for their own use. They frequently rely on desirable choice rules "strategies" in the selection of grocery and food products and pay more attention to recreations and economic motivations of viewing TV commercial advertising compared to other patterns of communication. Inconsistent with previous research (Moore and Moschis, 1981), the pluralistic children have positive attitudes towards the materialistic value more than do the protective children without any differences with other patterns. This attitude is resultant to fathers' general orientations towards developing the materialism values of children. In this respect, 30% of fathers agree that the possession of money can buy the happiness and 50% of fathers perceived that increasing the school's allowances of their young children would make them happy. Twenty-five percent of fathers usually buy for their children what they want, and 30% of fathers buy things for their children that other kids like to have it. In addition, fathers of household income (300 JD and above) were more likely to be more pluralistic; there was a significant positive association between pluralistic fathers' tendencies and the family monthly income ( $r = 0.11$ ,  $P = 0.001 < 0.01$ ) and negative relationship with consensual fathers tendencies ( $r = -0.10$ ,  $P = 0.003 < 0.01$ ).

#### **9.4.6 Measure the relative influence of young children's cognitive development on children shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products.**

As shown in chapter 3 of literature review, children's learning of consumer skills is influenced by the stages of children's cognitive development that is normally associated with their ages (Wackman and Ward, 1976; Rossiter, 1976; Roedder, 1981; Reece, 1984;

John, 1985; Brucks et al., 1986; Peracchio, 1992; Gregan-Paxton and John, 1995; Macklin, 1996; Hogg et al., 1999; Moore and Lutz, 2000; Zhang and Sood, 2002; Marshal et al., 2002; McNeal and Ji, 2003). In that context, Ward et al. (1977 a) found that 20 out of 24 of children's consumption skills and non-skills behaviours were explained by their ages. Most of these skills were related to the family context, namely, mother's own consumer behaviour variables, mother-child interaction variables, mother's consumer education goals and attitudes variables, and child's opportunity variables. In addition, age is a significant predictor of children's attitudes towards store, advertising, price-quality relationship, and product's knowledge (Moschis, 1978). John (1999) noted that there is a considerable shift in understanding the purpose of retailing stores between the perceptual (3-7 years old) and analytical (7-11 years old) stages. While young children of perceptual stage viewed the stores as fulfilling their wants and desires, young children of the analytical stage, 7-11 years old viewed the retailing stores as profit centres existed to fulfil the consumers' wants and desires. During this period, the retailing knowledge increased. They focused on more than one attribute in the evaluation process and exhibited a more thoughtful and adaptive approach to decision making. Therefore, understanding the shopping process does not occur before children reach the preschool or kindergarten years.

The aforementioned perspectives were confirmed through investigating the relative influence of young children's ages on the development of their consumer role. In this regard, MANOVA results showed that the ages of young children were strongly associated with the dependent variables. Specifically, Wilks' Lambda statistics suggests that the age of young children is more explanatory than fathers' communication patterns relating to children shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes. This result was confirmed by the effect size of young children's ages, which explained 33% of "means differences" of the consumer role of young children related to grocery and food products. Likewise, the partial Eta squared of univariate ANOVAs' analyses for young children's ages across the dependent variables is also higher than fathers' communication patterns. For example, while 68% of means variations of the rational buying skills was explained by children's ages, fathers' communication patterns explained 12% of means variations of

young children's desirable choice rules. In this respect, the age of young children is positively associated with the four dependent measures of the adolescent's tendency to play a more influential role than his/her parents in (a) mentioning the need for products, (b) discussing consumption with parents, (c) deciding whether to buy certain products, and (d) independently purchasing products. With increasing age, adolescents show greater participation in consumer decisions attributed to their increasing knowledge of the marketplace (Moschis and Mitchell, 1986). In addition, Chan and McNeal (2006) investigated the relative contribution of the cognitive development and the social learning models in predicting the ability of Chinese children of ages 6-14 to understand the television advertising. They found that TV as a socialisation agent played a crucial role more than Chinese parents did and the cognitive development theory is more predictable for children's understanding of commercial communications than the social learning theory; R-square values for parent influence, according to the social learning model, is not significant at the level of  $P= 0.05$ . The social learning model with television, as socialisation agent, was statistically significant for the understanding of what is television commercial.

According to Tukey-HSD paired comparisons, the 6<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades followed by 4<sup>th</sup> grade of young children marked the highest mean across the dependent variables of consumer shopping skills compared to the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades. These results were sustained by the positive correlations between young children's ages and the dependent variables. They were more frequently shopping independently at different stores of grocery and food products to buy certain groups of grocery and food product for the family use and for their own use than other grades. They frequently used rational consumer skills in buying grocery and food products either for their family use or for own use. They were more knowledgeable about the products related to understanding the meaning of a product's quality, ingredients, price, size, and brand. They recognised the importance of money value in purchasing various products, understood the meaning of the on sale prices and the relationship between brands and prices. They were more knowledgeable about the rights of consumers in bargaining prices with salespeople and recognising the meaning of the private stores, and taxes that are imposed by the government on private stores.

However, these results can be explained through identifying the proportion of each grade to the total elements of fathers' communication pattern. As shown in table 9.4.4 which was derived from the cross-tabulation matrix of testing hypotheses, young children of 6<sup>th</sup> grade represents 40% of pluralistic fathers' communication pattern, followed by 4<sup>th</sup> grade = 36.5%, and 5<sup>th</sup> grade = 36%. By contrast, the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade of young children represents the highest proportion of laissez-faire fathers' communication pattern = 25% and, simultaneously, the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade represents 42.6% of protective fathers' communication pattern. That is, fathers' communication patterns clearly explained the ability of young children to play the consumer role "consumer activity" in retailing milieu than do communication's frequency measures (Moschis and Moore, 1979 a; Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis et al., 1984; Moschis, 1985). Consequently, the characteristics of pluralistic communication pattern encourage the 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades of young children to effectively play the consumer role more than other grades. In a similar vein, the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades have more positive attitude towards stores than young children of 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, and 4<sup>th</sup> grades who have the same levels of attitudes towards the stores. Therefore, 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades were more likely to be hedonistic on their orientations towards shopping and TV viewing for social and economic utilities than these grades.

Table 9.4.4: Fathers' communication patterns distribution in accordance with grades

Patterns Grades	Fathers communication patterns				Total
	laissez-faire fathers	Protective fathers	Pluralistic fathers	Consensual fathers	
2nd grade	33	80	23	52	188
<i>Ratio</i>	17.6%	42.6%	12.2%	27.7%	100%
3rd grade	49	33	57	58	197
<i>Ratio</i>	24.9%	16.8%	28.9%	29.4%	100%
4th grade	44	36	66	35	181
<i>Ratio</i>	24.3%	19.9%	36.5%	19.3%	100%
5th grade	20	54	62	36	172
<i>Ratio</i>	11.6%	31.4%	36.0%	20.9%	100%
6th grade	42	33	71	32	178
	23.6%	18.5%	39.9%	18%	100%

According to the research findings, there were no differences between protective, consensual, and laissez-faire children on their attitudes towards recreations and economic motivations of TV advertising. In addition, young children's attitudes towards stores were

not varied by fathers' communication patterns. While there was no significant difference between 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades relating to scepticism towards the credibility of TV commercial advertising oriented young children's grocery and food products, the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades displayed the same level of scepticism.

The least scepticism was associated with 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grades. These differences are resultant to the invariability among protective, pluralistic, and consensual children in their scepticism attitudes towards TV advertising. In addition, the 5<sup>th</sup> grade is more frequently based on the external appearance of products than the 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, and 6<sup>th</sup> grades of young children. The 4<sup>th</sup> grade is the least in relying on the external appearance of products consumed by them compared to other grades of young children; they were less likely to select a product that contains gift, photos of famous celebrities and players, focus on the taste, package and colour of the products. In this regard, 31% and 36% of the 5<sup>th</sup> grade student were respectively related to protective and pluralistic fathers' communication patterns. In contrast, 24% and 36.5% of grade 4<sup>th</sup> were respectively associated with laissez-faire and pluralistic fathers' communication patterns. In addition, the negative correlation ( $r = -0.03$ ) was not statistically significant at the level of ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $P = 0.41$ ). Finally, these results were entirely consistent with focus group discussions of the exploratory research:

*“Jordanian young children of ages 8-12 years old have different competences relating to the degree of using choice criteria in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products. Prior to buying the convenience grocery and food products for their own use or for the family use, boys and girls usually check the caps or the cartons that are used in packaging the grocery and food products, the freshness or the expiry date of products, and the product's label (ingredients)”.*

#### **9.4.7 Measure the relative influence of gender on children shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products.**

The literature review of chapters 3, 4, and 5 showed that learning consumer skills and shopping orientations are varied across the gender of children (Moschis et al., 1984; Moschis and Mitchell, 1986; Moore-Shay and Lutz, 1988; Mangleburg et al., 1997; Rummel et al., 2000; Hailing and Tufte, 2002; Kamaruddin and Mokhlis, 2003; Neeley, 2005). In this respect, Male adolescents exhibited stronger expressive orientations toward consumption “materialistic attitudes and social motivations” than female (Churchill Jr and

Moschis, 1979). Males tend to be more knowledgeable about consumer matters than females (Moschis et al., 1984). Moschis and Mitchell (1986) found that female adolescents are more likely to participate in family purchase decisions than male adolescents. Hailing and Tufte (2002) found that boys are more knowledgeable about brand awareness and usage than girls' knowledge relating to the product categories of instant chocolate (2), biscuits (4), ice cream (24), soft drinks (10), chocolate milk (4), fruit syrup (8), sandwich spread (4), chocolate spread (5), cereals (19), children's clothes (4), and shoes (6). Girls are more knowledgeable than boys on the categories of skin care (4). Kamaruddin and Mokhlis (2003) found that female adolescents treat shopping as a pleasant activity and shop just for the fun of it. Parents co-shop and talking how to buy things more often with girls than with boys (Neeley, 2005).

In that context, MANOVA results showed that the gender of young children was related to the dependent variables and the partial Eta squared of Wilks' Lambda statistics explained 36.5% of total variability of 7 out of 12 young children's consumer skills, knowledge and attitudes related to shopping consumer role-grocery and food products. In contrast to the results of fathers' communication patterns and the ages of young children, the Univariate ANOVAs' results showed that young children's consumer affairs knowledge except the finance and price knowledge, their attitudes towards stores, and scepticism towards commercial advertising oriented young children were not varied by the gender of young children. The analysis of the independent-sample T test comparing means for two groups showed that boys were more frequently shopping independently than did girls at different stores of grocery and food products and the magnitude of the differences in the means was very large (Eta squared = 27%). That is, the partial Eta squared of univariate ANOVA analyses for young children's gender across shopping independence is higher than the explanation of young children's ages = 0.08 and fathers' communication patterns = 0.08. In relation to the remaining variables, the partial Eta squared of univariate ANOVAs related to young children ages and fathers' communication patterns were clearly higher than gender's explanations. In addition, the analysis of the independent-samples T test compares means for two groups showed that boys are more knowledgeable than their counterparts (girls) relating to finance and price

knowledge. They were more frequently buying certain groups of products for their own use, employing the rational consumer skills than girls in buying grocery and food products either for their family use or for own use.

However, the relationship between fathers' communication patterns and the gender of young children explained these results; 64% and 36% of boys and girls' fathers respectively are consensual in their communication tendency, which represents the balance between the socio and concept-oriented communication structures. They were highly engaged in socio and concept-oriented communication structures.

For their own use, girls were less frequently selecting a product that contains gift, photos of famous celebrities and players, relying on the taste, package and colour of the products than boys. Boys have a more social and hedonistic orientations towards shopping and watching the TV for social and economic utilities than do girls. In that context, 55% and 45% of girls and boys' fathers were respectively pluralistic in their communication tendency that represents high concept orientation and low socio-orientation.

Finally, these results are completely consistent with the findings of focus groups discussions:

*“Girls used to buy from the corner stores, regardless of the types of products, for their own use or the family use. They are less frequently bargaining the prices of grocery and food products with the sales-people or shop-owners. Boys are more frequently relying on the external appearance of grocery and food products that are portrayed on the packaging colours of products, products that contain gifts, photos of famous celebrities and players in evaluating and selecting the grocery and food products”.*

#### **9.4.8 Measure the similarity “modelling” of father-child interaction in shopping milieu related to convenience grocery and food products.**

In consumer settings, the similarity in consumption attitudes and behaviours between parents and children may take a variety of forms ranging from sharing of specific brand preferences to much broader belief systems, attitudes, and values. The measurements of concurrence and predication of accuracy were applied on young adults rather than adolescent or young children (Moore-Shay and Lutz, 1988; Moore-Shay and Berchmans, 1996; John, 1999; Viswanathan et al., 2000). In socialisation studies, Moschis (1985) noted that the correlation between parents and children's responses are used as evidence

of children's modelling of their parents' behaviour. Therefore, the term of similarity hereto is referred to modelling fathers' consumer shopping role related to grocery and food products. The higher level of similarity between young children and their fathers relating to shopping consumer skills and attitudes signifies that father influence has taken place. In that context, two levels of analysis were conducted to test the null hypothesis that is based on dyadic responses.

The first level of analysis based on paired samples t-test was concerned with the means differences between young children and their fathers in each grade via splitting the research data into five units. In this respect, the results showed that young children of 4<sup>th</sup> grade and their fathers were used the same choice rules "strategies" in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products. That is, young children of 4<sup>th</sup> grade formed 36.5% of pluralistic communication tendency, which is higher than the proportions of 5<sup>th</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> grades in the formation of pluralistic pattern. In contrast, this result was in contradiction with 6<sup>th</sup> grade young children who represent 40% of pluralistic communication tendency. Young children of 3<sup>rd</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, and 6<sup>th</sup> grades and their fathers have similar orientations towards stores. This result is consistent with the formation of a pluralistic pattern; they respectively formed 29%, 36.0%, and 40% of pluralistic patterns. In addition, young children and their fathers have shared similar attitudes towards materialism values, and both of them are used to buying the expensive and the newest brands of grocery and food products. Fathers allow their young children to buy grocery and food products that other kids like to have. This result contradicts with pluralistic fathers' orientations since pluralistic fathers have more attitudes towards materialism than the protective and laissez-faire fathers do. Also, the results showed that there was no similarity between young children and their fathers in respect of their orientations towards social and economic utilities of viewing TV commercial advertising; young children of ages ranging from 8 to 12 years old have more attitudes towards social and economic utilities of viewing TV commercial advertising than their fathers. Moreover, while there is no similarity between young children of 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades and their fathers, young children of 5<sup>th</sup> grade have the same attitudes as their fathers relating to scepticism towards TV commercial advertising oriented young children. That is, young children of

5<sup>th</sup> grade formed 36% of pluralistic communication tendency. This result is also contradicted with 4<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades of young children who respectively represent 36.5% and 40% of pluralistic communication tendency. In this regard, Viswanathan et al. (2000) found that the agreement between parents and young adults was moderate and resultant to the complexity of the dyadic relationship and family communication environment. The higher agreement may be found within families that have stronger relationships. In addition, they found that mothers have higher levels of communication and influence than fathers and daughters who reported higher levels than did sons. Fathers have greater influence on their sons than they do with their daughters.

Broadly speaking, the results showed that the learning process “modelling” is varied across fathers’ communication patterns. These results were also confirmed by the second level of analysis that is based on the correlation analysis for all groups of young children as a unit. In this regard, the correlation results showed that there was a positive association between fathers’ consumer role and children’s consumer shopping skills and attitudes towards certain grocery and food products. The highest correlation was arrayed on father-child choice rules ( $r = 0.43$ ,  $n = 916$ ) followed by father-child scepticism towards TV commercial advertising oriented young children ( $r = 0.24$ ,  $n = 916$ ). The lowest correlation was related to father-child attitude towards stores ( $r = 0.17$ ,  $n = 916$ ). In addition, the “modelling or imitation” process as a result of observation is not related to the age of children (Moore and Moschis, 1981). Finally, partial correlation coefficients were also computed for all these relationships through controlling the gender. The results indicated that the composition of gender does not affect the degree of similarity.

## **Chapter 10**

### **Conclusion, Managerial Implications, Research Contributions, Limitations, and Future Research**

#### **10.1 Introduction**

After having achieved the research objectives through previous chapters, the rational step is to link the components of research findings to present the research conclusion and to infer the managerial implications of research, research's contribution to the knowledge and theory, research's limitations, and future research. Specifically, this chapter consists of five sections. The first section presents the major findings of qualitative and quantitative research related to the influence of fathers' consumer roles and the antecedent variables on young children shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to convenience grocery and food products as a result of father-child interaction in shopping milieu. While the second section was designed to present the managerial implications, the third section was planned to present the research contribution to the knowledge and theory. The fourth and fifth sections were respectively undertaken research limitations and future research.

#### **10.2 Conclusion**

The literature review indicates that the TV commercial messages have a persuasive impact on children's consumption behaviour and the consumer role of young children is directly influenced by the types and the quality of family communication environment (Moschis et al., 1984; Moschis and Mitchell, 1986; Foxman et al., 1989; Carlson et al., 1994; Cao and price, 1997; Rose et al., 1998; Chan and McNeal, 2003; Mukherji, 2005; Neeley, 2005; Bakir et al., 2005; Hsieh et al., 2006; Chan and McNeal, 2006).

Departing from these premises, the structure of research conclusion depends on (a) the interrelated process of research design that relied on qualitative and quantitative approaches, and (b) the theoretical framework of research model. Specifically, the research conclusion was divided into the conclusion of data analysis techniques, research exploratory conclusion, measurement conclusion, and survey research conclusion.

### **10.2.1 The strategy of data analysis**

As shown in figure 10.2.1, the research data of qualitative and quantitative approaches were analysed through six levels of analyses, namely, exploratory research analyses, adjusting the research data by the age factor, identifying fathers' communication structures and measuring the dimensionality of research variables, reliability analysis, descriptive analysis, and testing research hypotheses.

*At the first level of analysis*, structured personal interviews face-to-face experts' survey were analysed through cross-tabulation Pearson chi-square test, MANOVA, and ANOVA techniques to determine the types of grocery and food products that should be investigated in the research model. The semi-structured focus group discussions were analysed via content analysis to identify the general features of children's consumer role in the shopping milieu.

*At the second level of analysis*, despite the fact that there were insignificant differences between young children's sharing in the primary data and their contributions in the target population, the primary data of survey research were adjusted according to the actual contribution of each stratum "child age" in the target population. This procedure was used to precisely measure the relative importance of each stratum and to remove the sampling bias. The data were weighted by dividing the population percentage of each age by its contribution percentage in the primary data and multiplying the sample data by the weighted factor of each stratum.

*At the third level of analysis*, the principal component varimax rotated factor analysis was conducted to identify the dimensionality of research variables in particular that are related to purify fathers' communication structures and to avoid the collinearity or multicollinearity effects in the research's results since most of the research hypotheses were tested through one-way MANOVA and multiple regression analyses. It was also used to describe each factor "as summated variables" in the descriptive analysis.

*At the fourth level of analysis*, the reliability analysis was conducted through the measurement of Cronbach alpha coefficient for the research scales and the inter-item correlation coefficients among the items of each scale. Cronbach alpha coefficients are greater than 0.60.

