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İngilizce İşletme Ana Bilim Dalı

Parental Influence and Children's
Responses to Television Advertising
(Doktora Tezi)

Nilgün Peker

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Istanbul - 1991

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DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Prof. Dr. Mehtap Köktürk for her contributions to this study.

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to Prof. Dr. Suna Tevruz for her continued guidance and advice on this study. Her valuable suggestions and support were a great help to me throughout the preparation of this research.

I would like to specially thank Terry Aman who has been very helpful in supplying some major references for the study.

I wish to acknowledge my sincere gratitude to Dr. Kadir Özer for his most valuable advice and the precious time he has spent in analysing and interpreting the data of this study, which could not have otherwise been completed.

I would like to specially thank my partner Dr. Serap Özer who has been very helpful, patient and supportive throughout this study.

I would like to thank the teachers of Lütfi Banat İlkokulu, Kılıç Ali Paşa İlkokulu and Türkan Şoray İlkokulu; and to the children and their mothers who have been very cooperative throughout the study.

Last but not least I would like to thank my family for their patience, support and understanding which encouraged me to complete this study....

ABSTRACT

Parental influence on first, third and fifth graders' cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral responses to TV advertising was explored in structured personal interviews with 140 children and their parents. The dimensions of parental influence addressed were frequency of parent-child interactions about advertising and commercials, and parental control of the child's television viewing habits. Interviews were conducted with children and their parents simultaneously at different locations in schools.

The results indicated that purchase request increased as parent-Child interaction increased. The relationship between parent-child interaction and cognition; parent-child interaction and attitude difference did not reach significance level. No support was found for hypothesized relationships between the level of control effort reported by parents and the child's cognition, attitude and purchase request. Also the relationship between extreme mothering and child's purchase request was not found to be significant.

ÖZET

Annelerin, ilkokul birinci, üçüncü ve beşinci sınıf çocuklarına etkileri ile, çocukların televizyon reklamlarına karşı bilişsel, tutumsal ve davranışsal tepkileri araştırılmıştır.

Üç değişik sosyo-ekonomik seviyeyi temsil eden okullardan, 140 öğrenci ve anneleri ile aynı anda, fakat ayrı ayrı görüşülmüştür. Annelerin etkisi iki şekilde ele alınmıştır: 1) anne ve çocuğun televizyon reklamları üzerine konuşma sıklığı (interaction); 2) çocuğun televizyon izleme alışkanlığının anne tarafından denetlenmesi (control). Çocukların TV reklamlarına karşı tepkileri ise üçe ayrılmıştır: 1) Bilişsel (cognitive): Çocukların, reklamların içeriği ve niyetini anlayabilmeleri; 2) Tutumsal (attitudinal): Çocukların TV reklamlarına karşı hissettikleri; 3) Davranışsal (behavioral): Reklamların etkileri ile çocukların satınalma davranışlarında görülen sıklık.

Bulgulara göre, anne ve çocuğun televizyon reklamları üzerine konuşma sıklığı arttıkça, çocukların satın-alma isteğinin de arttığı gözlenmiştir. Bunun yanı sıra, bilişsel ve tutumsal açıdan istatistiksel olarak manidar seviyeye ulaşamamıştır.

Çocuğun televizyon izleme alışkanlığının anne tarafından denetlenmesi ile çocuğun bilişsel, tutumsal ve davranışsal tepkileri arasındaki ilişkilerin de kayda değer bir boyutta olmadığı görülmüştür.

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INTRODUCTION

Researchers have been studying the effects of television advertising on children for more than a decade. Early studies sought to link children's responses to commercials with certain variables and personal characteristics, such as age, grade, sex, race, and level of cognitive development (Robertson, 1974; Rubin, 1974). Such studies consistently found children's cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral responses to television advertising to be related to their level of cognitive development, as indicated by age or grade in school.

More recently, the attention of many researchers has shifted to the processes where by the cognitive abilities of children develop and are applied in consumption situations. This consumer socialization context has drawn attention in particular to intra-family relationships and the role of parents in the child's cognitive developmental process Wackman (1979) suggested that parents play a variety of roles, including those of consumer educator, information mediator (getting the child to think about advertising claims), countervailing force (denying purchase requests), and consumption motivator (encouraging and responding favorably to inputs from the child on purchase decisions). He found that mothers generally do not make overt attempts at consumer education, but more commonly play the roles of countervailing force, consumption motivator, and information mediator.

Reid (1979) claimed that the subjects' potential level of understanding of TV advertising is influenced, to some extent, by parental teachings about TV advertising and other related consumer skills and knowledge. These findings suggest that parents are involved in both the development of a child's general cognitive abilities and the learning of specific consumer skills.

Wackman (1979) concluded that mothers do not often initiate discussions with their children on consumption-related topics, but that their children frequently initiate such discussions with their parents. Thus, the opportunity for parental involvement and influence often comes about even in the absence of overt parental initiatives. A common example is the situation created by a child's purchase request.

A key to the involvement of the parent in the consumer socialization of the child may well be the overall environment within which the child encounters and evaluates marketing stimuli, and the extent to which that environment promotes inquiry, information exchange, and the expression of parental views. Many factors may contribute to the establishment of a particular environment for television viewing, including the extent of parent-child covieing and the imposition of viewing rules or restrictions. The presence of a parent in the television viewing environment, for example, has been found to influence the way children react to television and utilize it in their play (Reid, 1980). The placing of restrictions by mothers on their children's viewing, while not reducing the frequency of purchase requests, was associated with a lesser likelihood of parental yielding to such requests (Ward, Scott, Wackman, 1972). Reid (1979) has concluded that viewing rules set up by parents are important in establishing the acceptability of a child's purchase requests, and, as such, help to govern how he or she acts toward television commercials. Thus, it seems apparent that the process by which children learn to function as consumers and, in particular, evaluate and react to marketing stimuli is determined not only by their progression through a chronological series of cognitive stages, but also by the level of parental involvement in the process.

There is no doubt that children spend tremendous amount of time watching TV. According to Weisskoff (1985), the weekly viewing period of children in USA is 26 hours. The amount of children who have never been to the movies and yet watch TV, is approximately 66%. Because detailed studies

have not been made, it is impossible to make an exact estimation of watching trend. However, Tokgöz (1982) indicated that according to observations done in June 1980, the 7-12 year age group watches 16 hours of TV a week.

TV Broadcasting began experimentally in Turkey in the beginning of 1970, and after 1971 efforts to establish the National television network increased greatly. In the second half of 1986, the second channel came to life, total broadcasting time increased and important progress was made in the contents, the kind and number of programs.

The amount of time in TV broadcasting used by commercials, tripled itself in the 10 year period between 1972 and 1982 and became 12-15% (Tokgöz, 1982). Presently, because the amount of the time allowed for commercials in weekdays is 55 minutes, and on Sundays it is 65 minutes, percentage of commercials in the weekly broadcasting is approximately 9-10% (Milliyet, 9 March 1988).

Since children are within the TV commercials, they (TV advertising) can effect them cognitively, attitudinally and behaviorally (Rossiter, 1979). Previous research has indicated that children's responses to television advertising may be at least partly determined by the environment for viewing and reacting which has been established by the parents. This study investigates parent-child interactions about advertising and commercials; parental control over the child's television viewing habits; and maternal child-rearing practice. It is basically for educational purposes, however it should also be of great interest for mothers and marketers as well. In order to be able to control the effects of TV commercials on the child, mother and child need to view TV together as much as possible and the mother should frequently explain the purpose and intent of TV commercials and also set viewing habits. This will help the mother to explain why she doesn't purchase every unnecessary demand of the vulnerable child and to prevent the child from continuously insisting on buying every product seen on tempting TV commercials.

A. PREVIOUS RESEARCH AND THEORY

TV Advertising and responses of children:

According to Rossiter (1979), advertising can affect a child in three ways:

- (1) Cognitive effects: the ability of children to understand the nature and intent of advertising.
- (2) Attitudinal effects: the feeling children have toward advertising and their reaction to it.
- (3) Behavioral effects: the extent to which children are persuaded by advertising to ask for the advertised product.

(1) Cognitive responses:

According to Piaget (1969), as the child progresses toward maturity, he or she goes through a series of stages. These stages occur in a subsequent order because each one is a prerequisite for the one that follows. At each stage, certain organized patterns of behavior, or schemes, appear. The term "scheme" includes both the child's activities and the structures underlying those activities.

Piaget's stages are classified into four major periods:

- (1) the sensory-motor period;
- (2) the preoperational period;
- (3) the period of concrete operations; and
- (4) the period of formal operations. (See Table 1).

The sensorimotor period extends from birth to about age 2. During this period, the first organized patterns of behavior appear. At first, the infant is completely egocentric, it does not distinguish between its own body and outer reality. At about 8 months, the infant begins to become aware of its environment as separate from itself. The beginnings of symbolic play also occur during this period, starting at about 18 months.

TABLE 1 - The stages of Cognitive growth according to Piaget

Stage	Age	Abilities
1. sensory-motor	0-2	egocentric, at about 18 months become aware of its environment as separate from itself
2. preoperational	2-7	child responds, to external appearances, learns to use language, forms mental images
3. concrete operations	7-11	can mentally add and subtract, can not yet think logically about abstract ideas
4. formal operations	11-16	thinks about thought itself as well as concrete things, intellectually, the child has reached maturity, can perform operations on hypothetical statements

During the preoperational period, from ages 2 to 7 the child gradually prepares for the period of concrete operations. At the beginning of the preoperational period, the child responds primarily to external appearances, as the conservation problem illustrates. The preoperational child believes that a row of four objects tightly grouped contains fewer items than a longer row of four objects loosely grouped. Only after considerable experience can the child go beyond surface appearances. After counting both rows of items many times, the child will come to understand the equivalence of both rows. During this period, the child also learns to use language and to form mental images.

The period of concrete operations extends from age 7 to age 11 or 12. The term concrete operations refers to mental acts that the child can perform on objects at hand. The child can mentally add and subtract items from groupings and can consider subgroupings within a larger category. For example, he or she mentally consider whether a box of balls contains more blue or more red balls without having to physically divide the balls to establish a one-to-one equivalence. Such operations, however, are still limited to the child's concrete experiences; he or she cannot yet think logically about abstract ideas.

