

**INFLUENCE OF CHILDREN ON FAMILY PURCHASE  
DECISIONS OF HOUSEHOLDS IN KENYA**

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AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY**

**2015**

**Influence of Children on Family Purchase Decisions of Households in Kenya**

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**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment for the Degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy in Business Administration (Marketing) in the Jomo Kenyatta  
University of Agriculture and Technology**

**2015**

## DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

Signature..... Date.....

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This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as university supervisors.

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## **DEDICATION**

In the memory of my late parents, Mzee John Ntuara and Mama Ruth Mwengwa.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to thank the Almighty God who has given me strength, good health and a sound mind throughout my study period. I owe special thanks to my family for their moral support, financial support, understanding, encouragement and patience as I undertook the entire program; I wouldn't have made it this far without them. I particularly thank my daughter Brenda for assisting in typing, my son John for his continued love and my dear wife Cate for her endless support.

Special thanks go to Prof. Henry Bwisa and Dr George Orwa for being my supervisors. Without their constructive criticism, recommendations, guidance and encouragement, this thesis would not have been the same. I am grateful to Dr Esther Waiganjo and the entire staff of School of Entrepreneurship, Procurement and Management at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology for their support and assistance; I salute you all.

I am also grateful to my colleagues, Mr. Samuel Kariuki and Mrs Dorothy Kirimi for their comments and suggestions. I would also like to acknowledge the many people whose assistance directly or indirectly facilitated to the completion of this thesis. God bless you all.

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## **ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>FPD</b>	-	Family Purchase Decisions
<b>CD</b>	-	Compact Disk
<b>FLC</b>	-	Family Life Cycle
<b>AIO</b>	-	Activities, Interest and Opinions
<b>ROK</b>	-	Republic of Kenya
<b>CBD</b>	-	Central Business District
<b>ABC</b>	-	Affective, Behavioral and Cognition
<b>ELM</b>	-	Elaboration Likelihood Model
<b>SPSS</b>	-	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
<b>MRA</b>	-	Moderated Regression Analysis
<b>H<sub>0</sub></b>	-	Null Hypothesis
<b>H<sub>a</sub></b>	-	Alternative Hypothesis
<b>MMR</b>	-	Moderated Multiple Regression



## **DEFINITIONS OF OPERATIONAL TERMINOLOGIES**

### **Children:**

This study will regard 8-12 year old as children. This is because, children of 8-12 years have more personal power, more money, influence and attention than any other generation before them” (Lindstrom, 2003).

### **Children influence:**

Children are becoming so influential inside the household that some authors are calling this kind of influence as “pester power” or the “nag factor” (Spungin, 2004). This heightened influence results from sociological changes that are taking place (McNeal, 2003).

### **Family:**

The family is generally recognized as an element of a broader kinship network that links ancestors and descendants of a person. A family is a group of two or more persons related by blood, marriage, or adoption who reside together. (Kotler, 2008).

### **Family Purchase decisions:**

It is a process where a family must decide where to make the purchase, what brand, model, or size to purchase, when to make the purchase, how much to spend, and what method of payment to be used (Kibera & Waruingi, 1998).

**Product types:**

A product is anything that is made available for sale; for example, a pair of shoes, a concert ticket, or a car (Norgaard, 2007).

**Culture:**

The set of basic values, perceptions, wants and behaviors learned by a member of society from family and other important institutions (Perner, 2010).

**Household:**

Describe all people, both related and unrelated, who occupy a housing unit (Kotler, 2008).

## **ABSTRACT**

Successful marketing requires that companies fully connect with their customers. Adopting a holistic marketing orientation means understanding customers by having a 360 degree view of their daily lives. The study sought to determine influence of children on family purchase decisions in Kenya. Specifically it sought to establish how parent-child relationship, children's peer group, advertising and product types contribute to children influence on family purchase decisions, and to determine whether culture moderates children influences on family purchase decisions in Kenya.

The study adopted a descriptive survey and the target population was parents/guardians of 8-12 year old children in Kenya. The study used a mixed sampling design and adopted Roscoe's rule of thumb for determining sample sizes. Primary data was collected from two hundred (200) respondents selected at random from four (4) city county districts of Nairobi. As a way of pre-selection, only one (1) parent/guardian of children aged 8 – 12 years, from each household was surveyed. A pilot test was carried out on 10 households to obtain some assessment of the question's validity and the likely reliability. This was tested using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha with a threshold of 0.7. Primary data was collected using a semi-structured questionnaire. The questionnaires were self and researcher administered and responses analyzed using SPSS. To test the hypotheses of the study, t and F tests were used. Correlation and regression analysis were carried out to determine the relationships between the variables used.

The findings from multiple regression analysis indicated that family purchase decisions were positively influenced by parent-child relationship, peer group, advertising and product types. The results of the study also revealed that culture moderated the relationship between family purchase decisions and children influences. Correlation analysis results indicated that parent-child relationship, peer group, advertising and product types had a moderate and positive association with family purchase decisions. This indicated that children influence family purchase decisions only partly.

The study recommended children to be considered as equal partners in family purchase decision making just as parents. The study provided insight for marketers about which product advertising is effective on children. Marketers need to focus on solutions in impacting parents, because they decide most in the general decision stage. According to the study, cultural differences were considered as being critical in shaping the identity of teens in Kenya and also being responsible for their attitudes and behaviors as consumers. The study recommended that marketers should consider cultural diversity in the Kenyan society when appealing to children consumers.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background of the study**

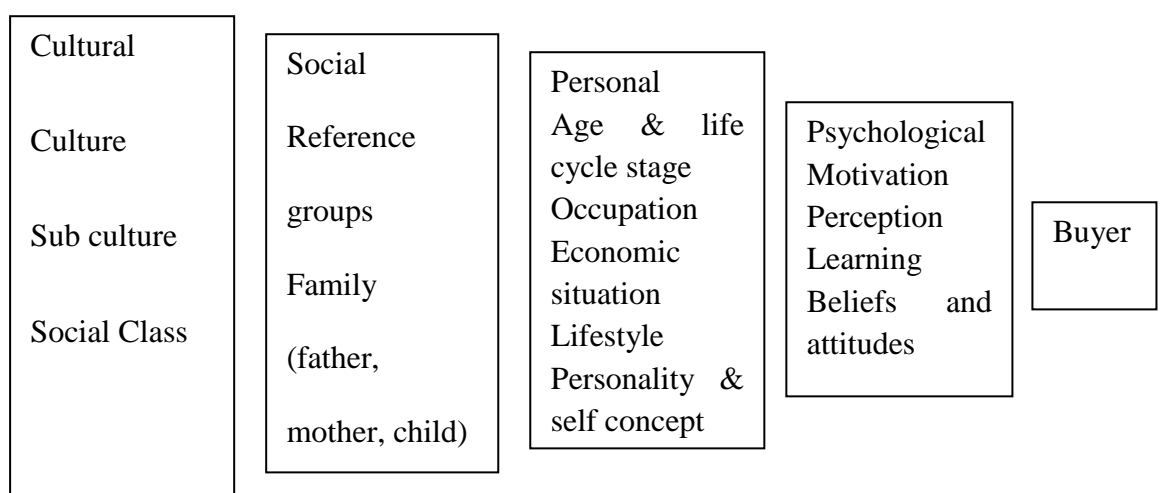
Consumer buying behavior refers to the buying behavior of final consumers i.e. individuals and households who buy goods and services for personal consumption. All of these final consumers combined make up the consumer market. Consumers around the world vary tremendously in age, income, education level, and tastes. They also buy an incredible variety of goods and services. How these diverse consumers connect with each other and with other elements of the world around them impact their choices among various products, services, and companies (Kotler, 2008).

Consumer purchases are influenced strongly by cultural, social, personal and psychological characteristics. For the most part, marketers cannot control such factors, but they must take them into account. Family members can strongly influence buyer behavior. The family is the most important consumer buying organization in society. Marketers are interested in the roles and influence of the husband, wife, and children on the purchase of different products and services (Norgaard, 2007).

Chaudhary and Gupta (2012) defines the concept of influence in family decision-making as “a change in a person's dispositions, as a result of interaction between parents and children”. In her definition of influence, Gronhoj (2003) talks about a competence enabling the achievement of specific results. What is interesting in these definitions is that influence means making a person change his or her decisions via, for example, interaction or direct

confrontation. Interaction is part of the active or direct influence, where for instance the child interacts with his/her parents by using various influence techniques to achieve what he or she wants. Influence can also be more passive or indirect, where parents are aware of the child's preferences and try to comply without direct interaction with the child (Grønhøj, 2003). In general many studies on consumer behavior focus on the individual consumer's decision making, and only sometimes include the influence from other relevant persons through factors such as the “subjective norm” (the theory of reasoned action). As a result, such factors only take indirect influence into account, for example when parents know what their children want and they are willing to comply with these wants. Another aspect is that the individual buying agent is not always able to predict precisely what other family members want him or her to buy (Norgaard, 2007). A successful choice may also require direct interaction, for example where parents can ask their children what they want.

The figure below shows characteristics of the factors influencing consumer behavior.



**Figure 1.1: Factors influencing consumer behavior**

**Source: Schiffman, (2007)**

This study picked children as a study group because children are a very important target market for marketers worldwide. Children have come to constitute a very important consumer group (Norgaard, 2007) that influences family purchases of various products in many ways (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003). During the 1940-1950s, kids were not considered consumers in their own right but only an extension of their parents' purchasing power. But with the dawn of advertising especially the TV and internet, children have become full-fledged consumers. Research shows that children have influencing power for almost all product categories. Whether the product is for a child's own use or the product is for family use, a child has very strong influencing power (Chaudhary & Gupta, 2012).

Children not only want things, but have acquired the socially sanctioned right to want; a right which parents are loath to violate. Layered onto direct child enticement and the supposed autonomy of the child-consumer are the day-to-day circumstances of overworked parents: a daily barrage of requests, tricky financial status, and that nagging, unspoken desire to build the lifestyle they have learned to want during their childhoods (Cook, 2001). Thus, recognizing children as a primary market, an influencing market, and a future market (Norgaard, 2007), children today are seen as different from past generations; especially the 8-12 year-olds (called "tweens", as they are neither children nor teens but something between). "They've grown up faster, are more connected, more direct and more informed.

The reasons of choosing the 8-12 year-old age band is that children at this age are expected to be mature enough and have been found to be active and

independent shoppers (McNeal & Chan 2003), highly cognitive in consumption choices and knowledgeable about products and brands. On the other hand, children of less than seven years of age have limited cognitive abilities (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003). However, children of 8-12 years have more personal power, more money, influence and attention than any other generation before them” (Lindstrom, 2003). Family structures are changing and this influences family decision-making (Wut & Chou 2009).

Tufte as quoted by Opoku (2010) found out that communication has become more open and democratic, one consequence being that, today parents pay more attention to their children and their opinions. These changes in family communication have made it possible for children to exert influence on family decision-making (Caruana and Vassallo, 2003; Chan and McNeal (2003), a phenomenon called reciprocal socialization, suggesting that children influence parents, just as parents influence children (Moore *et al.*, 2003).

Caruana and Vassallo (2003) identified that, ever since the early 1990s, marketers have targeted children since they not only are consumers but also influence family purchasing. Children influence family buying decisions in four different ways according to Wut and Chou (2009). First, children influence their parents to buy products for their own use according to their personal preferences. Second, older children generally get pocket money and buy the products of their choice directly. Third, children influence their parents' choice for products for joint consumption by the family. Lastly, children influence their parents' own preferences.



### **1.1.1 Categories of Consumers**

Customers play the most significant part in business. In fact the customer is the actual boss in a deal and is responsible for the actual profit for the organization (Kotler, 2008). A customer is the one who uses the products and services and judges the quality of those products and services. Hence it's important for an organization to retain customers or make new customers and flourish business. To manage customers, organizations should follow some sort of approaches like segmentation or division of customers into groups because each customer has to be considered valuable and profitable (Kotler, 2008).

Customers can either be; buyers only, users only or buyers and users. Sometimes the customer who chooses a product or service is not the end-user or the person who uses it. For example, one might create a computer game for children. But children are not the ones who actually buy the game. The child is the user, but the decision maker is probably the child's parents. The buyer may be the parents or the adult who picks the game up at the store.

Family decision making is different from individual decision making and is more complex because of the likelihood of joint decisions and different role specifications for members (Wut & Chou (2009). To understand how consumers actually make buying decisions, there is need to identify who makes and has input into the buying decision; people can be initiators, influencers, deciders, buyers, or users (Kotler, 2008). Children may combine the roles of initiators-those who request that something be bought, influencers-those who influence the buying decision, or users-those who use the product. These roles carried on to the family decision making process, places children as being

equal participants in the buying process just as parents. This study considers children as having direct influence in the family purchase decisions through being; initiators, influencers and users.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Purchasing decisions are results of many influences including buying habits, peers, and family structure (Kotler, 2008). During the 1940-1950s, kids were not considered consumers in their own right but only an extension of their parents' purchasing power (Wimalasiri, 2004). But with the dawn of extensive media advertising especially the TV and internet, children have become full-fledged consumers (Chaudhary & Gupta, 2012). More so, consumer socialization suggests that family, advertising, products or brands and peers are the most important sources of information influencing values, norms and behavior (Marquis, 2004). Understanding how and why a child influences purchasing decisions is important to marketing and business today (Marshall, 2010). If marketers want to be successful they also need to look at the children because they also have a whole world of power (Chaudhary & Gupta, 2012). To date, researches on family decision-making tend to concentrate on examining variations in spousal influence while ignoring the role of children (Norgaard, 2007). Studies conducted on family purchasing in different parts of the world, have used domains within brand or product choices and have failed to consider domains of socialization agents which stir purchase decisions. Norgaard (2007) in a study conducted in Denmark used food, Chaudhary and Gupta (2012) in a study conducted in India clustered and categorized products, Marquis (2004) in a study conducted in Canada used food, Isin and Alkibay

(2011) in a study conducted in Turkey used products. As a consequence, this study has considered the least investigated socialization agents of family through parent-child relationship, peer group, advertising, and product types while being moderated by culture. In Kenya, the wife traditionally has been the main purchasing agent for the family, especially in the areas of food, household products, and clothing. But with most urban women holding jobs outside the home and the willingness of husbands to do more of the family's purchasing; all this is inevitably going to change (Kibera & Waruingi, 1998). Children's influence on family purchases continues to grow, both within the West and elsewhere. Yet, with a few exceptions, most empirical studies were conducted in the West and less is known about children's influence elsewhere (Showham & Dalakas, 2006) as available literature has failed to identify any comparable studies in Kenya. It is in this view that this study focuses on finding out children's influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

#### **1.3.1 General Objective**

To investigate children's influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

#### **1.3.2 Specific Objective**

1. To establish how parent-child relationship determine children influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.
2. To determine how children peer group contribute to their influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

3. To establish how advertising determine children influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.
4. To examine how product types contribute to children influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.
5. To determine if culture moderates children influences on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

1. How does a parent-child relationship determine children influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya?
2. To what extent do children peer group determine their influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya?
3. How does advertising determine children influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya?
4. To what extent do product types contribute to children influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya?
5. Does culture moderate the relationship between children influences on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya?

#### **1.5 Hypotheses**

$H0_1$ : Parent-child relationships have no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

*H02:* Children peer group have no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

*H03:* Advertising to children has no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

*H04:* Product types no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

*H05:* Culture has no significant moderating influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

This study provides an insight on how the role of children in joint family purchase decisions can be used to create articulate market targeting in Kenya. The study makes an empirical contribution and brings an understanding on the extent to which marketers embrace children. The study laid emphasis on equal consumer role participation and considered children as equal participants in the family decision making process. The study awakens practitioners to the fact that children's buying power is increasing.

The study will benefit marketers in formulating policies that improve service delivery. By addressing the identified factors and following the researcher's recommendations, marketers will benefit from the acquired knowledge when directing their marketing effort at families. Knowledge about children's influence on the idea generation and choice stage should be used to attract children's awareness of new products and to focus on specific products in order to impact children. Marketers should focus on solutions in impacting parents,

because they decide most in the general decision stage. Marketing of children products should be directed at children and parents (clothes for children) and other products (cars) at parents.

Combined with the knowledge about children's participation in supermarket stores in the purchase act stage, marketers should focus on shelves, refrigerators, freezers and store layout in general (e.g. events and child-related activities). Since children do not participate much in comparing products, marketers should try to develop packaging that attracts children's awareness and enabling them to use the information to influence parents to buy the product. However, marketing to children will always include ethical and moral aspects. Companies must consider these factors. The study benefits the government by highlighting key factors that form children influence on FPD. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child defines children as an “exposed group in society in need of special care and protection”.

Viewed as less experienced and more impressionable than adults, children need protection against harmful media content of all sorts. The government of Kenya therefore needs to fully understand children's influence on family purchase decisions, so that it can make the right policies to protect children who would otherwise be target audiences to different unethical communication appeals. Parents and children alike will have a benefit from improved service delivery that enhances their product or service choices. Parents need to be aware of the variety of strategies used and to become skilled in responding to a child's requests before the entire repertoire of strategies has been brought to bear.

### **1.7 Scope of the Study**

This study only investigated five factors affecting children's influence on family purchase decisions. These are; parent-child relationship, peer group, advertising, product types and culture. The study only concentrated on Nairobi County. Nairobi is a cosmopolitan town and the capital city of Kenya and capital of the administrative area of Nairobi County. It is on this basis that Nairobi can be said to be a true representation of Kenya (RoK, 2009). Only parents of 8-12 year old children were interviewed. This is because children at this age are expected to be mature enough and have been found to be active and independent shoppers (McNeal, 2003), highly cognitive in consumption choices and knowledgeable about products and brands.

### **1.8 Limitations of the study**

This study had one main challenge which was experienced:

**Ethical Issues:** The study subjects were children of 8-12 year old in Kenya. However, the study targeted parents/guardians. This is because of ethical considerations, processes and dilemmas (i.e. kidnappings and children trafficking which are on the rise in Kenya today), that are frequently areas of caution to children custodians in Kenya when doing research with children; which is more the case than when doing with adults, due to issues of minority status, informed consent, and anxiety about the cognitive competencies of children. Social researchers who work with children have their 'ethical view' of children formed by social theory. That is to say, their paradigmatic perspective tends to shape not only their research questions, methods and theoretical perspectives, but also their ethical view of children as individuals.

This study therefore used parents and considered children as being objects of research. Their consumer experiences were studied from the outside as parents took a paternalistic view.



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a context for understanding children's influence on family purchase decisions by reviewing the extant literature. The chapter deals with theoretical and analytical literature on family purchase decisions. It is organized under theoretical framework, conceptual framework, review of literature on variables, empirical review, critique of existing literature relevant to the study, research gaps and summary.

#### **2.2 Theoretical Framework**

##### **2.2.1 Cognitive learning theory**

This refers to situations where customers are quite involved in the purchase decision, and cognitions are likely to be a major input in the formation of attitude. The more information an individual has about a product or service, the more likely he or she is to have an attitude toward it i.e. either negative or positive (Schiffman, 2007). Norgaard (2007) utilized the learning theory to explain consumer socialization and postulated a basic component of children's learning about the marketplace as being knowledge of sources of information about products. Socialization agents are the influential sources that convey norms, attitudes, motivations, and behaviors to the learner (Perner, 2010).

Much evidence shows that parents, peers, advertising, stores, schools, brands, and products themselves and their packages are all sources of information, namely socialization agents (Walmasiri, 2004). Schiffman (2007), classified

sources of influence upon teen's shopping into person and situation factors, such as opinions and attitudes towards product, brand and store, market advice and purchase values and norms available from parents, peers, and the media. Identification of the sources from which consumers obtain information advice and influence is equally important in attitude development. The principal sources include the following according to (Kiriinya, 2009), direct and past experience: the primary means by which attitudes about a brand are formed is through the direct experience of trying and evaluating them. If a brand proves satisfactory, it is likely that consumers will form positive attitudes and possibly purchase it when they again have need for it.

Personal influence: Through contact with other people especially family, close friends and admired individuals, attitudes that influence people's lives are formed. The family is particularly an important source of influence on the formation of attitudes given that it provides us with many of our basic values and a wide range of less central benefits. Exposure of the mass media: this is an equally important source of formation that influences attitudes particularly in a country where people have easy access to newspapers and an almost infinite variety of general and special interest magazines and television channels like Kenya. Personality factors are the third stage of attitude development. For example, introverts are likely to express their introversion in a negative attitude towards flashy cars, dancing classes and public activities. Similarly, attitudes toward new products and new consumption situations are strongly influenced by the personality characteristic of consumers.

### 2.2.2 Theory of Reasoned Action

Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) suggest that beliefs are combined additively to form attitudes. The greater the number of favorable beliefs one holds, the more favorable one's attitudes. Specifically, the Fishbein model states that:

$$A_o = \sum b_i e_i$$

Where  $A_o$  – Attitude toward the object

$b_i$  – Beliefs about attribute  $i$

$e_i$  – evaluation of  $i$

The object can be a product, a service, an issue, an action or event (Kardes, 2003). Consumers do not think about every attribute or benefit associated with an attribute object: they think about only salient beliefs, or important attention drawing beliefs (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1975). Fishbein model is a simple additive model: as the number of favorable beliefs increases, the overall attitude increases in favorableness. The theory of reasoned action suggests that behavior is purposeful and intention driven. It also suggests that intentions are influenced by attitudes (which are influenced by beliefs), and by subjective norms, which are influenced by normative beliefs (or beliefs about what other people will think of you after you perform a behavior), multiplied by the motivation to comply i.e. how concerned one is about what other people will think (Schiffman, 2007).

Perhaps most importantly, the theory acknowledges the power of other people to influence what we do. Much as we may hate to admit it, what we think others or peers would like us to do may override our own preferences. This

model measures attitudes toward the act of buying rather than only the attitude toward the product itself. In other words it focuses on conceived consequences of a purchase (Solomon, 2011).

### **2.2.3 Theory of personality Development**

Much of the human behavior is due to unconscious motivation. Freud contends that, it is the experiences within the family in the first few years of life, which largely shapes our future psychological and social functioning. According to Freud, society prohibits us from expressing certain instincts and desires, especially impulses related to sex and aggression (Schiffman, 2007). Social order would be impossible without the regulation of these drives. Hence, the society imposes its will on the individual; suppressing and channeling the drives for socially acceptable outlets, and often doing so in ways that lead to later neuroses and personality disturbances (Kardes, 2010). Freud lays heavy emphasis on the social control of the sex drive. This drive present even in infants leads to constant conflict between individual and society.

Freud segments personality into three basic interacting parts: 'Id' is made up of biologically inherited urges, impulses and desires. It is selfish irrational, impulsive, antisocial and unconscious. The 'Id' is operative on the pleasure mechanism, on the principle of having whatever feels good. Infants are said to be controlled totally by 'Id'. They want every desire fulfilled without delay, but parents interfere and infants learn to wait until it is time to eat, to control bowel movements and to hold their temper (Novack, 2010).

To cope up with the denial of pleasure, children begin to develop 'ego' which is the conscious, rational part of the self that rationally attempts to mediate between the demands of the social environment and the deep unconscious urges of the 'Id'. But ego itself is not sufficient to control the 'Id'. At about four or five years of age, the 'super ego' or the conscience begins to develop. The child learns about the demands of the society through parents, internalizes these demands into personality in the form of the 'superego' which in a sense is an internal version of the moral authority of the society (Hogg & Vaughan, 2005). We punish ourselves through guilt feelings and shame at the same time, we feel good about ourselves when we live up to the standards of the 'super ego'.

Through this internal monitoring mechanism we learn to mould our behavior in socially acceptable ways and repress socially undesirable thought and actions.

Freud did not see 'Id', 'Ego' and the 'Superego' as separate regions of the brain but he saw them as separate interacting, conflicting processes within mind. Freud's theory is valuable in the sense that it stressed the personality as the product of the interaction between the human organism and the social forces that surround it and he underlined the importance of early childhood socialization on later conscious motives and behavior (Novack, 2010).

#### **2.2.4 Classical Conditioning Theory**

Classical conditioning involves forming an association between two objects or stimuli. One object, the unconditioned stimulus, should be familiar and should elicit (or automatically produce) an effective response called the unconditioned response. For example, food causes people (and animals, like Pavlov's dogs) to

salivate. Food is an unconditioned stimulus and salivation is an unconditioned response. In conditioned conditioning (or Pavlovian conditioning), the unconditioned stimulus is paired with a novel conditioned stimulus. Ideally the conditioned stimulus should immediately precede the unconditioned stimulus, and both should be paired repeatedly.

When the association between the unconditioned stimulus and the conditioned stimulus is learned, the conditioned stimulus presented alone will elicit a conditioned response that is very similar to (but somewhat weaker than) the original unconditioned response (Kardes, 2003). For example Pavlov paired food with a bell, and after repeated pairings, the bell alone produced salivation. Attitudes can also be conditioned through repeated pairing of an attitude object with an unconditioned stimulus (Solomon, 2011). For example, music is often paired with positive unconditioned stimuli, such as fun parties and good food and drink.

Eventually, positive attitudes are formed toward the music. The music is then paired with a new conditioned stimulus, such as a new product in an advertisement, and the advertisement is shown repeatedly (Kardes, 2003). Eventually, positive attitudes are formed toward the advertised product. Advertisers use classical conditioning principles because conditioning occurs almost automatically and effortlessly, and conditioning occurs even when consumers are unaware of the influence of carefully selected advertising stimuli (Kardes, 2003).

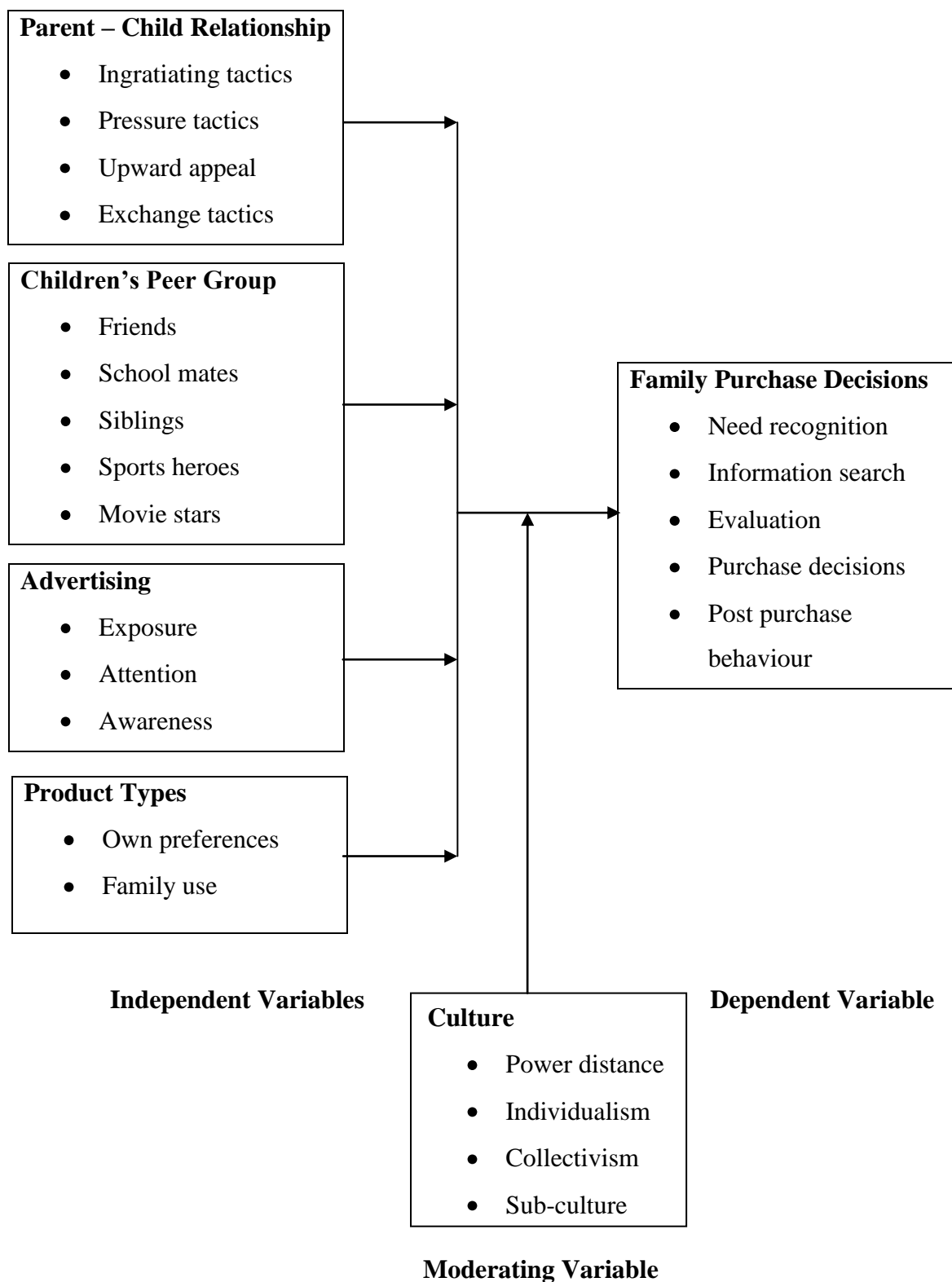
### **2.3 Conceptual Framework**

A conceptual framework is the diagrammatic presentation of variables, showing the relationship between the independent variables, moderating variable and the dependent variable (Waiganjo, 2013). The Cognitive learning theory guided the development of the dependent and independent variables.

Children influences from parent-child relationships, peer group pressure, advertising to children and product types were adopted from the Cognitive learning theory as independent variables (Marshall, 2010). The dependent variable, family purchase decisions is seen when family members exert different degrees of influence when passing through the different stages of the decision making process. This is the involvement all the way from information search to the final decision (Kardes, 2003).

The moderating Variable, culture is considered to affect both the relationships of dependent and independent variables because cultural factors exert the broadest and deepest influence on consumer behavior. Culture is a reflection of an adopted system of rules, norms, standards and values. Cultural differences are the result of national, regional, ethnic, social class, religion, gender and language variations (Bwisa & Ndolo, 2011). Cultural differences are considered as being critical in shaping the identity of teens across the globe and also being responsible for their attitudes and behaviors as consumers (Ford & Phillips, 2000).

Figure 2.2 outlines the relationship between different constructs which are of importance in influencing family purchase decisions.



**Figure 2.2: Conceptual Framework**

(Adopted from Schiffman, 2007)



## **2.4 Review of Literature on Variables**

### **2.4.1 Parent – Child Relationship**

Parents are considered as the primary socialization agents for children, and most aspects of parental influence continue well into adulthood (Ying Fan & Yixuan Li, 2010). Among all the social entities from which children might learn, parents appear to be the most instrumental in teaching their children consumer behaviour (Shoham & Dalakas, 2006). The influence of family on consumer socialization appears to produce effects more through the subtle social interactions between parents and their children than purposive education efforts carried out by parents (Moore *et al.*, 2003).

During the processes of direct communication between parents and children, parents influence their children's interactions with other consumer influence sources, and play a role to modify the effects of other socialization agents upon their children, such as mass media and peers groups (Ying Fan & Yixuan Li, 2010). Norgaard (2007) defines the concept of influence in family decision-making as “a change in a person's dispositions, as a result of interaction between parents and children. The response of parents to children’s attempts at influencing family purchases, acts as reinforcements to children’s future behavior as consumers. Parents who satisfy children’s requests encourage children to be attentive to advertising and to ask for things more frequently; while parents, who discuss children’s requests, encourage them to develop skills in selecting and interpreting product information (Ying Fan & Yixuan Li, 2010). Since parents are considered to be the most important socialization

agents, understanding the nature of parent-child communication can help provide an explanation for differences in child behavior and skills.

Family structures have changed, which influences family decision-making (Belch & Willis, 2001), and, as some authors argue, family communication has become more open and democratic, one consequence being that today parents pay more attention to their children and their opinions (Shoham & Dalakas, 2006). These changes in family communication have made it possible for children to exert influence on family decision-making (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003; Chan & McNeal, 2003), a phenomenon called reciprocal socialization, suggesting that children influence parents, just as parents influence children (Moore *et al.*, 2003).

