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**2017**

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# Youth Drinking:

# The impact of socialisation agents and personal attitudes on alcohol consumption among the youth in South Africa

*Kagiso Matjila*

***A research study submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in Strategic Marketing (MMSM)***

**Wits Business School**

**May 2017**

# DECLARATION

- The work in this dissertation is my own original work.

- All of the sources which were used or referred to have been documented and acknowledged.

- This dissertation has not been previously submitted in full or partial fulfillment of the requirements for an equivalent or higher qualification at any other recognised education institution.

_____

Kagiso Boitumelo Matjila

Signed at ……

On the……day of……2017

# DEDICATION

I should like to dedicate this research report and the completion of the Master of Management Degree to my parents, Prof. Maila John Matjila and May Matjila – thank you for inspiring me to continuously strive to live my life as best as I can.

Your continuous prayers and overwhelming support has carried me through this journey, and I will forever be grateful for that. This is just the start. May the good Lord keep you both with me long enough to see all my other plans materialise.

# ACKNOWLEGDMENTS

I owe a great deal of gratitude to many people for supporting me in this journey to complete this research paper and the Masters in Management – Strategic Marketing degree.

I should like to thank Dr Yvonne Saini, my dissertation supervisor, without whom I should never have completed this research. I am grateful for your support and commitment to the completion of this study.

To the Wits Business School Faculty, MMSM Program Director, subject-matter Lecturers, and Programme Administrators, thank you for your support, dedication and for the knowledge presented on the course. A special mention goes to Professor Richard Chinomona who provided guidance, and expertise in the areas of statistical analysis for the purpose of this research.

I should also like to thank my fellow MMSM 2016 Cohort members who participated in the course, as the healthy competition and your motivation helped to bring me to this point. I should like to thanks all participants who took part in my research. My greatest appreciation goes to my syndicate group members and members of “The Core”. Those late nights in the syndicate rooms and social sessions across the road marked some of my highlights of this journey.

Lastly, but by no means the least important, I should like to acknowledge my family; parents and brother. Words cannot begin to express the special place you hold in my heart. Thank you for always believing in me, giving me words of encouragements, and supporting me throughout the years.

I am eternally grateful.

# ABSTRACT

The research investigated the impact of three socialisation agents (i.e. advertising, parents and peers) and personal attitudes on alcohol consumption among South Africa youth. There is a growing concern of the high and year-on-year increase in alcohol consumption in the country which has not only been linked to social ills such as crime, violence, sexual abuse, but also to health concerns. Of greater concern is the ever growing penetration of alcohol consumption among young people. The South African government has pledged its support to the World Health Organisation to reduce the harmful use of alcohol; and appointed an Inter-Ministerial Committee (IMC) to develop programs that seek to reduce alcohol-related harm. The findings generated from this study provide insights into social influences and social interventions that might assist in reducing the harmful use of alcohol.

The research employed a quantitative approach and was cross-sectional in design. Non-random quota sampling was employed and a total of 300 youths from Gauteng were issued with self-administered questionnaires. The young people were at different life stages; students, blue and white collar workers.

Using SPSS 22 and AMOS 22 software programs, structural equation modelling (SEM) was performed to analyse the data set. The results revealed that personal attitude, peer influence, and advertising exposure have positive and significant influences on youth alcohol consumption. Parental influence had a positive, yet weak and unimportant, effect on youth alcohol consumption.

The implication of the results in this study is that government, alcohol manufacturers and the community at large need to consider, and possibly prioritise, other harmful uses of alcohol interventions and address personal attitudes that young people have developed to reduce the effects of peer pressure.



**Key words:** youth, alcohol consumption, alcohol advertising, parental influence, peer influence, attitudes, socialisation agents, harmful use of alcohol

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# 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this paper is to analyse, within the consumer socialisation theory framework, the impact of three socialisation agents (advertising, parents, and peers) and personal attitudes on alcohol consumption among the youth in South Africa. This understanding is crucial to provide important insights which should be considered in the development of alcohol intervention policies for South Africa.

## 1.2 Context of the study

The use of alcoholic beverages has been an integral part of many cultures for thousands of years (Audrain-McGovern et al., 2009). Previously, alcohol was consumed on a small scale, and as such, it did not pose major health and social risks.

With early modern industrialisation came the commercial production and distribution of alcohol, and as such, alcohol became a market commodity. With the increase in consumption came the rise of social and economic problems. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), alcohol is considered to be a component cause of more than 200 diseases and injury conditions (WHO, 2010).

There is a growing concern about the high alcohol consumption rate in South Africa, which has been linked to social ills such as crime, violence, sexual abuse, underage drinking, and health concerns. Alcohol consumption is the world's third largest risk factor for disease and disability (WHO, 2010).

Parry, Burnhams, and London (2012) state that, in South Africa, alcohol accounts for close to 130 deaths daily as a result of alcohol-related causes, including 46% of injuries, is involved in 35% of TB and HIV/Aids infections, and

in 15% of non-communicable diseases, such as cancer, liver disease, and cardiovascular diseases. Thus, alcohol is the third leading risk factor for death and disability in this country. The economic costs associated with harmful alcohol use in South Africa are estimated to be between R245 933 - R280 687 billion, which is approximately 12% of the country's gross domestic product (Ramsoomar, 2015). Despite the interventions, alcohol abuse remains a growing concern in South Africa.

Moderate consumption is considered acceptable. However, South Africa has been dubbed the "drunken state of Africa". The adult per capita consumption (APC) of South Africa (which is the adult per capita amount of total pure alcohol consumed expressed in litres) was stated as 9.5 in 2005. This was above the world average of 6.13, and the African regional average of 6.2. It is, however, below the European regions' APC of 12.2. South Africa has the 75th highest APC in the world (ARA, 2011).

These alarming facts are also substantiated by an alcohol consumption report generated by Euromonitor in 2014. The report states that 3.5 million hectolitres of alcohol was purchased in the period 2006 and 2007. By 2013/2014, total alcohol purchased had increased to 3.9 million hectolitres (which is a volume growth of 11.4% over a period of seven years).

Based on the alcohol per capita consumption of South Africa, this country can be characterised as a "wet" community in that drinking is prevalent and common, and the public's opinion is generally one of tolerance, where alcohol is readily available, and alcohol advertising is permitted. Chaloupka and Wechsler (1996) suggest that a "wetter" environment provides the youth with more social occasions to drink, more positive attitudes about drinking, more advertising and outlets, and as such, has an enabling effect on youth drinking patterns.

The World Health Organisation (WHO) has been at the forefront of advocating for the reduction of the health burden caused by the harmful use of alcohol. The

organisation has pleaded with member states to incorporate the reduction of alcohol abuse into their public and health policies.

The global strategy to reduce the harmful use of alcohol, endorsed by the 63rd World Health Assembly in May 2010, presents policy options and interventions available to countries which can be grouped into 10 recommended target areas: (a) leadership, awareness and commitment (b) health services' response (c) community action (d) drink-driving policies and countermeasures (e) availability of alcohol (f) marketing of alcoholic beverages (g) pricing policies (h) reducing the negative consequences of drinking and alcohol intoxication (i) reducing the public health impact of illicit alcohol and informally produced alcohol, monitoring and surveillance (WHO, 2010).

The South African government has pledged its support to reducing the harmful use of alcohol. In 2010, an Inter-Ministerial Committee (IMC) was formed to look at programmes that seek to reduce alcohol-related harm (Ramsoomar, 2015). This Committee consists of thirteen ministers, including the Ministers of Health, Basic and Higher Education, Economic Development, Finance, Transport, and the South African Police Service, to name a few. The resolutions of the committee resulted in the development and the passing of laws that are in the public health's interest (Ramsoomar, 2015).

The government's intervention on the reduction of the harmful use of alcohol, was through implementing the following regulations, as stated in the May 2015 invitation for public comment on the National Liquor Policy:

1. Manufacturers and suppliers to ensure that they take responsibility not to supply their products to unlicensed traders.
2. Reducing the availability of liquor, which includes the need to regulate days and hours when liquor sales should be permitted.
3. The national minimum legal age at which alcohol can be purchased and consumed should be raised from eighteen (18) to twenty one (21) years.
4. In order to standardise licencing requirements, it is proposed that liquor premises be located at least five hundred metres (500m) away

from schools, places of worship; recreation facilities, rehabilitation or treatment centres, residential areas and public institutions.

5. Implement the Control of Marketing of Alcoholic Beverages Bill.

The ban of alcohol advertising has made headlights with the “The Control of Marketing of Alcoholic Beverages Bill”, which was drafted by the IMC’s, igniting dialogue between the public, the South African government, academic and civil society organisations.

The effectiveness of the current interventions and policies that have been implemented in South Africa has been questioned, particularly when alcohol consumption is on the increase. These interventions seem to use methods of making alcohol less accessible to alcohol consumers through controlling products, price and distribution. Those policies that are still to be tabled and passed in parliament (such as increasing the minimal drinking age, and the Control of Marketing of Alcoholic Beverages Bill) will also bring with them the same limitations. Parry (2005) shed some light on the limited success of these programmes, stating that alcohol polices that have been identified as not showing empirical effectiveness include regulating physical availability of alcoholic products, education and persuasion strategies (eg. alcohol education in schools and public information campaigns), alcohol-free activities, and regulating advertising content and warning labels.

The author of this paper has identified that where these interventions fail is in addressing the social influences surrounding alcohol consumption and in changing people’s attitudes towards excessive alcohol consumption. There are many studies that have shown that there is a relationship between social influences and participation in undesirable behaviour (such as excessive drinking). It should, however, be noted that the government’s “don’t drink and drive” campaign that seeks to highlight the risk and discourage partaking in these two activities at the same time, is but one intervention that seeks to influence people’s attitudes towards the harmful use of alcohol. Government should also be considering other social influences in developing alcohol policies.

