

Acknowledgements

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Abstract

This paper aims to analyze attitudes to child-orientated television advertising in the Czech Republic. The objectives of this research were achieved by reviewing the literature which offered an overall view of many authors on the topic as well as the findings of previous studies.

For the purpose of the study children aged 6 to 12 years and their parents were invited to participate in the research. In order to ascertain the current information, primary research in the form of a questionnaire and interview was conducted. Questionnaires were distributed to parents having children in the surveyed age category. For another point of view interviews were realized within two groups of children. By using these two research methods the author examined children's access to television and television advertising, subsequent influence of commercials on children and the overall parental opinion of child-orientated television advertising.

There were several statistical methods used for the analysis of results such as Pearson's correlation and One-Way ANOVA test. The results presented a few relationships which were hypothesized. On the other hand some hypotheses were not supported. It was for example found out that the extent to which children are influenced by television advertising depends on their age. However, the dependence on the viewing time was not supported. It is necessary to mention that besides television advertising, there were other relevant factors which might have influenced the final results such as children's peers.

However, due to the limitations of this study such as the size of a sample, the findings should be interpreted carefully.

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1 Introduction

In the modern world, media plays a very important role in children's lives. Most children live in families with access to more than one television. Moreover, many children have their own televisions in their bedrooms (Smith, 2001). Today's children spend hours watching television and watching television inevitably includes watching television advertisements (McGinnis et al., 2006).

Advertising to children is increasing. Children are now exposed to marketing influences much more than previous generations. Marketers are highly aware that focusing on children is big business. Children create a powerful sector of the market. They do not spend money only on their direct purchases but they also have great ability to influence parental purchasing choices and decisions. That is why many companies do not sell only to children but also through them. The dominant way to achieve children as potential buyers is exactly via television.

From an ethical point of view advertising to children has become a subject of discussion. Children are not experienced as adults and their knowledge of how to use economic resources rationally is immature. Moreover, they do not understand the persuasive intent of advertisers (Gunter et al., 2005). They can be easily misled and manipulated by advertisers. Hence, they require special consideration.

The main intention of this paper is to analyze attitudes to child-orientated television advertising in the Czech Republic with specific focus upon parents and children. The author decided to conduct the study among parents because they were considered to be the most appropriate to express their attitude towards television advertising focused on children. As additional respondents, children were chosen in order to get another point of view on the topic.

This study comprises several aims and objectives which can be summarized as follow:

- To examine the extent to which parents can control their children's access to television and television advertising.
- To explore the links between television advertising and subsequent pressure on parents to purchase products for their children.
- To examine whether there are differences according to the age of children and the extent to which they are influenced by television advertising.
- To discuss parental attitude to child-orientated TV advertising.
- To discuss children's attitude to television advertising.

This paper is divided into six chapters. The aim of the first chapter called the literature review is to introduce the topic. This chapter presents overall view of many authors on the topic and also the findings of previous studies. Moreover, it provides the base on which the research hypothesis are developed.

In the next section methodological approach, research strategy, methods used to collect data and methods which were used for analysis are explained in order to understand the process of the study.

The task of the third part is to present the findings of a primary research. For better illustration of the results gained from questionnaires and interview many graphs and tables are used. The results are subsequently analyzed in order to state the accuracy of stated hypotheses.

The following chapter discusses the results and suggests possible reasons why they occurred. Last chapter provides the overall conclusion gained from the study and briefly summarizes key findings. Finally, general limitations of the research are taken into account.

2 Literature review

This chapter is structured from general to concrete. Firstly, some basic terms are presented in order to bring general overview of the topic. In the following section marketing and television advertising specifically focused on children together with other key aspects are discussed.

2.1 *General overview of basic terms*

2.1.1 Marketing

Marketing is characterized as an “organizational function and a set of processes for creating, communicating, and delivering value to customers and for managing customer relationships in ways that benefit an organization and its stakeholders” (American Marketing Association, 2005). It can be briefly defined as “the essential interface between a business and its customers” (White, 2000:4).

The primary goal of marketing is to increase sale and profit which is possible only when consumers are willing to purchase provided goods and services to satisfy their needs and wants (Wells et al., 2006). To achieve this marketing uses four available tools known as the marketing mix or the four Ps – product, price, place and promotion.

For marketers it is very important to identify and reach particular target market. They use several criteria for its segmentation such as demographic or geographic characteristics.

2.1.2 Advertising

2.1.2.1 *Definition of advertising*

Advertising is a part of marketing, especially its part called promotion. In the literature various definitions of advertising can be found such as the following.

“Advertising is structured and composed non-personal communication of information, usually paid for and usually persuasive in nature, about products (goods, services, and ideas) by identified sponsors through various media.”

(Arens, 2006:7)

The definition uses a term non-personal communication which means that advertising is not directed to a specific person but to a group of people, who are supposed to be potential consumers (Wells et al., 2006).

Advertisements can target their audience by traditional media like television, radio, newspapers, magazines and billboards or by media enabled by today’s technology such as the Internet. Adverts can be also found in the increasing non-traditional media like shopping carts (Arens, 2006)

Although adverts appear in various media they all have similar objectives to influence consumer in some way. Wells et al. (2006:5) summarise advertising as “complex form of communication that operates with objectives and strategies leading to various types of impact on consumer thoughts, feelings, and actions.”

2.1.2.2The role of advertising

The previously given definition explains what is advertising in general. However, in order to better understand what advertising really is and how does it work, it is necessary to examine the role of advertising in business and society. The four roles advertising plays are marketing, communication, economic and social role.

As was mentioned before advertising is a part of marketing promotion. It transmits communication between producers and consumers with its main aim to connect supply and demand on the marketplaces and thus increase profit by consumers’ purchases (Arens, 2006).

Considering its economic role, advertising can be “an ideal tool for reaching large numbers of people economically” because consumers rather buy advertised products which are in their opinion more popular (White, 2000:6).

Social influence can be both negative and positive. Advertising shows fashion and design trends, informs about products or makes us aware of innovations that make our lives easier. Although many good examples can be found, more often negative aspects of advertising are discussed. Social concerns and ethical questions like problems of puffery, advertising of dangerous product or advertising to children are important issues in modern society.

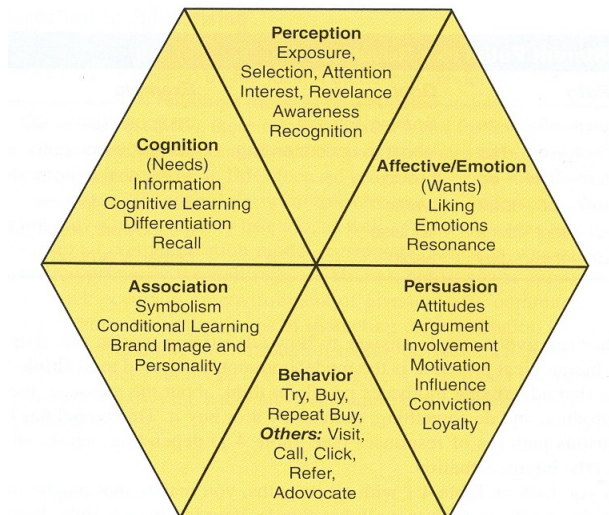
2.1.2.3 Models of advertising effects

“Advertising effects are the ways consumers can respond to an advertising message” (Wells et al., 2006:120). To evaluate which effect advertising has on consumers, it is necessary to consider the question “How does advertising work?” An answer to this question lies in the impact that advertising has on consumer as the receiver of advertising message.

The first model of advertising effects was formulated in 1898. This very simple model representing the hierarchy of effects is called “AIDA” which means: Attention-Interest-Desire-Action (White, 2000).

However, the AIDA model is often criticized because it does not reflect the facts which really happen such as an impulse purchase that uses this model backwards or purchasing driven by emotional needs without rational thinking. Many authors (for example White, 2000 and Wells et al., 2006) agree that this model is now a museum piece. Moreover, McDonald (1992:91) says it is “elephants’ graveyard of discarded theories”.

Better developed model of advertising effects is described by Wells et al. (2006). This model includes six categories of effects created by advertising message. These are represented by facets like those of a diamond to illustrate how message effects work together and how they create consumer’s response.

Figure 1 The facets model of advertising effects

Adapted from Wells et al. (2006:102)

Explanation:

The first effect is *perception* based on the interest in advertising message. It determines to which information the customer pays the attention.

Cognition which is based on needs, reflects how consumers respond to information and how they learn and understand the differences in products. This can be recalled when consumers decide about purchase.

Affective or emotional response mirrors feelings - what consumers want and like, how positive feelings for the ad are created and how the product message resonates with self-interest.

Association makes symbolic connections between brand and its characteristics. Thus, the product is transformed into a brand with specific image.

Behaviour involves action, mostly to buy and to try a product.

Finally, *Persuasion* is the intent to influence or motivate consumer to do something that is based on attitudes, arguments and preferences.

To summarize this consumers are not only passive recipients of advertising message but they can decide to which advert they will pay attention. Because the advertising depends on customers' memories, it is important what they take out of the adverts as the White (2000:46) mentions "it is not what the advertiser puts into the ad that ultimately matters: it is what the consumer takes out of the ad".

2.1.3 Television as advertising medium

Television is one kind of the media which are defined as non-personal communication channels. All the media have specific impact on their audience in terms of an exposure to them (Kotler et al., 2005). For advertising professionals media are characterized "as a means of conveying specific kind of information – an advertising message – about a product or service to consumers" (Katz, 2003:2). This means that advertising media are designed to sell products.

The arrival of television advertising is considered to be one of the most important things in the field of advertising during the last decades. Advertisers use television advertising because of its popularity and number of other benefits such as the ability to combine moving images and sound. The advantage of television advertising is also its opportunity to reach masses of buyers at low cost per exposure. On the other hand this advertising is the most expensive and require large budget (Kotler et al., 2005). Katz (2003) adds another benefits connected with the fact that television commercials are the most pervasive form of advertising.

Although viewers are interested in television program, television as a medium is interested in viewers who are potential buyers. This viewing audience is through television offered to advertisers who wish to influence them (Katz, 2003). Thus, the contact made with medium means opportunity for advertisers to communicate with their target audience – in the case of this topic with children.

2.2 Marketing to children

2.2.1 Targeting children – marketers' opportunity

Children represent a powerful demographic and economic segment. They spend their own money on variety of products and also influence what is spent by their parents. For example one research discovered that in 2002 American children aged 4 to 12 spent \$30 billion on their direct purchases. Another research mentions that household purchase decisions influenced by children aged 2 to 14 years are estimated at \$500 billion per year (McGinnis et al., 2006).

This target group has become very interesting for marketers. One ad executive cited by Quart (2003:47) said that “The influence of kids has expanded. Kids are the most powerful sector of the market, and we should take advantage of them.”

Children are now exposed to marketing influences much more than previous generations. Marketing to children began in the late 1950s when American marketers started to focus on children as their target audience. Since that time marketing to children has grown. While in 1991, an estimated \$600 million was spent on marketing to children, in 1999 it was twenty times more (Quart, 2003).

Children are important for marketers because they represent a future market as tomorrow's adult customers (McGinnis et al., 2006). Children mean opportunity for marketers who want to educate them in order to be their loyal customers in the future. Quart (2003:7) mentions that “marketers still believe in the basic truth of the axiom: get 'em while they're young.”

It has been identified over the last decade that children's awareness of consumer products develops at younger and younger ages. Today's generation of children has been called by the neologism KGOY which means: “Kids Getting Older Younger” (Quart, 2003:47; Lindstrom and Seybold, 2004:23). This means that children are developing themselves more quickly than previous generation. Also Gunter et al. (2005) point the phrase “getting older younger” and adds one more explanation which is

associated with the idea that products for particular age groups are now marketed to younger children.

2.2.2 Advertising to children - marketing strategies

Today's children are targeted much more than previous generation. Marketers increasingly use lots of marketing strategies to expose children to advertising message that will draw their interest and subsequently stimulate demand for advertised products (McGinnis et al., 2006).

As a target market children become subject to particular advertising techniques. Some of them are considered to be advantageous some of them not. Del Vecchio (1997) mentions that children like advertising. They like watching commercials which are for them source of entertainment and exciting information. He adds that advertisers who develop commercials directed to children are people taking care about them, they touch their heart, enhance positive feelings and create happiness.

On the other hand Gunter et al. (2005) point that children trust commercials and advertisers can take this advantage to be unfair to them. There are many concerns according to techniques which lead for example to wrong judgement on size of a toy. The examples of techniques which advertisers use to target children are presented below.

Product appeals

Advertisers use three main categories of product appeals: fun, taste, and product performance (Gunter et al., 2005; McGinnis et al., 2006). Gunter et al. (2005) mention that almost two thirds of child-directed advertisements use these most prevalent themes. The author also adds association of particular themes with particular category of products. As an example, toy commercials are usually associated with product performance and fast food advertisements with fun and happiness.

Fantasy

Fantasy and magic are another misleading techniques often used to attract attention of young audience. Advertisements aimed to children use fantasy situations much more likely than advertising orientated to adults. It was observed that almost all toy commercials include magic and fantasy play. However, children have strong imagination there are concerns whether they can distinguish fantasy in commercials from reality and realize that the view is not real (Gunter et al., 2005).

Branded spoken-characters

Branded spoken-characters are examples of advertising techniques designed to represent and to promote specific brands. These figures are mostly associated with breakfast cereals such as Tony the Tiger™ made by The Kellogg's Company Cereals (McGinnis et al., 2006). Also McDonald's created its branded spoken-character Ronald McDonald who was after the Marlboro Man chosen as the second most famous ad icon of the 20th century (Advertising Age, 1999).

Character licensing

Many companies in media industry license their characters from media sources such as cartoons to other companies. This marketing technique means opportunity for firms in toy and food industry which can then generate profit from characters seen on television. Thus, for example ice cream which is promoted by Disney's Finding Nemo characters or toys which represent famous Spiderman can be found (McGinnis et al., 2006). Using of characters licensing in television advertising is often criticized. Animated figures from popular cartoons used to promote product can cause that children are not able to distinguish between commercials and program material (Gunter et al., 2005).

The expert on youth marketing Del Vecchio (1997) summarizes advertising techniques in few reminders. He points out that child-directed commercial should include magic moments and be amazing and humorous. Moreover, using heroes can attract children's attention and children showed in advertisement should have fun. Finally, it is important to be honest and advertisers should never promise what the product can not deliver.

2.3 *Television in the marketing context*

2.3.1 Watching television

Television plays important role in our daily lives. Myers (1999:115) points out that watching television “is so much a part of most of our lives that we tend to take its routines for granted.” He adds that for most people it is not necessary to watch particular program. For example children coming home from school watch whatever is on and for so long they have time.

Children enjoy watching television which represents their access to the community. For them the television means the source of entertainment and information (Ritchie, 1995; Macklin and Carlson, 1999).

Although children are exposed to various types of media using television is significant as figure 2 shows.

Figure 2 Percentage of children using different types of media by age

		Television (%)	Video/Movies (%)	Video Games (%)	Audio (%)	Computers (%)	Print (%)
Age	8-10	39	16	12	14	7	12
	11-14	38	12	9	20	11	10

Adapted from McGinnis et al. (2006:178)

In the United States almost all contemporary children aged 2 to 18 years live at homes with a television. In addition, more than half of these children notified that their parents do not have any special rules for television watching (McGinnis et al., 2006).

Another research in the United Kingdom demonstrated that two thirds of 7 to 10 years old children and three quarters of 11 to 14 years old children have own television in their bedrooms (Smith, 2001). It was also found out that children with own televisions tend to watch it much more than children who do not have own television set in their

rooms. Also their parents have less strict rules according to television viewing (McGinnis et al., 2006).