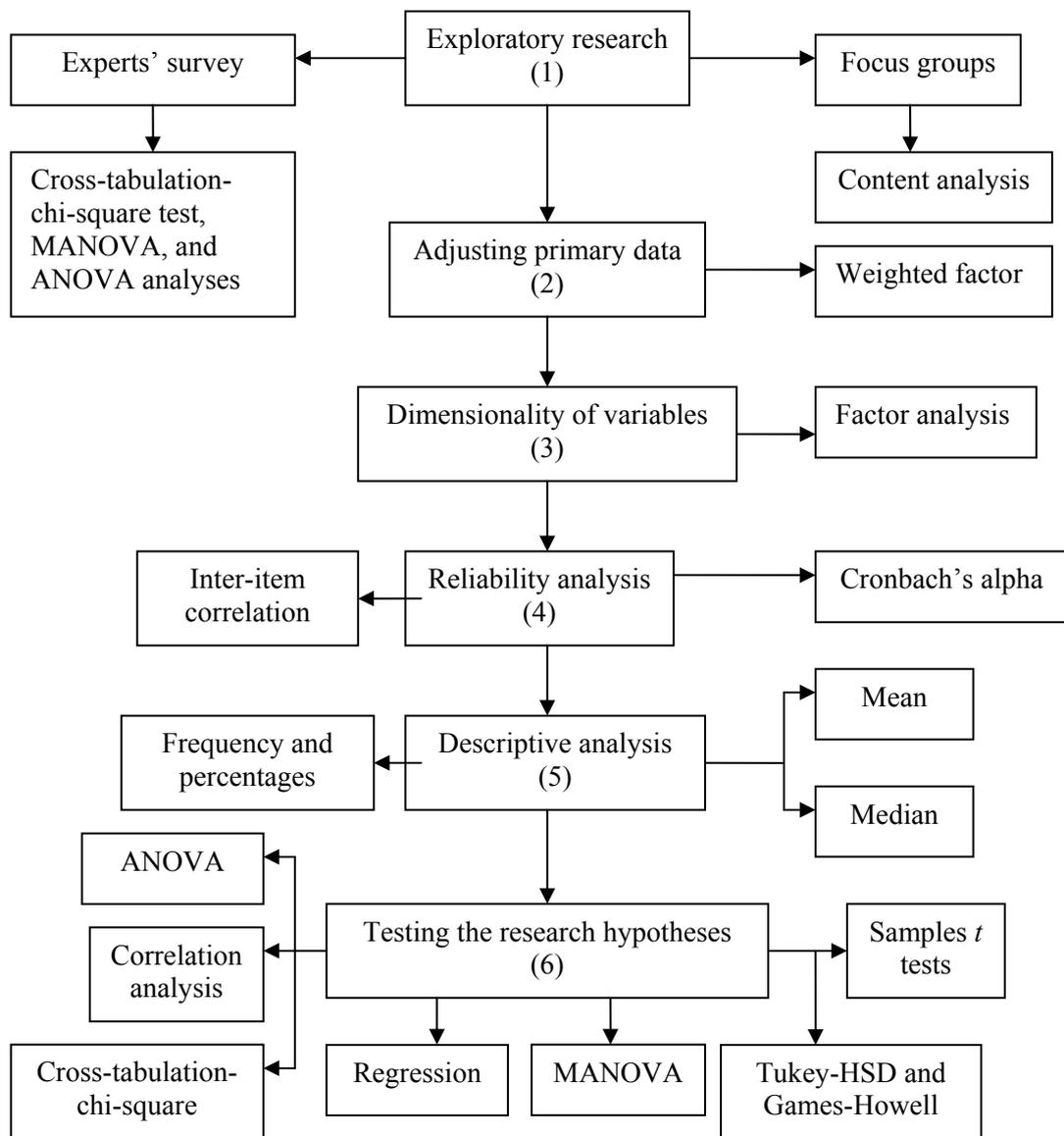


Figure 10.2.1: Diagram of research data analysis excluding the measurement analysis

*At the fifth level of analysis*, a series of univariate analyses portraying the frequency distribution and percentages, and measures of location “means and medians” were conducted to identify the characteristics of young children’s shopping consumer role and father’s attitudes towards developing young children’s consumer behaviour in shopping milieu.

*At the sixth level of analysis*, correlation analysis, cross-tabulation associated with Pearson chi-square statistics and Cramer's V coefficient, multiple regression analysis, one-way ANOVA and MANOVA, one-sample *t* test, the independent-samples *t* test, the paired-samples *t* test were conducted to test the research hypotheses.

### **10.2.2 The exploratory research**

An exploratory research design represented by semi-structured focus groups' discussions and personal interview experts' survey was firstly conducted to precisely define the research problem, split it into major issues, determine the types of products that need to be investigated in the research model and to develop the two questionnaires constructs. In relation to the experts' survey of salespeople and shop owners, the results of cross-tabulation Pearson chi-square statistics, one-way MANOVA and one-way ANOVA analyses showed that young children of ages ranging from 8 to 12 years are able to buy certain items of convenience grocery and food products. These items can be classified into two groups:

- Shelves "light" items that referred to the group of grocery and food products purchased for the use of young children such as chocolates, chewing gum, biscuit, chips, ice cream, soft drink, fruit juice, nuts and raisins, sandwich, and school supplies.
- Heavy items that referred to grocery and food products purchased for the family use such as dishwashing liquid, eggs, sugar, rice, tinned food, shampoo, breakfast food, bakery food, vegetables, fruits, chicken, meat, fish, and yoghurt.

In this respect, grocery and food products represent 36% of Jordanian household consumption patterns. Meats and poultry consumption represent 9.1% of grocery and food products followed by cereal and cereals products 4.8%, dairy products and eggs 4.5%, vegetables 3.5%, oils and fats 2.7%, fruits 2.4%, and other food items such as fish, dry and canned legumes, spices, nuts, sugar, tea, coffee and beverages 9% (Department of Statistics, 2002/2003).

In relation to focus group discussions, the preliminary results of content analysis as presented in table 10.2.1 revealed eight themes, which showed that young Jordanian

children of ages ranging from 8 to 12 years exhibit different shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products resultant to father-child interaction in shopping milieu. The results of exploratory research afford valuable information about children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products.

On the other hand, the exploratory research does not explain the differences between young children's ages related to shopping consumer role. It does not identify the roots of influences and the causes of these differences behind these patterns of behaviours. Specifically, are these patterns of behaviours attributed only to fathers' variables such as fathers' communication structures and patterns? Are these patterns of shopping behaviour influenced by the family demographic variables? Therefore, a survey research design was employed to measure the relative effects of these variables on children's consumer role related to grocery and food products.

Table 10.2.1: Themes identified from focus groups' transcripts.

1	Buying grocery and food products for the family use is part of Jordanian fathers' chores.
2	Jordanian fathers play a crucial role in the development of shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes of their young children of ages 8 to 12 years related to convenience grocery and food products more than other aspects.
3	Fathers allow their young children to go shopping independently to buy specific products for their own use or for the family use.
4	The young children use some choice rules and strategies when buying convenience grocery and food products.
5	There are some variations between different ages and the gender of young children in shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to buy certain grocery and food products.
6	Young children usually shop independently at corner grocery stores (supermarket), and specialised stores.
7	Young children are heavily watching TV.
8	Boys and girls buy grocery and food products for social utilities.

### 10.2.3 Revising and validating family communication structures

Great attention was paid to the measurements of young children's perception of fathers' communication structures since previous research had measured these structures according to the adolescents' and mothers' perspectives to assess the influence of parents' communication structures and patterns on children's consumer behaviour. In this respect, the results of the two main studies that are based on the principal component varimax

rotated factor analysis, correlation analysis, and one-way ANOVA analysis provide evidence to the generalisability of the two scales. Similarly, the consistency between the results of the two studies and previous research findings support the validity and the reliability of the two scales. In addition, the two dimensions were not clearly influenced by the cultural differences. In this respect, the two main items of previous research scales related to; *“Your father wants to know how and where you should spend your pocket money and savings” socio orientation* and *“your father allows you to decide how to spend your pocket money and savings” concept orientation* were deleted from the purified scales. This result can be attributed to fathers’ emotional attitudes towards their young children. In addition, the new items inferred from previous research that may reflect the cultural differences: *“Your father says that buying good or bad things is due to luck” (socio)* and *“Your father says that buying good or bad things does not depend on luck” (concept)* were also deleted. Western cultures have a stronger internal locus of control. People with an external locus of control believe that factors beyond the control of the individual determine future behaviours; they simply take events as they come instead of being able to plan, avoid, or master the environment. People with an internal locus of control believe they are masters of their destiny (Cote and Tansuhaj, 1989:106). In this regard, Jordanian fathers’ communication structures are not clearly affected by their attitudes and believability towards the external locus of control. Specifically, while 76% of Jordanian fathers believe that buying the right things depends on the individual’s consumer skills and mental ability, 46% believe that luck plays a pivotal role when one buys something that did not satisfy his/her desires. In contrast, Cote and Tansuhaj (1989) found that young Jordanian adults had the lowest scores on internal locus of control compared to American and Thailand young adults. In a similar vein, Kongsompong (2006) found that men and women from the collectivist country “Singapore” exhibit a greater degree of external locus of control in buying situations than men and women from a typical individualist country (Australia) and are more responsive to social influence in a purchase situation than that of their Western counterparts.

In general, the results provide new evidence that young children can precisely perceive family communication structures as adolescents (Moschis and his colleagues, 1979 a and 1984), and mothers (Carlson et al., 1990 a).

#### **10.2.4 Fathers, not mothers, as socialisation agents**

Jordanian fathers play a crucial role in developing and imparting consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes to their young children more than do mothers; they strongly believe that the development of young children's consumer role is the fathers' responsibility rather than the mothers' responsibility. Fathers, in Arab culture, have the first and the last word (TRADOC DESINT handbook 2, 2006: 12). In this regard, there is evidence that the consumer behaviour is varied from one culture to another, which in turn affects the process of parent-child interaction in shopping milieu. Japanese parents are more indulgent with their children compared with American and British parents (Ward et al., 1986) and the percentage of children co-shopping with Turkish fathers (Ozgen, 2003) and Egyptian fathers (Hassan, 2002) is higher than that of advanced societies. While the influence of Turkish children on family decision making related to buying food, apparel, furniture and cars is strong (Ozgen, 2003), the influence of American children on family decision making related to buying car and furniture is weak (Foxman et al., 1989). The socio-oriented communication structure of Taiwanese fathers explained 30% of children's attitudes toward the brands of sport shoes brands followed by mothers 8% (Hsieh et al., 2006).

#### **10.2.5 The effect of fathers' variables on their orientations towards developing young children consumer roles**

The research results confirm that Jordanian fathers play two roles in developing the consumer role of their young children, namely, the developmental role through co-shopping with their young children and the gate-keeping role through mediation on the influence of TV commercial advertising on their young children's consumption behaviour. In relation to the developmental role, the influence of the fathers' consumer role evidently appeared in father-child interaction on shopping milieu related to convenience grocery and food products more than other aspects. To this end, Jordanian

fathers strongly believe that fathers should talk with their kids about how to buy grocery and food products. They strongly believe that young children should participate in grocery and food shopping trips made by their fathers. They frequently ask their young children to accompany them in their shopping visits to different stores in particular those related to neighbourhood supermarkets and the restaurant for breakfast food. During co-shopping trips, they used to teach their young children how to check the quality of grocery and food products. As a source of information for new products, they frequently ask their young children to buy new brands of grocery and food products that give them the opportunity to have new knowledge relating to the brands of grocery and food products. Fathers try to understand the underlying reasons relating to their young children's purchase requests. Therefore, they are frequently yielding to young children's purchases requests.

On the other hand, Jordanian fathers give their young children an opportunity to acquire the consumer role through their own experiences as part of fathers' orientation towards developing the consumer role of young children. They ask their young children for help to buy convenience grocery and food products for the family use from the corner stores, supermarket, bakery shops, restaurants, and specialised stores that are located near their homes. While 96% of young children reported that their fathers request them to buy certain grocery and food products for the family use independently, 100% of young children reported that their fathers allowed them to go shopping independently to buy grocery and food products for their own use. Fathers trust the ability of their young children to recall the types and the quantities of grocery and food products when they ask them to buy something for the family use and rarely use the script cues to activate the young children's memories.

In sum, the aforementioned characteristics of young children's consumer roles are resultant to Jordanian fathers' engagement with a high level of concept-oriented communication structure. This result was confirmed by the correlation analysis; there is a positive association between the fathers' orientations towards developing young children's consumer roles and the fathers' concept-oriented communication.

### **10.2.6 The effect of the antecedent variables on fathers' communication patterns**

The antecedent variables were referred to the young children's variables (the age, gender, the birth order of young children, and the number of young children in the family), demographic fathers' variables (fathers' ages, educational levels, and occupation), the household income, and the family structure "single boy family-and-other girls". The research results confirm that the fathers' communication patterns are varied across the age and the gender of young children, and the household income. Conversely, fathers' communication patterns are not varied by the birth order of young children, the number of young children in the family, fathers' ages, educational levels, occupation, and the family structure.

### **10.2.7 The effect of fathers' communication patterns in mediating the influence of TV viewing on young children's consumption behaviour**

There is evidence that the family communication patterns are related to parental control of consumption and media usage (Moore and Moschis, 1981; Moschis, 1985; Carlson et al., 1990 a and b; Mangleburg and Bristol, 1998; Rose et al., 1998; Rose, 1999; Chan and McNeal, 2003 and 2006). In this regard, the results showed that Jordanian fathers positively mediate the influence of TV viewing on their young children's consumption behaviour, which in turn foster the critical attitudes of their children towards commercial advertising and enable them to understand the reality of TV commercial advertising. Jordanian fathers are frequently co-viewing TV with their young children and discussing the content of TV commercial advertising to neutralise the negative influence of television viewing. Father-child discussion about the content of commercial advertising has increased with a more frequency of father-child co-viewing TV and simultaneously decreased with a more frequency of controlling TV viewing; the frequency of father-child co-viewing TV is not related to fathers' control of TV viewing. Consequently, Jordanian children are able to understand the meaning behind the TV commercial advertisement. Boys and girls believe that the TV commercial advertisement urges young children to buy things they do not really need them. They believe that the TV commercial advertisements use tricks and gimmicks to get young children to buy the advertised products. The mediation process is varied across fathers' communication patterns. The pluralistic

children followed by the consensual and laissez-faire children were more likely to perceive fathers' positive gate-keeping role against the influence of TV commercial advertising than did the protective children.

#### **10.2.8 The effect of fathers' communication patterns on children shopping consumer role**

The results showed that young children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products is noticeably varied by fathers' communication patterns. The greatest effect of fathers' communication patterns in young children's consumer role was associated with the desirable choice rules employed by young children in evaluating and selecting the grocery and food products. This effect is resultant to father-child co-shopping trips. While the lowest effect was associated with young children's consumer affairs knowledge, the young children's attitudes towards stores were not varied across fathers' communication patterns. In addition, the relative influences of different communication patterns on young children's consumer role were chiefly associated with fathers' pluralistic tendency since Jordanian fathers were more likely engaged in a high concept-oriented and low socio-oriented communication structures. In general, the pluralistic children scored the highest mean across all dependent variables except the undesirable choice rules that were associated with protective children and scepticism towards commercial advertising, which was associated with consensual children. The laissez-faire and protective children scored the lowest mean in consumer affairs knowledge, shopping independently at different stores, the frequency of buying product for the family use or for their own use, using the desirable choice rules, scepticism towards advertising oriented grocery and food products, attitudes towards recreation and economic motivations of TV viewing ads, and materialistic attitudes.

#### **10.2.9 The effect of children cognitive development on children's shopping consumer role**

The results showed that the highest correlation coefficients between the dependent variables of children's consumer role were associated with the frequency of young children shopping independently at different stores of grocery and food products, young children's ability to buy grocery and food products for the family use or for own use

independently, and rational buying skills. In addition, the results showed that young children's learning of shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes are directly influenced by the children's cognitive development. In general, the 6<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades followed by 4<sup>th</sup> grade of young children marked the highest mean across the dependent variables of shopping consumer skills compared to the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades. Moreover, it should be noted that fathers' communication patterns explained all the dependent variables of young children's shopping consumer role relating to grocery and food products exclusive of young children's attitudes towards stores. In contrast, while all the variables of young children's consumer role were plainly explained by the age of young children, the explanations of young children's age-related to consumer role are higher than the fathers' communication patterns and the gender of young children.

These results are completely consistent with the cognitive development stages and John's model (1999) of children's consumer socialisation stages. These results also confirmed that the consumer role of Jordanian young children goes beyond buying the simple items of grocery and food products. McNeal (1992: 17) noted, "Kids are no longer the penny-candy purchasers.... Kids have become effective in the marketplace."

#### **10.2.10 The diversity between girls and boys as consumers**

The results showed that the consumer role of young children is varied by the gender of young children. It explained 7 out of 12 young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to shopping consumer role-grocery and food products. Specifically, it explained the finance and price knowledge, shopping independently at different stores, the frequency of buying grocery and food products for the family use and for their own use, the rational buying skills, irrational buying skills, and social and hedonistic orientations. The gender of young children has evidently explained young children's shopping independence at different stores more than the fathers' communication patterns and the age of young children.

In relation to gender variations, boys are more frequently shopping independently than girls at different stores of grocery and food products and are more knowledgeable than girls relating to the finance and price knowledge. They are more frequently buying certain types of products for their own use, employing the rational consumer skills than the girls

in buying grocery and food products either for their family use or for their own use. Boys have a more social and hedonistic orientation towards shopping and TV viewing for social and economic utilities than do the girls. For own use, girls were less frequently selecting a product that contains a gift, photos of famous celebrities and players, relying on the taste, package and colour of the products than the boys.

#### **10.2.11 Measure the similarity “modelling” of father-child interaction in shopping milieu related to convenience grocery and food products.**

The research results that based on dyadic responses were conducted at two levels. The results of the first level that relied on each grade showed that the young children of 4<sup>th</sup> grade and their fathers used the same choice rules “strategies” in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products. Young children of 3<sup>rd</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, and 6<sup>th</sup> grades and their fathers have similar orientations towards stores. In addition, young children and their fathers have shared similar attitudes towards materialism values. The results also showed that there was no similarity “modelling” between young children and their fathers related to their orientations towards social and economic utilities of viewing TV commercial advertising. Moreover, the 5<sup>th</sup> grade has the same attitudes of their fathers relating to scepticism towards TV commercial advertising oriented young children. The results of correlation analysis indicate that there were positive associations between fathers’ consumer role and children consumer shopping skills and attitudes towards certain grocery and food products. The highest correlation was depicted on father-child choice rules followed by father-child scepticism towards TV commercial advertising oriented young children. It has mirrored the two roles of fathers’ consumer socialisation goals.

#### **10.2.12 Summary**

In the light of the research findings, the development of young children’s shopping consumer role relating to convenience grocery and food products is a must for preparing young children to participate effectively in the marketplace activities. Jordanian fathers play a *developmental role* on promoting and imparting the shopping consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes to their young children that enhance them to function effectively in retailing milieu and play a positive *gate-keeping role* in mediating the negative impact

of TV commercial advertising on young children's consumption behaviour. The consumer role of young children related to convenience grocery and food products is clearly influenced by their cognitive development, gender, and fathers' communication patterns. These influences urge young children to exhibit different competence of shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products within the stage itself. According to the process, young children have indirectly acquired the consumer role through father-child communication process "modelling through observation of fathers' consumer attitudes and behaviours" and directly through father-child discussion about the consumption matters through co-shopping trips, requesting them to buy grocery and food products for the family use and for own use "purposive training". Fathers' communication structures and patterns directly influence the consumer role of their young children and indirectly mediate the effects of TV commercial advertising. Finally, the research results confirm that the cognitive development of young children within the stage itself may be varied by child cultural background, socio-economic factors, and family communication structures and patterns.

### **10.3 The managerial implications of research**

The rapid growth of children's market (McNeal, 1998; Nairn, 2006) that is characterised by complex and sophisticated consumers motivates the marketers to understand the parents' roles in children's consumption behaviour since some patterns of adult's consumer behaviour are substantially influenced by the accumulation of childhood and adolescent's consumer skills, knowledge, attitudes, and experiences. In addition, children spend more time watching television than in any other activity except sleep (Huston and Wright 1996: 38), and the food purchases are the main area that kids are free to buy (Setlow, 2001), and the grocery shopping is a marketplace function that is performed on a regular basis (Ahuja et al., 1998; Pettersson et al., 2004). Therefore, the marketers are keen to know how children at different ages shop, interpret, understand, evaluate, and select products and brands in a retailing milieu, and what sort of consumer knowledge they possess relating to the marketplace practices. The global marketers need to understand the consumer attitudes and behaviours in different cultures and communities

in order to design effective marketing strategies since the patterns of consumption behaviour markedly differed across cultures due to the differences in the basic patterns of parent-child interaction in marketplace activities. In that context, the marketers have two choices in their promotional campaigns; they may directly depend on parents if the parents control the purchases of their young children or directly to young children (Gunter and Furnham, 1998). That is, it lies on the family communication environment since parents are the best source of information for many types of products (Rust, 1993; Darian, 1998; McNeal and Ji, 1999; Hassan, 2002; Spungin, 2004) and parents have the biggest influence when it comes to young children as consumers, to filter the influence of TV ads and other socialisation agents (Moschis, 1985; Rose et al., 1998; Chan and McNeal, 2003; Mukherji, 2005). Recently, based on a large scale survey that consisted of (1079) UK adolescents of ages 11-16 years related to the ways of learning about food and healthy eating, Strachan and Pavie-Latour (2006) reported that 67% of UK children learned from their parents as the most important source of trusted information about healthy eating followed by the socialisation agent of school (teachers/lessons) 11%, medical source (doctor/nurses) 10%, (friends /rest of the family) 3% and very few children are likely to believe in TV ads. On the other hand, the public policy-makers and agencies are interested in developing consumer education programmes through understanding the processes by which children acquire consumptions-related skills, knowledge, and attitudes. They wish to understand the impact of marketing activities on the development of consumer behaviour, values, and attitudes among the young children.

Departing from these premises, the managerial implications of research findings can be explained through the following levels:

### **10.3.1 Segmentation of children's market**

The market segmentation is an important aspect of consumer behaviour. Therefore, it is important for the marketers to know to what extent the differences in demographic variables influence parent-child communication structures and patterns. Solomon et al. (1999) noted that the consumers could be segmented according to their ages, gender, and social class. In addition, children's market is heterogeneous and not static relating to the patterns of purchases because it consists of young children, pre-teenagers, and teenagers

(Gunter and Furnham, 1998). In this regard, the research findings have clear implications regarding the segmentation process. Since young children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products are varied across their ages and gender, and family communication patterns, the marketers may segment the children's market according to these variables in their promotional campaigns and marketing strategies. The managerial implications of research confirmed Ward et al. (1977 b), Gunter and Furnham (1998), Rummel et al. (2000), Lee and Collins (2000), Emerald marketing consultants' (2003) perspectives. Ward et al. (1977 b), Gunter and Furnham (1998), and Rummel et al. (2000) reported that the segmentation of the children market, in accordance with the children's ages, is important because there are differences between young children's cognitive development processes associated with separate stages; young children's age should be reflected in designing the marketing strategies. It is also useful to segment some of the family markets based on the type of household structure and demographic variables (Lee and Collins, 2000). On the other hand, the Emerald marketing consultant who commented on Caruana and Vassallo's (2003) study provides valuable guidelines relating to segmenting the children's market according to family communication structure and patterns. He noted that the limited number of demographical variables' influences on parent-child communication structures assists the marketers to develop an appropriate model of market segmentation, which in turn enables them to draw particular communication campaigns and positioning strategies.