#### **2.4.2 Peer Group**

A group may be defined as two or more people who interact to accomplish either individual or mutual goals. The collectivistic cultures such as those in African countries and particularly Kenya, emphasize conformity to group norms and social acceptance (Zhou & Hui, 2003). Several earlier studies have speculated that children learn “expressive elements of consumption” (i.e. materialistic values and social motivations) or “affective consumption” (i.e. styles and moods of consumption) from their peers and the findings also supported such speculations (Zhou & Hui, 2003; Opoku, 2012). It seems clear that both parents and peers are important facilitators of children's learning of socialization as consumers; parents contribute greatly to the formation of children's consumer behaviour in the earlier phases of a child's growth, and the

peers' socializing influence increases with age as the parental influence wanes (Opoku, 2012).

A reference group can be defined as "a group of people that significantly influences an individual's behavior" (Kotler, 2008). In consumer behavior contexts, reference groups are typically comprised of significant others from the individuals' social network, including family members, co-workers, peers and friends as well as inspirational figures such as sports heroes, movie stars, and fictional characters. For children, family members and peers are undoubtedly the most dominant reference groups, followed by more distant figures such as sports heroes and movie stars (Opoku, 2012). The influence that reference groups exert on the types of products and brands an individual purchases is diverse, with referents exercising three forms of influence on decision making: information, utilitarian, and value-expressive (Norgaard, 2007).

Seeking out information from a referent, feeling that a purchase would enhance one's image with a reference group, and allowing one's liking of the reference group to influence one's decision to purchase a product would be examples of information, utilitarian, and value-expressive components of reference group influence, respectively. In order for reference groups, such as peer groups, to exert influence on children's product decisions, children must have developed certain social sensitivities and cognitive skills. First, a child must be able to take another person's perspective and realize that another person's preferences may be different from one's own preferences. Second, a child must understand or believe that people draw inferences about each other based on product

choices and possessions. And, third, other people's opinions must be important to the child in forming his or her own self concept. Without one of these "building blocks," reference group influence of any kind may be weak if not altogether absent (Zhou & Hui, 2003). These three building blocks can provide a basis for predicting and explaining when peer influence might emerge and how it might develop as children mature. Several frameworks from child psychology that discuss the emergence of these key aspects of social-cognitive development may be applicable when examining peer influence at different ages (Zhou and Hui, 2003).

### **2.4.3 Advertising**

The basic role of advertising is to provide consumers with the right amount of information regarding a product or a service. Advertisements tend to be highly informative and present the customer with a number of important product attributes or features that lead to favorable attitudes and can be used as the basis for a rational brand preference (Clow & Back, 2002). People get information from advertisements through the attractiveness they hold, the attention they create and the awareness they give (Arens, 2002). Advertising is a structured form of applied communication, employing both verbal and non-verbal elements that are composed to fill specific space and time determined by a sponsor.

Effective communication through advertising leads the consumers toward the purchasing of a brand (Arora, 2007). One key concern for the advertiser is whether the advertisement or commercial conveys the meaning intended. The receiver is viewed as being very active, involved participant in the

communication process whose ability and motivation to attend, comprehend and evaluate messages are high. If the consumer or the audience gets the message and understand it as the advertiser has it in mind, it is a great success for the advertiser. That understanding leads the person to prefer and purchase the brand (Narayan, 2010).

Marketing activities such as advertising affect both internal and external behavior of the consumer. Most specifically, consumer perceptions are influenced through exposure such as seeing an advertisement; attention which means that the consumer recognizes the advertisement; awareness which is common if the advertisement involves some humor; and the retention that keeps or stays in the mind of the consumer (Arora, 2007). Advertisements also affect the knowledge by giving information, attitude, personality, lifestyles of the consumers, and the culture of the consumer. The concept of advertising makes it possible to involve consumers and this greatly affects their buying decisions (O'sullivan , 2005).

Advertising influences people through education, persuasion and reassurance. It also influences the shopping experience, by making shopping simpler and helping to moderate the prices of advertised products (Amstrong & Kotler, 2006). Customers are the focal point of all marketing activities and therefore, organizations must define their products not according to what they produce but according to how they satisfy customers (Pride & Ferrel, 2012). Through advertising, a marketer expects to gain something of value in return, generally the price charged for the product. A customer also develops expectations about the seller's future behavior. To fulfill these expectations, the marketer must

deliver on promises made (Pride & Ferrel, 2012). Marketers generally focus their marketing efforts on a specific group of customers called a target market. Children are one such target market (see appendix 4 – Mama Watoto Supermarket).

Advertisers stress the benefits of consumer socialization to render children “more comfortable in the commercial world”(Clow & Back, 2002). The brevity of opportunity for products and services aimed at children amplifies the intensity of attempts to reach them, particularly through TV advertising. Nowadays, children are in the environment of the omnipresence of TV in which programmes and commercials are used with persuasive intentions. Considerable evidence has shown that the more children interact with the mass media, the more consumer behavior learned by children and the more consumer socialization occurs (Clow & Back, 2002). A study to determine new product information sources for Chinese children shows that TV is considered the most important information source for learning about new products, and the perceived importance of TV as an information source of new products increases significantly with the age of children (McNeal, 2003).

Children watch a great deal more than programmes created specifically for their age groups. Their experience of advertising (and of consumption) extends far beyond products and services aimed explicitly at them. Yet television advertising has an iconic significance for both sides of the debate as a peculiarly visible component of promotion aimed at children. This includes other media, the internet, “word of mouth” crazes, and product placement (O'Sullivan, 2005).

The response of parents to children's attempts at influencing family purchases, acts as reinforcements to children's future behavior as consumers. Parents who satisfy children's requests encourage children to be attentive to advertising and to ask for things more frequently; while parents, who discuss children's requests, encourage them to develop skills in selecting and interpreting product information (O'Sullivan, 2005).

#### **2.4.4 Product Types**

A product is anything that can be offered to a market to satisfy a want or need (Kotler, 2008). For almost all product categories, children have an important role (Martensen & Gronholdt, 2008). Whether the product is for the child's own use like toys, snacks, clothes, etc or the product is for family use like family vacation or the product is for joint consumption of the household like rice, food, tea/coffee, children have a very strong power to influence (Assad, 2007). But the child's influence in the family buying process differs by product category. According to Martensen and Gronholdt, (2008), children seem to have a significant influence in product decisions for which they will be the primary consumer, like breakfast cereals, snack foods, toys, children's clothes and school supplies.

Children also influence decisions about family leisure time activities (such as vacations, movie attendance, eating out and cable TV subscriptions), although their influence is less in these decisions than in decisions for products for their own use. In Western countries, children's influence is maximal in purchase decisions like toys, children's wear, cereals (Flurry & Veeck, 2009). Children also exert influence on family decision making for vacations; families

decisions to eat out and movies (Martensen & Gronholdt, 2008). Chaudhary and Gupta (2012) concluded that children tend to have greater authority if the products are for their personal consumption and are less expensive. On the other hand, due to children's limited financial resources, children have less influence on the products related to financial terms (Flurry & Veeck, 2009) or entire family usage (television, refrigerator, car etc).

A child's influence in the family buying process not only differs by product category but also by the stage of the family buying process. Wimalasiri, (2004), differentiated stages within the decision-making process. Specifically, the study divided the process into just three stages: problem recognition, search for internal and external information and final decision. Martensen and Gronholdt (2008) considered a total of nine stages including decisions like style, size, brand, etc. in each stage; Flurry and Veeck (2009) considered the final decision as having two stages, namely where to buy and what brand to buy. The study included the evaluation of alternatives stage and one final stage that of post-purchase, aimed at reflecting the valuation of the purchasers with respect to the decision made. By and large most of the researchers used a three step model of purchase decision making: problem recognition, information search and evaluation of alternatives and final decision stage (Martensen & Gronholdt, 2008)

For certain products, children actively participate in initiating the purchase, seeking information about the product, while for others they are the final decision takers. Wut and Chou (2009), showed that children dominate influence in the first two stages of decision making i.e. problem recognition



and information search, but this influence decreases at the last stage (choice) of the purchase decision stages. Children are to a greater extent initiators than influencers in their family's purchase decisions, independent of the sub-decision stage (Wimalasiri, 2004; Martensen and Gronholdt, 2008). Children consistently exerted the most influence in item selection and the least influence in how much to spend (Flurry & Veeck, 2009). Wut and Chou (2009) found that children have more influence in the choice-making stage of decision making and parents still control the final decision, which is consistent with previous research findings (Martensen and Gronholdt, 2008).

#### **2.4.5 Culture**

Culture is the most basic cause of a person's wants and behavior. Human behavior is largely learned. Growing up in a society, a child learns basic values, perceptions, wants, and behaviors from the family and other important institutions (Perner, 2010). A child in the United States normally learns or is exposed to values such as: achievement and success, activity and involvement, efficiency and practicality, progress, material comfort, individualism, freedom, humanitarianism, youthfulness, and fitness and health. Every group or society has a culture, and cultural influences on buying behavior may vary greatly from country to country. Failure to adjust to these differences can result in ineffective marketing or embarrassing mistakes.

Marketers are always trying to spot cultural shifts in order to discover new products that might be wanted. For example, the cultural shift toward greater concern about health and fitness has created a huge industry for exercise equipment and clothing, low-fat and more natural foods, and health and fitness

services. The shift toward informality has resulted in more demand for casual clothing and simpler home furnishings. The increased desire for leisure time has resulted in more demand for convenience products and services, such as microwave ovens and fast food (Novack, 2010).

Each culture contains smaller subcultures, or groups of people with shared value systems based on common life experiences and situations. Subcultures include nationalities, religions, racial groups, and geographic regions. Many subcultures make up important market segments, and marketers often design products and marketing programs tailored to their needs (Schiffman, 2007). Social classes are society's relatively permanent and ordered divisions whose members share similar values, interests, and behaviors. Social class is not determined by a single factor, such as income, but is measured as a combination of occupation, income, education, wealth, and other variables (Kotler, 2008). Marketers are interested in social class because people within a given social class tend to exhibit similar buying behavior. Social classes show distinct product and brand preferences in areas such as clothing, home furnishings, leisure activity, and automobiles (Solomon, 2011).

#### **2.4.6 Family Purchase Decisions**

Family as a consuming and decision making unit is a central phenomenon in marketing and consumer behaviour. There are many shared decisions, made by the consumers with the family members, which in turn have an effect on other family members' wish and attitude (Desai, 2008). The family is a major influence on the consumer behaviour of its members. There are many examples of how the family influences the consumption behaviour of its members. A

child learns how to enjoy candy by observing an older brother or sister; learns the use and value of money by listening to and watching his or her parents (Perner, 2010). Decisions about a new car, a vacation trip, or whether to go to a local or an out-of-town college are consumption decisions usually made within the context of a family setting.

As a major consumption unit, the family is also a prime target for the marketing of many products and services. How families or households make purchase decisions depends on the roles of the various family members in the purchase, consumption, and influence of products (Marshall, 2010). Household products like food and soaps may be purchased by a person but consumed by many, whereas personal care items, such as cosmetics or shaving cream, might be purchased by an individual family member for his or her own consumption (McNeal, 2003). Homes and cars, on the other hand, are often purchased by both spouses, perhaps with involvement from children or other member of the extended family. Visits to shopping malls often involve multiple family members buying clothing and accessories, something with a heavy dose of influence by family member's children may buy clothing paid for and approved of by parents, whereas teenagers may influence the clothing purchase of a parent (Solomon, 2011).

Regardless of how many family members are present when items are being purchased, the other family members play an important role in the purchase. Just because of being mother for two young children, it is her responsibility for buying food for the family and act as an individual in the market. It does not mean that her decisions are not influenced by the preferences and power of

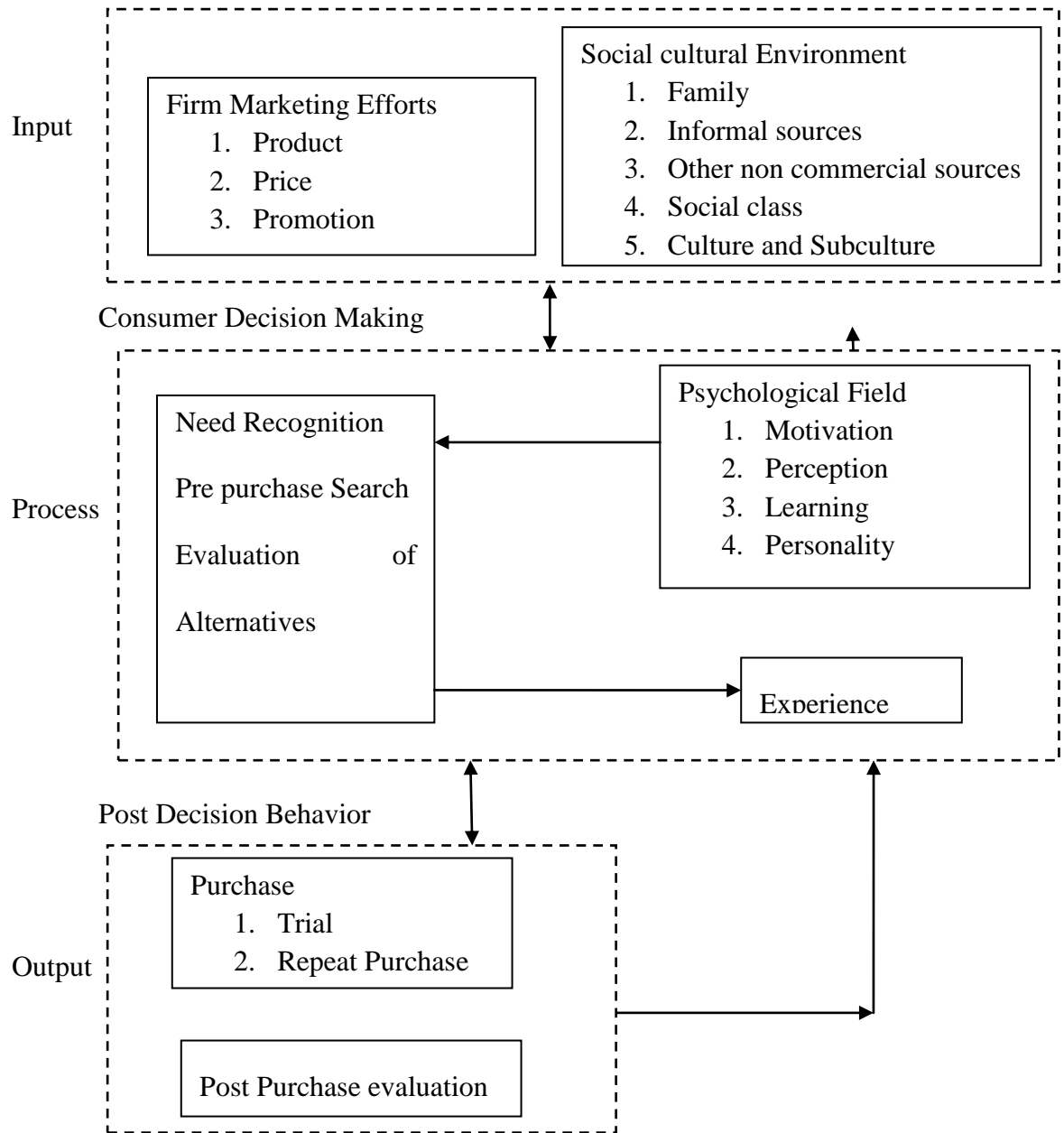
other family members. Although marketing communications are usually directed to individuals, marketers should consider the consumption circumstances and the family structure before deciding on specific communication or advertising methods to attract their segment (Kardes, 2003).

The process of the family consumer decision making can be viewed as having three distinct but interlocking stages: input stage, the process stage, and the output stage. Input stage: The input stage influences the consumer's recognition of a product need and consists of two major sources of information; the firm's marketing efforts i.e. the product itself, its price, its promotion, where it is sold and the external and non-commercial sources, the consumer (family, friends, neighbours, other informal and non-commercial sources, social class, cultural and sub cultural memberships) (Solomon, 2011). The cumulative impact of each firm's marketing efforts, the influence of family, friends and neighbours and society's existing code of behavior are all inputs that are likely to affect what consumers purchase and how they use what they buy.

The process stage: The process stage focuses on how consumers make decisions. The psychological factors inherent in each individual (motivation, perception, learning, personality and attitudes) affect how the external inputs from the input stage influence the consumer's recognition of a need, pre purchase search for information and evaluation of alternatives (Schiffman, 2007). The experience gained through evaluation of alternatives, in turn affects the consumer's existing psychological attributes.

The output stage: The output stage of the consumer decision making consists of two closely related post decision activities; purchase behavior and post purchase evaluation. Purchase behavior for a low cost, non durable product (e.g. a new shampoo) may be influenced by a manufacturer's coupon and can actually result into a trial purchase if the customer is satisfied. The trial is the exploratory phase of purchase behavior in which the consumer evaluates the product through direct use (Schiffman, 2007).

## External Influences



**Figure 2.3: A Simple Model of Consumer Decision Making**

**Source: Schiffman, (2007)**

### **2.4.7 Influences of Family Consumer Behavior**

Consumer purchases are influenced strongly by cultural, social, personal, and psychological characteristics. For the most part, marketers cannot control such

factors, but they must take them into account. Cultural Factors: Culture is the most basic cause of a person's wants and behavior. Human behavior is largely learned. Growing up in a society, a child learns basic values, perceptions, wants, and behaviors from the family and other important institutions (Perner, 2010). A child in the United States normally learns or is exposed to values such as: achievement and success, activity and involvement, efficiency and practicality, progress, material comfort, individualism, freedom, humanitarianism, youthfulness, and fitness and health. Every group or society has a culture, and cultural influences on buying behavior may vary greatly from country to country. Failure to adjust to these differences can result in ineffective marketing or embarrassing mistakes.

Marketers are always trying to spot cultural shifts in order to discover new products that might be wanted. For example, the cultural shift toward greater concern about health and fitness has created a huge industry for exercise equipment and clothing, low-fat and more natural foods, and health and fitness services. The shift toward informality has resulted in more demand for casual clothing and simpler home furnishings. The increased desire for leisure time has resulted in more demand for convenience products and services, such as microwave ovens and fast food.

Subculture: Each culture contains smaller subcultures, or groups of people with shared value systems based on common life experiences and situations. Subcultures include nationalities, religions, racial groups, and geographic regions. Many subcultures make up important market segments, and marketers

often design products and marketing programs tailored to their needs (Schiffman, 2007).

**Social Class:** Social classes are society's relatively permanent and ordered divisions whose members share similar values, interests, and behaviors. Social class is not determined by a single factor, such as income, but is measured as a combination of occupation, income, education, wealth, and other variables (Kotler, 2008). Marketers are interested in social class because people within a given social class tend to exhibit similar buying behavior. Social classes show distinct product and brand preferences in areas such as clothing, home furnishings, leisure activity, and automobiles (Solomon, 2011).

**Social Factors:** A consumer's behavior is also influenced by social factors, such as the consumer's small groups, family, and social roles and status (Solomon, 2011). **Groups:** A person's behavior is influenced by many small groups. Groups that have a direct influence and to which a person belongs are called membership groups. In contrast, reference groups serve as direct (face-to-face) or indirect points of comparison or reference in forming a person's attitudes or behavior. People often are influenced by reference groups to which they do not belong. For example, an aspiration group is one to which the individual wishes to belong, as when a teenage Football player hopes to play someday for the National Team, say, Harambee Stars. Marketers try to identify the reference groups of their target markets. Reference groups expose a person to new behaviors and lifestyles, influence the person's attitudes and self-concept, and create pressures to conform that may affect the person's product and brand choices (Marshall, 2010).



The importance of group influence varies across products and brands. It tends to be strongest when the product is visible to others whom the buyer respects. Manufacturers of products and brands subjected to strong group influence must figure out how to reach opinion leaders; i.e. people within a reference group who, because of special skills, knowledge, personality, or other characteristics, exert influence on others (Schiffman, 2007).

Many marketers try to identify opinion leaders for their products and direct marketing efforts toward them. In other cases, advertisements can simulate opinion leadership, thereby reducing the need for consumers to seek advice from others. For example, the hottest trends in teenage music, *Sheng' language*, and fashion start in Kenya's County cities, then quickly spread to more mainstream youth in the upcountry. Thus, clothing companies who hope to appeal to these fickle and fashion-conscious youth often make a concerted effort to monitor urban opinion leaders' style and behavior. The importance of group influence varies across products and brands. It tends to be strongest when the product is visible to others whom the buyer respect (Novack, 2010).

Purchases of products that are bought and used privately are not much affected by group influences because neither the product nor the brand will be noticed by others. If a child is bought a cell phone, both the product and the brand will be visible to others whom he/she respects, and his/her influence in the decision to buy the cell phone and his/her brand choice may be influenced strongly by some of his/her groups, such as friends who belong to their church or school.

Family: A family is defined as two or more persons related by marriage, or adoption who reside together. In a more dynamic sense, the individuals who

constitute a family might be described as members of the most social group who live and interact to satisfy their personal and mutual needs (Schifman, 2007). Family members can strongly influence buyer behavior. Marketers should be interested in the roles and influence of the husband, wife, and children on the purchase of different products and services. Buying roles change with evolving consumer lifestyles (Perner, 2010).

**Table 2.1: Tactics Used by Children to Influence their Parents**

Pressure tactics	The child makes demands, uses threats, or intimidation to persuade you to comply with his/her request
Upward appeal	The child seeks to persuade you, saying that the request was approved or supported by an older member of the family, a teacher, or even a family friend
Exchange tactics	The child makes an explicit or implicit promise to give you some sort of service such as washing the car, cleaning the house, or taking care of the baby in return to a favor
Coalition tactics	The child seeks the aid of others to persuade you to comply with his/her request or uses the support of others as an argument for you to agree with him/her
Ingratiating tactics	The child seeks to get you in a good mood or think favorably of him or her before asking you to comply with a request
Rational persuasion	The child uses logical arguments and factual evidence to persuade you to agree with his/her request

Inspirational appeals	The child makes an emotional appeal or proposal that arouses enthusiasm by appealing to your values and ideas
Consultation tactics	The child seeks your involvement in making a decision

**Source: “Tactics used by Children to Influence Their Parents,” Joyantha S. Wimalasir – Journal of Consumer Marketing (2004).**

**<http://www.emeraldinsight.com/msq.htm>.**

Personal Factors: People change the goods and services they buy over their lifetimes. Tastes in food, clothes, furniture, and recreation are often age related. Buying is also shaped by the stage of the family life cycle (FLC); the stages through which families might pass as they mature over time. Table 2.2 lists the stages of the family life cycle. Traditional family life-cycle stages include young singles and married couples with children. Today, however, marketers are increasingly catering to a growing number of alternative, nontraditional stages such as unmarried couples, couples marrying later in life, childless couples, same-sex couples, single parents, extended parents (those with young adult children returning home), and others (Kardes, 2010).

**Table 2.2: Family life cycle stages**

Young	Middle - Aged	Older
Single	Single	Older married
Married without children	Married without children	Older Unmarried
Married with children	Married without dependent children	

---

Divorced with children	Divorced without children
	Divorced with children
	Divorced without dependent children

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**Source: Kardes, (2010)**

The above underlying socioeconomic forces that drive the expanded FLC model include divorce and latter marriages, with and without the presence of children. Although somewhat greater reality is provided by this FLC model, it only recognizes families that started in marriage, ignoring such single-parent households as unwed mothers and families formed because a single person or single persons adopt a child.

Occupation: A person's occupation affects the goods and services bought. Blue-collar workers tend to buy more rugged work clothes, whereas white-collar workers buy more business suits. Marketers try to identify the occupational groups that have an above-average interest in their products and services. A company can even specialize in making products needed by a given occupational group. Thus, computer software companies will design different products for brand managers, accountants, engineers, lawyers, and doctors (Solomon, 2011).

Economic Situation: A person's economic situation will affect product choice. A customer can consider buying an expensive car if he/she has enough spendable income, savings, or borrowing power. Marketers of income-sensitive goods watch trends in personal income, savings, and interest rates. If economic

indicators point to a recession, marketers can take steps to redesign, reposition, and re-price their products closely (Marshall, 2010).

**Lifestyle:** People coming from the same subculture, social class, and occupation may have quite different lifestyles. Lifestyle is a person's pattern of living as expressed in his or her psychographics. It involves measuring consumers' major AIO dimensions i.e. activities (work, hobbies, shopping, sports, social events), interests (food, fashion, family, recreation), and opinions (about themselves, social issues, business, products). Lifestyle captures something more than the person's social class or personality. It profiles a person's whole pattern of acting and interacting in the world (Solomon, 2011).

**Personality and Self-Concept:** Each person's distinct personality influences his or her buying behavior. Personality refers to the unique psychological characteristic that leads to relatively consistent and lasting responses to one's own environment. Personality is usually described in terms of traits such as self-confidence, dominance, sociability, autonomy, defensiveness, adaptability, and aggressiveness (Kardes, 2010). Personality can be useful in analyzing consumer behavior for certain product or brand choices. For example, coffee marketers have discovered that heavy coffee drinkers tend to be high on sociability. Thus, to attract customers, Java and other coffeehouses create environments in which people can relax and socialize over a cup of steaming coffee. Many marketers use a concept related to personality—a person's self-concept (also called self-image). The basic self-concept premise is that people's possessions contribute to and reflect their identities; that is, "we are what we have." Thus, in order to understand consumer behavior, the marketer must first

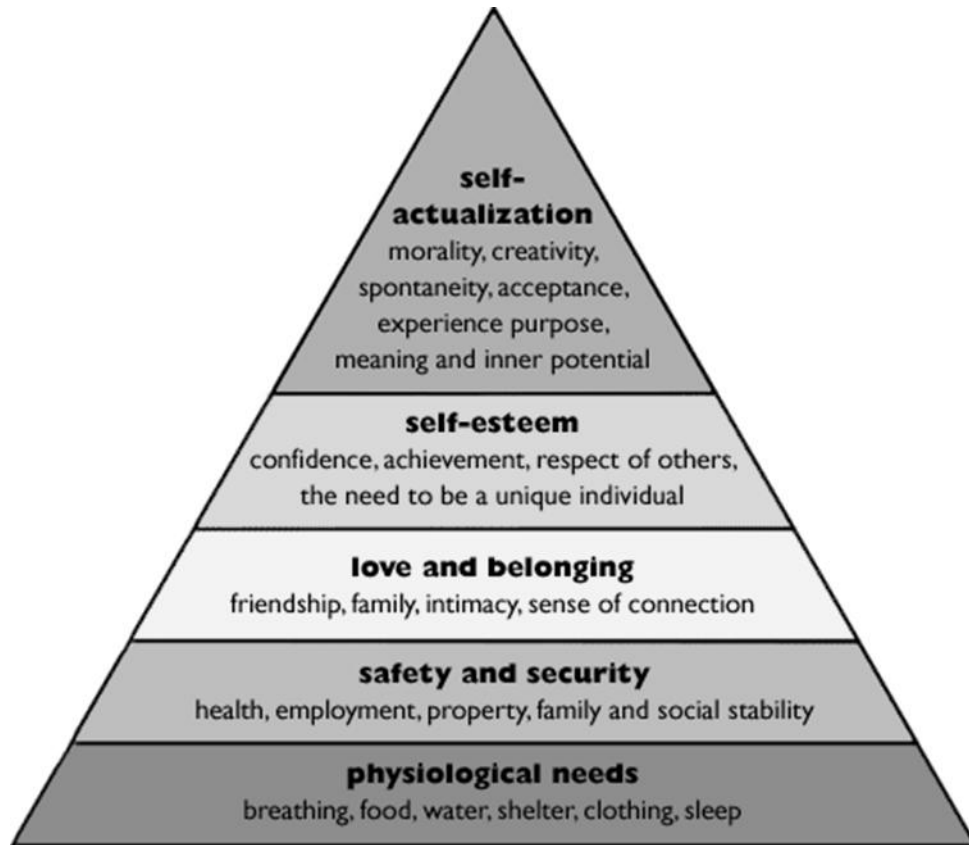
understand the relationship between consumer self-concept and possessions (Novack, 2010).

Psychological Factors: A person's buying choices are further influenced by four major psychological factors: motivation, perception, learning, and beliefs and attitudes. Motivation: A person has many needs at any given time. Some are biological, arising from states of tension such as hunger, thirst, or discomfort. Others are psychological, arising from the need for recognition, esteem, or belonging. Most of these needs will not be strong enough to motivate the person to act at a given point in time. A need becomes a motive when it is aroused to a sufficient level of intensity. A motive (or drive) is a need that is sufficiently pressing to direct the person to seek satisfaction. Psychologists have developed theories of human motivation. The theories of Sigmund Freud and Abraham Maslow have quite different meanings for consumer analysis and marketing (Smith *et al*; 2008).

Freud assumed that people are largely unconscious about the real psychological forces shaping their behavior. He saw the person as growing up and repressing many urges. These urges are never eliminated or under perfect control; they emerge in dreams, in slips of the tongue, in neurotic and obsessive behavior, or ultimately in psychoses. Thus, Freud suggests that a person does not fully understand his or her motivation. For example, if Brenda wants to purchase an expensive camera, she may describe her motive as wanting a hobby or career. At a deeper level, she may be purchasing the camera to impress others with her creative talent. At a still deeper level, she may be buying the camera to feel young and independent.

Abraham Maslow sought to explain why people are driven by particular needs at particular times. Why does one person spend much time and energy on personal safety and another on gaining the esteem of others? Maslow's answer is that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy, from the most pressing to the least pressing. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is shown in Figure 2.4 In order of importance; they are physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs.

A person tries to satisfy the most important need first. When that need is satisfied, it will stop being a motivator and the person will then try to satisfy the next most important need. For example, starving people (physiological need) will not take an interest in the latest happenings in the art world (self-actualization needs), nor in how they are seen or esteemed by others (social or esteem needs), nor even in whether they are breathing clean air (safety needs). But as each important need is satisfied, the next most important need will come into play (Kotler, 2008).



**Figure 2.4: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**

**Source: Perner, (2010)**

Perception: A motivated person is ready to act. How the person acts is influenced by his/her own perception of the situation. All of us learn by the flow of information through our five senses: sight, hearing, smell, touch, and taste. However, each of us receives, organizes, and interprets this sensory information in an individual way. Perception is the process by which people select, organize, and interpret information to form a meaningful picture of the world (Shaughnessy, 2010).

People form different perceptions of the same stimulus because of three perceptual processes: selective attention, selective distortion, and selective retention. Children are exposed to a great amount of stimuli every day. For



example, a child may be exposed to more than 50 ads in a single day. It is impossible that child to pay attention to all these stimuli. The tendency of people to screen out most of the information, to which they are exposed known as selective attention, means that marketers have to work especially hard to attract the consumer's attention (Solomon, 2011).

Each person fits incoming information into an existing mindset. Selective distortion describes the tendency of people to interpret information in a way that will support what they already believe (Shaughnessy, 2010). A child may hear a salesperson mention some good and bad points about a competing camera brand. Because she already has a strong leaning toward Samsung, she is likely to distort those points in order to conclude that Samsung is the better camera. Selective distortion means that marketers must try to understand the mindsets of consumers and how these will affect interpretations of advertising and sales information. People also will forget much that they learn. They tend to retain information that supports their attitudes and beliefs. Because of selective retention, the child is likely to remember good points made about the Samsung and to forget good points made about competing cameras. Because of selective exposure, distortion, and retention, marketers have to work hard to get their messages through. This fact explains why marketers use so much drama and repetition in sending messages to their target audiences.

Learning: When people act, they learn. Learning describes changes in an individual's behavior arising from experience. Learning theorists say that most human behavior is learned. Learning occurs through the interplay of drives, stimuli, cues, responses, and reinforcement (Novack, 2010).

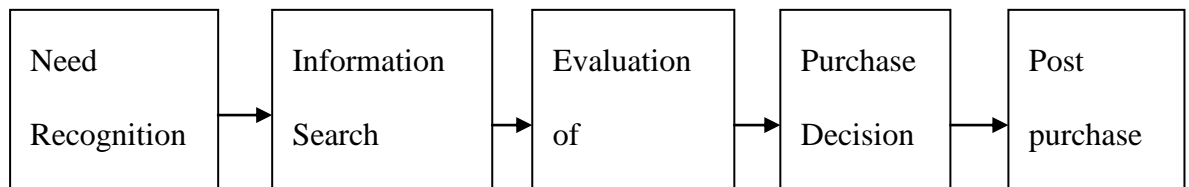
Cues are minor stimuli that determine when, where, and how the person responds. Seeing cameras in a shop window, hearing of a special sale price, and receiving her husband's support are all cues that can influence Brenda's response to her interest in buying a Samsung camera. Suppose Brenda buys the Nikon. If the experience is rewarding, she will probably use the camera more and more. Her response to cameras will be reinforced. Then the next time she shops for a camera, binoculars, or some similar product, the probability is greater that she will buy a Nikon product. The practical significance of learning theory for marketers is that they can build up demand for a product by associating it with strong drives, using motivating cues, and providing positive reinforcement (Novack, 2010).