Even though the current government policies and strategies might not be effective in reducing the high alcohol consumption rate, Parry (2005) proposes that the effectiveness of education and persuasion programmes can be enhanced through the following means, to name but a few:

- involving parents and the community;
- peer education;
- resistance training;
- greater emphasis on counter advertising;

A holistic approach should be taken and all social elements should be considered when developing policies around alcohol consumption. Alcohol consumption is a learned behaviour which is influenced by environmental factors. Individuals develop self-concepts (i.e. how they view themselves) and make lifestyle choices based on a variety of internal and external influences (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013). According to the Donovan Model, parents, family, peers, marketing and the general society are some of the external factors that predict youth alcohol consumption Donovan (2007).

In 1998, as part of the first South African Demographic and Health Survey (SADHS), an alcohol survey was conducted to assess the extent of alcohol use, risky drinking, and alcohol problems among South Africans in order to obtain estimates of consumption and risky drinking and to inform intervention efforts (Freeman & Parry, 2006). The findings of this cross sectional study concluded that of the people who are over the age of fifteen years, 45% of men and 17% of women reported that they consumed alcohol. For both men and women, the highest levels of current alcohol use were recorded among persons in the age group of 35-44 and 45-54 years respectively, whilst the consumption amongst the youth (aged 18 to 34 years) reported the lowest penetration. This would indicate that there is a change that happens during this youth age group period that significantly impacts on drinking patterns which leads to increased alcohol consumption as they get older. Hence, the selected target sample for this study.

Research in the South African context is needed to identify the factors that influence young people's alcohol consumption, which will assist in the designing of effective social marketing strategies that can change behaviour and improve health.

## 1.3 What influences youth alcohol consumption

Models of adolescent alcohol consumption highlight the importance of a wide range of individual and environmental factors that influence young people's drinking behaviours (Chawla et al., 2009). Pettigrew et al. (2013) reports the following inclusions in the different factors:

- Individual factors include knowledge, attitudes, locus of control, income, coping skills, sense of self-worth, self-determination, need for achievement, and tolerance of deviance.
- External elements include other people, especially family members and peers, significant others, along with societal attitudes to alcohol, the price of alcohol products, and alcohol marketing (Pettigrew et al. 2013).

Alcohol consumption among the youth has been thoroughly researched over the years from a psychological, medical and consumer behavioural point of view. For the purpose of this study, only studies relating to consumer behaviour were considered.

Previous studies have tried to understand consumer behaviour through examining the relationship between numerous variables and alcohol consumption patterns and have proposed possible intervention methods to policy makers. These include marketing mix factors such as **pricing** (Hastings et al., 2005; Nelson, 2010; Chen et al., 2013; Cook, Bond, & Greenfield, 2014) **availability** (Presley, Meilman, & Leichliter, 2002; Mosher & Johnsson, 2005); Seaman & Ikegwuonu, 2010); Cook, Bond, & Greenfield, 2014); and **alcohol content** (Parsons & Stephenson, 2013). The influence of external variables has also been widely researched. These include **advertising** (Scott et al., 2008; Hastings et al., 2010; Nelson, 2010; Gunter, Hansen & Touri, 2011),

**parental influences** (Pedersen & von Soest, 2013; Hung et al., 2011; Freeman & Parry, 2006); and **peer group influences** (Lee et al., 2015; Chaplin & John, 2010; Parsons & Stephenson, 2013).

Despite extensive research, the examination of the literature shows that there is still an academic research gap that exists. Firstly, relationships between the variables and alcohol consumption have been established and in some instances discarded, as a result there are inconsistencies in previous research findings. For example, if one considers the research that has been done around alcohol advertising, the majority of the work in the area of economic studies (i.e. studies that use statistical means to examine the relationship between alcohol consumption and advertising) have found that alcohol advertising has a minimal effect on alcohol consumption patterns (Smart & Cutler,1976; Nelson & Young, 2001; Nelson, 2003; Nelson, 2010). There have also been few economic studies that have found a positive relationship between alcohol advertising and alcohol consumption (Saffer,1991; Woodside,1999).

Secondly, what has been noted in these studies is that each country has its own market specific nuances (eg. current alcohol prevention policies, and population drinking patterns) that influence the research findings. The type of research conducted (i.e. longitudinal vs cross sectional studies) also influences the research findings. Therefore, as much as some influencers of youth alcohol consumption have been identified and examined in other countries, it is still important to conduct South Africa specific research as our alcohol policies, country challenges, history of alcohol consumption, attitudes towards alcohol consumption, and per capita consumption differs from those of other countries in the world.

Thirdly, previous studies have also only looked at the impact of a single set of grouped variables. The majority of research in this area has investigated the separate effects of individual cognitive factors on alcohol use (Hung et al., 2011). That is, they either focused on marketing mix related elements, or the influence of external factors, or the influence of internal factors separately. Very few have considered a combination of the different clustered variables (for

example, examining the influence of internal and external factors in one study). According to WHO, what is required is the understanding of both individual and the population at large and developing programmes that use a mix of both individual and population based approaches that target high risk groups and drive the reduction of per capita consumption in general (WHO, 2010). Previous studies also seem to support this approach despite the differences in the findings. Studies have acknowledged that there is no "single magic bullet" which reduces or eliminates the misuse of alcohol at both an individual and a society level. The social cognitive theory founded by Bandura (1986), states that human behaviour is as a result of the reciprocal, bidirectional interrelationship of one's environment and cognitive processes. This theory implies that research aimed at understanding any type of human behaviour should view the possible predictors as interwoven, rather than independent sources of influence.

Bandura' views are consistent with the public health views on health-related behaviours like smoking and drinking. Targeting personal and environmental factors concurrently are measures that often lead to better behaviour change. The application of these measures at a global (or country) level and with consistent determination over a prolonged period, often yields better results. An example of this is the reduced smoking patterns that have resulted from the global measures targeted at individuals and the environmental conditions in those countries that have participated in the global campaign against smoking. Behavioural interventionists advocate this as the approach which stands a greater chance of bringing about desired behaviour change.

In summary, this study is based on the three gaps identified above; namely inconsistency in previous findings, country differences, and lack to understanding multiple environmental group variables influencers. This study seeks to close this gap by exploring the impact of selected external factors (i.e. advertising and social groups) and one internal factor (i.e. personal attitude) and how they each affect alcohol consumption among the youth.

## 1.4 Problem statement

Using Bandura's theory of social cognitive theory, there are multiple, interwoven predictors that drive youth alcohol consumption.

### *1.4.1 Main problem*

To investigate the impact of external (i.e. socialisation agents which are advertising, parents, and peer groups) and internal (personal attitude) factors on alcohol consumption among the youth in South Africa.

The consumer socialisation theory provides a useful framework to conceptualise the collective processes by which young people acquire consumption styles, skills, knowledge and orientations which are relevant for their performance as consumers in the marketplace (Moschis & Churchill, 1978). This study uses the consumer socialisation concept as a grounding theory, and borrows one variable from the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (i.e. attitude). Reference groups are also common in the TPB that was developed by Ajzen in 1991. The theory suggests that both attitudes and reference groups influence the intention to perform a behaviour and subsequently, the behaviour itself. Parents and peer groups are factors that have been identified in both the consumer socialisation theory and TPB. Advertising, which is considered the third factor, is included in this study for two main reasons. Firstly, advertising in its nature is meant to influence people. The Consumer Learning Theory of consumer socialisation considers advertising as one of variables influencing consumption behaviour. Secondly, since there are conflicting findings on the impact of advertising, it is important to establish the importance of this variable in the South Africa context.

Overall, this study considers both external (i.e. advertising, parents and peers) and internal (i.e. personal attitudes) factors and their influence on youth alcohol consumption. As previously mentioned, there is currently a lack of academic studies examining the combination of both external and internal variables and alcohol consumption. Previous studies have examined single groups of

variables such as socialisation agents (i.e. advertising, parental and peer group influence) which are all external factors, while other studies have examined the influence of internal variables such as attitudes, perceptions, and personality traits.

Furthermore, even though there are numerous studies on understanding alcohol consumption behaviour among young people in all parts of the world, there are limited published studies in this field in this country. South Africa is uniquely poised to add to the body of knowledge given the country's characteristics of high and growing alcohol per capital consumption despite the alcohol policies in place.

### *1.4.2 Sub-problem 1*

Determine the relationship between consumption socialisation agents (i.e. advertising, parents and peer group) and the consumption of alcohol among youth in South Africa. The intended outcome out of this study is to provide possible intervention solutions that stem from exploring the factors influencing the youth learning process and consumption decision of alcohol (i.e. advertising, parents and peer group influence).

#### *1.4.2.1 Alcohol Advertising*

Moriarty et al. (2014) describe advertising as a complex communication operating with different objectives and strategies in order to impact the thoughts, feelings and actions of consumers. Advertisers around the world seem to agree on this definition and that advertising has direct impact on sales, for the most part. However, that does not seem to be the case in the alcohol industry.

On one hand, advertising critics argued that advertising strongly influences the youth and results in "undesirable" socialisation (e.g. need to consume). On the other hand, defenders of advertising practices have responded by stating that the family is primarily responsible for what young people learn about consumption behaviour, and that advertising simply sets up the agenda for

positive parent-child interaction and provides consumption-learning experiences for the child (Moore & Moschis, 1978).

Based on the above two polarised views, it can be understood why the impact of alcohol advertising on youth consumption is a debatable issue. Even our own policy makers, the industry and the industry thought leaders cannot agree on the influence of advertising. The question should then be posed to the youth themselves. Do they perceive advertising as having an influence on their alcohol consumption?