Departing from these premises, the research findings afford the following scenarios that can be employed by the marketers to segment the children market and fit their marketing mix accordingly:

1. Regardless of young children's gender and household income, segment the children's market into two categories, namely, young children of ages ranging from 8-10 and 11-12 years old.
2. Regardless of young children's ages and household income, segment the children's market into boys and girls children's market.
3. Segment the children's market according to the effect of children's ages on fathers' communication patterns, especially as: young children of ages 8 years old as

protective children's market, young children of ages 9 years old as consensual children's markets, and young children of ages ranging from 10-12 years old as pluralistic children's market.

4. Segment the children's market, according to the effect of children's gender, into consensual boys' children market and laissez-faire girls' children market.
5. Segment the children's market into consensual children's market for the household income less than 300 JD, laissez-faire children's market for the household income ranging from 300-less than 600 JD, and pluralistic children's market for the household income 600 of JD and above.

### **10.3.2 Family decision-making**

To increase the effectiveness of promotional campaigns, the marketers should examine the relative influence of family members' consumer roles at the different stages of family decision-making process relating to their products and services under investigation. This procedure would provide the marketing managers with the opportunity to shape brand choice and other features of products according to the characteristics of consumers' attitudes and behaviours (Lee and Collins, 2000). In addition, young consumers can often be more difficult to reach than their parents because they are inconsistent and impulsive in their purchases (McNeal, 1998; Gunter and Furnham, 1998).

Despite the fact that the research objectives were not directly involved with the family decision-making, the research results can be utilised in interpreting part of the family decision-making process resultant to father-child communication process. Specifically, since Jordanian fathers adopt the concept-oriented communication and this type of communication structure stresses the self-development and evaluation, encouraging children to develop their own skills and competence as consumers through bilateral communication and discussions, it is likely to infer that young Jordanian children have an influence on the family decision-making. Thus, the marketers can focus on young children in their promotion campaigns to influence the purchases of the household items, in particular those related to grocery and food products. In this respect, young children of family concept-oriented communication have an influence on family purchase decisions while those with socio-orientation do not have an influence (Moschis and Mitchell, 1986;

Ekstrom et al., 1987; Foxman et al., 1989; Cao and price, 1997; Caruana and Vassallo, 2003; Geuens et al., 2003).

### **10.3.3 Advertising to young children**

Marketers have oriented their advertising campaigns directly to children as a result of their roles in marketplace activities. Young consumers are responsive to advertising, but the nature of this behaviour also changes as children mature (Gunter and Furnham, 1998). Gunter and Furnham (1998) noted that it is important for the retailers to know which media young consumers relied on more than other media relating to particular types of products. According to the research results, the marketers should focus in their marketing strategies on TV ads more than other media; the research findings indicate that young children are heavily watching TV, namely 32% of young children reported that they watch TV more than 3 hours per/day. In contrast, the marketers should be aware that fathers play a positive gate-keeping role in neutralising the effect of TV advertising and, simultaneously, 47% of young children display the highest scepticism attitudes towards the credibility of TV advertising oriented children's grocery and food products. Ward and Wackman (1974) accounted the increase of scepticism toward the commercial advertisement for children's disappointment on a product performance when it was used.

However, the marketers should not panic; they may utilise, besides the TV commercial ads the newspaper and magazine advertisements in their promotional campaigns since young children's perception of father-child discussion relating to these types of media is the lowest compared to father-child discussions about the TV commercial advertising. To avoid fathers' mediation on the influence of TV commercial advertising, the marketers should make the commercial funny and interesting so that children will like them and remember their brands related to grocery and food products consumed by them. In this respect, while 84% of young children agreed or strongly agreed to watch TV advertisements for fun, 75% of young children agreed or strongly agreed to buy grocery and food products whose ads they like the best. The funny TV commercial advertising can also enhance their impact on children because children enjoy humour (Gunter and Furnham, 1998). In addition, Reece (1984: 323) examined the young children's ability of kindergartners, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> graders in identifying the store slogans from eight commercial advertisings of television, radio, and

newspaper which appeared two months before the collecting data. He says, “It is more likely that the advertising does not have enough impact on the children to cause the kind of processing that puts the slogan and correct name into long-term storage. It is interesting to note that the four stores with the highest rates of slogan recall used *music* in their television commercial.”

The advertisers should also take into account in their advertising messages that young children have positive attitudes towards watching TV commercial advertisement for social motivations; 46% of young children, who scored agree and strongly agree, watch TV commercial advertising to give them something to talk about with their friends. In this regard, Gunter and Furnham (1998) indicated that the advertisers should be aware of what is new to children regarding products and brands. Finally, Advertisers could use children’s advertisements for communicating with children and through them for communicating with fathers since Jordanian fathers are more apt to adopt the concept orientation.

#### **10.3.4 Father-child co-shopping at different stores**

The research findings recommend that the department stores and supermarkets should place the newest brand of products related to young children’s use on the lower shelf, in a visible place since fathers frequently introduce their young children to the newest brands relating to grocery and food products during father-child co-shopping, and simultaneously have similarity attitudes towards materialistic values. In addition, the retailers should be aware that Jordanian fathers comply with their young children’s purchase requests. That is, the retailers should present different types and brands of grocery and food products that are manufactured locally or those of foreign origin. The retailers should also be aware that young children should receive more attention and special assistance through training their sales people how to deal with young children in-stores since they have positive attitudes towards stores and have hedonistic and recreation orientations towards shopping.

Moreover, the retailers should focus on the corner stores in their distribution channels more than the other stores relating to grocery and food products either for the family use or young children’s use; 48% of young children go shopping independently to supermarkets more than six times a week. The retailers should also focus on the external appearance of the products related to young children’s use since most of the young children select a product

that contains gift, photos of famous celebrities and players. Properly designed packaging can have an enormous impact on children and their parents once they enter the purchase environment. Therefore, the retailers should focus on the taste, package and the colour of the products in particular that are related to young children of ages 8-9 years.

The retailers also should focus on premium offers for the family and young children users since fathers and young children focus on sale or promotion prices. In this regard, Gunter and Furnham (1998) noted that library supplies, comic books and magazines might not be advertised on TV ads. Therefore, the marketers should use for certain products sales promotion efforts such as coupons, contests and premium offers that have often an ultimate effect more than advertising alone. By contrast, the retailers should be aware that young children of ages 10-12 years employed the rational consumer skills in buying grocery and food products either for their family use or for own use. Therefore, they should be careful about the packaging of products, the freshness date of a product, and afford competitive prices because young children have an ability to buy from different stores, to compare between different brands, and bargain prices.

Finally, the marketers may use the public relations activities in their marketing strategies through entering the school environment in order to promote their products by giving teachers samples of their products such as pencils and books to pass them to the children as part of their promotion campaigns. In this regard, the lowest score of young children buying independently for their own use was associated with the school supplies; 46% of young respondents indicated that they were always shopping independently to buy school supplies for own use.

### **10.3.5 Public policy-makers and agencies**

As shown in chapter 2, the public policy-makers and agencies are interested to understand the relative influence and the efficacy of sources of consumer information including mass media, parents, and peers on young children's consumption behaviour. They want to deal with specific issues rather than dealing with general phenomena. According to the research results, the policy-makers and agencies should take into account that Jordanian fathers are engaged with a high level of concept-oriented communication structure and fathers' communication patterns have only explained 0.085 of fathers' mediation the influence of

TV commercial. These patterns did not explain young children's attitudes towards stores and the lowest explanation was associated with young children's consumer affairs knowledge related to marketplace practises. Simultaneously, fathers are more likely to develop materialistic values among their young children.

Departing from these premises, the research results can be utilised by the public policy-makers and agencies as follows:

**Firstly:** since the fathers of family monthly income less than 300 JD who represent 58% of the sample size are more likely to adopt consensual and protective communication tendencies, the public policy agencies such as *consumers protection groups* may design and conduct special programmes, periodical events, and panel forums to introduce the importance and the influence of adopting two-sided communication process between fathers and their young children on evolving the competence consumer role of young children. This would increase the ability of young children to use the rational consumption strategies in buying products for the family use or for their own use and avoid relying on the external appearance of products.

**Secondly:** the public policy-makers should encourage the academic institutions to launch basic research "longitudinal investigations" to understand the process of Jordanian family members' interactions related to market stimuli which in turn leads to the development of methods to create and select effective communications.

**Thirdly:** previous research has suggested that the consumer socialisation process can be used to improve consumer education programs and provide guidelines for public policy-makers (Ward, 1974; Moschis and Churchill, 1978; Bush et al., 1999; Mangleburg et al., 1999; Bristol and Mangleburg, 2005). In this regard, the public policy-makers may tailor an educational programme as part of school topics "classroom consumer education" towards young children of ages 8-12. The course outlines may encompass the following issues:

- Teach young children how to find out information about products, to check the freshness, the ingredients, the packages, and the quality of products.
- Introducing the type of stores and the value of money.
- Identify the essence and the reality of commercial advertising industry.

- Focus on the importance of healthy and nutrition food in building children's bodies through identifying the advantages and the disadvantages of salt and sugar in young children's food.
- Explain the ingredients and nutritional value of some children's grocery and food products that are usually bought by young children such as chips, ice-cream, chocolates, soft drink, chewing gum, and fruit juice...etc.
- Introduce the nature of on-sales prices, the rights of consumers in bargaining prices with salespeople, and recognising the meaning of the private stores.
- Encourage the positive consumption habits and values among young children.
- Focus on the importance of parent-child interaction in the marketplace activities.
- Organise excursion trips as part of that course to visit the factories that manufacture grocery and food products.

**Fourth:** the policy makers may impose some regulations and restrictions that guide importers and local food industries to provide the consumers with clear labelling and logos to identify the healthier food.

### **10.3.6 Summary**

The research findings, related to managerial implications, indicate that the effective planning and execution of promotional campaigns require the marketers to understand the influence processes. That is, it is important for the marketers to understand father-child interaction under the influences of products' types, young children ages, gender, family income and family communication environment of the target market. In addition, these results can be generalised to other products and situations related to grocery and food products in particular those related to young children's consumption. Recently, Bakir et al (2005) indicated that further understanding of how families communicate in different cultures could help marketers identify segments and develop appropriate global. The public policy-makers and agencies can effectively develop the consumer role of young children through building consumer education programme to understand the processes by which children acquire consumptions-related skills, knowledge, and attitudes.

In addition, the research objectives, results, and the managerial implications of research are completely consistent with Gunter and Furnham's (1998) perspectives. Specifically, they

noted that the marketers should recognise the following aspects in their promotional campaigns:

- ✓ Know children's attitudes toward stores, supermarkets, and mass media.
- ✓ Know children's information sources that guide and encourage them to buy certain products, brands and choice rules used in evaluating and selecting products.
- ✓ Know the most significant influences of internal socialisation agents (such as parent, siblings) and external socialisation agents (such as peers, schoolmates, and mass media) in children's consumer behaviour.
- ✓ Know which media are primarily used by children in different ages.
- ✓ Know how children think and feel to design the best promotional campaigns for them, and how best to obtain information from them about what they need and desire.

#### **10.4 Contributions to knowledge and theory**

A comprehensive literature review assists the researcher to obtain new ideas and perspectives, explore the important variables relevant to the research model, distinguish between previous works and the current research, and define the research's methodology (Hart, 1998: 27). Therefore, the drawbacks of previous research as discussed in chapter 6 have determined the importance of research contributions to the theory of consumer socialisation behaviour. However, the fundamental contributions of research are as follows:

*In relation to research objectives*, previous research emphasised that an investigation of parent-child interaction process in different culture settings would enrich and expand the theoretical and practical literature of young children's consumer socialisation behaviour (Ward et al., 1986; Rose et al., 1998; Palan, 1998; John, 1999; Chan and McNeal, 2003; Bakir et al., 2005; Bristol and Mangleburg, 2005). In addition, Caruana and Vassallo (2003: 66) indicated that future research could investigate how the family communication patterns influence family consumer behaviour for specific products and services and how the commercial advertising affects children buying products under the conditions of parents' mediation on TV influence and whether these patterns varied across countries in an increasing world of globalisation.

Departing from these premises, no single research in children's marketing literature at the level of collectivist culture or individualistic culture examining the influence of dyadic

father-child communication patterns in shopping milieu. That is, it is the first study to investigate the influence of fathers' consumer socialisation goals that are affected by combinations of fathers' orientations, and attitudes on teaching young children shopping consumer role related to convenience grocery and food products.

***In relation to research measurements of family communication structures and patterns,*** the research in hand is the first study in children's consumer socialisation behaviour which purifies and validates the two family communication structures through soliciting young children's perspectives. The family communications were disaggregated into discrete units "father-son and father-daughter interactions" to measure the effect of fathers' communication patterns on young children's consumer socialisation behaviour; neither fathers' nor young children's perspectives were previously employed to measure the socio and concept-orientations of family communication structures. In this regard, the current study meets Moschis (1985), Moschis et al. (1986), Carlson et al. (1990 a), Palan (1998), and John's (1999) perspectives. Carlson et al. (1990 a: 811) stated, "While these orientations and patterns have been studied from the perspective of adolescents and mothers, their applicability to other family members ...also should be investigated". Moschis and his colleagues (1985 and 1986), Palan (1998), and John (1999) call for disaggregating the overall family influence into father-son, father-daughter, mother-son, and mother-daughter interactions to understand the effects of specific communication processes on the development of various types of consumer behaviours. This study takes into account the differences in the cultural influences on these structures for it previously relied on theoretical frameworks developed in the U.S.A and conducted in North America and Western Europe (Cao and Price, 1997; Mukherji, 2005).

***In relation to research variables,*** unlike previous studies, the current research examined the *direct* influence of the following independent variables on young children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products:

- Fathers' communication patterns;
- Young children's cognitive development; and
- The gender of young children.

Similarly, the research investigated the direct influence of the following independent variables on fathers' orientations and attitudes towards developing young children's consumer roles, which *indirectly* influence young children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products:

- Fathers' orientations towards father-child co-shopping;
- Fathers' attitudes towards stores;
- Fathers' attitudes towards TV advertising;
- Fathers' attitudes towards gender roles;
- Fathers perception of young children's cognitive development; and
- The frequency of young children buying grocery and food products for their own use.

In this respect, Moschis (1985) noted that investigating the effect of different socio-demographic characteristics on parent-child communication process and distinguishing between the direct the indirect effects of variables on family communication processes is a pressing need. Ward et al. (1990) indicated that further studies on the impact of family variables on children's consumer socialisation processes are very important because parents play a major role in children's consumer socialisation through direct or indirect communication about consumption, number of consumer socialisation goals, restricting and monitoring consumption and media exposure, and views on advertising. Mangleburg (1990) noted that the effects of parental characteristics are another promising path for research on children's consumer socialisation process.

*Unlike previous studies*, the current research investigates the relationship between fathers' orientations and attitudes towards developing young children's consumer roles and fathers' communication structures that indirectly affect young children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products.

Unlike previous research, the current research investigates the *direct* influence of family structure "single boy family-other girls", the birth order of young children, family size, the household income, fathers' demographical variables "fathers' ages, education level, and occupation", young children's ages, and gender on fathers communication patterns that *directly or indirectly* affect young children consumer role.

In addition, previous research did not investigate the influence of fathers' communication patterns on mediating the influence of TV commercial advertising on young children's consumption behaviour.

Finally, the following dependent variables related to young children's consumer role were not examined in previous research:

- The frequency of young children shopping independently at different stores of grocery and food products;
- Young children's frequency of buying certain grocery and food products for the family use independently;
- Young children's frequency of buying certain grocery and food products for their own use independently;
- The rational buying skills used by young children in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products;
- The irrational buying skills "external appearance" used by young children in evaluating and selecting grocery and food products;
- Young children's attitudes towards stores;
- Young children's scepticism towards TV advertising oriented children's grocery and food products;
- Young children's attitudes towards recreations and economic motivations of TV advertising "social and economic utilities";
- Young children's consumer affairs knowledge; and
- Young children's perception of fathers' positive mediation of the influence of mass media on their consumption behaviour.

***In relation to the research model***, the research model provides a comprehensive and new theoretical framework relating to study father-child interaction process on the retailing milieu. Earlier, Ward et al. (1977 a) indicated that the influence process of consumer socialisation behaviour is affected by the specific variables selected for a certain study. In a similar vein, Moschis (1985: 910) indicated that parental influence on children's consumer behaviour is a situational influence; therefore, there is a need for new situations "topics" to

better understand the nature of family influence since parents' influence is varied across the type of products, the stages of decision-making process, and consumer characteristics.

In that context, it is the first study which examined the effects of fathers' variables and young children's variables, as independent variables, on young children's shopping consumer role. Similarly, it is the first study investigating the relationship between fathers' communication structures and their attitudes and orientations towards developing the shopping consumer role of their young children. While it examined the influence of young children's variables on fathers' communication patterns and on dependent variables, it also examined to what extent young children of ages ranging from 8 to 12 years old emulate their fathers' consumer shopping skills and attitudes related to grocery and food products as a result of father-child communication in the retailing milieu.

Finally, unlike previous studies, the research has placed a considerable weight on the variations of cognitive development among children in the stage itself related to young children's shopping consumer role. Previous research divided the ages of young children within the stage into groups (McNeal and Ji, 1999; Rummel et al., 2000; Chan and McNeal, 2003).

***In relation to data collection methods and generalisation of research findings***, earlier, McLeod and O'Keefe (1972) noted that collecting data from the socialisation agent as a source of influence and the receiver as the influencee is more appropriate to describe the socialisation process. In studying the development of consumer behaviour patterns among Chinese children, McNeal and Yeh (1997) acknowledged that the severest limitation of their study was related to the data collection method; they relied on parents' responses. Unlike previous research, these perspectives were entirely taken into account in investigating young children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products. Research data separately solicited from young children and their fathers to avoid the probability of parents' influences on young children's responses, which in turn secure the independence assumption of the parametric tests. Simultaneously, a small body of previous research that solicited fathers', mothers', and children's responses appearing in 2003 and in 2005 was not related to young children's shopping consumer role related to convenience grocery and food products.

In sum, the aforementioned procedures along with the two large research samples selected through proportionate stratified random sampling technique have eliminated the sampling bias, avoided type I error, and provided evidence for the generalisation of research findings.

### **10.5 Research limitations**

Since the study is the first trial measuring the influence of father-child communication in retailing milieu, the research results are confined to some limitations to the number of socialisation agents, young children's ages, father-child communication process, the types of grocery and food products, and research area.

***In relation to socialisation agents***, the research does not investigate the influence of other socialisation agents, such as mothers, grandfathers and grandmothers, the older siblings, peer groups, schoolmates, and schools on young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to grocery and food products. In this respect, the research results indicate that the effect size of "partial Eta squared" the independent variables does not explain 100% of young children's shopping consumer role related to grocery and food products.

**According to the age of young children**, the research sample focused on young children of ages ranging from 8 to 12 years old; neither young children of ages under 8 years old nor adolescents of ages above 12 years old were investigated. In this respect, the term of young children is referred to "*the young person whose age ranges from 8 to 12 years old and attends 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, and 6<sup>th</sup> school grades*". By Jordanian Educational Law, attending schools until the third preparatory class is compulsory for all children.

**In relation to father-child communication process**, the concept-oriented and socio-oriented communication structures depend on young children's perception of fathers' communication structures not mothers' communication structures. Moschis (1985: 910) updated the knowledge and research on the role of family communications in the consumer learning of children and adolescents. He indicated that it would also be useful to examine the communication effects when one parent's style of communication with the child is quite different from that of the other parent. In examining the impact of communication between parents and adolescents on family functioning, Palan (1998) found that the adolescents have different communication patterns with their mothers than they do with their fathers.

The study does not investigate the process of young children's influence on the purchase behaviour of their fathers since fathers adopt the concept-oriented communication structure. In addition, it does not investigate the effect of father-child interaction on the process of decision-making stages related to purchase convenience grocery and food products.

**In relation to product types**, the young children's shopping consumer skills are confined to the visible types of grocery and food products related to the family use and for their own use. Therefore, the results cannot be generalised on durable or non-durable products such as shoes and clothes.

**According to the place limitation**, the research sample is restricted to the official government public schools. It does not comprise the private schools of the first directorate of Amman education / Amman metropolitan. In addition, the research results can be generalised to the young children of other cities but may not represent the villages and the tribal areas of Jordan.

#### **10.6 Future research**

According to the research results, managerial implications, contributions, and its limitations, the current research suggests the following subsequent topics that can be examined in future research:

**First**, solicit fathers' perception of family communication structures along with young children's perceptions as this would increase the reliability and validity of fathers' communication structures and explain the differences between young children and their fathers.