The period of formal operations begins in early adolescence. During this period, the child gains access to principles of propositional thought and begins to operate on operations, that is, to think about thought itself as well as about concrete things. The adolescent can perform operations on hypothetical statements and can work through to a logical conclusion despite the validity of the content. Such thought leads eventually to the ability to program computers, to work out the structures of atoms, to navigate aircraft, and so forth. From the standpoint of intellectual development, the child has reached maturity.

Piaget views cognitive development as guided by two basic tendencies in the organism: organization and adaptation. Organization refers to the tendency to combine physical and psychological structures into coherent systems. These tendencies are inherited, but the ways in which a particular individual adapts and organizes are determined by the environment in which the individual grows and learns. In Piagetian theory, the term adaptation means more than Darwinian fitness to survive; it means the ability to modify the environment as well.

Adaptation takes two forms: accommodation and assimilation. Accommodation refers to the tendency to change in response to the environment. Assimilation is the incorporation of elements of the external world into the child's own activities. Accommodation and assimilation are complementary processes. One involves transforming structures in response to the environment. The other involves dealing with the environment in terms of previously formed structures. Children are continually trying to reach a balance between the two. Piaget terms this process equilibration.

Piaget's theory of cognitive development has shown that children do pass through defined levels of cognitive development and the age in which these stages are obtained, vary by each child. As a result, younger children may not be able to assimilate as much information or understand the purpose of a commercial as well as older children (Rubin, 1974).

Rubin explored television advertising viewing as it affected the consumer learning process of a child at different stages of cognitive development. He applied Piaget's theory of cognitive development in investigating children's responses to commercials. Data for the study were obtained in an experiment involving 72 children from the Palmer, Massachusetts school district. Children from the first, third and sixth grades, reflecting the second, third and fourth stages of Piaget's developmental paradigm, respectively, were judgementally

assigned to treatment groups in the research design. A decision was made to study the youngest children from each grade level to maintain a rough measure of consistency as to children's levels of cognitive development. The results indicated that younger children were capable of recalling concrete elements more than specific named elements, and that the more mature, children were capable of recalling detailed elements. Younger children had a low level of amount of elements recalled, and the level of recall increased as the level of cognitive development advanced. It was also found that the action sequence recalled, was associated with the child's stage of cognitive development. The results indicated that there were an association between commercial awareness and stage of cognitive development. Children at stage II of development had a lower understanding of purpose than did children in stages III and IV. This study demonstrated that commercial messages must be simple, clear, and uncluttered if they were to be assimilated by the very young child. Additionally, Butter (1981) found that 90 percent of pre-school-age children did not understand the reason why advertisements are presented on television.

Hendon, Mc Gann and Hendon (1978) investigated children's age, IQ and sex as variables mediating reactions to TV commercials. To learn if differences in age, intelligence, and sex account for differences in children's recall of TV commercials and in the degree of insistence with which they request that the advertised product be purchased, 54 gifted, 71 normal, and 53 educable mentally retarded children of both sexes (7-13 years) were questioned after viewing commercials for breakfast cereals. Analyses of variance revealed that both age and intelligence were significantly related to recall while only intelligence was significantly related to degree of insistence. Sex differences were not significant for either recall or degree of insistence.

Ward's (1972) study sought to extend the data gathered in an exploratory investigation in which children responses to TV advertising were analyzed after a series of group interviews with kindergarten, second, fourth and sixth grades (Blatt, 1971). The findings suggested that children's responses to commercials may be related to stages in cognitive development. Ward's study involved personal interviews with 67 children, ranging in age from 5 to 12 years. The children were selected from a sample of Boston-area families which had been used in previous research. While the families varied socio-economically, they tended to be middle to upper-middle class. The data generally confirmed the findings of the exploratory research. Younger children exhibited low awareness of the concept of commercials frequently explaining them as part of the show or identifying them simply by naming a category of products. Older children exhibited greater awareness, explaining commercials in terms of their purpose. Older children also understood the purpose of commercials better and discriminated between programs and commercials more readily than younger children did. Most children, regardless of age, spontaneously recalled food advertising. They liked commercials with humor, good music, or cartoons, and they disliked commercials they think are boring or dull. Younger children liked specific commercials because they liked the product. Complexity of recall increased with age, i.e. older children were more likely to remember several images from advertising and to recall them in a coherent, unified sequence. Younger children felt that commercials do not tell the truth if they contain elements which do not match their literal perception of reality. Older children seemed to reason that since commercials were trying to sell, they do not tell the truth.

Wackman, Wartella and Ward (1972) conducted personal interviews with 615 kindergarten, third and sixth grade children and their mothers in Boston Massachusetts, and St. Paul, Minnesota. In the child's interviews, they measured a number of aspects of the learning processes of consumer information and of his use of money. In the mother's interview,

they measured various aspects of her interaction with her child about consumption, as well as her own behaviour as a consumer. They examined consumer information processing behaviours of children. This led them to focus on various aspects of consumer information processing in the family context, such as mother's use of information in consumption decisions, and informational aspects of mother-child interaction about consumption.

The process involving family impact on general cognitive development which led to skill performance was perhaps most characteristic of the development of two skills: asking about performance characteristics of products and awareness of multiple sources of information. The second process, involving family impact on application of cognitive ability, seemed to characterize development of one skill: understanding the purpose of commercials. The third process, involving a direct family impact on the development of skills, appeared to be involved in the development of two skills: awareness of brands and use of ingredients and functional characteristics in brand comparison.

Tokgöz (1982) conducted a study with 410 elementary school children (between ages 7-11) and their mothers in Eskişehir and Yozgat. She was interested in the effects of TV advertising on children's consumption behavior. Piaget's cognitive development stages and the interaction with mothers were found to be very important in learning how to interpret TV advertising and how to be clever consumers. Purchase requests decreased as the age of children increased. The interaction between mother and child decreased as the child got older; mothers of first grade children interacted more in contrast to mothers of third -and fifth- grade children. The interaction and parental yielding of purchase request were also dependent on mothers' education and SES. Educated mothers easily said "no" to purchase requests, in contrary to uneducated mothers. Mothers from middle and lower-class rejected their children's purchase requests whereas mothers from upper-class bought what their children wanted to buy.

Nikken and Peeters (1988) wanted to investigate:

- a) whether reality perception can have a relationship to television specific characteristics, aside from content, and
- b) how several background features of children relate to the various forms of reality.

They conducted the study in six elementary schools with 66 preschoolers and 84 first and second grades. Data was analyzed from 150 children: 67 boys and 83 girls. The children ranged in age from 4 years and 2 months to 9 years and 11 months (M = 6:10). Children watched segments from Sesame Street and answered questions about television reality. Factor analysis produced three reality dimensions: a) Sesame Street really exists, b) television characters can see and hear us, and c) what you see is inside the television set. For preschoolers, age was the most important variable in regard to television reality. There were other background variables for older children. Children from working-class backgrounds were more apt to believe that television characters can see and hear us and that they reside inside the television set than their middle-and upper-class age peers.

From the above studies, it follows that the child's level of understanding of the purpose and function of TV advertising and commercials is associated with the child's stage of cognitive development.

(2) Attitudinal responses:

"An attitude is learned orientation, or disposition, toward an object or situation which provides a tendency to respond favorably or unfavorably to the object or situation" (Rokeach, 1968; p.509). According to this definition, it is first emphasized that attitudes are learned. They are learned in the same way that other responses are learned through classical and operant conditioning. Secondly, an attitude is an orientation, or disposition, that is carried around with us, just as we carry around all our habits. At any given moment, the attitude may be latent, or inactive, but it is there ready to be tripped off by appropriate

circumstances. Thirdly, if the relevant circumstances do arise, the orientation of the person provides a tendency to respond in some way. How likely he is to respond depends on the strength of the attitude and the circumstances; how he responds, and whether he does so openly or privately, will hinge on the situation. Finally, an attitude has an object. The object may be thought of as a goal of learned behavior.

If we consider the object of an attitude as a learned goal, we can see that we must be literally loaded with attitudes. Every bit of motivated learning we have experienced has endowed us with another attitude. Thus we end up with attitudes toward mothers, teachers, animals, commercials and so on, endlessly. Any of these attitudes could be important in an individual's life. Attitudes that cause a person trouble, can be the occasion for psychotherapy, the purpose of which is to change attitudes.

An attitude is composed of affective, cognitive and behavioral components that correspond, respectively, to one's evaluations of, knowledge of, and predisposition to act toward the object of the attitude. If one were to consider, for example, a person's general attitude toward TV advertising, the affective component would refer to the person's evaluation of TV advertising, such as how they like most TV commercials; the cognitive component would include the person's knowledge or beliefs (correct or incorrect) about TV advertising, such as why there are commercials on TV; and the behavioral component would refer to the person's predisposition to act toward TV advertising, such as buying the advertised products. (See Table 2).

These components can vary in the degree to which they comprise a particular attitude. For example, the affective component of an attitude can vary in its intensity a person may feel moderate or extreme like or dislike of TV advertising. The cognitive component of his attitude toward TV advertising can consist of only a simple belief, such as "TV advertising

is not telling the truth", or it can consist of hundreds of facts and beliefs. The behavioral component can vary in the number of actions that he is predisposed to carry out he may merely discuss the intent of TV advertising with his family members, or he may discuss it with everyone, and protest to buy the products or simply buy them.

Attitude should be distinguished from three related concepts with which it is often confused: opinion, belief, and value. The difference between an attitude and an opinion is quite simple: An opinion is merely the verbal expression of an attitude. The difference between an attitude and a belief is slightly more complex: AN attitude always includes evaluation of an object (the affective component) whereas a belief does not. The difference between an attitude and a value is one of inclusiveness or scope: Attitude refers to an orientation toward one object, whereas value implies an orientation toward a series or class of related objects. Thus, a value is of often a collection of attitudes.