**Beliefs and Attitudes:** Through doing and learning, people acquire beliefs and attitudes. These, in turn, influence their buying behavior. A belief is a descriptive thought that a person has about something. Marketers are interested in the beliefs that people formulate about specific products and services, because these beliefs make up product and brand images that affect buying behavior. If some of the beliefs are wrong and prevent purchase, the marketer will want to launch a campaign to correct them (Shaughnessy, 2010). People have attitudes regarding religion, politics, clothes, music, food, and almost everything else. Attitude describes a person's relatively consistent evaluations, feelings, and tendencies toward an object or idea. Attitudes put people into a frame of mind of liking or disliking things, of moving toward or away from them. Attitudes are difficult to change. A person's attitudes fit into a pattern, and to change one attitude may require difficult adjustments in many others.

Thus, a company should usually try to fit its products into existing attitudes rather than attempt to change attitudes (Solomon, 2011).

#### 2.4.8 The Buyer Decision Process

The buyer decision process consists of five stages: need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision, and post purchase behavior. The buying process starts long before actual purchase and continues long after.



**Figure 2.5: Buyer Decision Process**

**Source: Kibera and Waruingi, (1998)**

Figure 2.5 implies that consumers pass through all five stages with every purchase. But in more routine purchases, consumers often skip or reverse some of these stages. For example a lady buying her regular brand of toothpaste would recognize the need and go right straight to the purchase decision, skipping information search and evaluation. However, we use the model in Figure 2.5 because it shows all the considerations that arise when a consumer faces new and complex purchase situations.

**Need Recognition:** The buying process starts with need recognition; the buyer recognizes a problem or need. The buyer senses a difference between his or her actual state and some desired state. The need can be triggered by internal stimuli when one of the person's normal needs, e.g. hunger, thirst or sex raises

to a level high enough to become a drive. A need can also be triggered by external stimuli. By gathering such information, the marketer can identify the factors that most often trigger interest in the product and can develop marketing programs that involve these factors (Kibera & Waruingi, 1998)

**Information Search:** An aroused consumer may or may not search for more information. If the consumer's drive is strong and a satisfying product is near at hand, the consumer is likely to buy it then. If not, the consumer may store the need in memory or undertake an information search related to the need. At one level, the consumer may simply enter heightened attention. Here one becomes more receptive to information about products (Shaughnessy, 2010). He/she pays attention to the product ads, those used by friends, and product conversations. Or they may go into active information search, in which he/she looks for reading material, phones friends, and gathers information in other ways. The amount of searching he/she does will depend on the strength of their drive, the amount of information they start with, the ease of obtaining more information, the value they place on additional information, and the satisfaction they will get from searching (Kibera & Waruingi, 1998).

The consumer can obtain information from any of several sources. These include personal sources (family, friends, neighbors, acquaintances), commercial sources (advertising, salespeople, dealers, packaging, displays, Web sites), public sources (mass media, consumer-rating organizations), and experiential sources (handling, examining, using the product). The relative influence of these information sources varies with the product and the buyer. Generally, the consumer receives the most information about a product from

commercial sources, i.e. those controlled by the marketer (Kardes, 2002). The most effective sources, however, tend to be personal. Commercial sources normally inform the buyer, but personal sources legitimize or evaluate products for the buyer.

People often ask others e.g. friends, relatives, acquaintances and professionals for recommendations concerning a product or service. Thus, companies have a strong interest in building such word-of-mouth sources. These sources have two chief advantages. First, they are convincing: Word of mouth is the only promotion method that is of consumers, by consumers, and for consumers. Having loyal, satisfied customers that brag about doing business with you is the dream of every business owner (Shaughnessy, 2010). Not only are satisfied customers repeat buyers, but they are also walking, talking billboards for your business. Second, the costs are low. Keeping in touch with satisfied customers and turning them into word-of-mouth advocates, costs the business relatively little (Kardes, 2002).

Evaluation of Alternatives: We have seen how the consumer uses information to arrive at a set of final brand choices. How does the consumer choose among the alternative brands? The marketer needs to know about alternative evaluation that is, how the consumer processes information to arrive at brand choices. Unfortunately, consumers do not use a simple and single evaluation process in all buying situations. Instead, several evaluation processes are at work. The consumer arrives at attitudes toward different brands through some evaluation procedure. How consumers go about evaluating purchase alternatives depends on the individual consumer and the specific buying

situation. In some cases, consumers use careful calculations and logical thinking.

At other times, the same consumers do little or no evaluating; instead they buy on impulse and rely on intuition. Sometimes consumers make buying decisions on their own; sometimes they turn to friends, consumer guides, or salespeople for buying advice (Shaughnessy, 2010). Marketers should study buyers to find out how they actually evaluate brand alternatives. If they know what evaluative processes go on, marketers can take steps to influence the buyer's decision.

**Purchase Decision:** In the evaluation stage, the consumer ranks brands and forms some purchase intentions. Generally, the consumer's purchase decision will be to buy the most preferred brand, but two factors can come between the purchase intention and the purchase decision. The first factor is the attitudes of others. The second factor is unexpected situational factors. The consumer may form a purchase intention based on factors such as expected income, expected price, and expected product benefits. However, unexpected events may change the purchase intention. Preferences and purchase intentions do not always result in actual purchase choice (schiffman, 2007).

**Post purchase Behavior:** The marketer's job does not end when the product is bought. After purchasing the product, the consumer will be satisfied or dissatisfied and will engage in post purchase behavior of interest to the marketer. What determines whether the buyer is satisfied or dissatisfied with a purchase? The answer lies in the relationship between the consumer's expectations and the product's perceived performance. If the product falls short of expectations, the consumer is disappointed; if it meets expectations, the

consumer is satisfied; if it exceeds expectations, the consumer is delighted. The larger the gap between expectations and performance, the greater the consumer's dissatisfaction (Kotler, 2008). This suggests that sellers should make product claims that faithfully represent the product's performance so that buyers are satisfied. Some sellers might even understate performance levels to boost consumer satisfaction with the product. Customers are delighted with better than expected performance; they will buy again and tell other potential customers that a product lives up to its promises.

Almost all major purchases result in cognitive dissonance, or discomfort caused by post purchase conflict. After the purchase, consumers are satisfied with the benefits of the chosen brand and are glad to avoid the drawbacks of the brands not bought. However, every purchase involves compromise. Consumers feel uneasy about acquiring the drawbacks of the chosen brand and about losing the benefits of the brands not purchased. Thus, consumers feel at least some post purchase dissonance for every purchase.

Why is it so important to satisfy the customer? Such satisfaction is important because a company's sales come from two basic groups; new customers and retained customers. It usually costs more to attract new customers than to retain current ones, and the best way to retain current customers is to keep them satisfied (Schiffman, 2007). Customer satisfaction is a key to making lasting connections with consumer's i.e. keeping and growing consumers and reaping their customer lifetime value. Satisfied customers buy a product again, talk favorably to others about the product, pay less attention to competing brands and advertising, and buy other products from the company. Many marketers go

beyond merely meeting the expectations of customers; they aim to delight the customer. A delighted customer is even more likely to purchase again and to talk favorably about the product and company (Kotler, 2008).

A dissatisfied consumer responds differently. Whereas, on average, a satisfied customer tells 3 people about a good product experience, a dissatisfied customer gripes to 11 people (Kardes, 2010).

Clearly, bad word of mouth travels farther and faster than good word of mouth and can quickly damage consumer attitudes about a company and its products. Therefore, a company would be wise to measure customer satisfaction regularly. It cannot simply rely on dissatisfied customers to volunteer their complaints when they are dissatisfied. Companies should set up systems that encourage customers to complain. In this way, the company can learn how well it is doing and how it can improve. But listening is not enough; the company also must respond constructively to the complaints it receives.

## **2.5 Empirical Review**

Chaudhary and Gupta (2012), ranked products on three clusters namely; Loud goods (e.g. cars, TV, mobile phones, washings machines, computers and vacation), Noisy goods (e.g. children clothes, beverages etc) and Quite goods (e.g. grocery, toothpaste, shampoo etc), based on children's influence and compared their influence on different stages of the family buying process. The study compared children's influence for the distinct product clusters across different stages of the family buying process. One of the major findings of the study was that children's influence on family buying is not limited to any product cluster though it varies for the different product clusters.



Research by Opoku (2012), on peer group purchase influence, provides evidence between peer influence and family purchase decisions. Children were to indicate the extent to which they would be influenced when considering four family products, namely; designer watch (publicly consumed luxury-PUL); home theatre (privately consumed luxury-PRL); *thobe* (publicly consumed necessity-PUN); and television (private consumed necessity-PRN). These products were selected based on a pilot study that was conducted to assess the conspicuousness of the four products. The main findings suggest that for public versus private luxury and public versus private necessity, peers provide a relatively uniform level of influence regardless of public or private consumption. In the context of the study, it was observed in general that most Saudis were trying to enhance their social status (in both private and public) and live up to the stereotypical social expectation that Saudi are rich (Assad, 2007) hence they will not care that much whether the product is a luxury or necessity.

Research by Isin and Akibay (2011), investigated the influence of children on purchasing behavior of the family based upon attitude of the mother on purchase of products. The study used high and low risk products used by the whole family. The products in each category were selected from products for children advertised on private TVs. The study revealed a statistically significance difference between related products and children's influence on family purchasing decisions. According to the study, children have a minimum influence on the purchase of the high-risk products related to the whole family.

A study by Norgaard (2007) linked food and family purchase decisions. Children's influence was measured using direct influence attempts and parents' responses. A specific part measured children's influence in various decision stages and areas of food buying. The study found out that general decisions about what food products to choose for various meals are made jointly by children and parents, but parents decide more than children do. Children gained some, but limited, influence, indicating that they carry out an influencer role rather than being a co-decision-maker or a final decision-maker at this stage.

## **2.6 Critique of Existing Literature Relevant to the Study**

Children's influence on FPD is a focus of numerous empirical studies of family decision making. The empirical studies carried out reveal that children influence to FPD has not been addressed adequately in the Kenyan scenario, a gap that this study intends to fill. Norgaard (2007), in her study done in Denmark on children's influence on and participation in the family decision process during food buying, found out that children have the most influence on decisions regarding easily prepared meals.

The study questions both parents and children although use of children as respondents requires some considerations regarding how to help to understand the questions. It was impossible in Norgaard's study to check out whether this help was extended because questionnaires were mailed to respondents, which may create a potential bias in the responses. Children and parents on the other hand, do not always agree on the level of children's influence: mostly, children

believe that their influence is higher than parents believe it to be, (Shoham & Dalakas, 2006).

Chaudhary (2012), in his study on children's influence on family buying process in India, ranked products on three clusters namely; Loud goods (e.g. cars, TV, mobile phones, washings machines, computers and vacation), Noisy goods (e.g. children clothes, beverages among others) and Quite goods (e.g. grocery, toothpaste, shampoo among others), based on children's influence and compared their influence on different stages of the family buying process. The findings of the study revealed that children's influence on family buying is not limited to any product cluster though it varies for the different product clusters. Although Isin and Alkibay, (2011) confirms that children's influence lies on the products with low risk and used by the whole family, categorizing products into clusters is a bit subjective and cannot be scientifically proven.

Several authors including Nogaard, (2007), Chaudhary and Gupta, (2012), Marquis, (2004) have their studies on children influence on family purchase centered on food. They have chosen to ignore other variables whose impact on children's influence on family purchase decisions is enormous. Isin and Alkibay, (2011) found out that most parents acknowledge that their children do influence their purchase decisions. The study found out that the greatest influence that children of ages 5-6 years exerts on the purchasing decision of the family lies on the products with low risk and used by the whole family. However, products for which the child exerts least influence on the purchasing decision of the family are those which carry high purchasing risks and are used by the whole family. That notwithstanding, it is difficult to tap perceptions of

5-6 year old children since children of less than seven years of age have limited cognitive abilities (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003).

## **2.7 Research Gaps**

The research on family decision-making was initially directed to spouses, ignoring the role of children on decision making and negotiation strategies (Kaur & Singh, 2006). Many studies on consumer behaviour focused on individual consumer's decision making, and only included influence from other relevant persons through factors such as the “subjective norm” (Norgaard, 2007). As a result, such factors only took indirect influence into account; for example when parents know what their children want and they are willing to comply with these wants. A successful choice requires direct interaction, where a collective decision demand focus on more than just one consumer (Chaudhary & Gupta, 2012).

Studies conducted on family purchasing in different parts of the world, have used domains within brand or product choices and have failed to consider domains of socialization agents which stir purchase decisions. With a few exceptions, most empirical studies were conducted in the West and less is known about children's influence elsewhere (Showham & Dalakas, 2006). To fill this gap and further examine the existence of children influence relationship, it is important to conduct research in developing countries specifically in Kenya.

## **2.8 Summary**

From the literature, it is clear that children influence family purchase decisions. This stream of research is extremely valuable because children have come to constitute a very important consumer group that influences family purchases of various products in many ways (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003). Children not only want things, but have acquired the socially sanctioned right to want; a right which parents are loath to violate. Layered onto direct child enticement and the supposed autonomy of the child-consumer are the day-to-day circumstances of overworked parents: a daily barrage of requests, tricky financial status, and that nagging, unspoken desire to build the lifestyle they have learned to want during their childhoods (Cook, 2001).

Thus, recognizing children as a primary market, an influencing market, and a future market (Opoku, 2012), children today are seen as different from past generations; especially the 8-12 year-olds (called “tweens”, as they are neither children nor teens but something between). According to Wut and Chou (2009), children influence family buying decisions in four different ways; first, children influence their parents to buy products for their own use according to their personal preferences. Second, older children generally get pocket money and buy the products of their choice directly. Third, children influence their parents' choice for products for joint consumption by the family. Lastly, children influence their parents' own preferences.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the methods of the study. It describes the research design, study population, sampling frame, sample size determination and sampling technique, data collection instruments and pilot testing. It also discusses the type of data collected, data collection techniques and methods of data analysis. The statistical measurement, model used in the analyses and the tests for hypotheses will also be provided in this chapter.

#### **3.2 Research design**

Research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Kothari, 2012). According to Sekaran and Bougie, (2010), the function of a research design is to provide for the collection of relevant evidence with minimal expenditure of effort, time and money. Research purposes may be grouped into exploratory, descriptive, diagnosis and experimentation (Zikmund, 2010). A flexible research design which provides opportunity for considering many different aspects of a problem is considered appropriate if the purpose of the research study is that of exploration. But when the purpose of the research study happens to be accurate description or an association between variables, the suitable design will be one that minimizes the reliability of the data collected and analyzed (Kothari, 2012).

According to Zikmund, (2010), a descriptive research design includes a process of collecting data in order to answer questions concerning the current status of the subjects under study and that it uses a preplanned design for analysis. There are four basic research methods for descriptive and causal research: surveys, experiments, secondary data studies, and observation (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Experimentation allows investigation of changes in one variable, while manipulating one or two other variables; observation techniques merely records what can be observed; secondary data studies uses data obtained from secondary sources while a survey is a research technique in which information is gathered from a sample of people using a questionnaire.

A survey is the most common method of generating primary data (Zikmund, 2010). This study took the form of a descriptive survey. A descriptive survey resulted into collection of both quantitative and qualitative data appropriate to test the independent variables; parent- child relationship, peer group, advertising and product types on children influence on FPD in Kenya.

### **3.3 Target Population**

A population is the whole group that the research focuses on (Kothari, 2012). According to 2009 census, Nairobi has 985,016 households with the age distribution: 0-14 years (30.3 %), 15-64 years (68.5 %), 65+ years (1.2 %). The age bracket of 8-12 year old is estimated to constitute 10% of Nairobi households. Christensen and Prout (2002) suggest that social researchers who work with children have their 'ethical view' of children formed by social theory. That is to say, their paradigmatic perspective tends to shape not only

their research questions, methods and theoretical perspectives, but also their ethical view of children as individuals. This is because of ethical considerations, processes and dilemmas that are frequently encountered in doing research with children; which is more the case than when doing with adults, due to issues of minority status, informed consent, and anxiety about the cognitive competencies of children (Marshall, 2010). Children of 8-12 year old are expected to be mature enough and have been found to be active and independent shoppers (McNeal, 2003), highly cognitive in consumption choices and knowledgeable about products and brands (Chaudhary & Gupta, 2012). On the other hand, children of less than seven years of age have limited cognitive abilities (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003). However, children of 8-12 years have more personal power, more money, influence and attention than any other generation before them” (Lindstrom, 2003). This study target parents of 8 – 12 year old children in Kenya. This study used parents and saw children as objects of research; their consumer experiences were studied from the outside as parents took a paternalistic view. This was because of ethical considerations, processes and dilemmas, like kidnappings and children trafficking which are on the rise in Kenya today.

**Table 3.3: Nairobi Population Distributions by Age**

Clusters	8 Years	9 Years	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	TOTAL
Wetlands	2414	3365	31663	3097	4054	16093
Nairobi West	9660	8028	9032	11167	10715	47597
Nairobi East	13715	10211	12180	16189	15385	69700



Nairobi North	13438	13042	13189	15512	15452	66633
TOTAL						200023

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### **3.4 Sampling Frame**

A sampling frame is the list of elements from which the sample may be drawn (Zikmund, 2010). Zikmund also calls it a working population because it provides the list that can be worked with operationally. This study's sampling frame included households which had 8-12 year old children in Nairobi City County. This is because Nairobi City County is cosmopolitan and therefore is the most appropriate to generalize. According to 2009 census, Nairobi has 985,016 households with the age distribution: 0-14 years (30.3 %), 15-64 years (68.5 %), 65+ years (1.2 %).

### **3.5 Sample and Sampling Techniques**

Sampling refers to the process of obtaining information about an entire population by examining only a part of it (Kothari, 2012). Samples can either be probability samples or non-probability samples (Sauders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2003). Probability samples are those based on simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster/area sampling, whereas non-probability samples are those based on convenient/purposive sampling, judgment sampling and quota sampling (Kothari, 2012).

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a simple random sample has an equal chance of inclusion in a sample. Cluster sampling involves grouping the

population and then selecting the groups or the clusters rather than individual elements for inclusion in the sample. Cluster sampling makes sampling procedure relatively easier and increase the efficiency of field work, specifically in the case of personal interviews (Zikmund, 2010). A multi-stage sampling is a further development of the idea of cluster sampling. This technique is meant for big inquiries extending to a considerably large geographical area like an entire country (Kothari, 2012).

Purposive sampling involves deliberate selection of particular units of the population for constituting a sample which represents the population (Zikmund, 2010). Purposive sampling is commonly used where the researcher wishes to isolate a sample that has qualities or characteristics required for the study. Kothari, (2012), argues that purposive sampling is particularly good for studies where the researcher wishes to pinpoint sample members who best represent the interests of the study without having to consider the entire population.

If the appropriate sampling design is not used, a large sample size will not in itself, allow the findings to be generalized to the population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Zikmund, (2010) contends that, only a small sample is required if the population is homogeneous and vice versa. Small sample sizes with similar characteristics would give an objective representation of the population. On the other hand, with large sample sizes of heterogeneous characteristics, even weak relationships ( say a correlation of 0.01 between two variables) might reach significant levels and would therefore be inclined to believe that

these significant relationships found in the sample were indeed true of the population, when in reality they may not be (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

Neither too large nor too small sample sizes help research projects. Roscoe (1975; as quoted by Sekaran & Bougie, 2010), proposes a rule of thumb for determining sample sizes which proposes that sample sizes of at least 10% of the target population are adequate. It is also on Roscoe's (1975; as quoted by Sekaran & Bougie, 2010), proposition that this study used a sample size of 200 parents/guardians of children aged 8-12 years.

The study used a mixed sampling design. Cluster sampling based on counties was used on the larger Kenya and Nairobi City County was purposively chosen to represent the Kenyan population. This is because Nairobi is cosmopolitan and therefore was the most appropriate to generalize. In a second stage, Nairobi was divided into four (4) clusters as shown on Table 3.5. The clusters bore proportionate percentages which correspond to the representation of children in the households.

A multi-stage random sampling was conducted and a 10% of the Nairobi households were drawn from the population. In a second and third stage, another 10% were drawn randomly enabling the study to consider a sample of 200 parents. Purposive sampling was used so as to have only households that bore children aged 8-12 years. Purposive sampling gave the researcher an opportunity to pick out households which had children aged 8-12, from different households with varying children age categories in order to bring out representation among the respondents.

Table 3.4: Sampling Distribution by County District

Clusters	Population	Percentage (%)	Sample
Westlands	16093	8	16
Nairobi West	47597	24	48
Nairobi East	69700	35	70
Nairobi North	66633	33	66
Total	200023	100%	200

### 3.6 Data Collection Instruments

#### 3.6.1 Primary Data

Mugenda and Mugenda, (2003) defines data collection as a means by which information is obtained from the selected subjects of investigation. In social sciences, the most commonly used instruments are: questionnaires, interview schedules, observational forms and standardized tests (Sauders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003). An interview schedule is a set of questions that the interviewer asks when interviewing. Observational forms on the other hand, are used by researchers as checklists to record what they observe during data collection, while a standardized test is one that has consistency and uniform procedures for administering, scoring and interpreting the behavior of subjects (Krishnaswamy *et.al*, 2006).

Questionnaires are commonly used to obtain important information about the population. Each item in the questionnaire is developed to address a specific objective, research question or hypothesis of the study (Krishnaswamy *et.al*,

2006). Questionnaires may either be structured (closed-ended) or unstructured (open-ended). A structured questionnaire presents the respondents with a fixed set of choices, often called closed questions. This type of questionnaire usually involves the interviewer to physically meet the respondents and asking questions face to face. Interviewer- administered questionnaire will usually have a higher response rate than a self-administered questionnaire (Sauders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2003).

According to Krishnaswamy, Sivakumar and Mathirajan (2006), a questionnaire is good because, a standardized and impersonal formats of a questionnaire have uniformity and help in getting data objectively, information on facts, attitudes, motivation and knowledge can be obtained easily. This study collected primary data using a semi-structured questionnaire. An introduction letter collected from the university formed the basis of researcher identification that eased the data collection process.

### **3.6.2 Secondary Data**

Secondary data was collected from the library, public and private organizations. The secondary data was largely desk review of published literature on consumer behavior.

### **3.7 Pilot Test**

The quality of a research study depends to a large extent on the accuracy of the data collection procedures (Kothari, 2012). Pilot test, being a test of sound measurement, must meet the tests of reliability, validity and practicality. Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields

consistent result or data after repeated trials (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Reliability in research is influenced by random error. As random error increases, reliability increases. Random error is the deviation from a true measurement due to factors that have not effectively been addressed by the researcher.

According to Zikmund (2010), errors may arise from inaccurate coding, ambiguous instructions/questions to the subjects, interviewers fatigue, interviewee fatigue, interviewer's bias etc. There are three types of random errors that arise at the time of data collection. These are: error due to the inaccuracy of the instrument; error due to the inaccuracy of scoring by the researcher and unexplained error. These three types of errors combine to produce inconsistencies in the measurement, which ultimately affect the reliability of the data collected (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

Reliability is tested using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha. Cronbach's Alpha measures how well a set of items or variables, measure a single uni-dimensional latent construct that is a coefficient of reliability or consistency. When data have a multi dimensional structure, Cronbach's Alpha will usually be low. Cronbach's alpha can be written as a function of the number of test items and the average inter-correlation among the items (Cronbach, 1951). A threshold of Cronbach alpha of 0.7 and above was acceptable.

The Formula for alpha is as below:

Where  $N$  = number of items

$c_{ij}$  = average inter-item covariance among the items

$v_{\text{avg}}$  = average variance

Prior to actual collection of data, a pilot test was done on 10 households to obtain some assessment of the question's validity and the likely reliability.

Validity is the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences, which is based on the research results (Zikmund, 2010). In other words, validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), there are three types of validity; - construct validity, content validity and criterion-related validity.

Construct validity is a measure of the degree to which data obtained from an instrument meaningfully and accurately reflects or represents a theoretical concept. This approach is often used where no criteria or domain of content is generally accepted as an adequate measure of a concept. To assess construct validity, there must exist a theoretical framework regarding the concept to be measured. The measurements must conform to the theoretical expectations. If the measurements are consistent with theoretical expectations, then the data have construct validity. If there are inconsistencies between the measurements and theoretical expectations, then the data do not accurately represent the concept under study. The easiest way of assessing construct validity in a study is to use two different instruments which must measure the same concept.

= The Formula for alpha is as below:

$$\alpha = \frac{N \cdot c_{\text{avg}}}{v_{\text{avg}} + (N - 1) \cdot c_{\text{avg}}}$$

Where N = number of items

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), further contends that a validity coefficient can be computed by correlating measurements from two instruments. Factor analysis was used to validate hypothetical constructs.

Content validity on the other hand, is a measure of the degree to which data collected using a particular instrument represents a specific domain of indicators or content of a particular concept. In designing an instrument that will yield content-valid data, the researcher must first specify the domain of indicators which are relevant to the concept being measured. Theoretically, a content-valid measure should contain all possible items that should be used in measuring the concept. The usual procedure in assessing the content validity of a measure is to use professionals or experts in the particular field. The instrument is given to two groups of experts; one group is requested to assess what concept the instrument is trying to measure. The other group is asked to determine whether the set of items or checklist accurately represents the concept under study (Zikmund, 2010).

Finally, criterion-related validity refers to the use of a measure in assessing subjects' behavior in specific situations. The two types of criterion-related validity are; predictive and concurrent. Predictive validity refers to the degree to which obtained data predict future behavior of subjects.

Concurrent validity, on the other hand, refers to the degree to which data are able to predict the behavior of subjects in the present and not in the future.

Validity was carried out during the pretest of the instrument when the researcher is able to assess the clarity of the instrument and the ease of the instrument (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Since this study had interviewer-



administrated questionnaire, further inquiry on the length, clarity and ambiguity of the questions was sought. From the feedback obtained, the questionnaires were refined and several of the measures which required revision were done.

### **3.8 Data Processing and Analysis**

Raw data collected in the field need to be transformed into information that would answer research questions. Before the actual data analysis, gathered data was cleaned, edited and then coded. Once this was done, the analysis of the data was carried out using the proposed models in Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Data analysis is important because of getting a feel for the data, testing the goodness of the data and testing hypotheses (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). These were achieved through the use of techniques such as descriptive statistics like, response rate, cross-tabulations, frequency distributions, means and standard deviation for all the variables included in the study. For goodness of data which lead to reliability of data, Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was used. To test the hypotheses developed for the study, t and F test were carried out.

#### **3.8.1 Qualitative Analysis**

Qualitative technique took into account the respondents feelings, opinions, statements and suggestions. The Likert-type scaling was adopted to provide a measure for qualitative data that needed to be subjected to statistical processes.

Likert scale used 1 to 5 whereby 1 assumed the worst case scenario while 5 assumed the best case scenario as shown on table 3.4.

**Table 3.5: Operationalization of Attitudinal Psychometric Scores**

Scale 5	Scale 4	Scale 3	Scale2	Scale 1
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never

### 3.8.2 Quantitative Analysis

This study used multiple regression and multiple correlation models to determine the interdependence between children influences and family purchase decisions. The models determined whether the independent variables; parent-child relationship, advertising, peer group and product types, together predict family purchase decisions. The objectives were to establish how parent-child relationships determine children influence to family purchase decisions in Kenya, determine how children’s peer group contribute to their influence on FPD in Kenya, also find out how advertising determine children influence on FPD in Kenya and determine how product types contribute to children influence on FPD in Kenya.

#### 1. Multiple Regression Analysis

By the description of objective one, Regression Analysis was used. In the regression analysis, if the variables are say; Y and X, to regress Y on X, the equation is:  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4 + e$

Where:  $y$  = dependent variable - children influence to family purchase decisions

$X_1$  = independent variable - parent- child relationship

$X_2$  = independent variable - peer group

$X_3$  = independent variable - advertising

$X_4$  = independent variable - product type

$\beta_0$  = constant or intercept

$\beta_1$  = are regression coefficients for  $X_i$  ( $i=1, 2, 3, 4$ )

$e$  = error term

## 2. Correlation Analysis

For objectives two and three, Correlations Analysis was used. This developed statistical measures to portray and explain more precisely the relationships between peer group and purchase decisions as well as advertising and purchase decisions. In Correlation Analysis, to study the exact relationship between say X and Y, then the Correlation Coefficient is denoted by  $r^2$  and defined as

$$r^2 = \frac{\text{Cov}(xy)}{S_x S_y}$$

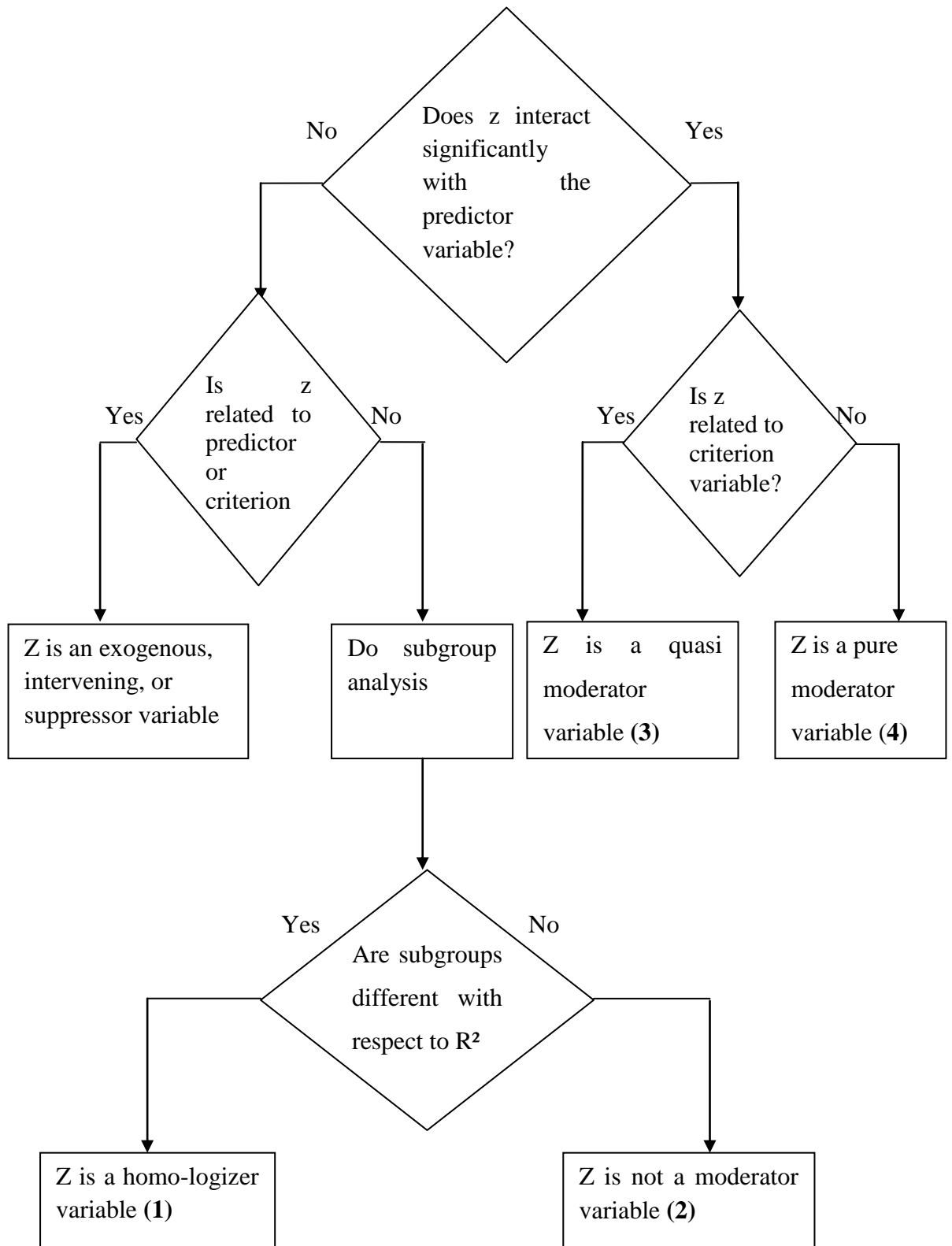
Where  $S_x$  is the standard deviation of X and  $S_y$  is the standard deviation of Y.