#### *1.4.2.2 Parental Influence*

Parents have an important protective role in reducing alcohol-related risks (Li et al., 2014). The researchers further suggest that parenting may amplify existing risks of pubertal development on alcohol use, based on Contextual Amplification Theory.

Previous research on the impact of parents on their children's drinking behaviour reveal the importance of two main ways parents have an influence on youth alcohol consumption:

- Young people using their parents' own alcohol consumption to model their own consumption behaviour (Duncan, Duncan & Strycker, 2006).
- The way parents raise their children with respect to alcohol – i.e. alcohol specific socialisation – (Engels & Van der Vorst, 2003).

Increasing awareness of the risks associated with youth drinking among parents could assist in society taking more interest in reducing alcohol consumption among the youth. From a parent perspective, could limiting or refusing to supply alcohol, minimising personal use of alcohol in front of their offspring, and closely monitoring the leisure time activities of young people, assist in reducing the harmful use of alcohol among the youth? Therefore, it is important to examine how parents can influence alcohol specific socialisation and young people's drinking behaviour.

#### *1.4.2.3 Peer Influence*

As adolescents get older, they spend most of their time away from adult supervision, thus increasing the opportunities for getting involved in risk-taking behaviour such as consuming alcohol (Hensen, Larson & Dworkin, 2003). Bonnie and O'Connell (2004) added that in addition to actual changes in supervision, young adults are more focused on real and imagined peer norms.

Young people tend to pay more attention to the standards set by their friends and peers. Any unwillingness to be influenced carries with it the risk of social rejection and this is what young people fear most (Dewey, 2008).

Putting in place interventions to promote the youth's ability to resist peer pressure may be an effective way of reducing the harmful use of alcohol. Byrne and Mazanov (2005) suggest building social skills and offering stress management solutions could be ways of doing this. However, could changing predominant group norms offer other intervention options?

### *1.4.3 Sub-problem 2*

Determine the relationship between attitudes and the consumption of alcohol among the youth in South Africa.

Attitude as a factor in the Theory of Planed Behaviour was found to be a significant predictor of alcohol consumption amongst university students, as per the findings by Johnston and White (2003) and McMillan and Conner (2003). Their findings suggest that those students with a more favourable attitude towards consuming alcohol are more likely to participate in the act of consuming alcohol. Therefore, attitude represents a key variable to be examined within the context of this research.

## 1.5 Significance of the study

Judging from recent laws that have been promulgated ober the past five years, there is no doubt that the liquor laws of this country are destined for change.

South Africa is on the brink of making a decision on the ban of alcohol advertising that will have a major socio-economic impact. However, studies have shown that there are other factors that influence alcohol consumption, and these factors have been overlooked in making and passing the reduction of alcohol use policies.

It is recognised, based on the year-on-year increase alcohol per capita consumption in South Africa, that the efforts to reduce the harmful use of alcohol have achieved limited success. Policy makers have yet to identify effective means of discouraging alcohol consumption among young people. There is thus a need for a greater appreciation of the factors that are driving youth drinking and how these factors can be favourably modified to achieve improvements in outcomes (Pettigrew et al., 2013).

Identifying factors that influence the start and continued use of alcohol can assist in the development of programmes and preventive strategies of intervention. Previous studies have recommended that future studies should understand barriers and supports of alcohol usage in order to inform country-specific alcohol usage preventative strategies (Stock et al., 2009). According to Ward and Wackman (1972), understanding the process by which young people acquire consumption related skills, knowledge and attitudes are important to public policy formation.

Determining the factors that influence consumers, their attitudes, consumption and buying patterns could also provide a cornerstone of any marketing strategy for industry players. It is not only important to understand consumer behaviour but it is equally as important to also understand how individuals learn and adapt future behaviours. This matter becomes important when analysing risky behaviours among youth, like alcohol, tobacco and drug consumption (Sancho, Miguel & Aldás, 2011)

The three socialisation agents have been identified in previous studies. However, the previous research efforts focused primarily on one single factor of influence; either advertising, or community influences such as parental and

peer influence. The purpose of this research is to determine the effect of the combination of the three socialisation factors (external) and personal attitudes (internal). This will provide an enhanced insight into the engaging in a risky behaviour above and beyond that offered by a single source of influence.

Lastly, this quantitative study is specific to a local segment (South African youth, represented by those living in Johannesburg) within the current liquor laws in place, thus adding to the indigenous knowledge around youth alcohol consumption.

## 1.6 Delimitations of the study

Although this study is set to provide a contribution to both theoretical development and to provide empirical evidence on the research constructs, there were limitations of the following nature:

- The greatest limitation of the study is that it focuses on a specific target audience (youth aged between 18 – 34 who are either students or are employed). That means that input from the unemployed youth was not considered.
- Provincial and area difference in alcohol consumption in South Africa is not considered. For example, there is a high prevalence of alcohol consumption in the Western Cape. This study was conducted in Gauteng (Johannesburg and Pretoria), thus the results of this study might not be applicable to all provinces and communities.
- The research methodology used is quantitative, thus resulting in limited deep understanding, and root-cause insights into specific consumer behaviours.
- Due to the cross-sectional design nature of the study, the causal relations/long term associations cannot be established between alcohol-specific parenting and early youth drinking.
- Self-reported alcohol consumption is measured instead of actual consumption; which might raise questions on the validity of the study.

## 1.7 Definition of terms

Advertising:

A complex communication, operating with different objectives and strategies in order to impact the thoughts, feelings and actions of consumers (Moriarty et al. 2009).

Personal Attitude:

An individual's favourable or unfavourable evaluation towards a behaviour; alcohol consumption in this case (Fishbein, 1967).

Harmful use of alcohol:

A pattern of psychoactive substance use that causes damage to health. The damage may be physical (e.g. hepatitis following injection of drugs) or mental (e.g. depressive episodes secondary to heavy alcohol intake). Harmful use commonly, but not invariably, has adverse social consequences (World Health Organisation, 2011).

Parental Influence:

Any opinion, attitude, or action (other than direct tutoring) that somehow shapes or moulds the child's reading attitudes.

Peer Group influence:

The pressure, planned or unplanned, exerted by peers to influence personal behaviour (Mukama, 2010).

Socialisation:

The process by which individuals acquire the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that enables them to participate as more or less effective members of groups and society (Brim, 1966).

Social Norms:

The general expectations about behaviours that are deemed appropriate for all persons in a social context (Parsons & Stephenson, 2013).

Youth:

The national Youth Policy defines youth as “any persons between the ages of 14 and 35 years”. (The Presidency, 2015). However, due to the minimum drinking age in South Africa being 18 years, the definition of youth for the purpose of the research is any person between the ages of 18 and 34 years old.

## 1.8 Assumptions

There are various assumptions that are important in establishing a baseline for this study, and they are as follows:

- Alcohol use is influenced by environmental conditions.
- It was assumed that the feedback of the diverse sample of youth respondents is representative of South African youth population.
- All respondents were truthful in stating that they currently consume alcohol.
- It was assumed that the economic downturn has no impact on youth buying patterns.
- It was assumed that there would be no significant change in the investment behind retail sales promotions and advertising spend by alcohol manufacturers during the period this study was conducted
- The research work, in particular the collection of data using the research tool, would be completed prior to the ruling of the Marketing of Alcohol Bill. That way, no new external factors would influence the outcome of the study.

# 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1 Introduction

This section consists of a literature review on the key areas of significance to the study. Alcohol consumption is a learned behaviour influenced by external and internal factors. The learning theories of psychology are discussed, leading to the focus on consumer socialisation theory which provides the conceptual framework for the empirical models. Factors that influence youth alcohol consumption are identified, and the selected external and internal factors are discussed in detail. An empirical review of the socialisation agents (i.e. advertising, parental and peer group influence) and personal attitudes are discussed as independent variables in this study. Alcohol consumption is discussed as the outcome variable. In conclusion, the key learnings acquired in the literature reviewed are summarised, followed by conceptual model and hypothesis for this study.

## 2.2 Learning Theories

Harris and Evans (1973) define learning as “the process by which behaviour is changed as a result of experience”. The authors suggest that humans learn to become what they are, and with learning, we are able to modify and adjust to the world around us.

In 1983, Moore and Moschis deduced that here are two models of human learning: the cognitive development model and the social learning model.

1. *The cognitive developmental approach* views learning as a cognitive psychological process of adjustment to one's environment, with age used as a proxy variable for cognitive development.
2. *The social learning model*, focuses on sources of influence, as well as attitude transmission, motivations, and personal values. Learning occurs when a person interacts with socialisation agents (e.g. family, mass media) in different social settings.

For the purpose of this study, the social learning model and socialisation agents will be discussed in greater details.

## 2.3 Social Learning/Cognitive Model

There are several forms of learning that have been identified in the field of psychology:

- Conditioning: based on the responses to the external environment.
- Problem-solving: requires effort from an individual in order for learning to occur.
- Imitation and Identification: learned behaviour through the observation of others.
- Use of symbols

### *2.3.1 Conditioning*

It is said that what we learn is acquired through a process called conditioning; which is the association between a stimulus and a response. The association between stimuli and response that become conditioned may occur as a result of deliberate efforts or incidentally. These associations become fixed and are strengthened through a process called reinforcement where the activity is repeated and some reward or value is gained from it (Evans & Smith, 1970).

The first form of conditioned learning was observed by Ivan Pavlov in 1903 through conducting research with his dog. Pavlov established that the dog had learned new association between a bell ringing and food in the mouth (stimuli) and would salivate (response) (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1985). This form of conditioning is called *Classical Conditioning* and it is an association between a natural stimulus and a new or substitute stimulus. It is used to explain human behaviours such as fear and the development of language in children.

