

An Investigation of Television Advertising Risks Affecting South African Children

by

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Thesis

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AAA	Association of Advertising Agencies
AANA	Australian Association of National Advertisers
ACMA	Australian Communications and Media Authority
AIDA	Action for Attention, Interest, Desire
APCON	Advertising Practitioner’s Council of Nigeria
ASA	Advertising Standards Authority (South Africa)
ASA	Australian Advertising Standards
ASAS	Advertising Standards Authority of Singapore
ASASA	Advertising Standards Authority of South Africa
ASB	Advertising Standards Bureau
ASC	Advertising Standards Canada
ASOM	Association of Marketers
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BCAP	Broadcast Committee of Advertising Practice
BCCSA	Broadcasting Complaints Commission of South Africa
BMI	Body Mass Index
CAP	Committee of Advertising Practice
CARU	Children’s Advertising Review Unit
CASE	Consumer’s Association of Singapore
CBBB	Council of Better Business Bureaus
CFAC	Coalition on Food Advertising to Children
CGCSA	Consumer Goods Council of South Africa
DOH	Department of Health
DSTV	Digital Satellite Television
DVD	Digital Video Disk
EDNP	Energy-Dense/Nutrient-Poor

EU	European Union
FPB	Film and Publication Board
FSA	Food Standards Agency
FTC	Federal Trade Commission
HFSS	High fat, sugar and salt
IAA	International Advertising Association
IBA	Independent Broadcasting Authority
ICASA	Independent Communications Authority of South Africa
ICC	International Chamber of Commerce
IOM	Institute of Medicine
IOTF	International Obesity Task Force
M-Net	Media Network
NAB	National Association of Broadcasters
NAR	National Advertising Council
NARC	National Advertising Review Council
NCD	Non-communicable disease
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NNTV	National Network Television
NPU	Newspaper Press Union
Ofcom	Office of Communication (UK)
PMA	Print Media Association
SA	South Africa
SAARF	South Africa Advertising Research Foundation
SABC	South Africa Broadcasting Cooperation
SMS	Short Message Service
SRO	Self-regulatory organisation
TSS	Top Sports Surplus
TV	Television
UK	United Kingdom
UNCRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
US	United States (short for the United States of America)
USA	United States of America
WHA	World Health Assembly

WHO World Health Organization

Declaration

I declare that the thesis hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in Media, Communication and Information Studies, titled **An Investigation of Television Advertising Risks Affecting South African Children**, has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university; that is my work in design and execution, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

Mr Saeed M.I.M

Date

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this study to my parents Batual and Ibrahim Mahadi Saeed, who provided me with the foundation of ongoing education. They sacrificed their personal priorities and made every effort possible for me to be here today.

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ABSTRACT

This study sets out to investigate one of the significant issues in television advertising, namely, how television advertising affects South African children. The purpose of the study was to investigate whether television advertising and its inherent risks affect South African children, as the researcher believed that it was crucial to explore the nature of television advertising directed at children.

A quantitative research approach was selected, and a descriptive research design approach was adopted to achieve the purpose of the study, so that it could answer the research questions. The population of this study is learners in Grade 2 to Grade 7, between the ages of 8 and 13 years old; learners (male and female) from 25 primary schools (4 independent and 21 public), with the total (N = 19 651) learner enrolment in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District. A sample consisting of 381 learners was selected from the 25 primary schools (4 independent and 21 public) in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn District to take part in the study. Data were collected using a survey questionnaire. The specialist statistician consultancy captured data through the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Data were analysed and are presented in the form of narrative reports as well as bar graphs, pie charts and cross-tabulations. Descriptive statistics were used to execute the data analysis.

The findings revealed that most of the South African learners/children felt that TV advertisements have a certain level of influence on their behaviour. This was especially the case among those older than 10 years but younger than 13-years old. Both male and female children share the perception that TV overall and advertising on TV influence their behaviour. They stated that children lack the knowledge or skills and the ability to protect themselves against such influences. However, the results suggested that South African children are very often protected from too many negative influences as they agreed that their parents choose which TV programmes they watch, decide on the hours spent watching TV, and that they are strict regarding TV watching. Also, the findings suggested that children in these age groups or the studied grades had neutral perceptions of the value of television advertisements.

The study recommends that more studies, locally, regionally, and internationally, are needed on the nature of television advertising directed at children.

Keywords: An Investigation, Television, Advertising Risks, Affecting, South African Children.

CHAPTER 1

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

Television is one of the strongest advertising media due to its ability to reach the masses. It can influence not only an individual's attitude, behaviour and lifestyle, but also the culture of a country. It is a universal phenomenon that children are the most at risk when it comes to the exposure to and the influence by television programmes and advertising flighted on television. The magnitude of such influence varies from child to child, depending on factors such as the child's age and individual characteristics, their viewing patterns (including the duration of television watching), the types of programmes watched, and the guidance provided by the parents (UI Abideen & Salaria, 2009).

In South Africa, children spend a lot of time watching television or surfing the internet, while simultaneously consuming an ever-growing volume of 'junk food', such as takeaways, deep-fried foods, and fizzy drinks (Somers, Hassan, Rusford & Erasmus, 2006). Television viewing affects both energy expenditure and, importantly, energy intake. Long hours spent in front of a television set thus reduces the time children spend outdoors, on physical exercise. Added to this challenge is the fact that foods, typically those that are calory dense such as chocolates, biscuits, and fizzy soft drinks, are frequently advertised on television programmes aimed at children and teenagers, motivating them to eat such foods. Young South African children are thus more likely to become increasingly obese over time (Somers et al., 2006).

Children are not always sufficiently protected against outside harmful influences, and this happens for a wide variety of reasons. Sometimes, the lack of protection and resultant exposure to the risks originate within the family and the role of the parents, where they or other family members are either unwilling or unable to provide children with the necessary protection. Such risks are also increased in some economic, social, and political environments of the communities in which families live, and can be situational, for example, many children live in a world where emergencies (both natural and human-made) disrupt their daily routines to such an extent that they are placed in harm's way (Wulczyn, Daro, Fluke, Feldman, Glodek & Lifanda, 2010).

Across the world, there is a general recognition that childhood confers a special status upon children, which includes an acknowledgement of their vulnerability and need for protection. Yet, what form this protection should and does take, is far from universal. Differences in child protection responsibilities and strategies are tied to geographical, political, and social history; religion, wealth, and social structures; and a more general sense of purpose that blends cultural beliefs about how to protect children from everyday uncertainties or harm (Wulczyn et al., 2010).

Since 1994, South Africa has been taking steps to promote democracy, peace, security, environmental protection, sustainable development, poverty eradication, and regional integration (RSA, 2008). Yet, many hurdles still stand in the way of achieving these aspirational outcomes, not least of which are the lack of scientific data and analysis of vulnerable groups, which includes children. If the children of South Africa – who represent the government officials, entrepreneurs, and business leaders of the future – are to be guided appropriately, it is essential to conduct an investigation into the potential risks to children. Part of these risks is the influence on children of the media and an investigation into this field will identify the risks to which children's minds and bodies are being exposed via increasingly innovative and persuasive (yet often dangerously subtle) television and online advertising. The results of this study could further help to inform regional and even global studies on the impact of such advertising on children.

This study has not previously been undertaken in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn District, Limpopo Province.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

The research problem can be stated as follows: Television advertising can have significant and adverse effects on children's mental and physical health, attitudes, and behaviour. This means that children are not always adequately protected and they run the risk of becoming the 'victims' of television advertising. This study fills a knowledge gap in terms of how exposure of children to television advertising can lead to overweight, obesity, misbehaviour, aggression, negative social values, a preference for and consumption of unhealthy foods, eating disorders, and unreasonable purchase requests. As the purpose of the study was to investigate

whether television advertising and its inherent risks affect South African children, the researcher believes that it is important to first explore the nature of television advertising directed at children.

1.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

The researcher conducted a review of the available literature to arrive at an understanding of the concerns, implications, and perceptions surrounding the possible effects of television advertising on South African children. Several types of publications, including books, journals, conference papers, research reports, articles, academic databases, and online sources, were consulted during the process of the literature review.

1.3.1 Global views

Several studies suggested that some marketers, across a range of product-based industries, were using negative themes in their advertisements (Brocato, Gentile, Laczniak, Maier & Ji-Song, 2010; Jones, Cunningham & Gallagher, 2010), including food advertisements (Pettigrew, Roberts, Chapman, Quester & Miller, 2012). Exposure to overwhelmingly adverse influences is more likely to increase vulnerability than build immunity to such influences (Masten & Narayan, 2012).

Some studies have also investigated the non-advertising-related effects of screen time on dietary intake among children. According to a survey of Canadian children (Liang, Kuhle & Veugelers, 2009), eating dinner in front of the television correlates with a poor quality diet and increased body mass, independent of total time spent watching television. Furthermore, results from a more recent systematic review of laboratory-based studies indicate that those exposed to TV or computer screens (in the absence of advertising) consistently increase their acute energy intake, in contrast to control groups that have not been exposed to TV or computer screens (Marsh, Mhurchu & Maddison, 2013).

According to Powell, Szczypka, Chaloupka and Braunschweig (2007), evidence-based research revealed that watching food advertisements on television greatly influences children's behaviour and food choices, often resulting in unhealthy dietary habits, purchase requests for high-calorie, low-nutrient products, and resultant obesity. Studies indicated that the most commonly advertised products are soft

drinks, fast-foods, sweets, and other high-calorie foods of little nutritional value (Harrison & Marske, 2005). Since children are very interested in the food messages presented in television commercials, misperceptions about the healthiness of the advertised foods may develop, their consumption of such foods may increase, and their consumption of fruits and vegetables may consequently decrease (Feldman, Eisenberg, Neumark & Story, 2007), except if parents closely watch and control what their children have access to and what they consume.

Recent evidence also shows that there is a greater adverse effect on dietary quality as a result of increased fast-food consumption among low-income as compared to high-income children and adolescents, and among black as compared to white adolescents (Powell et al., 2014:129). Evidence from studies conducted in California shows that black and Hispanic students enrolled in low-income and urban schools have a significantly higher correlation between body weight and proximity to fast-food restaurants, as compared to white students at higher-income, suburban schools (Grier & Davis, 2013; Powell et al., 2014).

1.3.2 South African views

The Department of Health (RSA, 2008a) reported that in South Africa, malnutrition is characterised not only by undernutrition but also by overnutrition. In this regard, studies showed that obesity affects not only adults in South Africa; all age groups are at risk. A study by Naidoo (2008) indicated that fast-food is becoming increasingly popular in South Africa, with local teenagers' appetite for junk food exceeding that of children in the United States of America (US). In fact, South African children are consuming more junk food per week than their US counterparts (Naidoo, 2008).

A study by Da Fonseca (2010) on South African parents' perceptions of food advertising on TV directed at children was conducted at a crèche in Vanderbijlpark, South Africa. The study revealed that parents perceive it to be unacceptable for food to be advertised to children during their television viewing hours, particularly advertisements for unhealthy/less healthy food. The participants largely agreed that advertising influences their children's food preferences and eating habits. Parents believe that although regulations exist, these are ineffective in protecting children against advertisers (Da Fonseca, 2010).

1.4 ROLE OF THEORY IN THE STUDY

This study adopts the theories of cognitive development and social responsibility, as these pertain to television advertising and its effects on children. Mertens (1998) stated that the theoretical framework of a research project relates to the philosophical aspects and practical components of an investigation. These theories are briefly discussed below.

The theory of cognitive development covers all the changes that result from the phenomena of perceiving, remembering, reasoning, deciding, and problem-solving as part of the mental process (Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith & Nolen, 1999). Cognitive development in children, according to Piaget's theory, has four stages. They are: sensorimotor (aged 0-2), pre-operation (aged 2-7), concrete operation (aged 7-11), and formal operation (aged 11 and older). Piaget's theory claims that an individual cannot skip one stage and already move to another (Senemoğlu, 2011). Besides the abilities that are associated with each cognitive development stage, differences can also be displayed according to various specific situations such as a child's lifestyle, environmental factors, and readiness levels (Ömeroğlu & Kandir, 2007). This study will be concentrating on the concrete operation and formal operation stages.

The social responsibility theory is used to examine whether or not advertising is meeting its social responsibilities toward society. McQuail (1987) identified the basic principles of the social responsibility theory as follows:

- The media should accept that they have certain responsibilities toward society;
- The media should meet their responsibilities by setting professional standards for the supply of information and ensure that they supply the truth, accuracy, objectivity and balance in their reporting;
- The media should self-regulate within the framework of the law and established institutions;
- The media should avoid publicising information that can enhance the likelihood of or even lead to crimes, violence or social disruption, and avoid publicising any information that can offend ethnic or religious minorities;
- The media collectively should represent all social groups and reflect the diversity of society by giving people access to a variety of viewpoints and the right to react to these points of view;

- Society is entitled to expect high professional standards from the media, and intervention is justifiable if the media fail to meet these standards (Fourie, 2007).

These theories have contributed to the analysis of the ways the media, advertisers and controlling bodies were thinking about children and television advertising, and the associated short-term and long-term risks to children. These theories will help to promote the understanding of television advertising and its effects on children, and thus whether television advertising poses a risk of negatively affecting South African children.

1.5 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY AND THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.5.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to investigate television advertising risks affecting South African children, specifically those currently at school-going age, ranging from Grade 2 to Grade 7.

1.5.2 Research questions

The questions of this study are as follows:

- What are the views of South African children regarding television advertising?
- Are South African children adequately protected against the influence from television advertising?
- What are the behavioural effects of television advertisements on South African children?
- Do the behavioural effects differ between the four groups of the questionnaire?

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.6.1 Research design

In this study, a quantitative research approach was selected as the most suitable for the study. A descriptive research design approach was adopted. The descriptive approach was particularly appropriate because an accurate and authentic description was required for the investigation of whether or not television advertising and its inherent risks affect South African children. Descriptive research is devoted to

the gathering of information about prevailing conditions or situations for the purpose of description and interpretation. This type of research method does not simply entail the collection and tabulating of facts; it includes proper analyses, interpretations, comparisons, and identification of trends and relationships (Salaria, 2012).

1.6.2 Instruments

In quantitative research, validity, reliability, and objectivity are the tools of an essential epistemology (Golafshani, 2003). For this study, a pilot study was used as a measure to ensure validity, reliability, and objectivity.

A pilot study is a replication of the main study on a small scale (Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz, 1998). Van Teijlingen and Handley (2001) proposed that a pilot study is useful for identifying potential problems within a study. This is achieved by testing the adequacy of the research instrument, determining the effectiveness of a sample frame, and assessing the proposed data analysis techniques to uncover potential problems. Furthermore, a pilot study assists in identifying whether the questions are worded appropriately, and it determines the time required to use the measuring instrument (Dondolo, 2014).

Pre-tests were administered to a limited number of 8 to 13-year old children (N = 10; male and female); that is, children in Grade 2 up to Grade 7. The selected participants were enrolled in primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District. This group of participants did not form part of the pilot test or the main sample of this study. During this phase, the content validity index (CVI) of the questionnaire was evaluated by determining how easily the participants comprehended the questionnaire, and whether the questions were written in an understandable way.

After the pre-test had been completed and the necessary changes to the questionnaire effected, the questionnaire was piloted on a convenience sample of 16 children. This pilot test was undertaken to verify the reliability of the scale. The sample was selected purposively: children ranging from 8 to 13-years of age, who were in Grade 2 up to Grade 7 and who would not form part of the main sample. The selected participants were enrolled in primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District.

The children were asked to complete the questionnaire during their class time, on a daily basis for one week, at the same time of the day. The responses to each question were ranked on a five-point Likert scale running from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. A Likert scale is a psychometric response scale often used in questionnaires and is the most widely used scale in survey research. McDaniel and Gates (2010) suggest that a Likert scale is commonly used because the participants find it easy to complete. Factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha values were used to verify the validity and reliability of the scales (Roets, 2013).

1.6.2.1 Validity

Validity requires that a tool measures what it sets out to measure. There are several measures of validity that provide evidence of the quality of a study. Internal and external validity relates to the overall study design. Measures used to evaluate the validity of data collection tools are: content, CVI, criterion and construct validity (Twycross & Shields, 2004). In this study, CVI was applied as the most suitable for the study. The tool must be perceived as measuring what it says it is measuring. CVI is the most widely used index in quantitative evaluation. The researcher asks a few people to check that the tool covers all areas. A more rigorous method to estimate CVI is to ask recognised experts in the area to provide their opinions on the validity of the tool (Twycross & Shields, 2004; Shi, Mo & Sun, 2012).

1.6.2.2 Reliability

Joppe (2000) defined reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time. An accurate representation of the total population in a study is required for reliability. If the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable (Golafshani, 2003).

The most common index is Cronbach's (1951) alpha coefficient. This statistic measures the internal consistency of an instrument as an estimate of its reliability, by comparing the variance of the total score with the variances of the scores on the constituent items. This measure is regarded as a useful indicator of the reliability of a test instrument (Braun, Woodley, Richardson & Leidner, 2012). The Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency that ranges between 0 and 1, where 0 signifies the minimum (none) and 1 signifies the maximum (perfect). The acceptable

alpha value ranges from 0.70 to 0.95 (Nunnally, 1978; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). In this study, these reliability measurement procedures were consistently applied.

1.6.2.3 Objectivity

Objectivity is the empirical guideline holding that the research process and design must be free of personal bias and prejudice. It rests on the belief that facts and values should be kept apart, and that research should focus on what is, and not on what ought to be. Objectivity reflects value-neutrality (Sarantakos, 2005). For this study, the same procedures used in reliability measurement were followed. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programme was utilised for data analysis.

1.6.3 Population

The population of this study were Grade 2 to Grade 7 learners, between the ages of 8 and 13-years old, boys and girls from 25 primary schools (6 independent and 19 public) with the total (N = 19651) learner enrolment in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District.

1.6.3.1 Sampling

This study adopted a convenience non-probability technique to select participants of the sample. Sampling involves taking a portion of a population or universe and considering it to be representative of that population or universe. The term 'universe' refers to all potential subjects who possess the attributes that the researcher is interested in, whereas 'population' refers to individuals in the universe who possess specific characteristics or to a set of entities that represent all the measurements of interest to the practitioner or researcher (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2005).

The sample consisted of 377 children who were selected from the 25 primary schools (6 independent and 19 public) in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District to take part in the study, calculated by an automated software programme (Rao software sample size calculator) from the total (N =19 651). The margin of error was 4.99% at a 95% chance of getting the correct answer/result, suggesting that the sample was a good representation of the population for the study. However, four

individuals were added to make provision for possible validity testing during the study. A sample size of 381 children was thus used for the study. This is the minimum recommended size for a survey.

1.6.2.2 Sample procedures

In this study, a convenience sample of 381 children was carefully chosen from 25 primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District. A volunteer teacher from each school was chosen to be involved in arranging the survey among the individual classes participating in the research project. The samples were selected because they were accessible to the researcher. Subjects were chosen simply because they were easy to recruit. This technique is considered the easiest, cheapest, and the least time-consuming.

1.6.3 Data collection

Data collection was conducted by using questionnaires designed by the researcher, to address the research questions. Also, a self-administered questionnaire was designed using the scales (see Appendix A). This was a suitable method to measure television advertising risks that could be affecting South African children. The researcher and his assistant explained the questions to the children for the sake of clarity before they completed the questionnaires on a daily basis.

Questionnaires were administered to a convenience sample of 381 Grade 2 to Grade 7 children. They ranged in age from 8 to 13 years, and were selected from 25 primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District, through the scheduling method of primary data collection. All participants completed a self-administered questionnaire that included four sections. The items were ranked on five-point Likert scales, running from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

The self-administered questionnaires were distributed by hand with the assistance of the selected teachers at the respective schools. The questionnaires were handed to the participating children who completed them on their own, but the researcher (or the assisting teacher) was available in case problems were experienced. The researcher limited his own contribution to the completion of the questionnaires to the absolute minimum to avoid any influence or bias. The researcher mostly remained in

the background and at most encouraged the participants, with a few words, to continue with their contributions or to lead them back to the subject (De Vos et al., 2005).

1.6.4 Data analysis

In this study, the collected data were analysed using computer software. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and IBM SPSS Statistics version 22 were used to execute the data analysis. SPSS is a useful software package for questionnaire surveys, because it is flexible and easy to use. Basic descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, and mean) were used to analyse data for the four sections of the questionnaire. Inferential statistics, including the *t*-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), factor analysis, and post-hoc analysis were used to compare the perceptions of the four groups. A one-way of the variance (1-ANOVA) was used to test the data. Data are presented in the form of tables, percentages, graphics, frequencies, and charts.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of the study is found in the extremely influential role of advertising in persuading people to buy a specific product or service, specifically through the medium of television. Children are widely acknowledged as needing exceptionally high levels of care and protection, so that they can also develop a sensible attitude toward advertising campaigns they are exposed to on television.

The research is a highly relevant and advanced study of the risk of television advertising that could be negatively affecting South African children. This study provides valuable insights for the government, development agencies, business (especially the advertising fraternity) and civil society (notably parents and teachers). The findings from the study put into sharper focus the forces at play in terms of television advertising directed at children. Furthermore, the results of the study should contribute to the establishment, and ongoing monitoring and assessment of child-specific regulations related to television advertising: locally, regionally, and internationally.

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical clearance was obtained from the Turfloop Research and Ethics Committee (TREC), and the Department of Education as gatekeepers. Permission to conduct the study was requested from the schools for distribution of the questionnaires to the children and families. An informed consent form, summarising the aim and objectives of the research, was provided to schools for distribution to children and their families. All participants were issued with a letter informing them of the intention of the study, requesting their participation, and a consent form for the parents/guardians to sign once they had decided to let their children participate. Participating children's parents/guardians were informed that participation in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw from the process at any stage with no negative implications for doing so. They also were informed that whatever they said would be kept confidential. Both forms were available in English and Northern Sotho. Informed consent was obtained from all participants and parents/guardians. The South African Children's Act 38 of 2005 emphasises the protection, development and well-being of children from exploitation, physical, emotional, and moral harm. Given the sensitivity of the research matter under study, it was possible that some participating children could have shown adverse emotional reactions during investigation. Participants showing these emotional reactions would then be referred to a clinical psychologist at the nearest public hospital for counselling.

1.8.1 Parent consent

Permission to conduct the study was requested from and granted by the schools for distribution to the children and families. Consent was obtained from the parent, guardian, carer or other appropriate adult with a duty of care (see Appendix B); assent was also sought from the respective child. The volunteers that assisted the researcher with the recruitment of participants handed in information sheets and consent forms to the participants at the relevant home, so that the parents were informed of the study and could give their consent.

1.8.2 Informed consent

For the participants to take part in the study, their (and their parents'/guardians') written consent was obtained (see Appendix C). Clear language that the participants understand was used to explain the aim and objectives of the study, thereby

ensuring that they made an informed decision as to whether or not to participate. The participants were informed that they had the right to participate or could refuse to do so without penalties. The researcher ensured that all the participants were eligible to give consent.

1.8.3 Respect and dignity

The researcher followed the Convention on the Rights of the Child, where child means 'every human being below the age of eighteen years of age unless in the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier'. The dignity of all participants was maintained. To ensure that there was no invasion of privacy, no information was requested or shared without the participants' knowledge or against their will. This is an acknowledgement of the fact that invasion of an individual's privacy could cause loss of dignity, or a feeling of anxiety, guilt, embarrassment or shame'. The information-gathering methods that were used during the survey were explained to the participants, thereby ensuring scientific rigour in the research and adherence to professional codes of conduct.

1.8.4 Privacy and confidentiality

The researcher ensured privacy and confidentiality of the participants by not using their real names in the research data and also by allowing the participants to agree or disagree regarding who could have access to the information generated from the research.

1.8.4 Harm and risk

The researcher guaranteed that no participants would be placed in a situation where they could be harmed as a result of their participation, either physically or psychologically. The researcher asked children about their feelings, opinions and experiences, observing the children's behaviour and analysing information contained in records about children.

1.8.5 Voluntary participation

Notwithstanding these safety measures, the participants were informed that the research was for academic purposes only and that their participation would be voluntary. No-one was forced to participate. These ethical guidelines were consistently applied when the research was conducted.

1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT

This study is divided into six chapters, which are briefly summarised in their chronological order as follows;

Chapter 1: Research Background

This chapter outlines the research background and motivation. It also gives a brief background to the objectives of the study. It portrays the background to television advertising and its inherent risks affecting South African children, the problem statement, literature review, research design, research methodology, data collection instruments, data analysis, and limitations to the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter 2 outlines the different concepts related to advertising on television and its effects on children, with a comprehensive theoretical basis for defining the research problem and formulating the research questions. Theoretical approaches related to television advertising directed at children will be discussed.

Chapter 3: Child Protection and Regulation of Advertising to Children

This chapter aims to give an overview of the theoretical background to and principles of advertising regulations and child protection, and offers a visual overlay or framework that can help guide child protection policymakers, administrators, and practitioners toward a fuller understanding of the difficulties in terms of defining a child to regulate advertising directed at children.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

The chapter focuses on the method that was adopted in the study. A quantitative research approach was selected as the most suitable for the study. A descriptive research design approach was taken; sampling as well as the data collection instruments were explored in detail.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Interpretation

This chapter explains the processes followed in analysing data collected by means of a questionnaire and the interpretation thereof. It also discusses the results found in the study.

Chapter 6: Findings, Recommendations and Conclusion

Findings and recommendations are drawn from the data discussed in Chapter 5. Recommendations for further studies are also suggested for future researchers. To this end, the chapter presents the results when compared to previous literature on television advertising and its effects on children, and studies conducted previously on television advertising.

1.10 SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the background and motivation of the study, formulated the problem statement, literature review, described the role of theory in the study and addressed the purpose and questions of the study. The researcher also briefly discussed the research methodology and design, population and sample, data collection and analysis techniques; the significance of the study and ethical considerations were also stated. The following chapter will focus on the literature review.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review that is presented in this chapter focuses on television advertising and its effects on children. It provides a comprehensive theoretical basis for defining the research problem and formulating the research questions. Theoretical approaches related to television advertising directed at children will be discussed. The review should provide an insight into the work that has been carried out in the subject area, preparing the reader for the study that is to follow.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The world is changing rapidly, and in line with all the changes, our values seem to be changing too. The impact of globalisation, changes in the structure of families and communities, and exposure of individuals as well as communities to digitalisation, a wide range of media and changes in social cohesion or norms have seen a change in society, which has expressed itself in the form of diminishing or at least different social values. Some long cherished and adhered to social values seem to become eroded; moral values have become fragmented, and society is facing an unprecedented cultural evasion (Singh & Sandhu, 2011). Therefore, the mass media play a powerful and pervasive role in framing society's beliefs, perceptions, and shared emotions. Social issues have shaped our attitudes toward them (Gattino & Tartaglia, 2015).

McLuhan (1964) stated that "The medium is the message", and mass communication was not about "the size of the audience, but the fact that everybody becomes involved". McLuhan indicated that consumers are not immune to advertising stimuli; instead, the various components of advertising and communication, the message and the creative execution may all together work to influence consumers (Spielmann & Richard, 2013).

With the availability of new media, networks, and satellite television in the global arena, children will be more exposed to the effects of various types of media and their messages. Thus, the potential impact of the messages and advertising shown

on television on young viewers is becoming more prevalent. Besides the influence of the family, the role of television programmes and personalities is one of the most critical factors in forming a child's education (Asadollahi & Tanha, 2011).

Television viewing time has increased, obviously also influenced by programmes being available around the clock, and time spent on other activities, such as play, reading, and family interaction, has correspondingly decreased. This trend has been of primary concern to educators and healthcare professionals as well as other community-based and religious groups, for not only does the trend have implications for learning and health, but it carries subtle implications for community gathering and civic involvement (Palmer & Sullivan, 2008). Where parents are working, children are often left to their own choices and watching TV or surfing the internet has become a favourite occupation among children. Many parents are also only too glad when they can continue their own tasks and their children are 'kept quiet' by watching TV. Watching television programmes and learning programmes offered via television are thus part of most children's daily lives.

Children are not consciously aware that their behaviour and the behaviour of others is an acquired pattern, often copied from what they experience or watch in others. The effectiveness of such copying mechanism can be considered as one of the most critical aspects of television programmes. The impact of television advertisements on a lot of viewers, especially children, makes it the most influential instrument of mass communication (Asadollahi & Tanha, 2011).

Advertising, as an important source of information, is present on television and radio, in newspapers and magazines, flyers, billboards and sports stadiums, and the internet, social media, and on branded items. Virtually no-one is immune to being exposed to it (Dave & Kelly, 2014). Advertising is a multi-million-dollar industry worldwide, and typically, the promoted food products do not only reflect the recommended healthy diets (Boyland & Halford, 2011). An increasing variety of media is also used to communicate advertising messages to children, other than the online media. However, television remains one of the most powerful sources of communication (Boyland & Halford, 2011). Moreover, television is an excellent medium to provide information and entertainment to people. Television can thus also be instrumental in shaping new ideas and opinions (Lotter, 2005).

The most efficient aspect of an advertisement is to persuade a consumer to purchase a new product. Advertisers believe in the power of advertising to achieve a purchase intention, besides being used to achieve a change of opinion, creating favourable images or reinforcing positive views. Extensive exposure to advertising may affect the attitudes or values that the youth hold regarding consumption, money, and even physical appearance (Strasburger, Wilson & Jordan, 2014).

Advertising is a form of paid communication between a business, and its (potential) customers or consumers, which uses external or internal media to communicate positive messages about a good or service. Companies utilise advertising to generate sales and counter their competitors' advertisements. However, there is also a demand for advertising because consumers often lack information and advertising helps to lower the inevitable 'search cost', that is, consumers' expenditure of time and money to establish which goods are available (Boddewyn, 2015). Therefore, marketing to children now plays an increasingly important role for marketers, both as consumers in their own right and as influencers on parents. Because of their increasingly important commercial role, marketers target them through a growing number and type of commercial messages, which extend far beyond traditional media advertising (Buckingham, 2011).

Advertising, be it for products specifically suitable for or aimed at children, or for products where children could become the influencers, merits attention, because the cognitive abilities of children are still underdeveloped, and thus advertisements aimed at children are by their very nature more persuasive. While many advertising interactions with children appeal to their easily aroused emotions and desires, some are aimed at improving the children's skills (and developing their intellectual abilities). Some advertisements for children's toys and or non-essential luxury goods seem to serve only for the improvement of the advertiser's profits, and many of the advertisements are for products that are "straightforwardly dangerous for children" (Arrington, 2012).

Marketing and advertising's communications directed at children has also been increasing in Africa over the past few decades. There are many reasons for these increased targeting efforts; however, one of the most obvious ones is the growing influence or children's power of persuasion on their parents' buying behaviour.

Children and the youth are attractive to marketers not only for their increasing spending power, but particularly for their ability to persuade their family to purchase certain items. Advertisers use such influence to convince the ultimate purchaser or consumer about the importance of owning a particular product or service. Traditional as well as new marketing communication means are used, in which the school environment is not excluded from the communication process (Šramová, 2015).

In most cases, marketing communication uses the traditional media (especially television, radio, and print media) to create awareness and a motivation to buy. Also, through the new media (internet, social media, and mobile phones), and the development of information technologies, advertisers can tailor their target market reach and can address the consumers faster, more often and cheaper than through the traditional media. In addition to the traditional and the new media, advertisers also make use of public relations, promotions and methods such as product placements, viral marketing, guerrilla marketing, animations, and interactive games. The latter two are sophisticated procedures that increase the attractiveness of presented messages particularly to the younger consumers (Šramová, 2015).

While consumers wish to be informed about what products and services are available to them, many cannot seem to decide how they feel about the hidden persuasive character of such advertising, and the moral character of advertising. Opinion polls always show a divided mindset among those exposed to advertising. Many individuals regard advertising as being 'dishonest', 'misleading' or 'socially damaging', While other consumers see advertising as informative and morally acceptable 'for the most part' (Arrington, 2012).

Many parents use television (or buy/rent videos or DVDs) regularly as 'baby sitters'. Much of the programming aimed at children on the South African television channels is focused on the various age groups, and parental involvement is required for some of the programmes. However, as will be discussed later regarding the child audiences, parents are not always available to monitor what their children are viewing, where both parents are working full-time. In such situation, therefore, it is realistic to say that the responsibility and ability of parents to control the media usage of their children is difficult (van Vuuren, 2006). This becomes particularly challenging

when children have uncontrolled access to smart phones, the internet and social media in addition to TV.

In South Africa, the data on child audiences suggests that a substantial portion of viewing occurs in a family situation. Such data also indicates that teenagers prefer to watch television alone. However, younger children, the more vulnerable, are more often exposed to television in the presence of their parents, and this presents the opportunity for the parents to create a loving, intimate atmosphere with their children. A caring, supportive climate could be a learning environment for the younger child to understand moral values in the context of "stories that anyone happens to make up", to paraphrase Plato. Parents' reactions to unacceptable television programme content or advertising can be communicated to the child in such situations, even if it is only through non-verbal behaviour (van Vuuren, 2006).

Defenders of the value and usefulness of advertising usually portray it as a vital part of the free market system. Its functions are to bring a product to the attention of the buying public and thereby to increase sales. It is a coordinating link between supply and demand. Free market policy advocates are committed to the ideals of the liberty of choice, and they see the rights of advertisers as being similar to an expression of citizens' rights to a freedom of speech (Arrington, 2012).

Critics of advertising may accept the fundamental principles of the free market system, but they see advertising as being able to violate the moral norms presupposed by this very system, being the rights of the informed consumer, or they view advertising as having disutility within the system, being a waste of the advertiser's money (Arrington, 2012).

Advertising seems to touch every aspect of life in the post-industrial world. Advertising is blamed for an array of social ills ranging from the mundane to the millennial. The attack on advertising is not necessarily based on the real existence of any secret formula, economic equation, or secret conspiracy. It is probably not based on any demonstrable effect on prices, social conditions, or even sales. Attitudes toward advertising are probably a response to the rapid changes in everyday life brought about by modern commerce and are intensified by the knowledge that

advertisers are consciously aiming their attempts to achieve their goals of changing the public's views and behaviour in their favour (Scott, 2015).

2.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF ADVERTISING

The phenomenon of advertising developed as naturally as civilisation itself. Three thousand years ago, signs were used in Babylonia, advertising for the return of runaway slaves. The graffiti on the walls of Pompeii and the stone obelisks of ancient Egypt also provide evidence of early sales promotion. In Europe and Asia, signs were symbolic of each seller's wares and developed for those unable to read. In Rome, for instance, a goat on the sign meant a dairy, and a mule driving a mill indicated a bakery shop. One of the earliest forms of advertising recorded dates from half a century BC (De Beer, 2010).

The North African city of Cyrene minted and distributed silver coins, which bore the emblem of plants grown in Cyrene, which were marketed throughout the ancient world as a medicine and a condiment. Most of the early advertising was oral. Hawkers and street criers promoted the sale of produce and cattle, and even slaves in public announcements and choral chants not unlike today's radio jingles. This tradition was continued by the songs and cries of street merchants in medieval England, some of which became legendary, such as 'one-a-penny, two-a-penny, hot-cross buns' (De Beer, 2010).

Brand and trade differentiation of advertised goods began in the Middle Ages. Before that time, goods were most often sold in the immediate area where they were produced, and there was no need to differentiate them. However, as traders started to travel between locations, and production became more centralised, marks were developed to identify the producer; and where the medieval guilds began to control the various trades, trademarks became a great asset. With the appearance of the first printed English newspapers in the early 17th century, advertising became increasingly important and widespread. Advertisements for tea, coffee, chocolate, real estate, books and other goods, but also plays, 'miraculous medicines' and all types of services began to serve as the chief financial support of newspapers: a function that advertising has not relinquished to this day (De Beer, 2010). Without

advertising, none of the print media or even the private radio or television channels would exist.

The initial boost for advertising as we know it today came with the Industrial Revolution in the latter half of the 19th century. Machinery replaced manual labour in the factory and on the farm, and productivity per person-hour increased significantly. Many goods were offered for sale at reasonable prices to an increasingly prosperous market. At the same time, competition increased dramatically, and advertising helped the consumer to be able to choose from a wide variety of products and services. Although various advertising agents had existed before in Britain and the US, the current format and structure of an advertising agency, which plans and prepares complete advertising campaigns for an advertiser-client, evolved around the latter part of the 19th century. Two organisations, pioneers of the 19th century, left their names on agencies that are still among the leaders in American advertising. One was James Walter Thompson, founder of the J. Walter Thompson Company. He was among the first to recognise women as critical consumers and decision-makers for purchases. He also persuaded women's magazines and other media to open their pages to advertising (De Beer, 2010).

Another pioneer was F. Wayland Ayer, who founded N.W. Ayer and Son (using his father's name, so that potential clients would not be put off by his youth and inexperience). Ayer's primary contribution was the changes he made regarding the agency-client relationships. Agents customarily bought space as cheaply as possible, and then sold it for what the clients were prepared to pay. Between 1880 and 1895, Ayer devised the open advertising rate, whereby he told advertisers what he paid for space, and then added his commission to that amount (De Beer, 2010).

The father of the modern advertising philosophy was a young man called Albert Davies Lasker who joined the Chicago agency Lord and Thomas (since renamed Foote, Cone & Belding) in 1898, and later became the sole owner of the firm. He realised that there was more to advertising than the constant repetition of the brand name and its occasional association with the female body. Therefore, he introduced the concept of advertising as "salesmanship in print". His technique was to find the 'news' element in the product and then tell the consumers why they should buy it. Lasker built his agency around the function of copywriting with the help of two

famous writers, John E. Kennedy and Claude C. Hopkins. These men believed that products and markets had to be thoroughly researched before the writer could produce an advertisement. Therefore, the concepts of advertising "planning" and "research" were born, rendering advertising not only an art, but also a science (De Beer, 2010).

Advertising has its origins not only in the sale of space and time, but in its role of providing distinct identities to branded goods and services. This aspect arose in the US and the UK around the late 19th century when packaged household products began to replace general goods bought in bulk: the branded Pears replaced the generic reference to soap, to name one of the world's very oldest brands. By giving brands a character and identity, and often a logo or slogan to make them recognisable, advertising contributed to national, and later the international, expansion of brands such as Lipton's, Gillette, Kodak, and Ford, among many others. By the 1920s, advertising was allying with what was then the still relatively new social and behavioural sciences, drawing on sociological techniques for market research, and advertising psychological appeals for advertisements themselves (Sinclair, 2001).