**Second**, replicate the study in other culture settings is useful to retest the reliability and the validity of the two scales and to understand the diversity of young children shopping consumer role in different culture settings.

**Third**, investigate the influence of external agent-child interactions "peer groups, schoolmates, and salespeople" and the internal agent-child interactions "siblings, grandfathers, and grandmothers" on young children's consumer role relating to grocery and food products would provide insightful information on young children's shopping consumer role and explain the effect size of multi-socialisation agents on that process.

**Fourth,** examine the influence of family structure “husband single-wife and husband dual-wives” on fathers’ communication structures and young children’s consumer socialisation behaviour.

**Fifth,** study the influence of fathers’ communication patterns on young children’s consumer role at different stages of decision-making process is another path to understand the young children’s consumer socialisation behaviour.

**Sixth,** research design based on longitudinal designs would effectively enable the researchers to measure the similarity between the socialisation agent as influencer and the young children as influencee.

In sum, taking into account these aspects would enrich the theoretical framework of children’s consumer behaviour and promise new research directions.

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**Appendix A**  
**Research questionnaires**

The University of Huddersfield UK  
Huddersfield University Business School (HUBS)  
Department of Marketing

Dear father,

My name is Abdel Halim Al-Zu'bi; I am studying for a PhD at Huddersfield University/ in the UK. My research is aimed at investigating “The influence of fathers’ consumer role in developing young children’s consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to buying convenience grocery and food products. As you recall, your child has filled out a questionnaire in his/her school through group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire that was conducted by the researcher under the supervision of the school’s administration. Your response is extremely important to the success of this research since collecting your response in conjunction with your child response will be treated as a one unit in the research analysis. Your time in filling out the questionnaire and your help are highly appreciated. Please note that your response should be relevant to your son/daughter who picked up the questionnaire. If you have got any questions regarding the completion of the questionnaire or you would like to know more about this research, please contact me on the telephone numbers listed below. You may rest assured that any data collected from your son/daughter or from your good-self will be treated in the strictest confidence. I look forward to receiving your response through the school of your child within a couple of weeks.

Thanking you in anticipation

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### Section (1): Fathers' Attitudes towards buying grocery and food products

This section is aimed at measuring fathers' orientations towards buying convenience grocery and food products related to fathers' choice rules and strategies used in evaluating and selecting these products and their attitudes towards stores and children's grocery and food products.

#### (1-A): Fathers' choice rules and strategies

The following statements consist of a set of choice rules and strategies that are typically used in evaluating and selecting the grocery and food products. As a consumer for grocery and food products, please mark "X" for one response only for each statement in the box that best describes the degree of frequency of using these choice rules in buying convenience grocery and food products.

Statements	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Very seldom
1) Select the highest quality of product with high price.					
2) Select the high quality at the least price.					
3) Choose the right quality at the right price.					
4) Buy a product that is on sale or promotion.					
5) Buy the family brand.					
6) Select a product that has the freshness date of production.					
7) Bargain the price of a product.					
8) You shopped at the same store each trip.					
9) Buy from different stores.					
10) Buy from the corner store that is located to your home.					
11) Buy from specialised stores.					
12) Depend on the country of origin in buying things.					
13) Select the cheapest prices of products.					
14) Select the expensive prices of products.					
15) Compare between different brands prior to selection.					
16) Have a desire to try new brands of grocery and food products.					
17) Select a product that contains a gift.					
18) Read the product label (ingredients) prior to selection.					
19) Buy products that are free of sugar and flavour additives.					
20) Buy the products of local brands (manufactured in Jordan).					
21) Buy the products of foreign brands (manufactured outside Jordan).					
22) Buy the products whose ads you like the best.					
23) Buy the heavily advertised product.					
24) Allocate specific budget for each shopping trip.					
25) Before going shopping, you sit down and make a shopping list.					
26) You read newspaper ads before shopping to know what the weekly specials are in these stores.					
27) Buy products that you had not intended to buy them before entering the store.					

**(1-B): Fathers' attitudes towards stores and young children's grocery and food products**

As a consumer for grocery and food products, please mark "X" for one response only for each statement in the box that best expresses the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
28) Shopping is a pleasant and fun activity to me.					
29) I hate to change my favourite grocery and food stores.					
30) I like to shop in stores where I feel at home.					
31) Well-known stores tend to offer better customer services.					
32) Well-known stores are apt to sell high quality products.					
33) I did the grocery and food shopping at stores, which enable me to buy all family products.					
34) I avoid buying food that contains artificial flavours and additives.					
35) Most of children's grocery and food products contain artificial flavours.					

**Section (2): Fathers' orientations towards developing the consumer role of their children**

This section is aimed at measuring fathers' orientations towards developing their young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes that related to buying convenience grocery and food products.

**(2-A):** As a consumer, please mark "X" for one response only for each statement in the box that best expresses the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
36) Fathers are not concerned with their kids' purchases because they have much work to do					
37) It is fathers' responsibility to evolve the consumer skills and knowledge of their kids related to grocery and food products.					
38) Mothers placed the second order of responsibility to evolve the consumer skills and knowledge of their kids related to grocery and food products.					
39) Parents are not responsible for evolving the consumer skills and knowledge of their kids; kids should learn from their own experience.					
40) It is important for fathers to talk with their kids how to buy things.					
41) Buying the right things depends on the individual's consumer skills and mental ability.					
42) Kids should participate in grocery and food shopping trips made by their fathers.					
43) I always try to understand the viewpoint of my child relating to the underlying reasons for his/her buying request.					

Section 2-A Continued...

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
44) Luck plays a pivotal role when one buys something that did not satisfy his/her desires.					
45) Fathers should talk with kids about the content of TV commercial advertising.					
46) Fathers should place restrictions on how many hours their kids can watch TV.					
47) It is important for fathers to co-view TV with their kids to know what kinds of programmes and advertising they watch.					

**(2-B): Fathers' orientations towards allowing their children to shop independently:**

Please mark one "X" only in the box for each group of items that best describes the degree of frequency your child buys the following groups of grocery and food products independently.

Groups of products	Always	Sometimes	Never
48) For the family use:			
- Dishwashing liquid and shampoo			
- Yoghurt, salt, rice, eggs, and deli			
- Bread			
- Breakfast food (Homus, Fuol, and Falafel)			
- Vegetables and fruits			
- Chicken, meat, and fish			
49) For the child use:			
- Chocolates, chewing gum, and chips			
- Soft drink, fruit juice, and ice cream			
- School supply			
- Sandwiches			

Statements	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Very seldom
50) You write down a shopping list for your child, at this age, to deliver it to the shop-owner to explain the family needs when you ask him/her to buy more than one item independently.					
51) You have a little control over the quantity and the types of grocery and food products when your child goes independently to buy something for his/her own use.					

**(2-C): Fathers orientations towards co-shopping**

Please mark one "X" only for each of the following statements in the box that best describes the degree of frequency your child accompanied you on co-shopping trips related to the family or your child purchases.

Statements	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Very seldom
52) You allow your child at this age to accompany you in all shopping trips of grocery and food products.					
53) when you tend to buy grocery and food products, your child accompanied you in visiting the following stores:					

Section 2-C Continued...

Statements	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Very seldom
- Neighbourhood supermarket					
- Corner stores of vegetables and fruits					
- the specialised stores of chickens, meat, and fish that are located near your home					
- The stores of vegetables, fruits, meat, chickens, and fish that are located in the central markets					
- Bakery shops					
- Restaurant of breakfast food (Honus, Fuol, and Falafl, Shawarma, and Burger )					
- Library stores					
- Large supermarket (Mall)					
54) Your child asks you to buy the grocery and food products that he/she see them in the TV commercial advertising					
55) On co-shopping trips, you have enormous influence over buying things related to your child purchases					
56) Through co-shopping trips of grocery and food products you:					
- Ask your child to pay his/her attention for the newest types of grocery and food products					
- Guide your child how to check the quality of products.					
- Allow your child to select the types of products that he/she wants to buy.					
- Allow your child to determine the external appearance of products.					
- Allow your child to determine the ingredients of products.					
- Allow your child to determine the taste of products.					

**Section (3): Fathers orientations towards gender**

Please mark "X" for one response only for each statement in the box that best expresses the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
57) In general, the society's values, norms, and religion restrict the girls' consumer roles related to buy grocery and food products independently.					
58) A woman with kids should not work.					
59) Buying grocery and food products is the chore of a husband not that of the wife.					
60) It is fathers' responsibility not mothers to take their kids with them on shopping trips related to grocery and food products.					
61) Fathers should ask only the boy's help to buy grocery and food products for the family use.					
62) Fathers should tell only the boys where different grocery and food products could be bought.					

63) In fact, I prefer to develop the consumer skills of my son/daughter because:	Yes	No
- He/she is the eldest of my children		
- I have only a single boy/other girls		
- I have only daughters		

**Section (4): Fathers’ attitudes towards developing the materialism values of their young children**

Please mark “X” for one response only for each statement in the box that best expresses the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
64) It is true that money can buy happiness.					
65) The more school allowances would give the child happiness.					
66) Permit a child to buy what he/she wants of expensive grocery and food products, which would give the child happiness.					
67) When your child wants something, you bring it to him/her.					
68) I buy things for my child that other kids like to have.					
69) I have no objections related to the types and quantity of grocery and food products when my child buys something for him/her.					
70) I buy the expensive grocery and food products.					
71) I buy new brands of grocery and food products.					

**Section (5): Fathers’ emotions and yielding to children purchase requests**

Please mark “X” for one response only for each statement in the box that best expresses the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
72) The first obligation of individuals should be given to their kids.					
73) When fathers talk with their kids related to their purchases and requests, they should listen to them more than they talk.					
74) The multi-requests of my child annoy me.					
75) Sometimes, I spend a lot of time with my kids to negotiate their purchase requests.					
76) Kids should not talk with their fathers relating to buying things, if their fathers are not in a receptive mood.					
77) When I go shopping, the priority list to be done is that related to my kids’ requests.					
78) Fathers yielding to kids’ requests should be linked with doing some of the household chores by the kids.					
79) Kids should get mothers’ support to back up their requests with their fathers.					

**Section (6): Fathers’ attitudes towards TV commercial advertising**

Please mark “X” for one response only for each statement in the box that best expresses the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
80) TV commercial advertising presents a true picture of the advertised grocery and food products.				
81) TV commercial advertising is in poor taste and a very annoying visitor.				
82) TV commercial advertising helps me to make decisions related to buying grocery and food products.				
83) TV commercial advertising is fun and pleasant to watch than other media contents.				
84) TV commercial advertising urges young children to buy things they do not really need.				
85) TV commercial advertising uses tricks and gimmicks to get young children to buy their products.				
86) I like to buy grocery and food products whose advertisements I like the best.				
87) TV commercial advertising presents much grocery and food products that contain much sugar and artificial flavours.				
88) Fathers should overrule the young children’s orientations towards the TV commercial advertising.				

**Section (7): Fathers’ perception of their children’s cognitive ability**

Based on your daily communication and indirect observation, please mark one “X” only for each of the following statements, by using the scale below, in the box that best describes to what degree your child at this age has an ability to perform the following skills.

Very High ability	High ability	Able	low ability	Very low ability	unable	I don’t know
6	5	4	3	2	1	0

Statements	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
89) Buy grocery and food products for his/her own use independently.							
90) Buy grocery and food products for the family use independently.							
91) Compare the prices of grocery and food products precisely.							
92) Know the relationship between the prices and the quality of products.							
93) Check the external appearance of the products (cap or carton used in packaging the products).							
94) Distinguish the brands of a product.							
95) Know the ingredients of products that he/she buys.							
96) Buy the nutrition grocery and food products.							
97) Buy from a Mall independently.							
98) Manage his/her allowances and savings carefully.							
99) Inspect the production and the expiry date of a product.							
100) Know some technical specifications about the products of his/her own use.							
101) Know the role of the sales people.							
102) Know the value of coins as a means of exchange.							



Huddersfield University Business School (HUBS)  
Department of Marketing

My Dear Child,

I am Abdel Halim Al-Zu'bi from the University of Huddersfield in the UK where I am studying for a PhD in marketing. My research is aimed at studying your consumption behaviour related to buying convenience grocery and food products as a result of your interaction with your father in retailing milieu. Since you have been chosen randomly to take part in this study, you are volunteered to answer the questionnaire questions and free to withdraw from the session at any time. Your answers are extremely important to the success of this research and help me to make some future recommendations.

Your time and help are very much appreciated. I reassure you that any information provided by you will be treated with the utmost confidence, as only aggregate results will be reported.

I thank you in advance very much for your help

Researcher,  
Abdel Halim Al-Zu'bi  
Amman-Jordan

### Section (1): Consumer Affairs Knowledge

The following statements relate to your cognition about several marketplace terminologies, activities, and consumer legislations. For each statement, please marks “X” for one response only to sign that the statement is “True”, “False”, or “I do not know”.

Statements	True	False	I don't know
1) A Mall refers to different departments located in one place that sell various goods.			
2) The specialised stores refer to the stores that sell one product or similar products such as the stores of fish.			
3) Product's ingredients refer to the product's appearance.			
4) If you have one thousand Jordanian Dinars, you can buy a brand new car.			
5) One Jordanian Dinar equals one hundred fils.			
6) Bargaining the prices is the right of buyers.			
8) The government owns the private stores.			
9) The quality of product is connected with:			
9-1) Product's ingredients			
9-2) Product's size			
9-3) Product's price			
9-4) Product's longevity without damages			
9-5) The nature of the product that differed from one product to another			
10) On sale prices are connected with:			
10-1) The reduction of prices for a certain period			
10-2) Gifts given to the buyers when they buy something			
11) The price of a product is connected with the brand name of the product.			
12) The brand name of goods relates to a specific name of a product.			
13) There are no taxes imposed on private stores.			

### Section (2): Parents' Communication Patterns

The following statements describe the types of parents' communication, please mark one “X” only in the box of each statement to indicate how often yours father uses these patterns in his overt communication.

Statements	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Very seldom
14) Your father decides what things you should or should not buy.					
15) Your father does not allow you to buy certain things.					
16) Your father says that you are not able to buy things.					
17) Your father is annoyed when you buy something for yourself that he does not like.					
18) Your father wants to know how and where you should spend your pocket money and savings.					
19) Your father says that you should not ask questions about things that young children, like you, do not buy.					
20) Your father says that he knows what are the best things to buy for you and you should not argue with him.					
21) Your father says that buying good or bad things is due to luck.					

Section 2 continued....

Statements	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Very seldom
22) Your father allows you to decide which products you should or should not buy.					
23) Your father allows you to decide how to spend your pocket money and savings.					
24) My father and I talk about buying things.					
25) Your father tries to persuade you that your choice related to buying thing is not the best.					
26) Your father asks your preference when he buys something for you.					
27) Your father asks your opinion about buying certain things for himself					
28) Your father asks your help to buy certain products for the family use.					
29) My father and I talk about where different products can be bought					
30) Your father says that buying good or bad things does not depend on luck.					

### Section (3): Children’s attitudes towards the stores of grocery and food products

Please mark “X” for one response only in the box that best expresses the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
31) Shopping is a pleasant and fun activity to me.				
32) The famous stores sell high quality of products.				
33) I hate to change my favourite store.				
34) The famous stores are able to catch children’s attention towards new grocery and food products.				
35) Children should buy natural food most of the time.				
36) Most of children grocery and food products contain artificial flavours.				

### Section (4): Children’s consumer skills related to grocery and food products

This section is aimed at measuring your shopping consumer skills related to buying certain grocery and food products either for the family use or for your own use independently and the choice rules that are typically used in evaluating and selecting the grocery and food products.

Type of store	Number of times
37) In the last week, <u>how many times</u> you shopped independently at the following stores	
A) Supermarkets	
B) Corner stores of vegetables and fruits	
C) Specialised stores of chicken, meat, and fish	
D) Bakery shops	
E) Restaurant of breakfast food (Homus, Fuol, Falafel, and Shuawrma)	
F) Libraries	

38) Does your father ask you to buy grocery and food products for the family use independently? Please check one box only by circling the appropriate choice “Yes or No”

Yes	No
-----	----

**NOTE:** If your response is “No”, please move to question no. (41)

39) How often do you buy the following groups of grocery and food products independently for the family use? Please mark one “X” only in the box of each group of items.			
Groups of products	Always	Sometimes	Never
A) Dishwashing liquid and shampoo			
B) Yoghurt, salt, rice, eggs, and deli			
C) Bread			
D) Breakfast food (Homus, Fuol, and Falafel)			
E)Vegetables and fruits			
F) Chicken, meat, and fish			
40) When your father asks you to buy the aforesaid groups, he writes you a shopping list to deliver it to the shop-owner to explain what he wants.			

41) Does your father allow you to buy grocery and food product for your own use independently? Please check one box only by circling the appropriate choice “Yes or No”

Yes	No
-----	----

**NOTE:** If your response is “No”, please move to question no. (46)

42) How often do you buy the following groups of grocery and food products independently for your own use? Please mark one “X” only in the box of each group of items.			
Groups of products	Always	Sometimes	Never
A) Chocolates, chewing gum, and chips			
B) Soft drink, fruit juice, and ice cream			
C) School supply			
D) Sandwiches			

Statements	Always	Sometimes	Never
43) To which degree of frequency you use the following choice rules in evaluating and selecting the aforesaid grocery and food products either for your own use or for the family use. Please <u>mark “X” for one response only</u> for each statement			
- Ask the salespeople about the prices before buying.			
- Select the cheapest price of products.			
- Choose the right quality at the right price.			
- Bargain the price of a product with the salespeople.			
- Buy a product that is on sale or promotion.			
- Buy the family brand.			
- Check the cap or carton used in packaging the product.			
- Check other products that have similar ingredients prior to selection.			
- Compare between different brands prior to selection.			
- Have a desire to try new brands of grocery and food products.			
- Select a product that contains a gift.			
- Select products that have photos of famous celebrities and players.			
- Select a product that has the freshness date of production.			

Q43 continued....

Statements	Always	Sometimes	Never
- Read the product label (ingredients) prior to selection.			
- Buy from the corner store that located near your home.			
- Buy from different stores according to the nature and the type of product.			
- Buy products that are free of sugar and flavour additives.			
- Buy the products of local brands (manufactured in Jordan).			
- Buy the products of foreign brands (manufactured outside Jordan).			
- Buy the products whose ads you like the best.			
- Buy the heavily advertised product.			
- Focus on the taste of product.			
- Focus on the product's package and colour.			
- Buy in non-deliberateness.			
44) Buy products that you had not intended to buy them before entering the store.			
45) Your father has a little control over things you buy for your own use when you go to shop independently.			

### Section (5): Father-child discussion about consumption

Statements	Always	Sometimes	Never
46) Through co-shopping trips with your father, to which degree of frequency your father discuss the shopping matters and yielding to your purchase requests. Please <u>mark one "X" only</u> for each statement.			
A) Your father asks you to try new brands of products.			
B) Your father teaches you how to check the quality of products.			
C) Your father allows you to select the types of products that you want to buy.			
D) Your father allows you to determine the external appearance of products.			
E) Your father allows you to determine the colour of products.			
F) Your father allows you to determine the ingredients of products.			
G) Your father allows you to determine the taste of products.			

### Section (6): Children attitudes towards materialism values

The following statements relate to your attitudes towards materialistic values, please mark one "X" only in the box that best expresses the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
47) Increasing your pocket money would make you happy.				
48) On each trip of shopping independently, you buy more than three different things that would make you happy.				
49) On each trip of co-shopping, my father let me buy more than three different items that would make me happy.				
50) You buy expensive grocery and food products.				
51) You buy the newest brands of grocery and food products.				
52) When you want something, you usually get it.				
53) You buy some things that impress other children.				

**Section (7): Children attitudes towards commercial advertising**

The following statements measure your attitudes towards TV commercial advertising, TV viewing, and your perception of father’s mediation on the influence of TV commercial on your consumption behaviour. Please mark one “X” only in the box that best expresses the extent to which you agree, disagree or the degree of frequency with each statement.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
54) I watch TV commercial advertising to give me some thing to talk about with my friends				
55) TV commercial advertising helps me to buy the newest brand of grocery and food products.				
56) TV commercial advertisement does not provide a true picture of the advertised grocery and food products.				
57) The TV commercial advertisement tells good stories.				
58) I like to watch TV commercial advertisement because it presents funny pictures.				
59) I like to watch TV commercial advertisement because it introduces much grocery and food products-related to children’s consumption.				
60) I like to buy grocery and food products whose ads I like the best.				
61) The TV commercial advertisement presents much grocery and food products that contain much sugar and artificial flavours.				
62) The TV commercial advertisement urges young children to buy things they do not really need.				
63) The TV commercial advertisement uses tricks and gimmicks to get young children to buy their products.				

Statements	Please specifies: (.....)				
	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Very seldom
64) How many hours did you watch TV yesterday					
65) I watch TV with my father on weekdays.					
66) I watch TV with my father on Fridays.					
67) I watch TV with my father on Saturdays.					
68) My father places restrictions on which programs I can watch on TV.					
69) My father places restriction on when I can watch TV.					
70) My father places restriction on how many hours I can watch TV.					
71) My father and I talk about the content of newspaper advertising.					
72) My father and I talk about the content of magazine advertising.					
73) My father and I talk about the content of TV advertising.					
74) I watch TV for entertainment and fun.					
75) I watch TV news.					
76) I read the newspaper.					