Attitudes help people to adjust, to defend their egos, to express their values, and to understand the world around them. The experiences of people determine their attitudes. As attitudes develop, cognitions become more differentiated, integrated, and organized, and affect and behavioral intentions become associated with these conditions. Attitude is not a necessary or sufficient cause of behavior, but it is a contributing cause. Behavior often changes attitudes, as people develop attitudes that justify their previous behavior. Behavior is the result not only of attitudes but also of norms, habits, and expectations about reinforcement.

Parental attitudes help shape children's attitudes, so that the attitudes of parents and children are similar. A number of studies have been done regarding the attitudes children have toward advertisements they see.

TABLE 2 - Components of attitude

Components	Explanation
1. affective component	evaluation of television advertising, such as how they like most TV commercials
2. cognitive component	knowledge or beliefs about television advertising, such as why there are commercials on TV
3. behavioral component	person's predisposition to act toward TV advertising, such as buying the advertised product

Bever, Smith, Bengen and Johnson (1975) talked with children ages 5 to 12 and found surprising trends in the development of their attitudes toward advertising. Children's skill in acquiring impressions of reality from advertising exceeds their skill in understanding them logically. Young children are not uncomfortable with the disparity between these skills and are not upset if advertising is misleading. By middle childhood however, the conflict between the two skills becomes so frustrating that, in order to resolve it, children become absolutist, they decide, for instance, that all advertising is a sham. What is most disconcerting to marketers and parents is that by age 11, when the two skill levels begin to coincide, most children have already become cynical-ready to believe that, like advertising, business and other social institutions are riddled with hypocrisy.

Roedder and Sternthal (1983) investigated the process underlying children's reactions to television advertising in the context of making a decision among alternatives. Younger and older children were exposed to a television commercial for a new product. Then they indicated their attitude toward the advertised product and made a choice between the advertised product and several nonadvertised alternatives from the same product category. Children's processing of advertising information and their utilization of this information in decision making were assessed by examining attitude-behavior consistency. Fifty-six elementary school children were recruited to participate in the study. Twenty-four were fourth grade children and 32 were eighth graders. Fifty-eight percent of the fourth graders and 53% of the eighth graders were boys. It was hypothesized that younger children are capable of forming an attitude toward the advertised product because the advertising message is simple, and because judgment immediately follows exposure to the message. Both fourth and eighth graders exhibited the ability to perceive the communicated information correctly and to draw the intended inferences. The attitudinal evaluations of the advertised product were the same in both groups. However, in the behavioral context of choosing an

alternative, developmental differences were observed. Older children appeared to consider their attitudes toward the various alternatives and to select the preferred alternative regardless of advertising. In contrast, younger children appeared to base their choice on their evaluation of the advertised product and not on a comparison of choice alternatives.

(3) Behavioral responses:

Children learn from their social environments (family members, teachers, peers, television characters, and other people) in two ways, directly and vicariously. Children learn directly through personal interactions they have with other people, such as through the instruction and discipline they receive from their parents at home. Vicarious learning involves, observing the actions of others.

In this study we are interested to investigate how TV advertising can affect children behaviorally i.e.; the extent to which children are persuaded by advertising to ask for the advertised product.

Previous research has demonstrated that a child's cognitive understanding of advertising increases as the child grows older and attitudes toward commercials become more negative with age. Researchers have had problems, in attempting to determine the behavioral impact of advertising. This deficiency has occurred because of the distinction between intended behavior and actual behavior. While a commercial may create desire for the product being advertised, the acquisition usually requires a child to make a request to a parent. Since a young child normally does not have the financial resources to purchase a product, the behavioral measure most widely used is the frequency of requests made to parents for advertised items.

Burr and Burr (1977) studied how parents do respond to being asked to buy as a result of the communication directed to the children.

During the field-research period, interviewers personally

contacted 400 mothers having children between the ages of 2 and 10. The respondents were approximately 50 percent Anglo and 50 percent Mexican American. They were interviewed with a prepared questionnaire, then encouraged to reflect on child marketing spontaneously and with some probing on the part of the interviewer. The questionnaire included forced - choice - type questions, Likert-type scaling, and open-ended questions. In addition, respondents were invited to discuss in length, both verbally and in written form, their attitudes toward child marketing and specifically television advertising to children. The results indicated that (1) their children spend in excess of twenty-two hours per week viewing television; (2) on the average their children recognize products seen advertised on television three times out of four; (3) their disposition to buy as a result of various appeals used by the children varies according to the appeal used.

No significant correlation was found between a child's product recognition and age nor between product recognition and hours of television viewed per week. It appeared that, in spite of parental objection to the use of premiums in television advertising to children, the premium appeal was an effective persuasive tool for the child involved. The health appeal was revealed in the study as a low-level affective communication tool for the child requesting parental purchases.

Wiman (1985) found that mothers who interact frequently with their children, received significantly more purchase requests than mothers who interacted on a less frequent basis.

From the above, it follows that the child's purchase requests are dependent on parental influence. An open environment characterized by frequent interactions will provide an opportunity for parents to influence their child's attitude toward television advertising, so high interaction environments will provide an opportunity for parents to discourage excessive purchase requests by their children.

(4) Parent - Child Relationships:

A lot of research has been done on this topic. Most of the energy has gone into identifying types of parental behaviors or attitudes towards their children. While different approaches used different measurement instruments and gave different names to the attributes they identified, there appears to be much agreement. The following are some examples of the attributes found. Schaefer (1959) identified two main attributes of parents: attitudes which are "warm" (or loving) at one extreme, versus "rejecting" (or hostile) at the other; and attitudes which are "restrictive" (controlling) at one extreme, versus permissive (encouraging autonomy) at the other (See Table 3).

From different perspectives, investigators work out and research about child - rearing practices and their effects:

According to social learning theory, children are constantly forming and refining their conceptions of the sorts of behavior that society thinks desirable or undesirable for people like themselves. The discipline children experience at home is a major contributor to their conceptions of praise worthy and blame worthy behavior. Presumably, once children know what society does or does not want from them, they begin to regulate their behavior to conform to these expectations. Social learning theorists (Bandura, 1977) suggest that successful socialization rests upon parents instructing their children to perform in desirable ways and to inhibit undesirable behavior. If parents are warm, justify their discipline with verbal reasoning, and avoid using more force than needed to achieve compliance, their parental control is associated with desirable socialization outcomes in children.

According to attribution theory, parents who rely on powerful external incentives, such as the threat of severe punishment or a promise of a material reward, are causing

TABLE 3 - Two main attributes of parent according to Schaefer

Attitudes of parents		
1. warm (or loving)	vs	rejecting (or hostile)
2. restrictive (controlling)	vs	permissive (encouraging autonomy)

their children to feel that their behavior is under the control of external contingencies. If this is so, children may not engage in the desired activity when the external contingency is not around. In contrast, if parents can manage to elicit desirable behavior from children in clever ways, preventing them from realizing that they were externally controlled, then presumably children will conclude that they are intrinsically willing to perform the behavior and will continue to do so when they are not under the watchful eyes of adults (Lepper, 1981).

Symonds (1939) noted that two major dimensions, acceptance-rejection and dominance-submission, emerged from all his work. Children of submissive parents appeared to be more aggressive, stubborn and disorderly, although more self-confident than the offspring of dominating parents. Dominating parents tended to produce children who were more sensitive, submissive, orderly and polite, better socialized but more dependent, Schaefer (1959) described the behavior of the parents as follows: "One kind of mother is loving and permissive, so she could be called democratic. The other kind is hostile and restrictive, so she is called antagonistic. There are combinations of the extremes" (p.341).

Baumrind (1966) described the restrictive parent as a person who is controlling, ruling and wanting absolute respect and obedience. The children who grow up under these conditions may turn out to be passive and shy. They can be inadequate and fail to solve life's difficulties. Baumrind described a permissive parent as explaining, democratic and encouraging the self will of the child. She tries to teach the child thinking, reasoning and creating. There is an attitude which balances the two extreme attitudes. Psychologists name it "the authoritative parent". This kind of mother attempts to direct her child's activities in particular disciplinary situations. (See Table 4).

More recently, the attention of many researchers has shifted to intra-family relationships and the role of parents in the child's consumer socialization.

Reid's (1979) study, grounded in the symbolic interactionist perspective of family studies, sought to uncover if differences in children's responses to television advertising and parent's handling of those responses are mediated by the parent's concern with their child's consumer development and ascribed and enforced viewing rules. Two methods were used to gather data: (1) personal interviews about consumer teaching orientation and viewing habits and patterns, and (2) participant observation, to see children's interaction with the content of television commercials while actually situated in the family group viewing situation.

The collected evidence of the children revealed two important observations: (1) the kinds of activities that children engage in while watching television with parents are mediated and legitimized by the viewing rules governing the family group viewing situation, and (2) differences in children's responses to television commercials and how parents handle their responses, including advertising-initiated product requests, are influenced by the social environment provided by that particular family group. In the broadest sense, what is indicated by the study's findings is that television commercials do not dictate children's responses, but are acted toward in relation to those events, activities, and rules which surround viewing situations and are subsequently internalized and carried to other viewing situations in later life.

Robertson (1982) was concerned about the effects of advertising on family relations, and found that parental attitudes toward children's television advertising were generally negative, but were not very strongly held or important in their lives. Levels of parent-child co-viewing varied by time of day and were lowest, as might be expected,

TABLE 4 - Relationship between parent's attitudes and children's behavior according to Baumrind

Parent's attitude	Children's behavior
a. <u>restrictive</u> parent: controlling, ruling, and wanting absolute respect and obedience	Passive and shy, inadequate and fail to solve life's difficulties
b. <u>permissive</u> parent: explaining, democratic, encouraging the self will of the child	able of thinking, reasoning and creating
c. <u>authoritative</u> parent: balanced between restrictive and permissive attitudes	learns vicariously from parents and can make his own judgements

for children's programs. Co-viewing was considerably less prevalent than children viewing alone. Viewing rules for children appeared to be more common among college-education parents.

Purchase requests generally decreased among older children. They varied by product and were highest for products frequently consumed by children (such as cereals) or of particular interest to them (such as toys). Exposure to television advertising was found to be associated with children's request for both toys and cereals. Yielding to children's purchase requests varied by product category, and seemed to increase with the age of the child. Yielding might also be associated with parental attitudes toward television advertising. The outcomes of the study indicated that disappointment, conflict and even anger were found when parents denied requests.