Around that time, some of the longest established US agencies began to expand overseas. For example, J. Walter Thompson upgraded its sales office in London, while McCann-Erickson was opening branches in Latin America. In both cases, clients whose brands they had advertised in the US, wanted a similar advertising basis in the foreign markets they were opening. US brands such as Coca-Cola thus became known worldwide (Sinclair, 2001).

The most significant period for the internationalisation of the advertising industry was the period after WWII. Apart from this being the era in which many US companies transformed themselves into multinational corporations, it was also the time when television as a new medium was introduced. Because the US agencies had their standard account agreements with their clients from their home market as well as some experience with television, they could dominate the advertising industries of those countries quickly when they entered those regions and markets (Sinclair, 2001).

In the 1970s, this movement had provoked some resistance, and the US advertising agencies became one of the targets of the rhetoric against 'cultural imperialism' in that decade because of the strong influence of the American culture reflected in the advertisements; a subsequent expansion had to proceed more through joint ventures in conjunction with national agencies. A more elaborate pattern emerged in the 1980s, particularly through the growth of individual British agencies, notably Saatchi & Saatchi. No longer was the worldwide advertising industry defined by a relatively simple conflict between the US-based multinationals versus the various national interests, but there were more involved tendencies emerging (Sinclair, 2001). However, advertising's role and that of the various advertising agencies was firmly established across the globe and became even more entrenched when globalisation meant that brands became global brands. They created aspirations and images that consumers world-wide were trying to emulate. Such aspirations and evoked buying desire also stretched to children, once they had increased access to the various media.

2.3 ADVERTISING AND CHILDREN

Children come across advertising through their exposure to TV, radio, billboards, magazines and newspapers, the internet (through computers/laptops/tablets/smart phones) and other innovative forms of advertising, which are developing all the time. Young children need to first learn and understand that advertisers are trying to make them buy something. This in itself is not enough to alert children, as they may be willing to be motivated and influenced because they wish to have those goods. However, in many cases, advertisers are also aiming to sell them products that might not be useful or beneficial for them.

Advertising affects young children in different ways, and it is essential to understand such effects. The various factors that play a role in the degree to which advertising has an impact on children can be their age, their personality, their family environment as well as their social background. Parents need to understand the potential effect advertising can have on their children and also on them, if they are being influenced to buy advertised goods that their children motivate them to buy after they were exposed to such advertising. The advertisers portray the products in ways that make them attractive to such young target audience using different

appeals and strategies. They consider this category as one of the most talented groups of buyers/target audiences (Barve, Sood, Nithya & Virmani, 2015).

McNeal (1987) claimed over three decades ago already that the focus on children as consumers evolved from the perspective of marketers over time. The 1950s provided children in large numbers; the 1960s gave them increased incomes to spend; and the 1970s produced many new products and services for children to want and buy. The 1980s gave children the legitimacy or equality to some degree with adult consumers, all of which led to the commercialisation of childhood that began during the 1980s (Pasch & Velazquez, 2013).

Advertising explains to children what things mean, things they can buy, and things they can do. Marketed products and activities are closely associated with how children spend their time, and subsequently, explains and addresses their behaviour. One aspect of social responsibility concerns the appropriateness of such exploited modes of behaviour, given that corporate marketing to children mainly promotes behavioural norms; their motivation for doing so is obviously sales and profit-driven. While advertising has an agenda of advocacy, it can also be held to perform a social function, given the predominance and significance of brand meaning in our materialistic culture (Preston, 2005).

Television advertising has been explicitly or implicitly justified, because television has so far been one of the most important source of advertising aimed at children and the original way those marketers could reach children in their homes. Although television advertising across the world still accounts for much of the advertising spend of marketing to children, the fast growth of the internet means that other forms of advertising are rapidly increasing in importance (Blades, Oates & Li, 2013).

In the US, an average child aged eight years or older spends more than seven hours a day on screen media, watching television, using the computer, playing video games and using hand-held devices. Even much younger children, aged two to eight, spend nearly two hours a day with screen media (Common Sense Media, 2014). These figures will rapidly change when children have access to smart phones and spend most of their day exposed to such media.

In South Africa, the incidence is not yet as high as that found in the US, but the indications are that the same patterns of children's time spent on television or other screens will be applicable here. The Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (2000) reported two decades ago already that very young children (from nine months old) spent approximately 40 minutes per day in front of a television, with the amount of viewing increasing to the child's age of about six (almost two hours). Then, as they go to school, there is a slight dip in the exposure to television as school activities take up some of their time (van Vuuren, 2006). However, this is where smart phones replace a lot of television's screen exposure.

In the past years of relative stability, the primary pathways used to deliver advertising to children and teens have increased. More recent years have seen an explosion in new avenues for young people to become exposed to advertising via alternative media. The qualities inherent in the new media platforms are fundamentally different from those of other media, including elements such as interactivity, immersion, viral messaging, user-generated content, and location-based targeting (Common Sense Media, 2014).

As a result of such developments, the media environment for children and teenagers has changed dramatically, and in line with this, the advertising environment perhaps even more so. In the past, advertising to children and the youth consisted primarily of 30-second television advertisements; now it includes product placements, immersive websites, advertising gaming, viral marketing, mobile ads, and social media online shopping. Precise behavioural and location targeting is used by many marketers. Moreover, advertising and entertainment are inextricably linked; in many cases, the actual content is the advertisement (Common Sense Media, 2014). Via virtually all these media, children are exposed to advertising (Rideout, Foehr & Roberts, 2010).

2.4 DEFINITION OF ADVERTISING

Numerous researchers, scholars, practitioners, and academics have provided different definitions of advertising, some of which are listed below:

Advertising as mass communication: Mass communication is usually defined as messages communicated through mass media to many people (Bittner, 1989). The most frequently used standard definition of advertising by Dunn and Barban (1982)

was "non-personal paid communication through various media by business firms, non-profit organisations, and individuals who are in some way identified in the advertising message and who wish to inform or persuade members of a particular audience" (De Beer, 2011).

The College of Professional Management (1997) defined advertising as "any form of non-personal communication involving advertisements by an identified sponsor using media to persuade or influence people to buy". Bardi (2010) states that advertising is paramount in the economy of a nation, because it serves as a source of information about goods and services, and persuades consumers to patronise the advertised goods and services.

Arens (1999) described advertising as composed items. However, Osunbiyi (1999) indicated that "advertising is a controlled persuasive communication, paid for by designated sponsor(s), about products, services or ideas and disseminated through the mass media to a target group". Advertising was described by the American Marketing Association, Chicago and Alexander (1963) as "basically any paid form of non-personal presentation of ideas, goods and services by an identified sponsor".

As shown above, advertising had been defined as a paid mediated form of communication from an identifiable source designed to persuade the receiver to take some action now or in the future. Thus, although advertising has many uses, its primary goal is persuasion, and creativity in advertising is employed to meet specific marketing objectives. As advertising clutter increases, it becomes increasingly difficult for businesses to find creative solutions to communicate with consumers effectively. At the same time, technological developments reveal new opportunities that facilitate the process, where advertising was defined as the non-personal communication of information, usually paid for, and usually the central theme or idea behind an advertising message, called the advertising appeal (Shavitt & Zhang, 2004).

Bardi (2010) rightfully reveals that critical assessment of the above definitions expresses that advertisements must be paid for by an identified sponsor. The aim of advertising is to disseminate information, ideas about goods or services, and

persuade people to take action by patronising the products and services advertised, or to think differently about a product or service.

Most people think that advertisements are designed to convince people to buy the product, and there are many advertisements that have this intention. Many advertisements specifically intend to inoculate us against the claims of competitors, so that when we see an advertisement for their competitors, we will not come under its influence. However, the most common intention of advertisements is reinforcement (Potter, 2013).

Most advertisements target groups of people who already use the product. Thus, the advertisement is designed to remind those customers that the product still exists and that it is a good one. People usually remember advertisements for products they already buy, so most of the effect of advertising is one of the reinforcement of existing attitudes and behaviours. Thus, reinforcement is one of the powerful effects of advertising. Most advertisements are designed to make people feel good about the products they have already bought so that they will repurchase them (Potter, 2013).

Cortese (1999) argued that the power of advertisements extends beyond selling products to consumers; advertising "affects our cultures and our views". Wood (2007) and Innes (2004) proposed that there are three ways in which advertisements are more significant to the human psyche than the actual television programmes:

- Individuals are repeatedly shown the same message in magazines or newspapers, on billboards, television, at the beginning of films, and on online media.
- Most advertisements rely heavily on visual elements because they are easier to decode; such images often operate on an almost subliminal level.
- Individuals believe that they are immune to the visuals shown in the media. People may believe that they do not buy a specific brand because of advertisements, but research suggests that people buy not only the product but also the image, regardless of their belief that they are immune to advertising's lure (Fourie, 2008).

Ferrell and Hartline (2008) stated that advertising is only one element of the total marketing and communication mix. It is a part of the marketing mix that comprises the product decisions, pricing decisions, distribution decisions and promotion decisions required to design effective marketing to deliver an organisation's market offering(s) to its targeted market(s). The marketing communication mix is an integrated strategy designed to engage specifically targeted audiences to bring about a planned behavioural response. In advertising, the marketing communication mix includes direct marketing, interactive marketing, sales promotions, public relations, and personal selling (Belch & Belch, 2012).

This study will adopt advertising as defined by the American Marketing Association, Chicago, which states that "advertising is any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services by an identified sponsor". This definition states that advertising is mostly a kind of persuasive communication with the audience (Dhar, 2011).

2.4.1 The functions of advertising

The fundamental objective of an advertisement is to persuade people to act in a particular way, for example, to buy an individual product or service. It also performs several other functions in the process such as creating or maintaining awareness, providing information, giving a choice, acceleration of adoption or rejection, and creating familiarity and confidence (De Beer, 2010).

The function of advertising is well captured by the AIDA formula as postulated by Bel-Molokwu (2000). AIDA stands for Attention, Interest, Desire and Action. Bel-Molokwu (2000) stated that the justification for the existence of every advertisement is that its role is to create awareness about products and services, which in turn elicits the interest of potential customers. Consequently, a desire to acquire the product or service is aroused. Finally, exposure to the advertising should lead to action, and action implies acquiring the product or services by potential clients or consumers (Bardi, 2010).

The vital role of advertising is to influence consumer decision-making; thereby, advertisements will be able to change the opinion of the customers about the product.

Consumers are likely to watch more of the advertisements that they find acceptable to their own views and values, although some advertisements may actually change their views and values. Advertisements should be appealing and engage the customers to become involved in the advertisement (Kumar & Raju, 2013).

The importance and role of advertising grows as brands rely heavily on the media for achieving various marketing objectives such as increasing sales, creating knowledge and awareness in the market. Advertising also plays a vital role in shaping the ever-changing norms of society, both nationally and globally. With the growing role of advertising in the lives of people, attention is being paid to the various negative as well as positive effects of advertising (Barve et al., 2015).

2.4.2 The purpose of advertising

The primary purpose of advertising is to assist the marketer to build brands and create a favourable climate for subsequent resulting buying behaviour. In the advertising industry, some brand-building activities are often referred to as 'above-the-line' activities. Above-the-line activities refer to all advertising that buys space or time in the media. This includes product advertising, corporate advertising, and recruitment advertising (De Beer, 2010). 'Below-the-line' advertising refers to promotions and other public relations efforts, sponsorships and efforts to create goodwill among the target market.

Daramola (2003) clarified that the purpose of advertising is to induce immediate action, to create liking and preference for a product or the organisation, and to raise awareness about a product or service. Some advertisements seek to build a respected corporate identity for a company, product or service, and the brand.

Advertising contributes to changing or reinforcing the image of a product in people's memories. For example, memories about the brand consist of those associations related to a brand name in particular circumstances. Advertising also involves the factors that influence consumer behaviour, especially the economic, social, and psychological aspects (Kumar & Raju, 2013).

The primary purpose of advertising is persuasion. It is extensively relied upon to promote products and services, but it is also employed to support charitable causes,

create a desirable image for politicians and celebrities, and can be used to communicate concepts (Patrick & Hagtvedt, 2011).

2.4.3 Persuasive nature of advertising

Persuasive advertising techniques, such as using animated characters and branded logos, well-liked individuals, celebrities, emotion and sympathy are commonly used in advertisements. These techniques are also used as a means of attracting the attention of the youth and engaging them in what is offered. The use of persuasive advertising techniques tends to provide visual cues that represent the attributes of the brand (for example, fun, excitement, being liked or admired by others) and are often employed to build awareness, generate product recognition and product trial/use, establish loyalty and create perceived product value. Understanding of the persuasive intent of advertising and being aware of an advertiser's motives increase with age and experience with advertising tactics; the youth and particularly younger children will not be able to evaluate messages appropriately, given that their ability to access and retrieve such knowledge may not occur until mid-adolescence (Pasch & Velazquez, 2013).

Persuasive advertising techniques of marketers often rely on the evoked emotions of consumers to influence them. Emotional marketing, specifically the messages that advertisers use to evoke positive reactions and feelings from consumers, are particularly prominent in alcohol marketing. Given that items within similar product categories are for the most part comparable, alcohol advertising tends to rely heavily on emotional forms of advertising as a way of influencing consumer choice. The effects of emotional advertising may be particularly strong and influential among the youth, as they may not yet possess the cognitive abilities that are necessary to process advertising messages actively (Pasch & Velazquez, 2013).

Owen, Lewis, Auty and Buijzen (2013) compared children's understanding of television advertising with non-traditional advertising (for example, movie and in-game brand placement, product licensing, programme sponsorship, and advergames). The researchers interviewed 134 children from Grade 2 (ages 6–7) and Grade 5 (ages 9–10) in the United Kingdom (UK) about the nature and intent of different examples of advertising, combining open-ended and cued response formats.

As anticipated, children demonstrated a significantly more sophisticated understanding of television advertising compared to non-traditional advertising. Embedded advertising practices (movie and in-game brand placement) were most difficult for children to understand. As these alternative formats are newer, children appear to have limited knowledge of alternative marketing tactics and consequently lack the cognitive skills to evaluate them critically (Owen et al., 2013).

2.4.4 Advertising and brand building

The term 'brand' can be defined as 'a name, term, sign, symbol, design, or a combination of these that proposes to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and differentiates them from those of the competition' (Chang & Liu, 2009). Advertising represents the voice of a brand and is a means by which a brand can establish a dialogue and build relationships with customers (Kotler & Kevin, 2009).

Branding is the process of using a name or symbol to identify or distinguish a product from goods within the same product category. It is a technique that is often used to create brand equity. It helps to build product recognition and contributes to communicating the product. Marketers' goal is to create awareness of their specific product or service at an early age. Given that product awareness is thought to lead to stronger brand loyalty, this is particularly meaningful as brand loyalty grows, especially as children grow older, and children are highly aware of brand names and logos from an early age (Pasch & Velazquez, 2013).

Connor (2006) stated that branding is critical to product choice, particularly for children and young people; therefore, most of the child-oriented food advertisements take a branded approach. Television advertising is thought to be very useful for building strong brands (Heath, 2009).

Story and French (2004) revealed that food products are some of the most highly branded items, with over 80% of the US grocery items marketed under a brand. This level of the branding of food products lends itself to significant advertising companies. Food manufacturers are carrying out advertising activity to build brand awareness and brand loyalty. They know that brand preference precedes loyal purchasing behaviour.

Children have become important target markets for branding activity; they have independent spending power, but also exert considerable influence over family purchases (Boyland & Halford, 2011). In addition, children are highly aware of brand names, jingles, and slogans associated with commercials and of the celebrities who endorse specific products (Strasburger et al., 2014).

2.4.5 Advertising and promotional themes

Advertisements are usually assigned a promotional theme or appeal that best represents the promotional strategy used to persuade the target audience. They may be in any of these forms: fun/happiness (positive association provided by the utilisation of the product); taste/flavour/smell (any association related to taste or flavour of the product); product performance (description of the feature context); social fit (social situation surrounding the use of the product); action/power/speed (action and speed as the primary reasons for purchasing the product); appearance (improving personal appearance as the main reason for having the product); personal gain (any additional personal satisfaction for having the product); texture (how it feels when using the product), and other (Gbadeyan, 2009).

The images play a significant role in advertising. However, visuals can play three significant roles in an advertisement. They can elicit emotions (positive or negative) by simulating the appearance of a real person or object; they can serve as a photographic proof that something did happen, and they can establish an implicit link between the product/service that is sold and some other image. Advertising practices, such as celebrity endorsements, fall into this category. Visual images are different from other modes of communication, such as words and sound. Pictures can recreate the visual information that our eyes and brains make use of when we look at the real world (Messaris, 1997).

Pettigrew et al. (2012) carried out a study to investigate the use of negative themes in food advertisements aired on Australian television. The study found that advertisers were using negative themes to capture the audiences' attention and invoke an emotional response in the target audience. Sixteen per cent (14,611) of the 93,284 food advertisements shown on Australian television contained negative themes, with mood enhancement and food craving being the most commonly

depicted negative subjects. Advertisements with negative themes were more likely to be for non-core foods and were aired during children's favourite viewing times. The potential for adverse themes in food advertising to promote unhealthy food consumption behaviours among children is likely to be of concern to policymakers (Pettigrew et al., 2012).

A study has shown that emotional appeals are effective when advertising promotes both experiential and utilitarian services. Consumers do not always need a rational or logical reason for choosing to buy a service. Instead, they are often influenced by appeals such as tradition, affiliation, and distinctiveness. This challenges both the matching theory and the argument that rational appeals should be utilised for all services (Mortimer, 2008).

Media will be discussed briefly and explained as it is the area which this study focuses on.

2.5 DEFINITION OF MASS COMMUNICATION

Mass communication is one method of communication that deals with the transferring of a message, information, ideas and thoughts from the source/communicator to large heterogeneous audiences (receivers). Mass communication deals with many receivers from different backgrounds, which are not known to the source (Shobiye, 2016).

Dominick (2005) defined mass communication as a process by which a compound organisation, an institution or individual with the aid of one or more machines or technologies produces and transmits public messages that are directed at large, heterogeneous and scattered or mixed audiences (Biagi, 2012; Hanson, 2014).

The channel (medium) the source/sender of mass communication uses to communicate its message to different categories of people is called the mass medium (Shobiye, 2016). Baran (2006) defined a mass medium as a technology that carries messages to a large number of people.

Mass media can be classified into print and electronic media (broadcast media). Both media are performing the same functions through different devices. Ate (2008)

noted that the classification of mass media depends on the mechanism used in the process of disseminating information. The print media use a mechanism that relies on printing items of information that involve the pressing of ink on paper with the use of plates and blocks, while electronic media make use of different mechanisms that can transfer sound or light waves into electrical signals that can be converted to what can be seen or heard. Biagi (2012) categorises mass media as follows:

- Print media consist of books, newspapers, magazines, pamphlets/handbills.
- Electronic or broadcast media consist of television, radio, film, electronic billboards, internet and digital media.

This study will focus on television advertising.

2.5.1 Television advertising

The broadcasting of televisual signals to the public was launched in the UK in 1936, but only to a very small number of people within a limited range of London. It was discontinued once WWII began. It is therefore probably right to think of television broadcasting as a phenomenon of the post-war period, spreading widely across the world during the later 1940s. By the 1950s, it was firmly established as the dominant mass medium in most developed countries, a position it continues to cling to despite a severe challenge from the internet (Bonner, 2006).

The development of television, both regarding its organisation and its content, initially followed that of the domestic medium it displaced, radio. Similar to radio, the initial system was a commercial one in the US, and a publicly funded one in the UK and most of continental Europe. Australia, typically, adopted a hybrid of the two, but did not begin until 1956, three years after commercial television had commenced in the UK. The US Public Broadcasting System, which operated since 1967, did not have the same funding support or relationship with governments typical of public broadcasting in other countries. It is now the most common for television systems to operate a combination of commercial and public broadcasting. The public broadcasting monopolies that operated in many northern and eastern European countries long after advertising became commonplace on British television, disappeared following the arrival of satellite radio, which observed no national boundaries (Bonner, 2006).

The content of television programmes during the early years followed radio in being substantially talks-based, because this was how a medium targeted at the home was seen to operate and what those performing on it experienced. It was also limited in what it could offer, because the small screens and the low resolution (especially in the United States) did not encourage lavish spectacles or material heavily dependent on visuals. Even today, with more countries providing high-definition television and screen size growing substantially, it had for a long time supported the cliché of media studies that while the film was a primarily visual medium, television was an aural one (Bonner, 2006).

Television is usually called king of the advertising mass media communications, since most people spend more hours watching television per day than any other medium. It combines the use of light, colour, sound, and motion, and it works. Television has proven its persuasive power in influencing human behaviour time and time again. However, it is also the 'king' of advertising costs, attracting huge revenue per advertising second. Television remains an option that is best for products that are targeted to a broad market. Television media companies therefore have a somewhat easier task to convince marketers that they reach a mass market than competitors that have been relying on print or radio for their revenue (Rawal, 2013).

Television has become a part of the fabric of most people's lives; and though it is familiar, comfortable and entertaining, it has also become a concern to many of its critics. More so than any other mass medium, it elicits a profusion of opinions as to its social purpose, definition, and effects. In South Africa, as elsewhere around the world, the debate about what television does and should do is continuing. Whatever the answers to these questions, as a powerful and widespread medium of communication, television has become a part of most people's daily existence and one of the characteristics of modern society (De Beer, 2011).

Television is one of the most popular forms of media; however, children and the youth are increasingly migrating to digital media for much of their information and entertainment. Notably, food and beverage advertising is also frequently found in the digital landscape (Culp, Bell & Cassady, 2010).

Food products is one of the major categories of television advertising, and many of the categories of food products are marketed to children or the youth. For some cereals and breakfast foods, the companies created icons, or 'spokes-characters', which serve as the central theme for television and other media activities. These animated or cartoon characters, some of which have been known to generations of children, may be based on animals, people, legendary creatures such as dragons, or ingredients of the food itself (Federal Trade Commission, 2012).

Advertisements often feature stories about these characters and show them interacting with the food. However, other advertisements only incorporate animation to portray food as being fun and exciting. Animated characters appeared, for example, in vignettes resembling favourite musical, science fiction, horror, or animal movies. Children – real or animated – were shown modifying the advertised foods in exciting ways, such as by adding fruit or changing a breakfast item into a dessert. Referral to a food company website is sometimes also incorporated into television advertisements whenever a contest was made part of a promotional campaign (Federal Trade Commission, 2012).

The World Health Organization (2010) released concerned statements that advertising of foods and beverage marketing directed at children was primarily related to products with a high content of fat, sugar or salt. Evidence has shown that television advertising influences children's food preferences, their purchase requests, and consumption patterns. However, a wide range of techniques are used for marketing these products, reaching children in schools, kindergartens, and supermarkets, as well as on television and the internet; and in many other settings (WHO, 2010).

2.5.2 Television advertising and its effects on children

This section presents a detailed discussion of television advertising's risk and its perceived effects on children.

2.5.2.1 Television advertising's effects on children's mental and physical health

There is no doubt that television and other electronic media influence children's mental and physical health. Television advertising and that on the other electronic media have fundamentally changed the lives of children and exposed them to unpredictable and possibly irreversible outcomes (Kappos, 2007). Sitting a long time in front of a screen (either on TV, a computer or even a smart phone) leaves less time for physical activity and play. Extensive television viewing (or playing video games) in particular affects both 'fatness and fitness', and multiple studies point to television viewing as one of the major causes of childhood obesity (Blass, Anderson, Kirkorian, Pempek, Price & Koleini, 2006; Kappos, 2007).

Due to the potential epidemic of childhood obesity, questions have been raised about the influence of food advertising on children's food-related behaviours and consequently their regular diets and overall health. Research demonstrates the effects of exposure to food advertising on children's brand preferences, food preferences, food intake and the number of requests children make to parents for products they have seen advertised. These effects are not goods and brand-specific, and many sustain unhealthy eating patterns as TV advertising still predominantly promotes a diet that is far from healthy. While food brand or products promotions are restricted during children's programming in some countries, the extent of food promotions to which children are exposed via television remains extensive (Boyland & Halford, 2011).

Non-communicable diseases (NCDs) represent a leading threat to human health and socio-economic development. Cardiovascular diseases, cancers, chronic respiratory illnesses, and diabetes cause an estimated 35 million deaths each year, 80% of which occur in low and middle-income countries. Already, substantial burdens caused by NCDs require a robust public health and policy imperative to act, along with the fact that the majority of these deaths are premature and could be averted (WHO, 2010).

An unhealthy diet is a critical modifiable risk factor for NCDs unless it is addressed. Unhealthy diets, in conjunction with other risk factors, increase NCDs' prevalence in

the populations via increased blood pressure, raised blood glucose, abnormal blood lipids, and excessive weight/obesity. While deaths from NCDs primarily occur in adulthood, the risks associated with an unhealthy diet begin in childhood and build up throughout life (WHO, 2010).

A study has investigated both the extent (frequency of advertising, the proportion of overall advertisements for food products about other products/services) and the nature (types of food products promoted) of television food advertising. Although both the extent and nature of such advertising varies between countries, the study has shown that typically, the majority of advertisements broadcast are for unhealthy products (Boyland & Halford, 2011).

The WHO (2010) reports that excessive weight and obesity now rank globally as the fifth leading risk for death. Moreover, it is estimated that in 2010, more than 42 million children under the age of five years were overweight or obese, of whom nearly 35 million are living in developing countries. Being overweight during childhood and adolescence is associated not only with an increased risk of adult obesity and NCDs, but also with some immediate health-related problems, such as hypertension and insulin resistance (WHO, 2010).

A study has involved recording food-related advertisements for one week on four South African Broadcasting Cooperation (SABC) television stations between 15:00hr and 21:00hr every day, as reported by Steyn, Mchiza, Abrahams and Temple (2014), who found that:

- A total of 665 food-related television advertisements were recorded;
- Nearly 50% of food advertisements appeared during family viewing time, and the most numerous advertisements were for desserts and sweets, fast-foods, starchy foods and sweetened beverages;
- The majority of food advertisements shown to both children and adults would not foster good health, despite the health claims made, since they were high in fat, sugar, and salt;
- The majority of the alcohol advertisements (93 advertisements, 67%) fell into the children and family viewing time slots.

Television is a powerful medium for marketing and advertising products. The effect of television viewing and advertising on children's eating behaviour and health seems to have a potential association with their becoming overweight or obese. There is evidence that suggests that more frequent television watching is associated with increased consumption of sweet and salty snacks, sweetened drinks, and fast-foods, and lower intake of fruits and vegetables. Moreover, children with a high body mass index (BMI), indicative of being overweight, are more likely to be exposed to fast-food advertising (Steyn et al., 2014).

2.5.2.2 Television advertising's effects on children's attitude

Attitude refers to a learned predisposition to behave in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way toward a given object (Schiffman, Kanuk & Wisenblit, 2010). Runyon and Stewart (1987) defined attitude as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner to a given object".

Mitchell and Olson (1981) described it as "an individual's internal evaluation of an object such as a branded product". Attitude toward advertising can have significant implications for advertising effectiveness. For instance, a study observed that advertising persuasion was higher among those who held favourable attitudes toward advertising claims (Mehta, 2000). However, it could well be that they were persuaded and developed a favourable attitude because of the persuasion.

Television has a tremendous impact on society, largely through its combination of audio-visual effects and its widespread reach, and therefore television is acknowledged worldwide as a useful tool for advertising to reach current and potential consumers of goods and services. Advertisements and various depicted lifestyles are closely related and often used to create aspirational images. Lifestyle imagery provides a means by which advertisers and marketers try to target and match consumer aspirations with products, or create aspirations relevant to new products (Daud, Farooq & Anwar, 2011).

Marketers examine their target market's belief system, usage and action patterns, and action characteristics of lifestyles, and link these with expenditure on and consumption of certain products or services. These patterns also identify the demographic factors (gender, age, home language or cultural grouping, income

group, and so forth) as well as psychographic factors (for example, habits, attitudes, preferences, lifestyles) that define a group. As a construct that directs people to interact with their worlds as consumers, lifestyles are subject to change in line with changes in consumers' environment, in society, the economy or even technological innovation (Daud et al., 2011).

Advertising affects (if it 'works') adult behaviours and attitudes. However, it can also affect the psychological health and well-being of youngsters who learn from advertising how to manipulate parents to respond to their wishes and wants, to buy something for them. Advertising is an integral part of the modern world, and able to target specific markets and segments, including children and teenagers, to sell their products, with marketers and advertisers conscious of the fact that advertising has an impact on the impressionable minds of children (Daud et al., 2011).

Television advertising has increased children's involvement in product selection and purchase; being exposed to advertising on TV, children will be motivated to buy products that are shown to be popular, famous and endorsed by people children or teenagers admire. This may lead to them wanting to buy some essential products, but could also lead to them wanting to buy products that they do not need or that are inappropriate for them or could even be harmful to them. Advertising has an impact on the buying behaviour of the youth, and ultimately changes their lifestyles (Daud et al., 2011).

Cardwell-Gardner and Bennett (1999) also confirmed that children were increasingly influencing the buying decisions of adults. Their study found that children influence as much as 40% of their parents' purchases, and 65% of parents ask their children's opinion about products purchased for the whole family. Parents were increasingly asking their children for input on products not specifically aimed at children, such as cars, computers, vacations and clothes (Beatty, 1999).

Television continues to be the primary medium for food advertising; new media (such as the internet and mobile phones) provide opportunities for novel, targeted and often interactive food branding and advertising. While television advertising is above-the-line and seen by parents, alternative advertising on the new media is often 'underground' so that some of these promotional phenomena make it challenging to

identify and effectively monitor them, gauge their spread, or examine their impact (Boyland & Halford, 2011). Neither the effects of such innovative promotional activity nor the effectiveness of recent restrictions regarding television advertising of energy-dense foods has yet to be fully established. However, empirical evidence suggests that interventions to limit exposure to high fat, sugar, and salty foods and instead increase the promotion of healthy, nutritious food groups on the mass media could be beneficial in encouraging children to make better dietary choices (Boyland & Halford, 2011).

2.5.2.3 Television advertising's effects on children's behaviour

For many decades, television was the dominant medium for young people and adults around the world. From the middle of the 1980s onwards and throughout the 1990s, the number of television channels, number of household television sets and hours spent watching television more than doubled. There are now approximately 250 television sets per thousand inhabitants in the world. Satellite television reaches across all continents, offering increasing numbers of channels, and targeting specific market segments, including young viewers. In the late 1990s, some 50 television channels explicitly directed to children were launched, several of which have had enormous international success. Based on their global success and the high cost of content production, many national television services cut back their production of programmes aimed at children (Gigli, 2004).

Average daily viewing time of television among school-going age children around the world with access to TV ranged from between 1.5 hours to more than four times that time already two decades ago; many of these same children will rarely read a book. The prominence of television in young people's daily lives makes it one of their primary information sources about the world around them.

The prevalence of such intense and extended television viewing among young people raised serious concerns about some trends in the television industry (Gigli, 2004). The Committee on Communications (2006) stated that American children viewed an estimated 40,000 advertisements per year, and advertisers spent \$10 billion annually trying to appeal to children. More than half of such advertisements

are for food, especially cereals, high-calorie snacks, and fast-food (Strasburger et al., 2014).

Television advertising can reach mass audiences quickly and frequently. Advertising through the television medium introduces a whole new area of creative capabilities for advertisers and marketers (Asmall, 2010). Abelman and Atkin (2002) stated that the television medium is able to exploit the use of sound, visuals, colours, and actions, and is collectively a more expressive medium for advertisers. Messaris (1997) revealed that the creativity shown in television advertisements has a far more significant impact on the consumer than any other medium at the time. This was obviously prior to the advent and rapid growth of the alternative media.

Companies are increasingly under pressure to behave responsibly in society. They are expected to use advertising judiciously, limiting the advertising of potentially harmful products that may cause adverse consequences for consumers. One category of goods under increasing scrutiny is food products, reflecting the health sector's concerns about obesity, and particularly obesity in children (Zhang, Li, Zhang & Hou, 2014).

In developed countries, there have been outcries over the rising levels of aggression, obesity, substance abuse, eating disorders and unsafe sexual behaviour among the youth, increasingly attributed to commercial media (films as well as advertising) aimed at children and the youth. In developing countries, where financial resources limit domestic production of programme content, the majority of programmes for children and young people are imported. Consequently, much of the content contains characters and messages that may not be appropriate or relevant to local cultures or value systems, and at worst they convey violent images and inappropriate mass marketing messages (Gigli, 2004).

Many parents leave their children unattended in front of a television set or a computer/smart phone in a room, where they are watching inappropriate programmes or commanding, by the video game remote control, some 'bloody battle'. These children are exposed to two different scenarios: movies/games and advertising that only tells them 'yes, you can do it all, have it all', and their parents who, tired of frequently saying 'no', finally giving in to the child's manipulation and

buying what the child wants, while active contact is less and less valued (Projeto Criança e Consumo, 2009).

2.5.2.4 Alcohol advertising's effects on children's behaviour

Alcohol advertising, like other forms of advertising, seeks to develop new customer bases as well as maintain current ones. Because heavy drinking tends to peak in later adolescence and early adulthood, advertising to this demographic group is essential for alcohol brands to develop market shares within these cohorts (Pasch & Velazquez, 2013).

According to the World Health Global Status Report on Health and Alcohol, South Africa is one of the top five countries regarding risky alcohol consumption patterns (Child, 2011). While government needs to put the necessary controls in place, parents have to play the strongest part through being positive role models and setting behavioural boundaries. Poor role models at home (one or both of the parents drink, abuse alcohol, are violent or show how they are coping with life by drinking alcohol, enhancing the 'fun' aspect of alcohol consumption) are the strongest influence on children, together with their peer groups who have also been influenced by their own home environments. This has led to an alcohol abuse crisis, leading to a high crime rate in South Africa. Many schoolchildren arrive at schools across South Africa already intoxicated (Govender, 2012; Roets, 2013). Beaver (1997) stated that with a rising crime rate among the young and alcohol involved in so much of it, the country should also consider a ban on all alcohol advertising on television, similar to the ban on tobacco advertising. However, even a ban of such advertising will only be effective, if parents change their behaviour at home, and take a more active role in the way they influence in their children's lives, the standards, values and boundaries they put in place, and being aware what they children consume.

Messages in alcohol advertising are particularly appealing to the youth and influential in developing their intentions to drink. Exposure to alcohol advertising leads young people to perceive those who drink alcohol as having more fun, being good-looking and happy, as a result of the images portrayed in many alcohol advertisements. Studies have found that alcohol advertising that is particularly appealing to the youth

utilise distinct themes such as sexual connotations, camaraderie, conformity, recreation, and friendship (Pasch & Velazquez, 2013).

Attractiveness cues of models in alcohol advertisements have also been found to portray femininity, being popular and sophisticated/wearing fashionable clothes. These themes and cues may be particularly appealing to the youth, given their stage of development, their desire to fit in and engage in activities that make them appear older and more mature (Pasch & Velazquez, 2013).

Alcohol portrayals in entertainment shows and music videos are complemented by television marketing campaigns for alcohol products; therefore, in the US, the alcohol industry sets its standards for appropriate and inappropriate marketing. One of the industry's self-regulation standards is that advertising for alcohol products may air only during programmes for which at least 70% of the audience is of legal drinking age (in the US 21-years old). More than 340 000 alcohol advertisements were aired during US television programmes in 2007. A study found that despite the industry's self-regulating rules, adolescents under the age of 21 years were often targeted (Brown & Bobkowski, 2011).

An earlier study concluded that alcohol advertising and promotions increase the likelihood that teenagers will start to use alcohol and are induced to drink more if they are already using alcohol. Young people are at risk of alcohol-related harm, showing greater vulnerability due to their lack of experience with alcohol (Anderson, de Brujin, Angus, Gordon & Hastings, 2009). The youths are particularly vulnerable to harm from alcohol as their physical and brain developments take place at this time. The higher the amount of alcohol consumed during adolescence, the higher the risk of problems as a young adult, including an increased risk of becoming permanently dependent on alcohol (Anderson, 2007).

As damaging as advertising other unhealthy products can be to children, messages that stimulate the consumption of any alcoholic beverage to children, including beer, can bring about serious harm to children. In advertising, beer is always associated with an atmosphere of camaraderie, fun, being attractive to the opposite sex, happiness, achievement or sports celebrations. However, by inducing children and teenagers to drink alcohol, and potentially becoming dependent on alcohol, this robs

these consumers, including children that receive these messages, of precisely the possibility of constructing these depicted goals (Projeto Criança e Consumo, 2009).

2.5.2.5 Criticisms of television advertising

The manipulation used in marketing and advertising is making an impact in the daily lives of consumers. Companies decide to manipulate consumers (launch advertising or marketing campaigns that are intended to change consumer behaviour) whenever the interests and actions of the consumers do not align with the intentions and goals of the marketers. A significant part of such consumer manipulation is the use of advertising due to its wide reach, proven effectiveness and central place in the mix of marketing techniques used to fulfil what the consumer demands: more consumption, more diversity and better options. The results of such manipulation through advertising can be viewed as being controversial; many believe that every time the advertiser wins, the consumer loses (Danciu, 2014). This assumes that the consumers did not actually want to consume a certain product, use a certain service, or change their minds about a product or service.

The critics of manipulative advertising highlight two broad classes of advertising controversies. One type of critique charges that moral rules against causing harm are violated when companies manipulate consumers through the use of advertising. In other words, the advertising has adverse financial or health-related effects, a negative impact on efficiency, or harmful effects on familial and community ties. Advertising may also have an adverse environmental impact. Liberty-based critics charge that certain forms of advertising rob a person of the capacity for free choice in deciding when to purchase a product or service (Danciu, 2014). This would assume that the consumers become powerless individuals who are no longer able to decide for themselves what they buy or do. Such claim may be unrealistic, as television viewing usually does not take place during the time that consumers make the decision to buy or are able to buy (other than online purchases).

Advertising makes children aware of new products available in the market. It increases their knowledge about the latest innovations in the field of technology or other products. Advertisements that centre on healthy food products can help to improve the diet of a child, if such advertisements are attractive or emotive enough.

Advertisements can encourage children to persuade their parents to purchase the products shown in the commercials, whether such products are useful or not. It will then rest on the parents to make sure that they are not being manipulated by their children to buy products that are harmful, not useful or financially not to be considered, despite the fact that “little ones tend to get adamant if the products are not bought” (Patnaik, Gopal & Nagaraju, 2013).

Children can misinterpret the messages conveyed in television advertisements. Many advertisements include dangerous stunts, which should be performed only by experts. Even though the commercials broadcast the statutory warnings with the advertisement that such stunts should not be tried at home, children can be tempted to try and imitate the stunts at home, with sometimes fatal results. Children, after watching the glamour depicted in movies and advertising on television, often get either disheartened and depressed that they cannot have the life that is shown there. They also want to acquire the items shown that represent such glamorous lifestyle. This can change their value system, if they equate materialistic items with happiness. They are then more attracted toward expensive branded products, such as clothing and accessories. They reject inexpensive, but useful, clothing items that are not shown in the commercials (Patnaik et al., 2013).