For objective four, Multiple Correlation Analysis was used. This expanded the study of correlation by examining the influence of two or more independent variables on the dependent variable. The description was outlined for objective one.

### **3. Moderated Multiple regression Analysis**

Given the role of culture (objective 5), in regulating the adopted system of rules, norms, standards and values in the society, the study incorporated culture as a moderating variable because it affects the strength of the dependent and independent variables. A moderator variable is the independent qualitative or quantitative variable that affects the relationship of the dependent and independent variables. In correlation, a moderator is a third variable that affects the correlation of two variables (Kothari 2012).

The following is a framework for identifying moderator variables;



**Figure 3.6: Framework for Identifying Moderator Variables**

**Source: Shama, Durand and Gur-Arie, 2005**

Model (1) represents the case in which there is no moderating effect. The specific relationship between the variables is given by:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta X + e$$

Model (2) is the case in which the moderator variable is affecting the dependent variable through the error term and conforms to the moderator termed “homologizer”. The relationship used to generate the data is given by:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta X + Ze$$

Model (3), the hypothesized moderator is a predictor variable and enters the equation through an interaction term. It represents the quasi moderator variable and can be expressed as:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta X + \beta Z + \beta XZ + e$$

Model (4), the moderator variable is assumed to affect the dependent variable through an interaction with the predictor variable and represents the pure moderator form. The relationship used to generate the data is given by:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta X + \beta XZ + e$$

This study adopted model (4) and treats the moderating variable (culture) as a pure moderator which affects the strength of the dependent variable, purchase decisions and independent variables; parent-child relationship, peer group, advertising and product types. To separate the effects of culture on purchase decisions, a moderated regression analysis was done. A moderated multiple regression (MMR) model was used to establish the estimated interaction effect and to test the moderating effect of culture on the independent variables; parent-child relationship, advertising, peer group pressure and product types.

The moderation effect is represented by the interaction effect between x and z variable. In the multiple regression equation, the moderator variable is represented as follows:

$$y = \beta_z Z + \beta_{1z} X_1 Z + \beta_{2z} X_2 Z + \beta_{3z} X_3 Z + \beta_{4z} X_4 Z + e$$

Therefore, the general multiple regression models with a moderator for this study was;

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_z Z + \beta_{1z} X_1 Z + \beta_{2z} X_2 Z + \beta_{3z} X_3 Z + \beta_{4z} X_4 Z + e$$

Where: y = dependent variable - children influence to family purchase decisions

$X_1$  = independent variable - parent- child relationship

$X_2$  = independent variable - peer group

$X_3$  = independent variable - advertising

$X_4$  = independent variable - product type

$\beta_0$  = constant or intercept

$\beta_i$  = are regression coefficients for  $X_i$  (i=1,2,3,4)

Z = moderating variable - culture

E = error term

$X_i Z$  = Interaction term of culture with each of the independent variables ( $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4$ ).

#### **4. Test of Hypotheses**

The research questions addressed in this study had hypotheses developed. To test a hypothesis means to tell on the basis of the data the researcher collected, whether or not the hypothesis seems to be valid (Kothari, 2012). The purpose of hypothesis testing is to determine the accuracy of the study hypotheses due to the fact that the researcher has collected a sample of data and not a census (Cooper & Schindler, 2002). To test the hypotheses, t and F-tests were carried out.

##### **3.8.3 Variable Definitions and Measurements**

A variable is defined as a measurable characteristic that assumes different values among the subjects. Measurement of variables or the operational definition of variables is a very critical step in research since two similar studies using exactly the same variables may have different results depending on the way each study operationalized its variables (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Variable measurements in this study were based on a mix of tools which was necessary because, whereas some aspects of the study were qualitative, others were of a quantitative nature.

The study used statements of Likert type, that established a correlation between real objects or processes and the abstract concepts of theory developed as psychometric measures. This provided a measure for qualitative data which was to be subjected to statistical processes using SPSS. The psychometric measures in the study included dependent variable (purchase decisions), independent variables (parent-child relationship, peer group, advertising, and product types) and the moderating variable (culture).



**Purchase Decisions:** Family purchase decisions are seen when family members exert different degrees of influence when passing through the different stages of the decision making process. These decisions are of joint nature since buyer roles are played by all family members. Ordinal and interval scale measurements were used in which purchase decisions were measured along the buyer decision process. The ordinal scale places events in order, but there is no attempt to make the intervals of the scale equal in terms of some rule. Interval scales on the other hand, possess order and distance properties. They are frequently used in social science research studies, especially when a researcher collects attitudinal and overall brand rating information (Zikmund, 2010). A 5 point likert scale (with 1=Never, 2=Seldom, 3=Sometimes, 4=often, and 5=Always), was used for each of the statements corresponding to the five buyer decision making process stages. The mean score was calculated as the average of the 5 items assessed on the perceived influence on purchase decisions.

**Children Influences:** These being independent variables include; parent-child relationship, peer group pressure, advertising and product types. A 5 point likert scale (with 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree), was used for each of the corresponding statements. The mean score was calculated as an average of the 5 items assessed on the perceived influence on purchase decisions.

**Culture:** Culture is considered to affect both the relationships of dependent and independent variables because cultural factors exert the broadest and deepest

influence on consumer behavior. Culture is a reflection of an adopted system of rules, norms, standards and values. Cultural differences are the result of national, regional, ethnic, social class, religion, gender and language variations (Bwisa and Ndolo, 2011). Cultural differences are considered as being critical in shaping the identity of teens across the globe and also being responsible for their attitudes and behaviors as consumers (Ford & Phillips, 2000). A 5 point likert scale (with 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree), was used for each of the corresponding statements. The mean score was calculated as an average of the 5 items assessed on the perceived effect on children influences.

**Table 3.6: Operationalization of Study Variables**

Type of Variable	Variable name	Operationalizing indicators of Variables
Dependent Variable	Purchase Decisions	-perceived children influence across buyer decision process <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need recognition</li> <li>• Information search</li> <li>• Evaluation of alternatives</li> <li>• Purchase decision</li> <li>• Post purchase behaviour</li> </ul>
Independent Variable	1.Parent-child relationship	-Extent of parent-child engagement in joint family purchase decisions.
	2.Peer group pressure	-Extent of perceived influence from groups that children belong to e.g. class mates,

		Estate playmates, siblings, sports heroes and movie stars
	3. Advertising to children	-Extent of perceived children consumer awareness
	4. Product types	-Extent of perceived influence on different product categories
Moderating Variable	Culture	-Extent of influence affected by beliefs, ethnicity, and societal expectations

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## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter represents the empirical findings and results of the application of variables using techniques mentioned in chapter three of the methodology. Data analysis was in line with specific objectives where patterns were investigated, interpreted and implications drawn on them. The general objective of this research was to determine children's influence on family purchase decisions in Kenya. The null hypotheses of the study were stated as; parent-child relationships have no significant effects on FPD, children's peer group has no significant effects on FPD, advertising to children has no significant effect on FPD, product types have no significant effects on FPD and that culture has no significant moderating effect on FPD in Kenya. In an attempt to address the specific objectives of the study, this chapter provides a detailed description of descriptive and inferential statistics and research findings and discussions, clearly outlining how each of the hypothesis as stated in chapter three was tested.

#### **4.2 Response Rate**

Out of the 200 questionnaires administered, 184 were filled and returned. This represented 92% of response rate. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a 50% response rate is considered to be adequate, 60% to be good, while a 70% and above rate is considered to be very good. Therefore, a 92% response rate from this study is considered to be very good and satisfactory.

The high response rate can be attributed to an overwhelming willingness of respondents to participate in the research. The study was interesting to majority of the respondents who participated with zeal.

### **4.3 Data Preparation Strategies**

Before using data analysis techniques, Chattananon (2003) suggest examining the data and examining descriptive statistics so that the researcher is familiar with the data and understands the relationships between variables. The data preparation strategy includes the basic cleaning and screening, editing, coding, data entry, verification and treatment of missing data.

#### **4.3.1 Cleaning and Screening**

After entering the raw data into SPSS, the data was checked for accuracy by running frequencies, to identify out-of-range values and by checking 100% of data entries against the original questionnaire. All errors were data entry errors and these were corrected in the SPSS data base. After selecting respondents who had children aged 8-12 years, which is a screening question, 184 questionnaires remained. Three questionnaires that contained more than 30% of the questions in each construct unanswered were excluded from data analysis, according to (Chattananon, 2003).

#### **4.3.2 Outliers**

Outliers may occur due to data recording errors or errors in responding, or extraordinary observations from the majority of respondents (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The outliers occurring from data recording errors were discovered in the data cleaning stage and were corrected. Most of the

measurement items were close-ended and therefore provided a fixed range of scores under the Likert scale. There were no outliers occurring from extreme values in the range of scores.

#### **4.4 Descriptive Statistics**

The study instrument begun by a general analysis on the demographic data gotten from the respondents which included;- geographical area, age of the child, child's gender, relationship of the respondent with the child, age of the respondent, education of the respondent, income of respondent, family type and family size. The research targeted parents of children aged 8-12 years old and 200 questionnaires were generated.

##### **4.4.1 Geographical Distribution**

The descriptive statistics of the study indicated that Nairobi North had 33% of respondents, Nairobi East 31%, Nairobi West 21% and Westland 7% as shown on figure 4.7.

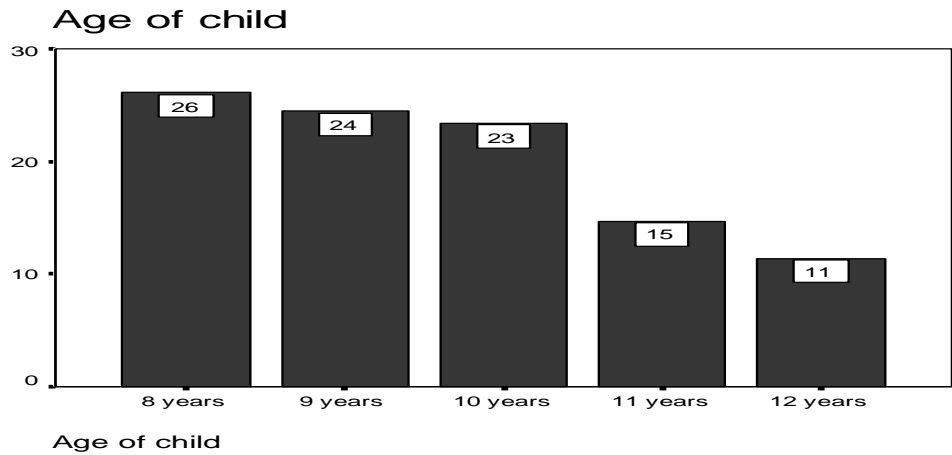
**Table 4.7: Response Rate per Cluster**

Cluster	Sample taken	Response	Percentage (%)
Westland	16	13	7
Nairobi West	48	42	21
Nairobi East	70	62	31
Nairobi North	66	67	33
TOTAL	200	184	92%

##### **4.4.2 Age of Child**

26% of the respondents represented children of 8 years, 25% of the respondents represented children of 9 years, 23% of the respondents

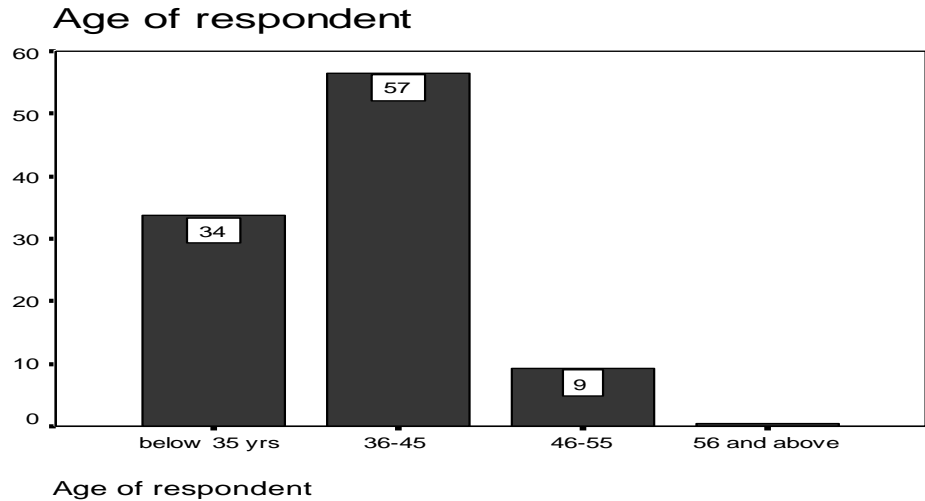
represented children of 10 years, 15% of the respondents represented children of 11 years and 11% of the respondents represented children of 12 years as shown on figure 4.7.



**Figure 4.7: Age of Child**

#### **4.4.3 Age of Respondent**

Among the respondents age bracket of 36-45 were the majority with children aged 8-12 years i.e. 57%. Respondents of age bracket of 35 years and below had 34%, 46-55 age bracket had 9% of children aged 8-12 years and only 0.5% of respondents had an age bracket of 56 years and above. In fact no parent of the ages 56 and above years had a child aged 8-12 years since the only representation was from a guardian.



**Figure 4.8: Age of Respondent**

#### 4.4.4 Respondent educational background

Among respondents who were interviewed 46% were having college education, 27% were having university education, 23 were having secondary education and 4% were having primary level of education as shown on table 4.8.

**Table 4.8: Educations of Respondents**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Primary	7	4
	Secondary	42	23
	College	85	46
	University	50	27
	Total	184	100

#### 4.4.5 Respondent's Monthly Income

The highest income of majority respondents was Ksh 30 000 – Ksh 100 000, representing 41% of the respondents. 27% of respondents earns Ksh 10 000 –



30 000, 17% Of respondents earned Ksh 10 000 and below, 15% of the respondents earned Ksh 100 000 and above as shown on table 4.9. The mean monthly income was Ksh 25,400 with a standard deviation of Ksh 9,400.

**Table 4.9: Monthly Income of Respondents**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Ksh 10000 and below	31	17
	Ksh 10001-30000	50	27
	Ksh 30001-100000	76	41
	Ksh100001 and above	27	15
	Total	184	100.0
Mean	Ksh25,400		
Std. Deviation	Ksh9,400		

#### 4.4.6 Family Type

Family types were of great importance for this research since children influences were expected to vary with the composition of family types. Families composed of both parents represented 80% of the respondents, 20% of the families represented single parents, 4% of families represented guardians and 2% of families represented widowed and divorced families as shown on table 4.10.

**Table 4.10: Family Types**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Both parents	148	80
	Single parent	22	12
	Guardian	8	4
	Widowed	3	2
	Divorced	3	2
	Total	184	100

## **4.5 Pilot Test**

### **4.5.1 Reliability Testing**

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent result or data after repeated trials (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). Reliability in research is influenced by random error. As random error increases, reliability increases. Random error is the deviation from a true measurement due to factors that have not effectively been addressed by the researcher. According to Zikmund (2010), errors may arise from inaccurate coding, ambiguous instructions/questions to the subjects, interviewers fatigue, interviewee fatigue, interviewer's bias etc. There are three types of random errors that arise at the time of data collection. These are: error due to the inaccuracy of the instrument; error due to the inaccuracy of scoring by the researcher and unexplained error. These three types of errors combine to produce inconsistencies in the measurement, which ultimately affect the reliability of the data collected (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

Reliability was tested using Cronbach's coefficient Alpha. Cronbach's Alpha measures how well a set of items or variables, measure a single uni-dimensional latent construct that is a coefficient of reliability or consistency. Reliability is expressed as a coefficient between 0 and 1.00. The higher the coefficient, the more reliable is the test. A threshold of a Cronbach Alpha of 0.7 and above is acceptable (Cronbach, 1951). Cronbach Alpha was used to test the reliability of the proposed constructs. The findings indicated that, parent-child relationship has a coefficient of 0.7135, peer group had a coefficient of 0.7089, advertising had a coefficient of 0.7000, product types

had a coefficient of 0.8211, purchase decisions had a coefficient of 0.8058 and culture had a coefficient of 0.7000. All constructs depicted that the value of Cronbach's Alpha were greater or equal to 0.7000 and thus, the study constructs were reliable. Reliability of the constructs is shown on table 4.11.

**Table 4.11: Reliability Test of Constructs**

Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Parent-child relationship	6	0.7135
Peer group	8	0.7089
Advertising	5	0.7000
Product types	14	0.8211
Purchase decisions	22	0.8058
Culture	6	0.7204

Further a test of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), which measure sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of Sphericity was applied to test whether there was a relationship among the variables. A sample size is considered to be adequate if KMO is greater than 0.5. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measures of sampling adequacy shows the value of test statistic as 0.743 which is greater than 0.5. With the value of test statistic and the associated significance level, it shows that there exists a high relationship among variables.

**Table 4.12: KMO and Bartlett's Test**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.743
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	226.714
	df	28
	Sig	.000

#### **4.5.2 Factor Analysis**

Factor analysis was performed to identify the patterns in data and to reduce data to manageable levels. Factor analysis analyzed the factors that measured parent-child relationship, peer group pressure, advertising, product types, purchase decisions and culture. Constructs which failed the Alpha threshold of 0.7000 were extracted. Reliability test carried out on eight items of parent-child relationship revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.6276 which is below the threshold of 0.700. The items were subjected to factor analysis for extraction. Factors with Eigen values of less than 0.4 were extracted from the matrix because they were considered to be of no importance.

Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical method whose primary purpose is data reduction and summarization (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). By using factor analysis, a factor loading for each and its corresponding construct was determined. In order to verify that the items tapped into their stipulated constructs, a principle components analysis with a component matrix table was executed. Only the items that loaded on their corresponding factors at levels of 0.4 and above were retained for the rest of the analysis. Table 4.13 shows extraction of factors for parent-child relationship.

**Table 4.13: Extraction of Factors for Parent-child Relationship**

Component Matrix (a)

	Component	
	1	2
I go shopping with my child(ren)	.649	.195
I do not wish to annoy my child(ren) during shopping	.680	-.157
My child(ren) has a list of requests for shopping	.562	.156
I respect my child(ren) ideas for family product purchases	.362	.642
My child expresses the items to buy during our shopping	.597	.223
My child(ren) makes an emotional appeal	.709	-.196
My child(ren) pesters me to buy	.630	-.523
I reason with my child(ren) on items to buy	-.007	.731

**Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.**

**a 2 components extracted.**

Items 4 (I respect my child (ren) ideas for family product purchases) and 8 (I reason with my child (ren) on items to buy) whose Eigen values were 0.362 and -0.007 respectively, did not meet the threshold of 0.4 and shown on 4.11 and therefore were extracted. Reliability test was done on the remaining 6 items and it revealed and Alpha coefficient of 0.7135 as shown on table below on 4.14;-

**Table 4.14: Reliability Test on Parent-child Relationship**

\*\*\*\*\* Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis \*\*\*\*\*

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)	
Reliability Coefficients	
N of Cases = 184.0	N of Items = 6
Alpha = .7135	

### **4.5.3 Checks for Multicollinearity and Heteroscedasticity**

A situation in which there is a high degree of association between independent variables is said to be a problem of multicollinearity. This problem was solved by ensuring that there was a large sample as multicollinearity is not known to exist in large samples. Multicollinearity can also be solved by eliminating one of the highly correlated variables. A correlation test was carried out using SPSS and a correlation matrix generated. Multicollinearity is not present where a determinant of 0.0001 is experienced. Parent-child relationship was tested for multicollinearity and the results are analyzed on table 4.10. A determinant of 0.372 was realized which is greater than the threshold of 0.0001. Similarly, peer group, advertising and product types had determinants as 0.1777, 0.414 and 0.012 respectively. Therefore, the independent variables, parent-child relationship, peer group, advertising and product types do not have a problem of multicollinearity. Heteroscedasticity means that previous error terms are influencing other error terms and this violates the statistical assumption that the error terms have a constant variance. This was checked using normal p plots and scatter diagrams and there was no evidence of heteroscedasticity as shown on figures 4.30, 4.31, 4.32 and 4.33.

## **4.6 Study Variables**

### **4.6.1 Parent-child Relationship**

According to the findings, 98% of the respondents do agree that they encourage their children to develop skills in selecting products. This implies that children would get an early exposure into having good mannerisms of consumer behavior. This is in line with the theory of cognitive learning which

emphasizes that “a basic component of children's learning about the marketplace is being knowledgeable of sources of information about products.” Therefore, socialization agents are the influential sources that convey norms, attitudes, motivations, and behaviors to the learner (Batounis-Ronner, C., Hunt, J.B. & Mallalieu, L., 2007). That notwithstanding, 75% of the respondents do not meet the entire purchase request from their children. Further 91% of the respondents agreed that their children get them into a good mood before making a purchase request. This is in line with Wimalasir (2004) who found out that children come up with ingratiating tactics like the child seeking to get a parent in a good mood or think favorably of him or her before asking them to comply with a purchase request.

The research revealed that children make promises to fulfill certain obligations in return to a purchase request favor. 67.9% of the respondents agreed that their children promised to do well in school in return to a purchase request favor, 2.7% promised to be good while 2.2% promised to clean the house. Others made a combination of promises before they made a purchase request favor. This is in line with Batounis-Ronner *et.al.* (2007) who found out that parent do treat their children differently with regard to affection and discipline. Table 4.15 shows percentages of what children promise in return to a purchase request favor.

**Table 4.15: Children Promises in Return to Purchase Request Favor**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Doing well in school	125	67.9
	cleaning the house	4	2.2
	Being good	5	2.7
	Doing well in school, Cleaning the house	6	3.3
	Doing well in school, Cleaning the house, Looking after baby	10	5.4
	Doing well in school, Cleaning the house, Washing car, Washing dishes	14	7.6
	Doing well in school, Washing car	2	1.1
	Doing well in school, Being neat	6	3.3
	Doing well in school, Being good	7	3.8
	Doing well in school, Cleaning the house, Washing dishes	5	2.7
	Total	184	100.0

According to the findings, 63.6% of the respondents agree that they go shopping with their children, 19.6% strongly agree that they go shopping with their children. 14.1% are neutral while 2.7% disagree. None of the respondents strongly disagreed that they go shopping with their children. This implies that over 83% of the parents give their children a chance of accompanying them during shopping. This would mean that children get a good chance to enforce what they may have suggested within the family purchase decision making process. Table 4.16, shows the extent to which parent-child relationship influences FPD. According to the study, 55.4% of the respondents agreed that they would not wish to annoy their children during shopping, 16.3% of the respondents strongly agreed that they would not wish to annoy their children during shopping while 12.5% were neutral and the same percentage disagreed



that they would not wish to annoy their children during shopping while 3.3% strongly disagreed that they would not wish to annoy their children during shopping. The 71.7% of the respondents who both strongly agreed and agreed that they would not wish to annoy their children during shopping are probably among the 83% of democratic parents who go for shopping with their children. This prepares children well enough to become better consumers in the future. 51.6% of the respondents agreed that children have a list of requests for shopping, 22.8% strongly agreed that children have a list of requests for shopping, 15.2% of the respondents were neutral, 9.2% disagreed that their children have a list of requests for shopping while 1.1% strongly disagreed that their children have a list of requests for shopping.

According to the research, 53.3% of the respondents agreed that children pester them to buy, 17.4% strongly agree that their children pester them to buy. This is in line with Maquis (2004), who in a study on strategies for influencing parental decisions on food purchasing found out that, children have an expanded repertoire of strategies for influencing FPD. She confirmed a preference for persuasive strategies used by children aged 8-14 years; namely, expressing their opinions, stating their preferences or begging and emotional strategies i.e. asking repetitively for a product or being nice and affectionate. 9.8% are neutral, 13% disagree that their children pester them to buy while the remaining 6.5% strongly disagree that their children pester them to buy. Table 4.16 shows the extent to which parent-child relationship influences FPD.

**Table 4.16: Extent to which Parent-child Relationship influences FPD**

Items	SD	D	N	A	SA	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%
I go shopping with my child(ren)	0.0	2.7	14.1	63.6	19.6	100
I do not wish to annoy my child(ren) during shopping	3.3	12.5	12.5	55.4	16.3	100
My child(ren) has a list of requests for shopping	1.1	9.2	15.2	51.6	22.8	100
My child expresses the items to buy during our shopping	4.3	7.1	19.0	60.3	9.2	100
My child(ren) makes an emotional appeal	3.3	6.5	15.2	54.9	20.1	100
My child(ren) pesters me to buy	6.5	13.0	9.8	53.3	17.4	100

#### **4.6.2 Peer Group**

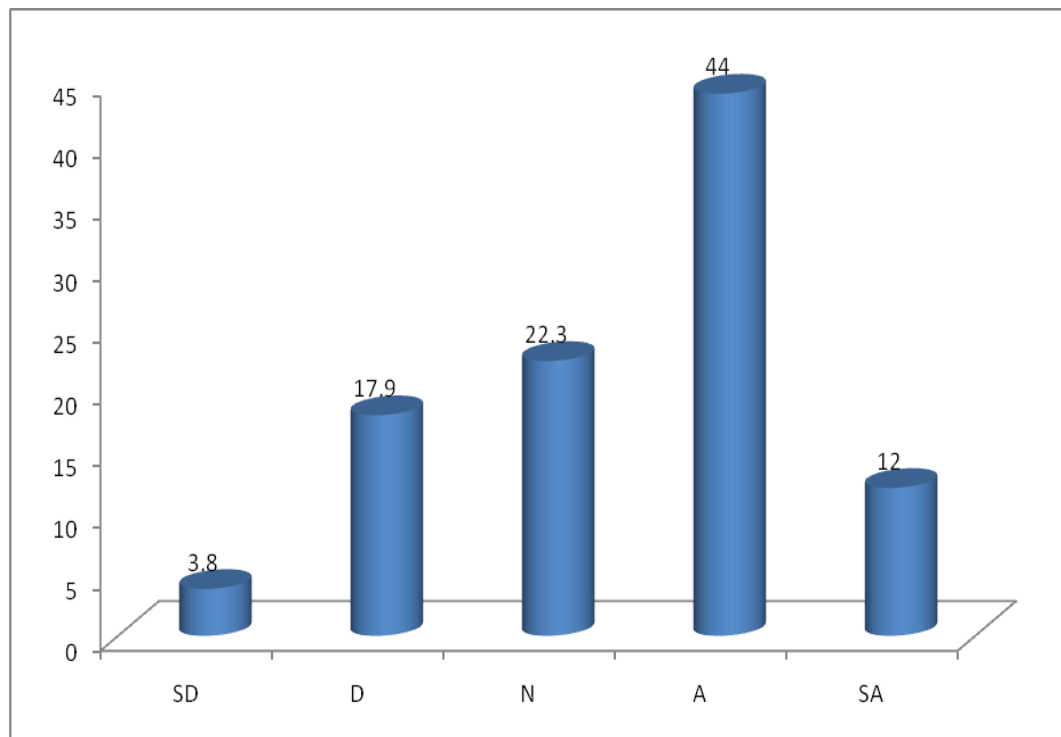
According to the findings, 98% of the respondents agreed that their children at least conform to a group or groups in the society. It is only 2% of the respondents who could not attribute their children's conformity to any group in the society. While that may not be true, the respondents may also be out of touch with their children. These kinds of people may be a bit conservative and hold on to their own values which may not necessarily be congruent to those of the society. 37.4% of the respondents agreed that their children only conformed to one group in the society while 60.4% of the respondents agreed that their children conformed to a combination of groups in the society, ranging from classmates, Sunday school mates, family members and siblings, movie stars

and sports heroes. Table 4.17 shows groups to which children conform to in the society.

**Table 4.17: Groups to which Children Conform to in the Society**

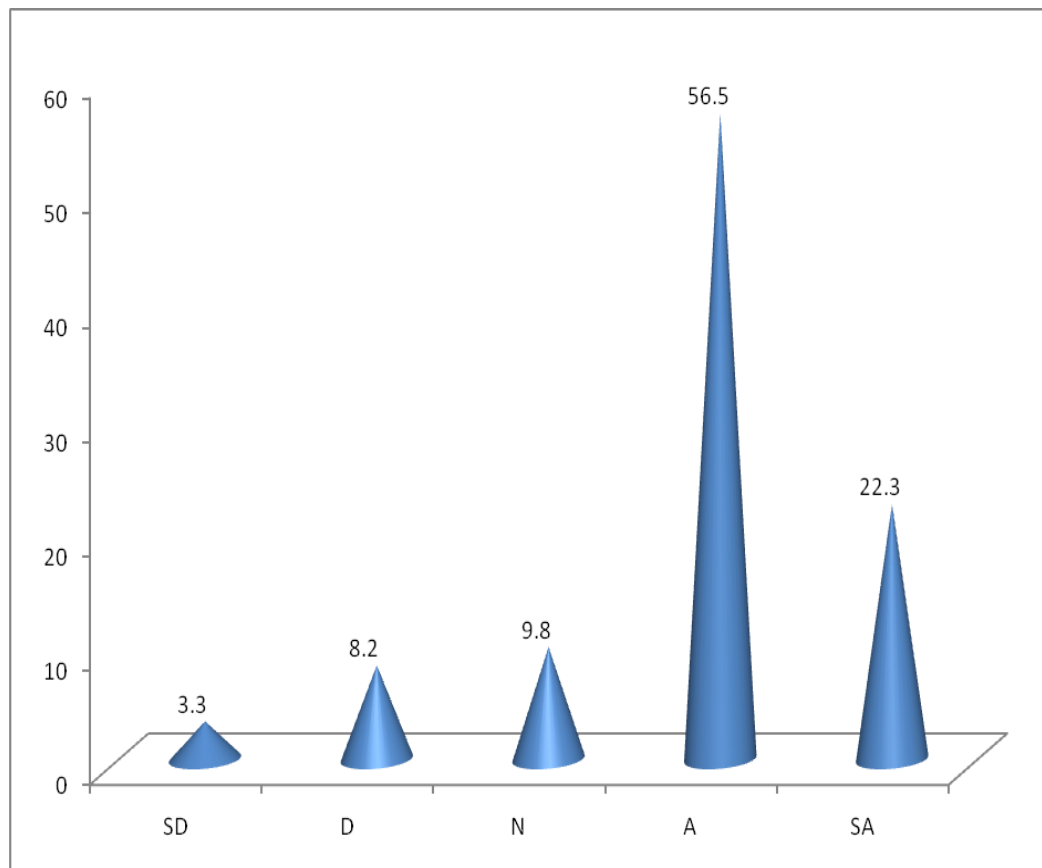
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Classmates	38	20.7	20.9
	Sunday school mates	9	4.9	25.8
	Madrassa mates	1	.5	26.4
	Estate play mates	12	6.5	33.0
	Family members and siblings	7	3.8	36.8
	Movie stars	1	.5	37.4
	Sunday School mates, Family members and siblings	4	2.2	39.6
	Class mates, Estate play mates	38	20.7	60.4
	Class mates, Sunday school mates, Estate play mates	28	15.2	75.8
	Class mates, Sunday school mates, Estate mates, movie stars	10	5.4	81.3
	Class mates, Sunday school mates, Estate mates, sports heros	19	10.3	91.8
	Class mates, Movie stars, sports hero	11	6.0	97.8
	Classmates, Family members	4	2.2	100.0
	Total	182	98.9	
Missing	System	2	1.1	
Total	184	100.0		

According to the study 44% of the respondents agree that their children make purchase requests similar to other siblings, 22.3% are neutral, 17.9% disagree that their children make purchase requests similar to their siblings, 12% strongly agree that their children make purchase requests similar to their siblings while 3.8% strongly disagree that their children make purchase requests similar to other siblings. This contradicts Batounis-Ronner, Hunt and Mallalieu (2007) who found out that, it is the younger/youngest child who is favored in terms of affection and that the presence of siblings in a family will decrease a child's perception of the amount of relative influence he/she has on purchase decisions. Figure 4.9 shows how the presence of siblings affects purchase requests.