In 1963, Skinner observed another form of conditioning called *Operant Conditioning*. In his experiment, the rat formed an association between his response (operating a

lever) and a satisfying state (appearance of food). His findings were that Operant Conditioning was an association between a response and the stimuli events that followed and requires very little reinforcement (Evans & Smith, 1970). This type of conditioning can explain human behaviours such as gambling on slot machines and addiction to alcohol and drugs. This would imply that in order to maintain the satisfied state (eg. a sense of power or confidence which alcohol can provide for some people), people continue to consume alcohol.

### *2.3.2 Problem solving*

The method used in this type of learning is “trial and error”. This means that when we are faced with a problem that we need to solve, we try several possible solutions. This method entails several steps, starting with problem recognition, identifying various approaches to consider, attempting solutions, discarding errors, and repeating efforts that will lead to success (Evans & Smith, 1970). The actual learning is an individual process, but it can be aided by assistance from others. The experience that one gains from problem-solving makes future problem-solving easier

### *2.3.3 Imitation and Identification*

In this type of learning, we learn through copying the behaviour of others. Young people learn to share attitudes, opinions, and preferences of those around them; i.e. parents, peers and reference groups (Evans & Smith, 1970). Furthermore, young people can imitate the behaviours seen on mass media platforms.

### *2.3.4 Use of symbols*

This method involves the manipulation of symbols. One of the most important symbol systems humans learn is language where letters of the alphabets are combined to make words (Evan & Smith 1970).

Our knowledge, skills, opinions, ideals, attitudes and values are as a result of learning. The social learning approach stems from several theories. It emphasises sources of influence which transmit norms, attitudes, motivations, and behaviours to

the learner. Learning is assumed to take place when a person interacts with these sources of influence. The learner is said to acquire cognition and behaviour from these influencers through the process of modelling (Moschis & Churchill, 1978). Social learning theory is based on the assumption that much of the learning is done through imitation (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1985). That is, by observing another person's behaviour, an individual learns to imitate that behaviour.

## 2.4 Consumer Socialisation Theory

Consumer Socialisation Theory is one tool that can be used to provide an understanding of the factors which can influence knowledge, attitudes and behaviours of children and youth (Moschis & Churchill, 1978). John (1999, p. 185) defines consumer socialisation as "the processes by which young people acquire skills, knowledge, and attitudes relevant to their functioning as consumers in the market place".

The period from birth to adolescence brings with it developments in cognitive ability and social development. Children develop abilities that includes broadening their thinking about the environment around them, acquiring information processing skills (cognitive ability), and developing a deeper understanding of interpersonal situations (social development), which allows them to see their world through multiple perspectives. Ward and Wackman (1972) make a statement that socialisation is a continuing process and does not stop at a certain age.

### *2.4.1 Cognitive ability*

There are two elements that determine a child's cognitive ability: cognitive development and information processing. These are discussed below.

Piaget's theory of cognitive development provides a framework that characterises shifts in basic cognitive abilities. The theory proposes four stages of cognitive development: sensorimotor (0 - 2 years), preoperational (2 - 7 years), concrete operational (7 - 11 years), and formal operational (11 years through adulthood) (Ginsburg & Opper, 1988). Each stage is marked by different cognitive abilities.

Children in the preoperational phase tend to believe perception is reality, unlike children in the concrete operational phase, who are not “perceptually bound”, but can think about stimuli in their environment in a more thoughtful way. Children in the formal operational stage progress to more adult-like thinking patterns, and are capable of even more complex thoughts about concrete and hypothetical objects and situations (John, 1999).

A child’s cognitive ability can also be explained by information processing theories of child development. In the consumer behaviour literature, a child can be characterised as belonging to one of three segments based on information processing skills he or she possesses: namely, strategic processors, cued processors, and limited processors (Roedder, 1981). There are different levels of information processes that occur in the different segments in the learning process. That is information acquisition, encoding and organising the information, and information retrieval.

### *2.4.2 Social Development*

In explaining the concept of consumer socialisation, this literature review only discusses two concepts that are thought to have the most direct relevance; social perspective taking and impression formation. Other concepts that could have been covered under social development, but are not necessary for the focus of this study include moral development, altruism and pro-social development.

The social perspective taking concept involves one’s ability to see beyond one’s own perspectives. This concept is thought to be related to purchase influence and negotiation skills (John, 1999)

In 1980, Selman provided the different progress of perspectives as a child develops:

- The egocentric stage ( 3 – 6 years): a child is unaware of any perspective other than their own
- The social informational stage (6 – 8 years): a child becomes aware that others may have different opinions or motives, but believes that this is due to having different information rather than having a different perspective. Thus,

children in this stage do not have the ability to actually think from another person's perspective

- The self-reflective stage (8 – 10 years): a child can now understand that others may have different opinions or motives, and they can actually consider another person's viewpoint.
- The mutual stage (10 – 12 years): social interactions where dual consideration of both parties' perspectives are now considered. A child is now developing the ability to persuade and negotiate,
- The social and conventional system (12 years and older): features an additional development of understanding another person's perspective as it relates to the social group to which he (other person) belongs or the social system in which he (other person) operates

Social impression formation involves the ability to make social comparisons, which is related to understanding the social aspects of products and consumption.

If one were to integrate both the cognitive ability stages and the social development stages mentioned above, a clear picture emerges of the changes that take place as a child becomes socialised into their roles as consumers. As a child grows up changes occurs in terms of knowledge development, decision-making skills, and impact of different purchase influencers.

The age group that this study focuses on (i.e. youth aged 18 plus) is characterised by developed or developing cognitive and social dimensions. At this stage, young adults have acquired knowledge about marketplace concepts, such as, brands and pricing. There is also a shift in their orientation to one that is more reflective in thinking and reasoning. They have a heightened awareness of others' perspectives, as well a need to shape their own identity and conform to group expectations. This results in more attention being paid to the social aspects of being a consumer, consumer choice making, and brand selection (John, 1999).

## 2.5 Factors influencing alcohol consumption

There are many research fields apart from marketing that have studied factors that determine alcohol consumption among young consumers. It is also possible to find relevant literature in other fields, such as medicine, economic theory, psychology or sociology (Manuel Sancho, Jose Miguel, & Aldás, 2011) . The literature review for this study is restricted to the psycho-social perspective.

Donovan (2007) constructed a model based on developing a communication framework for reducing excessive alcohol consumption by young people. HIs conclusion was that factors influencing underage and young adult drinking were similar in that both age groups had the same mix of situational, predisposing and enabling factors though they varied in degree and nature. His findings suggest four major groups of factors that influence underage and youth drinking; namely:

- marketing strategies
- Individual beliefs
- Attitude and dispositions
- Sociocultural values and norms
- Regulatory and access factors

In Consumer Behaviour, the above mentioned factors can be classified into External and Internal environmental factors that have mutual interaction. For example, peer group influences (an external factor) can affect individual beliefs about norms of alcohol consumption (an internal factor). Furthermore, some of these factors can serve both as a facilitator and an inhibitor. For example, some parents can allow their offspring (who might not even be of the legal drinking age) to consume a glass of wine at a dinner table (facilitator) whilst other parents would ban alcoholic beverages from their house altogether. The researchers also noted that an individual's reaction to the factors determine whether a factor is a facilitator or an inhibitor. For example, exposure to parental alcohol abuse, depending of their offspring's resilience and other factors, might facilitate the decision to start consuming alcohol or it could lead to a strong rejection of alcohol consumption (Pettigrew & Donovan, 2003).

Not only do young children imitate their parents, but they imitate the behaviours of others around them as well, such as non-family adults and children (Perry & Bussey, 1979), and characters they see on television (deMarrais, Nelson, & Baker, 1992).

Table 2.1 provides a summary of the external factors predicting alcohol consumption as proposed by the Donovan Model (Pettigrew & Donovan, 2003).

**Table 2.1: Factors predicting Youth Alcohol Consumption (Donovan model)**

| External Factors | Facilitators | Inhibitors |
|---|---|---|
| Parents/guardians | Permissiveness, positive attitudes to alcohol neglect | Strictness, abstainers, moderate consumption |
| Family, household structure | Family breakdown, single parent household | Two parent household |
| Relatives | Permissiveness, neglect | Strictness, abstainers, moderate |
| Peers | Drinking, rebellious | Non-drinkers, complaint, studious |
| Society at large | Easy access, attitudes, media images, reports that encourage consumption | Restricted access, some religions |
| Sports involvement | General sports membership, access to licenced premises | Elite sports aspirations training requirements |
| Marketing | Advertising and promotional images, sports, music, sponsorship | Anti-alcohol driving and social campaigns |
| Leisure time | Inactive, bored | Active, high level sports |
| Workforce participation | Unemployed, underemployed | Employed full time |

The model above is further supported by numerous social theories. The Consumer Learning Theory of consumer socialisation considers advertising as one of the variables influencing consumer behaviour. The Bill to ban alcohol advertising is currently being tabled in parliament and since there are conflicting findings on the

impact of advertising on alcohol consumption, it is important to investigate this external factor in the South African context. Alcohol consumption is a learned behaviour, and according to the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), reference groups and personal attitudes influence the intention to perform a behaviour and subsequently, the behaviour itself. Parents and peer groups are factors that have also been identified in both the Consumer Socialisation Theory and TPB. Therefore, based on these multiple theories, the researcher of this paper has selected advertising, parents, peers and personal attitudes as factors to examine in this study. These selected external factors are discussed in further details.

## 2.6 The influence of advertising

According to Saffer and Dave (2000), worldwide alcohol advertisers are the biggest spenders. Martin *et al*. (2002) found that beer advertising made up the bulk of alcohol advertising, as such, youth reported seeing more television ads on alcohol vs all other types of media. In 2010, Nelson added to this point by stated that alcohol producers fall within the top leading advertisers, with a collective expenditure exceeding $4.5 billion in 2000 – globally. Similarly, SAB Miller, Diageo, and Heineken are amongst the top 10 advertisers in SA, Kenya, Nigeria, Tanzania, and Uganda (Jernigan, 2013).