Advertisements also have other behavioural effects on children. They might develop ‘temper tantrums’, anger, storming out of the home, shouting/crying, or misbehaving if they are deprived of the latest toys or clothes that were shown in TV commercials and which their friends have already bought. Fast-food items such as pizzas, burgers, and soft drinks, are heavily promoted during children’s television viewing time. It develops their craving for fatty, sugary and fast-foods, which can negatively affect their health if parents buy such foods or allow their teenagers to practically live on such foodstuffs (Patnaik et al., 2013).

Advertisements evoke the desire among children and teenagers to consume more unhealthy fast-food items, while watching television or playing video games for hours on end reduces the physical activities such children are involved in. The combination of reduced or no physical activities with the increased consumption of energy and food products that have relatively high fat and sugar and salt, leads to the problem of childhood obesity. As a result, many countries and health organisations have

demanded policies to be introduced to limit food advertising to children (Buijzen, Schuurman & Bomhof, 2008).

Asadollahi and Tanha (2011) explain that the main criticism against television advertising directed at children includes that such advertising:

- Has uncontrolled effects on children;
- Promotes consumerism and false needs;
- Creates disorders and health problems among children;
- Creates gender discrimination and other negative or distorted imagery.

Advertising can inform and educate. However, it can also have harmful effects on children's mental and physical health, and their behaviour. Advertising is often associated with creating exaggerated materialistic needs and wants, as well as doubtful social values, and even stress or discomfort, and that it can lead to the consumption of unhealthy foods, all of which are criticised effects of advertising (Messenger Davies, 2010).

Martinez (2016) states that when discussing the harmful effects of advertising, the producers did not refer to their practices, but spoke about advertising in general, or referred to advertising on television, something which indicates a medium specificity when it comes to the construction of the vulnerable child media audience. One brand manager said children are particularly affected by advertising that comes immediately before or after children's programmes (Martinez, 2016).

2.6 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF SOUTH AFRICAN BROADCASTING

2.6.1 The South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC)

The first SABC television test transmissions began on 5 May 1975, and a regular service was officially inaugurated on 5 January 1976. This service started with 37 hours of programmes on a single television channel per week, presented in English and Afrikaans. Television advertisements were first flighted in 1978. The structure of the SABC-TV was based on the British Broadcasting Corporation's (BBC's) model (sometimes referred to as the "Reithian tradition" after Lord Reith who is credited with its development), in which public broadcasters aim to function as public resources that inform, educate, and entertain (De Beer, 2010).

SABC-TV having started with one channel in 1975, the SABC television network expanded in 1982 to two national television channels when TV2 and TV3 were launched together on an additional channel. TV1 broadcast in English and Afrikaans, TV2 in the Nguni Languages, and TV3 in the Sesotho languages. In 1983, TV2/3 became an additional entertainment service with programmes offered mostly in English. In the latter part of the 1980s, simulcasts on television and radio were introduced. In 1990, the SABC launched the TSS (Top Sports Surplus) channel. The TSS soon shed the role of carrying sports programmes that could not be accommodated on the TV1 schedule, and developed as a channel in its own right, but was limited to broadcasting in and around the metropolitan areas. In early 1994, its name was changed to NNTV (National Network Television). Attempts were made to define its mission as the provider of a "form of free speech and different opinions and democratic, non-racist and non-sexist standards". Its policy was to "contribute to the political development and expansion of all forms of creative programmes by local production houses". NNTV became an alternative, experimental channel carrying a wide diversity of material (De Beer, 2010).

The South African broadcasting industry had been thriving and growing over the years. It has one of the most extensive radio networks on the African continent, and is forever increasing the number of television channels. The sector has also led to the development of a booming film sector. Numerous bodies play a role in the South African broadcasting industry. The South Africa Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) is

a national public service broadcaster and strives to provide services in all of the country's 11 official languages. Although the State owns the corporation, it is aiming to be financially independent, and on average, 76% of its income is derived from advertising and sponsorships, 16% from television licence fees, and 8% from interest and the hiring of broadcast facilities. The Independent Communications Authority of South Africa (ICASA) was established with the mandate of regulating the telecommunications and broadcasting industries in South Africa. The authority is responsible for issuing broadcast licences, ensuring compliance with rules and regulations, dealing with disputes against licences and protecting consumers from unfair business practice (South Africa Business Guidebook, 2007).

The National Association of Broadcasters (NAB) represents the South African broadcasting industry. It is a non-profit organisation entirely funded by its members, organisations, and individuals working in broadcasting and related industries. NAB established the Broadcasting Complaints Commission of South Africa (BCCSA) to handle complaints against any broadcaster that had signed its Code of Conduct. The Film and Publication Board (FPB) was established under the Films and Publications Act and is responsible for assigning age restrictions to films, videos, DVDs, computer games and specific publications, and for advising South Africans on material that may contain harmful or disturbing content, especially when children are concerned. M-Net (Media Network), one of the country's leading television broadcasters, is an encoded subscription channel that originated in 1986, while Multi-Choice provides a digital satellite television service (DStv), consisting of a mixture of British, American, and local channels (South Africa Business Guidebook, 2007).

2.6.2 The advertising industry in South Africa

Since the early 19th century, South Africa advertising agents, like their counterparts in Britain and the US, had merely acted as brokers for advertisements in South African newspapers such as the *Cape Town Gazette*, the *African Advertiser*, and the *Natal Witness*. They organised themselves into an industry at the instigation of the Newspaper Press Union (NPU), which from its inception in 1882, has been concerned with the advertising and the advertising agent. The NPU was not concerned with only the advertisers, but aimed to tie down the agencies to ensure that their revenue credit and methods of operations were controlled. In 1912, the

NPU resolved to recognise individual agencies so that they might receive a commission. There were four: Central News Agencies, South African Advertiser, FG Pay, and Universal Advertising Company. It also agreed that newspapers would register their tariffs within the NPU and that communications to agencies would be pegged at 15% (after World War II this increased to 16%). By 1924, the number of bodies recognised by the NPU had grown to 14 and by 1965 to 31. Ten years ago, there were more than 100 advertising agencies in South Africa, varying in size and scope (this number excluded specialist organisations such as media buying, design, promotion, direct response and other below-the-line shops). Of these, Lindsay Smithers and J. Walter Thompson (JWT) still carried the names that they were first called in the 1920s (De Beer, 2010).

The main body that acts on behalf of the advertising industry in South Africa is the Association of Advertising Agencies (AAA). It is a professional body that represents the interests of its members, served by a board of directors who are the 'captains' of the industry and who determine the policy of AAA in all spheres of its interest. These include media, marketing, education, research, standards, and liaison with bodies relevant to the industry, for example, the Association of Marketers (ASOM), the South Africa Advertising Research Foundation (SAARF), the Advertising Standards Authority (ASA), the Print Media Association (PMA), the National Association of Broadcasters (NAB), and government. The AAA also undertakes education and training in advertising and marketing through the AAA School of Advertising, which has two campuses, one situated in Johannesburg and one in Cape Town, respectively. It is the only South African advertising school accredited by the International Advertising Association (IAA) (De Beer, 2010).

The advertising industry regulates itself through the ASA and the Code of Advertising Practice. Members of the ASA include the AAA, ASOM, the PMA, the NAB and a host of other interested bodies such as Cinemark and the Outdoor Advertising Association. These members voluntarily subscribe to the Code of Advertising Practice. The main objective of the code is to ensure that all advertising is legal, decent, and honest. Its aim is also to ensure that advertisers do not exploit the freedom of commercial speech by methods such as consciously misleading the consumer, stealing the goodwill attached to competitive products, publishing

advertising in bad taste, or making fraudulent claims. If complaints to this effect arise, the validity of these complaints can then be tested and adjudicated by the ASA. This independent body ensures that the regulation of advertising is not in the hands of governmental bodies such as the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA), or solely at the discretion of the court, which often involves costly litigation (De Beer, 2010).

Over the past decades, the South African advertising industry has been undergoing significant changes, some of them because of the transformed political dispensation in the country, others because of international influence and trends. For instance, an advertising agency previously had to be jointly accredited by the media and the industry to earn a commission, similar to the modus operandi of the old NPU. Accreditation was based on whether the agency met a combination of financial and professional criteria. Today, however, advertising agencies no longer have to be accredited. The media register them as agencies to which the media are willing to pay a commission of 16,5% based on their creditworthiness (De Beer, 2010).

2.7 REVIEW OF THE STUDIES THAT HAVE BEEN DONE ON THE MATTERS OF TELEVISION ADVERTISING

This literature review considers the global studies, studies conducted in Africa, and South African studies that have been done on the matters of television advertising and its effects on children (for example, health, mental state, behaviour, and attitudes) will be discussed below.

2.7.1 Global studies

According to data compiled by Kelly and King (2015), an international study compared the patterns of television advertising across 11 countries in 2009, including studies conducted in Australasia, North and South America, and Eastern and Western Europe. Almost 68,500 advertisements were identified in 2,449 hours of television recordings, and foodstuffs/products were the most frequently promoted product type (18% of all advertisements). Two-thirds of food advertisements were for 'unhealthy' products, although this increased to almost 90% in some countries such as Germany, the US and Canada (Kelly & King, 2015).

Further work by Bugge (2016) shows that the food industry spends many resources to influence young consumers' eating and drinking habits. Compared with studies from the US, the UK, and Australia, however, there are strong indications that there is significantly less advertising in Scandinavian countries for 'unhealthy food'. Similar to a previous Swedish study, this study shows that Norwegian children and young people are exposed to little advertising for unhealthy food products through media channels such as television, the internet, magazines, comics, or cinemas (Bugge, 2016).

Research has also shown that both brand awareness and the behavioural disposition (toward fast-food and brands such as McDonald's or other fast-food chains) increased when children were exposed to this marketing technique (in comparison with the control group). In the case of age, older groups (12–15) performed better in brand awareness, but scored lower in behavioural disposition than the 9-year-old group. Moreover, the frequent use of advertising and placement (synergy) increased the effectiveness of these communication tactics on children (Uribe & Fuentes-García, 2015).

In the US, a study of advertisements during children's programming showed that although most advertisements were for foods high in fat, sugars or sodium, or low in nutrients, almost half of all food advertisements contained health/nutrition or physical activity messages (Batada, Seitz, Wootan, & Story, 2008). The Institute of Medicine also reported that there was substantial evidence that

Food and beverage marketing influences the preferences and purchase requests of children. Influences on consumption, at least in the short-term, is a likely contributor to less healthful diets and may contribute to negative diet-related health outcomes and risks" (Institute of Medicine, 2006).

In the UK, despite regulation, children are exposed to considerable numbers of food advertisements on television, mainly for foods high in fat, salt and sugar (HFSS), which are marketed to children using promotional characters and fun themes. Such advertisements have been shown to cause significant increases in the intake of such products, particularly in overweight and obese children, and enhanced preference for

high carbohydrate and high-fat foods in children who consume the highest amounts of televisual media (Boyland & Halford, 2013).

In an Australian study, children viewed food advertising on television. Thirty-seven children aged between 8 and 11 discussed their perceptions of food advertising in focus groups. They engaged as consumers of advertising, noticing technical aspects, and expressing their likes and dislikes with specific techniques. While they understood the persuasive intent of advertising, they nevertheless desired products and made purchase requests. They particularly desired energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods. Children demonstrated sophisticated levels of advertising literacy via their articulation of problems such as deception, impacts on children's physical health, and family conflict. Children revealed themselves as sentient beings, with the capacity to react, respond, and reflect on their experience of advertising (Mehta, Coveney, Ward, Magarey, Spurrier & Udell, 2010).

In Italy, a self-report scale was administered to 300 children aged 8 to 10 and their parents, who completed a questionnaire evaluating the socio-economic status, educational level, and peer influence. The results of a factor analysis supported three identifiable factors, reflecting theoretically-based constructs of children's attitudes toward television advertising: enjoyment, credence, and behavioural intention. The scale showed excellent convergent validity and internal consistency. Credence of television advertising decreased significantly as the age of the children increased. Environmental factors were also significant predictors of children's attitude toward television advertising (D'Alessio, Laghi & Baiocco, 2009).

In Ireland, Scully, Macken, Leddin, Cullen, Dunne and Gorman (2014) conducted a study on food and beverage advertising during children's television programming on Irish television. The study demonstrates that food and drink depicted in advertisements during children's programmes are mostly unhealthy foods with high salt and sugar contents. The study highlights the ongoing need for new rules regarding food advertising in children's programming.

In South Korea, a total of 2,419 children aged 11 to 13 years were selected from 118 elementary schools. All participants completed a self-administered questionnaire with questions about height, weight, television viewing times, food preferences, and

food intakes. The study found that the amount of television watched and exposure to energy-dense/nutrient-poor (EDNP) food advertising was associated with an increased risk of being overweight or obese. Exposure to television advertising for EDNP food was also significantly associated with higher EDNP food preference and intake, and lower fruit and vegetable intake. However, these relationships disappeared for all foods after adjusting for the overall amount of television watched. Although it was not possible to conclude that exposure to television advertising for EDNP food was associated with an increased risk of obesity, preference for EDNP foods, or overall food intake due to the strong comprehensive effects of television viewing time, there was a reason to believe the evidence of the effects of advertising in this study (Lee et al., 2014).

In China, an analysis in 2010 constituted one of the first large-scale studies of the relationship between television watching and snacking behaviours among children and adolescents in China. The results indicate that television use, explicitly paying attention to television commercials, has a significant association among Chinese youth with buying, requesting, and consuming snacks. The pathway between television use and snacking might be one of the catalysts in the already steepening trajectory of obesity in China. Longitudinal studies that can track nutrition and related behaviours, as well as physical activity and obesity trends, alongside the growth of television use in China, is warranted (Parvanta, Brown, Zimmer, Zhao & Zhai, 2010).

In India, Priya, Baisya and Sharma (2010) conducted a study on television advertisements and children's buying behaviour. The findings indicate that the advertised products heavily influenced the children's attitude toward advertisements. Furthermore, the cognitive change among the different age groups leads to the formation of varying attitudes toward the advertisements. There are other potent factors, apart from advertisements, which result in the requests for a product or brand.

Research has also emphasised that some television advertisements undermine social, moral, and religious values, and can negatively influence human behaviour. Some advertisements "violate ethical norms and disrespect the integrity of cultures, the consequences of which manifest themselves in the form of degradation of women, sexual preoccupation, and a boost in materialism" (Singh & Sandhu, 2011).

In New Zealand, research carried out by No, Kelly, Devi, Swinburn and Vandevijvere (2014) shows that food marketing communications that children are exposed to are predominantly for foods and beverages that are high in fat, sugar, and salt. These promotions often target children through specific appeals and child-directed themes or they are placed in media or strings that children frequently access. This raises concerns about whether marketing of unhealthy foods in magazines that are targeted to or frequently accessed by children and adolescents in New Zealand, is similarly an issue. Unlike several other industrialised countries (Sweden, Norway, Canada, Ireland, and the UK), there are currently no regulations or adequate policies in place by the government to reduce exposure of children to the marketing of unhealthy food products to any medium in New Zealand (No et al., 2014).

As shown above, there was some concern expressed in many countries about the extent television can remain a crucial channel for marketing food to children. This can be related to the work by Temple, Steyn and Nadomane (2008), which revealed that 17% of South African television advertising during children's programming was for food and beverages (Cairns, Angus, Hastings & Caraher, 2013:19).

Television is considered a significant source for the provision of entertainment and education/learning for many people, especially children of a school-going age. All television programmes such as commercials, news, documentaries, and cartoons, affect people of all ages in different ways. Children constitute one group in society who spend much time watching television (Muthukumar & Johnson, 2016).

2.7.2 Studies in Africa

We now move the debate on television advertising and its effects on children toward a review of particular studies conducted in Africa.

Gbadamosi, Hinson, Tukaushaba and Ingunjiri (2012) carried out a study that aimed to explore African children's attitudinal reactions to television advertisements. A total qualitative sample of 65 children, selected from four countries, Ghana, Nigeria, Kenya, and Uganda, participated in 12 four-group discussions on the subject matter. The findings suggest that children like television advertising for its entertainment feature, mainly when messages feature children as characters, cartoons, music, celebrities, and humour and those promoting food. Children also derive excitement

from advertising messages that are presented in Pidgin language and are humorously integrated with local languages. The study suggests directions for the efficient use of marketing communication strategies about television advertising for marketers and other bodies with unique roles in communicating with children, for example, government agencies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (Gbadamosi et al., 2012).

In Nigeria, a study was carried out by Gbadeyan (2009) to determine the effect of children's age on their understanding of television commercials in Lagos State. Primary data was generated through the administration of 1,500 pro-forma type questionnaires to the children, using stratified sampling. This sample was taken from a total population of 55,800 children in 10 out of the 20 local government areas in Lagos State. Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to determine whether significant relationships existed between children's age and reaction to television advertising. The study concluded that there is a need to consider the age at which the children should be exposed to a television advertisement. Children under the age of 5-years should be exposed to little advertising, while older children (7-years and above) can be exposed to more advertising (Gbadeyan, 2009).

Further work conducted by Ogbu, Tarnongo and Alakali (2013) studied the impact of television advertising on children. A survey of 800 children was drawn from Makurdi, the capital city of Benue State. The result, among other things, revealed that television advertising exerts substantial influence on the attitude and behaviour of child viewers. The study further showed that the effects reach well beyond moving product desire from one brand to another. The study recommended that concerned authorities, as well as parents, teachers, and churches/mosques, should step up to their responsibilities to protect the future of children (Ogbu et al., 2013).

In Ghana, a study carried out by Akaba, Black, Boolaky and Haldar (2015) explored a much more localised and broad perspective of the influence of child advertising on parents in Ghana for consumer decision-making purposes. The sample consisted of 100 Ghanaian parents of 10-year-old children who were purposely chosen from the higher-income bracket residential areas of Tema and Accra. The results illuminated similarity in the perception of both male and female parents toward acceptance of

the advertisements as well as the product advertised, and congruence with socio-cultural values (Akaba et al., 2015).

In Sudan, a study was carried out by Mohammed and Ahmed (2015), purposed to identify the relationship between television viewing and childhood obesity in primary public schools in Khartoum State. A sample of 120 pupils (males) aged 9 to 14 years was selected from three leading schools to participate in the study. The study found that there was a definite association between obesity and more extended periods of television viewing among pupils. The study recommended that school education programmes should be directed to educate children and their families to reduce the time that is spent in front of the television, and counsel them about healthy and nutritious foods (Mohammed & Ahmed, 2015).

In Egypt, a study carried out by El-Adly (2010) was limited to Egyptian adult viewers of television advertisements in Greater Cairo. The study sought mainly to identify the impact of advertising attitudes on the intensity of television advertisements, avoiding the behaviour. The study showed that the more negative the attitudes toward television advertising, the higher the intensity of television advertising avoidance and vice versa. Advertisers should consider that advertising exposure avoidance is a fact that cannot be ignored. Therefore, they must take into account this avoidance in planning and executing advertising campaigns (El-Adly, 2010).

In Kenya, a study carried out by Oduho (2014) undertook a review of parents' opinions on the influence of television advertising on children, based on a survey conducted in the Buruburu estate in Nairobi. Survey research was used to answer research questions. The population comprised parents of children aged between 6 and 13 years, exposed to television advertising. A total of 70 children from the Buruburu estate were interviewed; and 35 children in the sample were between ages 6 and 9-years. The study findings revealed that middle-class parents in Buruburu were aware of the harm that television advertising could do to their children. They stated that parents should begin to play an active role in enlightening their children on advertising. It was queried whether bits of information could minimise some of the possible negative influences by making children understand the purpose and intentions of advertising. Although television advertising can have a negative impact,

it does have a beneficial role to play; for example, it gives information on a product and demonstrates its use (Oduho, 2014).

In Uganda, a study was carried out by Chebet, Nsibambi, Ojala and Goon (2014) to assess the prevalence of excess weight and obesity among primary children aged 8 to 12-years in Kampala. Participants included 958 pupils (435 boys and 523 girls) from five public and five private primary schools. The study showed a considerably higher level of overweight, obese children, concomitant with underweight children in Ugandan schools, with excess weight and obesity occurring more in girls than boys. Also, children in private schools were more often overweight or obese compared to those in public schools. The high prevalence of body weight disorders found among children has implications for their growth and development (Chebet et al., 2014).

In Lesotho, Van den Berg, Seheri and Raubenheimer (2014) also carried out a study to assess the prevalence of overweight and obese teenager and the associated risk factors among 16-year olds in the of city Maseru, Lesotho. The results showed that among 16-year old children, 27.2% of the girls and 8.3% of the boys were overweight or even obese; 6.4% used alcohol regularly, and 11.7% smoked tobacco. While 28.1% reported no television watching/electronic gaming/computer usage (combined screen time) outside of school, 23.6% reported ≥ 4 hours of combined screen time outside of school. The study identified Westernised dietary and lifestyle changes, along with the results that the 16-year old adolescents were overweight or obese (Van den Berg et al., 2014).

2.7.3 South African studies

Since the focus area of this study is South Africa, the researcher also undertook to review the studies that had been conducted in South Africa in an effort to achieve a firmer foundation of understanding of how to conceptualise the issues in the field of the study.

In South Africa, children tend to watch an average of three to five hours of television per day and up to ten hours on the weekend. If they have a television in their rooms, this statistic may be much higher. Television plays an important and dominant role in the lives of children, and they are definitely influenced by what is presented on television. Therefore, it is fair to say that if children are exposed to advertisements on

a regular basis, animated or not, they will be affected by them on various levels (Naran, 2011).

More recent research, however, has challenged some of the earlier findings that excess weight and obesity in children and adolescents are on the increase, although the prevalence varies with age, gender, and population group. These differences are essential when intervention programmes and policies are considered. South Africa faces a double burden of disease where on the one hand undernutrition and on the other hand excess weight or obesity are found in the same population groups, and in the same households (Rossouw, Grant & Viljoen, 2012).

A study examined the prevalence of underweight, overweight, and obesity in a multiracial group of urban adolescent schoolchildren in Cape Town. The study reported on a substantial percentage of underweight adolescents at 27.1%. Noteworthy also were the levels of excess weight and obesity in teenage girls contrasted to the considerable prevalence of underweight teenage boys (Van Niekerk, Grimmer & Louw, 2014). Significantly, most recent research investigating the prevalence of obesity and overweight among primary school children reported the prevalence of overweight children and obesity as 9.7% and 5.2%, respectively among children (Goon, Toriola, Shaw, Amusa, Shaw & Netshikweta, 2011).

Cardwell-Gardner and Bennett (1999) conducted a study to discover how young children viewed television advertisements explicitly directed at them. Data were collected by making use of eight focus groups. The findings suggested among other things that separate messages must be formulated for boys and girls, that messages must contain a cleverly told story, and that the messages must be relevant to them (Cardwell-Gardner & Bennett, 1999).

Similarly, research that was carried out that focused on the attitudes of urban South African consumers toward advertising regulations and practices. The study found that participants were in favour of strict government regulation of advertising and that advertising rules should be enforced by the government instead of the industry. The study identified differences in the attitude toward advertising standards and practices among participants, based upon demographic characteristics (Petzer, 2012).

It is interesting to note much of the debate around the promotional tools and themes that marketers use to promote child-oriented breakfast cereals to South African children. The ethics behind marketing sugary cereals through child-appealing promotional characters and an implied health theme have been questioned. Breakfast cereals are predominantly marketed to children through cartoon characters, a welcoming theme, and playful graphics messages. The spirit and intention of manufacturers to sell these types of products to children do not complement the Department of Health's goals toward a healthier nation (RSA, 2014; Swana & De Lange, 2015).

Temple et al. (2008) carried out a cross-sectional content analysis study on children's programmes that were recorded on two television channels. SABC2 was registered from 09:00 to 11:00h on six occasions. The languages used were mainly English and Afrikaans plus a small amount of Xhosa. YoTV on SABC1 (15:00 to 16:30h) was mostly presented in English plus a small amount in Zulu. They were recorded during weekdays between June and October 2006. There were 408 advertisements, of which 69 (16.9%) were for food. Findings revealed that many advertisements were for foods of generally good nutritional value, namely yoghurt (24 commercials) and peanut butter (5 posters); these two foods comprised 42% of all advertisements for food. Nevertheless, 55% of food advertisements were for foods of poor nutritional value (Temple et al., 2008).

Evidence from the burden of disease and economic costing studies amply indicate that the public health burden from the hazardous and harmful use of alcohol in South Africa warrants drastic action (Parry, Burnhams & London, 2012). Evidence that banning alcohol advertising is likely to be an effective intervention is reflected in the WHO strategy documents on non-communicable diseases and harmful use of alcohol. Given the weakness of relying on industry self-regulation, the government was considering legislation to ban alcohol advertising, resulting in heated debate (Parry et al., 2012).

Mungal-Singh (2011) studied the increasing trend of risk factors recently analysed the Healthy Active Children South Africa Report Card (2010), which tracked the health status of South African children and the youth, looking at their behaviours

relating to non-communicable diseases (NCD) risk factors. The analysis revealed that:

- The prevalence of overweight children and obesity in South African youth increased between 2002 and 2008 (overweight from 17% to 20% and obesity by 4% to 5%);
- Compared to 2007, decreased physical activity, physical education and increased sedentary time, and increased prevalence of overweight and obesity were noted;
- Undernutrition and malnutrition remain a significant factor and predispose to overweight and obesity in adulthood;
- The anti-tobacco legislation has impacted positively with an overall decrease observed in smoking prevalence rates. However, little effect was seen in the youth.

Significantly, research investigated the policies and procedures in place to guide the practice of marketing in schools and the views of principals on issues about in-school commercialism. It indicated an absence of formal policies to guide the practice of commercial activities at the primary school level. Directors, however, supported the need for policies on in-school commercialism to protect children (Cassim & McIntosh, 2011).

In summary, from the above literature discussion, it could be argued, therefore, that television advertising can have dynamic positive (educational and informative) as well as adverse effects on children's mental and physical health, attitude, and behaviour. It is also evident from the literature that there is still some debate on television advertising directed at children. Many studies show associations between extensive unsupervised television viewing and adverse child behavioural outcomes. Children who watch more television and get involved significantly less in outdoor physical activities show increased levels of obesity, aggression, stereotyped cognitions and other misconceptions, and worse academic performance than children who watch less television and are physically active (Anderson et al., 2003; Anderson, Huston, Schmitt, Linebarger & Wright, 2001; Schmidt & Vandewater, 2008; Sharif, Wills & Sargent, 2010; Lillard, Li & Boguszewski, 2015).

2.8 ROLE OF THEORY IN THE STUDY

This section presents a detailed discussion of the theories used as a conceptual framework for the study.

This study adopted the theory of cognitive development and the social responsibility theory that address television advertising and its effects on children. Mertens (1998) stated that the theoretical framework of a research project relates to the philosophical aspects and practical component of an investigation undertaken to conduct the study. These theories will be discussed below.

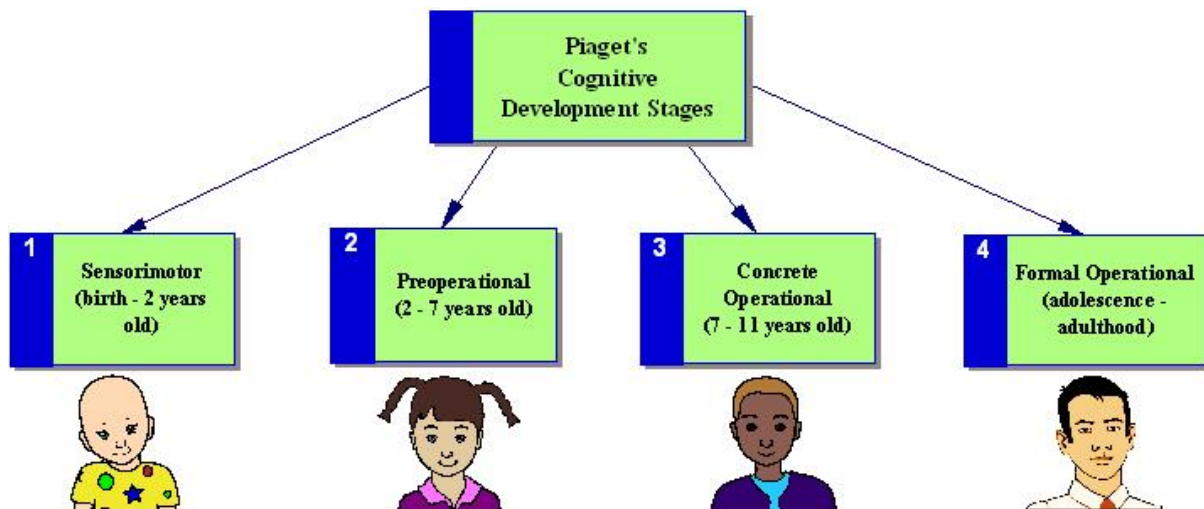
2.8.1 Theory of cognitive development

Following a theoretical approach, Grieg, Taylor and MacKay (2007) stated that cognitive development can be defined as the ways in which children come to think about, know about and understand the world around them. Piaget's theory of cognitive development is a comprehensive theory about the nature and development of human intelligence. It was first referred to by the Swiss developmental psychologist Jean Piaget (Piaget, 1936).

The theory deals with the nature of knowledge and how humans gradually come to acquire, construct, and use it. Piaget has been a primary influence on child developmental psychology and provided a defined, extensive picture of the stages of development which, he argued, all children pass through. His theory was that children grow gradually from a state of incompetence, or immaturity, to competence, being mature, logical thought. Piaget believes that children go through four universal stages of cognitive development (Torres & Ash, 2007).

2.8.1.1 Piaget's cognitive development stages

Figure 2.1 illustrates Piaget's four cognitive development stages: sensorimotor (birth to 2 years), pre-operational (2-7 years), concrete operational (7-11 years), and formal operational (adolescence to adulthood) below.



Source: adapted from Davis, Hummel & Sauers (2006); Wood, Smith & Grossniklaus (2001).

2.8.1.1.1 The sensorimotor stage (0-2 years old)

The first stage, sensorimotor, begins at birth and lasts until a child is between 18 months or 2 years of age. This step involves the use of motor activity without the use of symbols. Knowledge is limited during this stage, because of its base on physical interactions and experiences. Infants cannot predict reaction, and therefore must always experiment and learn through trial and error. Such exploration might include shaking a rattle or putting objects in the mouth. As they become more mobile, infants' ability to develop cognitively increases. Early language development begins during this stage. Object permanence occurs at around 7-9 months, demonstrating that memory is growing. Children realise that an object exists even after they can no longer see it (Wood et al., 2001; Smith, Cowie & Blades, 2003).

2.8.1.1.2 Pre-operational stage (2-7 years old)

The pre-operational stage happens during the period between toddlerhood (18-24 months) and early childhood (7 years). During this stage, children begin to use language; memory and imagination also develop. Children engage in make-believe, and can understand and express relationships between the past and the future. More complex concepts, such as those in cause-and-effect relationships, have not yet been learned. Intelligence is egocentric and intuitive, not logical (Wood et al., 2001; Smith et al., 2003).

2.8.1.1.3 Concrete operational stage (7-11 years old)

The concrete operational stage typically develops between the ages of 7-11 years. Intellectual development in this area is demonstrated through the use of logical and systematic manipulation of symbols, which are related to concrete objects. Thinking becomes less egocentric, and there is increased awareness of external events, which also involves real references (Wood et al., 2001; Smith et al., 2003).

2.8.1.1.4 Formal operational stage (11 years and older)

The period from adolescence up to adulthood is the formal operational stage. Adolescents and adults use symbols that relate to general concepts. Adolescents can think about multiple variables in systematic ways, can formulate hypotheses, and think about abstract relationships and ideas (Wood et al., 2001; Smith et al., 2003).

Criticism of Piaget's work has been that it took no account of socio-cultural differences. Mostly, it did not view children as being influenced by the social or cultural world in which they live (Woodhead, 1999). Woodhead and Faulkner (2000) stated that Piaget did not acknowledge that children also play an active role in their own cognitive development.

Piaget's beliefs about cognitive development continue to influence how many psychologists and educationalists regard children today. Kellett, Robinson and Burr (2004) argued that Piaget does not merely want to know whether children were able to answer questions, he wanted to know and explore the extent to which children understood the situation they were in. John built on Piaget's theory and constructed a three-tier model of consumer socialisation: the perceptual stage (roughly age 3 to 7); the analytical stage (approximately age 7 to 11); and the reflective stage (approximately age 11 to 16) (Calvert, 2008).

The perceptual stage is characterised by "perceptual boundlessness" as children focus on original dimensions of objects and events, thereby limiting their decision-making skills as the informed consumerism arena. John (1999) conducted a review of the consumer socialisation literature and concluded that the ability to process messages analytically was a fundamental precursor to understanding the persuasive

intent of advertising. As children gain the ability to analyse products according to more than one dimension at a time, their knowledge of advertising techniques and brands becomes much more sophisticated. During the reflective stage, a mature understanding of products and marketing practices results in relatively advanced knowledge of products and advertiser intent. Even so, children can be influenced to purchase specific products if the products are made attractive enough to them (Calvert, 2008).

Research has also emphasised that children's ability to think about people, about mental states and emotions, continues to improve well into middle childhood and adulthood. Children between the ages of 6 and 12 acquire an interpretive ability; they start to recognise that experience, knowledge, status, personal characteristics, and bias can influence how different people perceive the same situation, contributing to divergent interpretations and emotions (Lagattuta, Kramer, Kennedy, Hjortsvang, Goldfarb & Tashjian, 2015).

The Piaget's model concepts for what children might understand about advertising are most evident on his pre-operational stage. Piaget believes that children in this stage have little appreciation for others' perspectives and little appreciation of others' intentions. Piaget predicted that until children reach the concrete operational period, they were unable to understand that advertisers and consumers held different perspectives, let alone that advertisers might intend to mislead consumers (Calvert & Palmer, 2003).

Advertisements directed at children include those that feature toys and food products; most of these foods are high in fat and sugar content, and low in nutritional value. Newer and alternative marketing approaches have led to online advertising and advertising linked to social media; they are often referred to as stealth marketing techniques which, for example, embed products in the programme content in films and online video games (Calvert, 2008).

Many children have both their own disposable income (pocket money, allowances, money gifted to them on special occasions) as well as the option to influence what their parents buy. Marketers attempt to influence how that money is spent on their own products rather than on their competitors' products. Television advertising still

obtains most of the advertising spend, but newer technologies are providing new ways for marketers to reach children (Calvert, 2008). Marketing practices such as repetition branded environments, and competitions/prizes or free gifts with a purchase are effective in attracting children's attention, making products stay in children's memory, and influencing their purchasing choices. However, immature cognitive development limits the ability of young children to understand the persuasive intent of such commercials. While it is still the parents' role to control what their young children spend money on or what they buy for them, public policy helps to limit potential harm by regulating how advertisers can interact with children via television (Calvert, 2008).

Wilcox, Kunkel, Cantor, Dowrick, Linn and Palmer (2004) reviewed numerous studies on children's recall of commercials and resultant product preferences, which confirmed that advertising achieves its intended effects (particularly if it had been pre-tested and well-targeted). Some of the studies showed that the resultant product choices also affect children's product purchase requests, and these requests influence parents' purchasing decisions (Wilcox et al., 2004).

2.8.2 Social responsibility theory

For a complete understanding of the phenomenon under study, social responsibility theory is used to examine whether advertising, which is one of the most powerful tools of mass media, is fulfilling its social responsibility toward society. McQuail (1987) identified the following fundamental principles of the social responsibility theory:

- The media should accept specific responsibilities toward society;
- The media should fulfil their responsibilities mainly by setting professional standards about their supply of information, and adhere to the truth, accuracy, objectivity, and balance in their reporting;
- The media should self-regulate within the framework of the law and established institutions;
- The media should avoid publicising information that can lead to crime, violence or social disruption, as well as information that can offend ethnic or religious minorities;

- The media collectively should represent all social groups and reflect the diversity of society by giving people access to a variety of viewpoints and the right to react to these points of view;
- Society is entitled to expect high professional standards and intervention is justifiable if the media fail to meet these standards (Fourie, 2007).

Social responsibility means doing what is appropriate for the society that they (the media) serve, while advertising ethics is a set of laws drawn up by advertisers to ensure that all companies within the advertising fraternity adhere to the set boundaries (Asmall, 2010). Arens (1999) stated that all institutions within a society have a responsibility to maintain social harmony, and advertising institutions are not excluded. Advertising influences a society's perceptions about itself. It attracts thousands of potential customers, affects the outcomes of many events, and such power places a burden of responsibility on those involved in the processes of advertising to maintain ethical standards that support society (Arens, 1999). Therefore, it is the responsibility of those who buy, sell, produce, sponsor, and create advertising to ensure that South African children do not find their advertisements offensive (Tellis, 2007) and that such advertising is not harmful.

Advertising has also been criticised for its influence on society (Arens, 1999), as it can also affect society's cultural beliefs. Some of the more critical issues related to the social impact of advertising include the effect of advertising on a society's value systems by creating new stereotypes, and potentially offending existing value systems (Arens, 1999).

Barve et al. (2015) raised various critical points regarding the role of advertising in society. The authors stated that advertising has never played a more crucial role in the youth's socio-economic development and well-being than in current times. Children are especially vulnerable to the influence of advertising, because they lack the experience and knowledge to be able to differentiate between what is beneficial to them and what is harmful. They cannot evaluate persuasive advertising appeals critically. Critics believe that advertising to children is inherently unfair and deceptive and should be banned (Barve et al., 2015).

Nearly all children around the world are exposed to direct or indirect advertising messages on a daily basis. This is obviously more prevalent among urban children and those with access to the mass media in any format. Therefore, children have become a significant target for advertisers as they are responsive to advertising and are potential consumers of the products at the current time and in the future (Amini, Omidvar, Yeatman, Shariat-Jafari, Eslami-Amiradadi & Zahedirad, 2015).

A study conducted in China (Chang, 2013) assessed the level of advertising shown, and the availability of unhealthy food in China, which shows a connection between an unhealthy diet and being regularly exposed to mass media and advertising. The findings reveal that fast-food franchise outlets were the most frequently promoted, and a significant proportion of advertised beverages were provided at convenience stores. The percentage of television advertising promoting unhealthy foods was 71%, while the incidence of unhealthy food/drink availability accounted for 82.2% at a convenience store. The results of this study further evidenced that watching television and seeing a lot of unhealthy foods being advertised and offered in stores contributed to the increased risk for obesity. Advertising is often blamed for damaging public health by encouraging the consumption of unhealthy food (Chang, 2013). However, it is obviously not enough to see advertising. The actual purchase of such foods still has to take place, in conjunction with the noteworthy warning as parents obviously are not limiting or controlling such unhealthy food consumption, nor do they make sure that they and their children have enough physical activities outdoors.