Reid and Frazer (1979) argued that research has focused too narrowly on the effects of television advertising on children. To fully understand the child/television advertising relationship, it was their position that it was necessary to actually examine the social character of child viewing situations. They presented the logic of the naturalistic method of symbolic interactionism as an alternative approach for developing a more complete understanding of television advertising in the lives of child viewers. They stated that the symbolic interactionist approach focuses on the social make-up of the television environment, how the child acts in the environment, and the impact that experience has on the way he shapes his realities. The approach attempts to step back and examine the interaction of television advertising and children as a broad social phenomenon rather than isolating one specific aspect or outcome of the viewing process.

Reid and Frazer's (1980) investigation focused on social interaction among siblings and subsequent modification of the viewing setting. The children observed were caucasians from middle-class backgrounds, ranging in age from three to eleven. Siblings from ten families were observed over a three-month period. The observation periods scheduled to last one hour. Siblings were repeatedly observed at the same time of day through-out the three months, to ensure the comparability of their viewing behavior. The children observed were discontinuous viewers who frequently engaged in other activities while watching television. The television set itself became transformed as an object of play. Changes in any aspect of the viewing setting also influenced the character of television play. Their observations indicated that children's ability to involve television in their play is directly related to the amount of time that they have spent at television play. For example, the child who seized the opportunity to play at being a parent had been engaged in conversation by his parents about commercials. As this child's younger brother has more experience interacting with his parents and with television, his ability to assume the same play role should improve. Chronologically younger children might reveal greater skills at TV play than chronologically older children who have had less experience with it.

From the above, it follows that children's responses to television advertising may be at least partly determined by the environment for viewing and reacting which has been established by the parents. This study focuses on three specific ways in which parents may be able to mold the character of the child's viewing environment: (1) engaging in verbal exchanges with the child which are specifically related to TV advertising; (2) attempting to exercise control over the child's viewing behavior, whether through the imposition of definite viewing rules or a more flexible monitoring process; (3) rearing their children with extreme motherhood attitudes which try to fulfill the child's every demand.

The object of the research is to determine whether varying levels of these three forms of parental influence (parental interaction, parental control, extreme mothering) are associated with differential responses to television advertising on the part of child viewers. (See Table 5).

B. AIM OF THE STUDY

In previous section, it was indicated that the process by which children learn to function as consumers and, in particular, evaluate and react to marketing stimuli (TV commercials) is determined not only by their progression through a chronological series of cognitive stages, but also by the level of parental involvement in the process (Reid, 1979; Wachman, 1979). Initiating discussions with their children on television advertising and setting up viewing rules are important in establishing the acceptability of a child's purchase requests, and, as such, help to govern how he or she acts toward television commercials.

Besides, mothers' child-rearing practices could influence children's responses to TV advertising. According to Baumrind (1973), parents with extreme motherhood attitudes act in an accepting, positive way toward their children's impulses and actions, use little punishment, allow the children to regulate their own activities. So, they could easily yield to their children's purchase influence attempts. Therefore it is worth to probe the relationship between extreme mothering and children's purchase requests.

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between parental influence and children's responses to TV advertising. Types of parental influence used in this study are parent-child interaction related to TV advertising, parental control over the child's viewing behavior, and child-rearing practices (extreme mothering). Cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral responses to TV advertising are measured. The cognitive variable selected is

TABLE 5 - Relationship between Parental Influence and Children's Responses to TV advertising

Parental Influence	Child's Responses to TV Ad.
1. Parental interaction about TV advertising	a. Child's cognition b. Attitude difference (M's att. - C's att) c. Child's purchase requests
2. Parental control over TV viewing behavior	a. Child's cognition b. Child's attitude c. Child's purchase requests
3. Extreme motherhood	Child's purchase requests

one which has been of interest to previous researchers, namely, the child's level of understanding of the purpose and function of advertising and commercials. This variable will be referred to as cognition. Two attitudinal variables are utilized: attitude, the child's general attitude toward television advertising and commercials; and attitude difference, the difference between the child's attitude and that of his parent on the same measure. The most relevant behavioral variable to examine is felt to be purchase requests, or the frequency with which the child asks his parent to buy specific products or services.

Additionally, this present study probes the relationship between maternal child-rearing practice (extreme mothering) and the child's purchase requests.

C. HYPOTHESES

The relationship between parental influence (parental interaction and parental control) and children's responses to TV advertising (as cited in Table 5 and 6) was tested by Wiman in 1983.

His sample consisted of 222 elementary school children and their parents living in Knoxville, Tennessee.

The children were from six different elementary schools in predominantly white, middle class neighborhoods. Fifty-six percent of the child respondents were boys; forty-four percent, girls. Approximately fifty-three percent had just completed the third grade, and forty-seven percent, the fourth grade.

The first six hypotheses were taken with permission from Wiman's original study in order to see how the results will turn out in Turkey. Secondly, his theory will be retested with this study. Additionally, the last hypothesis probes the relationship between maternal child rearing practice (extreme mothering) and the child's purchase requests.

H₁: Children who have more verbal exchanges with their parents related to TV advertising, will evidence a higher level of understanding of the nature of advertising. In short, parent-child interaction and cognition will be positively correlated.

H₂: An open environment characterized by frequent interactions will provide an opportunity for parents to influence their child's attitude toward television advertising, so parent-child interaction and attitude difference will be negatively correlated.

H₃: High interaction environments provide an opportunity for parents to discourage excessive purchase requests by their children; parent-child interaction and purchase requests will be negatively correlated.

The first three hypotheses are about the effects of parent-child interaction (related to TV advertising), on the child's cognition, attitude difference, and the child's purchase requests. The coming three hypotheses are about the effects of parental control (over the child's viewing behavior) on the child's cognition, attitude, and purchase requests.

H₄: The amount of parental control of the child's viewing habits and the child's understanding of the nature of advertising will be positively correlated.

H₅: Since restriction of the child's TV viewing will also convey negative parental TV viewing attitudes to the child; parental control and child's attitude will be negatively correlated.

H₆: Greater viewing control by parents will be related to fewer purchase requests; parental control and purchase requests will be negatively correlated.

H₇: Maternal child-rearing practice will be related to purchase requests; extreme mothering and purchase requests will be positively correlated.



TABLE 6 - Summary of Introduction

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	Hypotheses
1. Parental Interaction about TV advertising	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Cognitive response: Child's cognition b) Attitudinal response: Mother's att. - Child's att. = Attitude difference c) Behavioral response: Child's purchase requests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> H₁: 1a positively correlated H₂: 1b negatively " H₃: 1c negatively "
2. Parental Control over TV viewing behavior	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Cognitive response: Child's cognition b) Attitudinal response: Child's attitude c) Behavioral response: Child's purchase requests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> H₄: 2a positively correlated H₅: 2b negatively " H₆: 2c negatively "
3. Child-rearing practice (Extreme mothering)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> c) Behavioral response: Child's purchase requests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> H₇: 3c positively correlated

METHOD

A. SUBJECT

The sample of this study consisted of 140 children (79 girls and 61 boys) between the ages of 7 and 11 who were recruited from three different public elementary-schools in Istanbul. The age level were chosen to coincide with the second, third, and fourth stages of Piaget's (1969) developmental paradigm. His "theory of cognitive development" has shown that children to pass through defined levels of cognitive development and the age in which these stages are obtained vary by each child. As a result, younger children may not be able to assimilate as much information or understand the purpose of a commercial as well as older children (Rubin, 1974). The number of children in the first, third and fifth grades are shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7 - Distribution of children among classes

Class	n	%
1 st grade	51	36.4
3 rd grade	49	35.0
5 th grade	40	28.6
TOTAL	140	100.0

Children who were from three different public elementary schools, represented different socio-economic levels. Lütüfi Banat İlkokulu in Levent represented upper-and upper-middle-class; Kılıç Ali Paşa İlkokulu in Ortaköy represented middle-class; and Türkan Şoray İlkokulu in Hisarüstü represented lower-class.

Table 8 shows the number of children from each school who participated in this study.

TABLE 8 - Number of children in 3 different schools

SCHOOLS	n	%
Lütfi Banaz	52	37.1
Kılıç Ali Paşa	48	34.3
Türkan Şoray	40	28.6
TOTAL	140	100.0

The children of ages 7-11 who are not from broken families and who do not have a missing parent were selected to be the subjects of this study. The decision to interview only mothers was based on the belief that mothers are a more integral part of the children's daily television viewing environment, more knowledgeable about their children's habits, more available for interaction and purchase requests, and more likely to exercise control over the children's viewing. The characteristics of mothers and children are shown in Table 9-14.

TABLE 9 - Sex of children

Sex	n	%
Girls	79	56.4
Boys	61	43.6
TOTAL	140	100.0

TABLE 10 - Number of children in the family

of children	n	%
Only	28	20.0
Two	65	46.4
Three	29	20.7
Four	18	12.9
TOTAL	140	100.0

TABLE 11 - Daily TV viewing duration in hours

h	n	%
1	25	17.9
2	80	57.1
3	35	25.0
TOTAL	140	100.0

TABLE 12 - Mothers' education

M's Education	n	%
Illiterate	13	9.3
Literate	10	7.1
Elementary	48	34.3
Middle	23	16.4
High-school	30	21.4
University	16	11.4
TOTAL	140	100.0

TABLE 13 - Mothers' age

M's Age	n	%
25	8	5.7
26 - 30	44	31.4
31 - 35	47	33.6
36 - 40	27	19.3
41 - 45	9	6.4
46 - 50	4	2.9
50	1	.7
TOTAL	140	100.0

TABLE 14 - Mothers' profession

M's Profession	n	%
Non-working	118	84.3
Part-time	6	4.3
Full-time	16	11.4
TOTAL	140	100.0

B. INSTRUMENTS

Except Measurement of Attitude and Attitude Difference, developed by Rossiter (1977), all the instruments (Interaction, Control and Cognition) were developed by Wiman (1983). Items were translated into Turkish by 10 subjects and then back-translated by different 10 subjects. Then it was given to 5 mothers and children in order to test if there were ambiguous items. After the pilot study, the instruments were rearranged by the researcher and took its final form.