Concerning viewing time today's children spend more hours watching television than previous generation. According to Study made by American Annenberg Policy Center in 1999, "US children spend 60 per cent more time watching television each year than they spend at school" (Lindstrom and Seybold, 2004:193). Another research says that American children aged 3 years spend 7 hours, children aged 7 years spend 17 hours and 11 years old children spend about 28 hours per week watching television (Mezulanik, 2003). These numbers show the fact that many young viewers spend significant part of their lives watching television. In addition, older children watch television more than younger do.

According to the Czech Republic, Mezulanik (2003) mentions a research from year 2002 on Czech children aged 5 to 14 years. Research shows that one half of those children have own television in their rooms. It was also found out that 44% of Czech children watch television everyday. In average they spend watching television 2.3 hours on week-days and 4 hours during the weekend. Older children can choose the program they want to see whereas younger viewers watch mainly programs allowed by their parents.

In the Czech Republic, television represents for children above all an entertainment. Against that, informational and educational role is not so popular. Concerning the most popular programs, cartoons are in the first place followed by programs about animals, weekend morning programs and children's shows (Mezulanik, 2003).

2.3.2 Child-orientated television advertising

Television advertising is used as a primary promotional vehicle that plays dominant role in reaching children (McGinnis et al., 2006). Quart (2003) points out that much of child-orientated advertising is often via television. Kapur (cited by Kinder, 1999:128) calls television as "a conduit through which corporations advertise to children". According to

Kenway and Bullen (2001) television helps advertisers to communicate with child's market successfully because of its direct approach.

2.3.3 Watching commercials

Watching television inevitably includes watching commercials. As was mentioned before, children enjoy watching television and they also enjoy watching commercials. Hollis (cited by Lindstrom and Seybold, 2004:65) points out that "they are twice as likely to say that they enjoy an ad as adults". Weber (2004) explains that children are different from adults because they do not refuse advertising. They remember it better. Their sense perception is better and thus advertisements may attract their attention by for example higher loudness or colourfulness.

For children advertisements mean entertainment and source of information (Ritchie, 1995; Gunter et al., 2005; Del Vecchio, 1997). They see television commercials as "a window to the world" which informs them about toys, sweets and other products typically aimed at them (John; cited by Macklin and Carlson, 1999:21).

It was found out how many commercials today's children may see. Lindstrom and Seybold (2004) suggest the fact that American, Australian and English children are supposed to watch between 20.000 and 40.000 advertisements a year. In few years later research Gunter et al. (2005) point out that American children see more than 40.000 commercials per year.

2.3.4 Targeting child's audience

Children mostly watch television in particular day-parts. Marketers are highly aware of this fact and thus divide large viewing audience into more similar and smaller groups. This helps them "to identify children as cost-efficient target market in selected day-parts" which represent big profit centres (Ritchie, 1995:93). To target children in particular viewing hours advertisers usually focus on after-school and Saturday morning audience (Kenway and Bullen, 2001).

Saturday morning hours are called “children’s hours” (Kinder, 1999:84). It is usually the time from 7 a.m. to noon when advertisers mainly focus their attention on children. That is why cartoons or shows for children which dominate this time carry amount of commercials (Ritchie, 1995).

2.3.5 Range of products

When advertise to children marketers focus on a narrow range of products. Many studies have been undertaken to identify which product categories are advertised to children. It was found out that advertisers mainly focus on four product categories which are toys, candies, cereals and fast-food restaurants (Gunter et al., 2005; Kinder, 1999; Macklin and Carlson, 1999; McGinnis et al., 2006).

In addition, a significant part of child-orientated adverts is for food commercials. For example Barcus (1980) mentions an analysis of American television programming saying that food commercials represents about 60% of child-orientated advertising. Moreover, 70% of them are for highly sugary or fatty foods.

In later research in 2005 Institute of Medicine found out that approximately half of all advertisements aimed at children are for foods and beverages high in salt, fat and sugar (McGinnis et al., 2006).

McGinnis et al. (2006) also present a comprehensive study to identify and assess the research evidence associated with influence of food advertising on children and their food preferences. According to this study television commercials strongly influence food preferences and purchase requests of 2 to 11 years old children which lead them to prefer and request high-calorie food.

These findings have become an important issue in discussion. Parents and nutrition experts blame advertisers for children’s preferences for unhealthy food (Macklin and Carlson, 1999). The reason may be the fact that advertisers use specific techniques which were mentioned previously to associate these unhealthy products with fun and entertainment.

2.4 *Child-orientated television advertising from parents' point of view*

2.4.1 Critiques of child-orientated television advertising

Parents are often concerned about advertising on television. For example Young et al. (2003) asked English and Swedish parents about their judgement on child-orientated television advertisements. Their results were that parents expressed concerns about number of commercials. They believed that younger children do not understand the persuasive intent of advertisers. Parents also felt that advertisers encourage children to want products which they do not need and lead children to “pester their parents to buy things for them” (Young et al., 2003). In addition, parents were asked if they would want stronger regulations. The results were that most parents would prefer to regulate advertising more strictly.

Also other authors point out that in most parental opinions advertising is unrealistic and encourages children, who can be very easily influenced, to materialism (Del Vecchio, 1997; Kenway and Bullen, 2001).

Kinder (1999) adds that television advertising may represent a threat to parents because of children’s unreasonable demands. Another thing to consider is that commercials often mislead and lie (Ritchie, 1995). Finally, McGinnis et al. (2006) mention food advertising and rising concerns about its adverse impact on health.

2.4.2 Children’s purchasing influence

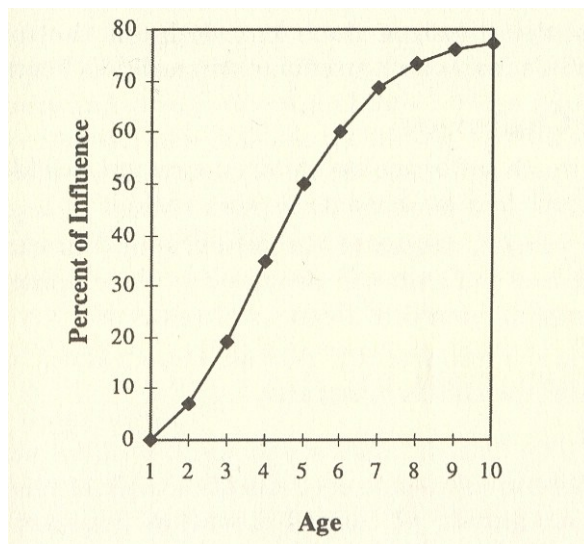
Children increasingly decide on purchases at younger and younger ages. Nowadays, children become independent of parental guidance (McGinnis, et al., 2006). They spend money on their direct purchases but they also more and more influence parental purchasing choices and decisions in household spending (Kenway and Bullen, 2001; McGinnis et al., 2006).

According to direct purchases, it was estimated that in one third of them children buy sweets, snacks and toys. Children aged 8 to 12 reported that the leading items which they can select without parental permission are snacks, candies, soft drinks, products from fast food restaurants and breakfast cereals (Chaplin, 1999).

In comparison to family shopping parents reported that the largest purchase influence of their children falls on food products as well (McGinnis et al., 2006).

It was discovered that the influence of children increases with their age (Del Vecchio, 1997; McGinnis et al., 2006). Del Vecchio (1997) explains that children aged under four years do not have very specific requests. They ask for many things and then forget what they wanted before. He adds that when children get older their requests are more specific and their power to influence is stronger as is illustrated in the following figure.

Figure 3 The influence curve



Adapted from Del Vecchio (1997:23)

2.4.3 “Pester power” - effect of advertising

It is assumed that exposure to television advertising leads children to request for advertised products. By watching commercials children become aware of products they would like to have (Kinder, 1999). Although younger children are not usually independent to buy things on their own, they still mean the attractive market because of

their power to persuade parents (Gunter et al. 2005, Kenway and Bullen, 2001). Del Vecchio (1997:22) points out that “such requests have always been part of the kid-parent interaction and always will be.”

Many authors call this children’s behaviour when children ask their parents to buy products they have seen on television as “pester power” or “parental pestering” (Arens, 2006; Gunter et al. 2005, Kenway and Bullen, 2001; Lindstrom and Seybold, 2004).

It is suggested that this so called pestering may lead to conflicts within the family. Gunter et al. (2005) found out that most parents are aware of this. The conflicts usually occur when parents refuse to purchase requested products - for example when things are too expensive to afford them or when parents believe that demanded product is not appropriate for children (Gunter et al. 2005).

In spite of parental awareness Parker (2001) mentions interesting findings that parents in the United Kingdom who go shopping with their children spend 7 pounds more than without them. It is also worth mentioning that mothers were estimated to be more likely to purchase requested products.

According to the age of children there are few differences in their requests. Gunter et al. (2005) points out that the number of requests decline as children grow older. Worth mentioning is also the study stating that although older children are supposed to make fewer requests these are more likely to be fulfilled (Atkin ,1978).

There are differences also in requested products. While younger children aged about seven years usually ask for sweets and toys older children mostly ask for clothes (Gunter et al. 2005).

Concerning viewing time one study made in the USA demonstrates that the time that children spend watching television correlates with the amount of their purchasing requests. The results show that greater exposure to television advertising lead to more parental pestering behaviour and more requests (Gunter et al. 2005).

2.4.4 Parental lifestyle

It is assumed that children's power to persuade relates to parental lifestyle. One thing is that parents often work long hours. They do not have enough time to spend with their children and thus, children have to be a lot of time on their own (Lindstrom and Seybold, 2004). Parents feel that they are not able to give their children what they need (Kenway and Bullen, 2001). The result is that parents feel guilty and compensate for their absence by higher spending on their children (Kenway and Bullen, 2001; Lindstrom and Seybold, 2004). In Kenway's and Bullen's (2001:56) words children become "beneficiaries of the even greater spending of often guilt-ridden and stressed working parents."

Secondly, more and more today's families are dual-working couples requiring two incomes which allow them to spend more money on their children ([Del Vecchio, 1997](#)).

2.4.5 The role of parents

According to Gunter et al. (2005:98) "parents can have a significant role in moderating or modifying the influence of advertisements on children's knowledge, attitudes, and values." By adopting the role of mediators, parents can help children to understand advertising. They can interpret and comment commercials to encourage children to think more deeply about what they watch.

Parents in their role of mediators can affect children independently on the fact whether they just watch the television or not. However, it was observed that parental interaction has better results when parents and children watch television together. Then parents know what children view and can comment it directly (Gunter et al., 2005). On the other hand, Ritchie (1995) mentions an important issue associated with the fact that families do not usually watch television together. Another possibility is to explain the nature of advertising during shopping when children ask for things to buy for them (Gunter et al., 2005).

Parents can also limit the exposure to television. They can control how much and when their children watch television or they can restrict the channels which children watch. But nowadays, parents have obviously much weaker control of their children's viewing. One think is that children usually watch television when parents are not at home and then it is very difficult for working parents to control their children's viewing (Ritchie, 1995). Secondly, many children have own television with the access that is independent of their parents (Gunter et al., 2005; Ritchie, 1995).

To what degree parents adopt their role of mediators depends on their social class and the level of education. For example, Goldberg (1990) found out that parents of higher social class or the level of education limit more an exposure to television. To conclude this Gunter's (2005) research evidence shows that not many parents actively adopt the role of mediators.

2.5 Advertising controversies

2.5.1 The ethical context

Marketing to children has become a subject of discussion for more than last three decades (McGinnis et al., 2006). From an ethical point of view, its danger to children is quite clear. Arens (2006) explains that children are vulnerable market. They are not experienced as adults and can be easily misled and manipulated by advertisers. Thus, they require special consideration.

2.5.2 Understanding of advertising

As was mentioned some concerns about child-orientated television relates to children's understanding of advertising. The reason is that they are too young to absorb purposes of commercials (Quart, 2003). They are not aware of advertisers' persuasive intent. They do not understand who pays for commercials and that commercials are made to sell products and gain profit. Moreover, they are not able to distinguish between

advertising and surrounding programs. Due to these facts children are more vulnerable to advertising and can be unfairly influenced (Gunter et al., 2005).

Many studies have been done to identify children's understanding of commercials and their ability to differentiate them from programming. Studies document that responses to advertising message vary with the age of children. At the age of five children are able to discriminate advertising from surrounding programs (Gunter et al., 2005; John, 1999) but they are not able to explain this (Kenway and Bullen, 2001). When they are seven or eight years old children begin to recognize advertisers' persuasive intent (Gunter et al., 2005; John, 1999).

It was also found out that "with increased understanding comes more cynicism towards advertising" (Gunter et al., 2005:48). Young children have generally more positive attitude because they understand advertising as the form of entertainment. About the age of ten most children think about commercial more critically (Gunter et al., 2005).

2.5.3 Regulations

According to the rising concerns about child-orientated television advertising, many countries have adopted various government and self-regulatory mechanisms. Regulations are created in the forms of restrictions on timing, frequency, amount and content of advertisements; certain product categories (such as food and toys which are mostly aimed at children); certain ages up to total bans on advertising.

Restrictions within the EU exist both on the national and international level. Although "The television without Frontiers Directive" (European Communities, 2007) provides common rules for European television market, many countries also adopt own additional regulation varying from one country to another (Gunter, et al., 2005).

In several European countries there is a mood to tighten up guidelines (Arens, 2006). Sweden and Norway have one of the strictest regulations. These countries have adopted total ban on advertising aimed at children under 12 with the reference to belief that they are not able to clearly differentiate advertising from programming (McGinnis et al., 2006).

As other examples Ireland has banned using celebrities and cartoons characters in food advertisements and Greece do not permit any toy advertising (Gunter et al., 2005). In the United Kingdom, the Office of Communication have stated that “advertisements must not be inserted in the course of any broadcast of a program for children of less than half an hour scheduled duration” (Ofcom, 2005).

It is necessary to mention that regulations and practices cannot be totally successful due to television viewing habits of today’s children who “often watch television long after dedicated children’s programs have finished” (Gunter et al., 2005:162). Considering total ban in Sweden it cannot work in practise because Swedish children have access to many international channels without such ban. The research estimated that “a Swedish child sees as much advertising as any other European child” (Arens, 2006:519).

Del Vecchio (1997) mentions opinion against bans. He argues that child-orientated television advertising should be permissible. Although marketers and government have important role, the most responsibility lies upon parents who may decide how to limit children’s exposure to television. Moreover, McGinnis et al. (2006) add that advertising provides information which lead consumer to choose product in the market place and children should learn to make these decisions based on their own preference and needs.

With a reference to Gunter et al. (2005:163) the alternative to regulation can be “better consumer literacy training” because it is more effective to help children to understand advertising than stronger regulations.

2.6 Conclusion

After reviewing the literature following hypotheses have been developed in accordance with the objectives presented in the introduction.

- H1: The amount of hours children spend watching television depends upon the ownership of a television.
- H2: To what degree parents mediate the impact of television advertising on their children depends on their socioeconomic status.
- H3: Advertisement led demand depends on the age of children.
- H4: Children's demand for advertised products depends on the time spent watching television.
- H5: Majority of parents have negative attitude towards child-orientated television advertising.
- H6: Majority of parents would support restrictions on television advertising to children.

3 Methodology

In the methodology chapter methodological approach, strategy and used methods to study parental attitudes to child-orientated television advertising are discussed. This is followed by methods of data analysis. Final part includes limitations and recommendations for improvement.

3.1 Methodological approach

When designing the research process it is important to decide on the research approach which influences next steps such as a data-collection method or sampling.