The study conducted in China observed that fast-food and soft drink commercials and in-store advertisements were aimed at young consumers; they often adopted interactive agents and promises of gifts or coupons as rewards for buying a product. Marketing efforts can capture the minds of many young consumers, because many of their preferences are not yet entrenched; food and drink advertising and promotions on television and at retail stores can therefore exert an influence on their dietary habits in some ways (Chang, 2013).

Prout (2000) believed that children were able and insightful informants about their lives and as stakeholders regarding a way forward to resolve the problem of television advertising risks affecting children. Several studies have found that

children who live in 'large' television viewing households are more likely to have poor academic performance, and an increase in violence, and health problems (Razel, 2001; Chang, 2000; Christakis, 2006; Jusoff & Sahimi, 2009).

Jusoff and Sahimi (2009) argued that more adverse outcomes can be seen among children who are exposed to an excessive amount of television viewing, and also exposed to content on television or video games that involved a lot of violence, sexuality, alcohol consumption, and lacking basic healthy morals or values. Therefore, it is essential for parents to make sure that their children are media literate so that they could become better and more aware consumers, and develop other positive characteristics (Jusoff & Sahimi, 2009).

In academic and policy circles, it was assumed that younger children were more influenced by advertising than were older children. Empirical findings concerning advertising and children's food choices argued that this assumption was unwarranted. Results did not find that a young child was affected by advertising more than were teenagers. The study examined the theoretical gap in the literature regarding the relationship between advertising literacy and advertising effects. By applying a dual-process model of cognitive persuasion, the results showed that the evidence was more consistent with the argument that different processes of persuasion were active at different ages, precisely because literacy levels varied with age (Livingstone & Helsper, 2006).

Some advertisements are being created that exaggerate the qualities of the product, and it was found after complaints were lodged that the goods were not as good as claimed by the advertisers (Dhar, 2011). While generally, most consumers believe that advertising holds a relevant and significant position in present-day society, they also believe that advertisements should be adequately checked for the claims being made to avoid any socially irresponsible advertising.

Most children under the age of about eight years do not comprehend the persuasive intent of advertising. Such children cannot evaluate commercial claims and appeals efficiently and therefore tend to accept the information conveyed in advertising as truthful and accurate. Accordingly, children in this age range are uniquely vulnerable to commercial persuasion (Wilcox et al., 2004). Regarding advertising to children,

there is an agreement in the advertising industry that even if children understand promotional messages, marketers must take individual responsibility in advertising to children (Barve et al., 2015) to guard against false claims.

Many countries have specific legislation and guidance that applies to individuals who fall within an age range from birth up to a cut-off point defined as the end of 'childhood'. The cut-off point varies according to different countries, and within countries may be different for various aspects of the legislation. However, there are protections accorded to a category considered to be 'children'. Additionally, many countries have policies that target groups of children seen to be at high vulnerability because of the adverse circumstances they are experiencing. In sum, all children are vulnerable to external influences, but some are more susceptible than others (Daniel, 2010).

2.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the definition of advertising was discussed, and a review of an extensive range of literature was undertaken. The discussion covered television advertising directed at children; global studies; studies conducted in Africa; South African studies; and the theoretical framework presented. The following chapter will focus on the overview of the theoretical background to and principles of advertising regulations and child protection.

CHAPTER 3

CHILD PROTECTION AND REGULATION OF ADVERTISING TO CHILDREN

This chapter aims to give an overview of the theoretical background to and principles of advertising regulations and child protection; and to offer a visual overlay or framework that can help guide child protection policymakers, administrators, and practitioners, toward a fuller understanding of the difficulties in terms of defining a child, to regulate advertising directed at children. A review of the global restrictions and examples of the regulations adopted in the US, the UK, Canada, Australia, Singapore, Nigeria, and South Africa are briefly discussed.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this decade, children are inundated with messages in the mass media about the ideal body, ideal clothing and hairstyles, ideal materialistic items to possess and the ideal lifestyles to lead. They watch television, browse the internet, play video games, read magazines, follow social media, and view billboard advertisements. Escaping exposure to unrealistic standards of beauty or owning certain possessions is impossible. While limiting media exposure in young children is essential, it is also essential to carry out some prevention programmes designed to combat the messages so prevalent in the media (Harriger, 2012).

Various studies have implicated exposure to media as a significant risk factor regarding the emergence of body dissatisfaction in children (Šramová, 2015; Intusomaa, Mo-suwana, Ruangdaraganonb, Panyayongc & Chongsuvivatwong, 2013; Lo, Waring, Pagoto & Lemon, 2015). This is especially relevant, given the amount of time an average child spends interacting with mass media today. It has been reported that children watch an average of 21 hours of television in any given week, and are exposed to over 40 000 advertisements each year. This figure does not take into account their exposure to more media forms such as magazines, the internet, social media, and video games (Harriger, 2012).

According to Harriger (2012), researchers assume that when more media facets are considered, the time children spend interacting with the media amounts to 35 to 55 hours each week. While the media can enhance language development, and can have a positive effect on pre-social behaviour or improve learning, there is also the

significant danger posed when children are exposed to violent content, sexually explicit images, and unrealistic standards of beauty or having to own certain items. Many children view television programmes or interact with other forms of media that are targeted for an older audience, and as a result, they are exposed to a variety of messages presented to them by the media. It has been found that children begin to internalise messages about thinness and beauty at an early age (Harriger, 2012).

Researchers, policymakers, and the public, in general, treat children as a specific audience, while children are especially vulnerable to adverse effects from mass media exposure. Younger children tend to be more vulnerable to media manipulation and adverse effects than older children. However, there are two major reasons why children are regarded as a select group when it comes to mass media. One reason is that specific reasoning ability – cognitive, emotional and moral – is at relatively low level among the young, and takes some time to develop to a point where those abilities can adequately protect a person from media manipulation. A second reason is that children lack the degree of real-world experience required to process media messages well. Real-world experience is a necessary context to help people recognise when media messages are misleading them (Potter, 2013).

According to Kunkel and Wilcox (2001), advocates of child protection and policymakers have focused their attention primarily on television, because this medium is present in almost every household, and children spend a considerable amount of time being exposed to this medium even when they are young. This activity has been the primary focus in policies intended to protect children from harmful effects of exposure to television content as well as policies designed to protect children from unfair advertising practices. There are two types of regulations that are intended to protect children from unfair practices in television advertising. One of the regulations intends to limit the amount of time devoted to advertising in programmes aimed at children. The second type of regulation designed to protect children is the policy to keep a clear separation between programme content and commercial content (Potter, 2013).

3.2 CHILD PROTECTION

Child protection is a term used to describe philosophies, policies, standards, guidelines, and procedures intended to protect children both from intentional and unintentional harm. The definition reflects the duty of organisations, and the people involved, toward children in their care or reach. Child protection emphasises the legal grounds upon which social workers and police can intervene, to identify children who have been harmed or are likely to be harmed and to intervene if they need to, to protect such children. Child protection is often used to delimit specific services for children in need of protection from abuse and neglect. It is a term more often used in European welfare states. Child protection can be characterised as social written material, and lengthy procedural guidelines used locally, but tightly coordinated and controlled by the central authority. Child protection systems have been criticised for their lack of social solidarity in comparison to child welfare systems (Khoo, 2010).

Child protection systems are charged with ensuring child safety, permanency, and well-being of children who experience maltreatment. Research supports the notion that ensuring security and permanent protection for maltreated children is not enough. Numerous studies have demonstrated that maltreated children are at a higher risk of experiencing conditions that arise from internalised problems, such as depression, socio-emotional issues, and other difficulties (Kortenkamp & Macomber, 2002; Bellamy, 2008; Taussig, Clyman & Landsverk, 2001). However, obvious problems are also prevalent, such as aggression and other forms of delinquent behaviour (Jones, LaLiberte & Piescher, 2015).

As child protection policies and practices begin to shift to fuller support of child well-being, developing a shared understanding and definition of this concept is vital. However, to date, there is no shared agreement available. Without the ability to define child well-being, there is limited capacity to promote child well-being, and evaluate if practices are achieving this goal. Most definitions of child well-being underscore the complexity of this concept and include indicators that consider the child as well as several domains of overall life quality and function, including physical, mental, and behavioural health; social and emotional health;

safety, and physical environment; economic security; and academic and intellectual outcomes (Lou, Anthony, Stone, Vu & Austin, 2008; Jones et al., 2015).

3.3 POLICY FOR ADVERTISING DIRECTED AT CHILDREN

Globally, children are exposed to high volumes of food advertising on television. Although the absolute frequency of this type of advertising varies by country, its aim is consistent: the marketing of not only healthy, but often unhealthy products. The targeted broadcasting of unhealthy food advertisements when the highest numbers of children are watching, and the use of child-oriented effective marketing techniques define a media environment in which children are often and deliberately targeted with commercial messages that run counter to nutritional recommendations (Kelly, King, Baur, Swinburn, Rayner, Lobstein, Macmullan & Mohan, 2013). According to the World Health Organization (WHO) (2010) and many other institutions concerned about the health of children, limiting the consumption of such foods is an essential preventive strategy to limit childhood obesity, and the development or extension of statutory regulations to prohibit unhealthy food advertising when a significant number of children are watching could be a useful first step (Kelly et al., 2010).

Evidence indicates that an unhealthy diet is also a risk factor for non-communicable diseases. The risks presented by unhealthy diets start in childhood and build up throughout life. To reduce their future health risk for contracting NCDs, children should maintain a healthy weight and consume foods that are low in saturated fat, trans-fatty acids, free sugars, and salt. Unhealthy diets are associated with becoming overweight and ultimately obese: conditions that have increased rapidly in children around the world over recent years (WHO, 2010).

The systemic reviews by the World Health Organization (WHO) (2010) show that although television remains an essential information and entertainment medium, it is gradually being complemented by alternative media and an increasingly multifaceted mix of marketing communications that focus on branding and building relationships with consumers. This vast array of marketing techniques includes advertising, sponsorship, product placements, sales promotions, cross-promotions using celebrities, brand mascots or characters popular with children, websites, packaging, labelling, and point-of-purchase displays, emails and text messages, philanthropic

activities tied to branding opportunities, communication through ‘viral marketing’, and word-of-mouth. Food marketing to children is now a global phenomenon and tends to be pluralistic and integrated, using multiple messages via multiple channels (Davies, 2011).

Many studies conducted on the issue of food advertising directed at children illustrate how this linked problems have become a worldwide concern (Andreyeva, Kelly & Harris, 2011; Folkvord, Anschu, Boyland, Kelly & Buijzen, 2016). In this regard, individual countries have their own laws related to advertising aimed at children. In Canada, for example, advertising aimed at children under the age of 13 is prohibited. However, the problem is that it is often difficult to monitor all the various forms of advertising (Nadeau, 2011).

Television remains the medium that is most targeted by regulations and laws, as it is often the children’s focus of interest, over and above the rise of the internet (Option Consommateurs, 2008). A report by the WHO (2007) about food marketing to children mentioned that television was then already the most regulated medium; it was also the most widely regulated in terms of countries: 85% of the 73 countries surveyed had some form of regulation for television advertising to children and almost half (44%) had some specific restrictions on the timing and content of television advertisements directed at children. Two countries (Sweden and Norway) and one Canadian province (Quebec) banned television advertising to children altogether. The effect of such bans on children’s diets is, however, difficult to check; existing bans tend to be undermined by cross-border advertising, such as advertising that originates from another country, and other marketing techniques and factors that complicate any evaluation (Nadeau, 2011).

In some jurisdictions, marketing relies on self-regulation by economic operators, including advertising, the media, and producers. To be effective, however, self-regulation needs a clear legislative framework. Furthermore, any self-regulatory system needs sufficient incentives to become and remain efficient. There is no reason to believe that the industry will take part in self-regulation for selfless reasons ‘just to improve public health’. However, a threat of government adjudication can be a strong incentive (Anderson, 2013).

In general, a self-regulatory system works best when pressure from government and civil society, and the threat of lawsuits is the greatest; it is less efficient when there is little advocacy. Furthermore, regulations should cover the entire range of marketing activities and platforms to which children are exposed, to prevent advertisers from merely using alternative media to avoid the regulations. Interpretations by the public and primarily by vulnerable groups such as children should be included in the evaluation of the advertisements, since evidence from some studies shows that voluntary systems do not prevent the kind of marketing that has an impact on younger people (Anderson, 2013).

Self-regulation can only be useful as long as there is provision for a third-party review of complaints about breaches. Otherwise, the interested persons who create and agree to abide by a code are the same ones who monitor its application. Sanctions and the threat of sanctions are needed to ensure compliance (Kelly et al., 2013). An independent body or a government agency should be responsible for monitoring such marketing practices and should carry out their regulation thereof systematically and routinely.

On the other hand, many studies show that self-regulation does not work. An independent review, conducted in 2008 for the UK government, of the Voluntary Social Responsibility Standards in the production and sale of alcoholic drinks identified many areas of poor practice often present in clubs and bars for young people, including individuals who seem to be under the age of 18 years. Thus, a range of experiences demonstrates the unworkability of self-regulation. The only solution, therefore, is statutory regulation (Anderson, 2013).

Hawkes (2007) outlined the three significant regulations regarding advertising directed at children as follows:

- Statutory regulation: Texts enshrined in-laws or statutes, or rules designed to fill in the details of the broad concepts mandated by legislation.
- Development, promulgation, and enforcement are the responsibility of a government or mandated body. These can be used to implement restrictions or prohibitions, including advertising bans, which prohibit the measure or content of specified forms of advertising through specified media (Hawkes, 2007).

Government guidance can be provided via guidelines issued or implemented by a government or mandated body.

Self-regulation is usually regulation led, funded, and administered by the industries concerned in terms of two essential elements: a Code of Practice that governs the content of marketing campaigns, and a process for the establishment, review, and application of the Code of Practice, usually in the form of a self-regulatory organisation set up by the advertising and media industries, and in many cases involving the companies that use advertising to promote their products or services. Such institutions usually exist independently of government regulations, but may be mandated by the government. Self-regulation is sometimes used to refer to voluntary codes developed by individual food companies. However, they cannot be described strictly as self-regulatory, because they usually lack a semi-independent process for the establishment, review, and application of the Code of Practice (Hawkes, 2007).

There is also a view that educational approaches targeting both parents and children could reduce children's exposure to and the negative impacts of unhealthy food marketing. These approaches often focus on advertising literacy interventions such as "the skills of analysing, evaluating, and creating persuasive messages across different contexts and media" (Livingstone & Helsper, 2006).

Hawkes (2007) argued that "despite greater efforts made to monitor regulations ... there is still no concrete evidence on the effectiveness of the rules in the prevention of unhealthy diets or obesity". Moreover, organisations such as the Coalition on Food Advertising to Children (CFAC) and the WHO argued that stricter restrictions on food advertising were essential to address the mounting crisis presented by childhood obesity, on the basis that exposure to junk food or fast-food advertising contributes to an atmosphere that encourages children to eat unhealthy food (Oommen & Anderson, 2008).

The Interagency Working Group on Foods Marketed to Children's guidelines for food and beverage advertising in children's television programming indicated that industry attempts at self-regulation had been unsuccessful in minimising children's exposure to advertising of unhealthy products. Child-targeted food advertising remained

dominated by food products high in ingredients believed to have negative impacts on children's weight and health. Policymakers who wish to enact regulation or legislation to govern the food industry's child-targeted marketing practices should have a clear understanding of the amount and types of advertisements children view (Hingle, Castonguay, Ambuel, Simth & Kunkel, 2015).

3.4 WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION'S POLICY ON FOOD ADVERTISING TO CHILDREN

Oommen and Anderson (2008:7) cited the World Health Organization (WHO) as condemning food and beverage advertisements that exploit children's vulnerability. In its Global Strategy on Diet, Physical Activity and Health, the WHO (2004) stated that advertising messages that persuaded unhealthy dietary habits or physical inactivity should not be encouraged. The WHO called upon governments of different countries to work with various stakeholders from communities and industries to develop suitable methods to deal with the advertising of food directed at children.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC, 1989) stipulated that children should be protected from economic exploitation, and emphasised that advertising organisations should not take advantage of the gullibility of children. The convention furthermore stated that children had a right to adequate food and that such food should be beneficial to their health and well-being. The WHO recognised that unhealthy food marketing affects children of all ages, and therefore the UNCRC's regulations apply to all persons under 18 years old (Oommen & Anderson, 2008).

Oommen and Anderson (2008) also mentioned that the WHO's (2007) recommended policy included:

- Prohibiting advertising of energy-dense, micronutrient-poor food products in particular settings, using specific methods, or targeting a particular age group;
- Prohibiting advertising of energy-dense, micronutrient-poor foods and beverages to children;
- Prohibiting all commercial promotion of any products to children.

The protection of children is guided by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (Article 17), and Article 18 of the International Chamber of Commerce's

(ICC) Code of Advertising Practice. The World Health Assembly mandated the WHO in 2003 to develop a set of recommendations regarding food marketing to children. Moreover, in 2007, the International Obesity Task Force (of the International Association for the Study of Obesity) released the 'Sydney Principles', which provide a set of "guiding principles for achieving substantial reductions in the commercial promotion of foods and beverages" (Hawkes, 2004; Cassim, 2010).

3.5 THE DEFINITION OF A CHILD

The terminology used to describe 'child' varies between countries. The terms of use include 'child', 'children', 'young children', 'young people', 'teenagers', 'small children', and 'minors'. There is no single, globally accepted definition of the notion of a child (Oommen & Anderson, 2008). However, in certain international treaties and agreements, the following definitions are given:

- The United Nations Convention on the Right of the Child (UNCRC) (1989) stated in Article 1: "For the present Convention, a child means every human being below the age of 18 years; unless, under the law applicable to the child, the majority is attained earlier".
- The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) stated in Article 2: "For this Charter, a child means every human being below the age of 18 years" (African Child Policy Forum, 2013).

There have been numerous debates about the effects of setting an age-based definition for childhood. However, universalising a definition of childhood is necessary to create a set of internationally supported rights that apply to all people across space and time. Additionally, such a definition is necessary for codifying rules that can move across community and state borders, as so many people do. On the other hand, in any particular place or at any given time, the definition of a child as someone under the age of 18 may be either more or less sensible, useful, or ethical regarding the understanding of people's daily lives, societies, needs, and desires (Kendall, 2008).

According to Kendall (2008), the universal age-based definition was linked to an enumeration of appropriate and inappropriate activities, relationships, rights, and responsibilities for children. The 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child, which

both crystallised and served as the basis for much of the current international development, discussion, and action concerning children, stated that the nuclear family was the primary unit of concern about the child, and outlined the rights of children as including:

- Freedom of religion, association, peaceful assembly, nationality, information, and dignity;
- Access to their parents whenever possible, protection from violence and abuse, protection by the State if the family is abusive;
- Access to healthcare, education, and social security benefits, “to a standard of living adequate for the child’s physical, mental, spiritual, moral, and social development”;
- Protection from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with their education, or to be harmful to their health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral, or social development;
- The right to rest and leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to their age, and to participate freely in cultural life and the arts.

The purpose of developing these regulations was to reduce the impact of marketing on children’s diets and general well-being, and not to address whether or not children understand the messages contained in advertising. Several factors need to be considered when deciding which children need protection.

3.6 GLOBAL RESTRICTIONS ON ADVERTISING DIRECTED AT CHILDREN

Globally, international law provides an agreement aiming to protect children’s rights. According to this agreement: “The Member States recognise the importance of the role assumed by the media and make sure that children have access to information and content from various national and international sources, in particular those that aim to promote their social, spiritual, moral, as well as physical and mental well-being” (Option Consommateurs, 2008; Nadeau, 2011).

About advertising directed at children, the approach adopted by Quebec is an example in the international arena that will be considered. It is the first jurisdiction in North America to have established a law for the monitoring of this type of advertising. This law was promulgated in 1980, after demands for such jurisdiction were made

by the majority of Quebec's population and several associations. Articles 248 and 249 of the *Option Consommateurs*, a consumers' rights organisation, therefore aim to protect children against misleading or harmful advertising, or even advertising altogether. They stipulate that advertising to children who are younger than 13 years of age, and for commercial purposes, is prohibited. To determine if an advertising message is actually directed at a child under the age of 13, one must take into account the context in which it is presented, and in particular the nature and intended purpose of the goods advertised, the manner of presenting such advertisement, as well as the time and place in which it is shown (*Option Consommateurs*, 2008; Nadeau, 2011).

These legal measures are part of Quebec's Consumer Protection Act. They are enforced by the Office de la Protection du Consommateur. This law does not apply to products that are exclusively or mainly used by children aged 13 or younger. Individually, regarding foods, soft drinks and other sugar-sweetened or salted snacks, the standards do not apply, since these products are not eaten exclusively, or even mainly by children under 13. This law applies to all forms of broadcasting and provides that only advertisements that do not appeal exclusively to children may be presented during children's programming (Nadeau, 2011).

Numerous countries have adopted regulations, standards, agreements, and other forms of restrictions aiming to protect children from harmful advertising. However, only two countries have adopted rules similar to those applied in Quebec. Sweden decided in 1991, to abolish all forms of advertising to young children, considering that this target audience is composed of vulnerable individuals. Advertising is, therefore prohibited if it targets children aged 12 or younger. Sweden stated that it is morally unacceptable to use a medium that is as powerful as television to target this audience. Mailed advertising for individuals under the age of 16 is also prohibited in Sweden. In Norway, a law was also issued, but unlike Sweden, it does not demand the prohibition of advertising aimed at children, nor does it regulate such advertising in the way that occurs in Quebec. In Norway, the focus is placed on the fact that advertising should allow the audience to distinguish fiction from reality. Furthermore, advertisers may not broadcast any advertising featuring a child before 21h00 (*Option Consommateurs*, 2008; Nadeau, 2011).

Television advertising aimed at children has been the subject of much public concern both in the US and in Europe. In the US, policies restricting advertising aimed at children were formulated as early as the 1970s. Two decades later, several European countries implemented rules or regulatory policies regarding advertising directed at children. Belgium, for example, issued the five-minute rule in 1995, a decree which stated that children's shows may not be immediately preceded or followed by advertisements aimed at children. In the same period, Greece proclaimed a partial ban on advertising, prohibiting toy advertising between 07h00 and 22h00 (Buijzen & Valkenburg, 2003).

In the UK, a specific code was implemented for advertising aimed at children. On the Dutch national television network, sponsorship of children's television programmes is prohibited. In Iceland, children's programmes cannot be interrupted by advertisements. Finally, as discussed previously, Sweden and Norway have also banned or limited advertising targeted at children (Buijzen & Valkenburg, 2003; Andronikidis & Lambrianidou, 2010).

Specific legal provisions have been established in some countries to protect minors from the hazards implied by television advertisements. These are based on the national interpretation of a European Union (EU) directive, which declared that all programmes that can harm the physical, intellectual, or moral growth of children, including advertisements, are prohibited during the hours that children usually watch television (European Parliament, 2003). In Liechtenstein, advertisements that take advantage of the credulity or lack of experience of children are prohibited by local legislation. In New Zealand, the law prohibits the broadcasting of advertisements during children's television programmes, and advertisements aimed at preschool children are entirely prohibited (Andronikidis & Lambriandou, 2010).

In Malaysia, advertising is being self-regulated by the Malaysian Code of Advertising Practices. As in most other countries, one of the primary goals of this Code focuses on protecting children from unethical marketing practices. The code stipulates that "advertisements to children shall not contain anything, whether an illustration or otherwise, that would result in harm to them of a physical, mental, or moral nature or that would exploit their credulity, lack of experience or natural sense of loyalty" (Mirandah, 2005).

In Spain, advertising directed at children must always adhere to the rules that such advertising is not allowed to exploit their naivety, immaturity, and natural credibility. Apart from these general rules, the country has specific regulations about advertisements for tobacco, alcohol, and toys, among other products. For example, it is stated that “selling tobacco to young people under 16 is prohibited and advertising of alcoholic drinks on television cannot be directed at minors. Moreover, commercial messages of any information about toys cannot contain inaccurate information about the characteristics or safety of the product nor any misunderstanding [of] its safe use by the child” (Volz, Handschuh & Poshtakova, 2005).

From these highlights, policies to limit or regulate marketing to children have been implemented in other countries, and mostly focus on television advertising. Child-targeted food advertisements have been banned during children’s television programming in Sweden (since 1991), Norway (since 1992), and Quebec, Canada (since 1980). Also, over 30 countries, including Australia, the Republic of Korea, and many countries in Europe, have national laws setting specific restrictions on television advertising to children (Roberto, Soo & Pomeranz, 2014).

Buijzen and Valkenburg (2003) stated that these restrictions on television advertising directed at children are based on either ethical concerns among parents and policymakers about the unfairness of advertising to children or on beliefs that television advertising has harmful effects on children. Furthermore, a summary of the advertising regulation options in several countries is listed in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Advertising regulations in various countries

Territories	Types of regulations
Quebec (1980)	Prohibition of advertising directed at children under 13
Sweden (1991)	Prohibition of advertising directed at children under 12
Norway (1992)	Prohibition of advertising directed at children under 12
Austria, Belgium (Flanders), Luxembourg, Norway	Prohibition of advertising before and after children’s programmes
Greece	Prohibition of toy advertising aimed at children between 07h00, 23h00, and prohibition of war toy advertising at all times
Italy	Prohibition of advertising during cartoons

Finland, Germany	Prohibition of advertising aiming to convince a child to buy a product through a direct offer
Finland	Prohibition of advertising where the sales pitch is delivered by famous cartoon characters or by children
Denmark	Prohibition of advertising featuring characters or puppets that appear in children's programmes
The United Kingdom	Prohibition against the use of children's celebrities in any advertisement broadcast before 21h00 and limitation of the advertising of products that mention the brand
Australia	Prohibition of advertising during programmes aimed at preschool children

Sources: WHO (2007); Nadeau (2011)

3.7 REGULATIONS ADOPTED IN OTHER COUNTRIES

This section presents a detailed review that considers the regulations adopted in the US, the UK, Canada, Australia, Singapore, Nigeria, and South Africa. The countries selected for the review using various regulations are briefly discussed.

3.7.1 The United States' regulations

The National Advertising Council (NAR) established the Children's Advertising Review Unit (CARU) as a self-regulatory programme to promote responsible advertising aimed at children in 1974. CARU is administered by the Council of Better Business Bureaus (CBBB) and funded by members of the children's advertising industry. CARU's self-regulatory programme sets high standards for the industry to assure that advertising directed at children is not deceptive, unfair or inappropriate for its intended audience. The standards take into account the vulnerability of children, regarding that they could be misled or unduly influenced, and their lack of the cognitive skills necessary for evaluating the credibility of the advertising messages. CARU's standards are embodied in principles and guidelines that were first adopted by CARU in 1975, and had been periodically revised to address changes in the marketing and media landscapes. For example, in 1996, CARU added a new section to the guidelines to address concerns about online data collection practices (CBBB, 2014).

CARU monitors and reviews advertising directed at children, initiates and receives complaints about advertising practices, and determines whether such practices violate the programme standards. When it finds violations, it seeks changes through the voluntary cooperation of advertisers and website operators. CARU's role is also that of a general advisory service for advertisers and agencies; it provides informational material for children, parents and educators, and encourages advertisers to develop and promote the dissemination of educational messages to children consistent with the Children's Television Act of 1990 (CBBB, 2014).

The principles and guidelines of the programme apply to national advertising primarily directed at children under the age of 12 years in any medium. Such advertising will be determined by an analysis of factors; no single one of which will necessarily be controlled, including:

- Whether the content of the medium or programme in which the advertisement appears is intended for children under 12, referring to subject matter, format, projected audience demographic, and the extent to which other advertising in such content or slot is designed for children under 12;
- Whether the advertisement appears during, or just before or after, a television programme aired during what is understood to be children's programming, referring to the time of day during which the advertisement appears and the media outlet via which it is broadcast;
- Whether the advertisement appears during, or just before or after, a television programme that counts toward the broadcaster's or cable caster's Children's Television Act obligations;
- Whether, based on all available information (including the subject matter and format of the advertisement), the advertiser intended to direct the advertisement primarily at children under the age of 12;
- Online data collection and other privacy-related practices conducted by website operators that target children under the age of 12 years, or that know or should know that an online visitor is a child under the age of 12 years (CBBB, 2014).

About general principles, section 8 states that advertising targeting or influencing children and youths:

- Should not exploit the natural credulity of children or the lack of experience of young people, and should not strain their sense of loyalty;
- Should not contain anything that might result in mental and/or physical harm;
- Should not promote a lifestyle that is promiscuous or that denigrates or is detrimental to family values (CBBB, 2014).

There are a few guidelines in the US governing food advertising targeted at children. CARU's self-regulatory programme contains high principles for different industries to guarantee that advertising that is directed to children is not misleading, excessive or unsuitable. The CARU guidelines apply only to children under 12 years of age. The guidelines state that the quantity of food advertised on television should not exceed the serving shown on the Nutrition Facts Panel, and that food should be advertised in such a way that it is focused on the health and well-being of the child. However, CARU's guidelines have no legal jurisdiction over food advertisers, and it can only request voluntary compliance. CARU is supported by many food industries, including McDonald's, Burger King, Cadbury, Schweppes, Coca-Cola, among others (Oommen & Anderson, 2008).

3.7.2 The United Kingdom's regulations

In the UK, the advertising regulatory system is a mixture of self-regulation for non-broadcast advertising, and co-regulation for broadcast advertising. The Advertising Standards Authority (ASA) is the UK's single independent advertising regulator across all media. It enforces the Advertising Codes, which are separate codes for non-broadcast and broadcast advertisements. The codes are designed to ensure that all advertising is "legal, decent, honest, and truthful". However, the codes also include more prescriptive rules for sensitive products, such as medicines and alcohol, as well as specific rules for advertising to children (Conway, 2016).

The Advertising Codes were written and maintained by two industry bodies. The Committee of Advertising Practice (CAP) is responsible for the Non-broadcast Advertising Code (print, outdoor, cinema, online, short message service (SMS), direct mail, and so forth). The Broadcast Committee of Advertising Practice (BCAP) oversees radio, television, print, teleshopping, interactive television advertisements, and the content on self-promotional television channels. BCAP rules cover both the

content and scheduling of advertisements. Moreover, the regulatory system is self-regulatory for non-broadcast advertising. The 12th edition of the Advertising Code (known as the CAP Code) came into force on 1 September 2010. The system is co-regulatory for broadcast advertising; there is a co-regulatory partnership between the ASA and the Office of Communications (Ofcom) (Conway, 2016).

Ofcom is the primary body responsible for all media communications, including advertising via mass media in the UK. In July 2007, Ofcom introduced new regulations for limiting the advertising of food that is high in fat, sugar and/or salt, and which is targeted at children aged 9 and younger. From January 2008, the regulation became more stringent, with no advertising for foods that are high in fat, sugar, and/or salt being allowed to be aired to children aged 15 and younger. This food advertising prohibition also applies to all cable and children's satellite television channels. Moreover, advertisers are restricted in the use of celebrities or cartoon characters for promotion, and in using gifts as incentives when advertising foods that are high in fat, sugar, and/or salt (Oommen & Anderson, 2008).

Regulation that applies to advertising and marketing of food to children in the UK includes statutory regulation (administered by government or the government regulator), co-regulation (between regulator and industry), and self-regulation (industry only). Rules are set at the level of the EU as well as on a national level, with some marketing communications being regulated by enactments of EU directives (for example, product placement in television programmes is independently regulated under the Audio-Visual Media Services Directive) (Landon, 2013). International and national level codes of practice and best practice guidelines apply in the UK market, most of which have been developed by advertising and marketing trade bodies or food industry trade bodies, and a minority that have been drawn up by government jointly with self-regulatory agencies. Some codes specifically address a particular issue, such as digital marketing, data collection, parental consent, and direct marketing. There are also individual food company and licensing company pledges and policies, which operate at different levels and in different locations within the country (Landon, 2013).

Mitchell (2013) argues that the EU framework of regulations sets some minimum standards for the protection of children from unhealthy marketing, including limits on

false health claims, misleading statements, and direct encouragement of children to buy food or to induce others to do so on their behalf. However, the EU's approach is potentially weakened by the exemption from the regulation of exaggerated claims, the failure to allow member states to develop stronger regulations for food labelling, and the encouragement of voluntary self-regulation as opposed to state-led action regarding broadcast media.

The UK has adopted some strong restrictions against unhealthy (high in fat, salt, or sugar) food and drink marketing in broadcast media, but has not taken a strategic approach to reduce marketing of unhealthy foodstuffs to children more widely. The UK government has endorsed the development of vague and uncertain codes, with the interpretation of health-related consequences left in the hands of self-regulatory agencies. This factor has led to a complex and incoherent system. Moreover, many forms of advertising and marketing efforts are left uncovered by industry-led self-regulation, creating gaps that ignore the nature of modern integrated marketing. UK regulation does not meet the UK Government's own standards of reasonable regulation; and central players, such as the UK Government-sanctioned co-regulatory and self-regulatory industries, also lack vital qualities that may be necessary to secure legitimacy in the eyes of both public health advocates and the general public (Mitchell, 2013).

3.7.3 Canada's regulations

In Canada, except for the province of Quebec, advertising is regulated according to the Canadian Code of Advertising Standards. This code was created in 1964 and has been regularly updated since then. It includes 14 articles, which set advertising's accessibility criteria for all forms of media, including print media, online, and outdoor advertising. The 14 provisions of this code address various issues related to responsible advertising practices; for example, accuracy and clarity; disguised advertising techniques; price claims; safety, and unacceptable or hazardous depictions and portrayals; and advertising to children (Option Consommateurs, 2008; Nadeau, 2011).

Option Consommateurs (2008) stated that Canada issued guidelines in 2004 regarding the scope of food advertising aimed at children. This addition was entitled "Advertising to children" (Article 12), and provides that advertising messages must

not present information or illustrations that might result in children's physical, emotional, or moral harm. Advertising must not exploit their credulity, their lack of experience, or their sense of loyalty. Article 13 ("Advertising to Minors") provides that products prohibited from sale to minors must not be advertised in such a way as to appeal mainly to persons under the legal age; and people featured in advertisements for such products must be, and must clearly be seen to be, adults only (Nadeau, 2011).

In the 1970s, the Canadian Radio-television and Telecommunications Commission established its own code of ethics, namely the Broadcast Code for Advertising to Children, which ratifies the code that was already in effect in Canada. Canadian broadcasters are aware that they must comply with the requirements of this code and that it is a condition for the renewal of their licence. Moreover, Canada has opted for two different policies regarding advertising to children. In French-speaking Quebec, advertising to children is banned, whereas in the rest of Canada, it is self-regulated. Except for Quebec, Advertising Standards Canada (ASC) is the national industry association in charge of self-regulation, with a precise role in regulating food advertising to children. The ASC, similar to the self-regulating organisation in the US, does not regulate other promotional activities: neither their location nor the quantity of advertisements for foods high in fat, sugar and/or salt, targeted at children. Also, although the ASC views itself as being practical, objective and having open lines of communication with stakeholders, critics have accused the system of being too industry-friendly, the enforcement standards inherently weak, and that the complaints system is lacking independence and transparency (Hawkes, 2005).

3.7.4 Australia's regulations

The two advertising regulations that operate in Australia include the Children's Television Standard and the Free TV Australia Commercial Television Code of Practice, which is also known as the Commercial TV Code. The Australian Communications and Media Authority (ACMA) is the primary body responsible for enforcing the Commercial TV Code and Children's Television Standard. The Commercial TV Code has accepted the Australian Association of National Advertisers (AANA) Code for advertising to children, which states that advertisements for food/beverages are not allowed to persuade a child to choose

detrimental eating/drinking behaviour. It ought not to convey any inaccuracies regarding the nutritional value of the product (Oommen & Anderson, 2008).

The Commercial TV Code regulates the content of commercial television. Programmes designed for children of primary school age are classified as 'C' programmes, and programmes for preschool children are classified as 'P' programmes. In 2006, C programmes were broadcast from 16h00 to 16h30 from Monday to Friday. Some networks also broadcast C programmes on Saturday and Sunday mornings. The P programmes were broadcast from 09h00 to 09h30 on weekends and from 15h30 to 16h00 during the week. Advertisements are limited to ten minutes per hour in C classified programmes, and no advertising is permitted during P classified programmes. However, both the Commercial TV Code and the Children's Television Standard lack clear-cut descriptions about the breadth of these regulations. Moreover, the type of food that can be advertised is not presently regulated in Australia. This has provided a window of opportunity for many fast-food outlets to advertise during these times (Oommen & Anderson, 2008).

3.7.5 Singapore's regulations

Advertising in Singapore is subject to self-regulation by the Advertising Standards Authority of Singapore (ASAS). ASAS is funded by member associations, including advertising and media associations, representatives from medical and pharmaceutical associations, government agencies, and the Consumers Association of Singapore (CASE). The close relationship with a consumer group and the presence of a representative on its board is unusual, since most SROs (self-regulatory organisations) have no consumer representation on their boards. Such representation is recommended on the basis that self-regulation must be led and controlled by business to be genuinely useful (Hawkes, 2007).

ASAS (2008:5) stated that advertising control systems are as follows:

- The Code of Advertising Practice and ASAS, the Singapore Code of Advertising Practice (the Code), is a fundamental part of the system of control by which local advertising regulates its activities;
- The Code has been endorsed by organisations representing advertising agencies and media. It is administered by the Advertising Standards Authority

of Singapore (ASAS) Council to the Consumers Association of Singapore (CASE). The Code will be used by ASAS to regulate local advertising activities;

- ASAS comprises members drawn from the organisations representing advertisers, advertising agencies, and media, government agencies, and other supporting organisations. The ASAS Council meets regularly to ensure compliance with the Code and keep it up to date.

The responsibilities of the Advertising Standards Authority of Singapore, advertisers, agencies, and the media include the following:

- While ASAS provides individual advice and guidance to advertisers, advertising agencies, and media that are in doubt as to the acceptability of advertising, mainly before publication, ASAS is not geared toward being, nor does it intend to become, a clearing house for the approval of all advertising;
- Responsibility for observing the code rests primarily with the advertiser, but it also applies to any advertising agency or medium involved in the publication of an advertiser's message to the public. All existing legislation will bind ASAS.