In this study, 6 different measurement scales were used: Interaction Measure, Control Measure, Measurement of Attitude, Purchase Requests Questions, and PARI were given to mothers where as Measurement of Cognition and Measurement of Attitude were given to children.

(1) Interaction Measure (Wiman, 1983)

The measure of interaction, developed by Wiman (1983), consists of 8 situations representing verbal interactions specifically concerning television advertising. For each item the mother is asked to indicate the degree to which each statement applies to her in general on the following scale: (1) Never, (2) Sometimes, (3) Most of the time, (4) Always. The total number of interactions specified in all situations constitutes the interaction measure (Appendix 1).

(2) Control Measure (Wiman, 1983)

To measure control, ten statements were formulated by Wiman (1983) which describe various means of exercising or avoiding control over the child's television viewing. The statements are worded in the first person with the respondent asked to indicate the frequency of each action on a four point scale (Appendix 2). Scoring is on a 1 to 4 basis, with the resulting control score in the range of 10 to 40.

(3) Measurement of Cognition (Wiman, 1983)

Cognition is measured with the use of a ten item true-false test. The test is developed by Wiman (1983) with the assistance of an elementary school teacher. The test items focus on the nature of, purpose of, and reasons for TV advertising. The number of correct responses on this test constitutes the measure of cognition, with possible scores ranging from 0 to 10 (Appendix 3).

(4) Measurement of Attitude and Attitude Difference (Rossiter, 1977)

Attitude is measured with the use of a short, self-administered test, developed by Rossiter (1977). The test is shown to have high internal-consistency reliability ($r = .69$) and satisfactory test-retest reliability ($r = .67$) for a sample of 208 4th through 6th grade children. The individual test items reflect a number of cognitive and affective evaluative beliefs about TV advertising. The test gives a composite measure of the respondent's overall attitudes toward TV advertising, encompassing intensity and direction of attitude. A four point scale results in possible scores ranging from seven to twenty-eight. Attitude difference is measured by administering the test to the mother and subtracting her score from that of her child (Appendix 4).

(5) Purchase Requests

The mothers were subjected to an open-ended question (Appendix 5; Question 1) in order to assess the number of requests they receive from their children. Then the answers of these questions were categorized into 10 groups: (1) chewing-gum, (2) biscuits, (3) candies, (4) chocolate, (5) bicycle, (6) toys, (7) newspaper, magazine, (8) toothpaste, shampoo, (9) drinks, (10) others (computer, video-player etc.). The child's score consists of the total number of requests indentified by the parent among the ten categories. Another open-ended question was used (Appendix 5; Question 2) for the mothers in order to control the difference between purchase requests and actual purchase. The same product categorization and scoring were used as in the preceding question.

(6) Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI)

(Bell and Schaefer, 1958)

The original PARI consists of 115 items, yielding 23 subscale scores. PARI was translated into Turkish and standardized by LeCompte, LeCompte and Özer (1978). The standardization study undertaken by Le Compte et.al., produced a 60-item Turkish PARI. The items require that the respondent indicate her agreement or disagreement with statements bearing upon the attitudes and practices relating to child rearing, on the following scale: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Agree, (4) Strongly Agree (Appendix 6). From these items 24 items appeared to be most relevant for the purposes of this study. 11 of the items were chosen from factor 1 (extreme mothering): 2 of the items were chosen from factor 2 (friendship, equalitarian, sharing), 5 of the items were chosen from factor 3 (rejection of housewife role) and 6 of the items were chosen from factor 5 (control and discipline).

C. PROCEDURE

The parent sample consisted entirely of mothers. The decision to interview only mothers was based on the belief that mothers are a more integral part of the children's daily television viewing environment, more knowledgeable about their children's habits, more available for interaction and purchase requests, and more likely to exercise control over the children's viewing.

A letter was sent to each of the mothers of children enrolled in the three public elementary schools selected for this study. In the letter, it was indicated that the investigator is going to make a group survey concerning parental influence and children's responses to television advertising. They were asked if they would be willing to participate in this study. 140 mothers responded to the letter, and came to school at a given date. Following an interview, they were asked to fill in the questionnaires. A dual interviewing procedure was employed, whereby the child and parent were interviewed simultaneously by two interviewers in different class-rooms at school. This procedure effectively eliminated any parent-child interaction during the interview, and avoided any opportunity for time or intervening events to influence the two respondents differentially.

D. LIMITATIONS

After the collection of the data, correlation analysis was performed using SPSS. Before going on the results it is worth to mention some limitations of this study:

Of primary importance in designing or selecting a test (an instrument) that will result in accurate, meaningful scores are the standardization, reliability, and validity of the test. These three topics have received a great deal of professional attention from both a theoretical and a practical standpoint.

For a test to be standardized, it must be administered with standard directions under uniform conditions to a sample of examinees representative of the group for whom the test is intended. The purpose of this standardization procedure is to determine the distribution of raw scores in the standardization group (the norm group). These raw scores are then converted to some form of derived scores, or norms, percentile ranks, or standard scores.

All the instruments in this study (except PARI) are standardized for American children and mothers. As mentioned in previous section, items were translated into Turkish by 10 subjects and then back-translated by different 10 subjects. Then it was given to 5 mothers and children in order to test if there were ambiguous items. After the pilot study, the instruments were rearranged by the researcher and took its final form. In short, instruments are only translated and have no standardization.

Financial and time limitations are the two main reasons for the lack of standardization of the instruments, and the collection of data from a larger sample.

For this study, a letter was sent to each of the mothers of children enrolled in the three public elementary schools. In the letter, it was indicated the aim of the study and were asked if they would be willing to participate in this study. Mothers who responded to the letter, came to school at a given date. So, we worked only with them who were voluntary to take part in this study (mostly non-working mothers; 84.3%). We don't know how the non-respondent mothers would effect the results. It would be better to gather data from all mothers of 1st, 3rd, and 5th graders.

Another limitation is about the culture difference between USA and Turkey. The instruments were designed for American children and American TV advertising. We translated the items, considering Turkish TV advertising. TV programs

and TV commercials of two countries are very different. If the instruments are culture-dependent, the responses would cause to make a mistake in interpreting the results. All these limitations should be taken into consideration for further researches.



TABLE 15 - Summary of Method

SUBJECTS	INSTRUMENTS	PROCEDURE
<p>Element: Children of 7,9,11 yrs old and their mothers</p> <p>Sampling unit: " _____"</p> <p>Extent : Istanbul (Levent, Lütüfi Banat İlk., Ortaköy, Kılıç Ali Paşa İlk., Hisarüstü, Türkan Şoray İlk.,)</p> <p>Time : January 1990</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Interaction Measure 2. Control Measure 3. Measurement of Cognition 4. Measurement of Attitude 5. Purchase Requests Questions 6. PARI 	<p>A. Mothers:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Interaction Measure 2. Control Measure 3. Measurement of Attitude 4. Purchase Requests 5. PARI <p>B. Children:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Measurement of Cognition 2. Measurement of Attitude
<p>Sampling Population: Elementary School all 1st, 3rd, 5th grades</p>		

RESULTS

In order to see the relative contribution of parent-child interactions about TV advertising, and parental control of the child's television viewing habits to children's responses (cognitive, attitudinal, and behavioral) to television advertising, correlational analysis (Pearson's Product Moment) of the data was performed.

TABLE 16 inserted here

The only relationship that reached significance level, was a positive relationship between parent-child interaction and purchase requests of children ($r=.17$, $p .05$). However, contrary to prediction, purchase request increased as parent-child interaction increased.

None of the other hypotheses find support:

The relationship between parent-child interaction and cognition did not reach significance level ($r=.13$).

Although the relationship between parent-child interaction and attitude difference was negative as predicted ($r=-.09$), it did not reach significance level.

It was expected that those children whose parents control their viewing habits would understand the nature of advertising significantly more than those not controlled. This hypothesis was not supported as the relationship did not reach significance level ($r=.09$).

It was also hypothesized that child's attitude and mother's control would be negatively correlated. Although the relationship between them was negative as predicted ($r=-.09$), it did not reach significance level.

TABLE 16 - Correlation of Parent-Child Interaction, Parental Control, and Extreme Mothering with Dependent Variables

Parent - Child Interaction				
Hypothesis	Variable	Correlation	Significance	Acceptance
H ₁	Child's Cognition	.13	.06	No
H ₂	Attitude Difference	-.09	.14	No
H ₃	Purchase Requests	.17*	.02	No

Parental Control				
Hypothesis	Variable	Correlation	Significance	Acceptance
H ₄	Child's Cognition	.09	.13	No
H ₅	Child's Attitude	-.09	.12	No
H ₆	Purchase Requests	.018	.41	No

Extreme Mothering				
Hypothesis	Variable	Correlation	Significance	Acceptance
H ₇	Purchase Requests	.004	.48	No

n=140, *p < .05

Hypothesis	Variable	Correlation	Significance	Acceptance
Ex. Moth.	Child's Cognition	-.04	.63	No
Ex. Moth.	Child's Attitude	.046	.58	No

Correlations: Mother's Attitude with Purchase Requests (r=.0093; p=.913)

It was also expected that greater viewing control by parents would be related to fewer purchase requests; children whose parents controlled their viewing habits, would insist for fewer purchase requests. This hypothesis was not supported as the relationship did not reach significance level ($r=.018$)

The last hypothesis stated that extreme mothering and children's purchase requests will be positively correlated. The analysis indicated that the relationship is positive but not significant ($r=.004$), in fact, no relation.

For further indepth analysis of our data, two-way comparisons (t-test) were undertaken for high and low parental interaction and control. Children who had high and low interaction and control with their mothers were compared. Upper 30% of data was taken as high, whereas lower 30% of data was taken as low.

TABLE 17, 18, 19

The results were insignificant, since the means of two groups did not show significant differences in terms of the variables defined as low versus high parental interaction (Table 17), and low versus high parental control (Table 18).

There was no difference in child's cognition scores of getting low interaction versus high interaction ($t=-1.58$, nonsignificant). Similarly, there was no difference in child's cognition scores of getting low control versus high control ($t=.79$, nonsignificant).