**Personal Data**

Please tick one box only for the questions of 1, 2, and 3:

1. How old are you:

- From 8 to under 9 years old ( )
- From 9 to under 10 years old ( )
- From 10 to under 11 years old ( )
- From 11 to under 12 years old ( )
- 12 years old ( )

2. Which sex are you:

- Male ( )
- Female ( )

3. Father Education:

- Under Al-Tawjihi ( )
- Al-Tawjihi ( )
- Intermediate college ( )
- Bachelor degree ( )
- Master degree ( )
- PhD degree ( )

Please fill out the following information:

- Father occupation:.....
- Family size:.....
- Residence:.....

**Thank-God**

**Thank-you for completing the questionnaire**

## **Appendix B**

### **Measurement of Fathers' Communication Structures**

Table 8.2: Factor analysis total variance explained (third stage)

Initial Eigenvalues			
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.624	15.436	15.436
2	2.371	13.946	29.381
3	1.541	9.064	38.445
4	1.296	7.626	46.071
5	1.174	6.909	52.980
<b>6</b>	<b>1.083</b>	<b>6.370</b>	<b>59.350</b>
7	.983	5.783	65.132
8	.896	5.270	70.402
9	.823	4.839	75.242
10	.792	4.657	79.899
11	.697	4.097	83.996
12	.590	3.472	87.468
13	.501	2.947	90.414
14	.477	2.808	93.222
15	.447	2.629	95.852
16	.378	2.223	98.074
17	.327	1.926	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis at the margin cut-off zero

Table 8.3: Factors loadings matrix at 0.0% cut-off margin

	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	-.180	.644	.151	-.140	-.120	-.287
2	-.181	.457	.379	.074	.275	-.008
3	.048	.550	-.259	-.141	.340	.133
4	.048	.513	-.214	.287	.105	.071
5	-.008	.465	.231	.389	.204	.411
<b>6</b>	.143	.522	-.350	-.012	-.042	-.138
7	.322	.331	.250	-.484	-.385	.029
8	-.024	.493	.256	.006	-.471	.399
9	.410	.382	-.197	.035	.029	-.227
10	.516	.025	-.329	.461	-.255	-.302
11	.479	.219	.510	.279	.050	-.372
12	.597	.076	.020	-.444	.018	-.108
13	.519	-.129	.119	.045	.550	.156
14	.570	-.078	-.156	.044	-.225	.551
15	.566	-.232	.037	.384	-.224	.030
16	.514	-.245	.579	-.153	.137	-.008
17	.480	.065	-.416	-.347	.231	.092

Table 8.4: Unrotated factors loadings matrix at 0.40% cut-off margin

	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1		.644				
2		.457				
3		.550				
4		.513				
5		.465				.411
6		.522				
7				-.484		
8		.493			-.471	
9	.410					
10	.516			.461		
11	.479		.510			
12	.597			-.444		
13	.519				.550	
14	.570					.551
15	.566					
16	.514		.579			
17	.480		-.416			
Alpha	67%	60.2%	32%	40%	- 38%	1%

This table reports the factor loadings for each variable on the unrotated factors. Each value represents the correlation between the item and the unrotated factor.

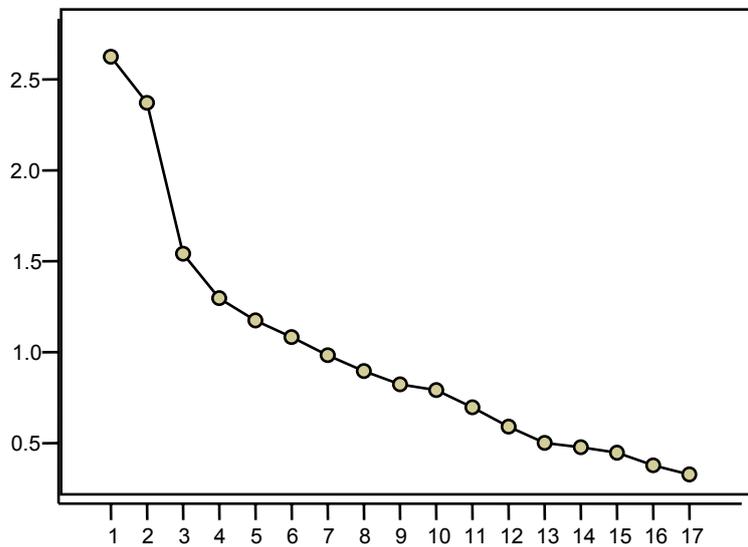


Figure 8.2: Scree plot of the pilot study (n = 100)

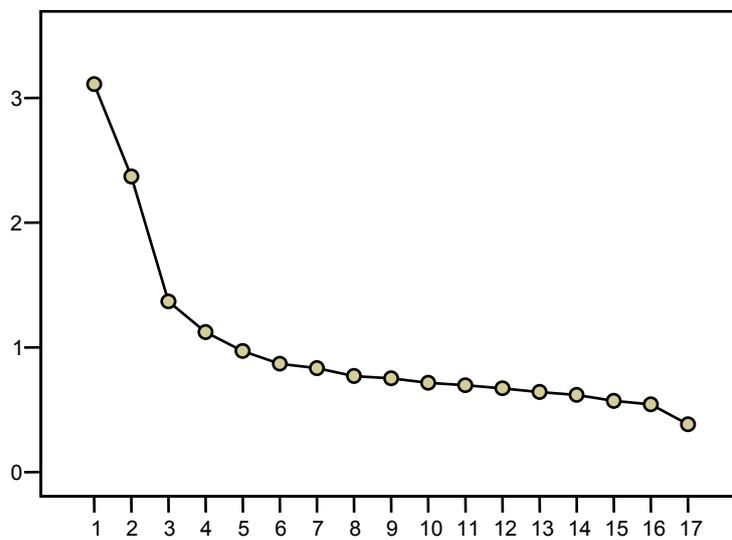


Figure 8.4: Scree plot of the primary data (n = 916)

Table 8.7: Factor analysis total variance explained (fourth stage)

Initial Eigenvalues			
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.110	18.297	18.297
2	2.370	13.941	32.238
3	1.368	8.046	40.284
<b>4</b>	<b>1.122</b>	<b>6.599</b>	<b>46.883</b>
5	.970	5.708	52.591
<b>6</b>	.868	5.107	57.698
7	.833	4.898	62.595
8	.770	4.527	67.123
9	.751	4.418	71.541
10	.716	4.210	75.751
11	.696	4.093	79.844
12	.671	3.948	83.791
13	.642	3.774	87.565
14	.618	3.636	91.201
15	.570	3.355	94.556
16	.543	3.192	97.748
17	.383	2.252	100.000

Table 8.8: Unrotated factors loadings matrix at 40% cut-off margin

variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
1	.545			
2	.624			
3	.526			
4	.551			
5	.576		-.544	
6	.517			
7	.438			
8				.469
9				
10	-.465		.656	
11		.545		
12		.535		
13	-.410	.490		
14		.448		
15		.496		
16	-.414	.471		
17				-.646

Table 8.9: Rotated factors loadings matrix at 40% cut-off margin

variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
1	.622			
2	.669			
3	.639			
4	.620			
5			-.792	
6	.568			
7	.591			
8				
9				
10			.866	
11		.678		
12				
13		.529		
14		.638		
15		.652		
16		.645		
17				.788

Table 8.10: Rotated factors loadings matrix at 50% cut-off margin

variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
1	.622			
2	.669			
3	.639			
4	.620			
5			-.792	
6	.568			
7	.591			
8				
9				
10			.866	
11		.678		
12				
13		.529		
14		.638		
15		.652		
16		.645		
17				.788

**Table 8.11: The revised scales of family communication patterns based on young children perspectives**

Socio oriented communication

- 1) Your father decides what things you should or should not buy.
- 2) Your father does not allow you to buy certain things.
- 3) Your father says that you are not able to buy things.
- 4) Your father is annoyed when you buy something for yourself that he does not like.
- 5) Your father says that you should not ask questions about things that young children like you do not buy.
- 6) Your father says that he knows what are the best things to buy for you and you should not argue with him.

Concept oriented communication

- 1) My father and I talk about buying things.
- 2) Your father asks your preference when he buys something for you.
- 3) Your father asks your opinion about buying certain things for himself.
- 4) Your father asks your help to buy certain products for the family use.
- 5) My father and I talk about where different products can be bought.

**Appendix C**  
**The Distribution of the Target Population and Research Sample**

## Appendix C1: The distribution of the target population

Table C1-1: The general distribution of the target population

Area	Boys schools	Girls schools	Mixed schools	Total	Ratio	Boys and girls count	Ratio
West	8	11	9	28	26%	7858	22.5%
East	30	33	15	78	74%	27100	77.5%
Total	38	44	24	106	100%	34958	100%
Ratio	36%	41%	23%	100%			

Table C1-2: The general distribution of the target population according to the sex density for each area

Area	Boys count	Ratio	Girls count	Ratio	Grand Total	Ratio
West	3071	18%	4787	27%	7858	22.5%
East	14130	82%	12970	73%	27100	77.5%
Total	17201	100%	17757	100%	34958	100%
Ratio	49.2%	-	50.8%	-	100%	

Table C1-3: The distribution of the target population according to the density of sex and children's grades

Sex	Children grade										
	Grade 2	Ratio	Grade 3	Ratio	Grade 4	Ratio	Grade 5	Ratio	Grade 6	Ratio	Total
Boys	3311	19%	3381	19%	3397	20%	3523	21%	3589	21%	17201
Girls	3439	19%	3435	19%	3504	20%	3710	21%	3669	21%	17757
Total	6750		6816		6901		7233		7258		34958
%	<b>19.3%</b>		<b>19.5%</b>		<b>19.7%</b>		<b>20.7%</b>		<b>20.8%</b>		<b>100%</b>

Table C1-4: The distribution of the target population according to the children's grades and sex density for each area

Area	Children Grades										Total
	Grade 2 (8 years old)		Grade 3 (9 years old)		Grade 4 (10 years old)		Grade 5 (11 years old)		Grade 6 (12 years old)		
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
West	725	962	576	893	530	915	608	980	632	1037	7858
East	2586	2477	2805	2542	2867	2589	2915	2730	2957	2632	27100
Total	3311	3439	3381	3435	3397	3504	3523	3710	3589	3669	-
-	6750		6816		6901		7233		7258		34958
Ratio	<b>19.3%</b>		<b>19.5%</b>		<b>19.7%</b>		<b>20.7%</b>		<b>20.8%</b>		<b>100%</b>

## Appendix C2: The distribution of the research sample

Table C2-1: The general distribution of the research sample according to the types of schools for each area

Area	Boys Schools	Girls Schools	Mixed Schools	Total	Boys count	Girls count	Total	Ratio
West	1	2	2	5	577	815	1392	20.5%
East	4	4	3	11	2722	2695	5417	79.5%
Total	5	6	5	16	3299	3510	6809	100%
Ratio	31%	38%	31%	100%	48.5%	51.5%	100%	

Table C2-2: The general distribution of the research sample according to the density of area, grade, and sex

Area	Grade 2		Grade 3		Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Sub-total		Total
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls									
West	202	157	141	132	119	151	62	174	53	201	577	815	1392
East	498	644	406	537	619	563	650	512	549	439	2722	2695	5417
total	700	801	547	669	738	714	712	686	602	640	3299	3510	6809
%	10.2	11.8	8.4	9.8	10.8	10.5	10.4	10	8.8	9.4	48.6	51.4	100
Total	22%		18.2%		21.2%		20.4%		18.2%		100%		

Table C2-3: The distribution of the research sample according to the area proportion for each grade and sex

School name	Grade 2		Grade 3		Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls								
West	202	157	141	132	119	151	62	174	53	201	577	815
Ratio	29%	20%	26%	20%	16%	21%	9%	25%	9%	31%	18%	23%
East	498	644	406	537	619	563	650	512	549	439	2722	2695
Ratio	71%	80%	74%	80%	84%	79%	91%	75%	91%	69%	82%	77%
Total	700	801	547	669	738	714	712	686	602	640	3299	3510
Sub-ratio%	10.2	11.8	8.4	9.8	10.8	10.5	10.4	10	8.8	9.4	6809	
Total ratio	22%		18.2%		21.2%		20.4%		18.2%			

Table C2-4: The distribution of the research sample according to the school name and its density

School name	2 <sup>nd</sup>		3 <sup>rd</sup>		4 <sup>th</sup>		5 <sup>th</sup>		6 <sup>th</sup>		Total	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls								
S. Alrifaie b*	87	-	49	-	48	-	62	-	53	-	299	-
Alshumisani m	71	72	46	45	52	47	-	48	-	67	169	279
S. Alrifaie f*		31	-	29	-	49	-	38	-	38	-	185
Abdoun m	13	14	20	14	-	17	-	12	-	11	33	68
Hai alamawi f	31	40	26	44	19	38	-	76	-	85	76	283
Sub total	202	157	141	132	119	151	62	174	53	201	577	815
F. Abdmalak	-	66	-	69	-	43	-	114	-	83	-	375
A. Benti zied m	105	129	59	61	-	85	-	75	-	74	164	424
I. Almasini f	-	109	-	113	-	82	-	33	-	-	-	337
Almariek m	63	28	59	27	54	52	-	-	-	-	176	107
N. Benti kaa'b f	-	137	-	141	-	143	-	185	-	181	-	787
A. Seeraj b	-	-	-	-	235	-	317	-	250	-	802	-
Hinazal m	144	103	85	44	89	46	-	-	-	-	318	193
M. Binnusier b	67	-	79	-	124	-	192	-	166	-	628	
S. Bentsamuh m	62	72	40	82	-	112	-	105		101	102	472
Abu Hanifeh b	-	-	62	-	117	-	141	-	133	-	453	-
H. Sha'rawi b	57	-	22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	79	-
Sub-total	498	644	406	537	619	563	650	512	549	439	2722	2695
Grand total	700	801	547	669	738	714	712	686	602	640	3299	3510
Sub-ratio%	10.2	11.8	8.4	9.8	10.8	10.5	10.4	10	8.8	9.4	6809	
Total ratio	22%		18.2%		21.2%		20.4%		18.2%			

Table C2-5: The distribution of the usable responses according to schools, grades, and sex

School name	Grade 2		Grade 3		Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		total	
	Boy	Girl	Boys	Girl								
S. Alrifaie b*	12	-	-	-	10	-	17	-	16	-	55	-
Alshumisani m*	10	10	8	-	10	11	-	10	-	-	28	31
S. Alrifaie f*	-	15	-	13	-	14	-	-	-	-	-	42
Abdoun m	-	-	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	-
Hai alamawi f	-	-	-	18	-	-	-	13	-	19	-	50
Sub total of west area	22	25	22	31	20	25	17	23	16	19	97	123
Sub ratio	24%	29%	22%	27%	22%	27%	22%	24%	21%	19%	22%	25.5%
F. Abdlmalak	-	15	-	12	-	10	-	14	-	10	-	61
A. Benti zied m	10	14	-	16	-	12	-	16	-	12	10	70
I. Almasini f	-	10	-	11	-	17	-	13	-	11	-	62
Almariek m	14	-	18	-	14	-	-	-	-	-	46	-
N. Benti kaa'b f	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19	-	48	-	67
A. Seeraj b	-	-	-	-	20	-	25	-	31	-	76	-
Hinazal m	14	15	10	16	-	13	-	-	-	-	24	44
M. Binnusier b	-	-	31	-	22	-	17	-	16	-	86	-
S. Bentsamuh m	21	18	4	13	-	14	-	10	-	-	25	55
Abu Hanifeh b	-	-	13	-	14	-	18	-	15	-	60	-
H. Sha'rawi b	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-
Sub-total of east area	69	69	76	72	70	66	60	72	62	81	337	359
Sub ratio	76%	71%	73%	73%	78%	73%	78%	76%	79%	81%	78%	74.5%
Grand total	91	97	98	99	90	91	77	95	78	100	434	482
Ratio	21%	20%	23%	20%	21%	19%	18%	20%	18%	21%	47.4 %	52.6%

F\*: females' school

B\*: males' schools

M\*: mixed schools (boys and girls)

Table C2-6: General distribution of the usable responses

Grade	Initial invitation	Fathers agreement	Fathers' responses (not received)	Dyadic responses (children and fathers)	Errors in fathers' responses	Useable of dyadic responses	Sample ratio	Usable rate
2	240	207	14	193	5	188	20.5%	91%
3	240	208	8	200	3	197	21.5%	94%
4	240	196	9	187	6	181	19.8%	92%
5	240	185	3	182	10	172	18.8%	93%
6	240	204	20	184	6	178	19.4%	87%
Total	1200	1000	54	<b>946</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>916</b>	100%	<b>92%</b>

Table C2-7: The differences of grades' contribution according to the target population, research sample, and the useable rate of responses

Grade contribution	Grade					
	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Total
Target population	19.3%	19.5%	19.7%	20.7%	20.8%	100%
Research sample	22%	18.2%	21.2%	20.4%	18.2%	100%
Usable responses	20.5%	21.5%	19.7%	18.9%	19.4%	100%
Average	20.6%	19.7%	20.2%	20%	19.5%	100%

Table C2-8: The comparison between the grades' contribution in the target population and the research sample

Proportion of sharing	Ratio					
	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Total
Target pop.	19.3%	19.5%	19.7%	20.7%	20.8%	100%
Research sample	22%	18.2%	21.2%	20.4%	18.2%	100%
Difference%	+ 2.7%	- 1.3%	+ 1.5	- 0.3%	- 2.6%	0.0%

**Table C2-9: General sample profile**

Structural variables	components	Count	% of sample	Accumulative %
Children age	8- under 9 years old	188	20.5	20.5
	9- under 10 years old	197	21.5	42.0
	10- under 11 years old	181	19.8	61.8
	11- under 12 years old	172	18.8	80.6
	12 years old	178	19.4	100.0
Gender	Boys	434	47.4	47.4
	Girls	482	52.6	100.0
Fathers age	Under 25 years old	34	3.7	3.7
	25-34 years old	190	20.7	24.5
	35-44 years old	506	55.2	79.7
	45-54 years old	149	16.3	96.0
	55-64 years old	37	4.0	100.0
Religion	Muslim	897	97.9	97.9
	Christian	19	2.1	100.0
Fathers education	Under Altawjihi	239	26.1	26.1
	Altawjihi certificate	261	28.5	54.6
	College and university certificates	416	45.4	100.0
Monthly household income	Under 300 JD	533	58.2	58.2
	300-less than 600 JD	249	27.2	85.4
	600 JD and above	134	14.6	100.0
Occupation	Government official	258	28.2	28.2
	Private sector	508	55.5	83.6
	Self-employed	150	16.4	100.0
Family size	Small size (1-4)	375	40.9	40.9
	Medium size (5)	180	19.7	60.6
	Large size (6 and above)	361	39.4	100.0

## **Appendix D**

### **The main results of rotated factors loadings**

Table 9.2.8: Initial solutions of factor analysis related-children's choice rules

Initial Eigenvalues			
Component	Total	Variance%	Cumulative %
1	5.872	23.487	23.487
2	2.016	8.062	31.550
3	1.528	6.111	37.661
4	1.176	4.702	42.363
5	1.095	4.382	46.745
6	1.060	4.241	50.985
7	.958	3.833	54.818