The powers of the Advertising Standards Authority of Singapore are as follows:

- ASAS shall be empowered to ask an advertiser or an advertising agency to amend or withdraw an advertisement that, in the opinion of ASAS, is contrary to the code. It shall also be empowered to ask an advertiser or advertising agency to withhold such advertisement until it has been modified; or, in the case where ASAS has requested further information, to decide whether an advertisement is contrary to the Code, pending receipt of such information and the resulting decision;
- ASAS is empowered to ask media owners to support the decisions of ASAS. ASAS shall be entitled to request that its members sanction parties that violate the Code, including the withdrawal of facilities, rights or services from parties concerned, subject to legal constraints. Members shall make the utmost effort to ensure that they have the power to sanction parties that violate the Code, for example, by the incorporation of such power into their own membership rules or their contracts with clients;

- ASAS shall be empowered to rule on any disputes relating to breaches of the Code arising between members of the Singapore Advertisers Association, the Association of Accredited Advertising Agents, Association of Media Owners (Singapore) and Association of Broadcasters (Singapore). Such rulings shall be binding on members of the associations;
- ASAS may also advise on any advertisement prepared and/or published by a person or company outside the four associations, provided that any such advertisement be brought to the attention of ASAS;
- ASAS shall not be responsible for any loss or damage, whether direct or consequential, in any event (ASAS, 2008).

3.7.6 Nigeria's regulations

In Nigeria, the main regulatory body charged with this role is the Advertising Practitioner's Council of Nigeria (APCON). APCON was established by Decree (now Act) No. 55 of 1988 as amended by Decree (now Act) No. 92 of 1993 (www.apcon.gov.ng). It is charged with the following responsibilities (Gbadamosi, 2010):

- Determining who advertising practitioners are;
- Determining what standards of knowledge and skill are to be attained by persons seeking to become registered members of the advertising profession, and reviewing those standards from time to time;
- Securing the establishment and maintenance of a register of persons entitled to practice advertising, and the publication, from time to time, of lists of these persons;
- Conducting examinations in the profession and awarding certificates and diplomas to successful candidates as and when appropriate, and for such purpose, the council shall prescribe fees to be paid respect thereof;
- Performing other functions conferred on the Council by the Act.

APCON is a federal government agency that is responsible for the regulation and control of advertising. Significant parts of its role involve the regulation of advertising to ensure that only substantiated claims are used in advertisements, removing misleading advertisements, preventing spurious claims, and carrying out verification

exercises on sales promotions. For regulation of advertising practices, advertisements are categorised into those for controlled products and those for general goods and services. Advertising for controlled products must undergo a mandatory pre-exposure vetting process, usually conducted by the Advertising Standards Panel of APCON. Advertisements in the latter, general category are not subject to mandatory vetting, but still need to conform to the Code of Advertising Practice. Advertising directed at children falls under the former category (www.apcon.gov.ng).

There are regulatory efforts in place for ensuring ethical practice by advertisers when advertising to children in Nigeria. Specifically, as discussed by Gbadamosi (2010), “section 4.11 of the revised Nigeria Code of Advertising Practice, 3rd edition, January 1, 2005, provides for the protection of children. Advertisements, which tend to induce children to unduly pressurise their parents, guardians, and so forth, to purchase advertised products, are barred”. Furthermore, advertisements inducing children to copy inappropriate behaviour shall not be used to exploit children’s vulnerability. If young models are to be employed in any advertisements, the consent of their parents or guardians must first be obtained. APCON also states that concerned parents can register a complaint by calling, writing, or sending them an email outlining the advertising material in question. Apparently, this also gives parents the opportunity to contribute toward ensuring an ethical advertising practice (Gbadamosi, 2010).

However, Gbadamosi (2010) explains that APCON is faced with several obstacles regarding its bid to regulate and control advertising practices. The most prominent challenges are inadequate funding, attacks on the advertising industry by ‘quacks’ who practise without registering with the council, and unnecessary government interference in the running of APCON. Moreover, Nigeria has not allowed for provisions explicitly addressing the marketing of food to children, although the Nigerian Code of Advertising Practice and Sales Promotions, which is administered by the Advertising Practitioners Council of Nigeria, a statutory body, requires pre-vetting. According to Nigerian law, all advertisements and sales promotions require pre-exposure vetting before their publication or screening; and it is a punishable offence to air or publish non-approved advertisements (WHO, 2012).

3.7.7 South Africa's regulations

The media, in particular, television broadcasting, are not only a platform for communication and the exchange of ideas, but also a tool for influencing the public and the development of the community. Mass media also offer an excellent source of information for educational, social, political, economic, and entertainment purposes. Thus, regulation of the messages and advertising depicted in the various media are of great importance to the South African public (Masuku, 2010) who make value judgments on current issues and form opinions.

While the media inform on a wide range of issues and topics, there is a potential conflict between programmes that highlight the importance of health and advertising that promotes unhealthy products. An unhealthy diet and a sedentary lifestyle are the primary risk factors for obesity. The risk starts during childhood and continues throughout one's life. To decrease the future risk of succumbing to obesity and related conditions, such as diabetes and heart disease, children should consume a healthy diet, a fact that is highlighted in many informative programmes. On the other hand, there is evidence to suggest that more frequent television watching or continuous exposure to other screen-based sedentary activities are associated with increased consumption of sweet and salty snacks, sweetened drinks, and fatty foods; and lower intake of fruit and vegetables (Steyn, Mchiza, Abrahams & Temple, 2014).

In line with most countries across the globe, advertising activities are regulated in South Africa. There are two main bodies for regulating advertising, which control that advertisers adhere to the Code of Advertising Practice (self-regulatory) and statutory regulation in South Africa. The self-regulatory or voluntary regulatory mechanism in South Africa is applied through the Advertising Standards Authority of South Africa (ASASA). Advertising regulation involves altering or removing advertisements that do not comply with regulations as determined by the self-regulating body. However, South Africa falls into the category of countries that have no statutory regulation of food marketing to children. Moreover, the Trade Practices Act of 1976, the Consumer Affairs Act of 1999, and the Bill of Rights make no provision for the role of food advertising to children. The broadcasting apparatus that refers to children is the

Broadcasting Complaints Commission of South Africa (BCCSA), which was established in 2003; and ICASA (Cassim, 2010).

On 6 December 2012, the South African Minister of Health, Dr Aaron Motsoaledi, published regulations regarding section 15(1) of the Foodstuffs, Cosmetics and Disinfectants Act. Regarding these regulations, some restrictions were placed on the labelling, advertising, and promotion of infant and follow-up formulae, liquid or powdered milk marketed as being suitable for infants or young children, complementary foods, feeding bottles, teats and feeding cups with spouts, straws or teats. The final version of these regulations followed a previous draft published for public comment in March 2012 and contained somewhat less restrictive provisions than its predecessor (Mills, 2014).

Steyn et al. (2014) mention that although there are regulations relating to the labelling of food products, there are currently no regulations governing the advertising of food commodities on television to children in this country. ASASA provides guidelines for advertising food and beverages to children using its Code of Advertising Practice. However, ASASA is not a controlling or enforcing body, and only reacts to complaints lodged by members of the public. This means that advertisements are neither screened nor checked by an independent regulatory body before they are published or broadcast.

3.7.7.1 External regulation of advertising

According to Fourie (2008), the most relevant statutory bodies and legal provisions that play a role regarding determining advertising policy are as follows:

- The ICASA instituted its provisions regarding the Independent Communications Authority Act 13 of 2000;
- The Competition Commission was established regarding the Competition Act 89 of 1998;
- The Consumer Affairs Act 71 of 1988 was oriented toward protecting the consumer. This Act provides for control of business practices regarded as unfair because they prejudice or deceive consumers. Since the concept 'business practice' is defined as including "advertising or any other manner of

soliciting business”, the Act plays a role in regulating advertising. This Act provides specifically for the use of trade coupons as a means of advertising and for the establishment of a Consumer Affairs Committee;

- The Trade Practices Act 76 of 1976 aims to protect consumers against false or misleading advertisements;
- The Merchandise Marks Act 17 of 1994 contains various provisions against applying false trade descriptions, altering trademarks, and selling goods which have been imported without identifying the country in which they were produced (the prohibitions also apply to advertising and promoting these products);
- The Trademarks Act 194 of 1993 aims to regulate the use of trademarks, being the word, design or device that distinguishes the goods or services of one trader from those of another.

3.7.7.2 Internal regulation in advertising

The Advertising Standards Authority of South Africa (ASASA) is an independent body set up by the marketing and communications industry. It aims to regulate the industry in the public interest by using self-regulation. ASASA works in close collaboration with the government, statutory bodies, consumer organisations, and other industry stakeholders to ensure that the content of advertising meets the requirements of its Code of Advertising Practice (Fourie, 2008).

The ASASA has provided a set of regulations covering a diverse range of issues, including:

- Disparagement: Advertisements should not attack, discredit or disparage other products, services, advertisers or advertisements, directly or indirectly;
- Comparative advertising: This is permitted, provided that the facts or criteria used are reasonably chosen, relevant, and representative, and the basis for comparison is the same;
- Protection of children: Advertising to children is permitted, provided the advertisement does not contain any potential to harm them mentally, morally, physically, or emotionally. Advertisements should also not exploit the natural credulity of children or their lack of experience (Fourie, 2008).

The differences between external and internal regulation are outlined by Fourie (2008) as follows:

External regulation refers to laws and statutory organisations related to and involved with how the media should function, operate, or perform. Internal regulation refers to how the medium itself (a specific newspaper or radio station or television channel), and non-statutory media organisations organise the functioning and performance of the media, for example, its ethical conduct.

In summary, despite the regulations and laws issued by numerous countries, advertising relies on various strategies to target children. The debate on children's ability to recognise advertising's persuasive dimension is still hotly contested. The regulations that are in place in Quebec are a good start, but they should be updated to take into account the many media, platforms and marketing techniques used to reach children, and assure that children will be better protected by the law and will have the chance to become informed consumers (Nadeau, 2011).

Despite the introduction of various voluntary self-regulatory regimes as well as statutory legislation in some territories, it is evident that current approaches are not adequately addressing the threat of obesity in children and adults. Food advertisers are widely still allowed to promote the consumption of unhealthy foods. Their methods are persuasive and engaging, and perhaps unsurprisingly, children respond enthusiastically. The factors that influence children's food selections and eating behaviours can have profound effects on their diet, at critical stages of development and more generally throughout their lives, and therefore they play a crucial role in lifelong health and well-being. Policymakers need to consider how to effect real and meaningful change in the advertising of food, including the culture of pervasive marketing of unhealthy foods to minors, so that long overdue inroads into tackling the obesity pandemic can finally be made (Boyland & Whalen, 2015).

Countries around the world have taken various steps toward ensuring socially responsible advertising targeted at children. South Africa is no exception, and directions and regulations have been instituted that are meant to guide advertisers in their practices. Hawkes (2007) claimed that the policy options include a range of

laws, statutory guidelines, and self-regulatory systems in different permutations across the globe. However, evidence of the impact of these systems regarding children's diets has proved thus far to be too vague and inconclusive.

New regulatory development is, however, occurring rapidly in some countries, and is of vital importance since better regulations can improve the health of the citizens of this country, and that of its children in particular. In this regard, it must be stressed that children's rights in South Africa, in terms of its Constitution and as a signatory to several international and African conventions (such as the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child) include the right to "enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health" (UNCRC, 1989; Cassim, 2010). Hence, the state is obliged to take appropriate measures to "ensure that all segments of society, in particular children" (Mills, 2014).

3.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter, child protection has been defined, and policies regulating advertising directed at children have been discussed. The discussion included an overview of global restrictions and the WHO's policy on food advertising to children. Regulations that currently exist in the US, the UK, Canada, Australia, Singapore, Nigeria, and South Africa have been presented in detail. The following chapter will focus on the methodology applied in this study to investigate television advertising risks affecting South African children of school-going age, ranging from Grade 2 to Grade 7.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter aims to offer the reader more in-depth understanding of the research methodology (methods, techniques, and measures) employed in this study. In the conceptual stage, the research problem needs to be clearly identified, and the research aim and objectives must be formulated in order to solve the problem.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The research entails an investigation to find solutions to scientific and social problems through goal setting and systematic analysis. It is a search for knowledge, that is, a discovery of hidden truths. In this context, knowledge means information about the relevant matters. Such information might be collected from different sources, such as being based on experience, individual accounts, books, journals, online information, academic studies, and so forth. A research project can either lead to new contributions to the existing knowledge or confirm previously established findings. Research is part of the economic, social, and political development of a nation. The results of scientific research very often force a change far beyond the restricted domain of science itself (Rajasekar, Philominathan & Chinnathambi, 2013):

Research is not confined to science and technology only. There are vast areas of research in other disciplines, such as languages, literature, history, and sociology. Whatever might be the subject, research must be an active, diligent and systematic process of inquiry in order to discover, interpret or revise facts, events, behaviours and theories. Applying the outcome of research for the refinement of knowledge in other subjects, or in enhancing the quality of human life, also becomes a kind of research and development.

Besides, Degu and Yigzaw (2006) mention some characteristics of research:

It demands a clear statement of the problem; it requires a plan (it is not aimlessly looking ... to come across a solution); it builds on existing data, using both positive and negative findings; and new data should be collected as required and be organised in such a way that they answer the research question(s).

Research entails a “systematic search for information and new knowledge. It covers topics in every field of science and perceptions of its scope and activities are unlimited. The classical broad divisions of research are basic and applied research” (Degu & Yigzaw, 2006). Primary research is an investigation of fundamental principles and reasons for the occurrence of particular events or process or phenomena, also called theoretical research. A study or investigation of a natural phenomenon relating to pure science is termed basic research. In applied research, one solves specific problems employing well-known and accepted theories and principles. Most experimental research, case studies, and interdisciplinary research are fundamentally applied research (Rajasekar et al., 2013).

A research methodology outlines the methods, techniques, and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing the research design or research plan (Babbie, Mouton, Vorster & Prozesky, 2011). Research methodology is “a set of more or less standardised practices for producing knowledge ... it includes an epistemological foundation and associated rules of evidence for making a claim as well as a set of practices for generating evidence” (Anderson, 2012).

Creswell (2003) stated that a methodology, strategy, or plan of action that links methods to outcomes, governs our choice and use of methods, such as experimental research, survey research, and ethnographic research. In summary, the research methodology proposes a systematic way with which to solve a problem. It is the science of studying how research is to be carried out. Mostly, the procedures by which researchers go about their work of describing, explaining and predicting phenomena are collectively called research methodology. This is also defined as the study of methods by which knowledge is gained. It aims to provide a work plan for research (Rajasekar et al., 2013).

Research approaches are the plans and procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to specific methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretations. Such a plan involves several decisions, which need not be taken in the order in which they make sense to the researcher, and in the order of their presentation in this paper. The overall decision involves which approach should be used to study a topic. Informing this decision should be the philosophical assumptions the researcher brings to the study; procedures of inquiry (research

designs); and specific research methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. The selection of a research approach is also based on the nature of the research problem or issue being addressed, and the audience that is relevant to the study (Creswell, 2014).

The research method can entail a quantitative, qualitative, or mixed-method approach. The purpose of this overview is to offer introductory information necessary to understand the central concepts of the research methodology used. Furthermore, the overview provides the information regarding the selected method from the theoretical, philosophical, and data analytical perspectives.

4.2. RESEARCH METHOD

Research methods are the various procedures, schemes, and algorithms used in research. All the methods employed by a researcher during a research study are known as research methods. They are necessarily planned, scientific, and value-neutral. They include analytical procedures, experimental studies, numerical schemes, statistical approaches, and so forth, used to collect samples and data to find a solution to a problem. Particularly, scientific research methods call for explanations based on collected facts, measurements, and observations, and not on reasoning alone. These methods allow for only those explanations that can be verified by experiments (Rajasekar et al., 2013).

In this study, a quantitative method was adopted. The quantitative research represents a widely adopted method for conducting social research. This approach is typically characterised by collecting numerical data, using deductive reasoning to link theory and research, a preference for a natural science approach (positivism) to explain social phenomena, and having an objectivist conception of social reality (Zou, Sunindiso & Dainty, 2014).

Fischler (2013) states that the characteristics of such research consist of an emphasis on collecting and analysing information in the form of numbers; an emphasis on collecting scores that measure distinct attributes of people and organisations; and an emphasis on comparing groups or relating factors about individuals or groups utilising experiments, correlation studies, and surveys.

According to ACAPS (2012), quantitative research methods are characterised by the collection of information, which can be analysed numerically, and the results of which are typically presented using statistics, tables, and graphs. Quantitative research is the approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationships among and between variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically using an instrument, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical methods (Creswell, 2014).

Quantitative research methods attempt to maximise objectivity, reliability, and generalisability of findings, and are typically interested in prediction. Essential to this approach is the expectation that researchers will set aside their experiences, perceptions, and biases, to ensure objectivity when conducting the study in terms of the conclusions that are drawn. Key features of many quantitative studies are the use of instruments, such as tests to collect data, and reliance on the corresponding research relating to questions of interest. “Quantitative methods are often described as deductive in nature, in the sense that inferences from tests of statistical hypotheses lead to general inferences about characteristics of a population” (Harwell, 2011).

Quantitative methods emphasise a deductive, objective, generalised approach, and are typically best used in the measurement of intervention and/or implementation outcomes. Quantitative approaches involve testing and confirming hypotheses, based on an existing conceptual model, and then obtaining broad, rather than a deep, understanding of the predictors of successful implementation (Albright, Gechter & Kempe, 2013).

According to Muijs (2004), quantitative research is about explaining phenomena by collecting quantitative data, using mathematical methods. It is because of this characteristic of the quantitative approach that the researcher decided to adopt it in this study as this approach gives a fair objective analysis of data from the study. The researcher believes the quantitative method to be relevant for this study, as its purposes are to investigate television advertising risks affecting South African children.

4.2.1 Definition of quantitative research

Numerous researchers and academics have provided different definitions for quantitative research, some of which are listed below:

“Research based on traditional scientific methods, which generates numerical data and usually seeks to prove causal relationships (or association) between two or more variables, using statistical methods to test the strength and significance of the relationships” (Fraser Health Authority, 2011).

“Quantitative research is the numerical representation and manipulation of observations to describe and explain the phenomena that those observations show. It is used in biology, psychology, sociology and geology” (Sukamolson, 2010). Sukamolson (2010) refers to quantitative research as generally focusing on measuring social reality. Quantitative research and/or questions entail the search for quantities in something for statistical research. Quantitative researchers view the world as comprising a reality that can be objectively determined or measured; thus, rigid guides for the process of data collection and analysis are imperative.

The quantitative research method is one in which “the investigator primarily uses post-positivist claims for developing knowledge” such as cause-and-effect thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypotheses and questions, use of measurement and observation, and the test of theories; it employs strategies of inquiry, such as experiments and surveys; and collects data by means of predetermined instruments that yield statistical results (Creswell, 2003).

4.2.2 Criticisms of quantitative research

Bryman (2008) has asserted that quantitative research fails to distinguish people and social institutions from the natural world, which means it ignores the fact that people interpret the world around them in specific and unique ways, a capacity that cannot be found within the natural sciences. However, many researchers argued that quantitative research is value-free and objective. However, no-one can be fully detached from any type of research, because the researchers themselves influence and shape their research based on certain assumptions about the world, derived from their accumulated knowledge (Grix, 2004).

Quantitative research is considered as reliable, because it aims to control or eliminate extraneous variables within the internal structure of the study, thus allowing the results to be assessed by standardised testing. However, this may be viewed as a severe weakness of quantitative research in precise terms, especially when the data have been abstracted from their natural context, or concerning random events, which are assumed not to have happened (Zou et al., 2014).

Since quantitative studies comprise the bulk of the traditional model of research, carefully worked-out procedures and guidelines exist for them. Researchers may be more comfortable with the highly systematic ways of quantitative research. Furthermore, for some people, it can be uncomfortable to challenge accepted approaches without difficulty by using qualitative and transformative approaches to inquiry (Creswell, 2014).

4.2.3 Advantages of quantitative research

Sukamolson (2010) explains the advantages of quantitative research, stating that it:

- Provides estimates of populations at large;
- Indicates the extensiveness of attitudes held by people;
- Provides results that can be condensed to statistics;
- Allows for statistical comparison between various groups;
- Has precision, is definitive, and standardised;
- Measures levels of occurrence, actions, trends, and so forth;
- Can answer questions such as “how many?” and “how often?”, “Where?” and “When?”.

4.2.4 Disadvantages of quantitative research

According to Search for Common Ground (SFCG, 2013), the disadvantages of quantitative research are as follows:

- Results need to be calculated using Excel, Access, or other data analysis software (such as SPSS), which may not always be accessible;
- It is time-consuming, as the researcher needs to enter, clean and then analyse large amounts of data;

- The larger the sample, the more time it takes to analyse the data and obtain results;
- The larger the sample, the more time it takes to collect data;
- Quantitative data ignores a critical human element (in-depth data and understanding).

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Any research entails two significant stages: First, there is the stage of planning; and second, there is the stage of execution. During the first stage, researchers build and design a plan for their research, and during the second stage, they collect and analyse the data they have obtained (Sarantakos, 2005). In addition, a research design is a plan or structured framework for how one intends to conduct the research process to solve the research problem (Babbie et al., 2011).

Edmonds and Kennedy (2012) explain that the design is the actual structure or framework that indicates (a) the time frame(s) in which data will be collected, or how and when the data will be analysed using qualitative methods; (b) when the treatment will be implemented (or not); and (c) the exact number and nature of groups that will be involved (for example, a quantitative method; experimental research; a between-subjects approach; and/or a pre- and post-test control group design).

Research designs are types of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-methods approaches that give specific direction for procedures in research design. Others have called them strategies of inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, the Fraser Health Authority (2011) suggests that the function of a research design is to make sure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher to answer the first question as clearly as possible.

4.3.1 The motivation for the use of a research design

Sarantakos (2005) defined the purpose of the research design as follows. It:

- Offers a guide that directs the research activities and helps to rationalise the use of time and resources and to reduce costs;

- Helps to introduce a systematic approach to the research operation, theory guaranteeing that all aspects of the study will be addressed and that they will be executed in the right sequence;
- Offers order and clarity in the process of study;
- Makes the steps of the research design clear, enabling the researcher to foresee and prevent eventual errors, bias and distortions;
- Encourages the active organisation and coordination of the project, mainly when it includes more than one researcher;
- Makes replication easier and more efficient;
- Enables accurate assessment of the validity and reliability of the study;
- Enables accurate estimation of the costs of the study and the required personnel.

4.3.2 Types of research design

There are two main types of quantitative research design: experimental design and non-experimental design. Experimental designs are also known as “the scientific method”, due to their popularity in scientific research, where they originated. Non-experimental research is also equated with survey research and is very common in the social sciences (Muijs, 2004).

In this study, the non-experimental design is adopted. Non-experimental designs are used to describe, differentiate, or look at associations, as opposed to direct relationships between or among variables, groups, or situations (Sousa, Driessnack & Mendes, 2007). Non-experimental quantitative research methods include survey research, historical research, observation and analysis of existing data sets (Muijs, 2004).

There are many reasons for adopting the non-experimental design. Several characteristics or variables are not subject or amenable to experimental manipulation or randomisation. Some variables cannot or should not be manipulated for ethical reasons. In some instances, independent variables have already occurred, so no control over them is possible. Non-experimental designs may resemble the post-test only experiment. The most common methods used in non-experimental designs involve exploratory surveys and/or questionnaires. Non-experimental

designs are typically classified as either descriptive or correlational (Sousa et al., 2007).

In this study, a descriptive design employing a survey method was adopted. The description is the precise measurement and reporting of the characteristics of some population or phenomenon under study. Descriptive studies are used when little is known about a particular phenomenon (Burns & Grove, 2005). The researcher observes, describes, and documents various aspects of a phenomenon. The researcher describes what exists, finds the frequency at which it occurs, and categorises the information (Sousa et al., 2007).

4.3.3 Study population

The population of this study is learners in Grade 2 to Grade 7, between the ages of 8 and 13-years, children (male and female) from 25 primary schools (6 independent and 19 public) with the total (N = 19,651) learner enrolment in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District.

A population is a group of people, objects, or items from which samples are taken for measurement, such as a population of presidents or professors, books or students (Mugo, 2002). Degu and Yigzaw (2006) defined a study population as a population from which the sample is drawn and about which a conclusion can be made. Bless and Hisson-Smith (2000) define a population as the set of elements that the research focuses upon, and to which the obtained results should be generalised. McBurney (2001) refers to the population as the sampling frame. A population is a totality of persons, events, organisation units, case records or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned.

4.3.3.1 Sampling

Sampling is described as taking a portion of a population or universe and considering it representative of that population or universe. The term 'universe' refers to all potential subjects who have the attributes in which the researcher is interested, where 'population' refers to people in the universe who have specific characteristics, or to a set of entities that represent all the measurements of interest to the practitioner or researcher. Generalising the results of a study, based on working with such a sample means that it is assumed that any other part of the same population

would yield the same observations. Sampling is done to increase the feasibility, cost-effectiveness, accuracy and manageability of the prospective survey (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2005).

Sampling is the process in which a relatively small number of people or measures of people, objects or events is chosen and analysed to find out something about the entire population from which it was selected (Salaria, 2012). Furthermore, sampling is the process of selecting a representative sample from a population (Yount, 2006).

Anderson (2012) refers to sampling as the method “to randomise and outline a selection from a population... [it] is wrong to say probability sampling involves the choice of reachable population and non-probability sampling is widely practised in non-human sampling”. Sampling entails showing the difference of the population selected, and why the selected population is appropriate. Sampling is the act, process, or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a representative part of a population, for determining the factors or characteristics of the whole population (Mugo, 2002).

In conclusion, using a sample in research saves mainly on money and time. If a suitable sampling strategy is used, appropriate sample size selected, and necessary protections taken to reduce potential sampling and measurement errors, then the sample should yield valid and reliable information (Mugo, 2002).

4.3.3.2 Definition of a sample

A sample thus “comprises elements of the population considered for real inclusion in the study”, or it can be viewed as a subset of measurements drawn from a population in which the researcher is interested. The sample is studied in an effort to understand the population from which it was drawn. As such, researchers are interested in describing the sample, not primarily as an end in itself, but rather in order to explain some facet of the population (Arkava & Lane, 1983).

A sample group is chosen from a larger population to yield information about this population. It is a small picture of the entire group or total from which it has been taken. It is a smaller representation of a larger whole. A good sample not only

needs to be representative, but it also needs to be adequate (of sufficient size) to allow confidence in the stability of its characteristics (Salaria, 2012).

The sample is a (smaller) group of subjects that represent a (larger) population (Yount, 2006); it is a limited part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole (Webster, 1985). When dealing with people, it can be defined as a set of participants selected from a larger population for a survey (Mugo, 2002).

4.3.3.3 The motivation for the use of sampling

The major reason for sampling is feasibility. Complete coverage of the total population is seldom possible, and all the members of the population of interest, for example, parents of pre-school children, cannot be reached (Sarantakos, 2000).

The observation or study of a phenomenon in its entirety would be time-consuming and would produce a massive amount of data, which by implication would be challenging to process, analyse, and interpret (Arkava & Lane, 1983).

The nature of the research problem in which one is interested does not always permit access to the entire set of entities that are included in the population. It may be that the population itself is too large to study, or one may not have enough time or resources to research the whole population. In such a case, it is still possible to study only a portion of the population (Powers, Meennaghan & Toomey, 1985).

4.3.3.4 Sampling frame

A sampling frame is a list or quasi-list of the members of a population. It is the resource used in the selection of the sample. A sample's representativeness depends directly on the extent to which a sampling frame covers all the members of the total population that the sample is intended to represent (Babbie et al., 2011).

According to Ross (2006), a sampling frame is commonly prepared in the form of a real list of population elements, although it may also consist of rather unusual listings, such as directories or maps, which display less clear linkages between personal list entries and population elements. Also, a well-constructed sampling frame allows the researcher to 'take hold' of the defined target population without the need to worry

about contamination of the listing with incorrect entries or entries which represent elements not associated with the population. The frame for this study is the 25 primary schools and learner enrolments in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn, as listed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Names of primary schools and learner enrolments in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn in 2019

No	Institution Name	Sector	Number of learners enrolled in 2019
1	Bet-Shalom	Independent	156
2	Chris Hofmeyr	Public	282
3	Dorothy Langa	Public	379
4	Elica	Independent	627
5	Florapark Comprehensive	Public	956
6	Good Hope	Public	1237
7	Greenside	Public	1483
8	Laerskool Ivypark	Public	584
9	Laerskool Pietersburg Noord	Public	1113
10	Laerskool Pietersburg Oos	Public	1222
11	Lotanang	Public	70
12	Maria Montessori Centre	Independent	58
13	New Look	Public	1484
14	Nirvana	Public	1463
15	Northern Academy	Independent	1382
16	Northview Christian Academy	Independent	335
17	Papkuil	Public	125
18	Peakanyo	Public	418
19	Phishego	Public	638
20	Piet Hugo	Public	831
21	Pietersburg Comprehensive	Public	1215
22	Pietersburg English Medium	Public	1163
23	Pietersburg Laerskool	Public	1136
24	Snell Phoshoko	Public	990
25	Wonderland	Independent	304
Total number of learner enrolment in primary school per sector in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn			19,651

Source: Annual School Survey 2019

In this study, therefore, the sample comprised primary schools (N = 25; 19 public and 6 independent) in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn. This is the minimum recommended size for a survey.

4.3.3.5 Sampling procedures

Sarantakos (2005) stated that there are sampling procedures based on probability standards (random or probability samples) and non-probability standards (non-probability samples). In this study, the non-probability type of sampling was used. More specifically, convenience sampling was employed.

The choice to use probability or non-probability sampling depends on the goal of the research. In addition, both probability and non-probability sampling have advantages and disadvantages, and the use of each is determined by the researcher's goals concerning data collection and validity. Each sampling type entails various methods for the selection process (Babbie, 2007).

Babbie (2007, 1990) and Fink (1995) explained the advantages of non-probability sampling: It is a convenient way for researchers to assemble a sample with little or no cost. In addition, non-probability sampling is a useful method to apply when conducting a pilot study, when attempting to question groups who may have sensitivities to the questions being asked and may not want to answer these issues honestly, and for those situations when ethical concerns may keep the researcher from speaking to every member of a specific group.

According to Babbie (2007), non-probability sampling includes any technique in which samples are selected in some way not suggested by probability theory. Examples include reliance on available subjects as well as purposive (judgement), quota, and snowball sampling. Each of these techniques has its specific uses, but none of them ensures that the resulting sample will be fully representative of the population being sampled.

4.3.3.6 Types of non-probability sampling

There are three main types of non-probability samples: judgement, convenience, and quota samples. These approaches to sampling result in the elements in the target population having an unknown chance of being selected in the sample. It is always

wise to treat research results arising from these types of sample design as suggesting statistical characteristics about the population, and not as providing population estimates with verifiable confidence limits (Ross, 2005).

4.3.3.6.1 Convenience sampling

Convenience sampling is the terminology used to describe a sample in which elements have been selected from the target population on the basis of their accessibility or convenience to the researcher. Convenience samples are sometimes called 'accidental samples' for the reason that elements may be drawn into the sample simply because they just happen to be situated, spatially or administratively, near to where the researcher is conducting the data collection (Ross, 2005).

The main assumption associated with convenience sampling is that the members of the target population are homogeneous. This implies that there would be no difference in the research results obtained from a random sample, a nearby sample, a cooperative sample, or a sample gathered in some inaccessible part of the population.

Convenience sampling differs from purposive sampling in that expert judgement is not used to select a representative sample of elements. Instead, the primary choice criterion relates to the ease of obtaining a sample. Ease of getting the sample refers to the cost of locating elements of the population, the geographic distribution of the sample, and obtaining the interview data from the selected elements (Michael, 2001).

According to Baker, Brick, Bates, Battaglia, Couper, Dever, Gile and Tourangeau (2013), "convenience sampling is a form of non-probability sampling in which the ease with which potential participants can be located or recruited is the primary consideration" (Cooper & Greenaway, 2015).

The critics of this approach argued that for many research situations, readily accessible elements within the target population differ significantly from less accessible elements. They, therefore, concluded that the use of convenience sampling was likely to introduce a real degree of bias into sample estimates of population parameters (Ross, 2005).

4.3.3.6.2 Purposive or judgement sampling

This is a type of non-probability sampling in which the units to be observed are selected by the researcher's judgement about which ones will be the most useful or representative (Babbie, 2007). Moreover, the process of judgement or purposive sampling is based on the assumption that the researcher can select elements that represent a 'typical sample' from the right target population. The quality of samples selected by using this approach depends on the accuracy of subjective interpretations of what makes up a representative sample (Ross, 2005).

4.3.3.6.3 Quota sampling

This is a type of non-probability sampling in which units are selected for a sample based on pre-specified characteristics so that the total sample will have the same distribution of characteristics assumed to exist in the population being studied (Babbie, 2007). Ross (2005) proclaimed that quota sampling is the most frequently used type of non-probability sampling. It is sometimes misleadingly referred to as 'representative sampling' because various elements are drawn from various target population strata in proportion to the size of these strata.

In this study, a non-probability convenience sample of 381 children was carefully chosen from the last sampling frame. A volunteer teacher was involved in arranging the survey for the individual classes participating in the research project.

4.3.3.7 The sample size

According to Yount (2006), the sample size is the number of subjects in a sample (symbolised by N). Huysamen (1993) stated that the size of the sample will be influenced by the relative homogeneity of the population and the desired degree of reliability for the investigation. Arkava and Lane (1983) stressed that the researcher ought to obtain the largest possible sample.

Neuman (2003) suggested that the following factors influence the size of the sample: The heterogeneity of the population; the desired degree of accuracy; the type of sample; the available resources; and the number of variables according to which the data are grouped.

Grinnell and Williams (1990) believed that in most cases, a 10% sample should be sufficient for controlling for sample errors. However, differences of opinion exist about the smallest number of participants that should be involved in an investigation.

Brown and Brown (1993) elaborated that once the sample was deemed to be reliable, “the investigator conducts the research project administering the instrument with confidence, assuming that the instrument has proper validity”.

The most accurate way to derive the right sample size is to use statistical calculations. These can be relatively complex, depending on the needs of the survey. Some surveys have just one sample, and others have several. Formulae for calculating survey samples can be found on the internet (Fink, 2008).

In this study, a sample of 381 children was selected. Participants are 8 to 13-year-old children (male and female) with various socio-economic and cultural backgrounds, with learner enrolment at primary schools per sector in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn.

4.3.3.8 Sample bias

Sampling leaves some possibility for error. Being aware of these possible errors is essential to the choice of the sampling methods used as well as for analysis of and reliance on the data collected. However, merely being aware of possible errors is not enough (Babbie, 2007). Lohr (1999) defined sampling bias as “the error that results from taking one sample instead of examining the whole population”.

4.3.3.8.1 Types of sample bias

- Under coverage

Under coverage refers to selecting a sample that is not large enough. This results in the error that the information gathered from a small sample is not representative of the population and cannot be generalised to that population (Babbie, 2007). Henry (1990) stated that small sample sizes may lead to a “conservative bias in the application of the statistical test”. This happens when a null hypothesis is not rejected, although, in fact, it is false.

- Non-response

Non-response is a non-sampling bias that precludes some members of the population who are eligible to be sampled, but are unwilling to take part or do not answer all questions on the survey(s) (Lohr, 1999; Fink, 1995; Babbie, 2007). Lohr (1999) explained that “the biggest problem caused by non-response is a potential bias of population”.

- Non-sampling errors

According to Fink (1995), non-sampling errors occur “because of imprecision in the definition of the target population of the target and study population” and errors in survey design and measurement. Also, some errors of non-sampling include changes due to historical circumstances, neglecting definitions and inclusion and exclusion of criteria, and instrument or survey process instrument bias (Babbie, 2007).

4.3.4 Data collection

Data collection requires a detailed plan of procedures. The aim is to gather data for answering the research question(s) (Mugo, 2014). Quantitative data are often collected through surveys and questionnaires that are carefully developed and structured to derive at numerical data that can be explored statistically, and yield a result that can be generalised to some larger population.

According to Mugo (2014), the characteristics of quantitative data are that they are:

- Collected in a standardised way;
- Presented in numerical format;
- Analysed using statistical techniques;
- Generalisable.

In addition, statistical analysis is used to summarise and describe quantitative data; and graphs/figures or tables can be used to present raw data. The next section will discuss the standard methods for collecting and sources of quantitative data and the techniques used for recruiting participants.

4.3.4.1 Data collection methods

Quantitative data can be collected from a variety of sources using a variety of methods. Surveys and questionnaires containing carefully constructed

questions were developed for collecting the data for this study. For obtaining quantitative data in this investigation as to whether television advertising risks are affecting South African children (Grade 2 to Grade 7), a survey method was selected. A self-administered questionnaire was designed using scales, which was the most suitable method to measure an investigation of television advertising risks affecting South African children.

Sauro and Lewis (2012) explain that a questionnaire is a form designed to elicit information from participants. The items in a questionnaire can be open-ended questions, but are more typically multiple choice, with participants selecting from a set of alternatives (for example, "Please tell me which of these brands do you usually buy?") or points on a rating scale (for example, "On a scale of 1 to 5, how satisfied were you with your recent stay at this hotel?"). In addition, questionnaires are a method of collecting data by asking people questions or asking them to agree or disagree with the statements representing different points of view (Babbie et al., 2011).

A survey is a system for collecting valid information from or about people to describe, compare, or explain their knowledge, attitudes and behaviour (Fink, 2008). A survey approach is a popular social research method and entails the administration of questionnaires to the sample of participants selected from the population. It is especially suited to descriptive studies of large populations, where survey data can be used for explanatory purposes as well (Babbie et al., 2011).

Survey research designs are quite flexible and can, therefore, appear in a variety of forms. However, all are characterised by the collected data using standard questionnaire forms administered by telephone or face-to-face, by pencil-and-paper questionnaires or increasingly by web-based and email forms (Muijs, 2004).

4.3.4.1.1 Advantages of a survey approach

Survey research is highly flexible. Studying a range of research questions is possible by using survey methods. One can describe a situation or study relationships between variables. Because survey research does not set up an artificial situation such as an experiment, it is easier to generalise findings to real-world settings, as this is where the research takes place. Survey studies are also efficient in terms of

one being able to gather vast amounts of data at a reasonably low cost and effort compared to other methods, such as observation. It is also easier to guarantee participants' anonymity, especially when using the pen/cil-and-paper, online, or telephonic questionnaires. This approach may lead to more straightforward answers than less anonymous methods such as face-to-face interviews. Survey research is particularly suited for canvassing opinions and feelings about specific issues. The use of standardised questions allows for easy comparability between participants and groups of those surveyed (Muijs, 2004).