Two basic methodological approaches in the research are deductive and inductive. Deductive approach is an approach of testing theory. Firstly, it includes developing hypothesis from the theory. Deducted hypothesis are then expressed in operational terms and subsequently tested. On the other hand inductive approach is an approach of building theory. When using induction, the data are collected and then the theory is developed from their analysis (Saunders et al., 2000).

According to the purpose of this research which is evaluation of previously stated hypothesis the deductive approach was chosen as the most appropriate.

3.2 Research strategy

Deciding on the research strategy is important because it provides an overall direction of the research. Three main research strategies which are usually used are experiment, survey and case study. As Saunders et al. (2000) mention research strategy is based on research objectives. Referring to this it was needed to summarize the purpose of the study when considering strategy to gain data for analysis. Because the author needed to collect opinions of respondents the survey was considered as the most suitable strategy.

Survey offers many advantages significant for this study such as its ability to collect the large amount of data in quick and economical way. Survey research is based on the idea

to ask people questions (Blaxter, 1996) which was accurately intended. The data may be collected by using different methods such as questionnaire or focus group that can be implemented in quantitative and also in qualitative study (Saunders et al., 2000).

3.3 Research methods

Deciding on appropriate survey methods is very important because chosen methods influence research findings. Referring to Saunders et al. (2000) the most used data-collection methods include questionnaire, interview and observation. The observation was considered as the least appropriate because of the limited time. According to the possibility to apply more methods at once, both questionnaire and interview were finally selected.

3.4 Questionnaire analysis

With regard to the interest in respondents' opinions questionnaire "seems such an obvious strategy for finding the answers to the questions" (Blaxter et al., 1996:159).

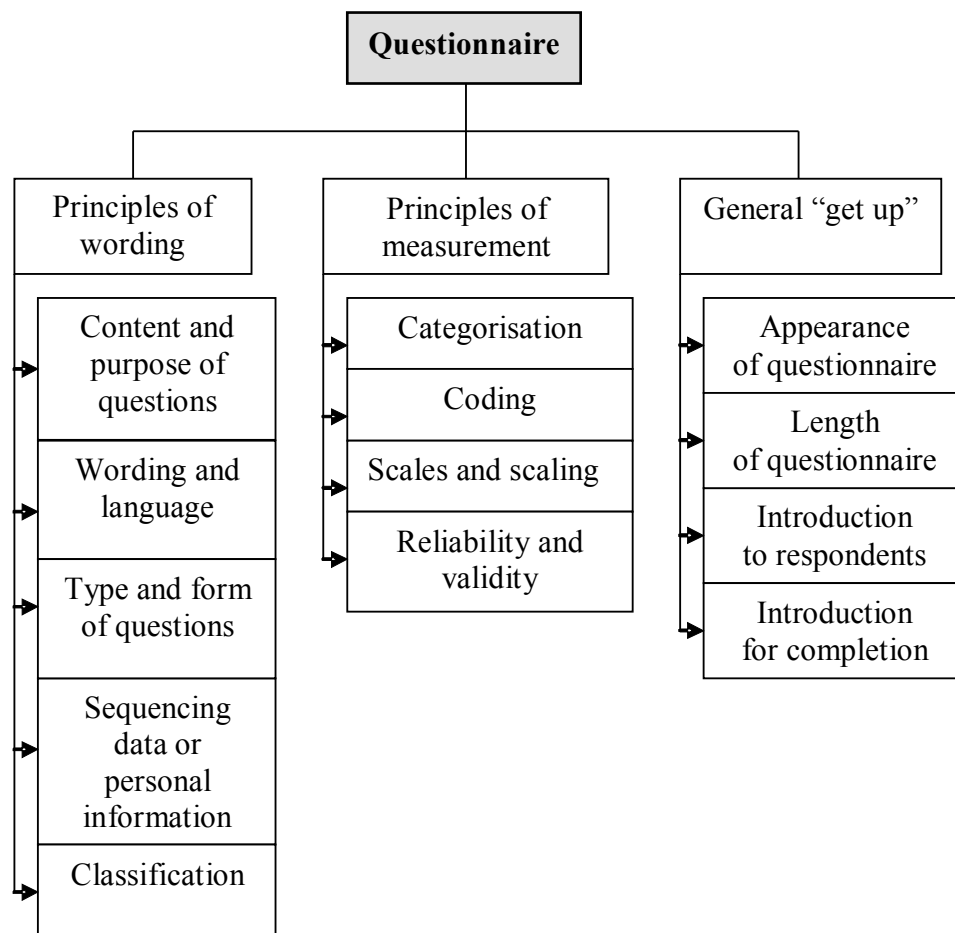
Regarding the author's intent to ask parents about their attitude questionnaire was considered as the most appropriate method for this study. First advantage that can be stressed is possibility to distribute questionnaires among large number of respondents. Secondly, questionnaires use standardized questions which are interpreted to all respondents in the same way (Robson, 1993). Moreover, standardized data allow easy comparison. On the other hand, number of questions is usually limited and they may also be misunderstood. Another disadvantage is that designing and piloting the questionnaire can be quite time consuming (Saunders et al., 2000).

3.4.1 Questionnaire design

It is necessary to spend enough time designing, because overall design of the questionnaire influences the response rate, validity and reliability of collected data to a large extent (Saunders et al., 2000). Designing the questionnaire includes few main

areas such as wording of the questions and their ordering, scaling, coding and general appearance (Sekaran, 2003). The most important aspects in designing the questionnaire are summarized in the following figure.

Figure 4 Principles of Questionnaire Design



Adapted from Sekaran (2003: 238)

The questionnaire itself begins with the introduction in order to identify the researcher, to explain the purpose of the study and to assure respondents of confidentiality of their answers. Referring to Sekaran (2003:245) a proper introduction is necessary to motivate participants “to respond to the questions in the questionnaire wholeheartedly and enthusiastically” which will reduce biased answers.

The questionnaire is then divided into five parts. The first part comprises questions associated with personal characteristics of a child such as age and gender. Second section investigates children's access to television. Third part deals with child-parental purchase relationship. Next part reflects parental opinion to child-orientated television advertising and the final part ask respondents about their personal characteristics.

First of all, the questionnaire was written in English (shown in Appendix A). Considering the aim to question Czech parents it was then translated into Czech language by the author.

3.4.2 Used questions

The majority of used questions were closed questions because of their advantages for both researcher and respondents. Closed questions require minimal writing. Thus, they are easier and quicker to answer. These questions provide alternative answers which mean that responses are predetermined and it is easier to compare them directly from respondent to respondent. Moreover, there is less potential error caused by different ways of answering.

On the other hand closed questions are difficult to develop, because it is needed to include all possible alternatives. Another limitation is that these provided alternatives can lead respondents to answer in the way they would not usually consider (Aaker et al., 2001; Saunders et al., 2007).

In the questionnaire few types of close-ended questions were used. All these types and the list of questions with their description of type are listed below.

Category questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- respondent choose only one category from provided answers- Q 2.2, 2.5, 2.11, 3.3, 3.4, 4.3, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4
Dichotomous questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- a special type of questions when only two possible alternatives exist (e.g. Male/Female, Yes/No)- Q 1.1, 2.7, 2.9, 3.1, 4.2, 5.1
Scale questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- used to collect attitude data- the five-point Likert scale was used in series of statements to ask respondents whether they strongly agree or disagree- Q 4.1

As a second type of questions the open questions were used to provide additional information. Referring to Aaker et al. (2001:311) “using an open-ended question to follow up a closed-response is called a probe.” Probes were used for questions 2.6 and 2.8, 2.10 where the author asked parents to specify previous answers. There were also few open questions (1.2, 2.1, 2.3, 2.4, 3.2) where respondents should fill the gaps with numbers such as the age of child.

All questions asked within the finalized questionnaire and the reasons for their use are summarized in the following figure.

Figure 5 Questions used within the questionnaire and reasoning

	Question	Reason for use
1	Your child	
1.1	Gender	To identify the age and the gender of child needed for analysis
1.2	Age	
2	Access to television	
2.1	How many televisions have your child access to in your home?	To determine the number of televisions with children's access
2.2	Does your child have a television in its own room?	To identify the percentage of children who have own TV
2.3	How long does your child usually watch TV on weekdays?	To identify the time children spend watching television and to compare weekdays and weekends
2.4	How long does your child usually watch TV on weekend days?	
2.5	Please specify time	To identify particular day-part
2.6	Would you identify the most popular programs watched by your child?	To determine out which programs children watch the most
2.7	Do you control your child access to television?	To identify the proportion of parents who control access to TV
2.8	If yes, could you specify how?	To identify possibilities of parental control
2.9	Do you control your child access to TV adverts?	To identify the proportion of parents who control access to TV adverts
2.10	If yes, could you specify how?	To identify possibilities of parental control
2.11	Do you make any attempt to mediate the impact of television advertising on your child?	To determine how strongly parents adopt their role of mediators
3	Child-parent purchase relationship	
3.1	When you go shopping with your child does he/she request to purchase product which have	To determine the influence of television advertising on children
3.2	How many purchase requests does your child make during shopping visit?	To identify number of purchase requests
3.3	Which type of product does your child mostly request?	To determine products which children request
3.4	Do you fulfil your child's request?	To discover to what extent parents fulfil children's demands
4	Parents' point of view	
4.1	Do you agree that advertising...	To measure attitudes towards child-oriented television advertising
4.2	Would you support restrictions on television advertising to children?	To discover if there is a mood to call for restrictions
4.3	restriction which do you consider be the most appropriate?	To identify the appropriate type of a ban in parents' opinions
5	Classification questions	
5.1	Gender	To separate males from females
5.2	Age	To classify participants into age groups
5.3	Level of education	To classify participants into education and income groups which may effect the role of parents as mediators and child-parent purchase relationship
5.4	Family income	

3.4.3 Reliability and validity

The validity and the reliability of collected data depend on a design of questions, structure of questionnaire and pilot testing.

Referring to Saunders et al. (2000:290) a valid question is the one which “enable accurate data to be collected”. He adds that the validity of questionnaire can be improved by wording of questions and using terms that are understood by and familiar to respondents. Reliability refers to the consistency of collected data. It means that data are reliable when another research will have the same results with again collected data.

With a view to avoid asking questions which could be unreliable and invalid the pilot study was carried out.

3.4.4 Pilot study

In order to ensure that questionnaire is appropriate for the research purpose a pilot study, the process when research techniques are tested to find out whether they work in practice (Blaxter et al. 1996), was conducted prior to its final distribution. Such questionnaire piloting in Blaxter’s (1996:121) words called “reassessment without tears” is essential to test whether used questions are unambiguous, reliable and valid (Remenyi et al., 1998). The author needed to be sure that respondents would have no difficulties to answer questions and thus the data would be recorded without problems.

According to Saunders et al. (2000) number of respondents who take part in piloting depends on the size of the research, time and financial resources. In this case the first version of the questionnaire (shown in Appendix B) was after completing tested on 10 people. All participants were asked to provide any comments to the questionnaire. After analyzing their feedback some changes were made in order to make questions more understandable. For example in questions 2.1 and 2.2 which are asking about number of televisions the word “television” had to be replaced by “television set”. The purpose was to distribute the questionnaire to Czech parents, naturally in Czech and in the Czech translation the word “television” might be misunderstood in the meaning of “television

channel”. Secondly, question 2.5 had to be explained better, because respondents ticked more than just one answer. In addition, more options were added in the cases of category questions. After the corrections final version of a questionnaire was done (shown in Appendix C).

3.4.5 Questionnaire sample

In practice it is not usually possible to collect data from everyone of the researcher’s interest. Considering financial and time resources available, using the sample may be more useful. A sample is a group of individuals selected from the target population. In order to avoid biased results, it is important that the sample should be representative to the whole population (Remenyi et al., 1998).

There are two main categories of sampling techniques. While probability sampling is concerned with the fact that all elements in the population have an equal and known chance to be chosen as sample subjects (Blaxter et al., 1996) non-probability sampling means that there is unknown probability of being selected for the study (Sekaran, 2003) and selection is based on subjective judgement (Saunders et al., 2007).

In this survey non-probability sampling and quota sampling as a specific sampling technique were used. According to Saunders et al. (2007:608) quota sampling “ensures that the sample represents certain characteristics of the population chosen by researcher”.

As an object of the research the author chose children aged 6 to 12 years. Firstly, the decision was based on findings that this group of children has certain level of understanding (see the literature review). Second reason was than in the Czech Republic where the research was intended to be done this age group attends the first stage of the primary school and thus creates the particular group of population.

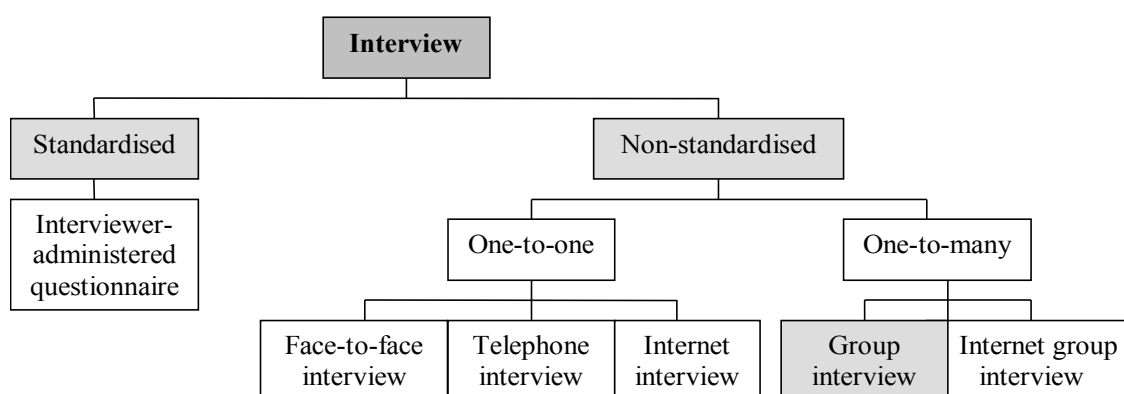
According to the research objectives the focus of the questionnaire was upon parents who were considered to be the most appropriate to express their attitude towards child-orientated television advertising. Putting these two points together the right respondents were identified as parents who have children aged 6 to 12.

The best solution how to gain the access to this specific group of respondents was through children. According to characteristics of respondents delivery and collection questionnaires were used. The author visited few primary schools in her region and distributed 120 printed questionnaires to children who then gave them to their parents. By this it was ensured that particular number of children from each age category was represented. After the parents filled in the questionnaires, children brought them back to school and the author collected them.

3.5 Group interview analysis

In order to get another point of view and because of her interest, the author decided to use interview focused on children as a second research technique in addition to the questionnaires. Referring to Saunders et al. (2007) there are different forms of interviews shown in a figure below.

Figure 6 Forms of interview



Adapted from Saunders et al. (2007:313)

From these forms of interviews the group interview characterized as non-standardized and semi-structured interview “on a group basis, where interviewer ask questions to a group of participants” (Saunders et al., 2007:337), was considered to be the most suitable.

According to one of the research objectives to discuss children's attitude to television advertising there are few reasons for using this technique. Firstly, when interviewing children it is significant to establish personal contact with them. Moreover, children are not so skilled in writing to ask them using questionnaire. Another reason is the advantage to interview larger number of individuals at once. On the other hand, such interview may be more difficult to manage. There is also the occurrence of peer pressure which may influence responses (Aaker et al., 2001).