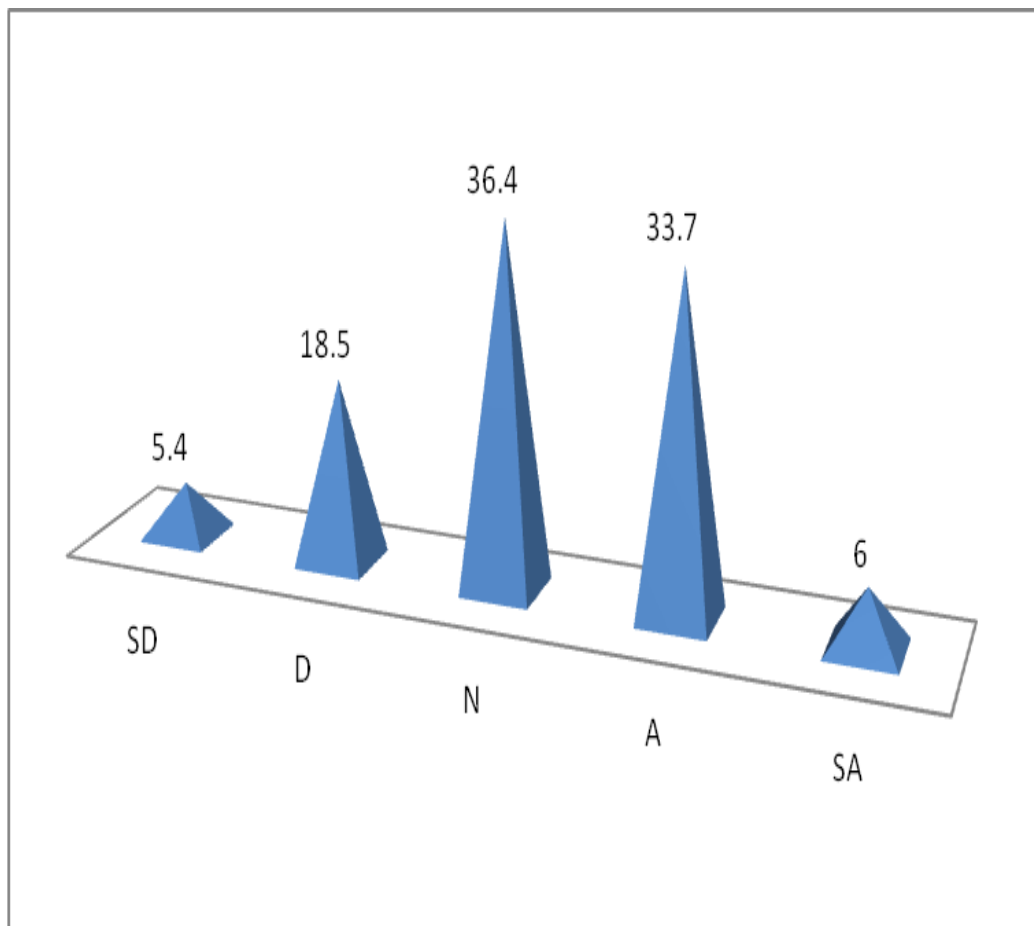
**Figure 4.9: Purchase Requests Similar to other Siblings**

According to the research, 56.5% of the respondents agreed that their children make purchase requests similar to their friends, 22.3% strongly agree that their children make purchase requests similar to their friends. This is in line with Opoku (2004), who speculated that children learn “expressive elements of consumption” (i.e. materialistic values and social motivations) or “affective consumption” (i.e. styles and moods of consumption) from their friends. 9.8% of the parents were neutral that their children make purchase requests similar to friends, 8.2% disagreed that their children made purchase requests similar to friends while 3.3% of the parents strongly disagreed that their children made purchase decisions similar to friends. Figure 4.10 shows the extent to which children made purchase requests similar to friends.



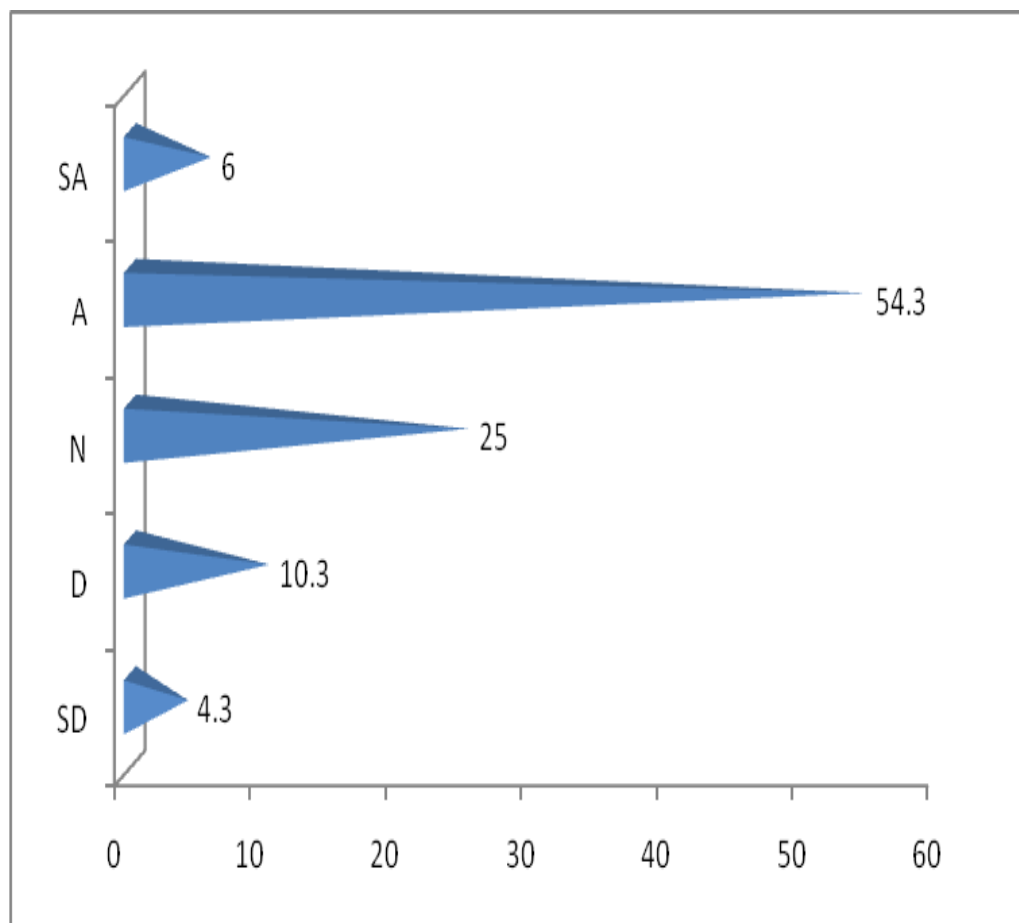
**Figure 4.10: Purchase Requests Similar to Friends**

According to the study, 36.4% of the respondents were indifferent whether their children got product information from older family members, 33.7% agreed that their children got product information from older family members, 18.5% disagreed that their children, 6% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children got product information from older family members while 5.4% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children got product information from older family members.



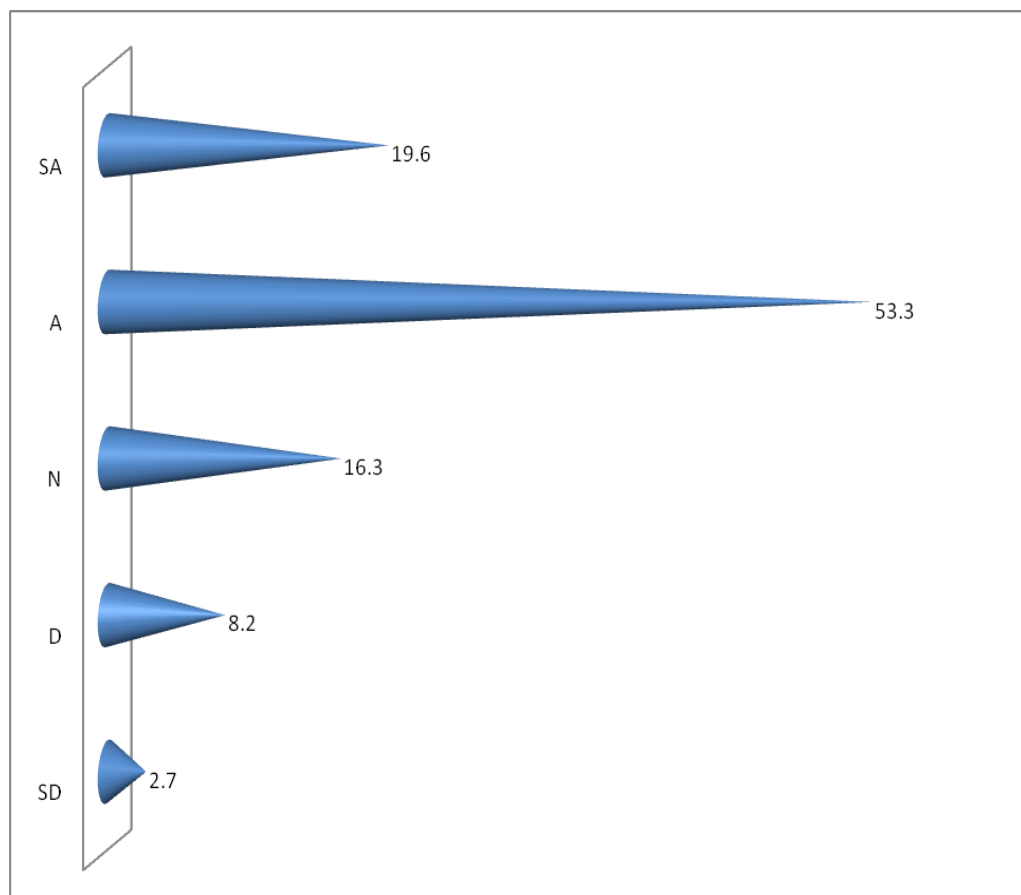
**Figure 4.11: Product information from older family members**

According to the study 54.3% of the respondents agree that their children get product information from other siblings, 6% strongly agreed that their children get product information from other siblings and 25% are neutral. The findings correspond with those of Batounis-Ronner, Hunt, and Mallalieu (2007) who found out that, the eldest child (ren) is/are likely to seek parental favor by acting as surrogate parents toward their younger siblings. 10.3% of the respondents disagreed that their parents get product information from other siblings while 4.3 % of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children get product information from other siblings. Figure 4.12 shows the extent to which children seek product information from other siblings.



**Figure 4.12: Product information from other siblings**

According to the study, 53.3% of the respondents agreed that their children gets product information from friends, 19.6% of the respondent strongly agreed that their children get product information from friends, 16.7% are neutral, 8.2% of the respondents disagree that their children get product information from friends while 2.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children get product information from friends. Figure 4.13 shows the extent to which children get product information from friends.

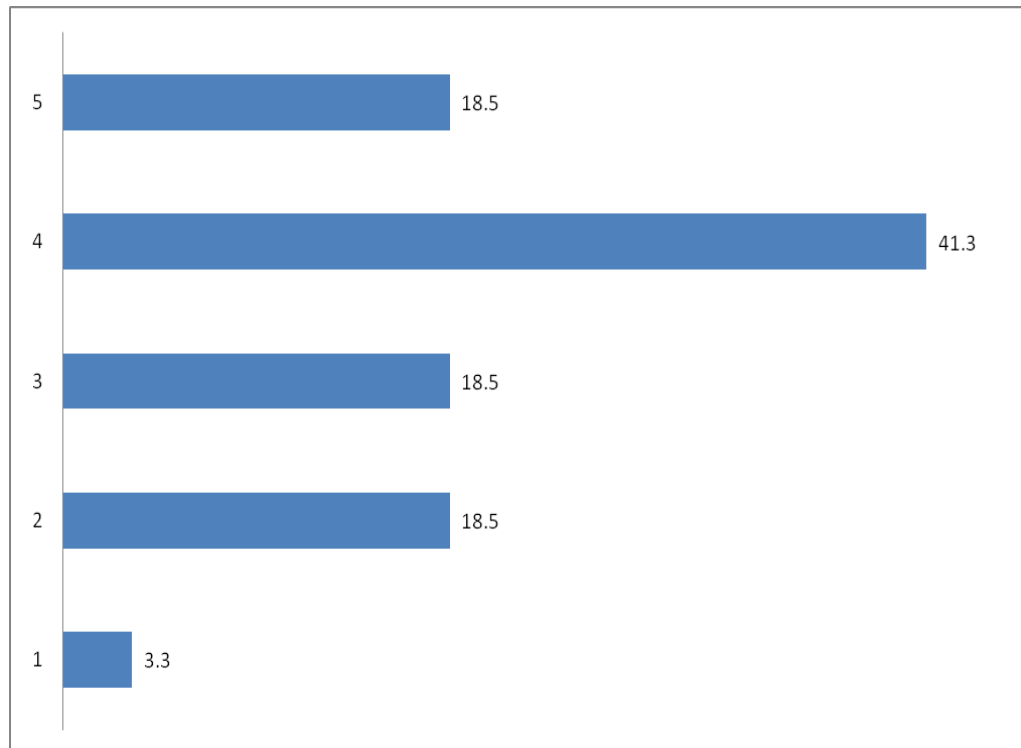


**Figure 4.13: Product information from friends**

41.3% of the respondents agreed that their children want to buy friend's products, 18.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children want to



be bought their friend's products. This corresponds with (Bachmann *et al.*, 1993), who found out that the impact of peer influence is weaker for privately consumed necessities and stronger for publically consumed products, because privately consumed necessities are neither observable nor elusive because they are consumed out of public view and are used by everybody. 18.5% of the respondents were neutral, 18.5% of the respondents disagreed that their children want to buy friend's products while 3.3% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children want to buy their friends products. In this information age, this is not very surprising because these young adults are more likely to search for information from other sources other than just from their friends. Singh *et al.* (2003) strongly demonstrates the use of internet as a socialization agent across some ethnic young adult groups studied in USA. Figure 4.14 shows the extent to which children want to buy their friend's products.



#### **Figure 4.14: Wanting to buy friend's products**

37.5% of the respondents agreed that their children want to buy other sibling products, 6% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children want to buy other sibling products, 33.2% of the respondents were neutral, 20.7% of the respondents disagreed that their children want to buy other sibling products while 2.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children want to buy other sibling products.

35.3% of the respondents agreed that their children want to buy celebrity associated products, 17.9% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children want to buy celebrity associated products, 25% are neutral that their children want to buy celebrity associated products, 12.5% of the respondents disagree that their children want to buy celebrity associated products while 9.2% strongly disagree that their children want to buy celebrity associated products.

#### **4.6.3 Advertising**

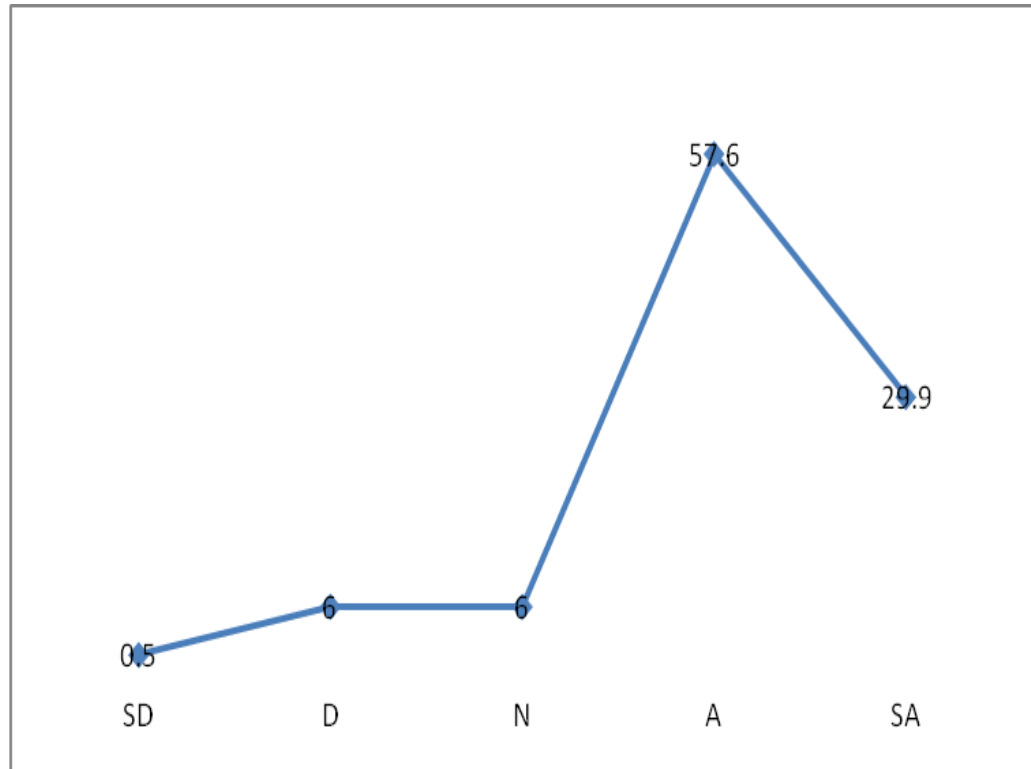
According to the study 50% of the respondents agreed that children get product information from the television. 2.2% of the respondents agreed that their children get product information from outdoor advertising, 1.6% get product information from the radio, 1.1% from playmates while 1.1% of the respondents agreed that their children get product information from daily newspapers. Other respondents agreed that their children get product information from a combination of sources as shown on table 4.18.

**Table 4.18: Where child (ren) gets family product information**

	Frequency	Percent
Valid Television	92	50.0
Outdoor advertisements	4	2.2
Radio	3	1.6
Daily Newspapers	2	1.1
Television, Outdoor	16	8.7
Television, Radio	7	3.8
Television, Outdoor, Radio, Magazine	6	3.3
Television, Outdoor, Radio, Magazine	5	2.7
Television, Radio, Magazine, Newspaper	8	4.3
Television, Daily Newspaper	10	5.4
Television, Radio, Daily News papers	11	6.0
Television, Daily Newspaper, outdoor	16	8.7
Playmates	2	1.1
Television, Magazine	2	1.1
Total	184	100.0

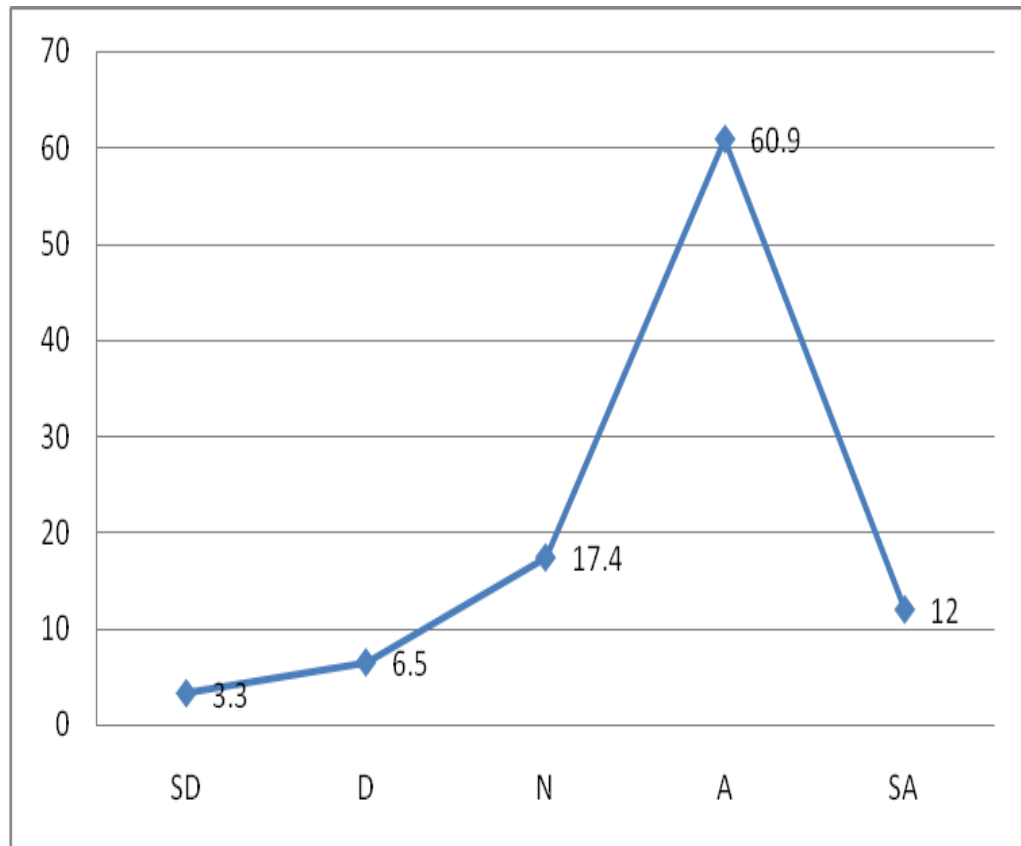
According to the study, 29.9% and 57.6% of the respondents strongly agree and agree that their children are attentive to family product advertisements respectively. This is in line with McNeal (2003), who found out that Chinese children are exposed increasingly to a large amount of advertising, especially through TV. According to McNeal (2003), children interact regularly with most advertising media. O'sullivan (2005) also found out that children watch a great deal more than programmes created specifically for their age groups. Their experience of advertising (and of consumption) extends far beyond products and services aimed explicitly at them. Yet television advertising has an iconic significance for both sides of the debate as a peculiarly visible component of promotion aimed at children. 6% of the respondents are neutral,

6% of the respondents disagree that their children are attentive to family product advertisements while only 0.5 % of the respondents strongly disagree that their children are attentive to family product advertising. Figure 4.15 shows the extent to which children are attentive to family product advertising.



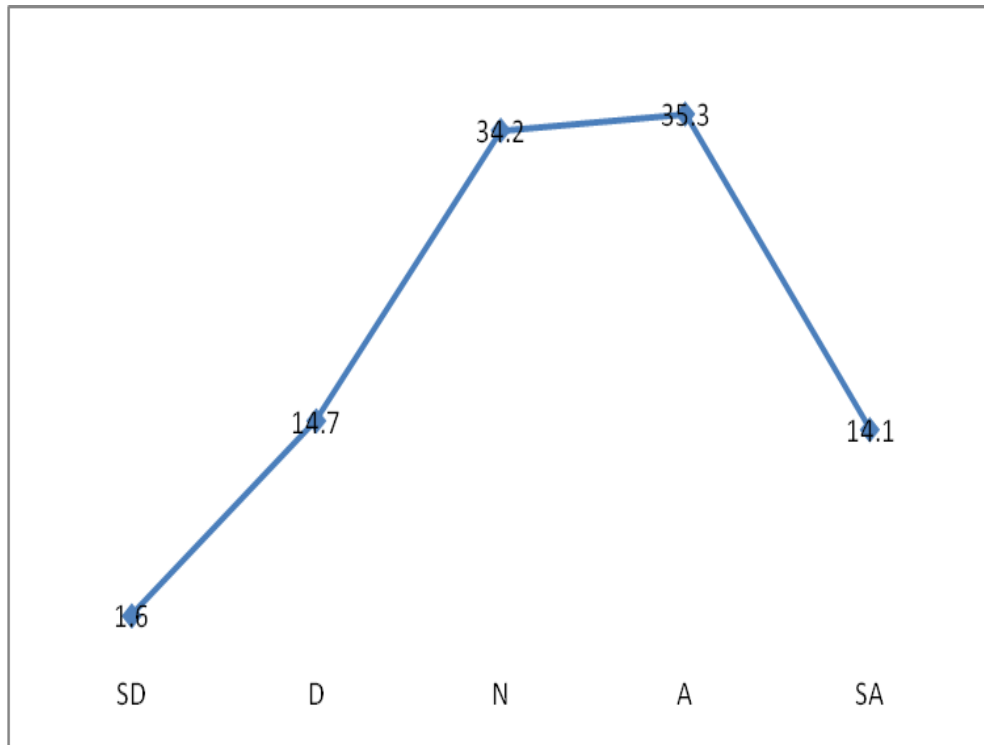
**Figure 4.15: Attention of Children to Product Advertisements**

The study shows that 60.9% of the respondents agreed that their children switch their product requests with new adverts, 12% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children switch product requests with new adverts, 17.4% of the respondents are neutral, 6.5% of the respondents disagreed that their children switch product requests with new adverts while 3.3% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children switch product requests with new adverts. Figure 4.16 shows the extent to which children switch products with new adverts;



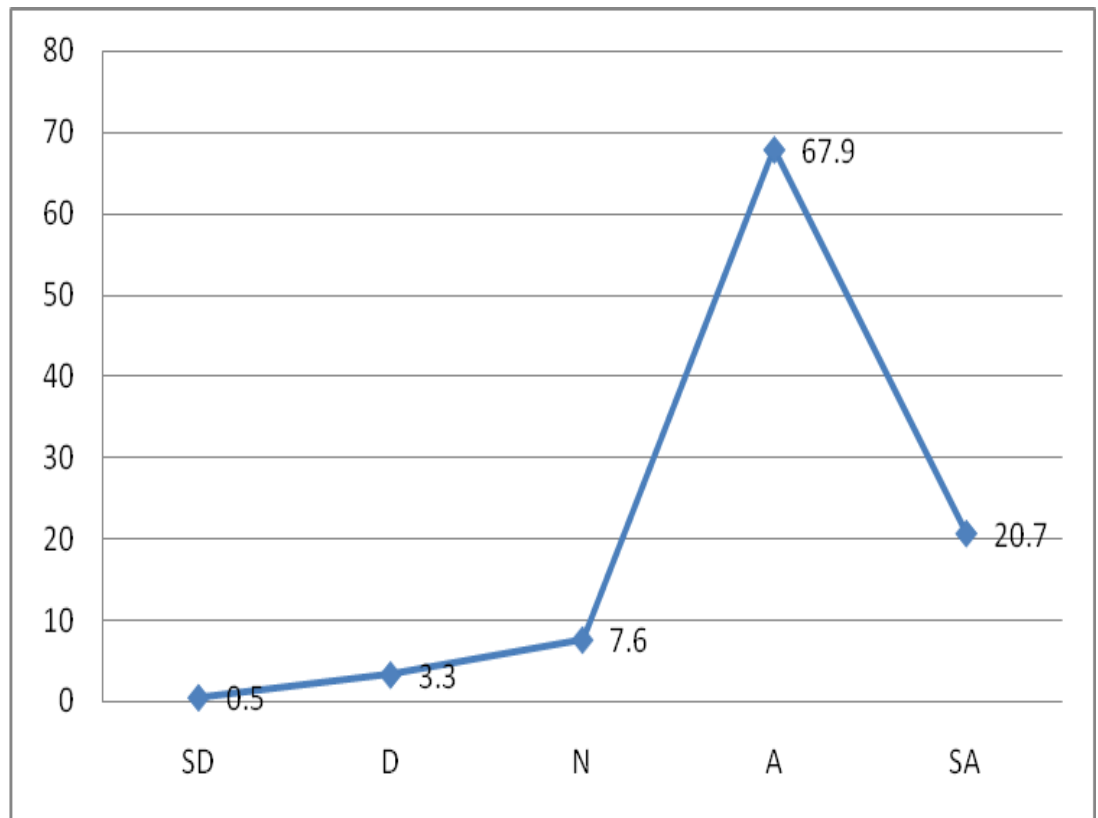
**Figure 4.16: Switching Product Requests with New Adverts**

The study shows that 14.1% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children compared products on different adverts, 35.3% of the respondents agreed that their children compared products on different adverts, 34.2% of the respondents were neutral, 14.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children compared products on different adverts while 1.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children compared products on different adverts.



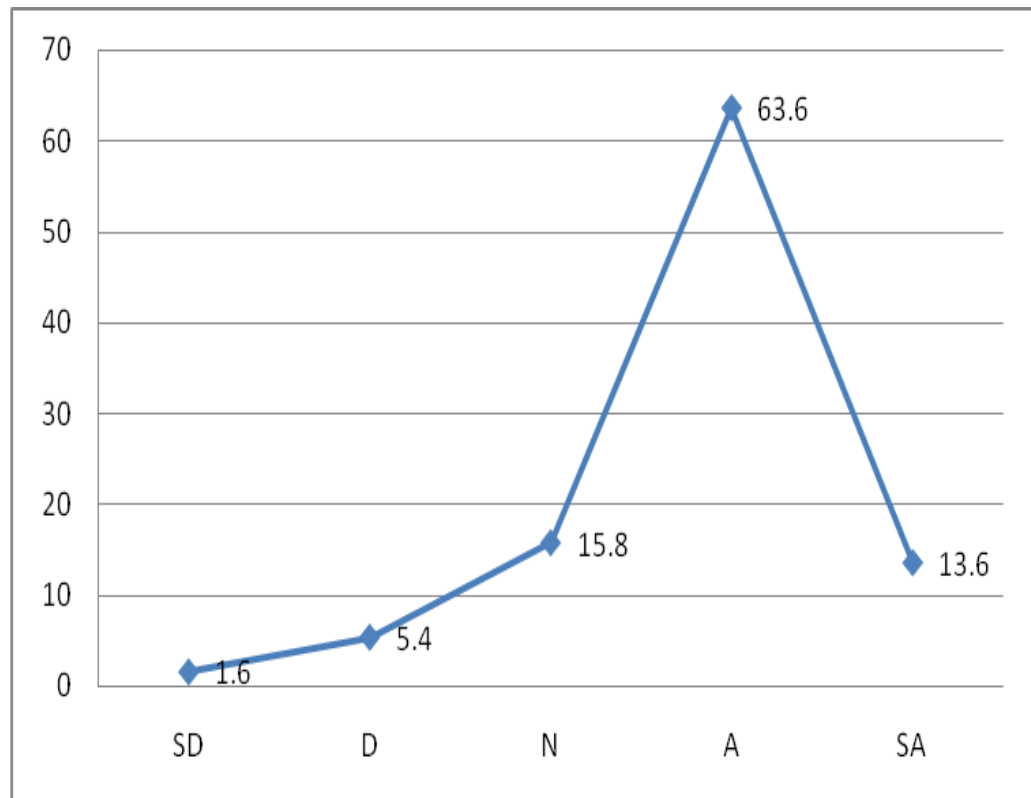
**Figure 4.17: Extent to which Children Compare Products on different Adverts**

According to the study, 67.9% of the respondents agreed that their children recall product adverts, 20.7% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children recall product adverts. This is in line with Ying Fa and YiXuan Li (2010) who found out that children interact regularly with most advertising media, TV is by far the most important of the media. 7.6% of the respondents are neutral that their children recall product adverts, 3.3% disagree that their children recall product adverts while 0.5% of the respondents strongly disagree that their children recall product adverts as shown on figure 4.18.



**Figure 4.18: Extent to Which Children Recall product Adverts**

13.6% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children requests advertised products, 63.6% of the respondents agreed that their children make family purchase requests for advertised products, 63.6% of the respondents agreed that their children make requests for advertised products, 15.8% of the respondents were neutral, 5.4% of the respondents of the disagreed that their children requests for advertised products while 1.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children requests for advertised products. Figure 4.19 shows the extent to which children request advertised products;



**Figure 4.19: Extent to which Children Request Advertised Products**

#### **4.6.4 Product Types**

According to the study, 95% of the respondents agreed that their children have a list of product request for shopping. An observation at Nairobi's Kasarani Naivas Supermarket, a day prior to primary school's March 2014 half-term revealed that 8 out of 10 accompanied children of years 8-12 in the supermarket had a shopping list. This is absolutely a reality because the role of children on decision making and negotiation strategies has become an important issue. The study shows some considerable extent of children's influence for almost all product categories. Considering products of children's own use, 38.6% of the respondents strongly agreed that their child had



influence for the purchase of toys, while 47.3% agreed that their children had influence on the purchase of toys, 7.6% were neutral, and 3.8% disagreed while 2.7% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children did influence the purchase of toys. 26.6% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children had influence for video games, 56.6% of the respondents agreed that their children have some influence in the purchase of video games, 7.6% of the respondents were neutral, 4.9% of the respondents disagreed while 4.9% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children had some influence on the purchase of video games.

For products which are used by the whole family, 13% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children had influence in a vacation that they took, 50% of the respondents agreed that their children had some influence on vacation, 20.2% of the respondents were neutral, 12.5% disagreed that their children had an influence on vacation while 4.3% strongly disagreed that their children had influence on the vacation that they took. 8.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children had some influence on the television set that they bought, 61.4% of the respondents agreed that their children had some influence on the purchase of their television set, 14.1% of the respondents were neutral, 10.9% of the respondents disagreed that their children had some influence on the purchase of television while 5.4% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children had some influence on the purchase of a television set. Sophisticated family products like cars and computers were also not being left out. 9.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that their children at least had some influence on the purchase of their family car, 22.8% agreed that their children at least had some influence on the purchase of their car, 34.2% of the

respondents were neutral about their children's influence on the purchase of a family car, 19.6% of the respondents disagreed that their children had some influence on the purchase of their family car while 14.1% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their children had some influence on the purchase of their family car. This confirms a study by Chaudhary and Gupta (2012), who found out that children have an influencing role whether the product is for the child's own use like toys, snacks, clothes, etc or the product is for family use like family vacation or the product is for joint consumption of the household like rice, food, tea/coffee, children have a very strong power to influence.