4.3.4.1.2 Disadvantages of the survey approach

Surveys do not allow the researcher to control the environment, and they are less suited to answering questions of causality than experimental designs. However, by collecting data on as many relevant variables as possible, using longitudinal designs, and accurate statistical modelling, it is sometimes possible to tentatively reach a view on cause and effect, although it will never be as clear-cut as in an experiment. It is hard to gain a deeper understanding of processes and contextual differences through questionnaires, which are standardised and by their nature, limited in terms of length and depth of responses. While questionnaires are highly suited to gathering information on participants' perceptions and opinions of a situation, gathering information on participant behaviours can be problematic, as self-reports are not always reliable in this respect (Muijs, 2004).

To answer the purpose and questions of this study; a survey method was adopted because it is well suited to descriptive research.

4.3.4.2 Research instrument

In this study, a survey questionnaire was employed to collect data on television advertising risks affecting South African children (see Appendix A).

4.3.4.2.1 Questionnaire

The *New Dictionary of Social Work* (1995) defined a questionnaire as "a set of questions on a form that is completed by the participant in respect of a research project". The fact that although the term questionnaire suggests a collection of questions, a standardised questionnaire will probably contain as many statements

as questions, especially if the researcher is interested in determining the extent to which participants hold an attitude or perspective.

The main objective of the questionnaire is to collect facts and opinions about a phenomenon from people who are informed, knowledgeable about or personally involved regarding the particular issue. Questionnaires are probably the most generally used instruments of all (Babbie & Mouton, 2011).

In this study, the questionnaires were handed to the participating learners, who completed them on their own, but the researcher was available for cases when problems were experienced. The researcher (or fieldworker) limited his own contribution to the completion of the questionnaire to the absolute minimum. The researcher thus largely remained in the background and could at most encourage the participating learners with a few words to continue with their contribution or lead them back to the subject (De Vos et al., 2005).

The format of the questionnaire will be influenced by whether it will be emailed, telephonic, self-administrated, or any other type of questionnaire; as well as where, under what circumstances, and by whom it will be completed. All questionnaires should, however, be accompanied by a covering letter. A covering letter serves to introduce and explain the study to the participants. The covering letter must be carefully drafted to include all necessary information and motivate the participant to complete the questionnaire. The format and layout of the questionnaire are just as important as the nature and wording of the questions asked. Questionnaires should be clear, neat, and easy to follow (De Vos et al., 2005); they should also be of a reasonable length in line what is suitable for a specific age group or the participants' level of expertise and literacy.

Babbie and Mouton (2001) mentioned that a poorly formatted questionnaire can lead to participants missing questions, which can confuse them about the nature of the data desired, and in the worst case, this can result in them discarding the questionnaire or not completing the questions. The researcher should give each question a number and never force questions together or abbreviate questions to shorten the questionnaire. Neuman (2003) stated clearly that “a

professional appearance with high-quality graphics, space between questions and layout improves the accuracy and completeness and helps the questionnaire flow”.

In this study, a self-administered questionnaire was used to collect the required data from the selected children. It included four sections. The questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter explaining the purpose of the study, providing general instructions, and guaranteeing the participants’ anonymity. The responses to the 50 questions were categorised according to a five-point Likert scale, running from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The questionnaire was translated into Northern Sotho, because this is the home language of most of the participants, and this, therefore, allowed for more accurate answers.

The Likert scale is a type of psychometric response scale, and is the most widely used scale in survey research. McDaniel and Gates (2010) state that a Likert scale is commonly used, because the participants find it easier to complete. Likert scaling is a measurement technique based on the use of standardised response categories (for example, “strongly agree”, “agree”, “neither agree nor disagree”, “disagree”, “strongly disagree”) for several questionnaire items. The Likert format may be used effectively in the construction of either indices or scales (Babbie et al., 2011).

4.3.4.2.2 The advantages of questionnaires

Denscombe (2010) summarises the advantages of questionnaires as follows:

- Questionnaires are economical in the sense that they can supply a considerable amount of research data for a relatively low cost in terms of materials, money, and time;
- Questionnaires are more straightforward to arrange than personal interviews;
- Questionnaires supply standardised answers to the extent that all participants are posted with the same questions, with no scope for the variation to slip in via face-to-face contact with the researcher;
- A further and significant advantage of the questionnaire is that it encourages pre-coded answers;
- Surveys can be designed so that data contained in the completed questionnaires can be fed straight into a spreadsheet or similar program, thus automating the process of data entry.

4.3.4.2.3 The disadvantages of questionnaires

Denscombe (2010) outlines the disadvantages of questionnaires as follows:

- Pre-coded questions can be frustrating for participants (as they do not provide for all potential options) and may thus deter them from answering;
- Pre-coded questions can bias the findings toward the researchers rather than reflecting the participants' way of seeing things;
- Questionnaires, by their very nature, can impose a structure on the answers and shape the character of the responses in a way that reflects the researcher's thinking rather than the participant's;
- Questionnaires offer little opportunity for the researcher to check the truthfulness of the answers given by the participants other than when a researcher rephrases the same question in a different manner to cross-check the answers given.

4.3.4.2.4 Questionnaire pre-testing and pilot testing

Singleton, Straits, Straits and McAllister (1993) stated that the pre-testing of a measuring instrument consists of "trying it out on a small number of persons having characteristics like those of the target group of participants". Probability does not usually play a role in the pilot study, because the researcher does not intend to generalise the findings. However, the pilot study must consider all potential options and factors.

A pilot study is defined in the *New Dictionary of Social Work* (1995) as the "process whereby the research design for a prospective survey is tested". A pilot study can be regarded as a small-scale trial run of all the aspects planned for use in the main inquiry (Monette, Sullivan & DeJong, 1998). Mitchell and Jolley (2001) added that a pilot study helps the researcher to fine-tune the study for the main inquiry. Bless and Higson-Smith (2000) provided what is perhaps the most encompassing definition of the pilot study: "A small study conducted before a larger piece of research to determine whether the methodology, sampling, instruments, and analysis are adequate and appropriate".

Some different opinions on and definitions of the pilot study exist. Some of these address only one aspect of a pilot study, while others are more comprehensive. Babbie (1990) and Sarantakos (2000) differentiated between the pre-test and a pilot study. The former comprises the testing of one or more aspects of the subject, for example, the questionnaire or the computer program for analysis of the data. The latter comprises the “miniaturised walk-throughs of the entire study design”. This researcher suggests that the concept of a pilot study is correct and more comprehensive. Huysamen (1993) believed that the purpose of a pilot study was to investigate the feasibility of the planned project and bring possible deficiencies in the measurement procedure to the fore.

For this study, pre-tests were administered to a small group of 8 to 13-year-old children (N = 10; male and female), that is, children in Grade 2 up to Grade 7. These children were enrolled in primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn, Polokwane. This group of participants did not form part of the pilot test or the main sample of this study. During the pre-test phase, the content validity of the questionnaire was evaluated by determining how easily the participants understood the questionnaire and whether the questions were clearly stated and were easy to understand.

After the pre-test had been completed and the necessary changes to the questionnaire made, the questionnaire was piloted on a convenience sample of 16 children. The pilot test was done to test the reliability of the scales. The sample was selected purposively (equal numbers of males and females): children’s ages ranging from 8 to 13 years, who are in Grade 2 up to Grade 7, and who do not form part of the main sample. The representatives were enrolled in primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District.

The children were asked to complete the questionnaire during class time, on a daily basis for one week, at the same time of day. Factor analysis and Cronbach’s alpha values were used to verify the validity and reliability of the scales (Roets, 2013).

4.3.4.2.5 Purpose of a pilot study

The main objective of a pilot study is to give direction to the main investigation and to make sure that the main investigation will be worthwhile. It also provides an

indication as to which errors can occur and be avoided, in what ways, and of aspects for which no provision had been made. The framework of the research project remains temporary until it has been tested by employing a pilot study. It helps to eliminate potential problems, although new or unidentified issues may emerge at a later stage. The pilot study creates a final opportunity to avoid possible problems or to make specific changes (De Vos et al., 2005).

In addition, a pilot study tests various components of the proposed main study and verifies that they all work together (Arain, Campbell, Cooper & Lancaster, 2010). Essential goals of pilot studies include defining the best intervention in terms of frequency and duration; and providing limits to enable a more exact estimation of the sample size (Hulley, Cummings, Browner, Grady & Newman, 2007; NCOR, 2014).

4.3.4.2.6 Questionnaire administration

The main survey was conducted from July 2019 to October 2019 on a sample of 400 children. Participants in this study were children between the ages of 8 and 13 years. The representatives were enrolled in primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn, Polokwane, South Africa. The children were recruited from primary schools (N = 25; 19 public and 6 independent schools). The Department of Education was formally notified of the intended survey to make sure that the necessary ethical considerations were met. Letters were sent out to the schools, authorities, and parents, describing the study, to obtain permission to conduct the study.

Questionnaires were administered to a convenience sample of 400 children (males and females) ranging in age from 8 to 13 years, at 25 primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn, through the scheduling method of primary data collection. All participants completed a self-administered questionnaire that included 4 sections. The items were ranked on five-point Likert scales running from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. Section A of the questionnaire was designed to solicit information about the participants' demographic data; Section B investigated the views of South African children on television advertising; Section C enquired whether South African children are adequately protected regarding television advertising; and

Section D investigated the behavioural effects of television advertising on South African children.

The survey questionnaires were administered by hand with the assistance of the teachers at the selected schools. In this case, the questionnaire was handed to the participating children who completed it on their own, but the researcher was available for cases when problems were experienced. The researcher limited his own contribution to the completion of the questionnaire to the absolute minimum. The researcher thus largely remained in the background and could at most encourage the participants with a few words to continue with their contribution or lead participants back to the subject (De Vos et al., 2005).

4.3.4.3 Data preparation

Sarantakos (2005:364) noted that the information gathered through the study should be checked, edited, and coded so that it is clear, legible, relevant, and proper.

4.3.4.3.1 Editing

Editing is the analysis of the questionnaire to increase the correctness and precision of the collected data (Malhotra, 2010). Sarantakos (2005) stated that editing is done where necessary. Should the answers be missing and/or illegible, the researcher will decide whether to accept or reject these.

4.3.4.3.2 Coding

There are various understandings of the term 'coding', which have in common the fact that they describe the relation of the materials to categories used in the analysis (Flick, 2014). Charmaz (2006) defined coding as "naming segments of data with a label that simultaneously categorises, summarises, and accounts for each piece of data". Also, coding entails the attribution of a number to an item of data or a group of data with the express aim of allowing such results to be analysed in quantitative terms (Denscombe, 2010). The four sections included in the questionnaire are listed in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Coding data

	Type of Data Variable	Question Number
Information about the participants' demographic data	A 1 to A 12	Section A, 1-12
The views of South African children on television advertising	B13 to B27	Section B, 13-27
Are South African children adequately protected regarding television advertising	C28 to 35	Section C, 28-35
The behavioural effects of television advertisements on South African children	D36 to D50	Section D, 36-50

4.3.5 Data analysis

According to Mugo (2014), there are techniques employed in quantitative data analysis: Summarising data into a manageable format to communicate its meaning; reflecting on the data; searching for patterns; and seeking out the story in the results.

In this study, statistical analysis was used. After information has been collected and captured electronically, it is still raw data. The data is then organised and summarised in meaningful ways. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics analysis is a collective name for some statistical methods used to organise data in a meaningful way. There are two ways of describing and representing data: graphical and numerical.

More specifically, computerised analysis using statistical and mathematical methods was conducted using the SPSS software, which is commonly used to statistically analyse quantitative data by social science researchers. IBM SPSS (version 22) was used to manage the quantitative data analysis in this study. SPSS is, by far, the most commonly used statistical data analysis software. It is also user-friendly (Muijs, 2004).

Sarantakos (2005) summarised the advantages of electronic data processing as follows:

- Fast data processing and analysis of huge amounts of data;
- Relatively inexpensive;
- High reliability;
- Accuracy of computation;
- Accessibility of sophisticated statistical tests to non-statisticians.

4.3.5.1 Types of statistics in quantitative research

Statistical processing includes techniques that allow for a detailed analysis of the data. One such technique that offers a general description of the data is known as descriptive analysis (descriptive statistics) (Sarantakos, 2005).

4.3.5.1.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to organise, describe, and summarise data. Measures of central tendency are known as the mean, median, and mode. Measures of variability are known as the range, variance, and standard deviation (Mugo, 2014). In addition, descriptive statistics provide summarised information about the data; for example, describing the sample in terms of age, gender, and other characteristics. Measures of central tendency may be used along with graphs and other means for describing data (Greasly, 2008).

Denscombe (2010) explains that descriptive statistics can offer the project researcher a straightforward, yet rigorous way of:

- Organising the data;
- Summarising the findings;
- Displaying the evidence;
- Describing the profile of findings (how the data are distributed); Exploring connections between the parts of the data (correlations and associations).

4.3.5.1.2 Measures of central tendency

Measures of central tendency are used to provide the typical or average values for a sample of data, for example, the mean age of the sample. The mean, median or mode may be used, depending on the distribution of the data. All three measures summarise an entire distribution of scores by describing the most common score (the mode), the middle score (the median), and the average score (the mean). These statistics are compelling because they can reduce huge amounts of data to a single, understandable number. The central purpose of descriptive statistics is to summarise or “reduce” data (Healey, 2010).

The mode of any distribution is the value that occurs most frequently. It is a simple statistic, most useful as a quick and easy indicator of a tendency when working with nominal level variables. In fact, it is the only measure of a tendency that can be used with the nominal level variables (Healey, 2010).

The median is defined as the average of the scores associated with the two middle cases. It reports the average score of a distribution and its calculation is straightforward. It is to compute the mean, add the scores and then divide the number of scores (N) (Healey, 2010).

The mean is the most commonly used measure of central tendency. It is an excellent measure of central tendency, because it acts as a fulcrum that ‘balances’ all the scores, in the sense that it is the point around which all the scores cancel out. It is also called the least-squares principle (Healey, 2010).

4.4 VALIDITY

Joppe (2000) explained that validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure, and how accurate the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow one to hit ‘the bull’s eye’ of one’s research object? Researchers determine validity by asking a series of questions, and will often look for the answers in the research of others (Golofshani, 2003).

Wainer and Braun (1988) described the validity in quantitative research as “construct validity”. The construct is a first concept, notion, or hypothesis that determines which data is to be gathered and how it is to be collected. They also asserted that

quantitative researchers actively cause or affect the interplay between the constructs so as to validate their investigation, usually by the application of a test or other process. In this sense, the involvement of the researchers in the research process would significantly reduce the validity of a test (Golofshani, 2003). There are three main types of validity, as listed below:

- Content validity: The extent to which a research instrument accurately measures all aspects of a construct;
- Criterion validity: The extent to which a research instrument is related to other instruments that measure the same variables;
- Construct validity: The extent to which a research instrument (a tool) has measured the intended construct (Heale & Twycross, 2015).

4.4.1 Content validity

This tool ascertains whether the instrument adequately covers all the content that it should concerning the variable. In other words, does the instrument cover the entire domain related to the variable or construct it was designed to measure? A subset of content validity is face validity, where experts are asked their opinion in terms of whether an instrument measures the concept as intended (Heale & Twycross, 2015).

4.4.2 Criterion validity

Concurrent or predictive validity are both measures of criterion validity. Concurrent validity uses an already existing and well-accepted measure against which the new measure can be compared. Predictive validity measures the extent to which a tool can measure a future event of interest. Criterion validity is usually measured using a correlation coefficient. When the correlation is high, the tool can be considered valid (Twycross & Shields, 2004).

4.4.3 Construct validity

This test links a measure and the underlying theory. If a test has construct validity, the researcher would expect to see a consistent correlation with tests in related areas. Evidence of construct validity can be provided by comparing the results obtained with the results obtained using other tests, other (related) characteristics of the individual, or factors in the individual's environment that would be expected to

affect test performance. Construct validity is usually measured using a coefficient. When the correlation is high, the tool can be considered valid (Twycross & Shields, 2004).

4.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher must inform the participants that they are volunteers in the study. An Ethics Clearance Certificate was obtained from the Department of Research Administration and Development, Turfloop Research Ethics Committee, at the University of Limpopo. Written permission to conduct the research was obtained from the Department of Education Head Office, Limpopo Province, the Department of Education Capricorn South District, Pietersburg Circuit, Polokwane, and principals of the schools in Pietersburg Circuit, Capricorn South District. Written consent was also obtained from the parent's of the participating children. The administration of the survey questionnaire took place at the primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn, Polokwane, South Africa during times set by the principals of the schools and the researcher. It took the researcher 8 months from March 2019 to October 2019 on a sample of 400 children to complete the data collection process. Observational notes were taken during the survey to describe the participants' reactions during the survey meetings.

The researcher followed the ethical rules in all processes of the research. The researcher explained to the participants the meaning of the survey questionnaire, and informed them that the information obtained will be used only for the study. In the interpretation and presentation of the data, the researcher was careful so that the information remained anonymous at all times.

The researcher set an appointment with the principals of the schools and participants, and explained the research topic to them. The researcher set a date for the survey questionnaire to be handed out and completed. The researcher then explained the research problem and possible concerns to the participants; the questionnaire questions, and that they could ask him if any question was not clear. All children responded that they were prepared and also willing to be researched. However, it was explained to them that their participation was voluntary and that the researcher would not reveal their identities to anyone. The researcher handed the questionnaire

instrument form to each participant to complete, and they had to return them to the researcher. The researcher thanked them and expressed his appreciation to the participants for their participation in the study.

4.6 LIMITATIONS

The researcher would like to acknowledge some of the limitations observed and experienced in carrying out this study. There were financial constraints for the preparation and actual conducting of the research study, as the project was not sponsored. It took quite some time for the researcher to be able to receive the written permission to conduct research from the Department of Education Head Office, Limpopo Province, the Department of Education, Capricorn South District, Pietersburg Circuit, Polokwane, and principals of the schools in the Pietersburg Circuit, the Capricorn South District. Written consent also had to be obtained from the parents of the participants. The researcher had to wait for long hours for participants to be able to conduct the research, as the study was not allowed in any way to disrupt the academic programmes at the schools. The rescheduling of appointments with the principals of the schools occurred regularly as they also held unanticipated meetings with and workshops provided by the Department of Education. The researcher had asked the principals to provide assistance in any cases where participants were showing emotional reactions to being interviewed, so that they could be referred to a clinical pathologist at the nearest public hospital for counselling. The questionnaire was translated into Northern Sotho, because this is the home language of most the participants and would provide a better understanding by the participants and more accurate answers; however, the participants could choose the English language if they preferred.

4.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the research method employed for this study has been presented: The research design; the sampling method used (including target population, sampling frame, sampling method and sampling size); the data collection and preparation methods; data analysis; statistical techniques for the analysis of collected data; descriptive statistical categories; the validity of the study(including content validity, criterion validity and construct validity); and ethical considerations.

Limitations have also been discussed. The following chapter will focus on the data analysis and interpretation of the results of the study.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the analyses of the quantitative data collected through a questionnaire on television advertising risks affecting South African children in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District. The chapter deals with the data about participants' demographic information and their responses to the questions relating to the purpose of the study and the overall research question. This chapter includes the method used in the data collection, data analysis, and interpretation of the results from this study, and a summary.

5.2 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

The section below outlines the method used in the collection of the data, the analyses, and the interpretation of the results.

5.2.1 The method used in the collection of the data

After the data were collected, all questionnaires were checked for completeness and validity, and every participant was assigned a unique code to avoid duplication in capturing. The SPSS program was utilised for capturing of the data. The research purpose and research questions guided the analysis approach that was adopted for this survey. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the affects on schoolchildren by television advertisements. A total of 400 questionnaires were completed, but 381 questionnaires were valid for the analysis.

5.2.2 Factor analysis

The purpose of factor analysis is to describe the relationship between various variables under study. It reduces the number of variables to more manageable factors that contain more information than the rest of the variables. If variables within a particular group are highly correlated among themselves, and have small correlations with variables in a different group, then each group of variables represents a single factor that is responsible for the observed correlations.

5.2.3 SECTION A: Demographics

The following section tables and figures explain the demographic representation of the participants in the study.

Table 5.1: Frequency Distribution of Participants by Grade

Grade	Frequency	Percent
2	15	3.94%
3	52	13.65%
4	47	12.34%
5	81	21.26%
6	66	17.32%
7	120	31.50%
Total	381	100.00%

Table 5.2: Frequency Distribution of Participants by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	172	45.14%
Female	209	54.86%
Total	381	100.00%

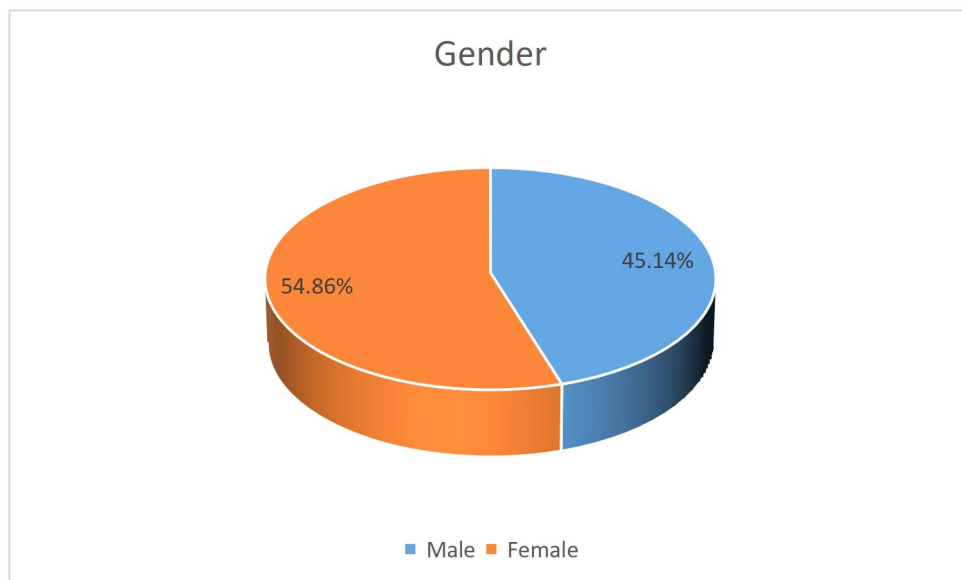


Figure 5.1 Distribution of participants by gender

There were more female participants (54.86%) to the survey than their male counterparts (45.14%). The majority of the learners who took part in the survey were in higher grades during the study (70.08%), with Grade 7s contributing largely to that figure with 31.50%.

Table 5.3: Frequency Distribution of Participants by Population Group

Population Group	Frequency	Percent
Black	303	79.53%
White	46	12.07%
Asian/Indian	16	4.20%
Coloured	16	4.20%
Total	381	100.00%

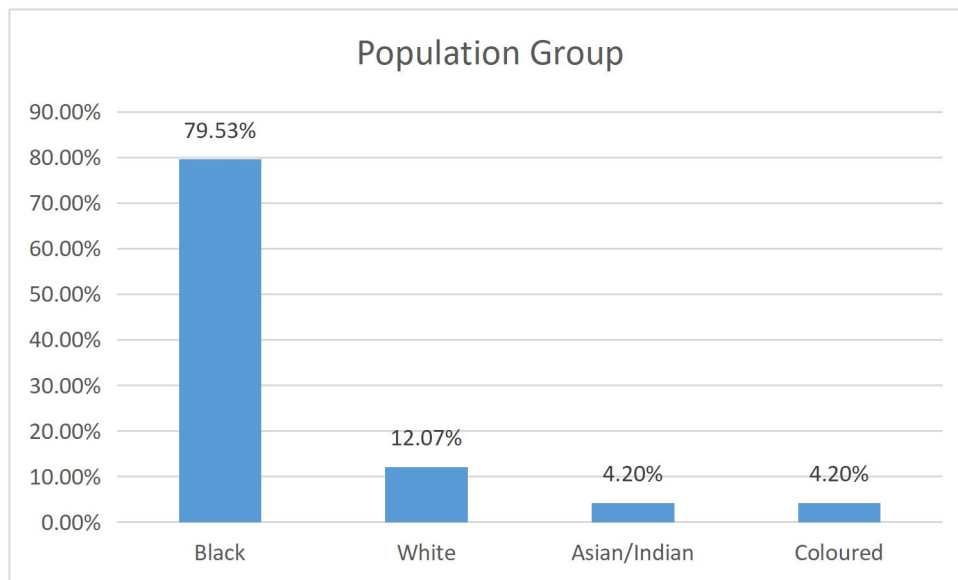


Figure 5.2: Distribution of participants by population group

Table 5.4: Frequency Distribution of Participants by Age

Age	Frequency	Per cent
8 - 9	70	18.37%
10 - 11	133	34.91%
12 - 13	178	46.72%
Total	381	100.00%

Children were asked to indicate their population group in order to gain insights into how many responded to the survey. As anticipated, the majority of the participants

are black (79.53%), because the black population mostly dominates the Limpopo Province. The majority of the participants ranged between the ages of 12 to 13 years old, and they were mostly in Grade 7. This is an indication that the Grade 7 learners had a consistent transition from grade to grade.

Table 5.5: How many TV sets are there in your home?

Number of TV sets at home	Frequency	Percent
0	8	2.10%
1	159	41.73%
2	131	34.38%
3	52	13.65%
4	19	4.99%
5	8	2.10%
6	2	0.52%
7	2	0.52%
Total	381	100.00%

Table 5.6: Do you have a TV in your bedroom?

TV in bedroom	Frequency	Percent
Yes	99	25.98%
No	282	74.02%
Total	381	100.00%

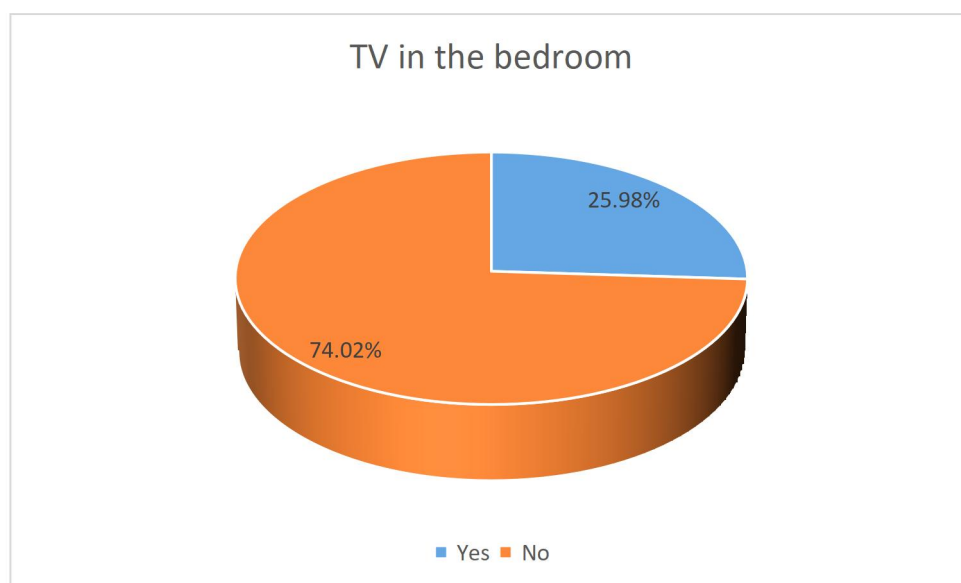


Figure 5.3: TV in the bedroom

The survey also asked the learners to indicate the number of TV sets in their homes and whether they had a separate television set in their bedrooms. The majority of the participants had one or two TV sets in their homes (76.11%), with two participants indicating that there had seven TV sets in their homes. The results showed that 74.02% of the participants had their TV set only in the livingroom and not in their bedrooms, while those who had four or more TV sets in their homes, stood a chance of having one in their bedrooms.

Table 5.7: How often do you watch TV?

Watch TV	Frequency	Percent
Always	101	26.51%
Usually	51	13.39%
Sometimes	186	48.82%
Often	39	10.24%
Never	4	1.05%
Total	381	100.00%

Table 5.7 above shows that nearly 50% of the participants watch television sometimes, with the majority of that being females and between the ages of 12 to 13 years old. Conversely, of the participants who always watch television, the majority were males between the ages of 10 to 11 years old. The indication is that the age group 10 to 11 years old (45.54%) always watch TV and the group 12 to 13 years old (49.46%) watch it sometimes.

Table 5.8: Do you like watching TV?

Like watching TV	Frequency	Percent
Always	85	22.31%
Usually	64	16.80%
Sometimes	195	51.18%
Often	30	7.87%
Never	7	1.84%
Total	381	100.00%

Table 5.9: How many hours do you spend watching TV every day?

Hours watching TV	Frequency	Percent
<= 1 hour	88	23.10%
1 - 2 hours	100	26.25%
3 - 4 hours	94	24.67%
5 - 6 hours	38	9.97%
6 - 7 hours	43	11.29%
>= 7 hours	18	4.72%
Total	381	100.00%

The children were also asked to indicate the number of hours they spend watching TV programmes every day. The results from the above table show that almost half of the participants spend one to two hours watching a TV.

Table 5.10: What do you like about TV advertisements?

TV advertisements	Frequency	Percent
Music/Songs	132	34.65%
Characters	59	15.49%
Funny adverts	122	32.02%
Pictures	21	5.51%
Language	34	8.92%
Other	13	3.41%
Total	381	100.00%

The above table shows that about one third of the participants like to watch/listen to the music/songs on TV advertisements and a third like funny advertisements.

Table 5.11: What TV programmes do you like to watch?

TV Programmes	Frequency	Percent
Cartoons	148	38.85%
Musicals (song-based programmes)	46	12.07%
Series	66	17.32%
Movies	97	25.46%
Reality shows	18	4.72%
Other	6	1.57%
Total	381	100.00%

The above table demonstrates that almost half of the participants like to watch cartoon programmes on TV, followed by about a quarter who like to watch movies.

5.2.4 SECTION B: What are the views of South African children on television advertising?

The following section presents the analysis of participants' answers to section B:

5.2.4.1 Factor analysis

Table 5.12: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.594	15

The Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency that ranges between 0 and 1, where 0 signifies the minimum (none), and 1 signifies the maximum (perfect). For this section, the alpha was 0.594, which indicated moderate internal consistency for this section.

Table 5.13: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.678
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	977.140
	Df	105
	Sig.	.000

The KMO measure value of 0.678 obtained on the above table indicates that the factor analysis is appropriate, since the value is closer to 1 than it is to 0. This further demonstrates that patterns of correlations among the 15 variables under this section are relatively compact, and factor analysis will yield reliable factors. The Bartlett's chi-square test is 977.140, and its significance level is less than 0.05, which suggests the hypothesis that the 15 variables are independent is rejected. The use of factor analysis is justifiable and also confirms the relative compact nature of the variables.

Table 5.14: The total variance of the extracted factors on the views of South African children on TV advertisements

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Cronbach's alpha
Factor1B: Behaviour and Consumption	1	5	3.19	0.739
Factor2B: Alcohol and Tobacco	1	5	1.49	0.746
Factor3B: Entertainment	1	5	3.38	0.492
Factor4B: Food and Beverages	1	5	3.41	0.501
Factor5B: Sport Promotion	1	5	3.83	-

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	2.787	18.582	18.582	2.747	18.311	18.311
2	2.052	13.678	32.260	1.691	11.272	29.583
3	1.634	10.896	43.155	1.622	10.815	40.398
4	1.159	7.725	50.881	1.401	9.340	49.738
5	1.056	7.042	57.923	1.228	8.185	57.923
6	.868	5.786	63.709			
7	.855	5.701	69.410			
8	.818	5.454	74.864			
9	.742	4.949	79.814			
10	.646	4.309	84.122			
11	.612	4.079	88.201			
12	.544	3.624	91.826			
13	.490	3.270	95.096			
14	.385	2.566	97.661			
15	.351	2.339	100.000			

Table 5.14 mentioned above shows the total variance explained by the extracted factors. Factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1 were considered, which results in five factors being extracted by the Principal Component Analysis (PCA). These factors explain more than 57% of the total variance.

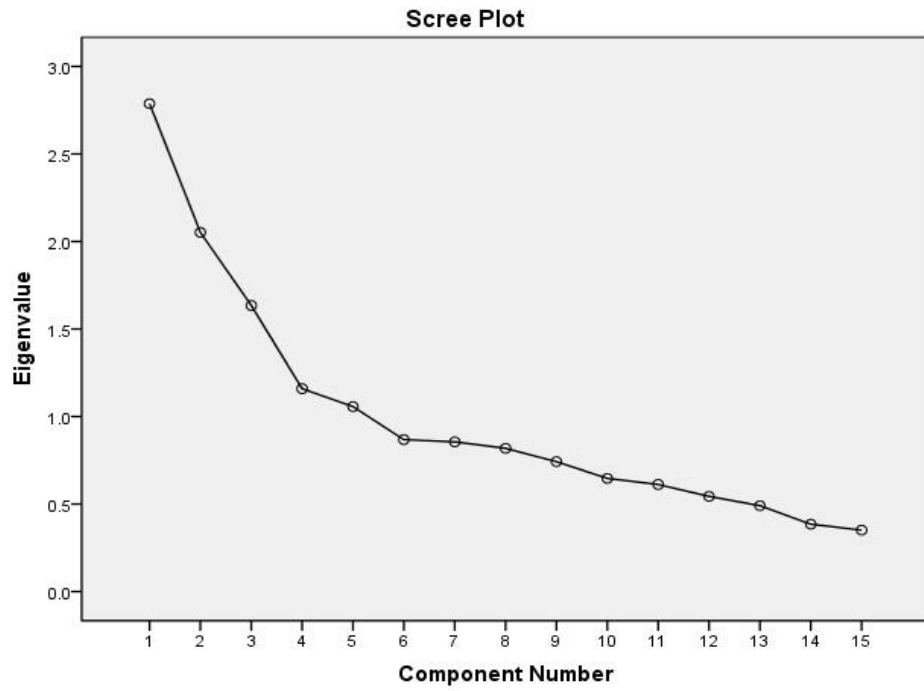


Figure 5.4: Scree plot

The scree plot above also suggests that a model with only five factors is sufficient to represent the data.

Table 5.15: Rotated Component Matrix

	Rotated Component Matrix ^a				
	Component				
	Factor 1B	Factor 2B	Factor 3B	Factor 4B	Factor 5B
Do you like watching TV advertising?			0.710		
Do you like watching TV advertising for Entertainment?			0.594		
Do you like TV advertisements for food?			0.353	0.629	
Do you like TV advertisements for soft drinks?				0.811	
Do you like TV advertisements for alcohol?		0.876			
Do you like TV advertisements that promote smoking (cigarettes)?		0.877			
Do you like TV advertisements for toys?			0.691		
Do you like TV advertisements that promote a specific sport?					0.802
TV advertising encourages children to do dangerous/violent things.	0.637				-0.346
TV advertising encourages unhealthy eating or drinking habits.	0.644				-0.356
TV advertising sometimes shows scary or stressful things.	0.574				
TV advertising encourages children to spend their time watching TV.	0.702				
TV advertising affects children's schoolwork.	0.624				
TV advertising sometimes makes children live in a make-believe world.	0.606				
TV advertising makes children interested in buying the product advertised.	0.556				
Mean	3.192	1.495	3.380	3.411	3.835
Variance explained (%)	18.582	13.678	10.896	7.725	7.042
Cronbach's Alpha	0.739	0.746	0.492	0.501	

Factor 1B: Seven variables were loaded into this factor, and it was labelled **Behaviour and Consumption**.

Factor 2B: Two variables were loaded into this factor, and it was labelled **Alcohol and Tobacco**.

Factor 3B: Three variables were loaded into this factor, and it was labelled **Entertainment**.

Factor 4B: Two variables were loaded into this factor, and it was labelled **Food and Beverages**.

Factor 5B: Only one variable was used for this factor, and it was labelled **Sport Promotion**.

Table 5.16: The views of South African children regarding TV advertisements

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Cronbach's alpha
Factor1B: Behaviour and Consumption	1	5	3.19	0.739
Factor2B: Alcohol and Tobacco	1	5	1.49	0.746
Factor3B: Entertainment	1	5	3.38	0.492
Factor4B: Food and Beverages	1	5	3.41	0.501
Factor5B: Sport Promotion	1	5	3.83	-

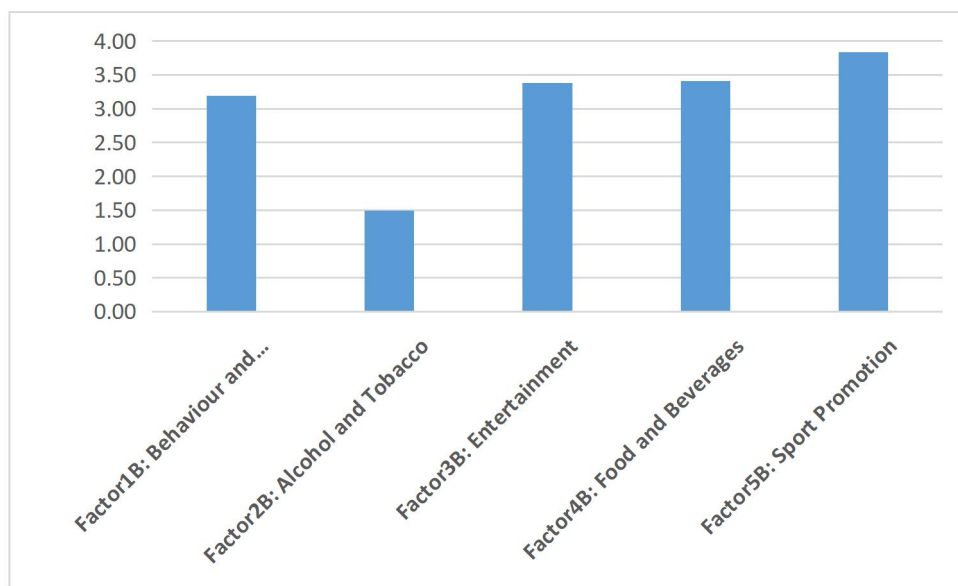


Figure 5.5: A visual illustration of Table 5.16

The results from the above visualisation show the views of South African children regarding television advertisements. There is an indication that children like entertaining advertisements and advertisements on food and beverages. They also feel that some advertisements have an influence on their behaviour and on what they consume (Factor 1). There is a strong dislike of alcohol and tobacco advertisements (Factor 2).