When conducting an interview it is important to be prepared carefully. Saunders et al. (2007:320) mention so called 5Ps: "prior planning prevents poor performance". One of the things which need to be considered is a sample. Participants were chosen with a specific purpose that refers to non-probability sampling. The author decided to conduct two group interviews. The first interview was focused on younger children (aged 6, 7) and the second one on older children (aged 11, 12) within object of the research.

The author took advantage of the school where groups of children were naturally concentrated and visited children in their classrooms during class-work. She was knowledgeable about situation in the classrooms by discussing it with teachers and also children were informed about the study in advance. According to findings that the location has the impact upon participants and their responses (Saunders et al., 2007), classrooms were highly suitable. This location was familiar to children, they known each other and felt there comfortable and relaxed.

Questions used in group interviews were mostly specific offering explicit answers because these were more appropriate according to participants. Moreover, it was easier to record them by making notes and to analyse them as well. Questions asked within the interview and the reasons for their use are summarized in the figure below.

During the interview children provided answers to particular questions which the author introduced. Also the teacher participated in order to help to facilitate the work with children.

Figure 7 Questions used within the interview and reasoning

	Question	Reason for use
1	Do you like watching television?	An opening question to the topic
2	Do you enjoy watching television advertising?	To determine the proportion of children who do not like television advertising
3	Can you watch television when you want ? (for example immediately you come home from school)	To identify differences among children regarding parental restrictions on television viewing
4	Which television adverts do you like the most?	To identify the most popular adverts chosen by children
5	What do you like about television adverts?	To identify characteristics of adverts which children like
6	Imagine that you go shopping with your parents. Which two products would you demand to purchase for you?	To determine the most requested products and to identify whether there are differences among age group

3.6 Methods of data analysis

According to the usage of two research methods (questionnaire and group interview) both quantitative and qualitative data were analysed. Main distinction between these types of data and their analysis is summarised in the following figure:

Figure 8 Differences between quantitative and qualitative data

	Quantitative data	Qualitative data
Source of meaning	⇒ numbers	⇒ words
Results	⇒ numerical and standardised data	⇒ non-standardised data
Analysis	⇒ diagrams and statistics	⇒ conceptualisation

Adapted from Saunders et al. (2000:381)

3.6.1 Methods of questionnaire data analysis

Majority of questions in the questionnaire were closed with particular response categories which were easier to code. Likewise qualitative data from open question were separated into groups of similar responses and quantified.

Then all data obtained from both closed and open-ended questions were manually entered into the computer and then correctly checked in order to avoid errors which could be made by typing mistakes. For their analysis the data were processed using the data editor SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), concretely Version 12.0 for Windows. The data in the SPSS package were organized in a data matrix where columns represented each variable and rows contained data for each respondent. Through this software quantitative analysis such as descriptive statistics and relationships among variables were done.

The author selected methods of analysis which were the most appropriate according to the nature of the data. Descriptive statistics as percentage frequency tables or cross-tabulations were used in order to understand, interpret and summarize the results of the study.

When testing the accuracy of stated hypothesis mostly bivariate correlation and one way analysis of variance (ANOVA test) were used. Pearson's correlation test and its measure which is Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient were considered as the best to find out whether there is relationship between two variables and to indicate how strong such relationship is. The value of correlation coefficient can range from -1 to 1 which indicates negative or positive correlation. Considering the strength of the relationship Cohen (1988) cited in Pallant (2001:120) mentions these guidelines:

$r = 0.10$ to 0.29	or	$r = -0.10$ to -0.2	small
$r = 0.30$ to 0.49	or	$r = -0.30$ to 0.49	medium
$r = 0.50$ to 1.00	or	$r = -0.50$ to 1.00	large

Before using the ANOVA test the homogeneity of variance was tested in order to find out whether the assumption of homogeneity has not been violated. Then One-Way ANOVA was used to test the variability between three or more different groups.

3.6.2 Methods of group interview data analysis

Considering the characteristics of respondents each group interview took only about twenty minutes. As was mentioned in the part group interview analysis used questions were easy and offering specific answers. These were more appropriate according to children and easier to be recorded and analysed as well.

During interviews the author made notes and also wrote down the responses into tables prepared in advance. Immediately after interviews she noted down all additional information which were later needed when analyzing the results.

Collected data were then quantified into meaningful categories and counted. There was no specific statistical test used for the data analysis. Only few frequency tables and graphs were used for better illustration of the results.

3.7 *Limitations and recommendations for improvement*

When undertaking a research, there are always limitations and recommendations for their improvement. As Blaxter et al. (1996:135) point out “research is a process of learning”, we learn by mistakes and thus it is the essential part of the research to make changes and improvements. Moreover he adds that “research without such mistakes or changes is not a real research” (Blaxter et al., 1996:135). This research is of no exception and therefore several possible sources of limitations are identified and possibilities to improve them are recommended.

The main limitations concern the research sample. Due to the lack of time and resources, the size of sample was quite small. Finally, 103 completed questionnaires were analysed. Because the reliability and accuracy of findings depend on the size of the sample it is recommended for further research to use larger sample size.

Second limitation is linked to geographical distribution of questionnaires. Sample of the questionnaire was taken only within one region in the northern Bohemia which means that results are relevant to this specific area and might not be generalized to the whole

population. In order to generalize findings it is therefore recommended to include wider area because parents from different regions might have different characteristics and attitudes.

According to the use of group interview within this research, there are additional limitations discovered. Similarly with the questionnaire, one of the flaws is linked to the geographical constraint. All children who participated in group interviews were recruited from one institution within one region. This fact may lead to biased results because of their reliability only for specific area. With regard to generalize study findings, the similar research should be carried out in wider area including various regions.

Furthermore the group interview is as a research method associated with another disadvantage which refers to the findings that participants influence each other in their responses.

4 Research results and analysis

In this chapter results from both research methods are examined. In order to illustrate research findings the author uses lots of charts and tables. Firstly, questionnaires designed for the purpose of this research are analysed. Next part of this chapter examines research results according to responses collected when conducting group interviews.

4.1 Questionnaire results and analysis

120 printed questionnaires were distributed among parents and subsequently collected. Finally, the data from 103 completed questionnaires were analysed. These figures show high response rate.

4.1.1 Profile of respondents

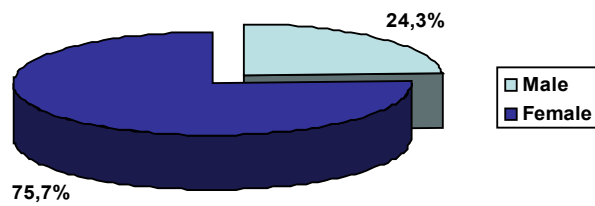
In this part the author researches the results from last part of the questionnaire which were classification questions. These questions considered respondents' gender, age, final level of education and family's income.

Table 1 Number of men and women among respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid female	78	75,7	75,7	75,7
male	25	24,3	24,3	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

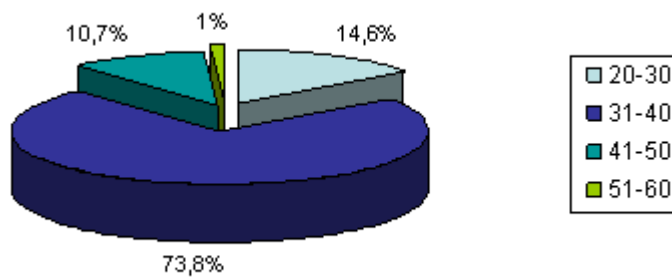
This table shows both absolute numbers and percentage shares of males and females. Absolute numbers of respondents divided by gender are 78 females and 25 males.

Graph 1 Percentage shares of men and women among respondents



As seen in table 1 and graph 1 the proportion of males and females is very different. The author did not try to select the same proportion of men and women because the questionnaires were distributed to the families and it depended on parents whether mothers or fathers were more willing to fill in the questionnaires. These results show that mothers were those who mostly completed the questionnaires. However, this should not influence the results of the research negatively.

Graph 2 The age groups of respondents



According to the age of respondents four age groups were included in collected questionnaires. As seen in the graph 2 the spectrum of age is not uniformly divided. There is one segment much bigger than others. The majority of parents are the age group of 31-40 years. About one quarter of respondents is the younger age group of 20-30 years or the older one aged 41-50 years. There was also one person among 103 respondents in the age group of 51-60.

In order to measure family socio-economic status questions considering final level of respondents' education and families' net monthly income were used. The data concerning education are displayed in table 2. As shown there 4 responds are missing because of participants' unwillingness to answer. Like the age, the final level of education is not uniformly divided because this selection was not in the power of the author. From 99 responses majority of parents are college or trained, lower proportion is higher education and other levels.

Table 2 Final level of respondents' education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	school	6	5,8	6,1	6,1
	trained	29	28,2	29,3	35,4
	college	36	35,0	36,4	71,7
	higher education	16	15,5	16,2	87,9
	graduate	5	4,9	5,1	92,9
	postgraduate	7	6,8	7,1	100,0
	Total	99	96,1	100,0	
Missing	0	4	3,9		
Total		103	100,0		

Following table shows the results according to the family's net monthly income. In this question the participants were more unwilling to answer because 17 of 103 responses are missing. However questionnaires with missing answers were studied as well. In the analysis where these data were necessary the author examined only correct ones which should not influence the research negatively.

When describing the income the biggest shares are created by the second and third group of responses in the same way like in the case of the level of education. The majority of families surveyed has the income range of between 11.000 CZK and 30.000 CZK. This corresponds with the family's average net monthly income in the Czech Republic which was 9.545 CZK per one member of household in 2006 (MPSV, 2006) only when the family has two or three members.

Table 3 Families' net monthly income

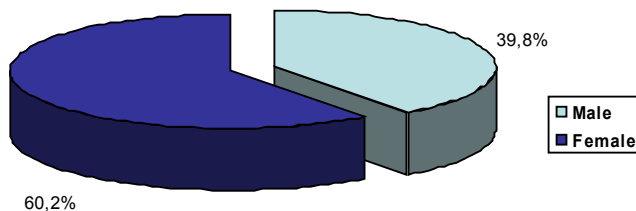
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	less than 10.000	8	7,8	9,3	9,3
	11.000-20.000	24	23,3	27,9	37,2
	21.000-30.000	23	22,3	26,7	64,0
	31.000-40.000	16	15,5	18,6	82,6
	41.000-50.000	12	11,7	14,0	96,5
	51.000 and more	3	2,9	3,5	100,0
	Total	86	83,5	100,0	
Missing	0	17	16,5		
Total		103	100,0		

4.1.2 Profile of children

To examine the accuracy of stated hypothesis it is necessary to analyse not only the profile of the respondents but also the profile of the children which are the object of the research. Two categories used to describe children are their gender and age.

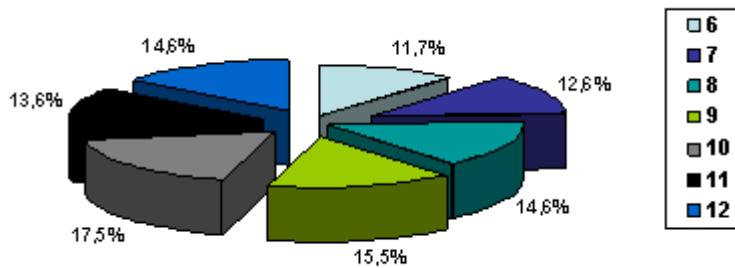
Referring to the graph 3 the results gained when surveying 103 children show that there is higher proportion of girls than boys which may occur due to the structure of the classes where boys are probably less represented then girls. This fact could not be influenced because the author only distributed questionnaires to particular age groups, not to particular gender of children.

Graph 3 Percentage shares of boys and girls



As was mentioned the author tried to select approximately the same proportion of particular age groups which was successful as shown in the graph 4. Children are divided into 7 age groups ranging from 6 to 12 years whose percentage shares are quite similar.

Graph 4 The age groups of children

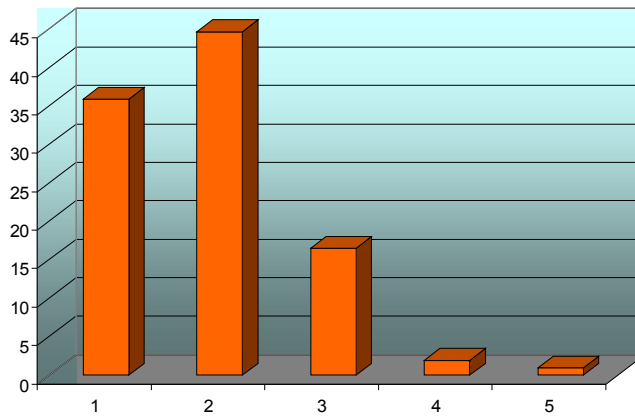


4.1.3 Television viewing

This section analyses the part of the questionnaire which considers children, their access to television and the time they spend watching television.

The following graph shows the percentage share of children and the number of television sets they have access to in their homes. As seen there the most of children surveyed (45%) may watch two televisions, a bit less of them (36%) have access to one television and lower percentage share have access to three (17%), four and also five television sets.

Graph 5 The number of television sets children have access to in their homes



To analyse the first hypothesis it is necessary to find out whether children have television sets in their bedrooms. From 103 children aged 6 to 12 years exactly one half of them have own television. Absolute numbers are displayed in table 4 which also shows a comparison between particular age groups. Proportion among age group is quite uniformly divided. However, there is one interesting exception in the group of 8 years old where only one fifth of children have own television set.

Table 4 The cross-tabulation of the age of child and owning television

		Child has a television set in its own room		Total
		yes	no	
Age of child	6	6	6	12
	7	7	6	13
	8	7	8	15
	9	9	7	16
	10	9	9	18
	11	8	6	14
	12	9	6	15
Total		51	52	103

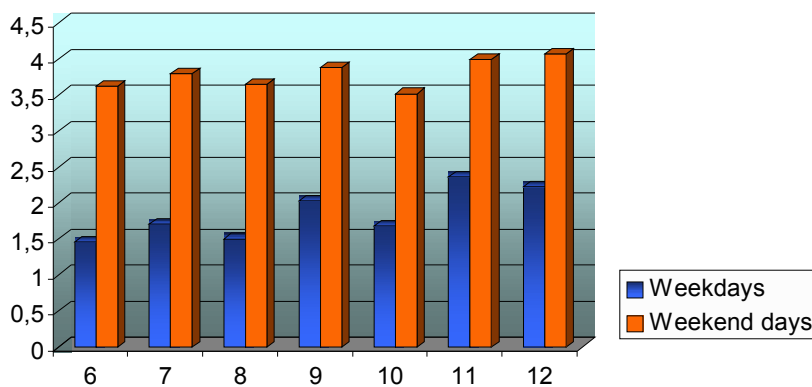
The time which children spend watching television was divided into two questions. The first one asked parents about the time their children usually watch TV on weekdays and the second one on weekend days.

When having a look on the table 5 there are recorded maximums, minimums and means which are predictable higher on weekend days then on weekdays. In average children spend watching television 1.9 hours on weekdays and 3.8 hours during the weekend which is exactly two times more. When analyzing individual age groups the average viewing times are slightly different. Although it is not so obvious, older children watch television quite more then younger do as graph 6 shows.