The findings also concur with Beatty 2002, who found out that children's influence seems to vary across product categories. Their findings showed that children gained most influence when it came to products for their own consumption. According to the study, children do not have as much influence for the purchase of sophisticated products like cars and computers as they do on products of their own use or those for joint consumption. These findings also relate with Nogaard (2007); Chaudhary and Gupta (2012), who concluded that for products that involved significant financial expenditure such as cars, TV, washing machines, computers and vacations etc., parents would like to take major decisions and limit their child's involvement due to the financial risk associated with these decisions. Table 4.19 shows the extent to which product types influence FPD.

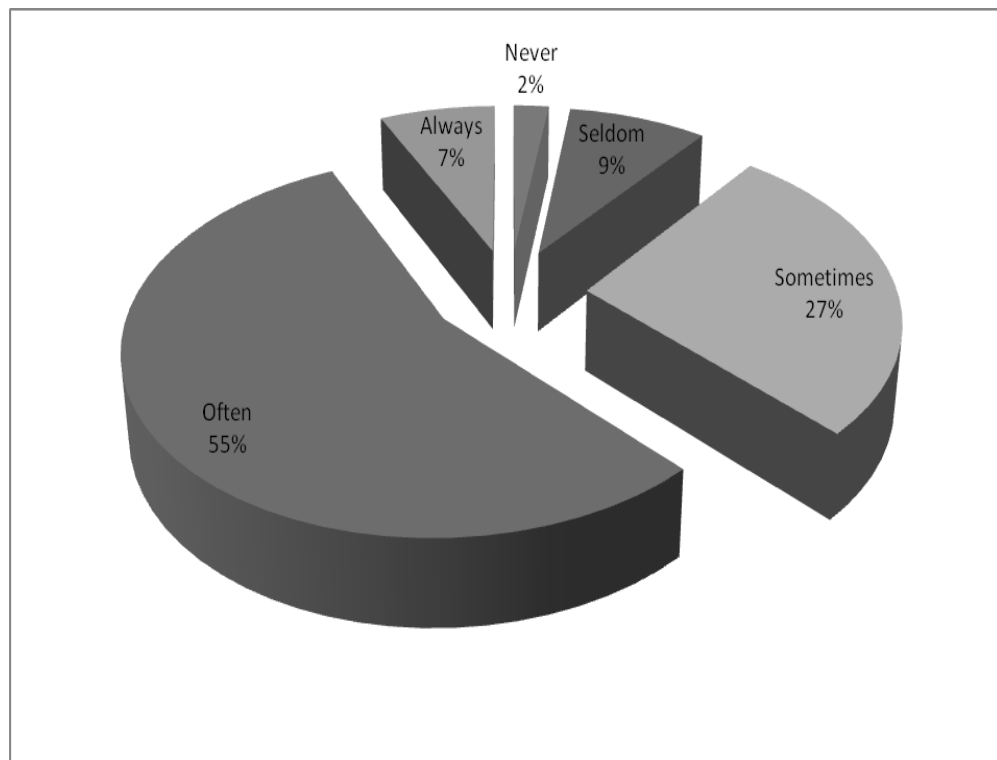
**Table 4.19: Extent to Which Product Types Influence FPD**

Items	SD	D	N	A	SA	Total percentage
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Toys	2.7	3.8	7.6	47.3	38.6	100
Breakfast cereals	1.6	6.0	17.4	56.5	18.5	100
Video games	4.9	4.9	7.6	56.0	26.6	100
Stationery and books	1.6	1.6	8.2	62.0	26.6	100
Child(ren) clothes and shoes	0.5	4.3	10.9	65.8	18.5	100
Vacation	4.3	12.5	20.2	50.0	13.0	100
Food and beverage	1.1	9.2	16.2	58.7	14.7	100
Dining out	4.9	12.0	24.5	53.3	5.4	100
computer	6.5	19.6	26.6	35.9	11.4	100
Mobile phone	8.7	17.9	17.9	48.4	7.1	100
Car	14.1	19.6	34.2	22.8	9.2	100
Television	5.4	10.9	14.1	61.4	8.2	100
Toothpaste	3.8	9.8	13.0	60.3	13.0	100
Bathing soap	4.9	10.3	10.9	59.8	14.1	100
Cosmetics(perfumes , lotions etc)	0	0	0	100	0	100

#### 4.6.5 Purchase Decisions

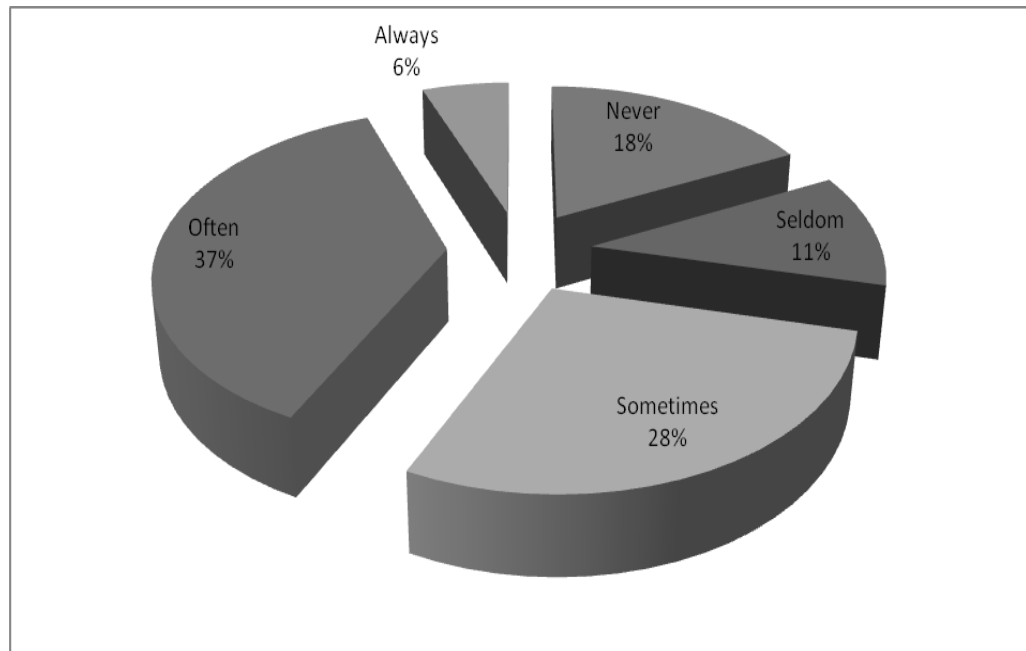
Family decision making is different from individual decision making and is more complex because of the likelihood of joint decisions and different role specifications for members (Arora, 2007). Family members exert varying degrees of participation within the purchase decision process. According to the study, 55% of the respondents often felt that their children had some influence at the need recognition stage of FPD process, 7% of the respondents always felt

that their children influenced the need recognition of the FPD process, 27% of the respondents sometimes felt that their children influenced the need recognition of the FPD process, 9% of the respondents were seldom that their children influenced the need recognition of the FPD process while 2% of the respondents never felt that their children influenced the need recognition of the FPD process. This is consistent with Kapoor (2001), who found out that children (initiator) first expressed the need for personal computers and television but the final purchase was made after consultation with other family members, mainly the husband. Figure 4.20 shows children's influence at need recognition stage.



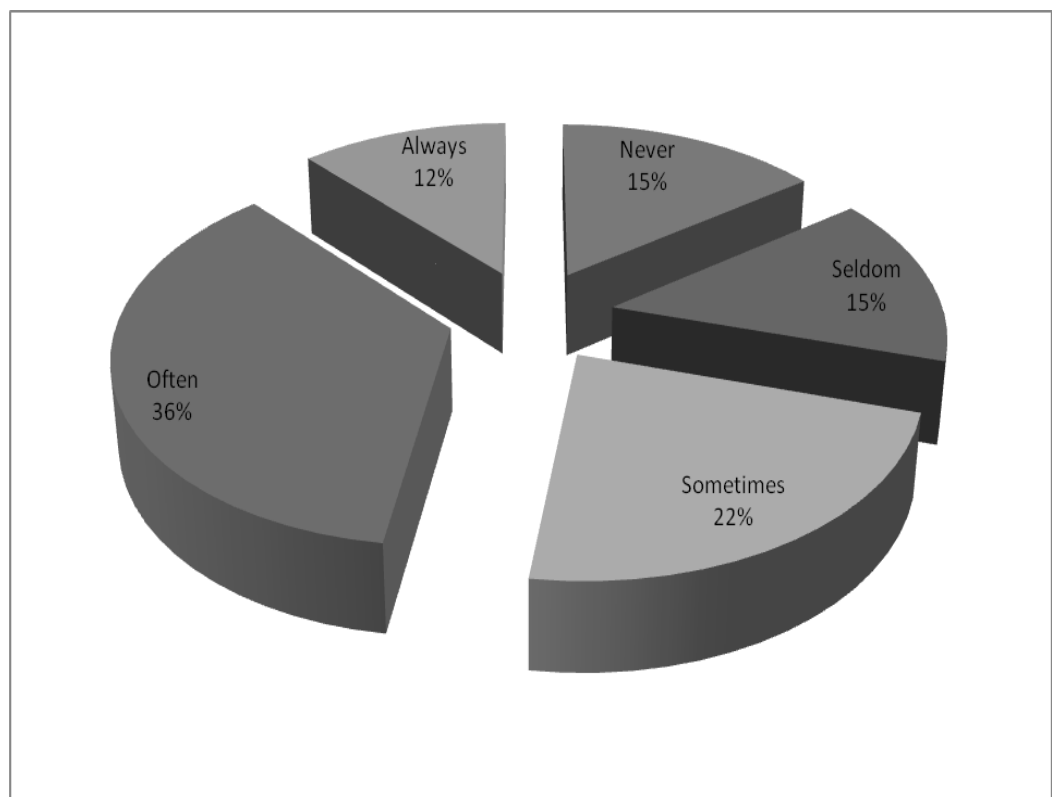
**Figure 4.20: Children's Influence at Need Recognition Stage**

According to the study, 37% of the respondents felt that their children often influence information search stage, 6% of the respondents always felt that their children influenced information search stage, 28% of the respondents are felt that their children sometimes influenced information search stage, 11% of the respondents seldom felt that their children influences information search stage while 18% never felt that their children influenced information search stage. This corresponds with Gotze *et al.* (2009), who found out that most children spent more time than grown-ups discussing innovations like digital cameras, mobile phones, and sports equipment. Along with their friends, they compared what they had and reflected on what was new in the market, and they dedicated more interest to what it would be like if they had a specific product, e.g. faster internet. Figure 4.21 shows the extent to which children influence the information search stage.



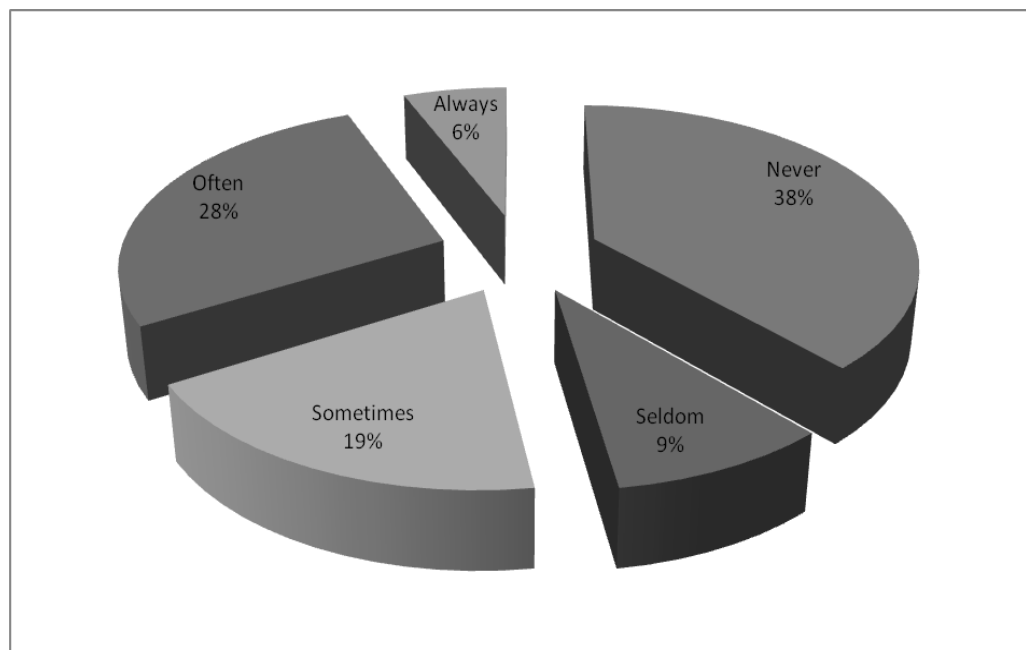
**Figure 4.21: Children’s influence at Information Search Stage**

According to the study 36% of the respondents felt that their children often had influence at the evaluation of alternatives stage, 12% of the respondents felt that their children always had influence at the evaluation of alternatives stage, 22% of the respondents felt that their children sometimes had influence at the evaluation of alternatives stage, 15% of the respondents felt that their children seldom had influence at the evaluation of alternatives stage while 15% of the respondents felt that their children never had influence at the evaluation of alternatives stage. Wut and Chou (2009) found that children have more influence in the choice-making stage of decision making and parents still control the final decision, which is consistent with previous research findings (Gotze *et al.* (2009). Figure 4.22 shows the degree of children's influence at evaluation of alternatives stage;



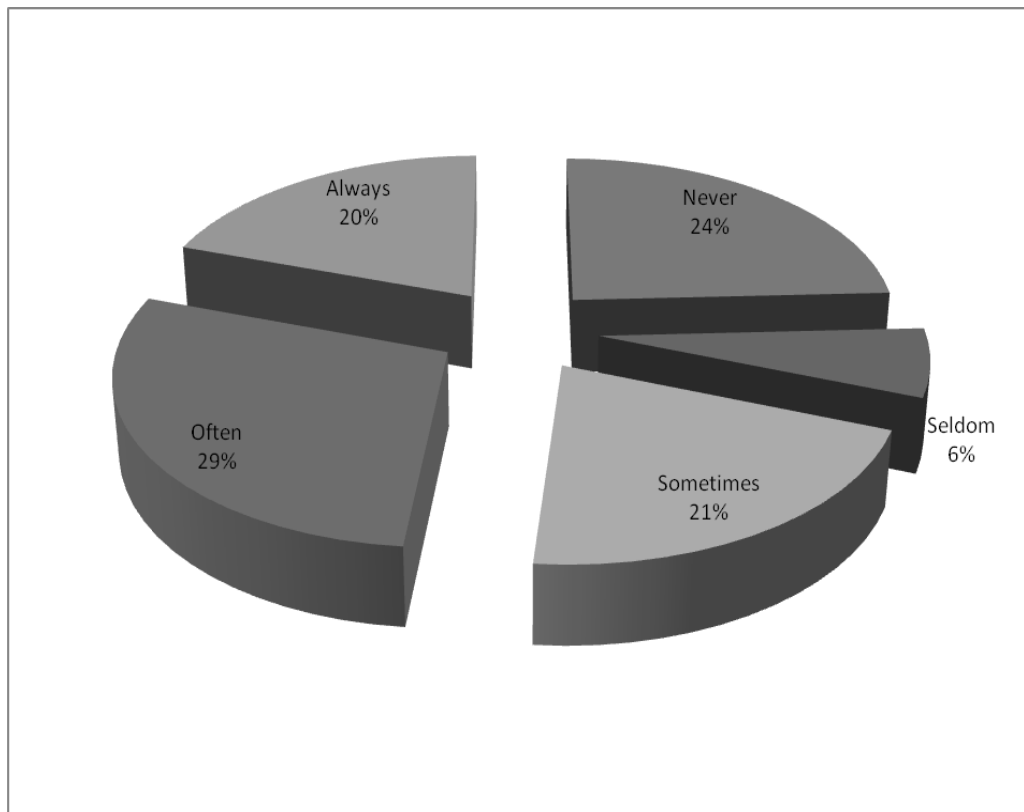
**Figure 4.22: Children's Influence at Evaluation of Alternatives Stage**

According to the study 28% of the respondents felt that their children often had FPD influence at the purchase decision stage, 6% of the respondents felt that their children always had some influence at the purchase decision stage, 19% of the respondents felt that sometimes their children had FPD influence at the purchase decision stage, 9% were seldom while 38% of the respondents never thought that their children had FPD influence at the purchase decision stage. This corresponds with (Desai, 2008), who found out that children do not know how much to spend but they can make communicative decisions such as model, color, brand, shape and time of purchase (Norgaard, 2007). Beatty and Beatty, (2002) stated that children would make the decision based on the pre-determined boundaries established by the parents like the parent deciding on the model of the car and the child choosing the color. Figure 4.23 shows the extent to which Children's Influence at Purchase Decision Stage.



**Figure 4.23: Children's Influence at Purchase Decision Stage**

The study indicates that 29% of the respondents felt that their children often did have purchase decision influence at the post purchase behavior stage, 20% of the respondents felt that their children always had purchase decision influence at the post purchase behavior stage, 21% of the respondents felt that their children sometimes had purchase decision influence at the post purchase behavior stage, 6% and 24% seldom and never felt that their children did have purchase decision influence at the post purchase behavior stage. Figure 4.24 shows the degree to which children's influence post purchase behavior stage.



**Figure 4.24: Children's Influence at Post Purchase Behavior Stage**

#### **4.6.6 Culture**

According to the study 96% of the respondents were Christians while 4% were Muslims. Kenya is a multicultural country and is represented by over 70



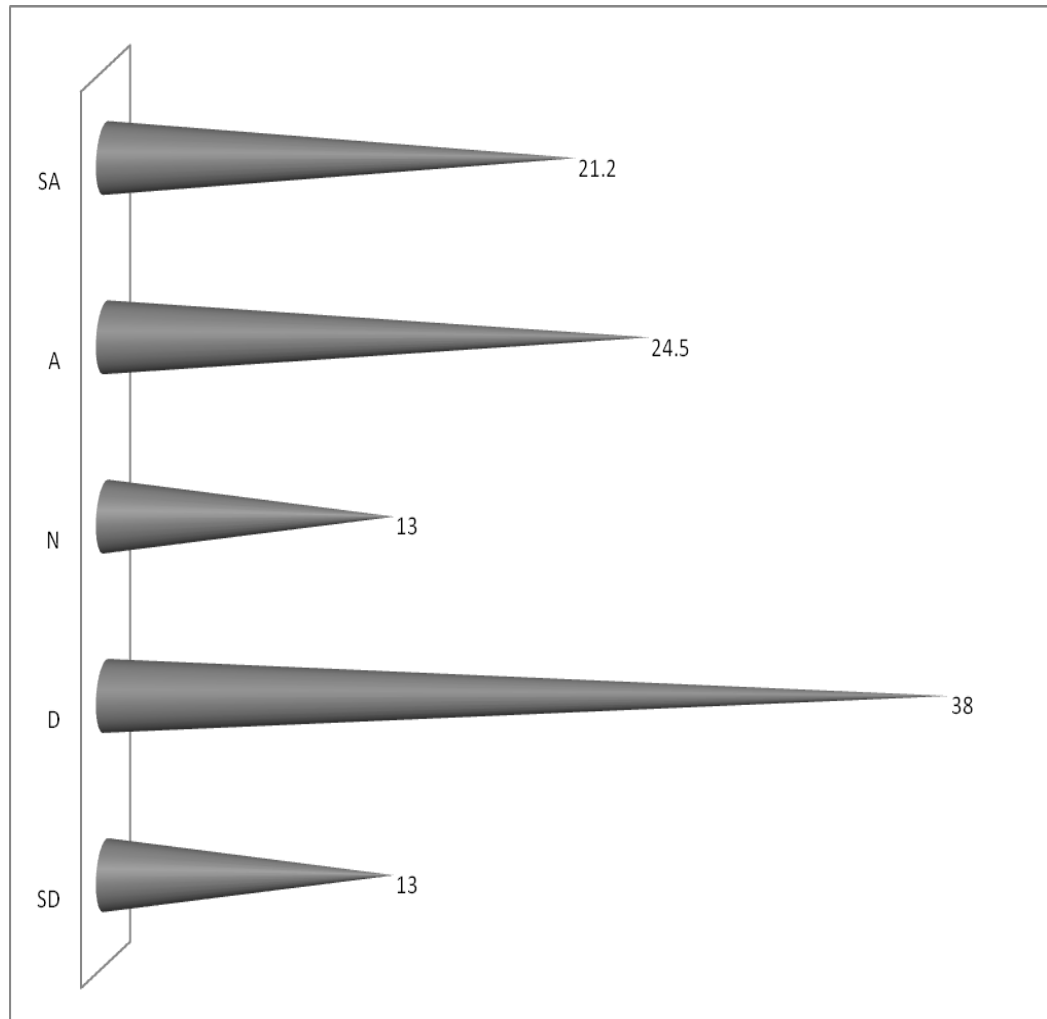
distinct ethnic groups ranging in size from about 7 million Kikuyu to about 500 El Molo who live on the shore of Lake Turkana (Bwisa and Ndolo, 2011). According to Bwisa and Ndolo (2011), the five largest ethnic groups are the Kikuyu, Luo, Luyhia, Kamba and Kalenjin. This study was able to capture a mix of respondents from 16 ethnic groups as shown on table 4.20.

**Table 4.20: Respondents Ethnic Group**

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Kikuyu	46	25.0
	Kamba	17	9.2
	Kalenjin	10	5.4
	Luo	31	16.8
	Luyhya	22	12.0
	Meru	20	10.9
	Embu	4	2.2
	Boran	2	1.1
	kisii	17	9.2
	Ndigo	2	1.1
	Turkana	1	.5
	Taita	4	2.2
	Mijikenda	1	.5
	Maasai	2	1.1
	Pokot	1	.5
	Nubian	4	2.2
	Total	184	100.0

According to the study, 21.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that it is only the husband who made FPD, 24.4% agreed it is only husbands who made FPD. This concurs with the Hofstede's as quoted by Bwisa and Ndolo (2011), that cultural dimension of power distance is a general measure of the degree of interpersonal influence that those who hold power in a social structure can

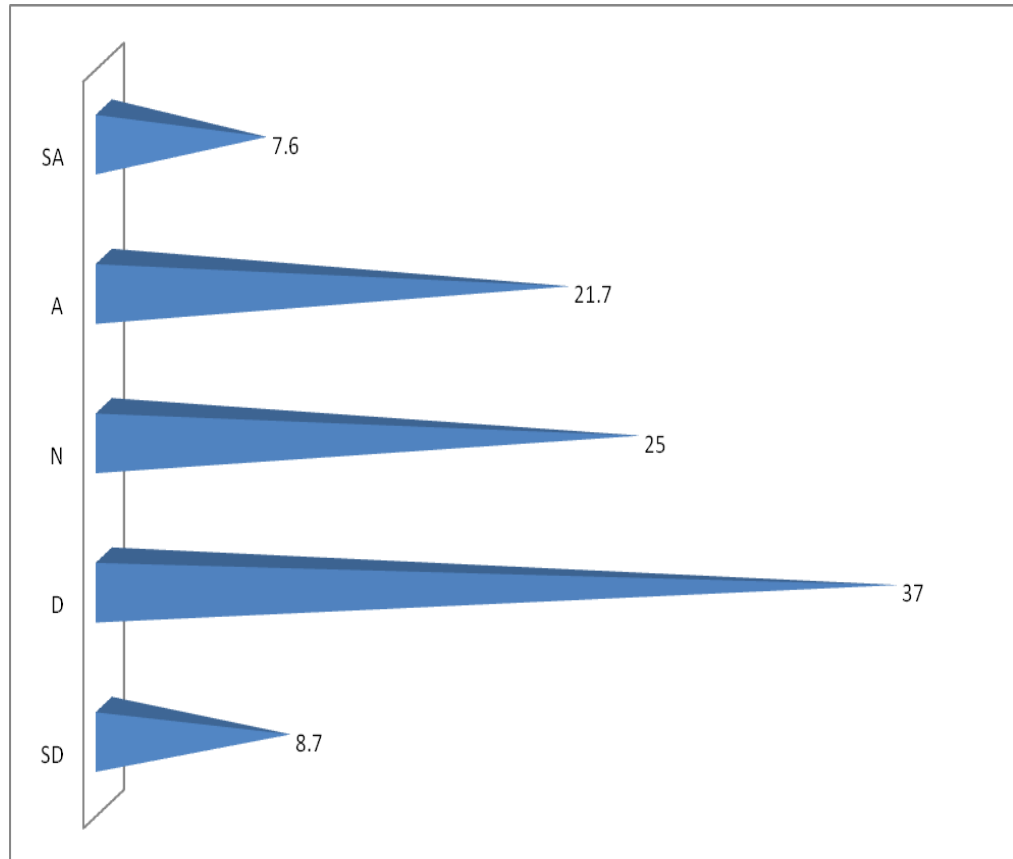
exert over those who lack power. 13% of the respondents were neutral, 38% of the respondents disagreed that it is husbands who made FPD while 13% strongly agreed that only husbands alone made FPD. Figure 4.25 shows the extent to which husbands made FPD.



**Figure 4.25: Extent to Which Husband Makes FPD Alone**

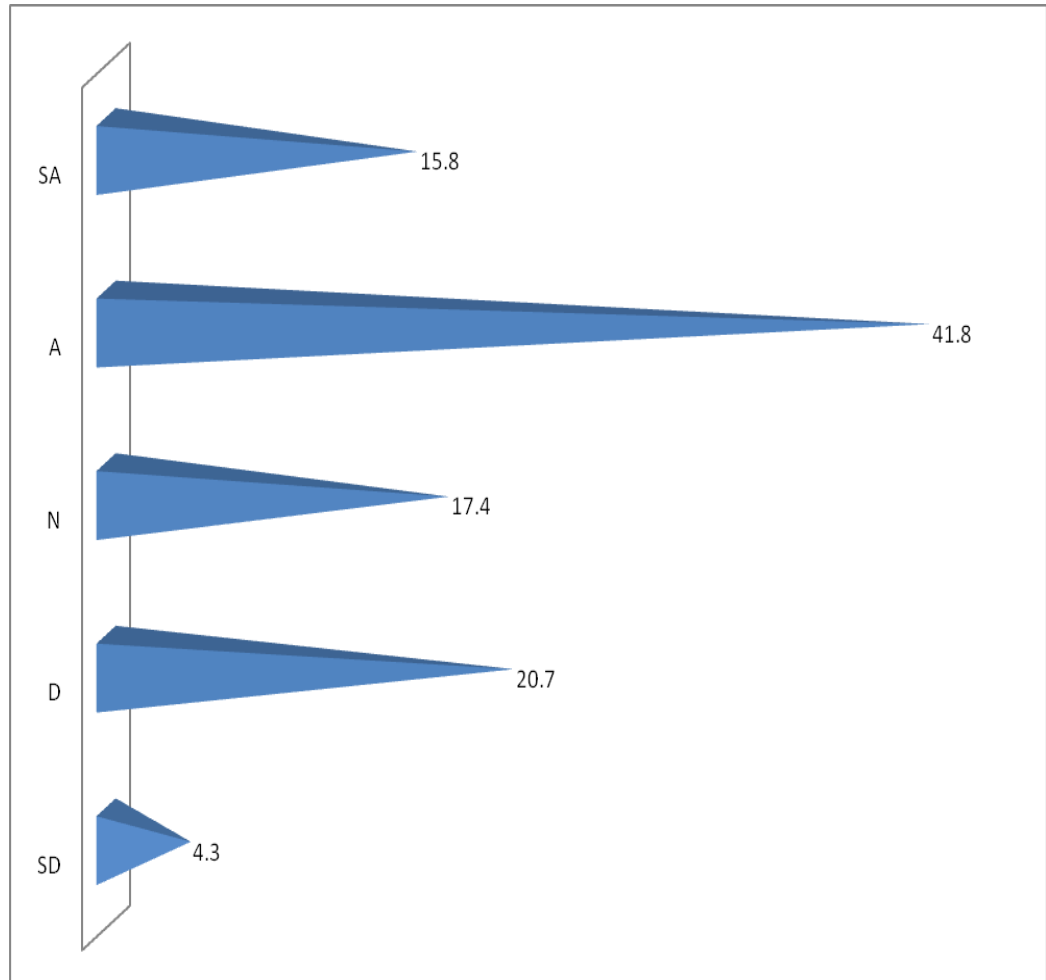
According to the study, 7.6% of the respondents strongly agreed that it was only wives who made FPD, 21.7% of the respondents agreed that it is only wives who made FPD, 25% of the respondents were neutral, 37% of the respondents disagreed that it was wives alone who made FPD while 8.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed that it was only wives who made FPD.

Figure 4.26 shows the extent to which wife makes FPD alone;



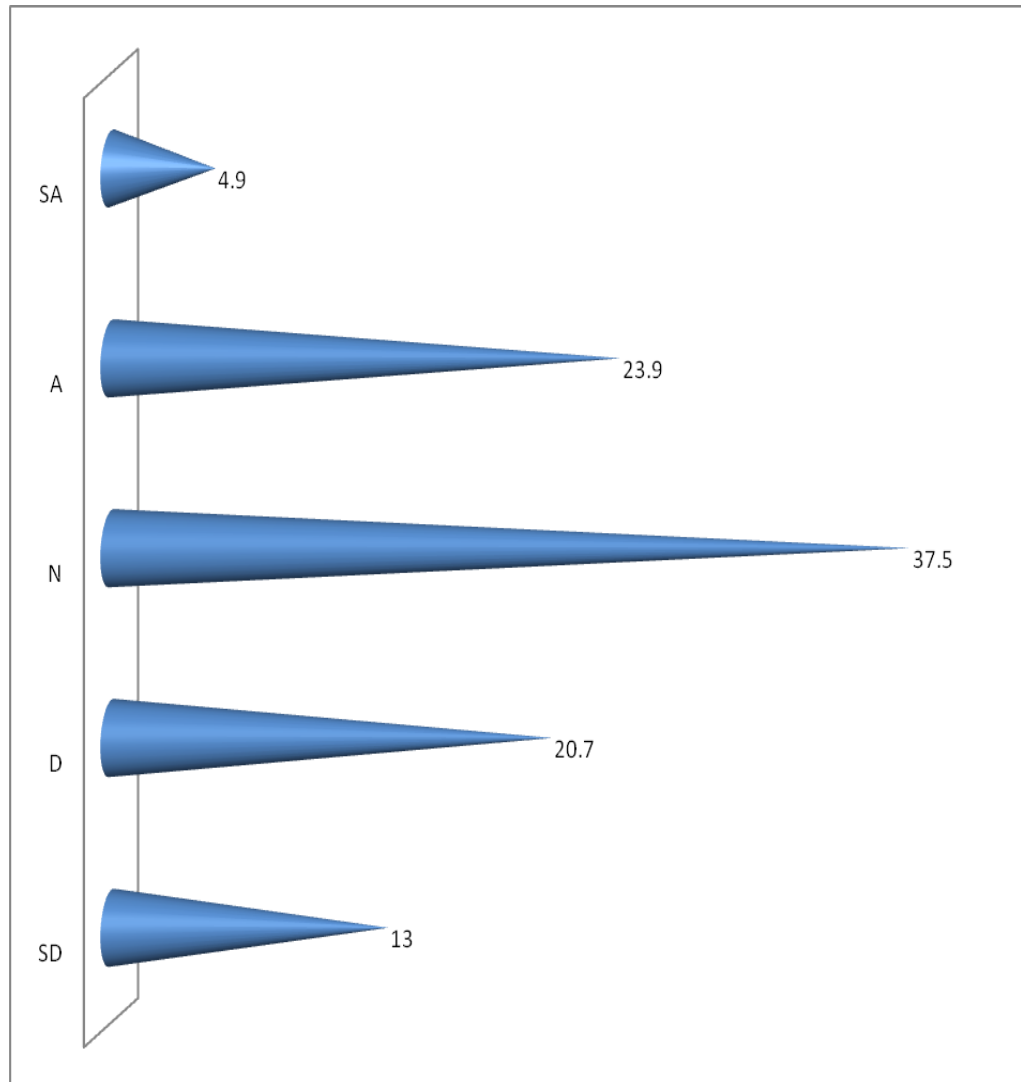
**Figure 4.26: Extent to Which Wife Makes FPD Alone**

Figure 4.27 shows that 15.8% of the respondents strongly agreed that FPD culturally were made by both husband and wife, 41.8% of the respondents also agreed that FPD were culturally made by the husband and wife. This concurs with the Hofstede's cultural dimension of masculinity as quoted by Shoham and Dalakas, (2005) who downplayed learned styles of behavior that have been stereotypically applied to males and females and reinforced a culture whose group decision making is preferred over individual initiatives. 17.4% of the respondents were neutral, 20.7% of the respondents disagreed that FPD were culturally made by husband and wife, while 4.3 of the respondents strongly disagreed that FPD were made by both husband and wife.