On the other hand, a number of significant differences were found regarding the following issues. In regard to education, mothers with high education revealed significantly higher Parental Interaction scores ($t=-1.97$, $p .05$); also mothers with high education revealed significantly higher parental control scores ($t=-1.81$, $p .07$); also there was a significant difference between the children's purchase requests:

TABLE 17 - t-test for Parental Interaction with Cognition, Attitude Difference, Purchase Requests

	Low Interaction	High Interaction	t-Value	p
Cognition	5.37	6.23	-1.58	.123
Attitude Difference	13.25	12.64	.65	.519
Purchase Requests	1.23	1.44	-1.00	.333

TABLE 18 - t-test for Parental Control with Cognition, Attitude, Purchase Requests

	Low Control	High Control	t-Value	p
Cognition	5.82	5.90	-.26	.797
Attitude	19.48	19.11	.60	.551
Purchase Requests	1.30	1.39	-.52	.612

TABLE 19 - t-test for Extreme Mothering with Cognition, Child's Attitude, Purchase Requests

	Low Extreme Moth.	High Extreme Moth.	t-Value	p
Child's Cognition	3.07	3.18	-.50	.619
Child's Attitude	2.96	3.42	-2.65	.011*
Child's Purchase	2.76	2.62	.39	.700

*p < .05

the results indicated that children with high educated mothers made more purchase requests than children with low educated mothers ($t=-2.72$, $p .01$)

TABLE 20

Some additional findings were found through crosstabulation: The most purchase request was found among first graders and it decreased as the age of children increased. (Table 21: High Purchase Request: 1st grd. 55.6%; 3rd grd. 25.9%; 5th grd. 18.5%)

TABLE 21

The three different public elementary schools in this study, represented different socio-economic levels. Lütfi Banat İlkokulu in Levent represented upper-and upper-middle-class; Kılıç Ali Paşa İlkokulu in Ortaköy represented middle-class; and Türkan Şoray İlkokulu in Hisarüstü represented lower-class. Parental Interaction related to TV advertising decreased as the socio-economic level (SES) of subjects decreased. Interaction was highest among middle SES group (TABLE 22: Ortaköy Kılıç Ali Paşa İlkokulu, Column Pct: 41.2%).

TABLE 22

The most parental control of children's viewing habits was seen in Levent Lütfi Banat İlkokulu, and the least control was found among the subjects of Ortaköy Kılıç Ali Paşa İlkokulu (Table 23: Levent Lütfi Banat İlkokulu, Column Pet: 38.9%, Ortaköy Kılıç Ali Paşa İlkokulu, Column Pct: 25.9%).

TABLE 20 - t-test for Mothers' Education with Interaction,
Control, Purchase Requests

	Low Education	High Education	t-Value	p
Interaction	1.00	1.37	-1.97	.055*
Control	1.44	1.70	-1.81	.079*
Purchase Requests	1.16	1.61	-2.72	.011*

* p < .05

TABLE 21 - Cross tabulation for Purchase Requests by Grades

Count Row Pct Col Pct Tot Pct	1 st Graders	3 rd Graders	5 th Graders
Low	6 17.1	15 42.9	14 40.0
Purchase Requ.	28.6	68.2	73.7*
	9.7	24.2	22.4
High	15 55.6	7 25.9	5 18.5
Purchase Requ.	71.4*	31.8	26.3
	24.2	11.3	8.1

$\chi^2 = 10.16$ (d.f.=2; p=.05)

TABLE 22 - Crosstabulation for Schools by Parental Interaction

Count Row Pct Col Pct Tot Pct	Low Parental Int.	High Parental Int.
Levent	7	5
Lütfi Banat İlkokulu	58.3 29.2 17.1	41.7 29.4 12.2
Ortaköy	5	7
Kılıç Ali Paşa İlkokulu	41.7 20.8 12.2	58.3 41.2* 17.1
Hisarüstü	12	5
Türkan Şoray İlkokulu	70.6 50.0 29.3	29.4 29.4 12.2

$\chi^2 = 2.42$ (d.f.=2; p=.29)

TABLE 23

The results indicated that the children in Ortaköy Kılıç Ali Paşa İlkokul have the least parental control and the most parental interaction (Table 22, 23). In regard to these two independent variables, those children (in Ortaköy Kılıç Ali Paşa İlkokulu) made the most purchase requests (Table 24: High Purchase Request: Row Pct: 40.7%) Versus children in other schools (Levent Lütfi Banat İlkokulu: 37%; Hisarüstü Türkan Şoray İlkokulu: 22%). This finding supports the positive correlation found between parental interaction related to TV advertising and children's purchase requests.

TABLE 24

At last, it was found that number of children in the family effected children's purchase requests. Only child versus children with siblings, made more purchase requests, but these results are not statistically significant ($\chi^2=1.75$, d.f.=1; p=.18).

TABLE 25

Although it was not significant at .05 level, there was -as predicted- a negative relationship between purchase request and the number of children in the family. (r=-.11).

TABLE 23 - Crosstabulation for Schools by Parental Control

Count Row Pct Col Pct Tot Pct	Low Parental Int.	High Parental Int.
Levent	13	21
Lütfi Banat İlkokulu	38.2 33.3 14.0	61.8 38.9* 22.6
Ortaköy	14	14
Kılıç Ali Paşa İlkokulu	50.0 35.9 15.1	50.0 25.9* 15.1
Hisarüstü	12	19
Türkan Şoray İlkokulu	38.7 30.8 12.9	61.3 35.2 20.4

$\chi^2 = 1.07$ (d.f.=2; p=.58)

TABLE 24 - Crosstabulation for Purchase Requests by Schools

Count	Levent		Ortaköy	
Row Pct	Lütfi Banat İ.	Kılıç Ali Paşa İ.	Türkan Şoray İ.	Hisarüstü
Col Pct				
Tot Pct				
Low	10	7	18	
Purchase	28.6	20.0	51.4	
Requests	50.0	38.9	75.0	
	16.1	11.3	29.0	
High	10	11	6	
Purchase	37.0	40.7*	22.2	
Requests	50.0	61.1*	25.0	
	16.1	17.7	9.7	

$\chi^2 = 5.96, (d.f.=2; p=.05)$

TABLE 25 - Cross tabulation for Purchase Requests by of children in the family

Count	1 child		4 thru 8 children	
Row Pct				
Col Pct				
Tot Pct				
Low	4	7		
Purchase	36.4	63.6		
Requests	44.4	63.6		
	20.0	35.0		
High	13	6		
Purchase	68.4	31.6		
Requests	76.5	46.2		
	43.3	20.0		

DISCUSSION

The major purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between parental influence and children's responses to TV advertising. Types of parental influences used in this study are parent-child interaction related to TV advertising, parental control over the child's viewing behavior, and child-rearing practices (extreme mothering). Cognitive (child's level of understanding of the purpose and function of TV advertising), attitudinal (child's general attitude toward TV advertising), behavioral (purchase requests or the frequency with which the child asks his parent to buy specific products) responses to TV advertising are measured. In other words, the purpose of this research was to explore the role of parents in establishing the environment within which children encounter and respond to television advertising.

Researchers have been studying the effects of television advertising on children for more than a decade. Early studies sought to link children's responses to commercials with certain variables and personal characteristics, such as age, grade, sex, race, and level of cognitive development (Robertson, 1974; Rubin, 1974). Such studies consistently found children's cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral responses to television advertising to be related to their level of cognitive development, as indicated by age or grade in school.

Since children are within the TV commercials, TV advertising can effect them cognitively, attitudinally and behaviorally (Rossiter, 1979). Previous research has indicated that children's responses to television advertising may be at least partly determined by the environment for viewing and reacting which has been established by the parents. This study investigated parent-child interactions about advertising and commercials; parental control over the child's television viewing habits; and maternal child-rearing practice. It was

basically for educational purposes, however it should also be of great interest for mothers and marketers as well. In order to be able to control the effects of TV commercials on the child, mother and child need to view TV together as much as possible and the mother should frequently explain the purpose and intent of TV commercials and also set viewing habits.

It was expected that high interaction environments provide an opportunity for parents to discourage excessive purchase requests by their children. The relationship reached significance level, but it was a positive relationship between parent-child interaction and purchase requests of children. It was found that children who talk with their parents more frequently about TV advertising and commercials make more purchase requests. It might be that frequent verbal exchanges about TV advertising and frequent purchase requests are associated with an environment which is characterized by a freer flow of discussion with fewer constraints. If more frequent interaction is indicative of a more open environment with a free flow of ideas, then the gap between the attitudes of parents and children might be the result of more independent thinking and expression on the part of the children. These conclusions are only suggestive, and need further exploration.

Researchers (Bever, Smith, Bengen and Johnson, 1975; Roedder and Sternthal, 1983) indicated that parental attitudes help shape children's attitudes, so that the attitudes of parents and children are similar. It was expected that an open environment characterized by frequent interactions will provide an opportunity for parents to influence their child's attitude toward television advertising. Although the relationship between parent-child interaction and attitude difference was negative as predicted, it was not statistically significant at $p < .05$. It might be that frequent interaction is associated with a wider diversity of attitudes about television advertising between parent and child. A possible explanation is that parents with attitudes which are more extremely negative are more likely to interact with their children as

a means of attempting to communicate their views to them. Alternatively, parents who recognize a substantial difference between their own attitudes and those of their children may make more of an effort to interact with the children, with influence as an objective.

Hypotheses related with the effects of parental control (over the child's viewing behavior) on the child's cognition, attitude and purchase requests, were not supported. It can be seen from the results in Table 16 that the relationships between control/cognition and control/child's attitude evidenced the predicted directionality. The findings suggest that children whose parents see themselves as more strictly controlling their child's viewing behavior have more negative attitudes toward television advertising. Parents with more negative attitudes toward television advertising reported stronger efforts to control their child's viewing. These children also exhibit a better understanding of the purpose and nature of advertising and have more interaction with their parents; and have better educated parents.

In addition to the above stated results, the relationship between control and purchase requests was found positive, contrary to expectations. Also, mothers with high education exerted more control on their children's viewing habits, and their children made more purchase requests. This could be explained through Brehm's (1966) "Theory of Psychological Reactance". Reactance is a negative motivational state specifically directed toward restoring a lost decision freedom. In our case, if the children's viewing habits are restricted in order to prevent purchase requests, this will result in more purchasing requests because of the threatened reduction in their freedom to make decisions.