Table 5.17: A comparison of the views of South African children regarding TV advertisements with the four groups of demographics' characteristics

Category		Factor 1B Mean	Factor 2B Mean	Factor 3B Mean	Factor 4B Mean	Factor 5B Mean
Gender						
Male	n = 172	3.20	1.61	3.37	3.36	4.00
Female	n = 209	3.18	1.40	3.38	3.45	3.70
t-test p-value		0.568	0.056	0.222	0.856	0.009
Population Group						
Black	n = 303	3.23	1.54	3.49	3.52	3.82
White	n = 46	2.89	1.37	2.62	2.65	3.80
Asian/Indian	n = 16	3.15	1.31	3.23	3.38	3.69
Coloured	n = 16	3.33	1.25	3.69	3.47	4.38
ANOVA p-value		0.060	0.197	0.000	0.000	0.252
Age						
8 - 9 years	n = 70	2.77	1.48	3.79	3.55	3.70
10 - 11 years	n = 133	3.34	1.59	3.36	3.35	3.66
12 - 13 years	n = 178	3.24	1.43	3.23	3.40	4.02
ANOVA p-value		0.000	0.210	0.000	0.390	0.011
Grade						
Grade 2	n = 15	3.33	1.47	3.62	3.03	3.80
Grade 3	n = 52	2.66	1.66	3.83	3.78	3.62
Grade 4	n = 47	3.24	1.52	3.62	3.46	3.57
Grade 5	n = 81	3.42	1.62	3.26	3.31	3.77
Grade 6	n = 66	3.15	1.50	3.17	3.39	3.80
Grade 7	n = 120	3.25	1.33	3.26	3.36	4.10
ANOVA p-value		0.000	0.065	0.000	0.053	0.039

Hours spent on TV						
<= 1 hour	n = 88	2.98	1.46	3.25	3.35	3.93
1 - 2 hours	n = 100	3.17	1.55	3.43	3.38	3.89
3 - 4 hours	n = 94	3.27	1.46	3.34	3.49	3.74
5 - 6 hours	n = 38	3.08	1.33	3.31	3.21	3.79
6 - 7 hours	n = 43	3.55	1.80	3.50	3.38	3.77
>= 7 hours	n = 18	3.35	1.17	3.76	3.97	3.78
ANOVA p-value		0.005	0.022	0.183	0.127	0.881
Watch TV						
Always	n = 101	3.45	1.48	3.60	3.50	3.82
Usually	n = 51	3.00	1.41	3.27	3.30	3.80
Sometimes	n = 186	3.12	1.58	3.40	3.40	3.85
Often	n = 39	3.15	1.27	2.96	3.29	3.85
Never	n = 4	2.93	1.25	2.50	3.88	3.75
ANOVA p-value		0.004	0.155	0.000	0.562	0.999

Gender: The *t*-test shows that there is no significant difference ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$) for the factors, except for Factor 5B, across the male and female children. The factor analysis also confirms that male and female children agree that television advertisements have an influence on their behaviour and on what they consume. They feel that their consumption is somewhat influenced by what they see on TV.

Population Group: One-way ANOVA have indicated that only two factors (Factor 3B and Factor 4B) are significantly different ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$) among the population groups; other factors show no evidence of a significant difference. Apart from the white children, all groups have balanced perceptions on behaviour and consumption, where they agree that advertisements influence their attitudes. All groups dislike the advertisements on alcohol and tobacco (Factor 2B). Coloured children appear to be the group who like advertisements on entertainment (mean = 3.69), followed by black and Indian children with means of 3.49 and 3.23, respectively. White children

are the only group who dislike food and beverage advertisements; all other groups agree that they like such advertisements.

Age: One-way ANOVA indicates that Factor 1B, Factor 3B and Factor 5B are significantly different among the age groups under study. Children who are between the age of 8 to 9, feel that TV advertisements do not influence their behaviour and consumption, while other age groups feel otherwise. All age groups dislike the advertisements for alcohol and tobacco. Entertainment, sports promotions, and food and beverages advertisements are all favoured by children across all the age groups under study.

Grade: One-way ANOVA indicates that three factors (Factor 1B, Factor 3B and Factor 5B) are significantly different across the grades. Factor 2B and Factor 4B do not differ significantly. Children from all grades, except Grade 3, agree with the statement that TV advertisements influence their behaviour and consumption. Children from all grades under study indicate their disagreement (Factor 2B) with advertisements for alcohol and tobacco. Although children from all grades like entertainment advertisements, Grade 3s show a strong liking for entertainment advertisements (mean = 3.83). Again, Grade 3s show a great interest (mean = 3.78) in food and beverage advertisements. All grades agree that they like advertisements that promote sports, with Grade 7s being the most in favour of the advertisements (mean = 4.10).

5.2.4.2 Conclusion

South African children feel that TV advertising has some influence on their behaviour, especially those older than 10 years, but younger than 13-years old. Both male and female children have the same perception of the influence TV has on their behaviour. Every category under study feels that they do not like alcohol and tobacco advertisements.

5.2.5 SECTION C: Are South African children adequately protected regarding television advertising?

The following tables and figures focus on the presentation of the results from the participants' answers to the section C.

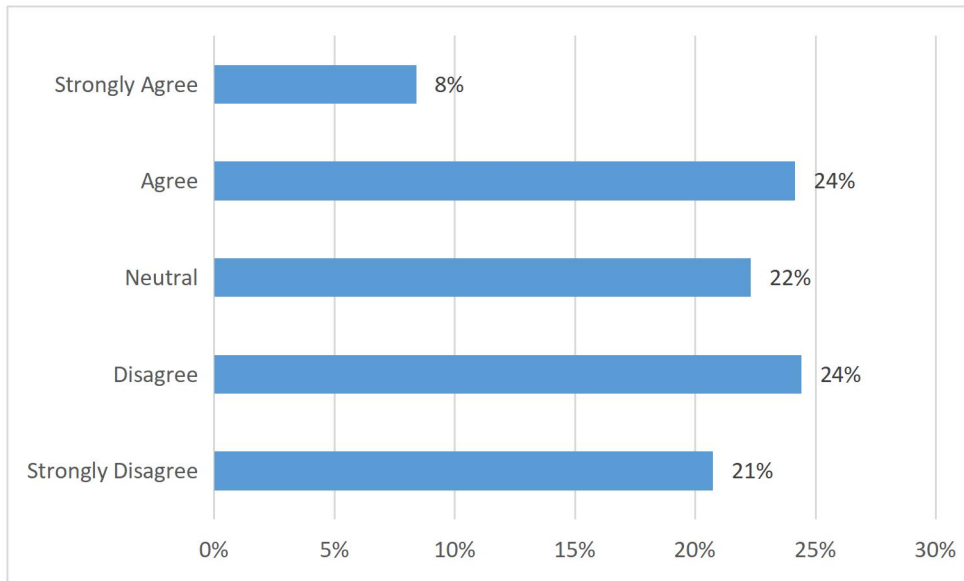


Figure 5.6: Parents teach children about TV advertising

The question was aimed at measuring whether children believe that they were being taught about TV advertising by their parents. The results suggest that although there is a tendency of most children believing that their parents do not teach them about TV advertising (45%), compared to only 32% of parents who do teach their children, on balance, there is an indication that the role of parents in this regard is not a dominant one.

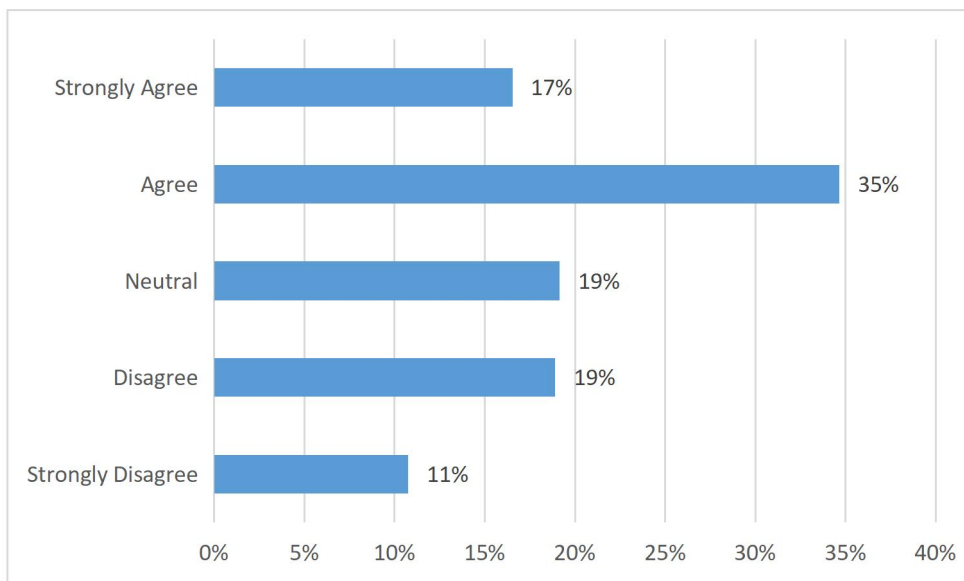


Figure 5.7: Parents explain the reasons for TV advertising clearly to their children

The results from this statement indicate that children believe that if their parents educate them about TV advertising, then they do seem to do so properly (52%), explaining the reasons behind the television advertisements.

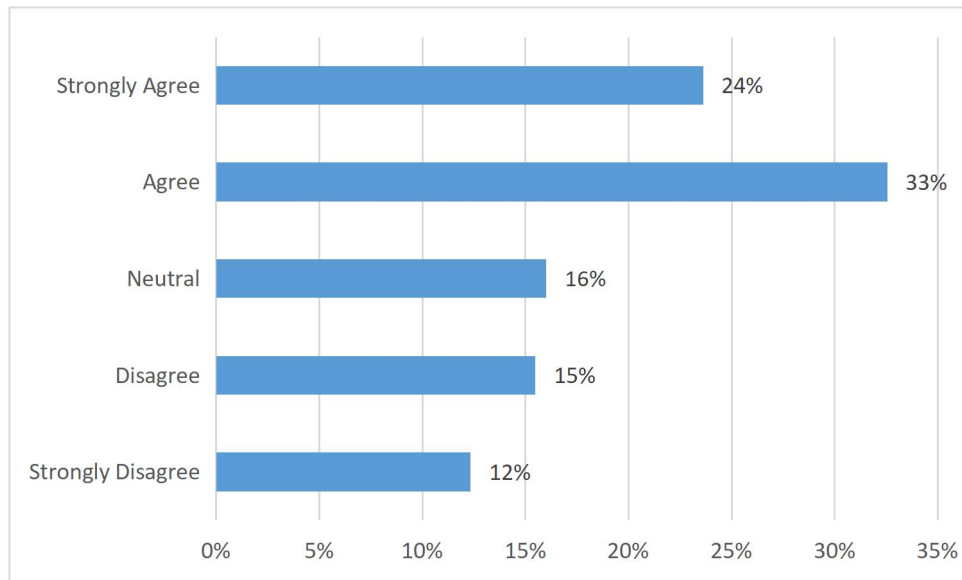


Figure 5.8: Parents chose which TV programmes their children watch

This question was aimed at measuring whether children are being monitored on what they watch on TV. The results suggest that more parents (57%) control what their children watch. However, it should be noted that 27% claim that their parents have no influence over what they watch. The results are confirmed by the factor analysis on the next pages.

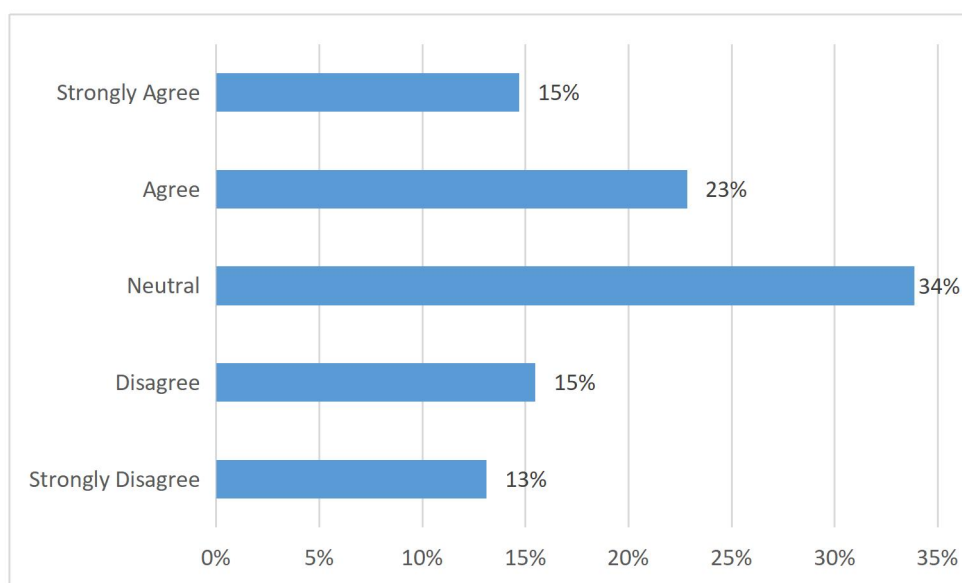


Figure 5.9: Parents restrict children's TV watching

Although the majority of children in this statement hold neutral perceptions, 38% of the children agree with the statement that parents restrict their TV watching. This complements the opinions given to the prior statement where more children agreed that parents choose what TV programmes they are allowed to watch.

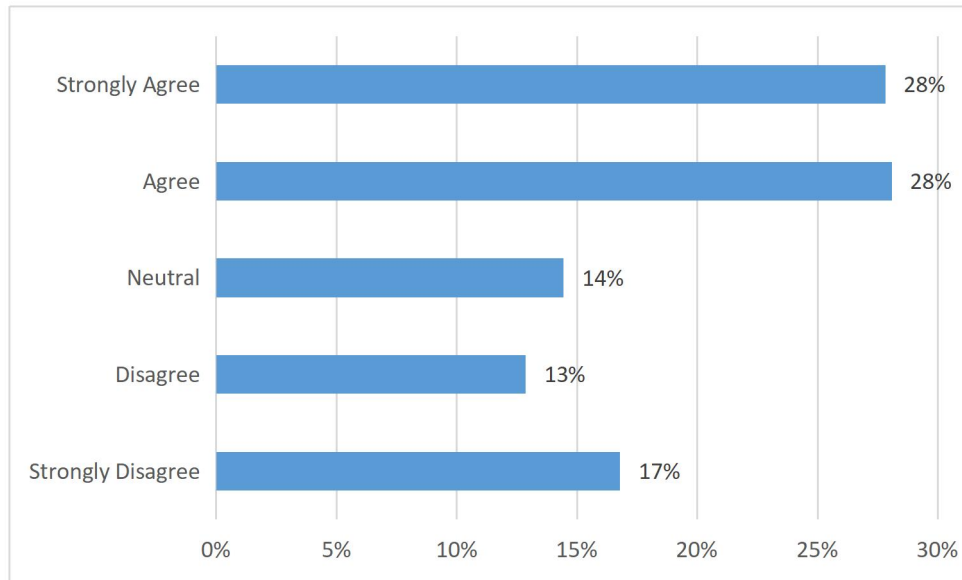


Figure 5.10: Parents decide on children’s TV watching hours

This statement was aimed at measuring the time children spend in front of the television. The results show that more children agree (56%) rather than disagree (30%) that parents are strict when it comes to television time. As seen in statement A10, more than 50% of the children spend less than two hours a day watching TV.

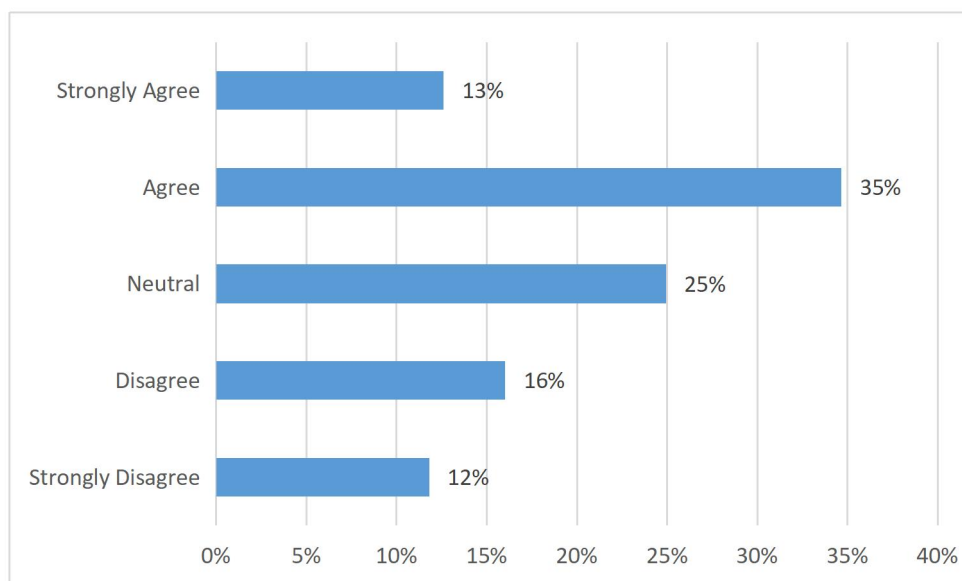


Figure 5.11: Parents observe children’s TV watching

This shows that nearly half of the sample (48%) agree that their parents observe their TV watching. This result also complements the earlier discovery that children only watch TV for a maximum of two hours. However, a third (28%) watch TV unobserved.

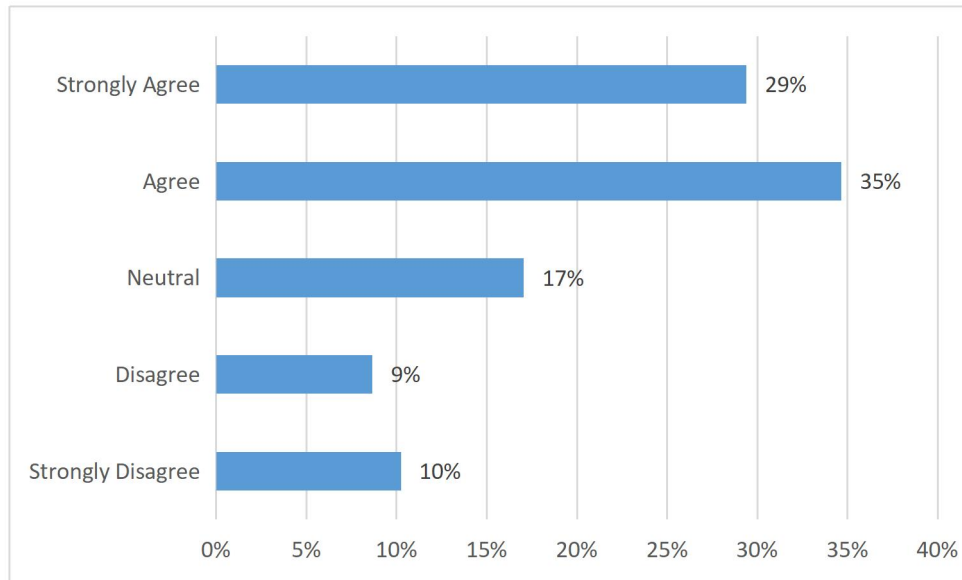


Figure 5.12: Sometimes, parents do not allow children to watch TV on school days

According to these results, a majority of parents (64%) do not allow their children to spend much time watching TV on school days. This also complements the limited hours these children spend watching TV.

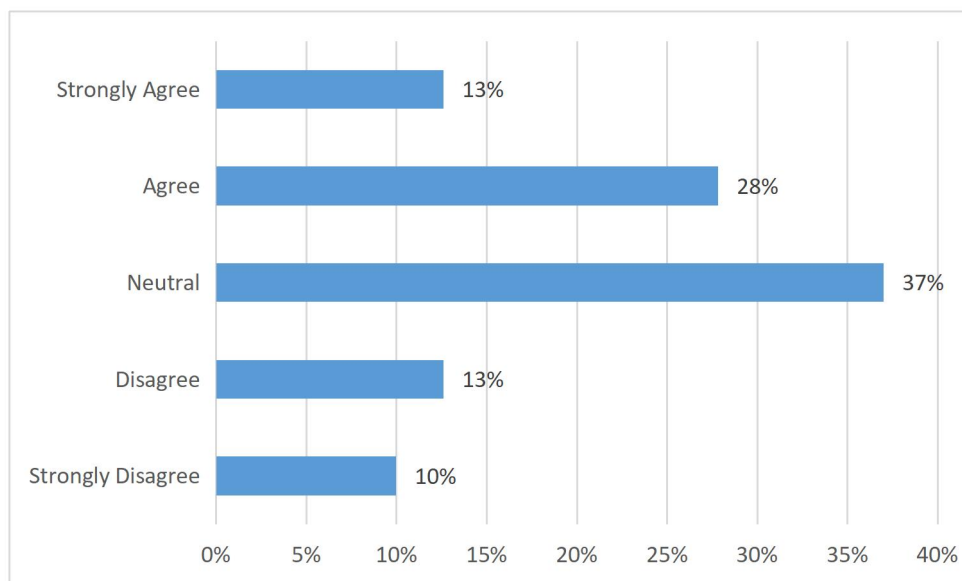


Figure 5.13: Family members raise awareness about children's TV watching

Although 37% of the responses hold neutral perceptions on this statement, some children (41%) agree that family members raise awareness about children’s TV watching. This indicates that either parents or other family members keep an eye on these South African children regarding their exposure to television and advertisements.

5.2.5.1 Factor analysis

Table 5.18: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
.659	8

Cronbach’s alpha is a measure of internal consistency that ranges between 0 and 1, where 0 signifies the minimum (none), and 1 signifies the maximum (perfect). For this section, the alpha is 0.659, which is moderately lower than the 0.70, but is still acceptable.

Table 5.19: KMO and Bartlett’s Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.742
Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	371.273
	Df	28
	Sig.	.000

The value of 0.742 obtained suggests that the factor analysis is appropriate (Field, 2005). This further indicates that the patterns of correlations among the 8 variables in this section are relatively compact, and factor analysis will yield reliable factors. Additionally, Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity and the significance level (smaller than 0.005) supports the use of factor analysis.

Table 5.20: The total variance of the extracted factors on the protection of South African children from television advertising

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	2.444	30.551	30.551	2.262	28.275	28.275
2	1.262	15.772	46.323	1.444	18.047	46.323
3	.927	11.587	57.910			
4	.861	10.767	68.677			
5	.694	8.670	77.346			
6	.668	8.355	85.702			
7	.590	7.375	93.077			
8	.554	6.923	100.000			

The above table shows the total variance explained by the extracted factors. The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to extract the factors. Two factors (those whose Eigenvalues are greater than 1) were extracted under the 'Component' column above. These two factors contain as much information as the eight variables under this section, as they account for 46% of the total variance attributed to these variables.

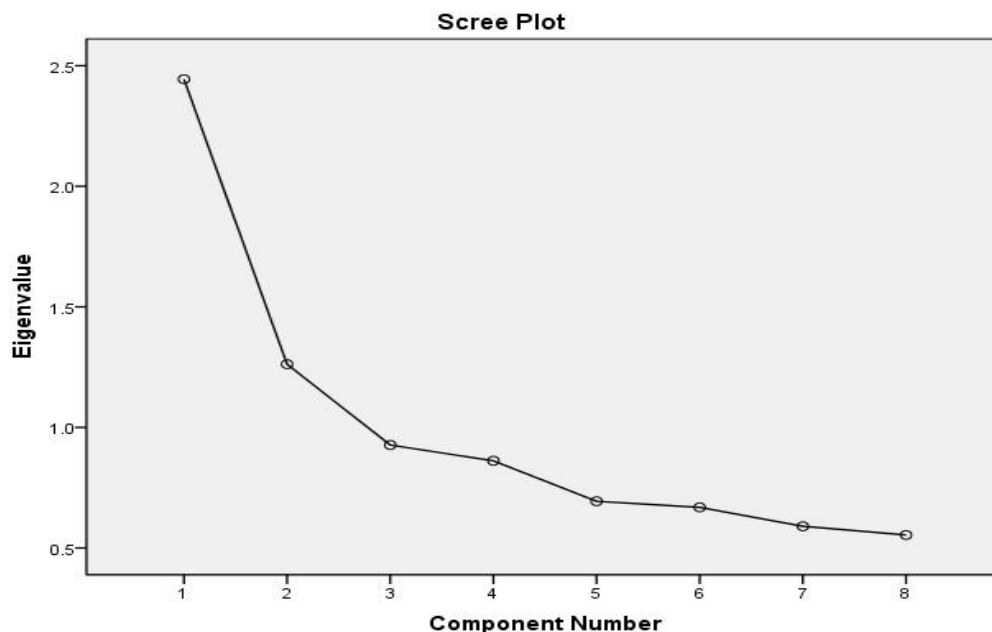


Figure 5.14: Scree plot of the extracted factors on the protection of South African children from television advertising

The above screen plot also suggests that a model with two factors is sufficient to represent the dataset.

Table 5.21: Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2
1	.920	.392
2	-.392	.920

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

Table 5.21 shows the component transformation matrix of the four extracted factors. The component transformation matrix presents the correlation of the eight variables under this section in relation to the two extracted factors after the varimax orthogonal rotation. The factor correlation suggests that the two factors are not strongly correlated, as shown by their low coefficients. This indicates that the two factors are independent, and they are explaining different aspects of the eight initial variables.

Table 5.22: Rotated Component Matrix

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component	
	Factor 1C	Factor 2C
Parents teach children about TV advertising.		0.820
Parents explain the reasons for TV advertising clearly to their children.		0.693
Parents chose which TV programmes their children watch.	0.598	0.307
Parents restrict children's TV watching.	0.513	
Parents decide on children's TV watching hours.	0.710	
Parents observe children's TV watching.	0.567	0.334
Sometimes parents do not allow children to watch TV on school days.	0.641	
Family members raise awareness about children's TV watching.	0.588	
Mean	3.321	3.012
Variance explained (%)	30.551	15.772
Cronbach's Alpha	0.671	0.478

Factor 1C: Six variables were fused into this factor under this section. The factor was labelled **TV Restriction**, because it talks about parents being cautious of what their children watch on television.

Factor 2C: Two variables highlighting the education and awareness from parents around television advertising to their children were loaded into this factor and labelled **Advertisement Education**.

Table 5.23: Responses on adequate protection from a television advertisement

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Cronbach's alpha
Factor 1C: TV Restriction	1	5	3.321	0.671
Factor 2C: Advertisement Education	1	5	3.012	0.478

The results from the mean column suggest that although some children hold neutral perceptions on whether their parents play a protective role regarding TV advertisements, the majority are in agreement that they are not given the freedom to watch whatever they desire to watch and that their parents pay attention to what they watch on TV. Cronbach's alpha (0.671) confirms the internal reliability of the responses. The views on the advertisement education are neutral; children could not really answer whether they agreed or disagreed with the statements they were asked. This is also confirmed by the Cronbach's alpha (0.478), which is very low and indicates that there is a very low internal reliability of the responses.

Table 5.24: A comparison of adequate protection with the four groups of demographic characteristics

Category		Factor 1C Mean	Factor 2C Mean
Gender			
Male	n = 172	3.30	3.14
Female	n = 209	3.34	2.90
t-test p-value		0.921	0.423

Population Group			
Black	n = 303	3.29	3.04
White	n = 46	3.56	2.83
Asian/Indian	n = 16	3.33	3.13
Colored	n = 16	3.18	2.94
ANOVA p-value		0.146	0.571
Age			
8 - 9 years	n = 70	2.97	2.88
10 - 11 years	n = 133	3.33	3.09
12 - 13 years	n = 178	3.45	3.01
ANOVA p-value		0.000	0.384
Grade			
Grade 2	n = 15	3.22	2.90
Grade 3	n = 52	2.74	2.82
Grade 4	n = 47	3.33	2.83
Grade 5	n = 81	3.40	3.30
Grade 6	n = 66	3.40	2.98
Grade 7	n = 120	3.48	3.01
ANOVA p-value		0.000	0.074
Hours spent on TV			
<= 1 hour	n = 88	3.32	2.97
1 - 2 hours	n = 100	3.28	2.84
3 - 4 hours	n = 94	3.34	2.90
5 - 6 hours	n = 38	3.39	3.04
6 - 7 hours	n = 43	3.40	3.66
>= 7 hours	n = 18	3.07	3.17
ANOVA p-value		0.720	0.000
Watch TV			
Always	n = 101	3.33	3.26
Usually	n = 51	3.24	2.85
Sometimes	n = 186	3.33	3.00
Often	n = 39	3.35	2.58
Never	n = 4	3.50	3.63

ANOVA p-value	0.923	0.003
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Gender: The *t*-test for the two dimensions across gender indicates no evidence of a significant difference ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$). As noted in the means, although both male and female children agree that their parents are strict when it comes to what they watch on TV, females are slightly more in agreement with the statement (mean = 3.34) than males (mean = 3.30). Males are in agreement (mean = 3.14) with the statement that parents teach them about TV advertising and explain the reasons for advertisement (**Advertisement Education**), while female counterparts disagree (mean = 2.90).

Population Group: The ANOVA indicates no significant difference between the two Factors across the population groups ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$). All the groups are in agreement with the statements relating to the TV restriction, with the white children agreeing more with the statement (mean = 3.56). White and coloured children disagree with the statements relating to advertisement education (mean < 3), while black children hold neutral perceptions and Asians/Indians are slightly positive (agree) with the statements. The post-hoc test (Bonferroni) confirms that there are no significant differences ($p\text{-values} > 0.05$) between any of the population groups.

Age: One-way ANOVA indicates a significant difference ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$) among the age groups for one of the two factors, namely TV restriction (Factor 1C). Apart from the age group 8 to 9 years who are in disagreement with being restricted from a TV advertisement, the rest of the age groups agree that parents restrict them on what they watch on the TV. All age groups (apart from those aged 8 to 9 who disagree) are neutral on advertising education.

Grade: One-way ANOVA suggests a significant difference ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$) for Factor 1C across the grades under study and no significant difference ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$) for Factor 2C among the same grades. Children from all grades, except those in Grade 3, agree that they are restricted regarding their watching television, especially white children. Only Grade 5 children hold positive perceptions about advertising education from their parents; Grade 7s are neutral, and the rest claim that their parents do not teach them anything about television advertising.

5.2.5.2 Conclusion

This section was aimed at measuring whether South African children are protected from their exposure to television advertising. The results indicate that most South African children are protected because their parents seem to choose which TV programmes they may watch, decide on the hours spent watching TV, and they are stricter on TV watching. The factor analysis also supports this finding by extracting the “**TV Restriction**” factor that is significant in describing the perceptions of South African children across various demographics.

5.2.6 SECTION D: What are the behavioural effects of television advertisements on South African children?

5.2.6.1 Factor analysis

Table 5.25: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.731	15

Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency that ranges between 0 and 1, where 0 signifies the minimum (none) and 1 signifies the maximum (perfect). For this section, the alpha is 0.731, which indicates satisfactory internal consistency for this section.

Table 5.26: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.816	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1037.980
	Df	105
	Sig.	.000

The KMO measure value of 0.816 obtained on the above table strongly indicates that the factor analysis is appropriate. Since the value is closer to 1, this further shows that patterns of correlations among the 15 variables under this section are relatively compact, and factor analysis will yield reliable factors. The approximate Bartlett's test of sphericity, which tests the hypothesis that the correlation matrix formed by these 15 variables is an identity matrix, also confirms the relative compact nature of the

variables. The Bartlett's chi-square test is 1037.980, and its significance level is less than 0.05, which indicates that the hypothesis that the 15 variables are independent is rejected, and the use of factor analysis is justifiable.

Table 5.27: The total variance of the extracted factors on the behavioural effects of television advertising on South African children

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	3.695	24.631	24.631	2.438	16.253	16.253
2	1.687	11.247	35.878	2.165	14.433	30.685
3	1.382	9.215	45.093	1.629	10.857	41.542
4	1.014	6.763	51.856	1.547	10.314	51.856
5	.944	6.296	58.152			
6	.848	5.653	63.805			
7	.767	5.116	68.921			
8	.738	4.920	73.841			
9	.720	4.797	78.639			
10	.654	4.363	83.002			
11	.608	4.050	87.052			
12	.518	3.453	90.505			
13	.505	3.365	93.871			
14	.490	3.266	97.137			
15	.430	2.863	100.000			

Table 5.27 above shows the total variance explained by the extracted factors. The PCA under the factor analysis was used for extraction. Although the process extracts 15 factors, those with Eigenvalues greater than 1 were considered, which results in only four factors appropriate for further analyses. The four factors contain as much information as the 15 variables, since they explain 51.86% of the total variance attributed to these variables.

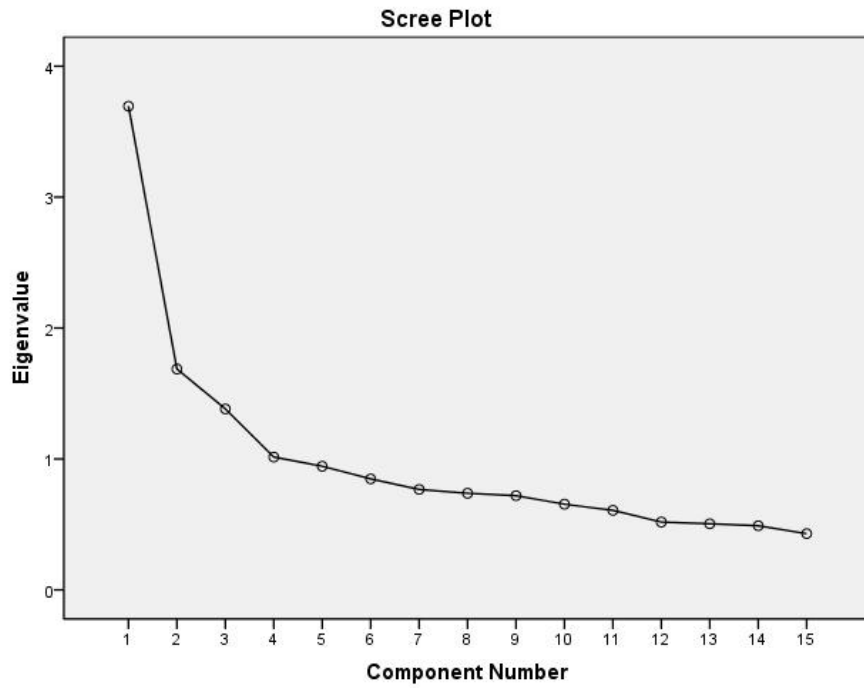


Figure 5.15: Scree Plot

Figure 5.15: The Scree plot above also indicates that a model with four factors is sufficient to represent the data.

Table 5.28: Rotated Component Matrix

	Rotated Component Matrix ^a			
	Component			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
I have faith in TV advertising.	0.696			
I feel very comfortable with TV advertising.	0.526	0.483		
I find TV advertising to be attractive.		0.712		
TV advertising is valuable to me.	0.427	0.520		
I can find what I need through TV advertising.	0.643			
I trust shopping through TV advertising.	0.675			
I am in favour of TV advertising.	0.651	0.354		
I am satisfied with TV advertising.	0.318	0.626		
Television advertisements contain statements that are not true.			0.742	
Television advertisements are full of exaggerated statements.			0.672	
It is easy to understand and recognise TV advertisements.				0.656
Children know the difference between TV programmes and advertisements.				0.622
Children remember some of the TV advertisements that they see.				0.692
TV advertisements are useful.		0.676		
TV advertisements cause arguments between parents and children over the buying of products that are advertised.			0.638	
Mean	3.082	3.104	3.417	3.776
Variance explained (%)	24.63	11.25	9.215	6.763
Cronbach's alpha	0.721	0.670	0.500	0.445

Though individual responses to each statement may be useful, the study extracted descriptive factor labels to be used in the analysis of this section. The extracted factors have Eigenvalues greater than one. The researcher created four factors that are more valid measures of behavioural effects of television advertising on South African children than any single statement. It is important to note that some of the statements in the above table have been excluded in the extraction of a factor due to its low correlation with that factor. For example, the statement “I am satisfied with TV advertising” is associated with Factor 2, because it has a high correlation (0.626) with that factor and a low correlation (0.318) with Factor 1. The factors are outlined below.

Factor 1: Five variables were loaded onto this factor, and it was labelled **Advertisement Awareness**.

Factor 2: Four variables were loaded onto this factor, and it was labelled **Attractive and Valuable**.

Factor 3: Three variables were loaded onto this factor, and it was labelled **Misleading Advertisements**.

Factor 4: Three variables were loaded onto this factor, and it was labelled **Friendly Advertisements**.

The total variance explained by the extracted factors is 51.86%, which implies that they contain as much information as the 15 variables under this section. The variance explained is acceptable in terms of explaining the variability in the data. The internal consistency of the responses is measured by Cronbach's alpha (Reliability Statistic). The Reliability Statistic for Factor 1 = 0.721, Factor 2 = 0.670, Factor 3 = 0.500 and Factor 4 = 0.445.

The calculated descriptive statistics measured the survey's response to the behavioural effects of television advertisements on South African children. Descriptive statistics were based on the survey's perceptions of the four factors that emerged from the PCA.

Table 5.29: Responses to behavioural effects

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Cronbach's Alpha
Factor1D: Advertisement Awareness	1	5	3.08	0.721
Factor2D: Attractive and Valuable	1	5	3.10	0.670
Factor3D: Misleading Advertisements	1	5	3.42	0.500
Factor4D: Friendly Advertisement	1	5	3.78	0.445

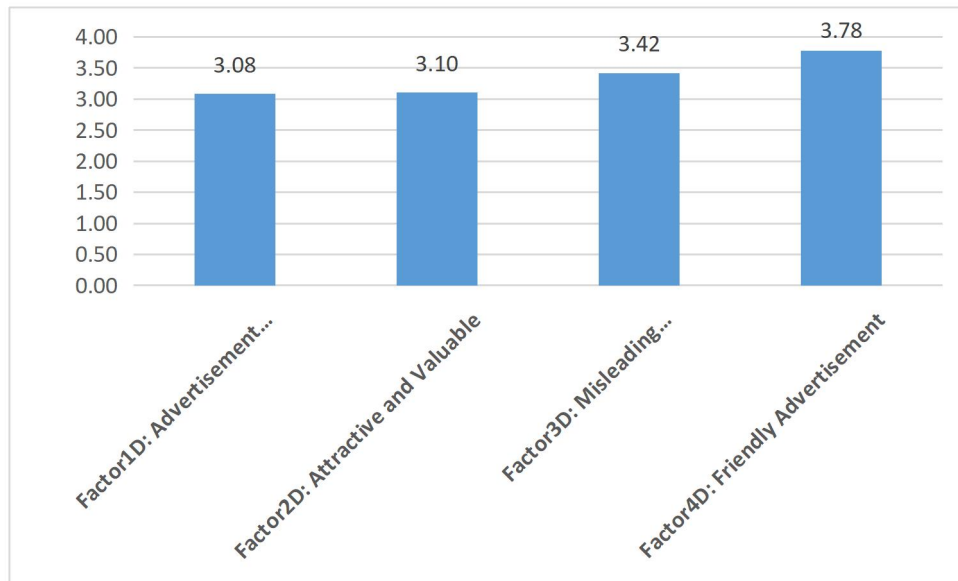


Figure 5.16: A visual illustration of the above Table 5.19

The results indicate that although children agree that most television advertisements are easy to understand and remember (Factor 4D), they also have a perception that advertisements are not accurate and exaggerate some of their claims (Factor 3D). They remain neutral regarding the value of the advertisements and the awareness they create. The respective Cronbach's alphas (0.721 and 0.670) confirm the reliability of the responses.