**Figure 4.27: Extent to Which Husband and Wife Make FPD**

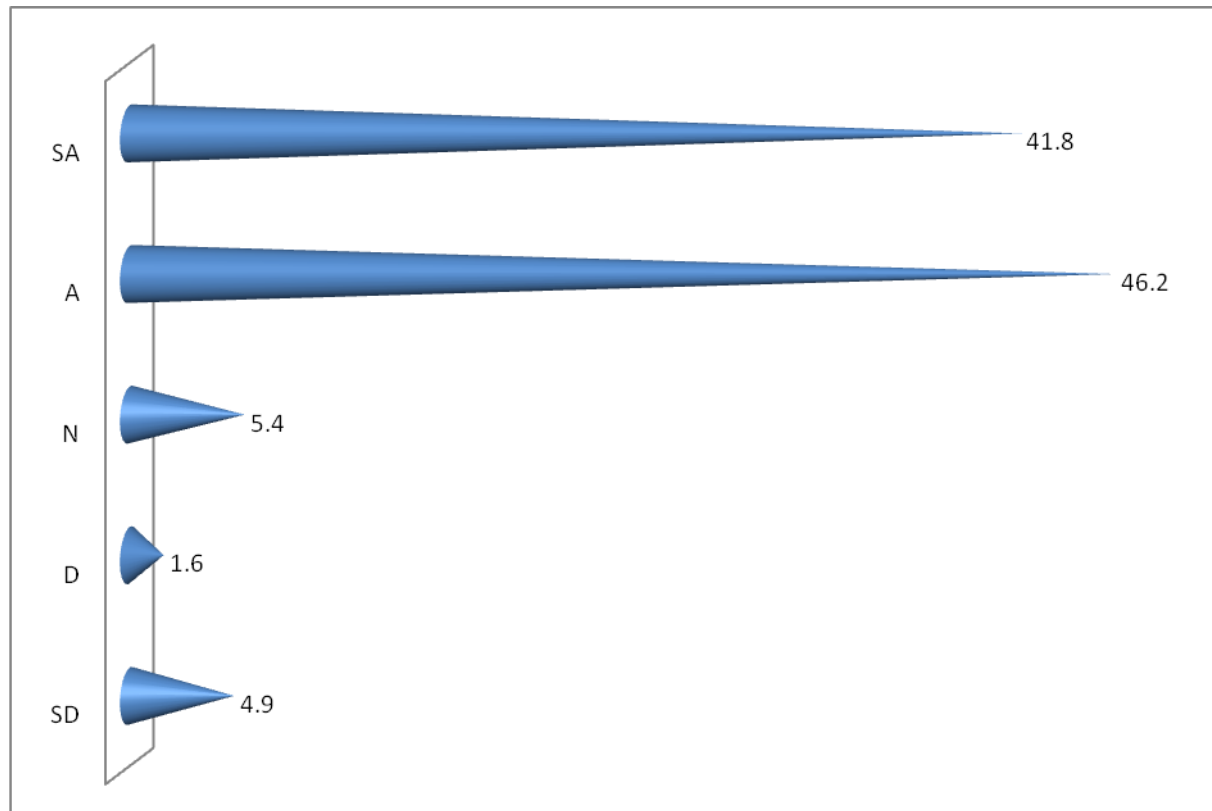
According to figure 4.28 below, 4.9% and 23.9% of the respondents, strongly agreed and agreed respectively that children culturally accompanied their parents during shopping. 37.5% of the respondents were neutral that children culturally accompanied their parents during shopping, 20.7% of the respondents disagreed that children culturally accompanied their parents during shopping while 13% of the respondents strongly disagreed that children culturally accompanied their parents during shopping.



**Figure 4.28: Extent to Which Children Accompanied Parents during Shopping**

Figure 4.29, shows that 41.8% and 46.2% of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively that children culturally belonged to the society. This concurs with the Hofstede's cultural dimension of individualism as quoted by Shoham and Dalakas (2005) which states that in individualist societies, personal values and goals are the prime determinant of behavior and self identity. Conversely, in collectivist societies, such as Kenya, group values and goals predominate. Therefore, children's influence culturally would not have

been felt in family purchase decisions. 5.4% of the respondents were neutral that children culturally belonged to the society, 1.6% of the respondents disagreed that children culturally belonged to the community while 4.9% of the respondents strongly disagreed that children culturally belonged to the community.



**Figure 4.29: Extent to Which Children Belonged to the Community**

#### **4.7 Regression Analysis**

The research used multiple regression analysis to determine the linear relationships between the dependent, independent and moderating variables. All the five null hypotheses stated in chapter one were tested using Regression models to determine the relationship between the dependent variable which is purchase decisions and independent variables which are parent-child

relationship, peer group, advertising and product types. The R-Square, also known as the Coefficient of determination is the statistic used to evaluate model fit. R-square is 1 minus the ratio of residual variability. When the variability of the residual values around the regression line relative to the overall variability is small, the predictions from the regression equation are good. The R-square value is an indicator of how well the model fits the data (e.g., an R-square close to 1.0 indicates that we have accounted for almost all of the variability with the variables specified in the model). The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) and correlation coefficient (R) shows the degree of association between dependent and independent variables.

#### **4.7.1 Test of Hypothesis one**

$H_{01}$  - Parent-child relationships have no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

To test a hypothesis means to tell on the basis of the data the researcher collected, whether or not the hypothesis seems to be valid (Kothari, 2004). The purpose of hypothesis testing is to determine the accuracy of the study hypotheses due to the fact that the researcher has collected a sample of data and not a census (Cooper & Schindler, 2002). To test hypothesis one, which had the null hypothesis that there is no linear relationship between parent-child relationship and family purchase decisions, a linear regression F-test was carried out using ANOVA to determine whether there was a regression relationship between parent-child relationship and family purchase decisions. The results of the linear regression indicate that  $R^2$  is equal to 16.5% and R is

40.6%. This is an indication that there is a moderate relationship between parent-child relationship and family purchase decisions.

**Table 4.21: Model of Parent-child Relationship/Purchase Decisions**

<b>Model Summary</b>	
R	R Squared
0.406	0.165

The independent variable is parent-child relationship.

Table 4.22 shows results of ANOVA. F-test results of 35.857 and the critical values of F-test (1,182 degrees of freedom) at 0.05 is  $3.84 < 35.857$ . The null hypothesis was rejected and a conclusion that there is a linear relationship between parent-child relationship and family purchase decisions in Kenya was made. It was also revealed that parent-child relationships have a significant effects on purchase decisions since P-value is .000 which is less than 5% level of significance.

**Table 4.22: ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.689	1	5.689	35.857	.000(a)
	Residual	28.874	182	.159		
	Total	34.562	183			

a. Predictors: (Constant), X1-Parent-child relationship

b. Dependent Variable: Y-Purchase Decisions

To test this hypothesis, the beta coefficient was computed and t-test used to test the relationship between parent-child relationship and family purchase



decisions. This was tested at 5% significant level. The results indicate that t-test found that  $\beta$  coefficient was statistically significant since t-value at 5% is  $5.988 > \text{critical } t=1.96$ . The null hypothesis was rejected since the t-test indicated that  $\beta$  coefficient was different from zero, at 5% significant level. Table 4.23 shows a positive gradient which reveals that an increased in parent-child relationship increases purchase decisions. Wimalasir (2004) found out that family purchase decisions increased as parents allowed various tactics used by children to influence them as was shown on table 2.1. This enhances household participation and self-reliance.

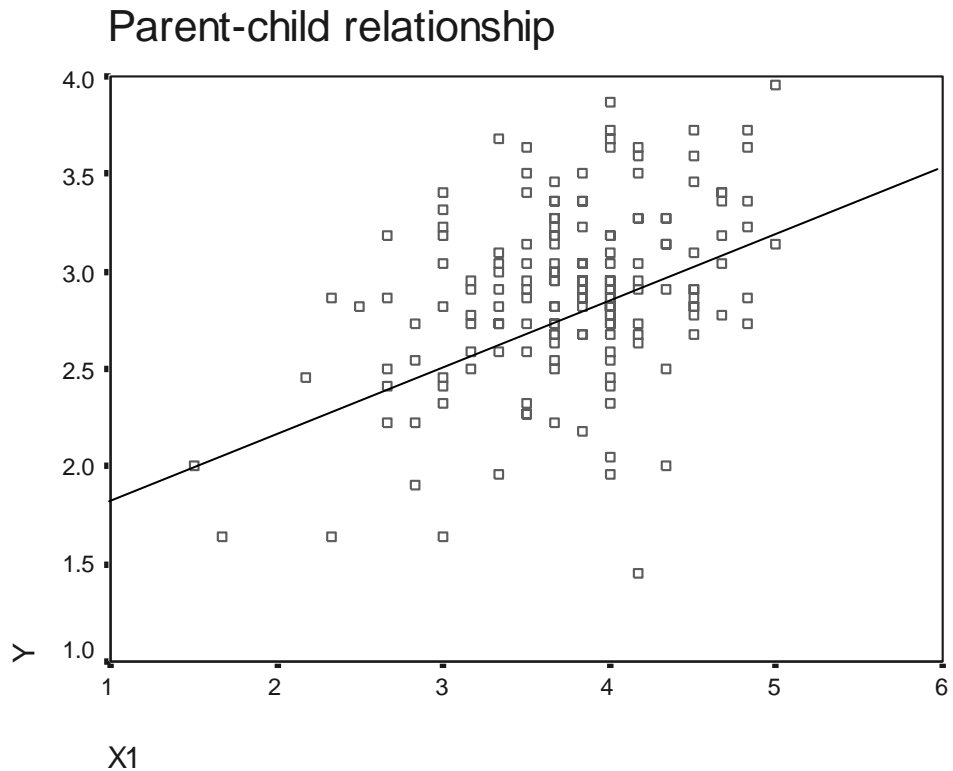
**Table 4.23: Model**

Model		Coefficients		t	Sig
		B	Std Error		
1	(Constant)	1.783	.188	9.486	.000
	Parent-child Relationship	.295	.049	5.988	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y

The equation,  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$  now becomes  $y = 1.783 + 0.295 X_1 + e$

Figure 4.30 shows a scatter graph of parent-child relationship on purchase decisions in Kenya. The diagram indicates a positive gradient which is an indication that parent-child relationship influences purchase decisions. Based on the scatter graph, the null hypothesis was rejected since the graph indicates a positive linear relationship.



**Figure 4.30: Scatter Diagram on Parent-child Relationship/Purchase Decisions**

**1. Discussion of Findings on the relationship between parent-child relationship and family purchase decisions**

The stated null hypothesis 1 in this study was;  $H_{02}$ : Parent-child relationships have no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

According to the study, there is a linear relationship between parent-child relationship and family purchase decisions in Kenya. It is also revealed that parent-child relationships have a significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya. Family purchase decision-making is a joint process where children as well as parents influence decisions, and participate

and carry out various tasks. The results support these expectations as supported by Norgaard (2007).  $R^2$  value for parent-child relationship is not high i.e. (16.5%) indicating that it influences only partly. It shows that it is important to include both parents and children in a family purchase decision-process framework. 98% of the respondents did agree that they encouraged their children to develop skills in selecting products. This implied that children would get an early exposure into developing good consumer behaviors. The study confirmed a repertoire of strategies that children use to convince their parents as shown on table 4.15, on what children promises in return to a purchase request favor. This is in line with Maquis (2004), who found out that; children have an expanded repertoire of strategies for influencing family purchase decisions. The study confirmed a preference for persuasive strategies used by children aged 8-14 years; namely, expressing their opinions, stating their preferences or begging and emotional strategies i.e. asking repetitively for a product or being nice and affectionate.

#### **4.7.2 Test of Hypothesis two**

$H_{02}$  - Children peer group have no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

The R-square and R shows the degree of association between peer group and purchase decisions. The results of the linear regression indicate that  $R^2$  is equal to 13.5% and R is 36.7%. This is an indication that there is a moderate association between peer group influence and family purchase decisions.

**Table 4.24: Model of Peer group /Purchase Decisions**

---

<b>Model Summary</b>	
R	R Squared
0.367	0.135

---

The independent variable is peer group.

Table 4.25 shows results of ANOVA test which reveal that peer groups have significant effect on purchase decisions since P-value is .000 which is less than 5% level of significance. This is shown by the linear model  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$  where  $X_1$  is peer group. F-value at 5%, (1, 182 degrees of freedom) is 28.296 and the critical value is 3.84. Since  $3.84 < 28.296$ , the null hypothesis was therefore rejected and a conclusion made that there is a linear relationship between children's peer group and family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

**Table 4.25: ANOVA (b)**

---

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.650	1	4.650	28.296	.000(a)
	Residual	29.912	182	.164		
	Total	34.562	183			

---

a. Predictors: (Constant), X2-Peer Group

b. Dependent Variable: Y-Purchase Decisions

Table 4.26 shows the beta coefficient of children's peer group on family purchase decisions. The null hypothesis state that  $\beta=0$  and therefore, there's no relationship between children's peer group and family purchase decisions. It was desired to test the null hypothesis that the slope  $\beta$  is equal to some

specified value  $\beta_0$  (often taken to be 0), which has the hypothesis that x and y are unrelated. The t-test was done at n-2 degrees of freedom. The results indicate that t-test found that  $\beta$  coefficient was statistically significant since t-value at 5% is  $5.319 > \text{critical } t=1.96$ . The null hypothesis was rejected and therefore the t-test indicated that  $\beta$  coefficient was different from 0 at 5% significant level.

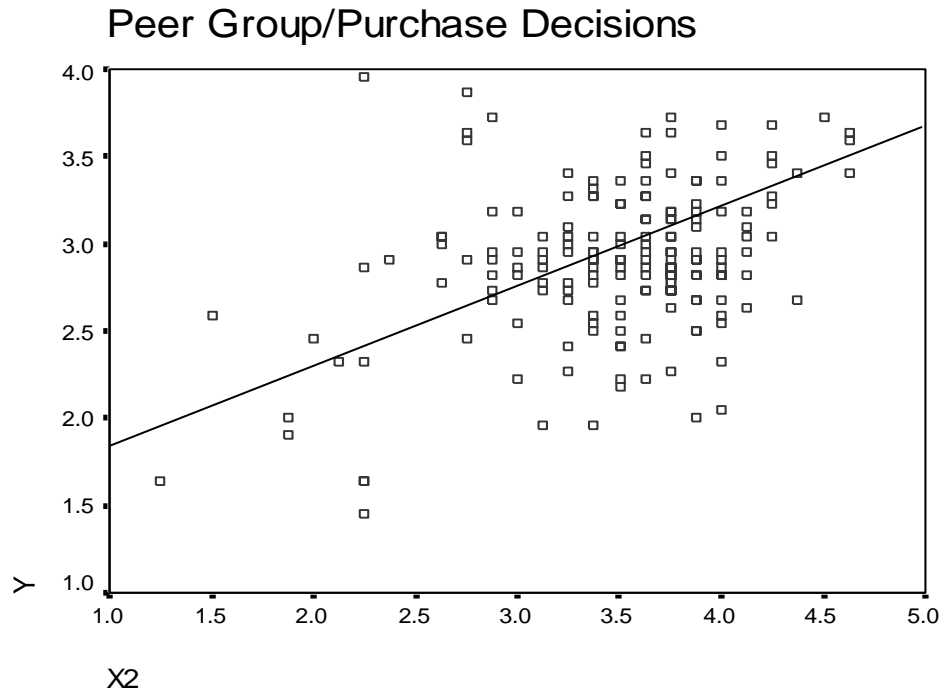
**Table 4.26: Model**

Model		Coefficients		t	Sig
		B	Std Error		
1	(Constant)	1.936	.183	10.605	.000
	Peer Group	.275	.52	5.319	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y

The equation,  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + e$  now becomes  $y = 1.936 + 0.275 X_2 + e$

Figure 4.31 shows a scatter graph of peer group on purchase decisions in Kenya. The diagram indicates a positive linear relationship which is an indication that peer group pressure influences family purchase decisions. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted that children's peer group has a significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.



**Figure 4.31: Scatter Diagram on Peer Group/Purchase Decisions**

**2. Discussion of findings on the relationship between peer group pressure and family purchase decisions**

The stated null hypothesis 2 in this study was;  $H_{02}$ : Children’s peer group has no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

Results of ANOVA test revealed that children’s peer groups have a significant effect on family purchase decisions in Kenya.  $R^2$  value for peer group is not high i.e. (13.5%) indicating that it influences only partly. The results support existing definitions of influence distinguishing between active and passive influence (Grønhøj, 2002). The study found out that 98% of the children represented conformed to a group or groups in the society. It is only 2% of the respondents who could not attribute their children’s conformity to any group in the society. While that may not be true, the respondents may also be out of

touch with their children. These kinds of parents/guardians may be a bit conservative and hold on to their own values which may not necessarily be congruent to those of the society. The scatter diagram on figure 4.31 indicated a positive linear relationship which is an indication that peer group pressure influences family purchase decisions. Therefore, from the findings, we can infer that the more Kenyan children are involved in peer groups, the more influence they extend to family purchase decisions. This is in agreement with the findings of Batounis-Ronner, Hunt and Mallalieu (2007) who found out that the influence that peer groups exert on the types of products and brands an individual purchases, is diverse, with peers exercising a feeling that a purchase would enhance one's image with the group, and allowing one's liking of the group to influence one's decision to purchase a product.

#### **4.7.3 Test of Hypothesis Three**

H<sub>03</sub>- Advertising to children has no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

The linear regression analysis shows a relationship between the dependent variable which is purchase decisions and independent variable which is advertising. The coefficient of determination R square and correlation coefficient R shows the degree of association between advertising and family purchase decisions in Kenya. The results indicate that R square was 13.0% while R was 36.1%. Thus the conclusion that there is a moderate association between advertising and family purchase decisions in Kenya.

**Table 4.27: Model of Advertising /Purchase Decisions**

<b>Model Summary</b>		
	R	R Squared
	0.361	0.130

The independent variable is advertising.

Table 4.28 shows results of ANOVA test which reveal that peer groups have significant effect on purchase decisions since P-value is .000 which is less than 5% level of significance. This is shown by the linear model  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 + e$  where  $X_3$  is advertising.

**Table 4.28: ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.494	1	4.494	27.205	.000(a)
	Residual	30.068	182	.165		
	Total	34.562	183			

a. Predictors: (Constant), X3-Advertising

b. Dependent Variable: Y-Purchase Decisions

F-value=27.205 and the critical F =3.84

$3.84 < 27.205$  and therefore we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is a linear relationship between advertising and FPD in Kenya.

Table 4.29 shows a positive gradient which reveals that an increase in advertising increases purchase decisions. The results indicate that t-test found that  $\beta$  coefficient was statistically significant since t-value at 5% is  $5.216 > \text{critical } t = 1.96$ . The null hypothesis was rejected since the t-test indicated that  $\beta$  coefficient was different from 0 at 5% significant level.



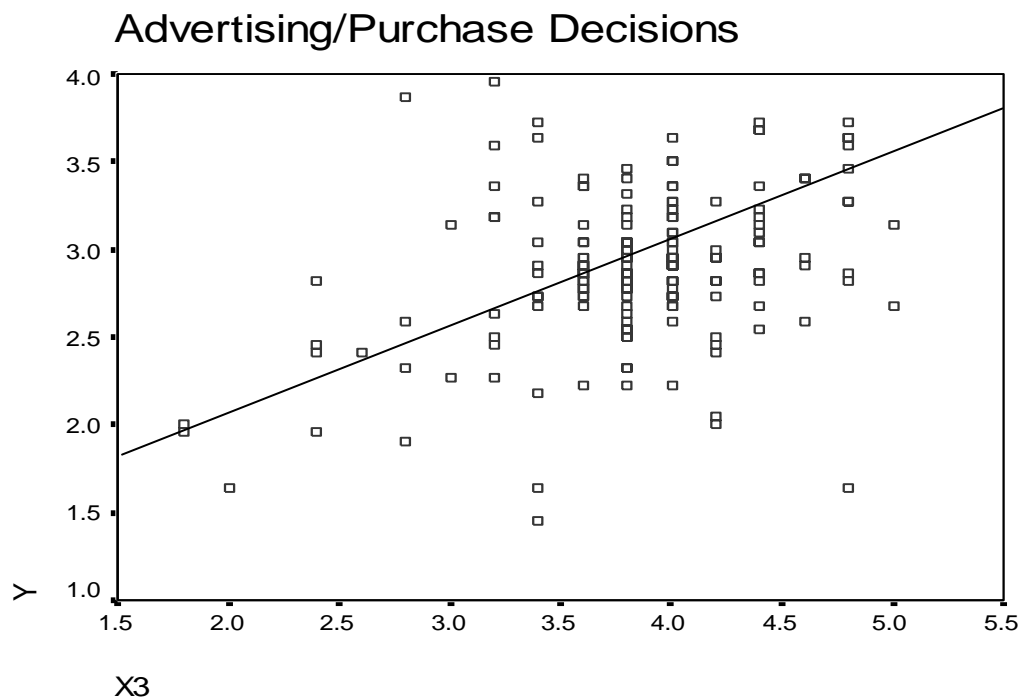
**Table 4.29: Model**

Model		Coefficients		t	Sig
		B	Std Error		
1	(Constant)	1.819	.208	8.933	.000
	Peer Group	.281	.054	5.216	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y

The equation,  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 + e$  now becomes  $y = 1.819 + 0.281 X_3 + e$

Figure 4.32 shows a scatter graph of advertising on purchase decisions in Kenya. The diagram indicates a positive gradient which is an indication that advertising influences purchase decisions. Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted that advertising has a significant effect on family purchase decisions in Kenya.



**Figure 4.32: Scatter Diagram on Advertising/Purchase Decisions**

### **3. Discussion of Findings on the relationship between advertising and FPD**

The stated null hypothesis 3 in this study was;  $H_{03}$ : Advertising to children has no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

The two dimensions of media that confers influence upon children are advertising and editorial/programming content, which specifically intend to inform young people about products and encourage them to purchase (O'sullivan, 2005). This study also confirmed advertising to children as having a positive and significant influence on family purchase decisions in Kenya. Family purchase decision-making is a joint process where children and parents influence decisions. The results support these expectations.  $R^2$  value for advertising is 13% indicating that advertising to children only influences partly.

This concurs with Desai (2008), who found out that, children are in the environment of the omnipresence of TV in which programmes and commercials are used with persuasive intentions. Considerable evidence has shown that the more children interact with the mass media, the more consumer behaviour learned by children and the more consumer socialization occurs. This is depicted by the study findings of the linear relationship between advertising to children and family purchase decisions. The findings concur with O'sullivan (2005) who found out that advertising has an iconic significance on the promotion aimed at children.

#### **4.7.4 Test of Hypothesis Four**

$H_{04}$ : Product types no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

The linear regression analysis of  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$  shows a relationship between the dependent variable which is purchase decisions and independent variable which is product types ( $X_1$ ). The coefficient of determination (R square) and correlation coefficient (R) shows the degree of association between product types and family purchase decisions in Kenya. Results of the linear regression indicate that R was 45.0% and R square was 20.3% which is an indication that there is a moderate relationship between product types and family purchase decisions in Kenya. The findings concur with Beatty (2002), who found out that children's influence to family purchase decisions seems to vary across all product categories.

**Table 4.30: Model of Product Types/Purchase Decisions**

<b>Model Summary</b>	
R	R Squared
0.450	0.203

The independent variable is product types.

Table 4.31 shows results of ANOVA test reveal that product types have a significant effect on purchase decisions since P-value is .000 which is less than 5% level of significance. This is shown by the linear model  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$  where  $X_1$  is product types. Since p-value is the probability of finding a value of the test statistic as large or larger than that obtained, given that the null hypothesis is true, the null hypothesis is rejected as p-value is  $.000 < 0.05$ .

Further, F-value=46.267 and the critical F =3.84

$3.84 < 46.267$  and therefore we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is a linear relationship between product types and FPD in Kenya.

**Table 4.31: ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.005	1	7.005	46.267	.000(a)
	Residual	27.557	182	.151		
	Total	34.562	183			

a. Predictors: (Constant), X4-Product Types

b. Dependent Variable: Y-Purchase Decisions

Table 4.32 shows a positive gradient which reveals that an increase in product types increases purchase decisions. The results indicate that t-test found that  $\beta$  coefficient was statistically significant since t-value at 5% is  $6.80 > \text{critical } t=1.96$ . The null hypothesis was rejected since the t-test indicated that  $\beta$  coefficient was different from 0 at 5% significant level.

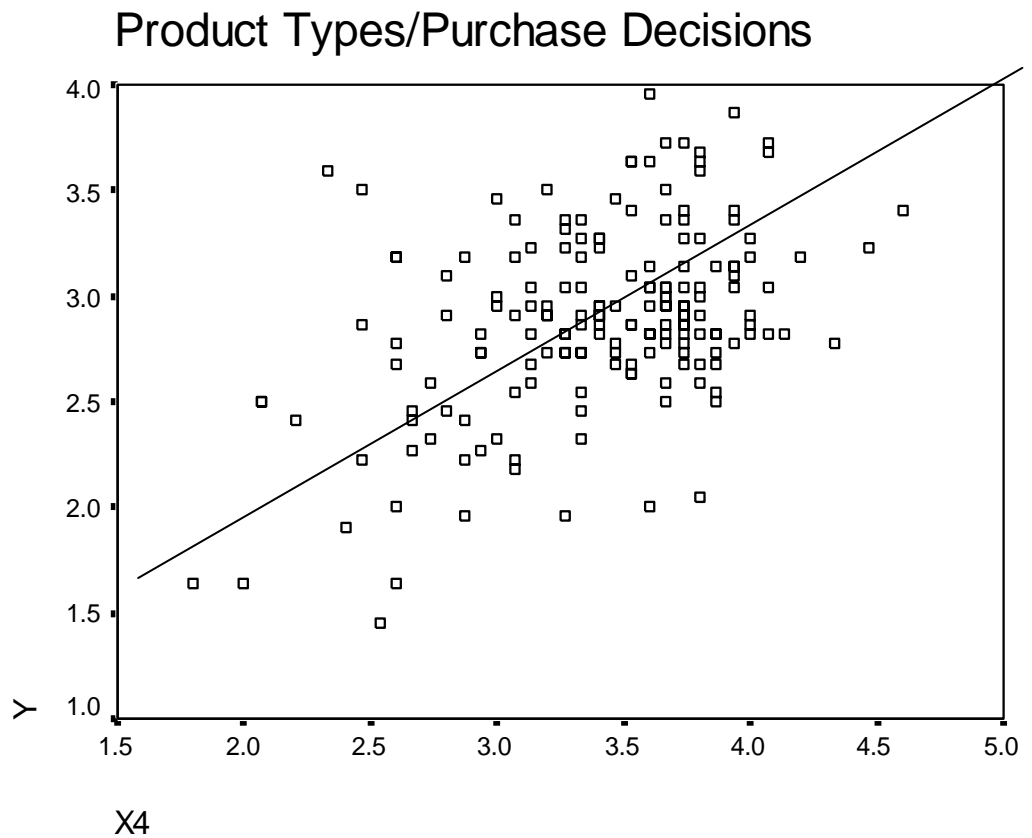
**Table 4.32: Model**

Model		Coefficients		t	Sig
		B	Std Error		
1	(Constant)	1.538	.202	7.630	.000
	Product Types	.398	.058	6.802	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y

The equation,  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_4 + e$  now becomes  $y = 1.538 + 0.398 X_4 + e$

Figure 4.33 shows a scatter graph of product types on purchase decisions in Kenya. The diagram indicates a positive gradient which is an indication that product types influence purchase decisions. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected and we accept the alternative hypothesis that product types have a significant effect on FPD in Kenya.



**Figure 4.33: Scatter Diagram on Product Types/Purchase Decisions**

**4. Discussion of Findings on the relationship between product types and FPD**

The stated null hypothesis 4 in this study was; *H04*: Product types have no significant influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

Product types/categories that were considered by this research were; toys, breakfast cereals, video games, stationery and books, children clothes and shoes, vacation, food and beverage, dining out, computer, mobile phone, car, television, toothpaste, bathing soap and cosmetics. The Multiple Linear

Regression Analysis on Table 4.31 confirms a positive and significant linear relationship between FPD and product types. The findings of this research indicate that children's influence on FPD vary across different product types, whether the product is for a child's own use or whether the product is used by the whole family. The findings are consistent with those of Chaudhary and Gupta (2012) who found out that children have influencing power for almost all product categories; whether the product is for the child's own use or the product is for family use. The  $R^2$  for product types was 20.3% indicating that product types influence family purchase decisions only partly. It shows that it is important to include both parents and children in a family purchase decision-process framework.

#### **4.7.5 Test of Hypothesis Five**

$H_{05}$ : Culture has no significant moderating influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

A Moderated Multiple Regression (MMR) model was used to test the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between children influences and family purchase decisions. A variable  $z$  is a moderator of the relationship between dependent variable ( $y$ ) and independent variables ( $x$ ). Using a Moderated Multiple Regression to estimate the effect of a moderator variable  $z$  on the  $x$ - $y$  relationship involves a regression equation that involves  $y$  as a dependent and  $x$  and  $z$  as independent variables.

In addition, the Moderated Multiple Regression (MMR) equation includes a third predictor consisting of the  $z*x$  product. This product term carries information regarding the  $x*z$  interaction which is the moderating effect of  $z$ .

Rejecting the null hypothesis (the coefficient of the product term), that  $\beta_{iz} = 0$  indicates the presence of a moderating or interaction effect.

The Moderated Multiple Regression (MMR) model for hypothesis 5 was;

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4 + \beta_zZ + \beta_{1z}X_1Z + \beta_{2z}X_2Z + \beta_{3z}X_3Z + \beta_{4z}X_4Z + e$$

Where:  $y$  = dependent variable - children influence to family purchase decisions

$X_1$  = independent variable - parent- child relationship

$X_2$  = independent variable - peer group

$X_3$  = independent variable - advertising

$X_4$  = independent variable - product type

$\beta_0$  = constant or intercept

$\beta_i$  = are regression coefficients for  $X_i$  ( $i=1,2,3,4$ )

$Z$  = moderating variable - culture

$E$  = error term

$X_iZ$  = Interaction term of culture with each of the independent variables( $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4$ )

The results of the linear regression indicate that  $R^2$  is equal to 0.158, 0.146, 0.150 and 0.171 for parent child-relationship, peer group, advertising and product types while being moderated by culture respectively while their interaction terms were 0.061, 0.064, 0.062 and 0.075 respectively. This is an

indication that culture moderates parent-child relationships, peer group, advertising and product types. An F-test (Appendix 12: model 8) was used to check the significance of these overall fitted general moderated multiple regression models for testing hypothesis 5. The regression equation was found to be valid and significant as a whole and the results were; F-value=37.454 and the critical F =2.21.  $2.21 < 37.454$ . Further p-value is  $.000 < 0.05$  and therefore the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that culture has a significant moderating effect on family purchase decisions in Kenya. The decision rule is to reject  $H_0: \beta_{iz} = 0$  (1, 2, 3, and 4) if the coefficient of the interaction term is significantly different from zero, and consequently accept  $H_a: \beta_{1z} \neq 0$  (i=1, 2, 3, and 4). Based on the results of the regression analysis for moderating effects of culture below, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that culture has a significant moderating effect on family purchase decisions in Kenya.

**Table 4.33: Regression Analysis Results for Moderating Effect Culture**

Dependent Variable	Predictor	Standardized	R <sup>2</sup>	F	Sig
	Variable(s)	Coefficients Beta			
<b>Purchase decisions</b>	X1q	.061	.158	34.259	.000
	X2q	.064	.146	31.225	.000
	X3q	.062	.150	32.224	.000
	X4q	.075	.171	37.454	.000

X1q - interaction term between parent-child relationship and culture

X2q - interaction term children's peer group and culture



X3q - interaction term between advertising and culture

X4q - interaction term between product types and culture

## **5. Discussion of Findings for the Moderating effect of Culture**

The stated null hypothesis 5 in this study was; *H05*: Culture has no significant moderating influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.