Mitchell, Moriarty, and Wells (2009) describe advertising as complex communication operating with different objectives and strategies in order to impact the thoughts, feelings and actions of consumers. Advertisers around the world seem to agree on the above definition and that advertising has a direct impact on sales, for the most part. However, that does not seem to be the case in alcohol industry.

On one hand, advertising critics argued that advertising strongly influences the youth and results in "undesirable" socialisation (e.g. need to consume). On the other hand, defenders of advertising practices have responded by stating that the family is primarily responsible for what young people learn about consumption behaviour, and that advertising simply sets up the agenda for positive parent-child interaction and provides consumption-learning experiences for the child (Moore & Moschis, 1978).

### *2.6.1 How Advertising works*

There are various models and theories of how advertising works. Table 2 provides a taxonomy of models of how advertising works as illustrated by Vakratsas and Ambler (1999). It shows the progression of models starting with those that assume no immediate effect to those that propose more than one type of immediate effect in a particular hierarchy.

**Table 2.2: Taxonomy of Models of How Advertising Works**

| Model | Notation | Sequence of Effects |
|---|---|---|
| Market response | (–) | No intermediate advertising effects considered |
| Cognitive information | C | "Think" |
| Pure affect | A | "Feel" |
| Persuasive hierarchy | CA | "Think"→ "Feel" → "Do" |
| Low-involvement hierarchy | CEA | "Think" → "Do" → "Feel" |
| Integrative | (C)(A)(E) | Hierarchy not fixed, depends on product, involvement |
| Hierarchy-free | NH | No particular hierarchy of effects is proposed |

*Market response models* are econometric models that typically relate advertising, price, and promotional consumption behavioural measurements, such as sales, brand choice. These suggest that advertising increases sales and/or consumption over a short period of time, thus suggesting that purchase reinforcements and habitual loyalty are stronger than advertising effects. (Vakratsas & Ambler,1999). In the context of this study, these models would propose that advertising has no long-term impact on alcohol consumption.

*Cognitive Information models* consider advertising as information transfer and they assume that consumers' decisions are rational. These models propose that goods are classified into three major categories (search, experience and credence). In search goods, product quality and the advertising claim can be judged by evaluating the information objectively. Experience goods can be further sub-categorised into high and low based on one's considerable use. In credence goods, the average consumer cannot judge the quality of goods even after having searched for information and having had experience of these. Verma (1980) suggests that advertising is expected to be more effective for experience and credence than for search goods. In relation to this study, these theories would suggest that for effective alcohol advertising on search goods (i.e. new products in the market or alcoholic

beverages targeted at new users in the category, such as those who have come into the drinking age) more product information has to be provided. For experienced drinkers and already established brands in the market, the advertising would have to be positioned differently.

*The Pure Affect Model* focuses on the affective response and feelings that advertisements may evoke (Aaker, Stayman, & Hagerty, 1986). This theory suggests that advertising need not be informative to be effective. Its basis is that emotional and visual elements enhance product and brand. “Mere exposure” is one class of theory that suggests that consumers form their brand and product preferences based on elements such as liking and emotions introduced by the advertisement rather than the brand or product attribute. Affective responses to advertising can be classified in two ways: one leading to the formation of attitudes towards a brand/product, and the other leading to the formation of attitudes towards the advertisement (Shimp, 1981). Smit, Van Meurs, and Neijens (2006) concluded that Advertisement likeability is highly related to brand preference. In relation to this study, these theories would propose that alcohol advertising evokes likability emotions among the youth, thus leading them to make a decision to consume alcohol and/or influences their alcohol brand choice.

*Persuasive Hierarchy Models* propose a hierarchy of effects, starting with cognition, followed by affect, and leading to behaviour. These models suggest that brand attitudes are not only formed based on brand//product attributes. They can also be based on emotions (Aaker, Stayman, & Hagerty, 1986). With regard to the effects of message repetition, in low-involvement categories, repletion of different versions of an advertisement can prevent early decay (Cacioppo & Petty, 2012). Advertisement recall and attitudes can be maintained at a high level if an advertising campaign consists of a series of adverts. The first formal and most popular advertising model was AIDA and falls under this classification of advertising models. AIDA was developed by E. St Elmo Lewis in 1898 (Vakratsas & Ambler,1999) who suggested the following progression:

Attention → Interests → Desire → Action

*Low-involvement Hierarchy Models* offer an alternative to the persuasive model: Cognition → experience → affective.

In this model, product and brand experience is the dominant factor, and advertising reinforces existing habits (Ehrenberg, 1994). Product usage experience has a greater impact on beliefs, attitude formation and choice than advertising (which is believed to only reinforce usage experience). Therefore, advertising has a stronger effect on consumers who are highly loyal. In the context of this study, these theories would suggest that alcohol advertising does not persuade young people to consume alcohol, but rather reinforces usage among drinkers.

Having discussed some of the different models that explain how advertising works, it can be deduced that consciously or unconsciously, advertising must have some mental effect (eg. awareness, memory, attitude formation towards a product or brand) before it can affect behaviour. The cognitive response (i.e. "thinking") and affective response (i.e. "feeling") are the two major advertising effects, while consumption behaviour or changes thereof, represent the consequential behaviour effects of advertising (Vakratsas & Ambler,1999).

### *2.6.2 Alcohol advertising and consumption*

Research into the influence of alcohol advertising on consumption can be classified into two categories; namely econometric studies, and consumer studies.

#### *2.6.2.1 Economic Studies:*

The economic theory holds that purchase decisions are the result of largely "rational" and conscious economic calculation (Pachauri, 2001). In other words, a person spends his money on those items that will deliver the most satisfaction according to their taste and within the price range they are prepared to spend. In the context of this study, econometric studies use statistical means to examine the relationship between alcohol consumption and advertising. In other words, these studies compare the sales generated over a specific period against the total advertising spend over the same period.

The majority of the work in the area of economic studies have found that alcohol advertising has minimal effect on alcohol consumption patterns. For example, in 1976, Smart and Cutler conducted a study on alcohol advertising and the effects on the consumption of alcoholic beverages. The longitudinal study was based on sales data and per capita consumption over a period of ten years (1962 – 1972). The data showed little support for the view that the advertising ban that was implemented during this period, reduced alcohol consumption (Smart & Cutler, 1976).

Similarly, in 2001, Nelson and Young sought to establish the relationship between the bans on broadcast advertising on per capita alcohol consumption, liver cirrhosis mortality and motor vehicle fatalities. The study was conducted in seventeen countries for the years 1977 to 1995 where an alcohol advertising ban was enforced. Their results showed that the ban on alcohol advertising did not decrease alcohol consumption or alcohol abuse (Nelson & Young, 2001).

In 2003, Nelson went on to conduct another study which analysed the importance of several restrictive alcohol regulations, including advertising bans on outdoor advertising and price promotions. Data from a total of 45 states were analysed over a period of 1982–1997. Hereto, the findings were that alcohol advertising bans did not reduce total alcohol consumption (Nelson, 2003). Nelson further revisited the study he conducted in 1995 with his colleague; this time using data from 1997 to 2000. Although, the 17 countries have varying degree of alcohol control policies, through using alternative model specifications and estimation methods, he was able to prove the null hypothesis that advertising bans do not decrease alcohol consumption (Nelson, 2010).

It would appear that the majority of econometric studies could not establish a relationship between advertising and sales volume. However, there have been a few economic studies that have found a positive relationship between alcohol advertising and alcohol consumption. Saffer (1991) conducted a study to establish the effect of banning broadcast advertising of alcoholic beverages. Data was collected in 17 countries over a period of 1970 to 1983. The findings were that countries with bans on spirits advertising have about 16% lower alcohol consumption than countries with no bans and that countries with bans on beer and wine advertising have close to

11% lower alcohol consumption than countries with bans only on spirits advertising (Saffer, 1991).

Similarly, in 1999, Woodside sought to establish whether the increase in advertising expenditure increases can be associated with increases in absolute alcohol consumption. The findings were that a 0.15% increase in total alcohol consumption was associated with a 1% share increase in hard liquor advertising, and a 0.25% decrease in total alcohol consumption was associated with a 1 % share increase in beer advertising (Woodside, 1999).

While economic models are useful in providing behavioural hypotheses such as examining the relationship between alcohol advertising and sales or consumption, the validity of these hypotheses do not rest on whether all individuals act as calculation machines in making their purchase decision (Pachauri, 2001).

#### *2.6.2.2 Consumer Studies:*

Consumer studies focus on the role of external environmental factors in the process of learning, which ultimately leads to consumer behaviour. In other words, these studies assume that consumer behaviour is a conditioned response to external events (Pachauri, 2001). Consumer studies, in relation to this topic, have examined how advertising exposure would vary people's drinking knowledge, attitudes and behaviour.

Overall, consumer studies do suggest a link between advertising and youth drinking. To determine whether early adolescents who are exposed to alcohol marketing are subsequently more likely to drink, Collins and his colleagues conducted two in-school surveys of 1786 South Dakota youth. They measured exposure to television beer advertisements, alcohol advertisements in magazines, in-store beer displays and beer concessions, radio listening time, and ownership of beer promotional items. They established that exposure to advertising from all six sources at grade 6 was strongly predictive of grade 7 drinking and grade 7 intentions to drink (Collins, Ellickson, McCaffrey, & Hambarsoomians, 2007).

In 2011, Manuel Sancho, Jose Miguel, and Aldas wanted to analyse the influence of three socialisation agents (i.e. parents, peers, and advertising) over alcohol consumption intentions among the youth. Structured interviews were performed with both high school and university students. The findings were that advertising plays a more important role on underage audience intentions to consume alcohol (Manuel Sancho, Jose Miguel & Aldas, 2011).