Table 5 The time children spend watching television

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Weekdays	103	0,5	5,0	1,854	1,0517
Weekend days	103	1,0	8,0	3,845	1,4869
Valid N (listwise)	103				

Graph 6 Age groups and the average viewing time



Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis H₀1:

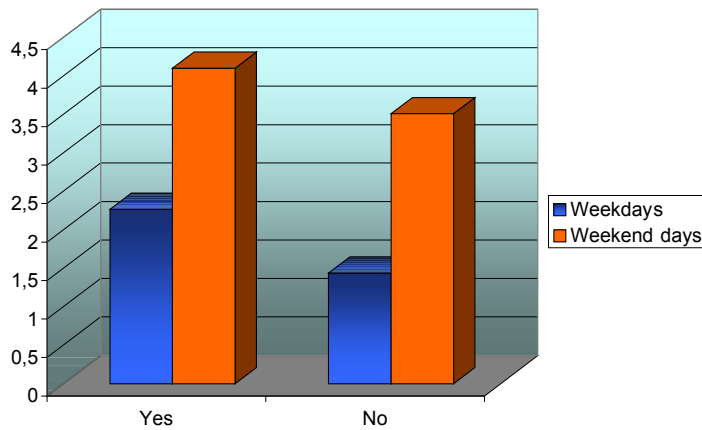
The amount of hours children spend watching television does not depend upon the ownership of a television.

Alternative hypothesis H₁1:

The amount of hours children spend watching television depends upon the ownership of a television.

To evaluate hypothesis 1 it was needed to calculate an average viewing time among children who have and do not have own television. The results are seen in the following graph. As shown there the average amount of hours which children spend in front of the television is bigger when they have own television set in their rooms.

Graph 7 Owning a television set in child’s room and average viewing time



When testing the first hypothesis statistically the author decided to use the correlation test and its measure which is Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to find out whether there is relationship within collected data.

The results of Pearson’s test presented in following table show that correlation between viewing time and the ownership of television set in child’s room is significant at the 0.01 level according to the viewing time on weekdays and at the 0.05 level according to the viewing time on weekend days.

The strength of the relationship is indicated by the value of correlation coefficient. When having a look on the first case (viewing time on weekdays) the blue-marked figure indicates medium strong relationship referring to Cohen’s (1988) guidelines mentioned in the methodology. The strength of the relationship in the second case which is marked by yellow colour is small.

Table 6 Correlations between the ownership of a television and the viewing time on weekdays and weekend days

		Child has a television set in its own room	Viewing time on weekdays	Viewing time on weekend days
Child has a television set in its own room	Pearson Correlation	1	,360**	,234*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,000	,017
	N	103	103	103
Viewing time on weekdays	Pearson Correlation	,360**	1	,748**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	.	,000
	N	103	103	103
Viewing time on weekend days	Pearson Correlation	,234*	,748**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,017	,000	.
	N	103	103	103

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

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

If there is a relationship it is possible to examine whether there is dependence between two variables as well. The best way how to test this is One-Way ANOVA test. Before using ANOVA test it is necessary to test the homogeneity of variance. In order to have not violate the assumption of homogeneity the significance value (Sig.) for this test should be higher than 0.05 which is fulfilled in both cases as demonstrated in table below.

Table 7 Test of homogeneity of variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Viewing time on weekdays	,337	1	101	,563
Viewing time on weekend days	,685	1	101	,410

Table 8 One-Way ANOVA test – The ownership of a television versus viewing time on weekdays and weekend days

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Viewing time on weekdays	Between Groups	14,658	1	14,658	15,083	,000
	Within Groups	98,157	101	,972		
	Total	112,816	102			
Viewing time on weekend days	Between Groups	11,071	1	11,071	5,844	,017
	Within Groups	191,337	101	1,894		
	Total	202,408	102			

The significance of One-Way ANOVA test is 0 according to the viewing time on weekdays and 0.017 in the case of weekend days. Both numbers are obviously lower than 0.05 which means that the test disproved the first hypothesis. Hence, the alternative hypothesis must be accepted which means that the test proved that the amount of hours children spend watching television depends upon the ownership of a television.

4.1.4 Parental control

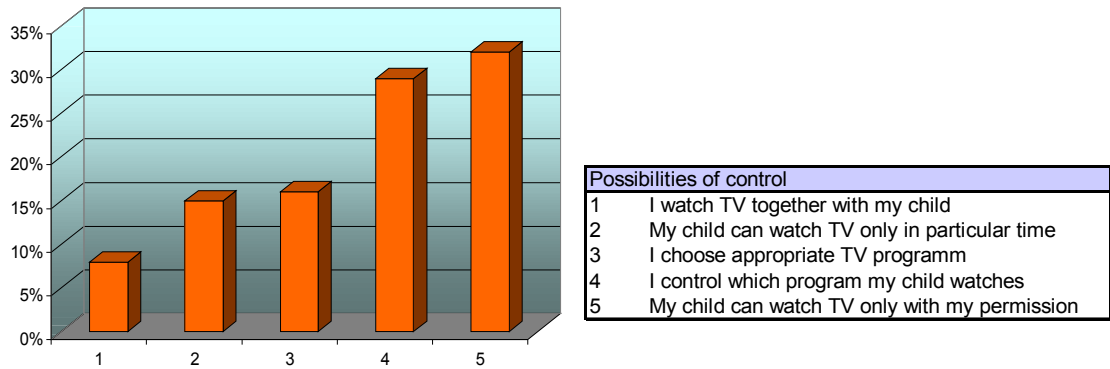
This section evaluates the part of the questionnaire where the author asked parents whether they control their children’s access to television and to what degree they mediate the impact of television advertising on their children.

Table 9 The control of the access to television

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid yes	60	58,3	58,3	58,3
no	43	41,7	41,7	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

Table 9 shows that 60 of 103 respondents control their children’s access to television. When evaluating the question “how parents control the access to television” responses were divided into five categories as seen in the following graph. The highest percentage of 60 parents who control their children’s access to television answered that their child can watch television only with their permission. A bit less of respondents control which program their child watches. As the first column shows least parents watch television together with their child.

Graph 8 How parents control their children’s access to television

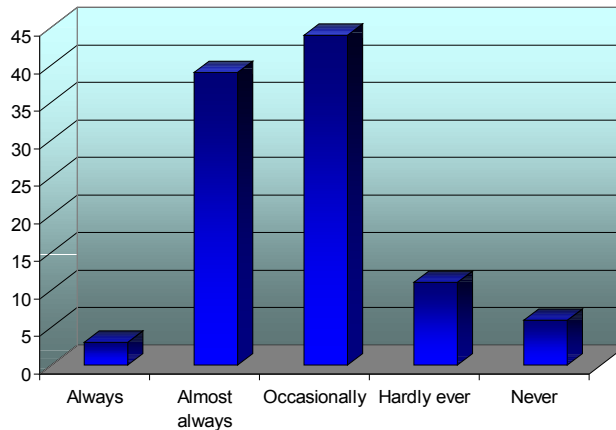


Similarly the author asked parents whether and how they control their children’s access to television advertising. When having a look on the following table the number of parents who control their children’s access to TV advertising is approximately three times lower than number of parents who control access to television. Considering the possibilities how parents control the access their responses varied only between two categories.

Table 10 The control of the access to TV advertising

I control my child's access to TV advertising			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	23	22,3
	No	80	77,6
	Total	103	100
Possibilities of control			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	I switch the channel	11	47,8
	I judge the adverts with my child	12	52,2
	Total	23	100

Parents were also asked whether they make any attempt to mediate the impact of television advertising on their children. The results of this question are shown in the graph below. As seen there the biggest proportion of parents (43%) do this “occasionally” followed by those who mediate the impact of TV advertising “almost always”. On the next place is answer “hardly ever”, then “never” and finally “always”.

Graph 9 Mediating the impact of television advertising on children

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis H₀2:

To what degree parents mediate the impact of television advertising on their children does not depend on their socioeconomic status.

Alternative hypothesis H₁2:

To what degree parents mediate the impact of television advertising on their children depends on their socioeconomic status.

Socio-economic status was measured by the final level of respondents' education and families' net monthly income. Proportions of respondents according to these variables are described in the section 4.1.1 Profile of respondents.

To evaluate the accuracy of stated hypothesis the author wanted to know whether there exist relationships between two pairs of variables: mediating the impact of television advertising on children and the final level of education; mediating the impact of television advertising on children and the family's net monthly income. Both correlation tests are summarized in the following table.

Table 11 Correlations between mediating the impact of television advertising on children and the final level of education and the family’s net monthly income

		I mediate the impact of TV advertising on my child	Final level of education	Family's net monthly income
I mediate the impact of TV advertising on my child	Pearson Correlation	1	,090	,136
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,377	,212
	N	103	99	86
Final level of education	Pearson Correlation	,090	1	,487**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,377	.	,000
	N	99	99	86
Family's net monthly income	Pearson Correlation	,136	,487**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,212	,000	.
	N	86	86	86

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

On the ground on Pearson’s test it can be claimed that the correlations between mediating the impact of television advertising on children and the final level of education and the family’s net monthly income are not significant. It means that there is any relationship between two pairs of tested variables. If there does not exist a relationship it is not possible to examine whether there is dependence between variables. Hence, the alternative hypothesis cannot be accepted.

During the correlation test the author took notice of another strong relationship between final level of respondents’ education and families’ net monthly income. This finding is not so surprising because the level of education usually corresponds with the income. Anyway, this correlation is not included in the research objectives.

The author wanted to find out possible reasons why there is no relationship between mediating the impact of television advertising on children and families’ socioeconomic status. This can be caused by another factors such as that respondents are not uniformly divided in accordance to their socioeconomic status. As seen in the following tables, representation of the lowest and the highest groups is very low and it is also not obvious whether there are prevalent positive or negative answers.

Table 12 The cross-tabulation of the final level of education and mediating the impact of TV advertising

		I mediate the impact of TV advertising on my child					Total
		Always	Almost always	Occasionally	Hardly ever	Never	
Final level of education	school trained	1	1	3	0	1	6
	college	1	8	11	5	4	29
	higher education	1	16	16	3	0	36
	graduate	0	6	8	1	1	16
	postgraduate	0	1	2	2	0	5
	postgraduate	0	1	4	2	0	7
Total		3	33	44	13	6	99

Table 13 The cross-tabulation of family's net monthly income and mediating the impact of TV advertising

		I mediate the impact of TV advertising on my child					Total
		Always	Almost always	Occasionally	Hardly ever	Never	
Family's net monthly income	less than 10.000	1	1	4	1	1	8
	11.000-20.000	1	6	11	4	2	24
	21.000-30.000	0	10	10	2	1	23
	31.000-40.000	1	11	2	1	1	16
	41.000-50.000	0	5	5	2	0	12
	51.000 and more	0	1	1	1	0	3
Total		3	34	33	11	5	86

Another factor which may influence the results is the numbers of televisions children have access to in their homes. Following correlation test was made to find out whether there is a relationship between the number of television and family's net monthly income. As shown there the Pearson's test confirmed that the correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. The value of this relationship is quite weak.

Table 14 Correlation between the number of televisions child has access to and family's net monthly income

		The number of televisions child has access to	Family's net monthly income
The number of televisions child has access to	Pearson Correlation	1	,249*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,039
	N	103	86
Family's net monthly income	Pearson Correlation	,249*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,039	.
	N	86	86

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

The dependence was tested by the test of homogeneity of variances and then the One-Way ANOVA test was used. As seen in table below the significance of the first test is higher than 0.05 which means that the test has not violated the assumption of homogeneity of variances.

Table 15 Test of homogeneity of variances

The number of televisions child has access to

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,161	5	80	,338

Table 16 One-Way ANOVA test – Family’s net monthly income versus number of televisions child has access to

The number of televisions child has access to

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6,882	5	1,376	2,431	,044
Within Groups	35,669	80	,566		
Total	42,551	85			

Although the significance in the One-Way ANOVA is only a bit lower than 0.05, the test confirms that there is dependence. Thus, the test proved that the number of televisions children have access to in their homes is dependent on families’ net monthly incomes.

4.1.5 Child-parent purchase relationship

In this section the author is interested in child-parent purchase relationship. The main aim is to find out how children behave when they go shopping with their parents and whether their behaviour is influenced by factors such as the age and the viewing time.

Following table displays the number of parents who responded whether their children demand to purchase products which have seen on television when go shopping with them. As shown there bigger proportion of children makes such requests.

Table 17 Children’s demand for advertised products

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid yes	61	59,2	59,2	59,2
no	42	40,8	40,8	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

Considering the number of requests there exist some differences according to the age of children. For better illustration the cross-tabulation was made. When having a look on this table it is obvious that the younger the children are, the higher are the numbers of their requests. In the case we examine absolute numbers in the last column, it cannot be said that these decrease. This is caused by the amount of children in each age group which is not exactly equal.

Table 18 The cross-tabulation of the age of children and the number of requests

	Number of requests					Total
	1	2	3	4	5	
Age of child 6	0	0	2	4	3	9
7	0	2	7	2	0	11
8	1	2	4	1	1	9
9	5	4	2	1	0	12
10	6	2	1	0	0	9
11	3	1	1	0	0	5
12	4	1	0	0	0	5
Total	19	12	17	8	4	60

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis H₀₃:

Advertisement led demand does not depend on the age of children.

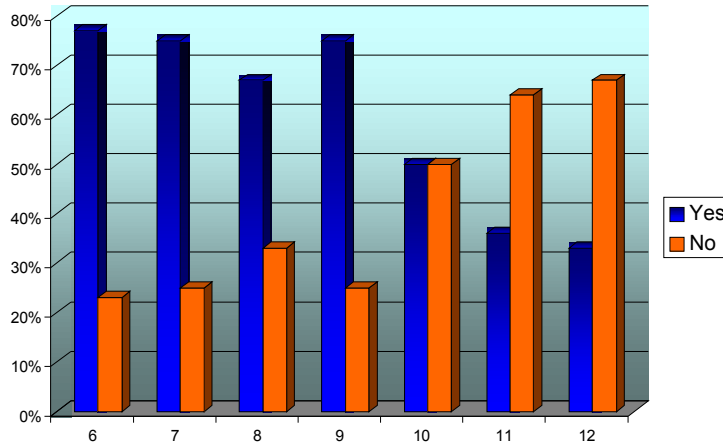
Alternative hypothesis H₁₃:

Advertisement led demand depends on the age of children.

The author firstly made the graph to illustrate the proportion of children who demand / do not demand products seen on television when they go shopping with their parents.

As shown in the following graph the proportion of children who demand for advertised products decreases as they grow older.

Graph 10 Does your child request to purchase product which have seen on television?



In order to test hypothesis 3 statistically the correlation tests was used to find out whether there exist relationships between two pairs of variables. The first correlation considers the relationship between the age of a child and demanding for advertised products. The second one tests the correlation between the age of a child and the number of demands.

Table 19 Correlation between the age of a child and demanding for advertised products

		Age of child	Demanding
Age of child	Pearson Correlation	1	,341**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,000
	N	103	103
Demanding	Pearson Correlation	,341**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	.
	N	103	103

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

Table 20 Correlation between the age of a child and the number of demands

		Age of child	Number of demands
Age of child	Pearson Correlation	1	-,720**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,000
	N	103	60
Number of demands	Pearson Correlation	-,720**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	.
	N	60	60

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

The results of Pearson’s tests show that correlations are significant at the 0.01 level and therefore it can be claimed that there exist relationships between both pairs of variables. The value of the first correlation coefficient indicates that the strength of the relationship is medium. Concerning the results of table 20, correlation coefficient is negative which means that the older the children are, the lower number of demands they have. The value of correlation coefficient in this case suggests very strong relationship.

To test the dependence firstly the test of homogeneity of variances and then the One-Way ANOVA test were used. The results from both tests are displayed in the following tables.

Table 21 Test of homogeneity of variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Demanding	2,758	6	96	,066
Number of demands	1,065	6	53	,395

Table 22 One-Way ANOVA test – The age of children versus demanding for advertised products and the number of demands

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Demanding	Between Groups	3,551	6	,592	2,664	,020
	Within Groups	21,323	96	,222		
	Total	24,874	102			
Number of demands	Between Groups	53,817	6	8,969	12,215	,000
	Within Groups	38,917	53	,734		
	Total	92,733	59			

As demonstrated in table 21 the assumption of the test of homogeneity was fulfilled because the significance value is higher than the allowed border of 0.05 in both cases.