Understanding cultural family dynamics when it comes to making purchase decisions can provide some meaningful insights to marketers regarding who to target with their marketing mix strategies: the father, the mother, both parents, or the children. This study examines children's influence on family purchase decision-making within the context of Kenyan families. Kenya is a multi-cultural state and, therefore, worthwhile studying. The study has utilized constructs to represent Hofstede's (1984) cultural dimensions of power distance, individualism, and uncertainty avoidance as quoted by Bwisa and Ndolo (2011). Specifically, Kenya is less individualistic, more uncertainty avoiding, and less power distant (Bwisa & Ndolo, 2011).

The results of the regression analysis on appendix 12 model 8 revealed that culture has a moderating effect on the relationship between children influences and purchase decisions in Kenya. There was an interaction term between culture with parent-child relationship, peer group, advertising and product types (X1q, X2q, X3q and X4q respectively). Parent child-relationship had  $R^2$  of 15.8% from 16.5%, peer group had  $R^2$  of 14.6% from 13.5%, and advertising had  $R^2$  of 15% from 13% while product types had  $R^2$  of 17.1% from 20.3%. This implies that culture increased the relationship between peer group and advertising with purchase decisions by 1.1% and 2.0% respectively

while it reduced the relationships between parent-child relationship and product types with purchase decisions by 0.7% and 3.2 respectively.

The overall coefficient of Multiple determination (the  $R^2$  value), when culture was introduced in the regression model was significantly different (from 28.4% to 17.1%) as shown on appendix 12 model 8, suggesting that culture moderated the relationship between children influences on family purchase decisions. The results on appendix 12 models 8 indicated that parent-child relationship, peer group, advertising and product types on family purchase decisions were significant in the regression models as they had non-zero beta coefficients. However the research findings have confirmed that culture moderates product types more than any other variable as accounted for by the differences in  $R^2$  of 3.2 % as opposed to parent-child relationship 0.7%, peer group 1.1% and advertising 2.0%.  $X_1Z$ ,  $X_2Z$ , and  $X_3Z$  were all excluded from the overall model (Appendix 12, model 8).

21.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that it is only the husband who made family purchase decisions (FPD), 24.4% agreed it is only husbands who made FPD. 13% of the respondents were neutral, 38% of the respondents disagreed that it is husbands who made FPD while 13% strongly agreed that only husbands alone made FPD as shown on figure 4.25. This concurs with the Hofstede's (1994) cultural dimension of power distance as quoted by Opoku (2012) which is a general measure of the degree of interpersonal influence that those who hold power in a social structure can exert over those who lack power. However, this changed with the findings that children's influence was stronger in modern versus traditional families, suggesting that modern families

had a more balanced power structure than traditional families, leading to the increase in children's influence. This was consistent with Shoham and Dalakas (2003), who found that the impact of power distance on family decisions relates to Israeli parents valuing children's obedience less compared to high-power-distance cultures, and consequently, encouraging and being more open to children's involvement in family decision making. The significance of power distance appeared in previous studies on children's influence, as well. This study found out that children's influence was stronger in modern versus traditional families. We can therefore speculate that this difference reflects a higher proportion of “modern” families that encourage children to be involved in family decision making and having a positive view of children’s opinion in regard to purchase decisions.

#### **4.8 Correlation Analysis for the Linear Relationship between Children Influences (X1, 2, 3, 4) and FPD**

The study used correlation technique to analyze the degree of relationship between two variables with pearson correlation coefficient (R), which yield a statistic that ranges from -1 to 1. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), the bigger the R (absolute value), the stronger the association between the two variables. If the correlation coefficient is positive (+ve), it means that there is a +ve relationship between the two variables. A –ve relationship means that, as one variable decreases, then the other variable increases i.e. inverse relationship. A zero value of R indicates that there is no association between the two variables.

The coefficient assumes that there is a linear relationship or correlation between two variables and that the two variables are casually related; one of the variables is the independent and the other is the dependent variable. The independent variables, parent-child relationship( $X_1$ ), peer group( $X_2$ ), advertising( $X_3$ ) and product types( $X_4$ ) were each correlated with FPD which was the dependent variable of this study as shown on table 4.34.

**Table 4.34: Correlations Analysis Results between Children Influences( $X_1, 2, 3, 4$ ) and FPD**

	X1	X2	X3	X4	Y
Parent-child relationship (X1)	1				
Peer group (X2)	.434(**)	1			
	.000				
Advertising (X3)	.376(**)	.331(**)	1		
	.000	.000			
Product types(X4)	.591(**)	.391(**)	.357(**)	1	
	.000	.000	.000		
Family Purchase Decisions (Y)	.406(**)	.367(**)	.361(**)	.450(**)	1
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.

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

Only statistically correlation coefficients that were significant were highlighted. Family purchase decisions were found to be significantly and positively correlated with parent-child relationship ( $R=0.406$ ), peer group ( $R=0.367$ ), advertising ( $R=0.361$ ) and product types ( $R=0.450$ ) at  $p=0.000$  respectively.

#### 4.9 Tests of Normality

Normality tests are used to determine if a data set is well modeled by a normal distribution, and to compute how likely it is for a random variable underlying the data set to be normally distributed (Farrel & Rogers, 2006). Many of the statistical procedures including correlation, regression, t tests, and analysis of variance, namely parametric tests, are based on the assumption that the data follows a normal distribution (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). The normality tests are supplementary to the graphical assessment of normality.

The main tests for the assessment of normality are Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test, Lilliefors corrected K-S test, Shapiro-Wilk test, Anderson-Darling test, Cramer-von Mises test, D'Agostino skewness test, Anscombe-Glynn kurtosis test, D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus test, and the Jarque-Bera test. Among these, the Shapiro-Wilk Test is more appropriate for sample sizes as large as 2000 (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). The null hypothesis is that distribution is normal while the alternative hypothesis is that distribution is not normal. If the Significance value of the Shapiro-Wilk Test is greater than 0.05, the data is normal. If it is below 0.05, the data significantly deviate from a normal distribution.

A test on normality using Shapiro-wilk test on table 4.35 shows that the standardized residuals are significantly normally distributed with a significance of 0.605 which is greater than 0.05.

**Table 4.35 :Tests of Normality on Purchase Decisions/Parent-child**

		Shapiro-Wilk
Statistic	df	Sig.

X1	.956	184	.605
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a Lilliefors Significance Correction

A further test on normality using Shapiro-wilk test on table 4.36 reveal that the standardized residuals are significantly normally distributed with a significance of 0.166 which is greater than 0.05.

**Table 4.36: Tests of Normality on Purchase Decisions/Peer Group**

		Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	df	Sig.
X2	.928	184	.166

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

A further test on normality using Shapiro-wilk test on table 4.37 reveal that the standardized residuals are significantly normally distributed with a significance of 0.236 which is greater than 0.05.

**Table 4.37: Tests of Normality on Purchase Decisions/Advertising**

		Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	df	Sig.
X3	.930	184	.236

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

In a further test on normality using Shapiro-wilk test on table 4.38 it is revealed that the standardized residuals are significantly normally distributed with a significance of 0.479 which is greater than 0.05.

**Table 4.38: Tests of Normality on Purchase Decisions/Product Types**

		<b>Shapiro-Wilk</b>	
	Statistic	df	Sig.
X4	.954	184	.479

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

In the normality test using Shapiro-wilk test on table 4.39 it is revealed that the standardized residuals are significantly normally distributed with a significance of 0.602 which is greater than 0.05.

**Table 4.39: Tests of Normality on Culture/Purchase Decisions**

		Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Z	.975	184	.602

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents summaries of the study findings as guided by specific objectives, as well as conclusions and recommendations for action. The recommendations were deduced from the conclusions and discussions of the findings.

#### 5.2 Summary

This study sought to find out children's influence on family purchase decisions in Kenya. Specifically, the study investigated parent-child relationship, children's peer groups, advertising to children and product types as moderated by culture. Empirical literature showed children to be equal partners in family purchase decisions just as parents as they all took different roles in the purchase decision making process.

**Specific Objective 1: To establish how parent-child relationship determine children influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.**

Among all the social entities from which children might learn, parents appear to be the most instrumental in teaching their children consumer behaviour (Norgaard, (2007). The study sought an understanding to the nature of parent-child relationships which provide an explanation for differences in child behavior and skills as consumers. Parent-child relationships have made it possible for children to exert influence on family decision-making (Caruana &



Vassallo, 2003; & McNeal, 2003; Rose *et al.*, 2002), a phenomenon called reciprocal socialization, suggesting that children influence parents, just as parents influence children (Moore *et al.*, 2003).

The findings of the study revealed that parent-child relationship positively influenced family purchase decisions in Kenya. Results of inferential statistics such as ANOVA show that parent-child relationship has a significant contribution to family purchase decisions in Kenya. Family purchase decision-making is a joint process where children as well as parents influence decisions, and participate and carry out various tasks. Study results support these expectations.  $R^2$  value for parent-child relationship is not high i.e. (16.5%) indicating that it influences only partly. It shows that it is important to include both parents and children in a family purchase decision-process framework. The study found out that family purchase decisions increased as parents allowed various tactics used by children to influence them as shown on table 2.1. This enhances household participation and self-reliance.

**Specific Objective 2: To determine how children peer group contribute to their influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.**

A group may be defined as two or more people who interact to accomplish either individual or mutual goals. The collectivistic cultures such as those in African countries and particularly Kenya emphasize conformity to group norms and social acceptance (Norgaard, 2007). The study sought to determine how children's peer groups influence family purchase decisions in Kenya.  $R^2$  value for peer group is not high i.e. (13.5%) indicating that it influences family purchase decisions only partly. The results support existing definitions of

influence distinguishing between active and passive influence (Grønhøj, 2002). According to the study, majority of Kenyan children conform to a combination of groups in the society, ranging from classmates, Sunday school mates, family members and siblings, movie stars and sports heroes. This is in agreement with Norgaard (2007) findings that, family members and peers are undoubtedly the most dominant reference groups, followed by more distant figures such as sports heroes and movie stars.

The study found out that children influenced for products similar to the ones already owned by their peers. This corresponds with Opoku (2012), who found out that the impact of peer influence is weaker for privately consumed necessities and stronger for publically consumed products, because privately consumed necessities are neither observable nor elusive because they are consumed out of public view and are used by everybody. Therefore the influence that peer groups exert on the types of products and brands an individual purchases is diverse (Zhou & Hui, 2003).

**Specific Objective 3: To establish how advertising determine children influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.**

Advertising is a structured form of applied communication, employing both verbal and non-verbal elements that are composed to fill specific space and time determined by a sponsor. Effective communication through advertising leads the consumers toward the purchasing of a brand (O'sullivan, 2005). The key concern of the advertiser is whether the advertisement conveys the meaning intended. That understanding leads the person to prefer and purchase the product/brand (Clow & Back, 2002). According to the study, over 90% of

Kenyan children get product information from advertising. This is in line with McNeal (2003) who found out that children interact regularly with most advertising media. O'sullivan (2005) also found out that children watch a great deal more than programmes created specifically for their age groups. Their experience of advertising (and of consumption) extends far beyond products and services aimed explicitly at them. Yet television advertising has an iconic significance for both sides of the debate as a peculiarly visible component of promotion aimed at children. Family purchase decision-making is a joint process where children and parents influence decisions.  $R^2$  value for advertising is 13% indicating that advertising to children only influences partly. Advertising to children therefore has partly significant effect on FPD in Kenya.

**Specific Objective 4: To examine how product types contribute to children influence on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.**

A product is anything that is offered to the market to satisfy consumer wants or needs (Kotler, 2008). Whether the product is for the child's own use like toys, snacks, clothes, etc or the product is for family use like family vacation or the product is for joint consumption of the household like rice, food, tea/coffee, children have a very strong power to influence (Chaudhary & Gupta, 2012). The  $R^2$  for product types was 20.3% indicating that product types influence family purchase decisions only partly. This study exposed respondents to products of children's own use, products of joint consumption for the whole family, cheap and expensive products and it was found out that children had some influencing power for all product categories. This concurs with

Chaudhary and Gupta (2012), who found out that children have an influencing role whether the product is for the child's own use like toys, snacks, clothes, etc or the product is for family use like family vacation or the product is for joint consumption of the household like rice, food, tea/coffee, children have a very strong power to influence. The findings also concur with Lee and Beatty, 2002, who found out that children's influence seems to vary across product categories

**Specific Objective 5: To determine if culture moderates children influences on family purchase decisions of households in Kenya.**

Culture is the most basic cause of a person's wants and behavior (Kotler, 2008). Cultural differences are considered as being critical in shaping the identity of teens across the globe and also being responsible for their attitudes and behaviors as consumers (Ford & Phillips, 2000). Therefore, this study considered culture as having a moderating effect on children influences to family purchase decisions. According to the study, culture has a significant moderating effect on FPD in Kenya.

### **5.3 Conclusions**

Based on the results of this study, parent-child relationships of majority families in Kenya determine children influences on FPD. Parent-child relationship had a positive and significant linear relationship on various measures of FPD that were used in this study. The study has confirmed several strategies that children use to influence parental decisions. Overall, it confirms a preference for persuasive strategies: namely, expressing their opinions, stating their preferences or begging; and emotional strategies: namely asking

repetitively for a product or being nice and affectionate. This could therefore be concluded that parents, who respect children's roles in family purchase decisions, involve them in the purchase decision process. This not only prepares children to become better and rational consumers, but also enhances household participation and self-reliance.

According to the study, children conformed to different groups in the society. Children have the greatest influence for products similar to the ones already owned by their peers. However, the impact of peer influence is weaker for privately consumed necessities and stronger for publically consumed products, because privately consumed necessities are neither observable nor elusive because they are consumed out of public view and are used by everybody. Nevertheless, there is a linear and significant relationship between children's peer group and FPD in Kenya. Therefore persuasive product or service appeals can be directed directly to and around children through their peer groups.

The study confirms reliance of advertising in passing information to children of age 8-12 years. According to the study, over 90% of Kenyan children get product information from advertising. Marketing activities such as advertising affect both internal and external behavior of the consumers. The study confirms that children's perceptions were influenced through the exposure of seeing an advertisement; attention which means that the child recognizes the advertisement; awareness which is common if the advertisement involves some humor; and the retention that keeps or stays in the mind of the child. This determined whether the child would influence for the purchase of products which has been positively perceived through an advertisement or not. Tsai,

Liang, and Liu, (2007) noted that the concept of advertising makes it possible to involve consumers and this greatly affects their buying decisions.

The study confirms a positive linear relationship between product types and family purchase decisions. This implies that children's influence on family purchase decisions vary with the type of product being considered. This disregards whether the product is for the child's own use or the product is for the entire family's use. For almost all product categories considered in this study, children have an important role. Whether the product is for the child's own use like toys, snacks, clothes, etc or the product is for family use like family vacation or the product is for joint consumption of the household like rice, food, tea/coffee, children have some significant influence. Children also influence decisions about family leisure time activities (such as vacations), although their influence is less in these decisions than in decisions for products for their own use.

Culture moderated the relationship between parent-child relationship, children's peer group, advertising, product types and family purchase decisions, both as a predictor variable and when it interacted with each. This study revealed that culture has a moderating effect on the relationship between children influences and purchase decisions in Kenya. Based on the study, cultural differences can be considered as being critical in shaping the identity of teens in Kenya and also being responsible for their attitudes and behaviors as consumers. This means that the cultural diversity in the Kenyan society would be responsible for different children influences experienced by different culturally unlike families.

## **5.4 Recommendations**

### **1. Recommendations for Marketers**

This study is a justification of the fact that children who have some good parent-child relationships, supportive peer groups, exposed to advertising media and exposed to different types of family products have a positive significant influence on family purchase decisions. The study recommends marketers to consider children as being equal partners in family purchase decisions because children have participatory roles within the purchase decision process which necessitate them to be considered wholesomely as having control of family purchase decisions just as parents. According to the study, children conformed to different groups in the society. Children have the greatest influence for products similar to the ones already owned by their peers. Therefore the study recommends that persuasive product or service appeals can be directed directly to and around children through their peer groups.

Further, the study provides insight for the marketers about which product advertising is effective on children. Knowledge about children's influence should be used to attract children's awareness of new products and to focus on specific products in order to impact children. Marketers need to focus on solutions in impacting parents, because they decide most in the general decision stage. Based on the study, cultural differences can be considered as being critical in shaping the identity of teens in Kenya and also being responsible for their attitudes and behaviors as consumers. It is therefore recommended that marketers consider cultural diversity in the Kenyan society when appealing to different cultural backgrounds.

## **2. Recommendations for Policy**

The study confirms reliance on advertising in passing information to children of age 8-12 years. According to the study, over 90% of Kenyan children get product information from advertising. This necessitates the need for the government to make the right policies to protect children who would otherwise be target audiences to different unethical communication appeals. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child defines children as an “exposed group in society in need of special care and protection.” Viewed as less experienced and more impressionable than adults, children need protection against harmful media content of all sorts.

## **3. Study’s Contribution to Theory**

The findings of this research have contributed to the existing stock of knowledge in the literature of consumer roles in family buying decisions. The study laid its emphasis on equal consumer role participation and considers children as being equal participants in the family decision making process just as parents. It awakens practitioners to be aware that, as future consumers, children's buying power is increasing. And that, societal changes such as those brought on by the substantial shift from mothers working at home to mothers working outside home, children have to take more responsibility. This includes substantially more influence when it comes to family purchasing decisions. The study focused on children influencers; parent-child relationship, peer group pressure, advertising and product types. It is suggested that products which the child exerts least influence on the purchasing decision of the family are those which carry high purchasing risk and used by the whole family,



whereas the greatest influence of the child on the purchasing decision of the family lies on the products with low risk and used by the whole family.

#### **4. Areas for Further Research**

The study methodology has targeted parents/guardians who expressed their opinions on the extent to which their children actually influenced family purchase decisions. As a future avenue of research, there is need to carry out similar research on children's influence to family purchase decisions in Kenya while using both parents/guardians and children in order to establish whether the two findings would agree for generalization.

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## APPENDIXES

### APPENDIX 1: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION



**Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology  
School for Human Resource Development  
Entrepreneurship & Procurement Department**

Telegrams "Thika"  
Telephone: 067 52711 ext 2239  
Fax: 067 52164

Office of the Chairman  
P.O. Box 62000  
NAIROBI

Date: 24/01/2014

Ref: JKU/SHRD/EPD/PhD/14(10)

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: PhD PROPOSAL FOR: MR. KIRIINYA STEPHEN NTUARA (HD433-2107/2011)**

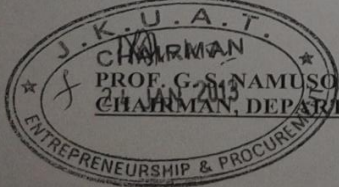
This is to introduce to you **Mr. Kiriinya** who is a student pursuing Doctor of Philosophy degree in Business Administration (Marketing Option) in the Department of Entrepreneurship and Procurement in the School of Human Resource Development at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology.


The student is currently undertaking a research proposal on: "**Children's Influence on Family Purchase Decisions in Kenya**" in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the programme.

The purpose of this letter is to request you to give the student the necessary support and assistance to enable him obtain the necessary data for the research. Please note that the information given is purely for academic purposes and will be treated with strict confidence.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

  
**PROF. G. S. NAMUSONGE, Ph.D.,**  
**CHAIRMAN, DEPARTMENTAL POSTGRADUATE STUDIES COMMITTEE**

  
JKUAT is ISO 9001:2008 Certified  
Setting Trends in Higher Education, Research and Innovation

## APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE

### PART ONE: PROFILE

1. Geographical area .....
2. Age of child ..... (If below 8 or above 12 years politely terminate the interview)
3. Child's gender
  - Boy
  - Girl
4. Relationship of respondent with the child
  - Father
  - Mother
  - Guardian
  - Others...Specify.....
5. Age of respondent
  - Below 35 years
  - 36 – 45 Years
  - 46 – 55 years
  - 56 and above
6. Respondent's education background
  - University
  - College
  - Secondary
  - Primary

7. Respondent's monthly income
- Ksh 10,000 and below
- Ksh 10,001 - 30,000
- Ksh 30,001 – 100,000
- Ksh 100,001 and above
8. Family type
- Both parents
- Single parent
- Guardian
- Widowed
- Divorced
9. If both parents above; spouses monthly income
- Ksh 10,000 and below
- Ksh 10,001 - 30,000
- Ksh 30,001 – 100,000
- Ksh 100,001 and above
10. Family size
- Single child
- With siblings
- Middle – one
- Single Child
11. Is respondent employed or self employed ?
- |        | Yes                      | No                       |
|--------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Mother | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Father | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |







2	My child(ren) make purchase requests similar to friends					
3	My child(ren) get product information from older family members					
4	My child(ren) get product information from other siblings					
5	My child(ren) gets product information from friends					
6	My child(ren) want to buy friend's products					
7	My child(ren) want to buy other sibling products					
8	My child(ren) want to buy celebrity associated products					

**PART FOUR: ADVERTISING**

1. Where does (do) your child(ren) get family products information?

Television ( )

Outdoor advertisements ( )

Radio ( )

Magazines ( )

Daily Newspapers ( )

Others specify .....

2. In each of the following, indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statement.

5) Strongly Agree (4) Agree (3) Neutral (2) Disagree (1) strongly disagree

		5	4	3	2	1
1	-My child(ren) is attentive to family product advertisements					
2	-My Child(ren) switches his/her product request with new adverts					
3	-My child(ren) compares products on different adverts					
4	-My child(ren) recalls product adverts					
5	-My child(ren) requests advertised products					

#### **PART FIVE: PRODUCT TYPES**

1. Does (do) your child(ren) have a list of product request for shopping?

Yes            ( )            No            ( )

2. In each of the following products, indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statement that your child(ren) influences their purchase.

(1)Strongly Agree (2) Agree (3) Neutral (4) Disagree (5) strongly disagree

		5	4	3	2	1
1	-Toys					
2	- Breakfast cereals					
3	- Video games					
4	- Stationery and books					
5	-Child(s) clothes and shoes					

6	-Vacation					
7	-Food and beverage					
8	-Dining out					
9	-Computer					
10	-Mobile phone					
11	-Car					
12	-Television					
13	-Toothpaste					
14	-Bathing soap					
15	Others specify .....					

**PART SIX: PURCHASE DECISIONS**

1. With whom do you make family purchase decisions for your family products?

Husband ( )

Husband and children ( )

Children ( )

Others specify ( ) .....

2. In each of the following questions, please indicate how your child(ren) always or never facilitate your purchase decisions in family purchase processes below;

**The Need Recognition**

Scale: (5) Always (4) often (3) sometimes (2) seldom (1) never

		5	4	3	2	1
1	My child(ren) expresses family products to buy					
2	My child(ren) comes up with family product ideas					

### Information Search

Scale: (5) Always (4) often (3) sometimes (2) seldom (1) never

		5	4	3	2	1
1	My child(ren) finds information on family products to buy					
2	child(ren) searches through catalogues of family products					

### Evaluation of Alternatives

Scale: (5) Always (4) often (3) sometimes (2) seldom (1) never

		5	4	3	2	1
1	My child(ren) chooses family products to buy					
2	My child(ren) compares prices for family products to buy					
3	My child(ren) writes items on the shopping list					
4	My child(ren) looks for good family product offers					
5	My child(ren) makes family product trials					

### Purchase Decision

Scale: (5) Always (4) often (3) sometimes (2) seldom (1) never

		5	4	3	2	1
1	My child(ren) helps in finding where to shop					
2	My child(ren) picks items in the shop					
3	My child(ren) Pushes trolley in the supermarket					
4	My child(ren) locates products in the shop					
5	My child(ren) places items on the checkout counter					
6	My child(ren) decide(s) how much to spend					
7	My child(ren) decide(s) what quantities to buy					
8	My child(ren) decide(s) what quality to buy					
9	My child(ren) decide(s) what products to buy					
10	My child(ren) decide(s) when to buy					

### Post Purchase Behavior

Scale: (5) Always (4) often (3) sometimes (2) seldom (1) never

		5	4	3	2	1
1	My child(ren) expresses satisfaction					
2	My child(ren) expresses dissatisfaction					
3	My child(ren) keeps product guarantees					

### PART SEVEN: CULTURE

1. Are you aware of the various ethnic groups in Kenya?

Yes ( ) No ( )

2. How many groups do you know about? .....

3. To which one does this household belong? .....

4. To which one do you belong? .....

5. Which religion does this household belong? .....

6. Which religion do you belong? .....

7. In each of the following, indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statement on how your community regards a family.

(5)Strongly Agree (4) Agree (3) Neutral (2) Disagree (1) strongly disagree

		5	4	3	2	1
1	The Husband is the one who makes FPD					
2	The Wife is the one who makes FPD					
3	Its only Husband and Wife who make FPD					
4	A child(ren) has no say in FPD					
5	A child(ren) accompanies parents during shopping					
6	Child(dren) belong to the community					





#### APPENDIX 4: MAMA WATOTO SUPERMARKET



MAMA WATOTO SUPERMARKET IS AN INDEPENDENT CHAIN STORE IN KAKAMEGA TOWN OF KAKAMEGA COUNTY. (Watoto is Kiswahili for Children)

## APPENDIX 5: MODEL 1 –MULTIPLE REGRESSION MODEL

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4 + e$$

Where:  $y$  = family purchase decisions

$X_1$  = parent- child relationship

$X_2$  = peer group

$X_3$  = advertising

$X_4$  = product type

$\beta_0$  = constant or intercept

$\beta_1$  = are regression coefficients for  $X_i$  ( $i=1, 2, 3, 4$ )

$e$  = error term

**APPENDIX 6: MODEL 2 – MODERATED MULTIPLE REGRESSION  
MODEL**

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4 + \beta_zZ + \beta_{1z}X_1Z + \beta_{2z}X_2Z + \beta_{3z}X_3Z + \beta_{4z}X_4Z + e$$

Where:  $y$  = dependent variable - children influence to family purchase decisions

$X_1$  = independent variable - parent- child relationship

$X_2$  = independent variable - peer group

$X_3$  = independent variable - advertising

$X_4$  = independent variable - product type

$\beta_0$  = constant or intercept

$\beta_1$  = are regression coefficients for  $X_i$  ( $i=1, 2, 3, 4$ )

$Z$  = moderating variable - culture

$e$  = error term

$X_iZ$  = Interaction term of culture with each of the independent variables ( $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4$ )

**APPENDIX 7: MODEL 3 – PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP AND FPD**

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.406(a)	.165	.160	.39830

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>- parent-child relationship

**ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.689	1	5.689	35.857	.000(a)
	Residual	28.874	182	.159		
	Total	34.562	183			

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>- parent-child relationship

b Dependent Variable: Y- FPD

**Coefficients (a)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.783	.188		9.486	.000
	X <sub>1</sub>	.295	.049	.406	5.988	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y- FPD

**APPENDIX 8: MODEL 4 – PEER GROUP AND FPD**

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.367(a)	.135	.130		.40540

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>2</sub>- peer group

**ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.650	1	4.650	28.296	.000(a)
	Residual	29.912	182	.164		
	Total	34.562	183			

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>2</sub>-peer group

b Dependent Variable: Y- FPD

**Coefficients (a)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.936	.183		10.605	.000
	X <sub>2</sub>	.275	.052	.367	5.319	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y- FPD

**APPENDIX 9: MODEL 5 – ADVERTISING AND FPD**

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.361(a)	.130	.125	.40646

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>3</sub>- advertising

**ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.494	1	4.494	27.205	.000(a)
	Residual	30.068	182	.165		
	Total	34.562	183			

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>3</sub>- advertising

b Dependent Variable: Y- FPD

**Coefficients (a)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.819	.208		8.733	.000
	X <sub>3</sub>	.281	.054	.361	5.216	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y- FPD

**APPENDIX 10: MODEL 6 - PRODUCT TYPES AND FPD**

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted	
			R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.450(a)	.203	.198	.38912

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>4</sub>- product types

**ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of		Mean	F	Sig.
		Squares	df	Square		
1	Regression	7.005	1	7.005	46.267	.000(a)
	Residual	27.557	182	.151		
	Total	34.562	183			

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>4</sub>- product types

b Dependent Variable: Y- FPD

**Coefficients (a)**

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		Coefficients				
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	1.538	.202		7.630	.000
	X <sub>4</sub>	.398	.058	.450	6.802	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y- FPD



**APPENDIX 11: MODEL 7 – STEPWISE REGRESSION RESULTS FOR MODERATING EFFECTS OF CULTURE**

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.398(a)	.158	.154		.39977

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>Z

**ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.475	1	5.475	34.259	.000(a)
	Residual	29.087	182	.160		
	Total	34.562	183			

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>Z

b Dependent Variable: Y

**Coefficients (a)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.165	.128		16.908	.000
	X <sub>1</sub> Z	.061	.010	.398	5.853	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.398(a)	.158	.154		.39977

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>Z

**ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.475	1	5.475	34.259	.000(a)
	Residual	29.087	182	.160		
	Total	34.562	183			

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>Z

b Dependent Variable: Y

**Coefficients (a)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.165	.128		16.908	.000
	X <sub>1</sub> Z	.061	.010	.398	5.853	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.398(a)	.158	.154	.39977
2	.423(b)	.179	.170	.39600

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>Z

b Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>Z, X<sub>3</sub>Z

**ANOVA (c)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.475	1	5.475	34.259	.000(a)
	Residual	29.087	182	.160		
	Total	34.562	183			
2	Regression	6.178	2	3.089	19.698	.000(b)
	Residual	28.384	181	.157		
	Total	34.562	183			

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>Z

b Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>Z, X<sub>3</sub>Z

c Dependent Variable: Y

**Coefficients (a)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.165	.128		16.908	.000
	X <sub>1</sub> Z	.061	.010	.398	5.853	.000
2	(Constant)	2.034	.141		14.419	.000
	X <sub>1</sub> Z	.037	.015	.246	2.499	.013
	X <sub>3</sub> Z	.034	.016	.208	2.117	.036

a Dependent Variable: Y

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.413(a)	.171	.166	.39685

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>4</sub>Z

**ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.899	1	5.899	37.454	.000(a)
	Residual	28.663	182	.157		
	Total	34.562	183			

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>4</sub>Z

b Dependent Variable: Y

**Coefficients (a)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.081	.136		15.291	.000
	X <sub>4</sub> Z	.075	.012	.413	6.120	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y

**Regression Analysis Results for Moderating Effect Culture**

Dependent Variable	Predictor Variable(s)	Standardized Coefficients Beta	R <sup>2</sup>	F	Sig.
<b>Purchase decisions</b>	X1q	.061	.158	34.259	.000
	X2q	.064	.146	31.225	.000
	X3q	.062	.150	32.224	.000
	X4q	.075	.171	37.454	.000

X1q - interaction term between parent-child relationship and culture

X2q - interaction term children's peer group and culture

X3q - interaction term between advertising and culture

X4q - interaction term between product types and culture

**APPENDIX 12: MODEL 8 – REGRESSION RESULTS FOR THE OVERALL MODEL**

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.533(a)	.284	.268		.37181

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>4</sub>, X<sub>3</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, X<sub>1</sub>

**ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.816	4	2.454	17.752	.000(a)
	Residual	24.746	179	.138		
	Total	34.562	183			

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>4</sub>, X<sub>3</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, X<sub>1</sub>

b Dependent Variable: Y

**Coefficients (a)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.868	.245		3.548	.000
	X <sub>1</sub>	.089	.060	.122	1.481	.140
	X <sub>2</sub>	.118	.054	.157	2.168	.031
	X <sub>3</sub>	.134	.055	.171	2.434	.016
	X <sub>4</sub>	.225	.071	.255	3.162	.002

a Dependent Variable: Y

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.413(a)	.171	.166		.39685

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>4</sub>Z

**ANOVA (b)**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.899	1	5.899	37.454	.000(a)
	Residual	28.663	182	.157		
	Total	34.562	183			

a Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>4</sub>Z

b Dependent Variable: Y

**Coefficients (a)**

Mode		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
1		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.081	.136		15.291	.000
	X <sub>4</sub> Z	.075	.012	.413	6.120	.000

a Dependent Variable: Y

**Excluded Variables (b)**

Mode		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
1						Tolerance
1	X <sub>1</sub> Z	.182(a)	1.563	.120	.115	.333
	X <sub>2</sub> Z	.182(a)	1.933	.055	.142	.505
	X <sub>3</sub> Z	.182(a)	1.820	.070	.134	.452

a Predictors in the Model: (Constant), X<sub>4</sub>Z

b Dependent Variable: Y