In 2014, Cook, Bond, and Greenfield sought to examine the associations between alcohol control policies in four regulatory domains with alcohol consumption. They used individual alcohol consumption survey data and country-level alcohol policies, and from using multi-level modelling, they were able to find that greater restrictions on alcohol advertising, particularly beer advertising, were associated inversely with alcohol consumption (Cook, Bond & Greenfield, 2014).

Overall, consumer studies do suggest a link between advertising and youth drinking.

There seems to be no one consistent view from two categories of studies that sought to establish or disprove the relationship between advertising and alcohol consumption among adolescents and youth (i.e. econometrics and consumer studies), yet South Africa is on the brink of making a decision that will have a major impact not only on the industry, but also on the economy.

### *2.6.3 South Africa and the advertising of alcohol*

In early 2013, the Minister of Health, Dr Aaron Motsoaledi, announced that a draft bill, the Control of Marketing of Alcoholic Beverages Bill, was ready to be presented to parliament (Myers & Parry, 2013). On the 18th of September 2013, it was announced that the bill had been passed by parliament and would be gazetted and made available for public commentary. To date, it is still unclear what the draft bill proposes, however, in a version leaked to the press in 2012, the Bill proposed to ban all forms of alcohol branding, including wine bottle labels, signage, and even logos on delivery trucks (Parry, Burnhams, & London, 2012).

However, there were wide views on the proposed Bill, from job losses, promotion of trade in illicit alcohol, infringe on personal freedoms, and hurting the arts and sports

development through loss of sponsorships (Parry, London, & Myers, 2014). This would have an adverse economic impact (Ramsoomar, 2015). The South African Chamber of Commerce believed that the total ban of alcohol advertising would seriously impact areas of business such as advertising, retail, and hospitality industries. The sporting fraternity and local communities would be negatively affected should the sport sponsorships be banned. The largest alcohol manufacturer in South Africa, South African Breweries (SAB), has been sponsoring the National Rugby and Soccer teams from as far back as the early 1950's and have also led socio-economic development within the local communities (Siegfried et al., 2014).

The South African Industry Association for Responsible Alcohol Use (ARA) commissioned an econometric report that reviewed forty two studies and reached a conclusion that there is no link between alcohol consumption and advertising, but rather this influenced brand choice. Apart from the report being industry funded which brings into question it's credibility, Myers and Parry (2013) also pointed out methodological shortcomings of the report. Amongst these is the clustering of two types of research methodologies and studies that answer different research questions to derive the finding of the report; that is, the impact of advertising exposure and bans on population levels of alcohol consumption with consumer studies examining the role that advertising plays in the onset of alcohol use among adolescents and young people (Myers & Parry, 2013). Thirty of the forty two studies used, focused on the total adult population, and the studies are not disaggregated by age. Alcohol advertising has different effects on adolescent and adult populations. Adolescent populations appear significantly more susceptible to the effects of advertising than adults (Myers & Parry, 2013).

It is important to establish whether or not South Africans perceive advertising as having an influence on their alcohol consumption behaviour, particularly the youth. Although this research cannot demonstrate a causal effect relationship, it attempts to show the strength of association between reported alcohol advertising and reported alcohol consumption, whilst also controlling for other social factor (i.e. parental and peer group influences). If one were to take the definition of advertising as proposed by Mitchell, Moriarty, and Wells (2009), then alcohol advertising should impact

thoughts, feelings and action to consume. Research examining the effects of advertising on alcohol-related beliefs, attitudes, and future consumption intentions has found a relationship between exposure to alcohol-related advertising and positive attitudes toward alcoholic beverage advertisements, positive attitudes toward drinking outcomes, and future drinking behaviours (Atkin, Hocking, & Block 1984; Stacy et al. 2004).

Advertising (ad) awareness is one of the key measures of evaluating the effectiveness of advertising. Macdonald and Sharp (2003) define ad awareness as a measure of the recall of a particular ad campaign. Grube and Wallack (1994) report that children who are aware of beer adverts hold more favourable beliefs about drinking, intend drinking in their adulthood, and are more knowledgeable of beer brands and slogans. Therefore, it can be deduced that previous findings support the notion that alcohol awareness attributed to advertising may result in favourable drinking beliefs, knowledge, and drinking intentions among young people.

Therefore the following hypothesis is constructed:

*H1: There is a positive relationship between reported alcohol advertising exposure and reported alcohol consumption.*

Previous studies that have established a link between alcohol advertising and consumption behaviour among the youth include Woodside (1999); Saffer (1991); Cook, Bond, and Greenfield (2014).

## 2.7 Parental Influence

The importance of parental drinking in the alcohol socialisation process has been investigated in a large number of studies (Ryan et al., 2010). The researchers further suggest that parenting may amplify existing risks of pubertal development on alcohol use, based on Contextual Amplification Theory.

Previous research on the impact of parents on their children's drinking behaviour reveal the importance of two main ways parents have an influence on youth alcohol consumption:

- Young people using their parents' alcohol consumption to model their own consumption behaviour (Duncan, Coatsworth, & Greenberg, 2006)
- The way parents raise their children with respect to alcohol – i.e. alcohol specific socialisation – (Engels & Van der Vorst, 2003).

Some of these studies have found that there is no effect of parental drinking on harmful drinking behaviour, while others studies found that binge drinkers are influenced by the drinking behaviour in their families. Therefore, it is important to examine how parental drinking moderates the relationship between alcohol-specific socialisation and early adolescents' drinking. For the purpose of this study, the parental influence variable comprises the two ways in which parents have an influence on youth alcohol consumption. These are discussed next.

### *2.7.1 Parental alcohol use*

Parental use suggests pattern of alcohol role modelling from parents to offspring. This suggests that not only are alcohol uptake and intake per occasion habits transmitted to offspring, but parental frequency of alcohol consumption predicts frequency of alcohol consumption in their offspring. There have been several studies conducted around that work that support this view.

According to Kinard and Webster (2010), parental influence is shown to be the second most influential variable for adolescent risk behaviours. The study was conducted across three cities in the United States of America; namely Chicago, Texas, and Washington DC. Their conclusion was that parental and peer influence combined account for 26% of unique variance in adolescent smoking and alcohol consumption behaviour.

Weitzman, Nelson, and Wechsler (2003) conducted a study amongst teenagers in Australia to identify personal, social group, and environmental factors associated with the uptake of binge drinking among a sample of 1999 college students, of which majority were first year students. The research instrument they used required the students to comment on their substance use, school activities, and background characteristics. The cross sectional study found that parents' alcohol use and

attitudes toward use differed between uptake and non-uptake youth groups. Two-thirds of the uptake group and one-half of the non-uptake group reported that their parents drank while they were growing up.

A similar conclusion was found in China by Hung et al. (2011). Their findings were that alcohol use in adolescents develops mainly through mimicking parental behaviour. They also proposed that when considering programmes that aim to decrease adolescent's alcohol use, using parents as role models should be an important consideration.

A longitudinal study conducted by Pedersen and Von Soest (2013) in Norway sought to identify longitudinal predictors of young adult binge drinking. The 2558 respondents who were surveyed were of varying ages; from mid-adolescence to late 20's. These students were 7th graders from 67 Norwegian schools. The students were followed over a 13-year period with three additional data collections over this period. Their findings were that parental alcohol consumption was transferred to their off-spring. Furthermore, parental frequency of alcohol consumption predicted frequency of alcohol consumption in their offspring at age 28.

In Australia, Pettigrew, et al. (2013) discussed the role of parents and other adults in preventing and facilitating teenage binge drinking. Unlike other studies in this area of interest, this was a qualitative study where the teenagers' internet discussions on the websites were accessed in an attempt to examine their opinions of their alcohol-related interactions with adults. The data generated comprised 824 pages of text relating to alcohol beliefs and behaviours. The data were qualitatively analysed for themes. Their findings were that the role of adults in endorsing a culture of excessive alcohol consumption was considerable.

Although few, there are other studies that have shown that parental alcohol use does not influence youth alcohol consumption; which offer a contrasting view to those discussed above.

Koning, Engels, Verdurmen, and Vollebergh (2010) conducted a study in the Netherlands that examined the associations of alcohol-specific socialisation practices and heavy parental drinking with alcohol use in early adolescents. The

uniqueness of their study was that they gathered data from both young adolescent students (from nineteen secondary schools in the Netherlands) and their parents. A total of 3368 students and 2840 parents completed self-administered questionnaires. Their findings indicated that parental alcohol use had little importance at that early stage of drinking.

Similar to the influence of alcohol advertising, there are contrasting views of the influence of parents' alcohol use on youth alcohol consumption, and how they impact on the decision to consume alcohol.

### *2.7.2 Alcohol specific parenting (rules and attitudes)*

Alcohol specific parenting can be considered in the context of monitoring and support, parental expectations, and supply of alcohol.

Most of the above mentioned studies on parental influence on youth alcohol consumption also examined the impact of specific parental methods used and how that impacted on youth alcohol usage. The studies established that restrictive alcohol-specific socialisation was associated with a decrease in alcohol uptake and a decrease in frequency of alcohol consumption (Koning, Engels, Verdurmen, & Vollebergh, 2010; Weitzman, Nelson & Wechsler, 2003).

Pedersen and Von Soest (2013)'s findings support the notion that parental monitoring and support is of particular importance in adolescence, although later on in life this influence becomes less important. Pettigrew, et al. (2013) state that the presence of parents can effectively prevent youth drinking; failure to monitor their children's drinking adequately will allow opportunities of heavy consumption amongst their children and their peers.