Figure 9.2.2: Scree plot of children's choice rules

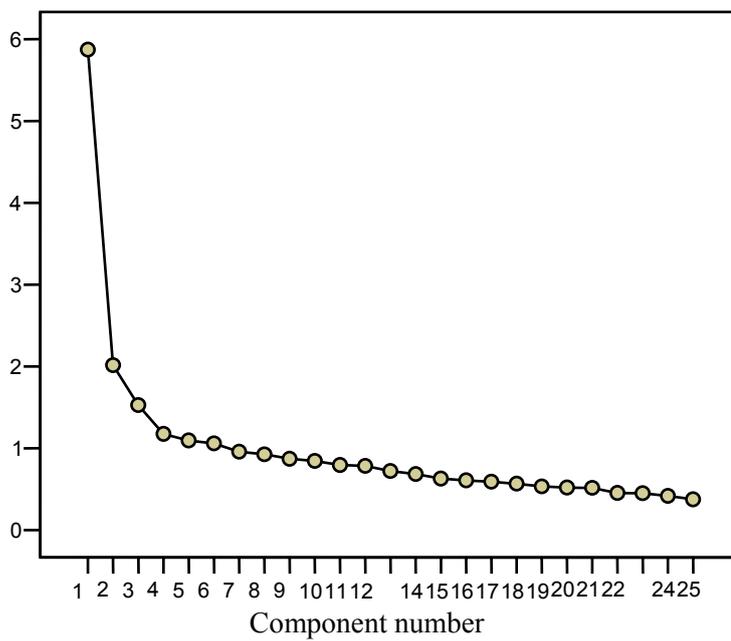


Table 9.2.9: Factor loadings of children's choice rules at 0.10% cut-off margin

Variables	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ask the salespeople about the prices before buying.	.287	-.053	.439	-.235	.189	-.306
Select the cheapest price of products.	-.576	-.263	.276	-.126	.152	-.089
Choose the right quality at the right price.	.412	-.021	.231	.343	.327	.108
Bargain the price of the product with the salespeople.	.577	-.215	.312	-.117	.077	-.148
Buy a product that is on sale or promotion.	.452	.258	.195	.032	.165	-.110
Buy the family brand.	.537	.238	.100	-.111	-.121	.398
Check the cap or carton used in packaging the product.	.746	.029	.135	-.059	-.026	.144
Check other products that have similar ingredients prior to selection.	.658	-.035	.258	-.130	-.040	.034
Compare between different brands prior to selection.	.654	-.019	.254	-.178	-.044	.158
Buy new brands of products for social utilities.	-.347	-.313	.322	.292	.075	.137
Select a product that gives you a coupon, an offer, or a gift.	-.379	.470	.359	-.043	.069	-.295
Select products that have photos of famous celebrities and players.	-.410	.499	.282	-.065	-.016	-.333
Select a product that has the freshness date of production.	.693	.233	-.073	-.120	-.110	.245
Check a product label (ingredients) prior to selection.	.523	-.233	.262	.104	.141	.001
Buy from the corner store that is located near your home.	-.406	-.294	.299	-.335	-.170	.317
Buy from different stores according to the nature and the type of product.	.643	.344	.079	.054	.128	-.048
Buy products that are free of sugar and flavour additives (nutrition food).	.181	-.048	.113	.604	.104	.161
Buy the products of local brands (local origin)	-.428	-.446	.245	-.158	.200	.167
Buy the products of foreign brand (foreign origin).	.119	.059	.343	.248	-.664	-.101
Buy the products whose ads you like the best.	-.422	.396	.056	-.188	.164	.315
Buy the heavily advertised product.	-.390	.443	.082	-.245	.176	.286
Focus on the taste of product.	-.448	.348	.094	.301	.132	.190
Focus on the product's package and colour.	-.422	.326	.256	.184	.034	.180
Buy in non-deliberateness.	-.560	-.246	.348	.063	-.189	.119
Buy products that you had not intended to buy before entering the store.	-.158	.211	.186	.026	-.431	.025

Table 9.2.10: Rotated factor loadings of children's choice rules at 0.40% cut-off margin

Variables	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ask the salespeople about the prices before buying.	.49			.40		
Select the cheapest price of products.		.61				
Choose the right quality at the right price.					.53	
Bargain the price of the product with the salespeople.	.61					
Buy a product that is on sale or promotion.	.45					
Buy the family brand.	.55					
Check the cap or carton used in packaging the product.	.66					
Check other products that have similar ingredients prior to selection.	.69					
Compare between different brands prior to selection.	.70					
Buy new brands of products for social utilities.		.53				
Select a product that gives you a coupon, an offer, or a gift.				.65		
Select products that have photos of famous celebrities and players.				.64		
Select a product that has the freshness date of production.	.54					
Check a product label (ingredients) prior to selection.	.51					
Buy from the corner store that are located near your home.		.66				
Buy from different stores according to the nature and the type of product.	.51	-.52				
Buy products that are free of sugar and flavour additives (nutrition food).					.65	
Buy the products of local brands (local origin)		.70				
Buy the products of foreign brand (foreign origin).						.76
Buy the products whose ads you like the best.			.67			
Buy the heavily advertised product.			.69			
Focus on the taste of product.			.51			
Focus on the product's package and colour.			.50			
Buy in non-deliberateness.		.63				
Buy products that you had not intended to buy before entering the store.						.50

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Table 9.2.13: Initial solutions of factor analysis related-children's attitudes and orientations towards marketplace activities

Initial Eigenvalues			
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.576	16.255	16.255
2	2.097	9.530	25.785
3	1.296	5.889	31.674
4	1.245	5.658	37.332
5	1.166	5.301	42.633
6	1.066	4.845	47.479
7	.988	4.492	51.971

Table 9.2.14: Factor loading matrix at 0.40% cut-off margin related to young children orientations towards marketplace activities

Variables	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Shopping is a pleasant and fun activity to me.	.48					
The famous stores sell high quality products.	.41			.44		
I hate to change my favourite store.						.60
The famous stores are able to catch children's attention towards new grocery and food products.	.47					
Children should buy natural food most of the time.				.62		
Most of children's grocery and food products contain artificial flavours.						
Increasing your pocket money would make you happier.	.50					-.42
In each trip of shopping independently, you buy more than three different things that would make you happy.	.52			-.43		
You buy expensive grocery and food products.					.52	
You buy the newest brands of grocery and food products.					.41	
When you want something, you get it.		-.47				
You buy some things that impress other children.						
I watch TV commercial advertising to give me something to talk about with my friends	.57					
TV commercial advertising helps me to buy the newest brand of grocery and food products.	.53					
TV commercial advertisement does not provide a true picture of the product advertised		.46				
The TV commercial advertisement tells good stories			.54			
I like to watch a TV commercial advertisement because it presents funny pictures	.41		.47			
I like to watch a TV commercial advertisement because it presents much grocery and food products-related to children consumption.	.45					
I like to buy grocery and food products whose ads I like the best.	.58					
The TV commercial advertisement presents much grocery and food products that contain much sugar and unnatural flavours.	.41	.53				
The TV commercial advertisement urges young children to buy things they do not really need		.52				
The TV commercial advertisement uses tricks and gimmicks to get young children to buy their products		.57				

Table 9.2.15: Rotated factors loadings matrix at 0.40% cut-off margin related to young children orientations towards marketplace activities

Variables	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Shopping is a pleasant and fun activity to me.	.44					
The famous stores sell high quality products.				.67		
I hate to change my favourite store.						.73
The famous stores are able to catch children's attention towards new grocery and food products.				.53		
Children should buy natural food most of the time.				.70		
Most of children's grocery and food products contain artificial flavours.						
Increasing your pocket money would make you happier.	.75					
In each trip of shopping independently, you buy more than three different things that would make you happy.	.70					
You buy expensive grocery and food products.					.71	
You buy the newest brands of grocery and food products.					.60	
When you want something, you get it.					.62	
You buy some things that impress other children.						-.41
I watch TV commercial advertising to give me something to talk about with my friends	.52					
TV commercial advertising helps me to buy the newest brand of grocery and food products.	.42					
TV commercial advertisement does not provide a true picture of the product advertised		.55				
The TV commercial advertisement tells good stories			.76			
I like to watch a TV commercial advertisement because it presents funny pictures			.66			
I like to watch a TV commercial advertisement because it presents much grocery and food products-related to children consumption.			.56			
I like to buy grocery and food products whose ads I like the best.	.46					
The TV commercial advertisement presents much grocery and food products that contain much sugar and unnatural flavours.		.66				
The TV commercial advertisement urges young children to buy things they do not really need		.72				
The TV commercial advertisement uses tricks and gimmicks to get young children to buy their products		.73				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Table 9.2.23: Initial solutions of factors analysis related-fathers orientations towards developing the consumer role of their young children

Initial Eigenvalues			
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.979	11.703	11.703
2	3.216	9.458	21.161
3	2.333	6.863	28.024
4	1.670	4.913	32.937
5	1.325	3.897	36.834
6	1.250	3.676	40.510

Figure 9.2.3: Scree Plot of fathers' orientations

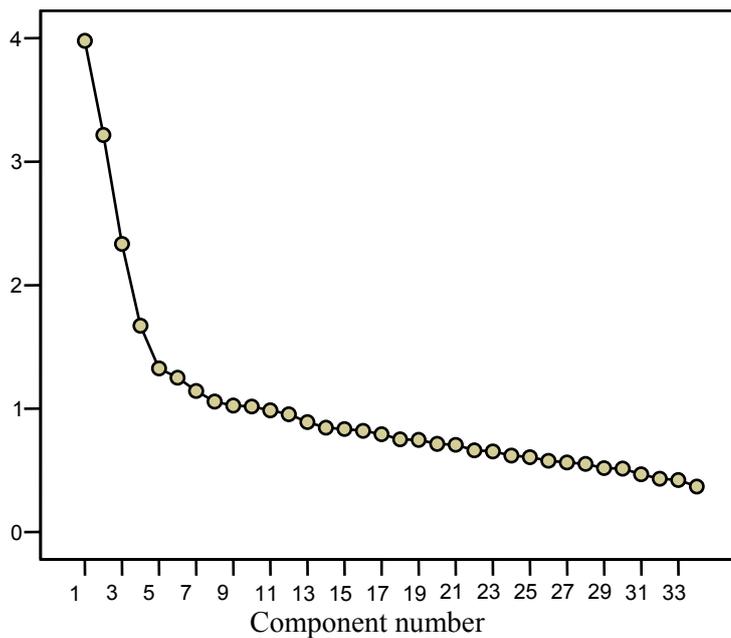


Table 9.2.24: Rotated factor loadings matrix at 0.40% cut-off margin related to fathers orientations towards developing the consumer role of their young children

Variables	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
q36					
q37					.765
q38					.809
q39					
q40		.666			
q41					
q42		.519			
q43		.610			
q44					
q45		.581			
q46		.507			
q47		.612			
q57			.594		
q58			.615		
q59			.732		
q60			.723		
q61			.633		
q62			.656		
q64					
q65	.514				
q66	.661				
q67	.622				
q68	.492				
q69	.637				
q70	.696				
q71	.598				
q72					
q73					
q74				.605	
q75					
q76				.547	
q77					
q78				.544	
q79				.533	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Table 9.2.25: The interpretation of rotated factor loadings related to fathers orientations towards developing the consumer role of their young children

(1) Fathers attitudes towards developing the materialism values of their young children
64) It is true that money can buy happiness.
65) More school allowances would make children happy.
66) Permit a child to buy what he/she wants of expensive grocery and food products would make him/her happiness.
67) When your child wants something, you bring it to him/her.
68) I buy things for my child that other kids like to have it.
69) I have no any objections related to the types and quantity of grocery and food products when my child buys something for him/herself.
70) I buy the expensive grocery and food products.
71) I buy new brands of grocery and food products.
(2) General attitudes towards developing young children consumer skills
40) It is important for fathers to talk with their kids how to buy things.
42) Kids should participate in grocery and food shopping trips made by their fathers.
43) I try to understand the viewpoint of my child relating to the underlying reasons for his/her buying request.
45) Fathers should talk with kids about the content of TV commercial advertising.
46) Fathers should place restrictions on how many hours their kids can watch TV.
47) It is important for fathers to co-view TV with their kids to know what kinds of programmes and advertising they watch.
(3) Fathers attitudes towards gender
57) In general, the society's values, norms, and religion restrict the girls' consumer roles related to buy grocery and food products independently.
58) A woman with kids should not work.
59) Buying grocery and food products is the chore of a husband not that of the wife.
60) It is fathers' responsibility not mothers to take their kids with them on shopping trips related to grocery and food products.
61) Fathers should only ask the boy's help to buy grocery and food products for the family use.
62) Fathers should only tell the boys where different grocery and food products could be bought.
(4) Fathers yielding to young children's requests
74) The multi-requests of my child annoys me.
76) Kids should not talk with their fathers about buying things, if their fathers are not in a receptive mood.
78) Fathers yielding to kids' requests should be linked with doing some household chores by the kids.
79) Kids should get mothers' support to back up their requests with their fathers.
(5) Fathers perception of the sex roles
37) It is fathers' responsibility to evolve the consumer skills and knowledge of their kids related to grocery and food products.
38) Mothers placed the second order of responsibility to evolve the consumer skills and knowledge of their kids related to grocery and food products.

**Appendix E**  
**Research analysis techniques**

### **Cross-tabulation Analysis Associated with Pearson Chi-square Test**

Cross-tabulation technique is used to examine the relationship between two categorical nominal or ordinal variables rather than the causation. It offers tests of independence through Chi-square statistics and provides a variety of tests and measures of association for two-way tables. A variable can be treated as nominal when its values represent categories with no intrinsic ranking. A variable can be treated as ordinal when its values represent categories with some intrinsic ranking. Pearson chi-square tests the hypothesis that the row and column variables are independent. The lower the significance value, the less likely it is that the two variables are independent (unrelated). Correlations for or nominal data (no intrinsic order) Cramer's V coefficient is used. Cramer's V is a measure of association based on chi-square. A large value of V merely indicates a high degree of association. It does not indicate how the variables are associated.

In addition, cross-tabulation analyses the effect of control variable on the relationship between the row and column variables through creating a three-way table. As a rule, there should be at least five expected observations in each cell for the computed statistics to be reliable. Thus, cross-tabulation is an inefficient way of examining relationships when there are more than a few variables.

### **Principal Component Factor Analysis (varimax rotation)**

Factor Analysis is a method of transforming the original variables into new and non-correlated variables. It is used to reduce or detect the structure of scales. While the purpose of data reduction is to remove redundant (highly correlated) variables from the scales, the purpose of structure detection is to examine the underlying (or latent) relationships between the variables (Chatfield and Collins, 1992; Norman and Streiner, 1999) and to reach a meaningful and a manageable set of variables (Aaker et al., 2001). Varimax rotation simplifies the interpretation of the factors. The factor loadings are usually considered high if the load is above 0.60 and moderately high if they are greater than or equal to 0.30 (Kline, 1997). It used to remove the collinearity prior to performing a linear regression and MANOVA analyses. The number of factors to keep is determined by (1) the eigenvalue criteria, tossing aside the eigenvalue less than 1.0, (2) a scree plot criteria in accordance with its discontinuity. In this respect, Norman and Streiner (1999):

145) stated, “Scree is a geological term that refers to the rubble that accumulates at the base of cliff. Here, the cliff is the steep part of the graph, and the rubble factors are those that appear after the curve is flattened out”. (3) Factor loading matrix that identifies to what degree variables correlate with each factor (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001; Norman and Streiner, 1999). (4) Depend on Alphas coefficients and inter-item correlations in retaining factors.

### **Correlation Analysis**

Correlation analysis is used to measure the strength of relationship between two variables. It does not draw any cause-and-effect conclusions due to a significant correlation. Pearson correlation coefficient as a parametric test is used when the data are normally distributed. If the data are not normally distributed or have ordered categories, nonparametric versions such as Kendall’s tau-b and Spearman’s rho are used to measure the association between the variables. Correlation coefficients range in value from - 1 (a perfect negative relationship) to +1 (a perfect positive relationship). A value of zero indicates no linear relationship. If the significance level is very small (less than 0.05), then the correlation is significant and the two variables are linearly related.

In addition, the number of scale categories influences the size of the correlation coefficient. The correlation coefficient decreases with a reduction in the number of categories (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In this regard, Cohen (1988) suggests the following guidelines in relation to the size of the correlation coefficient: small:  $r = \pm .10$  to  $.29$ ; medium:  $r = \pm .30$  to  $.49$ ; large  $r = \pm .50$  to  $1.0$ .

### **T Tests**

One sample T test is used to test whether the mean of a single variable differs from the hypothesised mean. The data should be normally distributed. The Independent-Samples T Test procedure tests the significance of the difference between two sample means. It is based on assumptions that the observations should be independent, random samples from normal distributions with the same population variance. The Paired-Sample T Test procedure is conducted to compare the means of two variables that represent the same group at different times before and after an event or related groups such as husbands and wives or fathers and children. Observations for each pair should be made under the same

conditions. The mean differences should be normally distributed and the variances of each variable can be equal or unequal.

In all types of T tests, a low significance value for the t test less than 0.05 indicates that there is a significant difference between the two group means or between the observed mean and the hypothesised mean. If the confidence interval for the mean difference does not contain zero, this also indicates that the difference is significant. If the significance value is high and the confidence interval for the mean difference contains zero, it cannot be concluded that there is a significant difference.

### **One-Way ANOVA Test**

The analysis of variance “ANOVA” as one of the parametric tests is an extension of the two-sample t test. It is used to test the variation between three or more groups at one time on a single dependent variable by comparing means. F statistics shows the significant difference among the groups across the dependent variable. If F statistics “ratio” is large, with a probability of less than .05, this indicates that it is statistically significant (Saunders, et al., 2003). The analysis of variance like all of the parametric tests has a number of assumptions that should be taken into consideration before running the test. That is, the population should be normally distributed; the large sample reduces the violation of normal distribution assumption that makes major problems (Stevens, 1996). The fully normal distribution for variables measured on scales cannot be achieved 100%, for example, Pallant, (2005: 51) noted that to obtain the skewness and kurtosis value of “zero” is an uncommon occurrence in social science. In addition, in large samples skewness or kurtosis will not make significant differences in the analysis (Tabachnik and Fidell 2001: 74-75). As a rule, skewness value more than twice its standard error is an indication of departing from symmetry. The values of the independent variable “Factor” should be integers. The dependent variables should be measured at the interval or ratio levels and the scores of variables should be randomly obtained from the target population. The observations that make-up the data should be independent, specifically, each observation or measurement should not be affected by any other observation or measurement (Pallant, 2005: 197). In addition, the analysis of variance relies on the assumption that the groups should be of equal variance; the variability of scores for each

of the groups is similar and the significant value of less than 0.05 of the homogeneity of variance test that refers to the unequal variances between the groups (Pallant, 2005: 197). When the variances of dependent variables are not equal across groups, Welch and Brown-Forsythe statistics are alternatives to the usual F test in such a case. As the sample size increases, these distributions of these statistics converge to an F distribution. To determine which means are significantly differed, post hoc tests Tukey's HSD "Honestly Significant Different" test is used (Pallant, 2005). Field (2006) recommends to use the test of Games-Howell of paired comparison when the homogeneity of variance test is not greater than 0.05 and to rely on the F ratio of Welch and Brown-Forsythe (Pallant, 2005; 218).

### **One-Way MANOVA Test**

Multivariate analysis of variance MANOVA test is an extension of ANOVA test. It is used to compare groups on more than *one* dependent variable. MANOVA compares the groups and tells whether the mean difference between the groups on the combination of dependent variables is likely to have occurred by chance. MANOVA also provides the univariate results for each of dependent variables separately. It is appropriate when the dependent variables are correlated and protect against a Type I error (Hair, Jr et al. 1998). In MANOVA, the null hypothesis relies on the assumption that the vector of the means of multiple dependent variables is equal across groups (Malhotra and Briks, 2007: 566). Running a series of separate univariate ANOVA tests increased the inflation of type I error. Therefore, it is better to firstly conduct MANOVA analysis to control or adjust the risk of type I error. MANOVA test can be conducted in one-way and two-way, and higher order factorial designs (Pallant, 2005: 247). On the other hand, Pallant (2005) noted that if the researcher chooses to conduct a series of univariate ANOVA's analysis without conducting the initial MANOVA, he should reduce the alpha value (typically 0.05) to be not greater than (0.017) before considering of the results are significant.

The univariate normality of each variable guarantees the multivariate normality (Field, 2006: 593). According to Box's M test "the equality of covariance matrices", Tabachnick and Fidell (2001: 80) warned that the Box's test tends to be too strict when the research data is based on a large sample size. In addition, Field (2006: 599) reported that the effect

of violating this assumption is unclear. If the sample size of each category-related to the independent variable is equal, this test should be ignored because it is highly unstable and tenable and the greater the differences in the sample sizes, the more distorted the probability values produced by SPSS become. The priority should be given to meet firstly the multivariate normality assumption before interpreting the result of Box's test (Field, 2006: 593).

### **Multiple Regression Analysis**

In general, regression analysis is used to compare one set of data with another to show whether a trend in one set relates to a trend in the other. Linear regression estimates the coefficients of the linear equation, involving one or more independent variables that best predict the value of the dependent variable. In this respect, the dependent and independent variables should be quantitative. Categorical variables, such as religion and region of residence, need to be recoded to binary (dummy) variables. The data should be normally distributed. The variance of the distribution of the dependent variable should be constant for all values of the independent variable. The relationship between the dependent variable and each independent variable should be linear, and all observations should be independent.

Tolerance is a statistic used to determine how much the independent variables are linearly related to one another (multicollinear). Tolerance is the proportion of a variable's variance not accounted for by other independent variables in the model. A variable with very low tolerance contributes little information to a model, and can cause computational problems. The variance inflation factor "VIF" is the reciprocal of the tolerance. As the variance inflation factor increases, so does the variance of the regression coefficient, making it an unstable estimate. Large VIF values are an indicator of multicollinearity.

Finally, the significance of t value related to Beta coefficient is used to test the null hypothesis that the regression coefficient is zero "there is no linear relationship between the dependent and independent variable". If the significance value is small (less than 0.05) then the coefficient is considered significant.

**Appendix F**  
**Research questionnaires / Arabic versions (2) and the approval letter of**  
**Ministry of Education-Jordan**



### الجزء الأول : سلوك الآباء وتوجهاتهم نحو شراء المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال

يهدف هذا الجزء الى قياس توجهات الآباء نحو شراء المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال من حيث (أ) مدى استخدامهم لمعايير واستراتيجيات الشراء في تقييم واختيار السلعة (ب) سلوك الآباء اتجاه المحلات التجارية والسلع الخاصة بالاطفال .