When having a look on One-Way ANOVA test significances are much lower than 0.05. According to these results the hypothesis H_03 must be rejected and the alternative hypothesis must be accepted. This means that the test proved that advertisement led demand depends on the age of children.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis H_04 :

Children's demand for advertised products does not depend on the time children spend watching television.

Alternative hypothesis H_14 :

Children's demand for advertised products depends on the time children spend watching television.

Like in the first hypotheses the viewing time is according to questions divided into two parts – on weekdays and on weekend days. For both the correlation was made to identify whether there exists relationship. The results are displayed in tables bellow. As seen in table 24 it can be claimed that correlation is significant only between demanding for advertised products and the viewing time on weekend days. Although Pearson's test confirms that there exists such relationship, its value is quite weak.

Table 23 Correlations between demanding for advertised products and the viewing time on weekdays

		Demanding	Viewing time on weekdays
Demanding	Pearson Correlation	1	,119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,230
	N	103	103
Viewing time on weekdays	Pearson Correlation	,119	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,230	.
	N	103	103

Table 24 Correlations between demanding for advertised products and the viewing time on weekend days

		Demanding	Viewing time on weekend days
Demanding	Pearson Correlation	1	,200*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,042
	N	103	103
Viewing time on weekend days	Pearson Correlation	,200*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,042	.
	N	103	103

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

Before testing dependence by One-Way ANOVA test it is needed to test the homogeneity of variances. The significance of this test should be higher than allowed border of 0.05 which is not as presented in table below. This means that the test has violated the assumption of homogeneity of variances. Thus, the One-Way ANOVA test cannot confirm that there is dependence. When having a look on table 26 the significance is much higher than 0.05 which accepts the hypothesis. According to these results it can be claimed that children’s demand for advertised products does not depend on the time they spend watching television.

Table 25 Test of homogeneity of variances

Demanding			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
24,546	7	95	,000

Table 26 One-Way ANOVA test –Demand for advertised products versus viewing time on weekend days

Demanding					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1,836	7	,262	1,082	,381
Within Groups	23,038	95	,243		
Total	24,874	102			

4.1.6 Parents’ point of view

This part of the questionnaire examined which opinion parents have on child-orientated television advertising. In reference to author’s intent to identify whether respondents attitudes are rather positive or negative the following hypothesis was stated.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis H₀5:

Majority of parents do not have negative attitude towards child-orientated television advertising.

Alternative hypothesis H₁5:

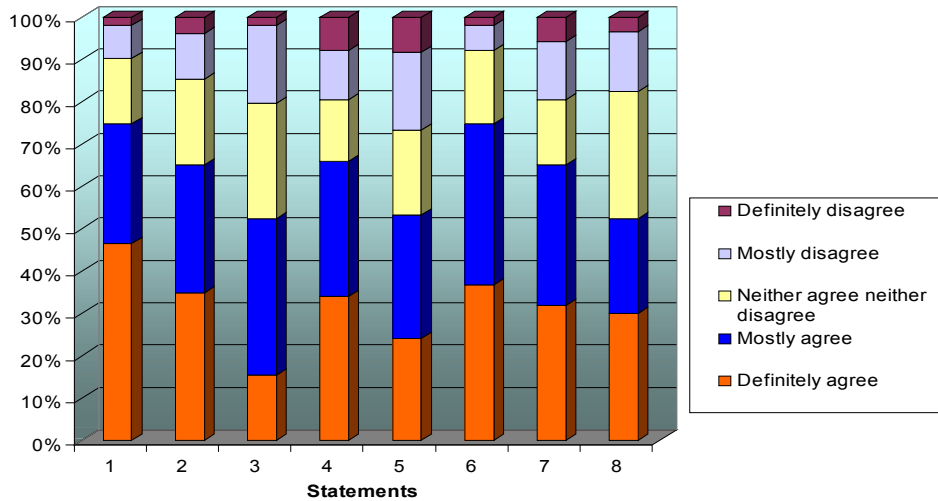
Majority of parents have negative attitude towards child-orientated television advertising.

Respondents were given eight negatively meant statements about child-orientated television advertising. For each statement they ticked one of five boxes which best reflected their opinion.

When evaluating statements the author made frequency table for each of them to find out the proportion of respondents who ticked particular boxes. Detailed tables can be seen in Appendix D.

In order to better understand the results the following graph was made where all statements are put together. It is obvious from the graph that more than 50% of parents definitely or mostly agree with every statement.

Graph 11 Parents' opinions on statements about TV advertising



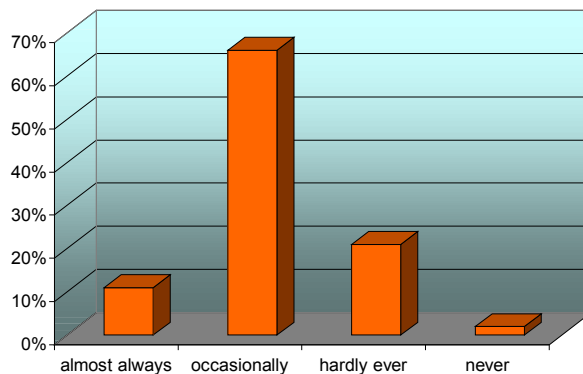
Television advertising...	
1	Manipulates children.
2	Encourages unnecessary consumption.
3	Encourages children to put a high value on material objects.
4	Leads to an increased demand for advertised products.
5	Causes conflict between parents and children because of parental denial of a purchase request.
6	Has effect on children's product choice.
7	Increases children's requests for junk food.
8	Has a significantly negative impact on children's lives.

When having more detailed look on the graph it is interesting to examine particular statements. For example the highest percentages of parents definitely agree that television advertising manipulates children (1) and has negative effect on children's product choice (6). On the other hand the lowest proportion thinks that television advertising encourages children to put a high value on material objects (3). Quite interesting results can be seen in column 5. There is the highest proportion of parents who definitely or mostly disagree with the statement. Also the proportion of respondents who agree is quite low. It means that television advertising as the source of

conflicts between parents and children because of parental denial of a purchase request is considered as the smallest threat when comparing to other statements.

This can be caused by quite high parental willingness to purchase products that children demand. Question concerning this topic was also included in the questionnaire. The results are illustrated in table below.

Graph 12 Do you fulfil your child’s requests?



To summarize previous findings, it can be claimed that the majority of parents have negative attitude towards child-orientated television advertising. Thus, the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis H₀6:

Majority of parents would not support restrictions on television advertising to children.

Alternative hypothesis H₁6:

Majority of parents would support restrictions on television advertising to children.

Following table was made to illustrate the proportion of respondents according to their answers whether they would / would not support restrictions on television advertising to

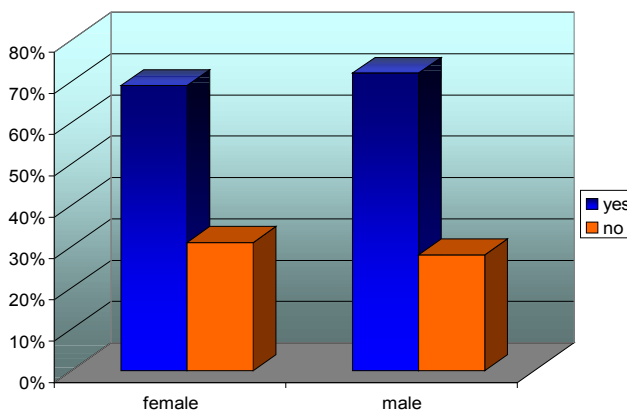
children. When looking through the table it is evident that most parents are suitable for restrictions.

Table 27 Would you support restrictions on television advertising to children?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	72	69,9	69,9	69,9
	no	31	30,1	30,1	100,0
	Total	103	100,0	100,0	

The author considered as interesting to find out if there are differences in responds among men and women. For better illustration a bar graph was made. As the graph show there are no main differences which mean that both mothers and fathers have similar opinion.

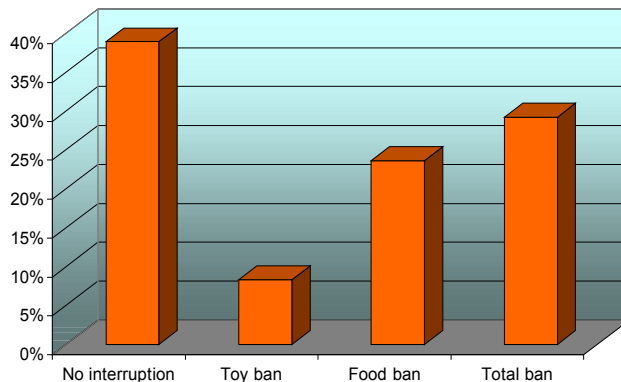
Graph 13 Would you support restrictions on television advertising to children?



The research also includes the question concerning the most appropriate example of restrictions in parental opinion. On the basis of percentage frequency table, a graph illustrating types of restrictions and the proportion of responds was made. As the results below display, the highest percentage of parents (39%) tends to the opinion that children's programs may not be interrupted by children's advertisements. The second most frequent restriction is a total ban on television advertising directed at children chosen by 29% of respondents. A bit lower proportion occupies prohibiting food

advertising and on the last place stays prohibiting toy advertising during children's viewing time.

Graph 14 Types of restrictions



When considering presented information it is possible to draw conclusions about parents and their attitudes to restrictions. It can be claimed that the mood to tighten up the restrictions is in evidence. Above all, the first table shows high percentage of parents who agree with a support of such restrictions. Thus, the alternative hypothesis can be accepted which confirms that majority of parents would support restrictions on television advertising to children.

4.2 Group interview results analysis

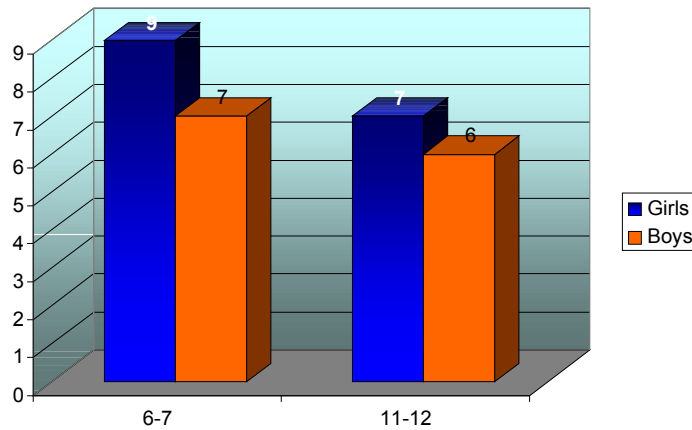
In addition to the questionnaires group interviews were used in order to get children's point of view on the topic. The author organized two group interviews. The first interview was focused on younger children (aged 6, 7) and the second one on older children (aged 11, 12) within participants of the research.

In the first interview participated 16 children aged 6 and 7 years. The second group included only 13 children 11 and 12 years old. Different numbers of participants were caused by the attendance of children in the classrooms within a day when interviews took place. However, this was not important regarding bias in research results.

When taking children's gender into consideration there were more girls than boys among respondents. Their proportion within each group was quite similar. For better

illustration absolute numbers of children according to their age and gender are displayed in table below.

Graph 15 Age and gender of children



With respect to the characteristics of participants the interviews took short time and children were asked only few questions of the author’s interest which are presented in the chapter methodology.

As was expected all children answered that they enjoyed watching television. Responds were quite different to the question whether children like television advertising. In the group of younger children everyone had positive attitude. Compared to the second group, older respondents expressed more cynicism towards advertising. Four of 13 children admitted they did not like watching commercials. Their reasons for this attitude were that television adverts were too long and boring. They also agreed upon the opinion that the worst about commercials was the interrupting the programs they were watching.

In order to find out if there are differences between age groups regarding parental restrictions on television viewing, children were asked easy question whether they could watch television when they want - for example immediately they came home from school. More than a half of younger children said that they were not allowed to switch a television on until they did their homework. When compared to older group, there were only four respondents to answer this way.

Furthermore the author was interested in the most popular adverts. Following table which summarizes responses is divided into two main parts in accordance with interviews. Each part then includes type of advert, number of children who responded that they liked it most and finally there is brief description of adverts. As seen on the left side of the table, younger children’s responses were more influenced by each other because identical answers were more frequent than in the case of older children.

Table 28 Popular adverts identified by children

Children aged 6-7			Children aged 11-12		
Vodafone	5	Funny advert with a small dog	Vodafone	4	Funny advert with a small dog
Kofola	3	Funny advert for Czech soft drink	T-mobile	2	Pop music, young people
Coca-Cola	3	Funny advert for popular soft drink	Cheewing gums	2	Fun, friends
Toys	3	Adverts within child's programming	Whiskas	1	Animals
All adverts	2		LG	1	Friends, music
			No adverts	2	
			All adverts	1	

Children were also asked what they liked about adverts. Younger respondents emphasized adverts with animals, adverts for toys and funny adverts. On the other hand older children preferred music, situations where friend were having fun and adverts which where in their words “cool”.

Last question concerned child-parent purchase relationship. Children were told to imagine that they went shopping with their parents. Then the author asked them question which two products would they request to purchase for them.

Older group which was more skilled in writing, wrote two chosen things down on cards. For younger children was this question more creative. In to order to make answering more enjoyable children should draw the products. Examples of their work can be seen in Appendix E.

To measure the responses products were counted and summarised in table below. As seen there a range of requested products was quite different within younger and older respondents. The first group of children mostly mentioned toys, junk food (including for example ice-cream, bonbons, chocolate bars and pop-corn) and soft drinks (especially Coca-Cola). In comparison to older children they would obviously request less for these types of products. On the other hand they named other products such as sporting goods

and CD's/DVD's. While five older children would like to ask for clothes there is only one respond within younger group.

Table 29 Products chosen by children

Children aged	6-7	11-12
Junk food	9	4
Soft drinks	5	2
Toys	13	3
Clothes	1	5
Books	2	3
Stationery	2	1
Sport. Goods		3
CD's, DVD's		5

4.3 Summary

The results obtained when analysing both research methods - questionnaire and group interview - have been discussed within this chapter. Research findings have been presented in accordance with each hypothesis. These are used in the further discussion.

5 Discussion

The intent of this report was to examine attitudes to child-orientated television advertising with specific focus upon parents and children. Based on reviewing the literature six hypotheses have been stated and analysed in the previous chapter. This section now discusses the results in further details and consults them with the literature review. Moreover some recommendations for further research are highlighted.

5.1 Discussion and recommendation

5.1.1 Hypothesis 1

The first part of the research was to examine children's access to television and the time they spend watching television. The hypothesis related to this intent is following:

H1: The amount of hours children spend watching television depends upon the ownership of a television.

Referring to the literature review it was discovered in the previous research from 2002 that one half of Czech children aged 5 to 14 years have own televisions in their rooms (Mezulanik, 2003).

In order to evaluate the first hypothesis it was necessary to find out which are current conditions. The results concerning ownership of a television are exactly the same as in the year 2002. When surveying 103 children aged 6 to 12 years, in 51 cases it was ascertained that they own a television.

The research pointed out by Mezulanik (2003) also mentioned that children spend watching television 2.3 hours on week-days and 4 hours during the weekend. Although findings in the author's research are bit lower, these almost confirm the results in the literature. In this study children spend in average 1.9 hours on weekdays and 3.8 hours during the weekend watching television which is quite large amount.