Parental expectations have shown a delay in initiating drinking among non-users. This is supported by the study by Pettigrew, et al. (2013); and Hung et al. (2011). The latter study further suggested that the mothers' attitudes towards alcohol drinking affect adolescent's alcohol drinking behaviour has a far great influence than those of fathers. This could be driven by the greater level of interaction and strong emotional bond between adolescents and their mothers compared to their fathers.

In terms of the willingness to supply alcohol, Pettigrew, et al. (2013), suggest that this action was frequently mentioned by adolescents as a means by which parents influence consumption.

These studies seem to confirm that restrictive rules and parental negative attitudes towards alcohol consumption appeared to be an effective alcohol-specific socialisation practice.

Parental use of alcohol and parenting will form a uni-dimensional construct by grouping these two factors into one construct; i.e. parental influence. Therefore the following hypothesis is constructed:

*H2: There is a positive relationship between parental influence and reported alcohol consumption.*

## 2.8 Peer Influence

Along with parental influences, peer influences are recognised as playing an important role in influencing one's alcohol consumption behaviour. To be influenced by one's peers does not always predict negative outcomes. However, research has found that the tendency to seek advice from peers over parents had no long-term consequences for early adolescents (Fuligni, Eccles, Barber, & Clements, 2001).

As adolescents get older, they spend most of their time away from adult supervision, thus increasing the opportunities for getting involved in risk-taking behaviour such as consuming alcohol (Dusenbury et al., 2003). Bonnie and O'Connell (2004) added that in addition to actual changes in supervision, young adults are more focused on real and imagined peer norms. They are likely to pay more attention to the standards set by their friends and peers. Any unwillingness to be influenced carries with it the risk of social rejection and this is what young people fear most (Dewey, 2008).

Members of peer groups tend to share similar socio-demographic, behavioural, and interpersonal characteristics (McPherson, Smith-Lovin & Cook, 2001). At an individual level, this similarity has been referred to as homophily (Kandel, 1978); and at the group level, homogeneity occurs when peer group members resemble each

other (Cohen, 1977). Homophily and homogeneity are thought to unfold in a two-step process. Starting with homophily, where an individual joins friends or groups on the basis of pre-existing similarities. Once in a group, friends and peer group members tend to grow more similar to one another (socialisation).

Kiuru et al. (2010) conducted a study that examined the importance of peer selection and socialisation in adolescent alcohol and tobacco. 1419 Finnish secondary education students aged 15 to 17 were given questionnaires. Each respondent had to identify three school friends and describe their alcohol and tobacco use on two occasions one year apart. The study found that the adolescents selected their friends based on similar drinking behaviours. Furthermore, young people are driven to respond to modelling of one's peers and having pressure to conform to the peer pressure. That suggests that peers influence consumption by both group selection and socialisation. This would imply that in groups where drinking is encouraged, the individuals tend to higher levels of alcohol use and drinking holds high status. While in non-drinking peer groups, there may be pressure on their members to reduce drinking or to not drink at all.

Peer influence on youth drinking is said to operate directly or indirectly in the uptake and continued drinking behaviour (Borsari & Carey, 2001). The direct process mostly involves increased accessibility to and availability of alcoholic beverages. The indirect process includes descriptive (i.e. the perceived peer drinking) and injunctive (i.e. the perception of others' expectations to consume alcohol) norms. The outcome may be that these young people overestimate others' drinking and acceptance of such behaviour, leading to them believing that the norm is to consume alcohol. There is evidence that shows that pro-alcohol descriptive norms (e.g. perceived high alcohol consumption amongst one's peers) can predict an increase in alcohol initiation and consumption (Chen et al., 2015).

In 2011, Hung et al. conducted a study that explored the direct and indirect effects of alcohol-related socialisation factors in a low alcohol consumption country. Data were collected from 1940 grade nine pupils aged 14 to 15 years. The study found that adolescents readily identify with and mimic the behaviour of their peers. As a result, if one is in the presence of peers who drink, there is an increased likelihood of one consuming alcohol (Hung et al., 2001).

Therefore, it can be considered that if one's peers consume more alcohol, then one is also more likely to consumer more due to the need to be accepted by the group.

However, it must be noted that the older young people get, the lower the influence of peers plays in alcohol consumption. This notion was established by a study conducted by Manuel Sancho, Jose Miguel, and Aldas (2011). They found that the individuals they sampled between the ages of 18 and 25 year, alcohol consumption was directly and highly determined by brand recall (advertising) and negative expectancies (harmful use of alcohol educational communication), and to a lesser extent, by positive expectancies and by peer consumption.

Similar to parental influence, peers are seen to influence youth alcohol consumption in two ways; i.e. peer usage and peer alcohol-related attitudes. Therefore, hereto, a uni-dimensional construct of the two factors is used to establish the relationship of peer influence. Based on this, the following hypothesis can be constructed:

*H3: There is a positive relationship between the peer influence and reported alcohol consumption*

## 2.9 Personal Attitudes

Attitude, as a factor in the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), was found to be a significant predictor in intention to consume alcohol among adults. TPB predicts the occurrence of a specific behaviour provided that the behaviour is intentional.

According to the TPB, the human behaviour is guided by three kinds of considerations:

- Whether or not a person is in favour of doing it ('attitude')
- How much social pressure the person feels about doing it ('subjective norm')
- Whether the person feels in control of the action in question ('perceived behavioural control')

Ajzen (2006) concluded that behavioural beliefs produce a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the behaviour; normative beliefs result in perceived social pressure (also known as subjective norm); while control beliefs give rise to perceived behavioural control. In combination, attitude toward the behaviour,

subjective norm, and perception of behavioural control lead to the formation of a behavioural intention. Therefore, this proposed study only focuses on one of the variable identified in the TPB; that is attitude.

An attitude is a combination of feelings, beliefs, and action tendencies towards classes of people or objects (Bourne & Ekstrand, 1973). Allport (1935, p.17) defines attitude as "a mental and neutral state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related". This state of mind basically influences the response of a person towards all objects and situations with which they are confronted. The authors are all in agreement that attitudes are not innate, but rather, they are learned, they develop and they are organised through experience. Furthermore, attitudes are dynamic. They are not latent states of preparedness awaiting activation, but rather, they have motivational qualities and can lead to a person seeking (or avoiding) the objects about which they are organised. One other characteristic that is proposed by Halloran (1976), is that an attitude is an inferred entity; it cannot be measured directly but rather deduced from other observable data.

Attitudes are subjective characteristics of an individual, made up of the characteristics of the social and physical world; experience, and the result of training and learning. According to Katz (1960) and Grewal, Mehta and Kardes (2000) attitudes serve four key functions for individuals:

- *Utilitarian function:* based on classical condition theory, with people tending to form positive attitude towards rewarding products and negative attitude towards other products. For example, a student who is influenced by peer pressure to partake in a risky behaviour such as binge drinking (i.e. to satisfy the need of social approval)
- *Knowledge function:* For example, if someone hears of the negative effect of the harmful use of alcohol through the media, they will naturally have some attitude toward that issue, and lack of information about it will cause the person to have no attitude toward the issue.
- *Ego-Defensive function:* when people form attitudes to defend their egos and self-images against threats and shortcomings. For example, a child belonging

to a family that is against alcohol consumption, will cause that child to formulate an attitude similar the attitude of their family.

- *Value Expressive function:* when attitudes are formed and serve to express an individual's central values and self-concept. Attitude will reflect an individual's personality. For example, even in a group, there is attitudinal difference that is the result of individual personality judgment.

Attitudes are formed by all of the four different influences but generally one of them plays a more important role (Hawkins, Best & Coney, 2004).

### *2.9.1 Attitude formation*

According to Hawkins, Best and Coney (2004), attitudes have three components: *Cognitive Component*, which relates to the consumer's beliefs about a product; *Affective Component*, which relates to the emotional reactions to an object and *Behaviour Component*, which is the tendency to respond in a certain manner toward an object or activity. All three components of attitude are relevant, but they might vary in the degree of importance according to the motivation with regard to an attitude object. The concept of hierarchy of effects was developed to explain the relative impact of the three components on a sequence of steps to form attitude (Solomon, 2004). Depending on how the hierarchy is established, different kinds of attitudes are formed. For example, when *affect* comes before *behaviour* and *cognition*, a mainly hedonistic purchase occurs, because a consumer buys a product (behaviour) based only on their feelings about the product, without taking into account their beliefs (cognition) toward the product (Montazeri, Sharifinia, Hadian, & Mohammadbagher, 2013). Another possibility of attitude formation might be if a consumer assigns *beliefs* to a specific product, then *purchases* the product and after that, develops *feelings* about the product. This type of hierarchy is related to non-involvement purchases and is characterised by consumers not interested in processing all the information that is given (Carvalho, 2013).

Ajzen (1991) emphasised that positive attitude towards a particular behaviour strengthens the intention to perform that behaviour. In previous studies around the

consumption of alcohol among young people, attitude as a factor in the TPB was found to be a significant predictor of engaging in the activity (Johnston & White, 2003; McMillan & Conner, 2003). This means that those students with a more favourable attitude towards alcohol consumption are more likely to intend to consume alcohol (Johnston & White, 2003; McMillan & Conner, 2003). Thus, attitude represents a key variable to be examined within the context of this research

*H4: There is a positive relationship between personal attitudes and reported alcohol consumption.*

## 2.10 Conceptual model and Hypothesis Statement

The following conceptual model is adopted, based on the literature on students and alcohol consumption.