#### أ. معايير واستراتيجيات الشراء للآباء

تحتوي العبارات التالية على مجموعة من المعايير والاستراتيجيات التي تستخدم عادة في شراء المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال، بصفتك كمستهلك لهذه المواد، الرجاء وضع إشارة (X) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة استمرارية استخدامك لتلك المعايير والاستراتيجيات عند شراء المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال. (سهلة المنال : تعني المواد الاستهلاكية التي تشتريها باستمرار للعائلة او للاطفال)

الرقم	العبارة	غالباً جداً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	نادراً جداً
1	اختيار الجودة العالية للسلعة وبأعلى الاسعار .					
2	اختيار الجودة العالية للسلعة و بأقل الاسعار					
3	اختيار الجودة المناسبة للسلعة وبسعر مناسب .					
4	الشراء من مجموعة اسعار العرض (تنزيلات).					
5	شراء العلامة التجارية (الماركة) التي تستخدمها العائلة باستمرار.					
6	اختيار السلعة ذات التاريخ الأحدث في الإنتاج.					
7	مساومة (مفاصلة) السعر .					
8	الشراء من محل واحد باستمرار .					
9	الشراء من عدة محلات مختلفة .					
10	الشراء من المحلات القريبة من منزلك					
11	الشراء من المحلات المتخصصة حسب نوع السلعة .					
12	الاعتماد على اسم بلد المنشأ (الدولة الصانعة) في الشراء .					
13	اختيار السلع الرخيصة الثمن					
14	اختيار السلع غالية الثمن					
15	المقارنة بين العلامات التجارية (الماركات) المختلفة للسلعة الواحدة قبل الشراء					
16	الرغبة في تجربة ماركة جديدة من السلع والأطعمة .					
17	اختيار السلع التي توجد فيها هدايا .					
18	قراءة مكونات (محتويات) السلعة قبل الشراء					
19	اختيار السلع الخالية من الصبغات والمواد الصناعية					
20	شراء السلع ذات الماركات المحلية والمصنعة داخل الأردن .					
21	شراء السلع ذات الماركات الأجنبية المصنعة خارج الأردن .					
22	شراء السلع ذات الإعلانات التي تحبها.					
23	شراء السلع التي تظهر إعلاناتها باستمرار .					
24	تخصيص ميزانية محددة لشراء المواد الاستهلاكية في كل زيارة للسوق.					
25	قبل ذهابك للسوق تقوم بكتابة قائمة بالمواد التي تنوي شرائها.					
26	قبل ذهابك للسوق تقوم بقراءة الصحف المتخصصة في الاعلانات عن السلع لمعرفة ما يباع في المحلات التجارية بأسعار (التنزيلات) .					
27	تقوم بشراء مواد لم تكن لديك نية بشرائها قبل دخولك المحل .					

**ب. سلوك الآباء اتجاه المحلات التجارية والسلع والاطعمة الخاصة بالأطفال .**

بصفتك كمستهلك، الرجاء وضع اشارة (x) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة موافقتك او عدم موافقتك عليها.

الرقم	العبارة	اوافق بشدة	اوافق	محايد	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشده
28	الشراء من المحلات التجارية يعتبر نشاط ممتع و مسلي بالنسبة لي					
29	لا احب تغيير محلات الشراء المفضلة الي					
30	ارغب بالشراء من المحلات التي اشعر فيها بأني في بيتي					
31	المحلات المشهورة تميل نحو تقديم خدمات افضل للزبائن .					
32	المحلات المشهورة تميل نحو بيع السلع ذات الجودة العالية					
33	اقوم بالشراء من المحلات التجارية التي استطع منها شراء جميع المواد					
34	اتجنب شراء المواد والاعذية التي توجد بها اضافات لمواد غير طبيعية.					
35	معظم السلع والاطعمة الخاصة بالأطفال تحتوي على نكهات اصطناعية وغير طبيعية .					

**الجزء الثاني : سلوك الآباء نحو تعليم أطفالهم مهارات الشراء**

يهدف هذا الجزء الى قياس توجهات الآباء نحو تنمية المهارت الشرائية لإطفالهم وتطوير معرفتهم بنشاطات السوق المتعلقة بشراء المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال من حيث : أ. التوجه العام نحو تعليم اطفالهم مهارات الشراء ب. توجهات الآباء نحو السماح لاطفالهم بالشراء لوحدهم ج. توجهات الآباء بالسماح لاطفالهم بمرافقتهم والتسوق معا.

**أ. التوجه العام للآباء نحو تعليم اطفالهم مهارات الشراء**

بصفتك كمستهلك ، الرجاء وضع اشارة (x) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية التي تبين فيها درجة موافقتك او عدم موافقتك عليها

الرقم	العبارة	اوافق بشدة	اوافق	محايد	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشده
36	على الآباء عدم الاهتمام بما يشتريه الاطفال كونه لديهم الكثير من الاعمال عليهم القيام بها.					
37	تقع مسؤولية تطوير معرفة ومهارات الاطفال الشرائية الخاصة بالمواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال عن الآباء بالدرجة الاولى.					
38	تقع مسؤولية تطوير معرفة ومهارات الاطفال الشرائية الخاصة بالمواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال على الامهات بالدرجة الثانية .					
39	الآباء والامهات غير مسؤولان عن تطوير معرفة ومهارات اطفالهم الشرائية وانما على الاطفال ان يتعلموا بأنفسهم تلك المهارات والمعرفة كونها تتطور تدريجيا كلما تقدموا بالسن .					
40	من الضروري جدا ان يتبادل الآباء واطفالهم الآراء حول كيفية شراء الاشياء					
41	ان شراء الاشياء المناسبة وغير المناسبة تعتمد على القدرات الذهنية (المعرفية) للفرد ومهاراته الشرائية .					
42	على الاطفال ان يشاركوا ابائهم في رحلات التسوق التي يقومون بها لشراء المواد الاستهلاكية للمنزل .					

ب. سلوك الآباء اتجاه المحلات التجارية والسلع والاطعمة الخاصة بالأطفال .

بصفتك كمستهلك، الرجاء وضع إشارة (X) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة موافقتك او عدم موافقتك عليها.

الرقم	العبارة	وافق بشدة	وافق	محايد	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشده
28	الشراء من المحلات التجارية يعتبر نشاط ممتع و مسلي بالنسبة لي					
29	لا احب تغيير محلات الشراء المفضلة الي					
30	ارغب بالشراء من المحلات التي اشعر فيها بأنني في بيتي					
31	المحلات المشهورة تميل نحو تقديم خدمات افضل للزبائن .					
32	المحلات المشهورة تميل نحو بيع السلع ذات الجودة العالية					
33	اقوم بالشراء من المحلات التجارية التي استطع منها شراء جميع المواد					
34	اتجنب شراء المواد والاعذية التي توجد بها اضافات لمواد غير طبيعية.					
35	معظم السلع والاطعمة الخاصة بالأطفال تحتوي على نكهات اصطناعية وغير طبيعية .					

الجزء الثاني : سلوك الآباء نحو تعليم اطفالهم مهارات الشراء

يهدف هذا الجزء الى قياس توجهات الآباء نحو تنمية المهارات الشرائية لإطفالهم وتطوير معرفتهم بنشاطات السوق المتعلقة بشراء المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال من حيث : أ. التوجه العام نحو تعليم اطفالهم مهارات الشراء ب. توجهات الآباء نحو السماح لاطفالهم بالشراء لوحدهم ج. توجهات الآباء بالسماح لاطفالهم بمرافقتهم والتسوق معا.

أ. التوجه العام للآباء نحو تعليم اطفالهم مهارات الشراء

بصفتك كمستهلك ، الرجاء وضع إشارة (X) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية التي تبين فيها درجة موافقتك او عدم موافقتك عليها

لرقم	العبارة	وافق بشدة	وافق	محايد	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشده
36	على الآباء عدم الاهتمام بما يشتريه الاطفال كونه لديهم الكثير من الاعمال عليهم القيام بها.					
37	تقع مسؤولية تطوير معرفة ومهارات الاطفال الشرائية الخاصة بالمواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال عن الآباء بالدرجة الاولى.					
38	تقع مسؤولية تطوير معرفة ومهارات الاطفال الشرائية الخاصة بالمواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال على الامهات بالدرجة الثانية .					
39	الآباء والامهات غير مسؤولان عن تطوير معرفة ومهارات اطفالهم الشرائية وانما على الاطفال ان يتعلموا بأنفسهم تلك المهارات والمعرفة كونها تتطور تدريجيا كلما تقدموا بالسن .					
40	من الضروري جدا ان يتبادل الآباء واطفالهم الآراء حول كيفية شراء الاشياء					
41	ان شراء الاشياء المناسبة وغير المناسبة تعتمد على القنرات الذهنية (المعرفية) للفرد ومهاراته الشرائية .					
42	على الاطفال ان يشاركوا اباؤهم في رحلات التسوق التي يقومون بها لشراء المواد الاستهلاكية للمنزل .					

لرقم	العبارة	اوافق بشدة	اوافق	محايد (لا يوجد رأي)	لا اوافق بشده	لا اوافق بشده
43	احاول وباستمرار فهم وجهة نظر طفلي فيما يتعلق بطلبات الشراء الخاصة به					
44	احيانا للحظ دور كبير عند شراء الفرد لسلعة ما ولم تلبى تلك السلعة رغباته بالشكل المطلوب .					
45	على الآباء ان يناقشوا اطفالهم بمحتوى الاعلان التجاري في التلفزيون .					
46	على الآباء ان يحددوا عدد ساعات مشاهدة الاطفال للتلفزيون					
47	من المهم جدا ان يشاهد الآباء التلفزيون مع اطفالهم لمعرفة انواع البرامج والاعلانات التجارية التي يشاهدونها.					

#### ب توجيهات الآباء نحو السماح لاطفالهم بالشراء لوحدهم

يهدف هذا الجزء الى معرفة توجيهات الآباء بالسماح لإطفالهم القيام بمفردهم بشراء بعض احتياجات المنزل واحتياجاتهم الخاصة فيما يتعلق بالمواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال، الرجاء وضع إشارة (x) واحدة امام كل مجموعة من المواد والاطعمة التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة تكرار طفلك لشراء المواد الاستهلاكية التالية :

العبارة	دائما	أحيانا	إطلاقا لا
<b>48- (لاستخدامات الاسرة) :</b>			
أ. سائل جلي ، شامبو			
ب. لبن، ملح، ارز، بيض، معلبات			
ج. خبز			
د. حمص، فول، فلافل ( طعام الإفطار)			
هـ. خضار وفواكه			
و. دجاج ، لحمه ، سمك			
<b>49- (لاستخدامات الطفل):</b>			
- شوكلاتة ، علكة ، بسكويت و شيبس .			
- مشروبات غازية ، عصير فواكه وبوظة			
- ادوات مدرسية			
- ساندويشات			

الرقم	العبارة	غالبًا جدا	غالبًا	أحيانا	نادرا	نادرا جدا
50	تقوم بتزويد طفلك (في هذا السن) بقائمة شراء المواد كتوضيح لما تطلبه ليسلمها لصاحب المحل اذا كان عدد المواد المطلوبة التي سيقوم بشرائها بمفرده اكثر من صنف واحد من المواد الخاصة باستخدامات الاسرة .					
51	يكون تأثيرك اقل على كمية ونوعية المواد التي يقوم بشرائها لطفلك لنفسه عندما يذهب لوحده الى السوبر ماركت.					

ج: توجهات الآباء نحو قيام أطفالهم بالتسوق معهم

يهدف هذا الجزء الى قياس اثر مرافقة الطفل لأبيه لشراء المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال على تنمية المهارات الشرائية لأطفالهم ، الرجاء وضع اشارة (x) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تمثل درجة استمرارية مرافقة طفلك لكم عند قيامكم بشراء المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال سواء كانت لاستخدامات الاسرة او لاستخدامات الطفل.

الرقم	العبارة	غالبًا جدا	غالبًا	احيانا	نادرا	نادرا جدا
52	تسمح لطفلك في هذا السن بمرافقتك في مختلف رحلات التسوق الخاصة بشراء المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال.					
53	عندما تقوم بشراء المواد الاستهلاكية فان طفلك يرافقك في زيارة المحلات التالية:					
-	السوبر ماركت المجاور لمنزلك					
-	محل الخضار والفواكه القريب من منطقتك					
-	المحلات المتخصصة في بيع الدجاج ، اللحمه، الاسماك المجاورة لمنزلك					
-	محلات الخضار والفواكه، اللحوم، الدجاج والاسماك في الاسواق الرئيسية					
-	المخابز					
-	المطاعم (الحمص، الفول، الفلافل، الشاورما، البرغر)					
-	المكتبات					
-	المجمع التجاري (المول)					
54	طفلك يطلب منك شراء السلع والاطعمه التي يشاهد اعلاناتها في التلفزيون					
55	يكون لك تأثير كبير على كمية ونوعية المواد التي يشتريها طفلك اثناء مرافقتك لك					
56	عندما يذهب طفلك معك لشراء بعض المواد الخاصة به والمشار اليها اعلاه فانك:					
-	تطلب منه الانتباه الى الانواع الجديدة من السلع والاطعمة لم تكن موجوده في السابق					
-	ترشده الى كيفية التأكد من جودة السلع .					
-	تسمح له بتحديد انواع السلع والاطعمة التي يرغب بشرائها					
-	تسمح له بتحديد الشكل الخارجي للسلعه					
-	تسمح له بتحديد مكونات (محتويات) السلعه					
-	تسمح له بتحديد طعم السلعه					

الجزء الثالث: توجه الآباء نحو تعليم أطفالهم (الذكور دون الإناث) مهارات شراء المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال

الرجاء وضع اشارة (x) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بها تمثل درجة موافقتك او عدم موافقتك عليها .

الرقم	العبارة	اوافق بشده	اوافق	محايد	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشده
57	بشكل عام، ان القيم الاجتماعية والعادات والتقاليد والقواعد الشرعية الدينية تحد من قيام الاناث بشراء المواد الاستهلاكية بمفردهن					
58	بشكل عام يجب ان لا تعمل المرأة اذا كان لديها اطفال صغار					
59	شراء المواد الاستهلاكية للمنزل من واجب الزوج وليس الزوجه.					
60	من واجب الاباء وليس الامهات اخذ اطفالهم معهم في زياراتهم للسوق لشراء المواد الاستهلاكية					
61	على الآباء الطلب من اطفالهم (الذكور) بالمساعدة في شراء المواد الاستهلاكية الخاصة بالمنزل					
62	على الآباء ارشاد اطفالهم الذكور فقط عن الاماكن المختلفة لشراء المواد الاستهلاكية.					

63- في الواقع، أرغب في تطوير مهارات الشراء لطفلي كونه :

لا	نعم
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- الأكبر سنا في أولادي من الذكور والإناث

- يوجد لدي ولد واحد والباقي بنات

- يوجد لدي بنات فقط

#### الجزء الرابع: توجهات الآباء نحو تنمية القيم المادية لأطفالهم

الرجاء وضع إشارة (X) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة موافقتك او عدم موافقتك عليها

الرقم	العبارة	اوافق بشده	اوافق	محايد	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشدة
64	صدقا ان المال يستطيع شراء السعادة					
65	ان زيادة المصروف المدرسي للطفل يجعله اكثر سرورا					
66	السماح للطفل بشراء ما يريده من سلع واطعمه غالية الثمن ستجعله مسرورا					
67	عندما يطلب طفلك شيء ما فانه يحصل عليه					
68	اقوم بشراء اشياء لاطفالي تظهر اعجاب الاطفال الآخرين بها					
69	لا توجد لدي اية تحفظات على قيام اطفالي بشراء الكميات والنوعيات التي يريدونها من سلع واطعمة					
70	تقوم بشكل دائم بشراء السلع والاطعمه غالية الثمن					
71	تقوم وبشكل مستمر بشراء الماركات الجديدة من السلع والاطعمة					

#### الجزء الخامس : اثر عاطفة الآباء في تنمية المهارت الشرائية لأطفالهم

الرجاء وضع إشارة (X) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة موافقتك او عدم موافقتك عليها .

الرقم	العبارة	اوافق بشده	اوافق	محايد	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشدة
72	الالتزام الأول للفرد يجب ان يكون نحو اطفاله					
73	عندما يتحدث الآباء مع اطفالهم حول طلباتهم الخاصة بشراء السلع والاطعمة ان يستمعوا اليهم اكثر من ان يناقشوا .					
74	ان الطلبات المتعددة للاطفال تزعجني					
75	احيانا اقضي وقت طويل مع اطفالي لمناقشة طلباتهم الشرائية المتعددة .					
76	على الاطفال الا يتحدثوا مع اباؤهم في شراء اي شيء يتعلق بهم اذا كانوا اباؤهم في مزاج غير جيد .					
77	قائمة طلبات الاطفال من مواد وسلع يجب ان تكون الأولوية الأولى ضمن طلبات الشراء الخاصة بالعائلة .					
78	على الآباء عدم الانعاز لطلبات اطفالهم المتعددة الا اذا قاموا ببعض الاعمال الخفيفه في البيت .					
79	على الاطفال اللجوء لوالدتهم اولا كي يذعن الآباء لطلباتهم					

**الجزء السادس : توجه الآباء نحو الاعلان التلفزيوني التجاري بشكل عام والموجه نحو الاطفال بشكل خاص**

الرجاء وضع اشارة (X) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة موافقتك او عدم موافقتك عليها .

الرقم	العبارة	اوافق بشدة	اوافق	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشدة
80	الاعلان التجاري التلفزيوني يبين الصورة الحقيقية للسلع والاطعمة المعلن عنها.				
81	الاعلان التجاري التلفزيوني زائر غير مرغوب به ومزعج جدا				
82	الاعلان التجاري التلفزيوني يساعدني في اتخاذ القرارات الخاصة بشراء المواد الاستهلاكية .				
83	الاعلان التجاري التلفزيوني مسلي وممتع اكثر من أية وسيلة دعائية اخرى				
84	الاعلان التجاري التلفزيوني يحث الاطفال على شراء اشياء ليس هم بحاجة لها فعلا .				
85	الاعلان التجاري التلفزيوني يستخدم اسلوب الخدع والتحايل السينمائي لجذب انتباه الاطفال لشراء السلع والاطعمة الخاصة بهم				
86	احب شراء المواد الاستهلاكية التي تظهر في الاعلانات المحببة لي				
87	مواد وسلع الاطفال المعلن عنها في التلفزيون تحتوي على كميات كبيرة من السكريات والنكهات غير الطبيعية				
88	يجب ان يكون للآباء تأثير كبير على توجهات الاطفال نحو الاعلانات التجارية في التلفزيون.				

**الجزء السابع : ادراك الآباء للمقدرة الذهنية لاكتساب اطفالهم مهارات الشراء**

يهدف هذا الجزء الى قياس درجة ادراك الآباء لمقدرة اطفالهم في هذا السن على القيام ببعض المهارات المتعلقة بالشراء ومقدرتهم على فهم البيئة التسويقية المحيطة بهم من خلال تخاطبهم الشفوي ومراقبتهم اليومية لهم. الرجاء وضع (X) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بها تبين مقدرة طفلكم في هذا السن القيام بالمهارات التالية :

الرقم	العبارة	مقدرة عالية جدا	مقدرة عالية	مقدرة منخفضة	مقدرة منخفضة جدا	غير قادر	لا اعرف
89	مقدرته على شراء سلع واطعمه لاستخداماته الشخصية بمفرده وبدون مساعدة من احد						
90	مقدرته على شراء سلع واطعمه لاستخدامات العائلة بمفرده وبدون مساعدة من احد						
91	مقارنة الاسعار للسلع التي يرغب بشرائها مع السلع الاخرى المشابه لها بدقه						
92	معرفة العلاقة بين جودة السلعة والسعر						
93	فحص الشكل الخارجي لعبوة السلعة (مثل الغطاء، الكرتون المستخدم في تغليف العبوة.....)						
94	التمييز بين الماركات التجارية للسلعة الواحدة						
95	معرفة محتويات (مكونات) السلعة التي يشتريها						
96	شراء السلع غير الضرورية لصحته						
97	الشراء من المجمع التجاري (مول)						

الرقم	العبرة	مقدرة عالية جدا	مقدرة عالية	قادر	مقدرة منخفضة	مقدرة منخفضة جدا	غير قادر	لا اعرف
98	ادارة مخصصاته المالية اليومية ومدخراته بحرص							
99	التأكد من تاريخ الانتاج وتاريخ الانتهاء للسلعة							
100	معرفة بعض المواصفات الفنية للسلعة التي يتسخدمها بنفسه							
101	معرفة دور رجال البيع في المحلات							
102	معرفة قيمة العملة كوسيلة للشراء والتبادل التجاري .							
103	مساومة (مفاصلة) الاسعار مع البائعين.							
104	معرفة انه ليس جميع الاعلانات التجارية في التلفزيون تظهر حقيقة السلعة المعلن عنها							
105	معرفة الهدف من الاعلانات التجارية في التلفزيون .							
106	التمييز بين الاعلان التلفزيوني والبرنامج التلفزيوني .							
107	يستطيع معرفة بان الاعلان التجاري التلفزيوني مبالغ فيه.							
108	يستطيع ان يدرك بأن الممثلين في الاعلان التجاري التلفزيوني قد لا يستخدمون السلعة التي يعلنون عنها.							
109	يستطيع ان يدرك بان الاشخاص الموجودين في الاعلان التجاري التلفزيوني يقومون بدور التمثيل فقط وليسوا مستهلكين حقيقيين للسلعة.							