Hypothesis 1 concerning whether the amount of hours children spend watching television depends upon its ownership was statistically analysed by One-Way ANOVA test which supported the hypothesis. This means that there exists a dependence previously mentioned by McGinnis et al. (2006). The findings confirm that children who have own television set tend to watch it more than children without own television. The reason why is it so may be related to the fact that the owning a television makes it possible to watch it without parental awareness. When having own television children can watch what they want and whenever they want.

5.1.2 Hypothesis 2

One of the objectives created within this study was to examine the extent to which parents can control their children's access to television and television advertising. Hypothesis referring to this objective is following:

H2: To what degree parents mediate the impact of television advertising on their children depends on their socioeconomic status.

As was mentioned in the literature review parents play important role in moderating the influence of television advertising on their children (Gunter et al., 2005). They can mediate the impact of commercials and thus, help children to understand them. It depends on parents which option they choose to do so. The results illustrate that 60 of 103 respondents control their children's access to television but only 23 of them control their access to television advertising. This may be caused by the fact that it is difficult to control whether children watch commercials. This is possible only in the cases when parents and children watch television together which was the least mentioned option.

Findings presented in the literature review show that to what degree parents adopt their role of mediators depends on their social class and the level of education. It was discovered that parents of higher social class or the level of education limit more exposure to television (Goldberg, 1990).

When testing this hypothesis Pearson's test showed there was any relationship between mediating the impact of television advertising on children and the final level of

respondent's education and the family's net monthly income. Thus, the results of the survey can not support the findings of previous studies.

It is necessary to mention that the research presented in the literature review was quite old and conducted in foreign conditions. The results in this current study are quite different which may be caused by few factors. It may be for example the possibility that parents with higher income are busier and spend significantly bigger amount of time at work than parents within lower social groups. Hence, much working parents can not spend enough time with their children to control their access to television and mediate the impact of commercials on them.

Another factor which was statistically tested is the dependence of the number of televisions children have access to in their homes on families' net monthly income. One-Way ANOVA test proved that there exists such dependence. The results show that the higher net monthly income the family has, the more television the child has access to. Thus, it is more difficult for parents to control children's viewing.

Concerning these findings there might have been negative correlation between the variables tested in hypothesis 2. However, as was mentioned the test proved any relationship probably caused by the selection of the sample where particular education and income groups were very little represented. Also the size of the sample was quite small. Thus, it is recommended for further research to use larger sample size and to select respondents regarding their characteristics.

5.1.3 Hypothesis 3

Another objective created for this research was to examine whether there are differences according to the age of children and the extent to which they are influenced by television advertising. To evaluate this, the following hypothesis was stated:

H3: Advertisement led demand depends on the age of children.

It is assumed that exposure to television commercials leads children to request for advertised products. When children watch commercials they become aware of products

they would like to have (Kinder, 1999). Because they are not usually independent to buy things on their own, they ask their parents to purchase products for them.

Referring to the literature review there are differences in children's requests when compared by age. Findings of a previous research suggest that requests decline as children grow older (Gunter et al., 2005).

Correlation test used to evaluate this hypothesis showed that there is negative correlation which means that the older the children are, the less number of demands they have. The One-Way ANOVA test confirmed that there also exists dependence and thus the hypothesis was supported.

These findings are consistent with the literature. It is obvious that younger children request products seen on television more than older do. Why is it so? It is assumed that younger children are not aware that commercials are made to sell products and to gain profit. They do not understand the main intent of advertisers which is to persuade them as potential buyers to purchase products. Therefore they are more vulnerable to advertising and can be easily influenced which is confirmed by the research findings.

5.1.4 Hypothesis 4

Fourth hypothesis was established in accordance with the objective intended to explore the links between television advertising and subsequent pressure on parents to purchase products for their children. The aim was to find out how children behave when they go shopping with their parents and whether their behaviour is influenced by the viewing time. The hypothesis related to this objective is following:

H4: Children's demand for advertised products depends on the time children spend watching television.

Findings presented in the literature review demonstrate that the time children spend watching television correlates with the amount of their purchasing requests. Gunter et al. (2005) mention the results saying that greater exposure to television advertising lead to more requests.

When evaluating the accuracy of stated hypothesis the author examined the number of products which children request when go shopping with their parents and the average viewing time children spend watching television on weekdays and weekend days. The results from correlation test showed that there is relationship only between demanding for advertised products and the viewing time on weekend days. This may be caused by the fact that during the weekend children spend significantly more time watching television. Thus, they are exposed to more advertisements which influence their demand for advertised products. Moreover, advertisers mainly focus their attention on children exactly during weekend broadcasting time (Ritchie, 1995).

The One-Way ANOVA test which tested whether there is also dependence between these two factors was not significant. Thus, it cannot be claimed that children's demand for advertised products depends on the time they spend watching television which does not support findings presented in the literature.

It is difficult to explain the results. These might relate to many other factors which influence children such as their peers, other kinds of media or parental upbringing. Moreover, because it was not in the power of the author to measure the amount of advertisements children were exposed to, she measured only the time children spend watching television. Thus, it is recommended for further research to examine exactly the relation between the amount of commercials children may see and the number of requests for advertised products.

5.1.5 Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 and Hypothesis 6 were formulated in relation to the objective discussing general parental attitude to child-orientated television advertising.

H5: Majority of parents have negative attitude towards child-orientated television advertising.

In the literature review it has been concluded that parents are often concerned about advertising focused on children (Young et al., 2003). Parental judgement on child-orientated television commercials was examined by presenting them statements about

this topic in accordance with the findings in the literature such as that advertising influences children and encourages them to materialism (Kenway and Bullen, 2001).

The literature also mentioned that most parents are aware that children's demands for products may lead to conflicts within the family. These conflicts usually occur when parents refuse to purchase products because these are for example too expensive or not appropriate for children (Gunter et al. 2005). It is somewhat surprising that from eight statements which were presented to parents, there was the highest proportion of those who disagreed with the statement that television advertising causes conflicts between parents and children because of parental denial of a purchase request.

However, overall results clearly illustrated that percentage of negative responses evidently predominated which means that the hypothesis was supported.

5.1.6 Hypothesis 6

H6: Majority of parents would support restrictions on television advertising to children.

When discussing the previous hypothesis it was confirmed that majority of parents have negative attitude towards child-orientated television advertising.

Concerning television commercials to children from parents' point of view, the author was also interested in their attitude to restrictions. Young et al. (2003) who asked English and Swedish parents about their judgement concluded that most of parents would prefer to regulate advertising more strictly. When asking sample of 103 Czech parents, 73 of them were suitable for restrictions.

In view of the fact that there are no special restrictions on child-orientated television advertising in the Czech Republic the author wanted to find out which example of restrictions parents consider to be the most appropriate. The highest proportion would give priority to the option that children's programs may not be interrupted by child-orientated advertisements. This may confirm that respondents are aware that exactly

during children's programming these commercials are the most frequent (Ritchie, 1995).

5.1.7 Group interview

Both group interviews were to a quite large extent discussed in the research results and analysis chapter. This section will only highlight interesting findings and compare them to those which were presented in the literature review.

Findings are consistent with the literature which mentioned that children enjoy watching television which is for them source of entertainment and information (Ritchie, 1995). Concerning popularity of television advertising older children expressed more critical attitude also in accordance with previous research stating that "with increased understanding comes more cynicism towards advertising" (Gunter et al., 2005:48).

Responds ascertained from question concerning what children liked about advertisements show that younger children preferred adverts with animals, adverts for toys and funny adverts. It can be claimed that their choices correspond with techniques which marketers mainly use to target children such as fun (McGinnis et al., 2006), magic and fantasy play in toy commercials (Gunter et al., 2005).

With a respect to requested products children would predominantly demand for junk food, toys and soft drinks. Exactly these products come under four product categories suggested to be the main focus of advertisers which are toys, candies, cereals and fast-food restaurants (Gunter et al., 2005; Kinder, 1999; Macklin and Carlson, 1999; McGinnis et al., 2006).

Differences in requested products by age were also consistent with the literature review mentioning that younger children aged about seven years usually ask for sweets and toys compared to older children who mostly ask for clothes (Gunter et al. 2005). Within the author's sample older children would obviously request less for food and toys. On the other hand they named other product categories. While quite large proportion of older children would like to ask for clothes there is only one respond within younger group.

6 Conclusion

The intent of this study was to analyse attitudes to child-orientated television advertising in the Czech Republic with a specific focus upon parents and children. To follow this, the primary research has been conducted. By using questionnaires and group interviews the author examined children's access to television and television advertising, subsequent influence of commercials on children and the overall parental opinion of child-orientated television advertising.

This chapter now discusses the conclusion gained from the study and key findings are briefly summarized. Moreover, general limitations of the research are taken into account at the end of this paper.

When returning to the stated hypotheses it can be claimed that:

- The amount of hours children spend watching television depends upon the ownership of a television.

Findings within the sample of Czech children supported this hypothesis and also confirmed the results concluded in the literature review. It would seem logical that owners of a television attend more to watching it than children without a television set in their bedrooms. These findings are quite clear and supported by the fact that owning a television means easier access to it and lower parental awareness of children's viewing time.

- To what degree parents mediate the impact of television advertising on their children does not depend on their socioeconomic status.

Although it might have been expected that there is a relationship between mediating the impact of television advertising on children and families' socioeconomic status measured by final level of education and net monthly income, the results did not support the hypothesis. There was neither positive relationship discovered in the previous

research, nor negative relationship which was probably caused by other incoming factors explained in the discussion.

- Advertisement led demand depends on the age of children.

This hypothesis can be applied on the children surveyed. It was discovered that the younger the children are the more they request to purchase products seen on television. As was mentioned in the literature, younger children understand less the intent of commercials. They are more vulnerable to advertising and thus can be easily influenced.

- Children's demand for advertised products does not depend on the time spent watching television.

The previous hypothesis confirmed that the number of requests depends on the age of the children. However the dependence on the viewing time was not supported. The results disconfirmed findings presented in the literature review suggesting that greater exposure to television advertising leads to more requests (Gunter et al., 2005). Thus, it could be claimed that children within the study were not influenced to such a great extent by television advertising. However, it is necessary to take into account that these findings might not be relevant because the time spent watching television does not determine the amount of commercials which children may see.

- Majority of parents have negative attitude towards child-orientated television advertising.

The findings about parental attitudes illustrate that a large proportion of parents are concerned about advertising focused on children. Their judgement on television commercials was mainly negative which may confirm that parents are aware of the adverse influence of child-orientated television advertising.

- Majority of parents would support restrictions on television advertising to children.

The last hypothesis concerning parental attitudes was not supported. These results again consist with negative attitudes because the number of parents who would prefer to regulate advertising more strictly was very large.

In addition, it is needed to take into account the limitations of this research. Few limitations concerning methods of the research have been already mentioned in the methodology chapter. Moreover, the author would like to highlight some general limitations with respect to the whole research.

According to the literature review there has not been a great deal of research on this topic. Especially in the Czech Republic it was very difficult to find accurate information. Hence, the author's view of this topic might have been slightly biased.

Some of the hypotheses were difficult to evaluate because it was not in the power of the author to measure influencing factors such as the amount of television advertisements children are exposed to. Moreover, there are many other relevant factors which might have influenced the findings such as peers or other kinds of media. It is worth mentioning that mainly parents are those who have a significant role in influencing children's attitudes and values. Thus, parental upbringing may considerably change the extent to which their children are influenced by television advertising.

In conclusion, the results of the study should be considered according to the time, respondents and other conditions in which they were gained. Hence, it is probable that further research in different context might discover different findings.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A: An English version of the final questionnaire

Questionnaire: Child-oriented television advertising

Dear Sir or Madam,

I am a student at the British University of Huddersfield. As a part of my studies the research on the topic "An Analysis of Attitudes to Child-oriented Television Advertising in the Czech Republic" is developed. This questionnaire is anonymous and it will take about 10 minutes to fill it in. In questions with boxes please tick **one** the most appropriate answer.

You will help me to gain necessary information.

Thank you for your co-operation

1. Your child

1.1 Gender: Male Female

1.2 Age: _____

2. Access to television

2.1 How many television sets has your child access to in your home? _____

2.2 Does your child have a television set in its own room? Yes No

2.3 How long does your child usually watch TV on weekdays? _____ hours per day
(Monday through Friday)

2.4 How long does your child usually watch TV on weekend days? _____ hours per day
(Saturday and Sunday)

2.5 Please specify time _____ weekdays
weekend

(Please tick one box in both columns) 07 a.m.-12 a.m.

12 a.m.-05 p.m.

05 p.m.-10 p.m.

2.6 Would you identify 3 most popular programs watched by your child?

.....
.....

2.7 Do you control your child's access to television? Yes No

2.8 If yes, could you please specify how?

.....
.....

- 2.9 Do you control your child access to TV adverts? Yes No
- 2.10 *If yes, could you please specify how?*

- 2.11 Do you make any attempt to mediate the impact of television advertising on your child? (e.g. to talk about adverts to your children, discuss the credibility of the advert or its commercial motivation)
- always* *mostly* *occasionally* *hardly ever* *never*

3. Child-parent purchase relationship

- 3.1 When you go shopping with your child does he/she request to purchase product which have seen on television? Yes No
- If yes...
- 3.2 How many purchase requests does your child make during shopping visit?__
- 3.3 Which type of product does your child mostly request?
- Clothing*
- Toys*
- Food and drinks*
- Others* *Please*
- specify*.....
- 3.4 Do you fulfill your child's request?
always *mostly* *occasionally* *hardly ever* *never*

4. Parent's point of view

- 4.1 Do you agree that television advertising...
- (for each statement please tick one box which best reflects your opinion; numbers mean: 1- definitely agree, 2-mostly agree, 3-neither agree or disagree, 4-mostly disagree, 5-definitely disagree)
- 1 2 3 4 5
- *Manipulates children?*
 - *Encourages unnecessary consumption?*
 - *Encourages children to put a high value on material objects?*
 - *Leads to an increased demand for advertised products?*
 - *Causes conflict between parents and children because of parental denial of a purchase request?*
 - *Has effect on children's product choice?*
 - *Increases children's requests for junk food?*

- *Has a significantly negative impact on children's lives?*

4.2 Would you give support to restrictions on television advertising to children?
Yes No

4.3 If yes, could you tick one example of restriction which do you consider as the most appropriate?

- *Children's programs may not be interrupted by children's advertisements*
- *Prohibiting toy advertising between 7 a.m. and 10 p.m.*
- *Prohibiting food advertising between 7 a.m. and 10 p.m.*
- *A total ban on television advertising directed at children*

5. Classification questions

Following questions will help me to classify your answers statistically. Please fill them in.

5.1. Your gender: Male Female

5.2. Your age: 20-30
31-40
41-50
51-60
60 and more

5.3. Please indicate your highest level of education:

School
Trained
College
Higher education
Graduate
Postgraduate

5.4. Please estimate the family's net monthly income:

Less than 10.000 CZK
11.000 – 20.000 CZK
21.000 – 30.000 CZK
31.000 – 40.000 CZK
41.000 – 50.000 CZK
51.000 CZK and more

Thank you for filling in this questionnaire

Kvetoslava Bartosova

APPENDIX B: The Czech version of the pilot questionnaire

Dotazník: Děti a reklama

Vážená paní/vážený pane,

Jsem studentkou na britské University of Huddersfield. Součástí zakončení mého studia je vypracování bakalářské práce na zvolené téma „Účinky televizní reklamy orientované na děti“. Děti jsou týdně vystavovány hodinám reklamy, a proto jsou snadným cílem marketingových triků a přesvědčovacích technik. Cílovou skupinou mého průzkumu jsou děti ve věku od 6 do 12 let. Tento dotazník je anonymní a k jeho vyplnění budete potřebovat přibližně 10 min. U odpovědí s políčky označte křížkem vždy **jedno** správné pole. Vyplněním dotazníku mi pomůžete ke zjištění potřebných informací.