Table 5.30: A comparison of behavioural effects with the four groups of demographic characteristics

Category		Factor 1D Mean	Factor 2D Mean	Factor 3D Mean	Factor 4D Mean
Gender					
Male	n = 172	3.17	3.15	3.51	3.78
Female	n = 209	3.01	3.07	3.34	3.77
t-test p-value		0.200	0.178	0.758	0.449
Population Group					
Black	n = 303	3.21	3.20	3.43	3.80
White	n = 46	2.50	2.43	3.48	3.66
Asian/Indian	n = 16	2.65	3.02	3.21	3.69
Coloured	n = 16	2.85	3.20	3.29	3.83
ANOVA p-value		0.000	0.000	0.666	0.580
Age					
8 - 9 years	n = 70	3.17	3.32	3.06	3.81

10 - 11 years	n = 133	3.07	3.03	3.58	3.75
12 - 13 years	n = 178	3.06	3.08	3.44	3.78
ANOVA p-value		0.563	0.040	0.000	0.803
Grade					
Grade 2	n = 15	3.44	3.28	3.20	3.69
Grade 3	n = 52	3.09	3.43	2.97	3.96
Grade 4	n = 47	2.98	3.03	3.40	3.67
Grade 5	n = 81	3.17	3.07	3.73	3.70
Grade 6	n = 66	2.95	2.95	3.48	3.69
Grade 7	n = 120	3.08	3.07	3.40	3.84
ANOVA p-value		0.277	0.026	0.000	0.146
Hours spent on TV					
<= 1 hour	n = 88	2.81	3.00	3.32	3.73
1 - 2 hours	n = 100	3.02	3.07	3.35	3.75
3 - 4 hours	n = 94	3.03	3.10	3.40	3.86
5 - 6 hours	n = 38	3.26	3.19	3.23	3.80
6 - 7 hours	n = 43	3.53	3.16	3.85	3.66
>= 7 hours	n = 18	3.54	3.53	3.70	3.94
ANOVA p-value		0.000	0.187	0.004	0.510
Watch TV					
Always	n = 101	3.45	3.33	3.75	3.82
Usually	n = 51	2.96	3.08	3.14	3.94
Sometimes	n = 186	2.99	3.05	3.27	3.73
Often	n = 39	2.69	2.79	3.64	3.68
Never	n = 4	3.45	3.25	3.25	3.67
ANOVA p-value		0.000	0.005	0.000	0.274

Gender: The *t*-test for all four factors across the gender category indicates no significant difference (p -value > 0.05) between the male and the female children. They hold neutral perceptions on the attractiveness, the value of advertisements (Factor 2D) as well as whether they can find whatever they need through television advertising and raised awareness (Factor 1D). The male counterparts agree that some of the television advertising is misleading and full of exaggerated statements (mean = 3.51). Both male and female children agree that advertisements can be very friendly and that they can remember advertisements they see on TV (Factor 4D).

Population Group: One-way ANOVA indicates significant differences among population groups for two of the factors, namely, Factor 1D and Factor 2D. Apart from black children, who remain neutral regarding the belief that advertising creates comfort and awareness, all other groups under investigation disagree with the

statement that television advertising creates comfort, awareness and that they can remember the television advertisements. A post-hoc test (Bonferroni) confirms significant differences between the black children group and the white children group (p-value = 0.000), and between the black children group and the Asian/Indian children group (p-value = 0.030). There is no significant difference between the coloured children group and the other groups. The ANOVA also indicates that there is no significant difference (p-value > 0.05) among the population groups for Factor 3D and Factor 4D. Indications are that black children hold neutral perceptions on the overall behavioural effects the television advertisements bring to their lives.

Age: The ANOVA indicates no significant difference (p-value > 0.05) for two factors (Factor 1D and Factor 2D) across the age categories, while it shows a substantial difference for Factor 2D and Factor 3D.

Grade: One-way ANOVA indicates no significant differences among the grades for Factor 1D and Factor 4D. Children from all grades agree with the statements that TV advertisements are recognisable and easy to understand. The analysis also indicates that there is a significant difference among the grades for Factor 2D and Factor 3D. This suggests that children from the studied grades hold neutral perceptions of the value of and satisfaction with television advertising.

5.2.6.2 Conclusion

The purpose of this section was to measure the behavioural effects of television advertising on South African school children. From the analysis, it is evident that children's only concern is that advertising may be misleading and contain exaggerated claims. White children feel more often that advertising does not really create product awareness, and that advertisements are not particularly attractive or valuable to them. Children from all grades, all population groups, age categories and gender agree that advertisements are easy to understand and they can remember some of those advertisements they see on television.

5.3 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the data analysis that was followed in this study to investigate whether television advertising and its inherent risks affect South African

children. The researcher believes that it is crucial to explore the nature of television advertising directed at children. Data were gathered using questionnaires designed by the researcher to address the research questions. The obtained data from participants were interpreted to derive at the meaning of specific terms and situations. From these findings, and it is clear that television advertising and its inherent risks affect South African children. The next chapter will present a summary of the findings of the research and recommendations regarding the outcomes.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 focused on the method used in the data collection, data analysis, and interpretation of the results from the study. This chapter presents the summary of the findings and the recommendations from the data. The analysis and recommendations are based on the data on television advertising, and its inherent risks affecting South African children. In this chapter, recommendations are made based on the interpretation of the results and the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 provided the background and motivation for the study. It also gave a brief background to the problem addressed by the study. It highlighted the background to television advertising and its inherent risks affecting South African children, the problem statement, literature review, research design, research methodology, data collection instruments, data analysis, as well as the significance of the study, and ethical consideration.

Chapter 2 presented the literature review, while Chapter 3 presented selected literature on child protection and the regulation of advertising to children, while Chapter 4 described the methodology used for this study. The results of the study were presented in Chapter 5, the previous chapter, while this final chapter provides the summary, recommendations, and conclusion of the study.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the risks from television advertising affecting South African children in Grade 2 to Grade 7. The researcher believes that it is crucial to explore the nature of television advertising directed at children.

The following research questions acted as guides in the research:

- What are the views of South African children regarding television advertising?
- Are South African children adequately protected against the influence from television advertising?

- What are the behavioural effects of television advertisements on South African children?
- Do the behavioural effects differ between the four groups of the questionnaire?

The discussion of these results attempted to respond to the questions above and the literature on the topic of an investigation of television advertising risks affecting South African children.

6.2.1 Summary of the problem

The research problem, as explained in Chapter one, is that television advertising can have significant and adverse effects on children's mental and physical health, attitudes, and behaviour. Being exposed to television advertising over extended periods every day means that children are not always adequately protected and run the risk of becoming innocent victims of the impact exerted by television advertising. This study fills an information gap in terms of how television advertising can lead children, through the effect of being exposed to advertising of unhealthy food, combined with reduced or even eliminated physical activities, to becoming overweight, leading also to obesity, misbehaviour, aggression, negative social values, a preference for and consumption of unhealthy foods and eating disorders.

6.2.2 Summary of the procedure

The researcher applied a quantitative research approach in this study (see Chapter 3). The chosen design for this investigation was a descriptive research design approach, which led to purposive sampling. The population of this study was Grade 2 to Grade 7 learners, between the ages of 8 and 13, children (male and female) selected from 25 primary schools (6 independent and 19 public schools), with the total (N = 19,651) learner enrolment in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District. A convenience sample of 381 children was carefully chosen from the 25 primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District. A volunteer teacher from each school was involved in arranging the survey among the individual classes participating in the research project. The proper procedure was followed for obtaining ethical clearance from the Turfloop Research and Ethics Committee (TREC), and the Department of Education as gatekeepers. Permission to conduct

the study was requested from the schools for distribution to the children, and permission to interview the children was granted by the parents/guardians.

6.3 FINDINGS

The findings demonstrated that the collected data discovered that most of these South African children felt that TV advertisements have some influence on their behaviour, especially so among those older than 10 years but younger than 13 years. Both male and female children had the same perception of the influence TV had on their behaviour. The results suggested that South African children are, however, reasonably well protected against any potentially negative influences by television advertising, because most of these children state that their parents choose which TV programmes they may watch; they decide on the hours the children may spend watching TV, and restrict TV watching during school days. The findings also suggested that children in these grades remained reasonably neutral regarding the value of and satisfaction with television advertisements.

The indications were that most of the participating children believed that entertaining/fun and friendly television advertising would appeal to them and make them aware of products or even lead them to want to buy/use such products. Consequently, this means that advertising on television has the inherent theoretical risk that it could affect children, despite the monitoring role held by parents. The combination of reduced/lacking physical activities by these children (because of remaining screen-bound for some time), and increased consumption of unhealthy fast-foods (if parents do not control what their children eat) could lead them to an increased consumption of unhealthy foods, even eating disorders, and becoming overweight or obese. Some television advertisements (and movies, video games, and so forth) could present children with the wrong values, making violence and misbehaviour, aggression, and negative social values seem to be acceptable.

The literature review of the study highlighted the rapid development of alternative media and the overall role of advertising, even beyond television. Exposure to such media and the advertising they carry seems to touch every aspect of life in the post-industrial world. The findings suggested that whether children were aware of the risk or not, they were affected by television advertising. The World Health Organization (WHO) (2010) drew up recommendations for an international code, governing the

marketing of foods and non-alcoholic beverages to children, with a view to reduce obesity among children. Several studies have also emphasised that governments and industries need to develop clear statements regarding achievable objectives and campaigns surrounding statutory restrictions on advertising (Hawkes, 2007; Hawkes & Lobstein, 2011; Lee, Kim, Lee, Yoon & Chung, 2014).

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The researcher would like to recommend that further qualitative and quantitative studies be conducted on this topic, particularly also regarding the role of television as a mainstream medium and the new alternative media, where advertising will become increasingly important as advertisers seem to shift away from print and mainstream and towards the more targeted media. This research study focused on the City of Polokwane, and only one South African province, namely Limpopo. Future research across all nine South African provinces is suggested.

While a number of steps had already been taken by the South African Government to restrict or ban advertising for tobacco products, legislation interventions should be considered and increased efforts to implement more comprehensive regulations on television advertising is advised, specifically for televised alcohol-related marketing and promotions. There should also be stricter controls regarding the advertising slots on television programmes being directed at children, and which products are allowed to be advertised during these time slots. Beyond such strict regulations, it will be and remain the parents' roles to decide what they allow their children to watch, buy or consume; how much time they will be allowed in front of ANY screen other than for homework; and to assure that their children lead a balanced life with lots of physical, outdoor activities being planned for. Children, and particularly the younger ones, are vulnerable; they do not have the ability to clearly differentiate between truth and misleading advertising messages.

Finally, it is recommended that parents, communities and schools should play a stronger part in educating children about the positive and negative impact advertising plays in everyone's lives (being informative as well as manipulative) to help their children in the necessary emotional defence skills against manipulation when they are still young, so that it becomes part of their life.

6.5 CONCLUSION

The mass media remain and the new alternative media have become the most influential media of mass communication and are essential aids in the practice of communication between manufacturers/advertisers and advertising agencies/public relations. Advertising in its various forms is one of the most important communication tools. Its purpose is to inform consumers about product launches, improvements or additions in an appealing and motivating manner, usually with the aim of persuading them to buy or try a product.

Advertising is any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods, and services via an identified sponsor (Kotler, 2000). Television advertising has for a long time been the best-performing form of communication. It is a means of bringing actual demonstration into the homes of the prospective buyers or influencers and is, therefore, a more efficient medium when compared with radio (Saxena, 2005).

The primary purposes of advertising are to increase brand awareness and encourage consumers to buy a product. Advertising plays two important roles in brand communication. The first role is to reinforce and confirm the correctness of choice among existing users so that they will come back and make repeat purchases. The second is to draw attention to a product and any new products on the market (Ledwaba, 2015) and create trial.

Children can become affected by television advertising because television was and still largely is the most common medium through which children are exposed to advertisements, although social media (Facebook, internet, all chatlines) has lately overtaken children's exposure to the screens and also to online advertising. Appropriate regulations must be put in place to protect society, and especially children, against deceptive, misleading, or harmful advertising. However, it is essential to bear in mind that the restrictions should include both programmes aimed specifically at children and programmes with significant numbers of children watching, even if these are not per se children's programmes.

The findings of the study will assist scholars and decision-makers in gaining a better understanding regarding television advertising directed at children. The results of the

study should contribute to the establishment, and ongoing monitoring and assessment of child-specific regulations related to television advertising.

6.6 SUMMARY

This final chapter reflected on the results presented and gave recommendations for the whole study.

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APPENDIX A: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

AN INVESTIGATION OF TELEVISION ADVERTISING RISKS AFFECTING SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN AND WHETHER CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF TELEVISION HAVE CHANGED OVER TIME

This questionnaire is designed to collect information regarding television advertising risks affecting children. This research is grounded in international studies and is believed to be in the best interest of children. The information collected through the questionnaire will be used for academic purposes only.

Please complete this questionnaire with confidence and honesty.

General instructions:

- This questionnaire must be completed by a child aged 8 - 13 years.
- Please answer all the questions as honestly as possible.
- You have a right to ask for help if you do not understand the question. The researcher will help you to understand the questions.
- All the multiple choice questions can be answered by making a cross (**X**) in the block that you agree with the most.

Thank you for your cooperation and participation in completing this questionnaire.

M.I.M. Saeed | Cell: +27(0)739758406 | Email: mahdi.ibrahim149@gmail.com

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC SECTION

Please complete the information. Use a cross (X) where appropriate.

A1 Name of your school

--

A2 Grade in which you are currently

2	3	4	5	6	7
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A3 Gender

Male	1	Female	2
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A4 Population group

Black 1	White 2	Asian/Indian 3	Coloured 4
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A5 Your age

8 – 9 years old 1	10 – 11 years old 2	12 – 13 years old 3
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A6 How many TV sets are there in your home?

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A7 Do you have a TV in your bedroom?

Yes	1	No	2
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A8 How often do you watch TV?

Always 1	Usually 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Never 5
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A9 Do you like watching TV?

Always 1	Usually 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Never 5
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A10 How many hours do you spend watching TV every day?

≤ 1hr 1	1 – 2 hrs 2	3 – 4 hrs 3	5 – 6 hrs 4	6 – 7 hrs 5	≥ 7 hrs 6
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A11 What do you like about TV advertisements?

Music/Songs 1	Characters 2	Funny adverts 3	Pictures 4	Language 5	Other (specify): 6
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A12 What TV programmes do you like to watch?

Cartoons 1	Musicals (song- based programmes) 2	Series 3	Movies 4	Reality shows 5	Other (specify): 6
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NOTE

All the multiple choice questions can be answered by making a cross (X) in the block that you agree with the most. See example below.

	Strongly	Disagree	Neutral	Strongly agree	Agree
Advertisements inform us about products and services.	1	2	3	4 X	5

SECTION B

WHAT ARE THE VIEWS OF SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN REGARDING TELEVISION ADVERTISING?

Please make a cross (X) in the block that describes your feelings the best.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
B13	Do you like watching TV advertising?	1	2	3	4	5
B14	Do you like watching TV advertising for entertainment?	1	2	3	4	5
B15	Do you like TV advertisements for food?	1	2	3	4	5

B16	Do you like TV advertisements for soft drinks?	1	2	3	4	5
B17	Do you like TV advertisements for alcohol?	1	2	3	4	5
B18	Do you like TV advertisements that promote smoking (cigarettes)?	1	2	3	4	5
B19	Do you like TV advertisements for toys?	1	2	3	4	5
B20	Do you like TV advertisements that promote a specific sport?	1	2	3	4	5
B21	TV advertising encourages children to do dangerous/violent things.	1	2	3	4	5
B22	TV advertising encourages unhealthy eating or drinking habits.	1	2	3	4	5
B23	TV advertising sometimes shows scary or stressful things.	1	2	3	4	5
B24	TV advertising encourages children to spend their time watching TV.	1	2	3	4	5
B25	TV advertising affects children's school work.	1	2	3	4	5

B26	TV advertising sometimes makes children live in a make-believe world.	1	2	3	4	5
B27	TV advertising makes children interested in buying the product advertised.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C

ARE SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN ADEQUATELY PROTECTED AGAINST THE INFLUENCE FROM TELEVISION ADVERTISING?

Please make a cross (X) in the block that describes your feelings the best.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
C28	Parents teach children about TV advertising.	1	2	3	4	5
C29	Parents explain the reasons for TV advertising clearly to their children.	1	2	3	4	5
C30	Parents choose which TV programmes their children watch.	1	2	3	4	5
C31	Parents restrict children's TV watching.	1	2	3	4	5
C32	Parents decide on children's TV watching hours.	1	2	3	4	5

C33	Parents observe children's TV watching.	1	2	3	4	5
C34	Sometimes parents do not allow children to watch TV on school days.	1	2	3	4	5
C35	Family members raise awareness about children's TV watching.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D

WHAT ARE THE BEHAVIOURAL EFFECTS OF TELEVISION ADVERTISEMENTS ON SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN?

Please make a cross (X) in the block that describes your feelings the best.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
D36	I have faith in TV advertising.	1	2	3	4	5
D37	I feel very comfortable with TV advertising.	1	2	3	4	5
D38	I find TV advertising to be attractive.	1	2	3	4	5
D39	TV advertising is valuable to me.	1	2	3	4	5

D40	I can find what I need through TV advertising.	1	2	3	4	5
D41	I trust shopping through TV advertising.	1	2	3	4	5
D42	I am in favour of TV advertising.	1	2	3	4	5
D43	I am satisfied with TV advertising.	1	2	3	4	5
D44	Television advertisements contain statements that are not true.	1	2	3	4	5
D45	Television advertisements are full of exaggerated statements.	1	2	3	4	5
D46	It is easy to understand and recognise TV advertisements.	1	2	3	4	5
D47	Children know the difference between TV programmes and advertisements.	1	2	3	4	5
D48	Children remember some of the TV advertisements that they see.	1	2	3	4	5
D49	TV advertisements are useful.	1	2	3	4	5

D50	TV advertisements cause arguments between parents and children over the buying of products that are advertised.	1	2	3	4	5
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APPENDIX B: PARENTAL CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY



University of Limpopo

Faculty of Humanities

School of Languages and Communication Studies

Department of Media, Communication and Information Studies

University Road, Mankweng, Polokwane

Dear Parent or Guardian

RE: AN INVESTIGATION OF TELEVISION ADVERTISING RISKS AFFECTING SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN

My name is Mahadi Ibrahim Mahadi Saeed and I am a student registered for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Media, Communication and Information Studies, in the Faculty of Humanities (School of Languages and Communication Studies) at the University of Limpopo. I am required to conduct a research study as part of my Doctor of Philosophy studies. My study is titled: **An Investigation of Television Advertising Risks Affecting South African Children in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn.**

I therefore would like to invite your child to participate in my study. Your child's participation is entirely voluntary. If your child is willing to take part in the study, he/she will be requested to fill in a questionnaire on the topic mentioned above. The questionnaire will take only 30 minutes of his/her time. Please be assured that the information given will be kept confidential and your child's personal information will not be included in the final research report. The information collected will only be used for the purpose of the study.

Kindly note that there will be no remuneration for participating in this study. Please feel free to ask any questions regarding the study; I shall answer them to the best of my ability. I can be contacted on my cellular phone: +27(0)739758406; or by email: mahdi.ibrahim149@gmail.com. The research supervisor (Prof. S.O. Mmusi) may be contacted on: +27(0)152683083 or at: onkaetse.mmusi@ul.ac.za. Should you wish to receive a summary of the results, an abstract will be made available on request.

Declaration by parent or guardian of a participant under 18 years of age

I understand that there are no anticipated risks in this study and that my child participates voluntarily and that he/she may withdraw from the study at any point. I grant permission for my child to take part in this study.

Signature of parent or guardian

Date

Signature of researcher

Date

Thank you in advance for considering your child's participation in the study.

Sincerely

M.I.M. Saeed | Cell: +27(0)739758406 | Email: mahdi.ibrahim149@gmail.com

APPENDIX C: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY



University of Limpopo

Faculty of Humanities

School of Languages and Communication Studies

Department of Media, Communication and Information Studies

University Road, Mankweng, Polokwane

Dear Participant

RE: AN INVESTIGATION OF TELEVISION ADVERTISING RISKS AFFECTING SOUTH AFRICAN CHILDREN

My name is Mahadi Ibrahim Mahadi Saeed and I am a student registered for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Media, Communication and Information Studies, in the Faculty of Humanities (School of Languages and Communication Studies) at the University of Limpopo. I am required to conduct a research study as part of my Doctor of Philosophy studies. My study is titled: **An Investigation of Television Advertising Risks Affecting South African Children in the Pietersburg Circuit of Capricorn, Polokwane.**

We are asking you to take part in a research study because we are trying to learn more about how you are affected by advertisements that you see on television.

If you agree to be part of this study, you will need to fill in a questionnaire on the topic mentioned above. The questionnaire will take only 30 minutes of your time and you can complete it at your school during the school day.

If you do not want to be part of this study, you do not have to participate. Remember, being part of this study is up to you, and no-one will be upset if you choose not to

participate, or even if you change your mind later and want to stop. Please talk this over with your parents before you decide whether or not to participate. We will also ask your parents to give their permission for you to take part in this study, but even if your parents say yes, you can still decide not to do this.

All of your answers will be kept locked away so no-one else can see them. We will do everything we can to protect your privacy.

You can ask any questions that you have about the study. If you have a question later that you did not think of now, you can call or email me (cellular phone: +27(0)739758406, or email: mahdi.ibrahim149@gmail.com).

Consent

Signing my name at the bottom means that I agree to be part of this study. My parents and I will be given a copy of this form after I have signed it.

Signature of participant

Date

Signature of witness

Date

Thank you.

Sincerely

M.I.M. Saeed | Cell: +27(0)739758406 | Email: mahdi.ibrahim149@gmail.com

APPENDIX D: TRANSLATED PARENTAL CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

SEMAMAREŠWA SA B : LENANEOPOTŠIŠO LA DIPHATIŠIŠO

Nomoro ya moithuti: 201429862

Mog: +27(0)739758406

Email: mahdi.ibrahim149@gmail.com

MEMO YA GO BA KAROLO YA DIPHATIŠIŠO

Motswadi/mohlokomedi yo a rategago,

KA: DIPHATIŠIŠO KA GA DIKOTSI TŠA DIKWALAKWATŠO TŠA THELEBIŠENE LE KA FAO DI AMAGO BANA BA AFRIKA BORWA

Leina laka ke Mahadi Ibrahim Mahadi Saeed. Ke moithuti wa dithuto tša tikrii ya Bongaka (Doctor of Philosophy) ka Sekgaong sa Bobegaditaba, Dikgokagano le Tshedimošo (Media, Communication and Information Studies) ka Lefapheng la tša Botho (Humanities), Lekala la tša Maleme le Dikgokagano (School of Languages and Communication Studies), Yunibesithing ya Limpopo. Ke swanetše go dira diphatišišo bjalo ka karolo ya dithuto tšaka tša Bongaka. Hlogotaba yaka ke: **diphatišišo ka ga dikotsi tša dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene le ka fao di amago bana ba Afrika Borwa: Seketeng ya Pietersburg, Capricorn.**

Ka fao, ke rata go mema ngwana wa gago gore a tšee karolo mo diphatišišong tše. Go kgatha tema ga gagwe ke bja go ithaopa. Ge eba ngwana o rata go tšea karolo, o (ngwana) tla kgopelwa go tlatša lenaneopotšišo la mabapi le hlogotaba yeo e boletšwego ka godimo. Lenaneopotšišo le, le ka tšea feela metsotso ye 30 go le tlatša. Le netefaletšwa gore tshedimošo yeo e fiwago e tla ba khupamarama mme tshedimošo ya mabapi le ngwana wa lena e ka se akaretšwe pegong ya mafelelo. Tshedimošo yeo e kgoboketšwago e tla šomišetšwa diphatišišo feela.

Ke kgopela gore o lemoge gore go ka se be le hlatswadiatla mo botšeakarolong bjo. Lokologang go botšiša potšišo efe goba efe mabapi le diphatišišo tše; gomme ke tla leka go di abara ka mo nka kgonago. Ke hwetšagala mo mogaleng wo +27(0)739758406 goba imeiling ye: mahdi.ibrahim149@gmail.com. Mohlahli wa

diphatišišo (Prof S.O. Mmusi) a kahumanwa go +27(0)152683083 goba onkaetse.mmusi@ul.ac.za. Ge o ka rata go humana kakaretšo ya dipoelo, senaganwa seo se tla humanwa ge se kgopetšwe.

Boikano ka motswadi goba mohlakomedi wa motšeakarolo wa mengwaga ya ka fase ga 18.

Ke kwešiša gore ga go dikotsi tšeo di lebeletšweng mo diphatišišong tše le gore ngwana waka o tšea karolo ka boithaopo le gore a ka ikogela morago ka nako efe goba efe. Ke fa ngwana waka tumelelo ya go tšea karolo diphatišišong tše.

Mosaeno wa motswadi goba mohlakomedi

Letšatšikgwedi

Mosaeno wa mofatišisi

Letšatšikgwedi

Ke go lebogela pele ge o dumeletše ngwana wa gago go tšea karolo mo diphatišišong tše.

Wa lena

M.I.M. Saeed | Cell: +27(0)739758406 | Email: mahdi.ibrahim149@gmail.com

APPENDIX E: TRANSLATED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

SEMAMARETŠWA SA C: LENANEOPOTŠIŠO LA DIPHATIŠIŠO

TUMELELANO YA GO BA KAROLO YA DIPHATIŠIŠO

Mokgathatema yo a rategago,

KA: DIPHATIŠIŠO KA GA DIKOTSI TŠA DIKWALAKWATŠO TŠA THELEBIŠENE LE KA FAO DI AMAGO BANA BA AFRIKA BORWA

Leina laka ke Mahadi Ibrahim Mahadi Saeed. Ke moithuti wa dithuto tša tikrii ya Bongaka (Doctor of Philosophy) ka Sekgaong sa Bobegaditaba, Dikgokagano le Tshedimošo (Media, Communication and Information Studies) ka Lefapheng la tša Botho (Humanities), Lekala la tša Maleme le Dikgokagano (School of Languages and Communication Studies), Yunibesithing ya Limpopo. Ke swanetše go dira diphatišišo bjalo ka karolo ya dithuto tšaka tša Bongaka. Hlogotaba yaka ke: **Dinyakišišo ka ga dikotsi tša dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene le ka fao di amago bana ba Afrika Borwa: Seketeng ya Pietersburg, Capricorn.**

Re go kgopela go tšea karolo mo diphatišišong ka ge re leka go ithuta kutšwana ka tsela yeo dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišeneng di go amago ka gona.

Ge o dumela go kgatha tema mo diphatišišong tše, o tla swanelwa ke go tlatša lenaneopotšišo la mabapi le hlogotaba yeo e filwego ka godimo. Lenaneopotšišo le le ka tšea feela metsotso yeo e ka bago ye 30 go le araba ebile o ka dira se sekolong, ka nako ya gago ya sekolo.

Ge o se na kgahlego ya go ba karolo ya diphatišišo tše, ga o gapeletšege go tšea karolo. Gopola, go kgatha tema mo diphatišišong tše go letše magetleng a gago, ebile ga go na motho yoo a ka nyamišwago ke ge o ka kgetha go se tšee karolo, le ge o ka fetola monagano wa nyaka go lesa. Ke kgopela gore o bolele le batswadi ba gago ka se pele o tšea sphetho sa gore o kgatha tema goba aowa. Re tla kgopela gape le batswadi ba gago go neelana ka tumelelo ya gore o tšee karolo mo diphatišišong tše, le ge go le bjalo, ge batswadi ba ka dumela, wena o san a le tokelo ya go ganana le se.

Dikarabo tša gago kamoka di tla notlelelwa lefelong leo le bolokegilego, gore go se be le motho yoo a ka go di bona.Re tla dira ka ka maatla go go šireletša.

O ka botšiša potšišo efe goba efe yeo o na go le yona ka diphatišišo. Ge o k aba le le potšišo ka moragonyana, yeo o bego o se wa nagana ka yona ga bjalo, o ka nteletša mogala goba wa nthomela imeili (Nomoro ya mogala: + 27(0)739758406, goba imeili: mahdi.ibrahim149@gmail.com).

Tumelelano

Go saena leina laka mafelelong go ra gore ke dumela go ba karolo ya diphatišišo tše. Nna le batswadi baka re tla fiwa khophi ya foromo ye ka morago ga g eke e saenne.

Mosaeno wa mokgathatema

Letšatšikgwedi

Mosaeno wa hlatse

Letšatšikgwedi

Ke a leboga

Wa lena

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APPENDIX F: TRANSLATED QUESTIONNAIRE

SEMAMAREŠWA SA A: LENANEOPOTŠIŠO LA DIPHATIŠIŠO

DIPHATIŠIŠO KA GA DIKOTSI TŠA DIKWALAKWATŠO TŠA THELEBIŠENE LE KA FAO DI AMAGO BANA BA AFRIKA BORWA, LE GORE NAA MAIKUTLO A BANA A FETOGILE GO YA LE MABAKA NAA

Lenaneopotšišo le le hlametšwe go kgoboketša tshedimošo ka bana ba Afrika Borwa mabapi le dikotsi tša kwalakwatšo ya thelebišene le ka fao di amago bana ka gona. diphatišišo tše di ithekgile ka diphatišišo tša boditšhabatšhaba mme di tšewa go ba di le kgahlegelong ya bana. Tshedimošo yeo e kgoboketšwago ka lenaneopotšišo le e tla dirišetšwa fela taba tša thuto.

O kgopelwa go tlatša lenaneopotšišo le ka boitshepo le tshepagalo.

Ditaelo tša kakaretšo

- Lenaneopotšišo le le tlatšwe ke ngwana wa mengwaga ye 8 -13.
- Hle araba dipotšišo kamoka ka go tshepagalo ka moo go kgonegago.
- O na le tokelo ya go botšiša moo o sa kwešišego potšišo. Mofatišiši o tla go thuša go kwešiša dipotšišo
- Dipotšišo kamoka di ka arabja ka go swaya (X) polokong ya maleba. Bona mohlala ka fase.

Ke leboga tšhomišano ya gago le go tšea karolo mo go tlatšeng lenaneopotšišo le.

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KAROLO YA A**KAROLO YA DEMOKRAFI**

Ka kgopelo, tlatša tshedimošo. Šomiša leswao la (X) mo go swanetšego.

A1 Leina la sekolo saka

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A2 Mphato woo o le go go ona ga bjale

2	3	4	5	6	7
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A3 Bong

Monna	1	Mosadi	2
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A4 Mohlobo

Mothomoso 1	Mothomošweu 2	MoAšia/MoIndia 3	WaMmala 4
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A5 Mengwaga ya gago

Mengwaga ye 8 – 9 1	Mengwaga ye 10 – 11 2	Mengwaga ye 12 – 13 3
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A6 Go na le dithelebišene (TV) tše kae ka geno?

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A7 O na le thelebišene (TV) ka kamoreng ya gago ya go borobalelo?

Ee	1	Aowa	2
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A8 Naa gantši o bogela thelebišene (TV) nako ye kaakang?

Nako kamoka 1	Ke fela ke e lebelela 2	Nako ye nngwe 3	Gantši 4	Le ga tee 5
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A9 Naa o rata go bogela thelebišene (TV)?

Nako kamoka 1	Gantši 2	Nako ye nngwe 3	Gantši 4	Le ga tee 5
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A10 Na o tšea diiri tše kae ka letšatši o bogetše thelebišene (TV)?

≤ 1 iri 1	1 – 2 diiri 2	3 – 4 diiri 3	5 – 6 diiri 4	6 – 7 diiri 5	≥ 7 diiri 6
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A11 Naa ke eng seo o se ratago ka dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV)?

Mmino/dikoša 1	Badiragatši 2	Dikwalakwatšo tša Metlae 3	Diswantšho 4	Polelo/Leleme 5	Tše dingwe (hlalosa): 6
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A12 Naa o rata go bogela mananeo afe a thelebišene (TV)?

Dikhathuni 1	Mmino (mananeo ao a theilweng dikošeng) 2	Ditshwantšhetšodikgao tša thelebišene 3	Difilimi 4	Dipontšho tša nnete 5	Tše dingwe (hlalosa): 6
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HLOKOMELA

Dipotšišo kamoka di ka arabja ka go diriša leswao la (X) polokong yeo o dumelelanago le seo se leng go yona kudu. Bona mohlala kamo fase.

		Ganeša kudu	Ganeša	Magareng	Dumela kudu	Dumela
	Dikwalakwatšo di re tsebiša/lemoša ka ditšweletšwa le ditirelo	1	2	3	4 X	5

KAROLO YA B

NAA DIKGOPOLO TŠA BANA BA AFRIKA BORWA KA DIKWALAKWATŠO TŠA THELEBIŠENE KE DIFE?

O kgopelwa go šomiša leswao la (X) polokong yeo e nago le seo o se dumelago/ganago.

		Gana kudu	Gana	Magareng	Dumela	Dumela
B13	Naa o rata go bogela dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV)?	1	2	3	4	5
B14	Naa o rata go bogela dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) tša boithabišo?	1	2	3	4	5
B15	Naa o rata dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) tša mabapi le dijo?	1	2	3	4	5

B16	Naa o rata dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) tša mabapi le dinwamaphodi?	1	2	3	4	5
B17	Naa o rata dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) tša mabapi le bjala?	1	2	3	4	5
B18	Naa o rata dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) tša mabapi le go kgoga (motsoko)?	1	2	3	4	5
B19	Naa o rata dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) tša mabapi le dibapadišane?	1	2	3	4	5
B20	Naa o rata dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) tša mabapi le dipapadi tše itseng?	1	2	3	4	5
B21	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) tša go hlohletša bana go dira ditiro tše kotsi/bosenyi?	1	2	3	4	5
B22	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) di hlohletša mekgwa ye mebe ya go ja goba go nwa mo baneng.	1	2	3	4	5
B23	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) di laetša diswantšho le ditiragalo tša go tšhoša kudu goba tša go tlala kgatelelo ya monagano.	1	2	3	4	5
B24	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene di hlohletša bana go tšea nako ye ntši ba bogetše thelebišene (TV).	1	2	3	4	5

B25	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) di ama mošomo wa bana wa sekolo gampe.	1	2	3	4	5
B26	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) di hlohleletša bana go phela lefaseng la maitirelo.	1	2	3	4	5
B27	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene di dira gore bana ba be le tumo ya go reka dilo tšeo di kwalakwatšwago.	1	2	3	4	5

KAROLO YA C

NAA BANA BA AFRIKA BORWA BA BOLOKEGILE KA MOO GO LEKANEGO KGAHLANONG LE DIKWALAKWATŠO TŠA THELEBIŠENE?

O kgopelwa go dira leswao la (X) polokong yeo e hlalosago maikutlo a gago kudu.

		Gana kudu	Gana	Magareng	Dumela	Dumela kudu
C28	Batswadi ba ruta bana ka dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV).	1	2	3	4	5
C29	Batswadi ba hlalosešša bana gabotse ka maikemišetšo a dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV).	1	2	3	4	5
C30	Batswadi ba kgetha mananeo ao bana ba ka a bogelago thelebišeneng (TV).	1	2	3	4	5

C31	Batswadi ba beela bana mellwane ge go etla tabeng ya go bogela thelebišene (TV).	1	2	3	4	5
C32	Batswadi ba beela bana diiri tša go bogela thelebišene (TV).	1	2	3	4	5
C33	Batswadi ba šetša bana ge ba bogela/bogetše thelebišene (TV).	1	2	3	4	5
C34	Ka nako ye nngwe batswadi ga ba dumelele bana go bogela thelebišene (TV) ka matšatši a sekolo	1	2	3	4	5
C35	Maloko a lapa a dira ditemošo ka go bogela thelebišene (TV) ga bana.	1	2	3	4	5

KAROLO YA D

NAA DITLAMORAGO TŠA DIKWALAKWATŠO TŠA THELEBIŠENE MAITSHWARONG LE MAIKUTLONG A BANA BA AFRIKA BORWA KE DIFE?

O kgopelwa go dira leswao la (X) polokong yeo e hlalosago maikutlo a gago gabotse.

		Gana kudu	Gana	Magareng	Dumela	Dumela kudu
D36	Ke na le tshepo go dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV).	1	2	3	4	5
D37	Ke ikhwetša ke kgothatša kudu ke dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene(TV).	1	2	3	4	5

D38	Ke lemogile gore dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) di a goketša	1	2	3	4	5
D39	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) di ntšwela mohola.	1	2	3	4	5
D40	Nka hwetša seo ke se nyakago ka go šomiša dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV).	1	2	3	4	5
D41	Ke dumela go go reka go ya ka dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV).	1	2	3	4	5
D42	Ke rata dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene(TV).	1	2	3	4	5
D43	Ke kgotsofalela dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene(TV).	1	2	3	4	5
D44	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) di na le dipolelo tša go hloka nnete.	1	2	3	4	5
D45	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene(TV) di tletše dipolelo tša go feteletša.	1	2	3	4	5
D46	Go bonolo go kwešiša le go lemoga dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene(TV).	1	2	3	4	5
D47	Bana ba kgona go farologanya magageng ga mananeo a thelebišene (TV) le dikwalakwatšo.	1	2	3	4	5

D48	Bana ba kgona go gopola tše dingwe tša dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) tše ba di bonago.	1	2	3	4	5
D49	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) di na le mohola.	1	2	3	4	5
D50	Dikwalakwatšo tša thelebišene (TV) di baka dingangišano magareng ga batswadi le bana mabapi le go reka ditšweletšwa tše di kwalakwatšwago	1	2	3	4	5

Ke leboga tšhomišano le go kgatha tema ga lena mo go tlatšeng lenaneopotšišo le.

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