At last, it was also found that children who made frequent purchase requests, have more educated mothers, are 1st graders and the only child in the family. This finding supports Piaget's theory of cognitive development which has

shown that children do pass through defined levels of cognitive development and the age in which these stages are obtained, vary by each child. As a result, younger children may not be able to assimilate as much information or understand the purpose of a commercial as well as older children (Rubin, 1974). It was found that only children in the family made frequent purchase requests. It might be that mothers try to fulfill their only child's every demand. Child's frequent purchase request might be determined by the mother's permissive child rearing attitudes.



Who will make use of this research? Suggestions:

With regard to the role of parental influence in the consumer socialization of children, our understanding is far from complete. The topic is a complex one with many dimensions. The process by which parents establish the environment in which children develop their consumer abilities is of one these dimensions. While it deserves further investigation, there are also other processes by which parental influence operates that we need to know more about, such as the teaching of specific consumer skills. These should be fertile areas for research for some time to come.

Besides parents, universities, schools and advertising companies can make use of the results of this research. Since it was found, contrary to expectations, that children who talked with their parents more frequently about TV advertising and commercials made more purchase requests, the intensity and quality of interaction need further exploration. Advertisers have to give importance to the image and work on the needs of the clever purchaser. They have to take over social responsibilities and try to gain profit with ethics.

Business companies and advertising companies need to work with sociologists and social psychologists in order to make in depth market research about consumers. It is especially important if those consumers are children, who need specific consumer skills....

GLOSSARY

Accommodation

Concept used by Piaget in his discussion of cognitive development. Accommodation is the adjustment the individual makes when incorporating external reality. Accommodation is the individual's response to the immediate and compelling environmental demands that have been and are being assimilated.

Assimilation

Assimilation is the process of taking within, or internalizing, one's environmental experience. Piaget believes that assimilation is a spontaneous process on the part of the child.

Attitude

An attitude is a learned predisposition to respond either positively or negatively to persons, situations or things. Here: attitude is the child's general attitude toward television advertising.

Attitude difference

The difference between the child's attitude and that of his parent on the same measure.

Children marketing

All marketing activities which take children as a target market, products and services appeal to the children.

Clever purchaser

Person who gathers information about product and price, makes comparisons among products before buying a product or service, and purchases only those things that he thinks worth to buy.

Cognition

Cognition is the child's level of understanding of the purpose and function of advertising and commercials.

Consumer socialization

The child encounters and evaluates marketing stimuli, promotes inquiry, information exchange, and the expression of parental views. Through parental interaction about products and co-viewing, child gains consumer skills.

Extreme motherhood

Parents with extreme motherhood attitudes act in an accepting, positive way toward their children's impulses and actions, use little punishment, allow the children to regulate their own activities. They could easily yield to their children's purchase influence attempts.

Parental control

Attempting to exercise control over the child's viewing behavior, whether through the imposition of definite viewing rules or a more flexible monitoring process.

Parental interaction

Engaging in verbal exchanges with the child which are specifically related to TV advertising.

Purchase requests

The frequency with which the child asks his parent to buy specific products or services.

Reliability

The extent to which a test measures anything consistently. A reliable test is relatively free from errors of measurement, so obtained scores on the test are close in numerical value to true scores.

Responses to TV

Children are effected by TV advertising and they respond cognitively (ability to understand the nature of TV ad), attitudinally (feeling they have toward TV ad), and behaviorally (ask for the advertised product) to them.

Standardization

Administering a carefully constructed test to a large, representative sample of people under standard conditions for the purpose of determining norms.

Validity

The extent to which a test measures what it was designed to measure.



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Şimdi size bazı durumlar tarif edeceğim. bu tür durumları yakın bir zamanda yaşamış ya da yaşamamış olabilirsiniz. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyun ve cümlede tanımlanan davranışı, son bir ay içinde, ne sıklıkta yaptığınızı gösteren ifadenin altını işaretleyin.

	<u>Her zaman</u>	<u>Sık sık</u>	<u>Bazen</u>	<u>Hiç</u>
1. Çocuğunuzla, bir TV reklamındaki şahsın, gerçek bir kişi mi, yoksa oyuncu mu olduğu hakkında konuştunuz.
2. Reklamcılığın ne olduğu ve TV programlarında niçin reklamların yer aldığı konusunda tartıştınız.
3. TV reklamcılığında neyin iyi, neyin kötü olduğu hakkında çocuğunuzla konuştunuz.
4. Çocuğunuzla TV izlerken, ikinizde biraz önce izlediğiniz bir reklam hakkında konuştunuz.
5. TV da reklamı yapılan bir ürünü kullandığınızda, çocuğunuzla söz konusu ürünün, reklamda tanımlanan tüm niteliklere sahip olup olmadığını konuştunuz.

	<u>Her zaman</u>	<u>Sık sık</u>	<u>Bazen</u>	<u>Hiç</u>
6. Çocuğunuz, TV da görmüş olduğu bir reklamı, sizin de seyretmenizi istedi.
7. Çocuğunuzla, TV programları arasında, kaç tane reklam olduğunu konuştunuz.
8. Çocuğunuza, TV reklamlarında gördüğü, her şeye inanmamasını söylediniz.



Aşağıdaki cümleler, sizin yaptığınız ya da yapmadığınız bazı şeyleri anlatmaktadır. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyun ve cümlede tanımlanan davranışı ne sıklıkta yaptığınızı gösteren ifadenin altını işaretleyin.

	<u>Her zaman</u>	<u>Çoğu zaman</u>	<u>Bazen</u>	<u>Hiçb zaman</u>
1. Çocuğumun hangi TV programını izleyeceğini kendisine bırakırım.
2. Güzel havalarda, çocuğuma TV seyretmektense, dışarda oynaması için ısrar ederim.
3. Çocuğumun bir oturuşta seyredeceği TV süresini sınırlarım.
4. Kendisi istese bile, ben çocuğumun bazı TV programlarını izlemesini yasaklarım.
5. TV seyretmektense, başka şeyler yapması için çocuğumu ısrarla teşvik ederim.
6. Çocuğumun, pazar sabahları TV seyretmesini yasaklarım.
7. Çocuğumu cezalandırmam gerektiğinde, onun TV seyretme hakkını elinden alırım.

	<u>Herzaman</u>	<u>Çoğu zaman</u>	<u>Bazen</u>	<u>Hiçbir zaman</u>
8. Çocuğumun, cumartesi sabahları istediğı kadar TV seyretmesine izin veririm.
9. Çocuğum TV seyrederken, ne seyrettiğini kontrol ederim.....
10. Çocuğumun fazla TV seyrettiğini düşündüğümde, TV yi kapatmasını isterim.

Lütfen her soruyu yanıtlayınız ve bu formu görüşmeciye geri veriniz.

İsim, Soyadı: _____

Denek No : _____

Okul : _____

Sınıf : _____

Cinsiyet: _____

EK 3

APPENDIX 3

Ne düşünüyorsunuz? Bu cümleler doğru mu, değil mi?
Yanıtlamadan önce dikkatle okuyunuz.

E: Evet, doğrudur.

H: Hayır, doğru değildir.

- 1. Reklamlarda seyrettiğimiz insanların çoğu kendi samimi fikirlerini belirten gerçek kişilerdir.
- 2. TV reklamları, programlar arasındaki boş zamanı doldurmak içindir.
- 3. Şirketler, çıkardıkları ürünlerini TV de gösterebilmek için TRT ye para ödemek zorundadırlar.
- 4. TV1 ve TV2 reklam gösterdiklerine göre, onların, ürünlerin "destekleyicisi" olduğu söylenebilir.
- 5. Bir reklam, çok kişi tarafından seyredilecekse daha çok paraya, az kişi tarafından seyredilecekse, daha az paraya malolur.
- 6. "Aklımı seveyim Şevket" adı "Şevket" olan gerçek bir kişidir.
- 7. TV reklamlarından sağlanan para ile diğer TV programları yapılır.
- 8. Reklamları veren şirketler, hayatımızın daha iyi olmasını istedikleri için, TV reklamları gösterilir.
- 9. TRT- TV de gösterdiği programlar (dizi, eğlence, yarışma vs) için para ödemek zorundadır.

..... 10. Şirketler ürünlerinin reklamını, öğleden sonra 3 te yapmaktansa, gece 9 da yapmayı tercih ederler.

Bitirdiğinizde, lütfen bu sayfayı görüşmeciye veriniz.



TV reklamları hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? Herbir soruyu dikkatle okuyun ve cevabınıza uygun düşen seçeneği, kare içine "X" koyarak işaretleyin.

EVET : Tümüyle katılıyorum

evet : Katılıyorum

hayır: Katılmıyorum

HAYIR: Hiç katılmıyorum

1. TV reklamları doğru söyler.

EVET evet hayır HAYIR

2. TV reklamlarının çoğu zevksiz ve can sıkıcıdır.

EVET evet hayır HAYIR

3. TV reklamları, bir ürünün sadece iyi yanlarını belirtir, kötü yanlarını söylemezler.

EVET evet hayır HAYIR

4. TV reklamlarının çoğunu beğeniyorum.

EVET evet hayır HAYIR

5. TV reklamları insanlara ihtiyaç duymadıkları şeyleri aldirtmaya çalışır.

EVET evet hayır HAYIR

6. TV reklamlarındaki kişilerin yaptığı ve söylediği her şeye inanabilirsiniz.

EVET evet hayır HAYIR

7. TV de en çok reklamı yapılan ürünler, daima satın alınacak en iyi ürünlerdir.

EVET evet hayır HAYIR

Bütün soruları cevaplandırduğınızdan emin olunca, lütfen bu formu görüşmeceye veriniz.

1. Çocuğunuzun TV da reklamını görünce sizden satın almanızı istediğı şeyler var mı? Neler?
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.
 - e.
 - f.
 - g.