Děkuji za spolupráci

1. Údaje o dítěti, kterého se dotazník týká:

Pohlaví: *Dívka* *Chlapec*
Věk: ___let

2. Přístup k televizi

- 2.1. Ke kolika televizím má vaše dítě přístup u vás doma? ___
- 2.2. Má vaše dítě televizím ve vlastním pokoji? *Ano* *Ne*
- 2.3. Jak dlouho průměrně sleduje vaše dítě televizi v pracovních dnech? ___ hodin denně
- 2.4. Jak dlouho průměrně sleduje vaše dítě televizi o víkendu? ___ hodin denně
- 2.5. Prosím, určete blíže v jakou dobu: Pracovní dny Víkend
- | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>07:00-12:00</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <i>12:00-17:00</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <i>17:00-22:00</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
- 2.6. Můžete určit, jaké jsou oblíbené pořady vašeho dítěte?
.....
.....
- 2.7. Kontrolujete přístup vašeho dítěte k televizi? *Ano* *Ne*
Jestliže ano, můžete blíže popsat jakým způsobem?
.....
.....

- 2.8. Kontrolujete přístup vašeho dítěte k televizním reklamám? *Ano* *Ne*
Jestliže ano, můžete blíže popsat jakým způsobem?

.....

- 2.9. Pokoušíte se usměrňovat účinek televizních reklam na vaše dítě? (např. mluvíte s vaším dítětem o reklamách, o jejich důvěryhodnosti a pravdivosti)

Vždy *Většinou* *Příležitostně* *Téměř nikdy* *Nikdy*

3. Nakupování

- 3.1. Když jdete nakupovat s vaším dítětem, požaduje produkt, který vidělo v televizní reklamě?

Ano

Ne

Jestliže ano...

- 3.2. Kolik požadavků v průměru vaše dítě učiní během nákupu? ____

- 3.3. Jaký produkt vaše dítě požaduje nejčastěji?

Oblečení

Hračky

Jídlo a pití

Ostatní

- 3.4. Vyhovíte požadavkům vašeho dítěte?

Vždy *Většinou* *Příležitostně* *Téměř nikdy* *Nikdy*

4. Váš postoj vůči reklamě

- 4.1. Souhlasíte s tvrzením, že reklama...

(U každého tvrzení prosím označte jedno pole, které nejvíce vyjadřuje váš názor; čísla znamenají: 1-zcela souhlasím, 2-spíše souhlasím, 3-nemám vyhraněný názor, 4-spíše nesouhlasím, 5-zcela nesouhlasím)

- | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| ▪ <i>Manipuluje dětmi?</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ▪ <i>Podporuje zbytečnou spotřebu?</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ▪ <i>Vede děti ke shromažďování věcí?</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ▪ <i>Vede ke zvyšování požadavků po koupi výrobku z reklamy?</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ▪ <i>Může způsobovat konflikt mezi rodičem a dítětem z důvodu odmítnutí rodiče koupit výrobek z reklamy?</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ▪ <i>Má vliv na výrobky, které si děti vybírají?</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ▪ <i>Zvyšuje požadavky dětí po nezdravých potravinách</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

(produkty s vysokým obsahem tuku a cukru jako např. čokoládové tyčinky, sladké limonády, brambůrky, hamburgery a další)

- Má na děti negativní vliv □□□□

4.2. Podpořil(a) byste omezení televizních reklam zaměřených na děti?

Ano Ne

4.3. Jestliže ano, označte prosím jeden příklad omezení, který považujete za nejvhodnější

- Dětské pořady by neměly být přerušovány dětskými reklamami □
- Zákaz vysílání reklam na hračky v době od 7:00 do 22:00 hodin □
- Zákaz vysílání reklam na nezdravé potraviny v době od 7:00 do 22:00 hodin □
- Úplný zákaz vysílání reklam zaměřených na děti □

5. Klasifikační otázky

Následující otázky slouží ke statistickému vyhodnocení dotazníku. Prosím o jejich vyplnění.

5.1. Vaše pohlaví: Žena Muž

5.2. Váš věk: 20-30
 31-40
 41-50
 51-60
 60 a víc

5.3. Označte stupeň nejvyššího dosaženého vzdělání:

Základní □
 Střední s výučním listem □
 Střední s maturitou □
 Vyšší odborné □
 Vysokoškolské □

5.4. Označte přibližnou výši čistého měsíčního rodinného příjmu:

Méně než 10 000 Kč □
 11 000 – 20 000 Kč □
 21 000 – 30 000 Kč □
 31 000 – 40 000 Kč □

-
- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|
| 41 000 – 50 000 Kč | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 51 000 Kč a víc | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Pokud máte k něčemu připomínky, chtěla bych poprosit o váš komentář.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Děkuji za vyplnění dotazníku

Květoslava Bartošová

APPENDIX C : The Czech version of the final questionnaire**Dotazník: Děti a reklama**

-

Vážená paní/vážený pane,

Jsem studentkou na britské University of Huddersfield. Součástí zakončení mého studia je vypracování bakalářské práce na zvolené téma „Účinky televizní reklamy orientované na děti“. Děti jsou týdně vystavovány hodinám reklamy, a proto jsou snadným cílem marketingových triků a přesvědčovacích technik. Cílovou skupinou mého průzkumu jsou děti ve věku od 6 do 12 let. Tento dotazník je anonymní a k jeho vyplnění budete potřebovat přibližně 10 min. U odpovědí s políčky označte křížkem vždy **jedno** správné pole. Vyplněním dotazníku mi pomůžete ke zjištění potřebných informací.

Děkuji za spolupráci

1. Údaje o dítěti, kterého se dotazník týká:

Pohlaví: *Dívka* *Chlapec*
 Věk: ___let

2. Přístup k televizi

- 2.1. Ke kolika televizorům má vaše dítě přístup u vás doma? ___
- 2.2. Má vaše dítě televizor ve vlastním pokoji? *Ano* *Ne*
- 2.3. Jak dlouho průměrně sleduje vaše dítě televizi v pracovních dnech? ___ hodin denně
- 2.4. Jak dlouho průměrně sleduje vaše dítě televizi o víkendu? ___ hodin denně
- 2.5. Prosím, označte křížkem jedno časové rozmezí v každém sloupci, kdy televizi sleduje nejvíc
- | | Pracovní dny | Víkend |
|--------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>07:00-12:00</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <i>12:00-17:00</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <i>17:00-22:00</i> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- 2.6. Můžete určit, jaké jsou 3 oblíbené pořady vašeho dítěte?

- 2.7. Kontrolujete přístup vašeho dítěte k televizi? *Ano* *Ne*
Jestliže ano, můžete blíže popsat jakým způsobem?

- 2.8. Kontrolujete přístup vašeho dítěte k televizním reklamám? *Ano* *Ne*
Jestliže ano, můžete blíže popsat jakým způsobem?

- 2.9. Pokoušíte se usměrňovat účinek televizních reklam na vaše dítě? (např. mluvíte s vaším dítětem o reklamách, o jejich důvěryhodnosti a pravdivosti)
 Vždy Většinou Příležitostně Téměř nikdy Nikdy

3. Nakupování

- 3.1. Když jdete nakupovat s vaším dítětem, požaduje produkt, který vidělo v televizní reklamě? *Ano* *Ne*
 Jestliže ano...
- 3.2. Kolik požadavků v průměru vaše dítě učiní během nákupu? ____
- 3.3. Jaký produkt vaše dítě požaduje nejčastěji? (Označte jednu možnost)
 Oblečení
 Hračky
 Jídlo a pití
 Ostatní *Prosím upřesněte.....*
- 3.4. Vyhovíte požadavkům vašeho dítěte?
 Vždy Většinou Příležitostně Téměř nikdy Nikdy

4. Váš postoj vůči reklamě

- 4.1. Souhlasíte s tvrzením, že reklama...

(U každého tvrzení prosím označte jedno pole, které nejvíce vyjadřuje váš názor; čísla znamenají: 1-zcela souhlasím, 2-spíše souhlasím, 3-nemám vyhraněný názor, 4-spíše nesouhlasím, 5-zcela nesouhlasím)

- | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| ▪ <i>Manipuluje dětmi?</i> | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ |
| ▪ <i>Podporuje zbytečnou spotřebu?</i> | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ |
| ▪ <i>Vede děti ke shromažďování věcí?</i> | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ |
| ▪ <i>Vede ke zvyšování požadavků po koupi výrobku z reklamy?</i> | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ |
| ▪ <i>Může způsobovat konflikt mezi rodičem a dítětem</i> | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ |

- z důvodu odmítnutí rodiče koupit výrobek z reklamy?
- Má vliv na výrobky, které si děti vybírají?
 - Zvyšuje požadavky dětí po nezdravých potravinách
(produkty s vysokým obsahem tuku a cukru jako např. čokoládové tyčinky,
sladké limonády, brambůrky, hamburgery a další)
 - Má na děti negativní vliv
- 4.2. Podpořil(a) byste omezení televizních reklam zaměřených na děti?
Ano Ne
- 4.3. Jestliže ano, označte prosím jeden příklad omezení, který považujete za nejvhodnější
- Dětské pořady by neměly být přerušovány dětskými reklamami
 - Zákaz vysílání reklam na hračky v době od 7:00 do 22:00 hodin
 - Zákaz vysílání reklam na nezdravé potraviny v době
od 7:00 do 22:00 hodin
 - Úplný zákaz vysílání reklam zaměřených na děti

5. Klasifikační otázky

Následující otázky slouží ke statistickému vyhodnocení dotazníku. Prosím o jejich vyplnění.

- 5.1. Vaše pohlaví: Žena Muž
- 5.2. Váš věk: 20-30
 31-40
 41-50
 51-60
 60 a víc
- 5.3. Označte stupeň nejvyššího dosaženého vzdělání:
- Základní
 - Střední s výučním listem
 - Střední s maturitou
 - Vyšší odborné
 - Vysokoškolské bakalářské
 - Vysokoškolské – Mgr., Ing.
 - Vysokoškolské doktorské
- 5.4. Označte přibližnou výši čistého měsíčního rodinného příjmu:
- Méně než 10 000 Kč
 - 11 000 – 20 000 Kč
 - 21 000 – 30 000 Kč

- 31 000 – 40 000 Kč
- 41 000 – 50 000 Kč
- 51 000 Kč a víc

Děkuji za vyplnění dotazníku

Květoslava Bartošová

APPENDIX D: Parents' opinions of statements about television advertising

1. TV advertising manipulates children

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid definitely agree	48	46,6	46,6	46,6
mostly agree	29	28,2	28,2	74,8
neither agree neither disagree	16	15,5	15,5	90,3
mostly disagree	8	7,8	7,8	98,1
definitely disagree	2	1,9	1,9	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

2. TV advertising encourages unnecessary consumption

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid definitely agree	36	35,0	35,0	35,0
mostly agree	31	30,1	30,1	65,0
neither agree neither disagree	21	20,4	20,4	85,4
mostly disagree	11	10,7	10,7	96,1
definitely disagree	4	3,9	3,9	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

3. TV advertising encourages children to put a high value on material objects

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid definitely agree	16	15,5	15,5	15,5
mostly agree	42	40,8	40,8	56,3
neither agree neither disagree	24	23,3	23,3	79,6
mostly disagree	19	18,4	18,4	98,1
definitely disagree	2	1,9	1,9	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

4. TV advertising leads to an increased demand for advertised products

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid definitely agree	35	34,0	34,0	34,0
mostly agree	33	32,0	32,0	66,0
neither agree neither disagree	15	14,6	14,6	80,6
mostly disagree	12	11,7	11,7	92,2
definitely disagree	8	7,8	7,8	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

5. TV advertising causes conflicts between parents and children because of parental denial of a purchase request

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid definitely agree	29	28,2	28,2	28,2
mostly agree	30	29,1	29,1	57,3
neither agree neither disagree	12	11,7	11,7	68,9
mostly disagree	22	21,4	21,4	90,3
definitely disagree	10	9,7	9,7	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

6. TV advertising has effect on children's product choice

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid definitely agree	38	36,9	36,9	36,9
mostly agree	39	37,9	37,9	74,8
neither agree neither disagree	18	17,5	17,5	92,2
mostly disagree	6	5,8	5,8	98,1
definitely disagree	2	1,9	1,9	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

7. TV advertising increases children's requests for junk food

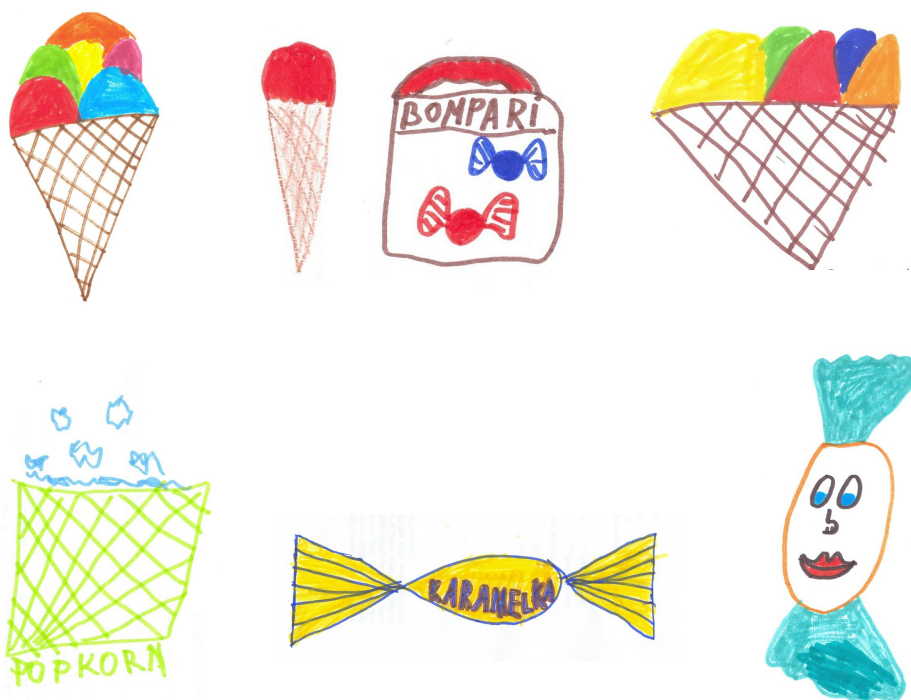
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid definitely agree	33	32,0	32,0	32,0
mostly agree	34	33,0	33,0	65,0
neither agree neither disagree	16	15,5	15,5	80,6
mostly disagree	14	13,6	13,6	94,2
definitely disagree	6	5,8	5,8	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

8. TV advertising has a significantly negative impact on children's lives

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid definitely agree	36	35,0	35,0	35,0
mostly agree	27	26,2	26,2	61,2
neither agree neither disagree	36	18,4	18,4	79,6
mostly disagree	17	16,5	16,5	96,1
definitely disagree	4	3,9	3,9	100,0
Total	103	100,0	100,0	

APPENDIX E: Examples of children's work

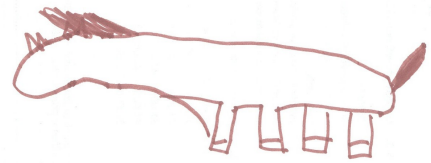
1 Junk food



2 Soft drinks



3 Toys



4 Clothes