### 110- البيانات الشخصية

يرجى وضع اشارة (x) في المكان المناسب:

• فئة العمر التي تنتمي اليها:

اقل من 25 سنة	من 25 سنة - 34 سنة	من 35 سنة - 44 سنة	من 45 سنة - 54 سنة	من 55 سنة - 64 سنة

- الرجاء بيان عدد افراد الاسرة: ذكور ( ) اناث ( )
- الديانة : الاسلام ( ) المسيحية ( )
- المستوى التعليمي للأب:

اقل من توجيهي	توجيهي	دبلوم متوسط	بكالوريوس	ماجستير	دكتوراة

متوسط الدخل الشهري للعائلة :

اقل من 150 دينار	من 150 دينار الى اقل من 300 دينار	من 300 دينار الى اقل من 450 دينار	من 450 دينار الى اقل من 600 دينار	من 600 دينار الى اقل من 750 دينار	من 750 دينار الى اقل من 900 دينار	900 دينار فما فوق

• الوظيفة :

موظف حكومية	موظف قطاع خاص	رجل اعمال وصاحب املاك

مكان السكن ( ----- )

شكرا لله ثم لك لاستكمال الاجابة على الاسئلة.....



الجزء الأول : معرفة المصطلح

يهدف هذا الجزء الى قياس مدى فهم الطفل لبعض مصطلحات السوق والتشريعات الخاصة به، الرجاء وضع إشارة (x) واحدة امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعبر فيها عن صحة او خطأ تلك العبارة بالنسبة لك او عدم معرفتك بذلك :

الرقم	العبارة	صح	خطأ	لا اعرف
١	ان المجمع التجاري (مول) يعني بيع سلع متعددة موزعة على عدة أقسام في مكان واحد.			
٢	المحلات المتخصصة تعني قيام تلك المحلات ببيع سلعة واحدة او عدة سلع متشابهة مثل محلات الاسماك			
٣	مكونات (محتويات) السلعة تعني شكل السلعة ولونها.			
٤	اذا كان معك (١٠٠٠) دينار فأنت تستطيع شراء سيارة جديدة.			
٥	الدينار الاردني يساوي مائة قس .			
٦	مفاضلة الاسعار هو حق لكل مشتري			
٨	المحلات التجارية الخاصة تماكها الدولة .			
٩	ان جودة السلعة ترتبط بشكل عام بـ:			
-	مكوناتها (المواد الداخلة في صناعاتها)			
-	حجم السلعة			
-	السعر			
-	متانة السلعة وطول مدة خدمتها دون اعطال أو تلف			
-	تختلف حسب طبيعة السلعة			
١٠	اسعار التنزيلات ترتبط بـ:			
-	تخفيض اسعار المواد لمدة زمنية محددة.			
-	تقديم هدايا عند الشراء .			
١١	ان سعر السلعة يرتبط بالجودة والعلامة التجارية (اسم الماركة)			
١٢	اسم الماركة تعني اسم وعلامة تجارية لسلعة واحدة			
١٣	لا توجد ضرائب على المحلات التجارية.			

الجزء الثاني: نماذج اتصال الأباء:

العبارات التالية تصنف أسلوب التخاطب الشفوي الأحادي الجانب والثنائي الجانب بين الأباء وأطفالهم ، الرجاء وضع إشارة (x) أمام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تصف أسلوب والدك في تخاطبه الشفوي معكم فيما يتعلق بشراء الأشياء بشكل عام

الرقم	العبارة	غالبًا جدا	غالبًا	أحيانًا	نادراً	نادراً جداً
١٤	والدك يقرر ما يجب أن تشتريه من أشياء.					
١٥	والدك لا يسمح لك بشراء أشياء معينة .					
١٦	والدك يقول لك بأنك لا تقدر على شراء أشياء معينة.					
١٧	والدك يزعل عندما تقوم بشراء أشياء هو لا يحبها.					
١٨	والدك يريد معرفة كيف تصرف مصروفك المدرسي .					
١٩	والدك لا يسمح لك بالسؤال عن أشياء لا يقومون من هم في عمرك بشرائها.					

الرقم	العبارة	غالبًا جدا	غالبًا	أحيانًا	نادرا	نادرا جدا
٢٠	والدك يقول لك بأنه يعرف ما هو الأفضل لك عند شراء شيء معين ويجب عدم التحدث معه في ذلك .					
٢١	والدك يقول بأن شراء الأشياء الجيدة وغير الجيدة يعود الى الحظ.					
٢٢	والدك يسمح لك بتحديد الأشياء التي تقوم بشرائها أو عدم شرائها.					
٢٣	والدك يسمح لك بحرية التصرف بمصروفك المدرسي .					
٢٤	أنا ووالدي نتحدث حول كيفية شراء الأشياء .					
٢٥	والدك يحاول إقناعك بأن ثرائك لشيء معين هو ليس الاختيار الأفضل.					
٢٦	والدك يطلب منك تحديد الأشياء التي تفضلها قبل أن يقوم بشرائها لك.					
٢٧	والدك يطلب منك ان تقول رأيك عندما يقوم بشراء شيء لنفسه.					
٢٨	والدك يطلب منك مساعدته في شراء أشياء معينة للمنزل.					
٢٩	أنت ووالدك تتحدثان عن أماكن شراء الأشياء المختلفة .					
٣٠	والدك يقول بأن شراء الأشياء الجيدة أو غير الجيدة لا تعتمد على الحظ.					

### الجزء الثالث : سلوك الأطفال اتجاه المحلات التجارية وشراء المواد الغذائية الخاصة بهم.

يهدف هذا الجزء إلى قياس ميول ومعتقدات الطفل بشكل عام نحو المحلات التجارية الخاصة بالمواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال، الرجاء وضع إشارة (x) واحدة أمام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك عايبها.

ملاحظة: (المواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال تعني: المواد الاستهلاكية التي من الممكن ان تشتريها للمنزل ولنفسك باستمرار )

الرقم	العبارة	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
٣١	الذهاب الى المحلات التجارية بحد ذاته يعتبر نشاط ممتع ومسلي بالنسبة لي.				
٣٢	المحلات التجارية المعروفة تبيع سلع وأطعمه ذات جودة عالية.				
٣٣	لا احب تغيير المحل الذي لقوم بالشراء منه دائما.				
٣٤	المحلات المعروفة قادرة على لفت انتباه الاطفال الى السلع والاطعمه الجديدة				
٣٥	على الأطفال شراء المواد والأطعمة الطبيعية .				
٣٦	معظم الأطعمة والسلع الخاصة بالأطفال تحتوي على نكهات اصطناعية وغير طبيعية.				

### الجزء الرابع : المهارات الشرائية للطفل

يهدف هذا الجزء إلى قياس المهارات الشرائية للطفل المكتسبة من خلال قيامه بشراء السلع بمفرده أو بمرافقة والده من المحلات التجارية الخاصة بالمواد الاستهلاكية سهلة المنال.

الرقم	العبارة	عدد المرات
٣٧	بشكل عام، اذكر عدد المرات التي قمت بها بشراء بعض المواد الاستهلاكية بمفردك خلال الأسبوع الماضي من المحلات التالية :	
	نوع المحل	
	- السوبر ماركت المجاور لمنزلك	( )
	- محل الخضار والفواكه القريب من منزلك	( )
	- المحلات المتخصصة في بيع الدجاج،اللحمة والأسماك	( )
	- المخازن	( )
	- المطاعم (الحمص، الفول، والفلافل، الشاورما)	( )
	- المكتبات المجاورة لمنزلك	( )

٣٨ -- هل يطلب منك والدك القيام بمفردك بشراء مواد استهلاكية لاستخدامات الأسرة ، الرجاء الاجابة بـ (نعم) او (لا)

لا	نعم

☞ إذا كان الجواب (نعم) الرجاء الانتقال الى السؤال رقم ( ٣٩ ) وإذا كان الجواب بـ (لا) أرجو الانتقال الى السؤال رقم ( ٤١ ) .

إطلاقاً لا	أحياناً	دائماً	العبارة
			٣٩- الرجاء وضع إشارة (x) واحده أمام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة تكرار الشراء لوحدك لمجموعات المواد الاستهلاكية التالية لاستخدامات الأسرة
			أ. سائل جلي ، شامبو
			ب. لبن، ملح، أرز، بيض، معلبات
			ج. خبز
			د. حمص، فول، فلفل ( طعام الإفطار)
			هـ. خضار وفواكه
			و. دجاج ، لحمه ، سمك
			٤٠- عندما يطلب منك والدك شراء بعض المواد الاستهلاكية المشار اليها اعلاه فإنه يكتب لك ورقة بالمواد التي ستشتريها لتوضيح ما يطلبه منك لتسليمها لصاحب المحل .

٤١- هل يسمح لك والدك بأن تذهب بمفردك لشراء مواد اطعمه لاستخدامك الشخصي، الرجاء الاجابة بـ (نعم) او (لا)

لا	نعم

☞ إذا كان الجواب (نعم) الرجاء الانتقال الى السؤال رقم ( ٤٢ ) وإذا كان الجواب بـ (لا) أرجو الانتقال الى السؤال رقم ( ٤٦ ) .

إطلاقاً لا	أحياناً	دائماً	العبارة
			٤٢- الرجاء وضع إشارة (x) امام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة تكرار الشراء لوحدك للمجموعات التالية :
			- شوكلاتة ، علكة ، بسكويت و شيبس .
			- مشروبات غازية ، عصير فواكه وبوظة
			- أدوات مدرسية
			- ساندويشات

اضغطنا لا تقوم بذلك	احيانا نقوم بذلك	دائما نقوم بذلك	العبرة
			٤٣- بشكل عام عندما تقوم بشراء مثل تلك المواد، يرجى بيان درجة استخدامك للمعايير التالية قبل شراء السلعة سواء كانت، لاستخدامات العائلة أو الخاصة باستخدامك الشخصي:
			- سؤال البائع عن السعر قبل الشراء.
			- اختيار السلع الرخيصة الثمن
			- اختيار الجودة المناسبة وبالسعر المناسب
			- مساومة (مفاصلة) السعر مع البائع .
			- الشراء من مجموعة اسعار العررض (التزيلات)
			- شراء العلامة التجارية (اسم الماركة) التي تستخدمها العائلة
			- فحص العبوة من حيث الغطاء والكرتون المستخدم في تغليف العبوة
			- المقارنة مع السلع المشابهه للسلعة التي ترغب بشرائها.
			- المقارنة بين العلامات التجارية (اسماء الماركات) قبل الشراء
			- الرغبة في تجربة ماركة جديدة من السلع والأطعمة .
			- اختيار السلع التي توجد فيها هدايا .
			- اختيار السلع التي توجد فيها صور لممثلين او لاعبين مشهورين .
			- اختيار السلعة ذات التاريخ الاحدث في الانتاج
			- قراءة مكونات (محتويات) السلعة قبل الاختيار
			- الشراء من محل واعدد والمجاور لمنزلك
			- الشراء من عدة محلات حسب نوع السلعة
			- اختيار السلع الخالية من الصبغات و السكريات
			- شراء السلع ذات الماركات المحابة (المصنعة داخل الأردن)
			- شراء السلع ذات الماركات الأجنبية (المصنعة خارج الأردن)
			- شراء السلع ذات الإعلانات التلفزيونية التي تحبها.
			- شراء السلع التي تظهر إعلاناتها التلفزيونية باستمرار .
			- التركيز على الطعم.
			- التركيز على اللون
			- الشراء بسرعه
			٤٤- تقوم بشراء سلع ومواد لم تكن لك نيه في شرائها قبل دخولك المحل.
			٤٥- يكون لوالدك تأثير اقل على كمية ونوعية المواد التي تشتريها لنفسك عندما تذهب لوحده الى المحل .

#### الجزء الخامس : اثر تبادل الآراء بين الأباء والأطفال أثناء قيامهم بالشراء معا:

الرجاء وضع إشارة (x) ولحده أمام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة استمرارية مناقشة والدك لك بأمور الاستهلاك أثناء مرافقتك له في شراء السلع والمواد الغذائية سواء كانت لإستخدامات الأسرة أو لاستخدامك الشخصي .

إطلاقاً لا	أحياناً	دائماً	العبارة
			٤٦- عندما تذهب مع والدك لشراء بعض المواد الخاصة بك، والمشار إليها اعلاء تان والدك:
			أ. بطاب منك تجربة أنواع جديدة من السلع والأطعمة (ماركات جديدة) لم تكن موجودة في السابق.
			ب. يرشك إلى كيفية التأكد من جودة السلع والأطعمة .
			ج. يسمح لك بتحديد أنواع السلع والأطعمة التي ترغب بشرائها .
			د. يسمح لك بتحديد الشكل الخارجي للسلعة.
			هـ. يسمح لك بتحديد لون السلعة .
			و. يسمح لك بتحديد مكونات (محتويات) السلعة .
			ز. يسمح لك بتحديد طعم السلعة.

#### الجزء السادس : سلوك الأطفال نحو القيم المادية :

يهدف هذا الجزء إلى قياس النزعة المادية للطفل من حيث شعوره ومعتقداته نحو شراء واستهلاك السلع والأطعمة باعتبارها مهمه لسعادته الشخصية وتطوره الاجتماعي، الرجاء وضع إشارة (x) واحدة أمام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة موافقتك او عدم موافقتك عليها .

الرقم	العبارة	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق
٤٧	أن زيادة مصروفك اليومي سيجعلك أكثر سرورا .				
٤٨	في كل مرة تقوم بها في الشراء بمفردك فإنك تقوم بشراء أكثر من ثلاثة أشياء مما يجعلك مسرورا أكثر.				
٤٩	في كل مرة تقوم بها بمرافقة والدك إلى السوبر ماركت فإنك تقوم بشراء ثلاثة أشياء مختلفة مما يزيدك ذلك سرورا .				
٥٠	تقوم وبشكل مستمر بشراء السلع والأطعمة غالية السعر.				
٥١	تقوم وبشكل مستمر بشراء الماركات الجديدة من السلع والأطعمة .				
٥٢	عندما تطلب أي شيء فإنك تحصل عليه باستمرار .				
٥٣	ترغب بشراء أشياء تظهر إعجاب الأطفال الآخرين بها.				

#### الجزء السابع : سلوك الأطفال نحو الإعلانات التجارية في التلفزيون

يهدف هذا الجزء إلى قياس سلوك الأطفال نحو الإعلانات التجارية في التلفزيون بشكل عام من حيث إدراك الأطفال لمصداقية الإعلانات بالإضافة إلى مقدره الآباء في الحد من تأثير تلك الإعلانات على سلوكهم نحو استهلاك السلع والأطعمة . الرجاء وضع إشارة (x) واحدة أمام كل عبارة من العبارات التالية في الخانة التي تعتقد بأنها تمثل درجة موافقتك او عدم موافقتك عليها.

الرقم	العبارة	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
٥٤	إن مشاهدتي للإعلان التلفزيوني التجاري يمنحني شيئا ما للحديث به مع أصدقائي ممن هم في سني.			
٥٥	الإعلان التلفزيوني التجاري يساعدني في شراء السلع والأطعمة الجديدة			
٥٦	الإعلان التلفزيوني التجاري لا يعطي الصورة الحقيقية للسلع والأطعمة المعلن عنها.			
٥٧	الإعلان التلفزيوني التجاري يروي قصص جيدة			
٥٨	أحب مشاهدة الاعلانات التلفزيونية التجارية كونها تعرض صور مضحكة ومسلية			
٥٩	أحب مشاهدة الاعلانات التلفزيونية التجارية كونها تعرض الكثير من السلع والمواد الغذائية الخاصة بالأطفال			
٦٠	أحب شراء السلع والأطعمة التي تظهر في الاعلانات المحببة لي .			
٦١	مواد و سلع الاطفال الاستهلاكية المعلن عنها في التلفزيون تحتوي على كميات كبيرة من السكريات والذكعات غير الطبيعية .			
٦٢	الإعلان التلفزيوني التجاري يحدث الأطفال على شراء أشياء ليس هم بالواقع بحاجة لها .			
٦٣	الإعلان التلفزيوني يستخدم أسلوب الخدع والتحايل السيئ لاجنب الأطفال لشراء السلع والأطعمة المعلن عنها.			
٦٤	الرجاء بيان عدد ساعات مشاهدةك للتلفزيون (في الأسبوع)			( ) ساعة

الرقم	العبارة	غالبًا جدًا	غالبًا	أحيانًا	نادرًا	نادرًا جدًا
٦٥	أشاهد التلفزيون مع والدي في أيام الأسبوع					
٦٦	أشاهد التلفزيون مع والدي في أيام الجمعة					
٦٧	أشاهد التلفزيون مع والدي في أيام السبت					
٦٨	والذي يحدد البرامج التلفزيونية التي يمكنني مشاهدتها يوميًا					
٦٩	والذي يحدد الساعات التي يمكنني بها مشاهدة التلفزيون					
٧٠	والذي يحدد عدد الساعات اليومية التي أستطيع بها مشاهدة التلفزيون					
٧١	أنا ووالدي نتحدث حول مضمون الإعلانات التجارية في المجلات.					
٧٢	أنا ووالدي نتحدث حول مضمون الإعلانات التجارية في الراديو.					
٧٣	أنا ووالدي نتحدث حول مضمون الإعلانات التجارية في الصحف المحلية والمتخصصة بالإعلانات التجارية .					
٧٤	أشاهد التلفزيون لإغراض التسلية والمرح					
٧٥	أشاهد التلفزيون لسماع الأخبار					
٧٦	أقرأ الأخبار في الصحف المحلية					

يرجى وضع اشارة (x) في المكان المناسب:

• فئة العمر التي تنتمي اليها:

- من ٨ سنوات- اقل من ٩ سنوات ( )  
- من ٩ سنوات - اقل من ١٠ سنوات ( )  
- من ١٠ سنوات - اقل من ١١ سنه ( )  
- من ١١ سنة -اقل من ١٢ سنة ( )  
- ١٢ سنة ( )

• الجنس :

- ذكر ( )  
أنثى ( )

• الديانة :

- الاسلام ( )  
المسيحية ( )

• المستوى التعليمي للأب

- ما دون التوجيهي ( )  
- توجيهي ( )  
- دبلوم متوسط ( )  
- بكالوريوس ( )  
- ماجستير ( )  
- دكتوراة ( )

• الرجاء بيان ما يلي:

- وظيفة الأب : \_\_\_\_\_  
• عدد أفراد الأسرة : \_\_\_\_\_  
• مكان السكن : \_\_\_\_\_

شكرا لله ثم لك لاستكمال الاجابة على الاسئلة .....





بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

## وزارة التربية والتعليم



الموافق ٢٠٠٥/٣/٢٢

١٤٢٦/٢/١١

التاريخ

الرقم ١٠/٣

السيد مدير التربية والتعليم لمنطقة عمان الأولى

الموضوع : البحث التربوي

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،

يقوم الطالب عبد الحليم عيسى الزعبي بإعداد دراسة بعنوان : " دور العائلة - الأب - في تنمية وتعليم الطفل أنماط السلوك الاستهلاكي". وذلك استكمالاً لمتطلبات الحصول على درجة الدكتوراة من جامعة هدرزفيلد Huddersfield من بريطانيا، ويحتاج ذلك إلى تطبيق استبانة وإجراء مقابلات ميدانية مع عينة من طلبة المرحلة الأساسية من عمر ٧-١٣ سنة في المدارس التابعة لمديرتكم .

يرجى تسهيل مهمة الطالب المذكور وتقديم المساعدة الممكنة له ، شريطة أخذ موافقة أولياء أمور الطلبة على ذلك

مع وافر الاحترام

م وزير التربية والتعليم

الدكتور

قديس بنديسار التميمسي

الأمين العام للشؤون التعليمية والفنية

نسخة/ للسيد رئيس قسم البحث التربوي

نسخة / للملف ١٠/٣



University of  
**HUDDERSFIELD**

Dear father,

My name is Abdel Halim Al-Zu'bi; I am studying for a PhD at Huddersfield University/ in the UK. My research is aimed at investigating "The influence of fathers' consumer role in developing young children's consumer skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to buying convenience grocery and food products. As you recall, your child has filled out a questionnaire in his/her school through group interview face-to-face self-administered questionnaire that was conducted by the researcher under the supervision of the school's administration. Your response is extremely important to the success of this research since collecting your response in conjunction with your child response will be treated as a one unit in the research analysis. Your time in filling out the questionnaire and your help are highly appreciated. Please note that your response should be relevant to your son/daughter who picked up the questionnaire. If you have got any questions regarding the completion of the questionnaire or you would like to know more about this research, please contact me on the telephone numbers listed below. You may rest assured that any data collected from your son/daughter or from your good-self will be treated in the strictest confidence.

I look forward to receiving your response through the school of your child within a couple of weeks.

Thanking you in anticipation

Mr Geoff Crowther  
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