2. Yukarıda belirttiklerinizden satın aldığınız oldu mu? Hangileri?

Aşağıda verilen ifadeleri okuyup, şu şekilde değerlendiriniz:

<u>Hiç Uygun Bulmuyorum</u>	<u>Biraz Uygun Buluyorum</u>	<u>Oldukça Uygun Buluyorum</u>	<u>Çok Uygun Buluyorum</u>
1	2	3	4

Görüşünüzü bu sayılardan birini daire içine alarak bildiriniz. Bu ifadelerde doğru veya yanlış yoktur, sadece kendi görüşünüzü işaretlemeniz gerekiyor. Araştırma için, bütün soruların cevaplandırılması çok önemli bir noktadır. Onun için bazı ifadeler birbirlerine benzer dahi olsa, gene de cevaplandırmanızı rica ederiz.

1. Çocuk hiçbir zaman ailesinden sır saklamamalıdır. 1 2 3 4
2. Bir anne çocuğunun mutluluğu için kendi mutluluğunu feda etmesini bilmelidir. 1 2 3 4
3. Eğer anne-babalar çocukları ile şakalaşıp beraber eğlenirlerse, çocuklar onların öğütlerini dinlemeye daha çok yönelirler. 1 2 3 4
4. Bütün genç anneler, bebek bakımında beceriksiz olacaklarından korkarlar. 1 2 3 4
5. Anne-babalar çocuklarına sorgusuz sualsiz kendilerine sadık kalmalarını öğretmelidirler. 1 2 3 4
6. Anneleri kendileri yüzünden zorluk çektiği için çocuklar onlara karşı daha anlayışlı olmalıdırlar. 1 2 3 4
7. Çocuklarının toplantılarıyla, kız erkek arkadaşlıklarıyla ve eğlenceleriyle ilgilenen anne-babalar onların iyi yetişmelerini sağlarlar. 1 2 3 4
8. Anne ve babaya sadakat herşeyden önce gelir. 1 2 3 4
9. Hiçbir kadından yeni doğmuş bir bebeğe tek başına bakması beklenmemelidir. 1 2 3 4
10. Anne babalar çocuklarına hayatta ilerleyebilmeleri için hep birşeyler yapmaları ve boşa zaman geçirmemeleri gerektiğini öğretmelidirler. 1 2 3 4
11. Bir çocuğa ne olursa olsun doğuşmaktan kaçınması gerektiği öğretilmelidir. 1 2 3 4
12. Çoğu anneler bebeklerine bakarken onu inciteceklerinden korkarlar. 1 2 3 4

13. Çocuklar, anne babalarının kendileri için neler feda ettiklerini düşünmelidirler. 1 2 3 4
14. Genç bir anne için ilk bebeğinin bakımı sırasında yalnız kalmaktan daha kötü birşey olamaz. 1 2 3 4
15. Anne ve babalar çocuklarını kendi kendilerine oluşturdukları güven sarsabilecek güç işlerden sakınmalıdırlar. 1 2 3 4
16. Küçük bir çocuk cinsiyet konusundan sakınmalıdır. 1 2 3 4
17. Akıllı bir kadın yeni bir bebeğin doğumundan önce ve sonra yalnız kalmamak için elinden geleni yapar. 1 2 3 4
18. Çocuk yorucu veya zor işlerden korunmalıdır. 1 2 3 4
19. Uyanık bir anne baba çocuğunun tüm düşüncelerini öğrenmeye çalışmalıdır. 1 2 3 4
20. Bir çocuğa başı derde girdiğinde döğüşmek yerine büyüklere başvurması öğretilmelidir. 1 2 3 4
21. Bir anne çocuğunun düş kırıklığına uğramaması için elinden geleni yapmalıdır. 1 2 3 4
22. İyi bir anne çocuğunu ufak tefek güçlüklerden korumalıdır. 1 2 3 4
23. Bir çocuğun diğer bir çocuğa vurması hiçbir şekilde hoşgörülle karşılanmaz. 1 2 3 4
24. Çocuğun en gizli düşüncelerini kesinlikle bilmek bir annenin görevidir. 1 2 3 4

APPENDIX 1

Interaction Measure
(Interviewer Administered)

Now I will describe several situations to you which may or may not have occurred recently. For each one that has happened, I would like you to tell me about how many times yes remember it happening in the past month.

1. You and (child's name) talked about whether an individual in a TV ad was a real person or an actor. _____
2. You got into a discussion with (_____) about what advertising is and why TV programs have commercials. _____
3. You talked with (_____) regarding what is good and bad about television advertising. _____
4. While watching TV with (_____), you discussed some commercial you had both just seen. _____
5. In using a product that you had seen advertised on TV, you and (_____) talked about whether or not it does everything the ad said it would. _____
6. (_____) asked you to watch a commercial that he/she had seen on TV. _____
7. You and (_____) talked about how many commercials TV shows have. _____
8. You told (_____) not to believe everything he/she sees in a TV commercial. _____

APPENDIX 2

Control Measure
(Self Administered)

The statements below have to do with some things that you may or may not do. Please read each statement carefully and then check the blank that best describes how often you do what is described in the statement.

	<u>All of the time</u>	<u>Most of the time</u>	<u>Some of the time</u>	<u>Never</u>
1. I let my child decide which particular TV show, to watch.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. On nice days, I insist that my child play outside rather than watch TV.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. I limit the amount of TV my child is allowed to watch in one sitting.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. I refuse to allow my child to watch certain TV shows, even though he/she would like to.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. I actively encourage my child to do other things rather than watch TV.	_____	_____	_____	_____

	<u>All of the time</u>	<u>Most of the time</u>	<u>Some of the time</u>	<u>Never</u>
6. I refuse to let my child watch TV on Sunday mornings.	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. When I need to punish my child, I take away his/her TV watching privileges.	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. I let my child watch as much Saturday morning TV as he/she wants.	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. When my child is watching TV, I check to see what he/she is watching.	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. When I feel that my child has been watching TV long enough, I tell him/her to turn off the set.	_____	_____	_____	_____

Please be sure you have responded to each statement, then return this form to the interviewer.

APPENDIX 3
TV COMMERCIALS FORM

What do you think? Are these sentences true or not? Read each one carefully before you make up your mind.

Y means: Yes, it's true

N means: No, it's not true

- _____ 1. Most people in commercials are real people telling about themselves.
- _____ 2. The reason we have TV commercials is to fill up the extra time between shows.
- _____ 3. Companies have to pay money to ABC, NBC, and CBS to be able to show their products on TV.
- _____ 4. ABC, NBC, and CBS are called "sponsors" because they show commercials.
- _____ 5. A commercial costs more money if a lot of people will see it than if only a few people will see it.
- _____ 6. Ronald McDonald is a real person whose real name is Ronald McDonald.
- _____ 7. TV shows are cancelled (taken off) when no sponsors can be found.
- _____ 8. TV commercials are shown because the companies which advertise want your life to be better.
- _____ 9. ABC, NBC, and CBS have to pay money for the shows they put on TV.
- _____ 10. A company would rather advertise its product at 9 o'clock at night than at 3 o'clock in the afternoon.

When you are finished, please hand this page back to the interviewer.

APPENDIX 4
STUDENT TELEVISION FORM

What do you think of the commercials on TV? Read each question carefully, then put an X in the box for your answer.

The boxes mean: YES: I agree very much
yes: I agree
no : I disagree
NO : I disagree very much

1. Television commercials tell the truth.
 YES yes no NO
2. Most TV commercials are in poor taste and very annoying.
 YES yes no NO
3. Television commercials tell only the good things about a product they don't tell the bad things.
 YES yes no NO
4. I like most television commercials.
 YES yes no NO
5. Television commercials try to make people buy things they don't really need.
 YES yes no NO
6. You can always believe what the people in commercials say or do.
 YES yes no NO
7. The products advertised the most on TV are always the best products to buy.
 YES yes no NO

Make sure you have answered every question, then hand this form back to the interviewer.

APPENDIX 5

1. Are there any products that your child watched on TV and wanted you to buy one of them? Name these products:

a.

b.

c.

d.

e.

f.

g.

2. Which one of these products, mentioned above, did you buy to your child?



APPENDIX 6

Read each one carefully before you make up your mind:

	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Occasionally agree</u>	<u>Fairly agree</u>	<u>Totally agree</u>
	1	2	3	4
1. A child should never keep a secret from his parent.	1	2	3	4
2. A mother must expect to give up her own happiness for that of her child.	1	2	3	4
3. If parents would have fun with their children, the children would be more apt to make their advice.	1	2	3	4
4. All young mothers are afraid of their awkwardness in handling and holding the baby.	1	2	3	4
5. More parents should teach their children to have unquestioning loyalty to them.	1	2	3	4
6. Children should be more considerate of their mothers since their mothers suffer so much for them.	1	2	3	4
7. Parents who are interested in hearing about their children's parties, dates and fun help them grow up right.	1	2	3	4
8. Loyalty to parents comes before anything else.	1	2	3	4
9. One of the worst things about taking care of a home is a woman feels that she can't get out.	1	2	3	4
10. Parents should teach their children that the way to get ahead is to keep busy and not waste time.	1	2	3	4
11. A child should be taught to avoid fighting no matter what happens.	1	2	3	4
12. A young mother feels "held down" because there are lots of things she wants to do while she is young.	1	2	3	4
13. Children should realize how much parents have to give up for them.	1	2	3	4

14. Taking care of a small baby is something that no woman should be expected to do all by herself. 1 2 3 4
15. Children should be kept away from all hard jobs which might be discouragin. 1 2 3 4
16. A young child should be protected from hearing about sex. 1 2 3 4
17. There is nothing worse for a young mother than being alone while going through her first experience with a baby. 1 2 3 4
18. A child should be protected from jobs which might be too tiring or hard for him. 1 2 3 4
19. An alert parent should try to learn all her child's thoughts. 1 2 3 4
20. It is very important that young boys and girls not be allowed to see each other completely undressed. 1 2 3 4
21. A mother should do her best to avoid any disappointment for her child. 1 2 3 4
22. A good mother should shelter her child from life's little difficulties. 1 2 3 4
23. There is no good excuse for a child hitting another child. 1 2 3 4
24. It is a mother's duty to make sure she knows her child's inner most thoughts. 1 2 3 4