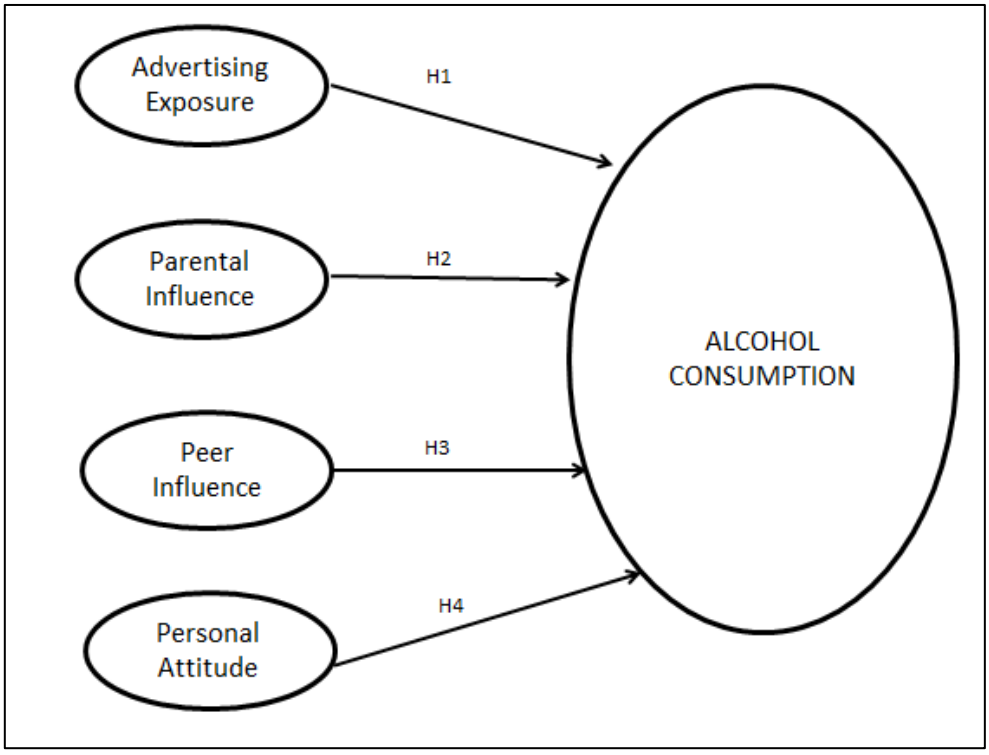


**Figure 2.1: A Conceptual Model of advertising, parental, peer group influence, and on personal attitudes and youth alcohol consumption, adopted from Roedder's model of consumer socialisation stage (Roedder, 1999).**

H1: There is a positive relationship between reported alcohol advertising exposure and reported alcohol consumption.

H2: There is a positive relationship between parental influence and reported alcohol consumption.

H3: There is a positive relationship between the peer influence and reported alcohol consumption.

H4: There is a positive relationship between personal attitudes and reported alcohol consumption.

## 2.11 Conclusion of Literature Review

Alcohol consumption is a learned behaviour. Young adolescents are making decisions about alcohol consumption within a particular social setting, as a result, socialisation agents are examined in this study. Of particular importance is the influence of peers, adults and advertising. Parents' and peers' attitude towards alcohol consumption and the use there of, is said to influence young people directly through observation and modelling of the behaviour (Bandura, 1985), and advertising is said to influence indirectly through influencing the alcohol expectancies and attitudes (Kuther, 2002).

When one considers the influence of advertising on alcohol consumption, there are no consistent findings. Econometric studies have mostly found that there is an association between alcohol advertising and young drinking behaviour. On the other hand, consumer studies have established a link between alcohol advertising and alcohol use among the youth. This study seeks to establish a relationship between alcohol advertising usage, and frequency of usage among the South African youth population.

Similar to the influence of alcohol advertising, there are contrasting views of the influence of parents' alcohol use on youth alcohol consumption, and how they impact on the decision to consume alcohol. Studies also confirm that restrictive rules and

parental negative attitudes towards alcohol consumption appeared to be an effective alcohol-specific socialisation practice.

Studies have established that peer group can influence young people's alcohol consumption behaviour through either associating with peers who consume (i.e. peer selection) and/or through conforming to the perceived social norms (i.e. socialisation) directly and indirectly. If that is the case, then the policy makers should be considering efforts to influence social norms among peer groups. However, in order for these efforts to be effective, the perceived influence of peer groups needs to be established.

As discussed above, the literature review points to differing conclusions that the socialisation agents (advertising, parent and peer influence) influence alcohol consumption among the youth. Hence this study tests the strengths of these socialisation agents in the South African context. Further, from a South African perspective, it would be thought-provoking to evaluate and identify influential elements within each socialisation agent that could form the basis of programmes that seek to reduce the harmful use of alcohol among the youth.

# 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This Chapter identifies and describes the methodology that was employed in this research. The methodology consists of the procedure for conducting research and scientific investigation (Babbie 2013; Wagner, Kawulich and Garner, 2012) and gives attention to the epistemological considerations, ontological considerations and the theoretical paradigm of the researcher (Bryman, 2012; Neuman, 2014; Symon & Cassell, 2012). Eight objectives of the methodology are examined in this chapter: to identify and describe the research strategy (Section 3.1); the research design (Section 3.2); the population and sample (Section 3.3); the research instrument (Section 3.4); the data collection procedures (Section 3.5); data analysis and interpretation (Section 3.6); the potential limitations of the research procedure and methods (Section 3.7) and the reliability and validity measures applied to assess and establish the quality of the research (Section 3.8).

## 3.1 Research Strategy

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p. 680) describe research strategy as, "a general plan of how the researcher will go about answering the research question(s)", while Bryman et al, (2014, p. 30) define it "a general orientation to the conduct of business research".

There are three types of research strategy that can be applied to a study; that is, qualitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. As this research seeks to establish relationships between variables, and having considered previous studies relating to similar topics, as discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2, this study follows the **quantitative research** strategy approach.

Bryman et al. (2014, p. 31) suggests that "quantitative research approach tends to emphasize quantification in the collection and analysis of data; adopt a deductive approach to the relationship between theory and research in which emphasis is placed on testing theories; incorporates the practices and norms of the model of the natural sciences and of positivism in particular". Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill

(2012, p.162) report that quantitative research examines relationships between different variables which are measured by numerical means and a range of statistical techniques are used to analyse using the data. Robson (2011) adds that what is sought after in this approach is the accuracy and precision of measurements; as such, the information or data collected is converted into numbers which allow for measurement and quantification.

This method was selected for this study as it would assist in attempting to answer questions by assigning importance to the respondents' responses and results. Furthermore, using this method allows for various methods of confidence in making causal inferences. A quantitative research method is used to collect data and analyse large amounts of data that explain some (of the many) relationships underlying alcohol consumption among young people.

In the study conducted by Morgenstern et al. (2011), they assessed the association between alcohol ad exposure and alcohol use in German adolescents. They employed a quantitative method in order to measure the association between the two variants (advertising and alcohol consumption). The same research methodology was used in the studies by Collins et al. (2007); Cook, Bond and Greenfield (2014), in the evaluation of the effects of advertising exposure on youth alcohol consumption.

Considering the second variable examined in the study (i.e. parental influence), previous studies seeking to establish the influence of parental influence on alcohol consumption also used quantitative methods to assess the significance of this variable. These include studies done by Weitzman, Nelson, and Wechsler (2003); Koning, et al, (2010); Hung, et al. (2011); Pedersen and von Soest (2013).

Studies done by Kiuru et al. (2010); and Lee et al. (2015) that examined the impact of peer groups on youth alcohol consumption used the quantitative approach in their studies to establish the relationship. Manuel Sancho, Jose Miguel and Alda (2011) used a quantitative method to establish the influence of all three socialisation agents (parents, peers and advertising) over alcohol consumption intentions among young people.

Based on the above mentioned studies, quantitative research lends itself to measuring the relationship between variables, as well as to processing large amounts of data. Therefore the researcher of this study has selected a quantitative research strategy in order to measure the association between latent variables. This research approach has allowed the study to establish the relationship between advertising, parental influence, peer group influence, and attitudes and alcohol consumption amongst the youth. A fairly large amount of data was collected across the variables, and by using the quantitative approach allowed for ease of collection, processing and analyzing the data. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) also supports the use of this method as it is relatively less time consuming to analyse the data as a statistical tool is used.

## 3.2 Research Design

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p.682) define research design as a "framework for the collection and analysis of data to answer the research question and meet research objectives providing reasoned justification from choice of data sources, collection methods and analysis techniques". Bryman et al. (2014) concur that it provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data. Robson (2011, p.532) suggests that research design "deals primarily with aims, purposes, intentions and plans within the practical constraints of location, time, money and availability of staff".

Bryman (2012) identified five different types of research designs; namely, cross-sectional (or survey) design, longitudinal design, experimental design, case study, and comparative design. What is fundamental is that a research design is a way that a researcher collects data.

A **cross-sectional design** was used for this study. Robson (2011, p.127) states that "in a cross sectional design, data is collected at a single point in time". Bryman (2012, p.106) states that "the variation among the cases can only be established using a consistent method of measurement throughout – therefore, using quantitative or quantifiable data allows a standardised and systematic technique for measuring variation". The ability to detect variation and patterns of association in the

different sub-categories within a cross-section study is a key benefit of a cross-sectional design (Bryman, 2012), and therefore the selection of this design for this study.

Previous researches conducted in the area of this study have also used cross-sectional design. These include Kinard and Webster (2010); Koning et al. (2010); Hung et al. (2011); Manuel Sancho, Jose Miguel and Aldas (2011); Gunay and Baker (2011); Morgenstern et al. (2011); Pettigrew et al. (2013); and Cook, Bond, and Greenfield (2014). By using a cross-sectional research design, the studies were able to assess the impact of the independent variables on youth alcohol consumption at a specific point in time across the different sample groups. Most importantly, the researchers were able to compare different variables at the same time.

## 3.3 Population and Sample Selection

### *3.3.1 Target Population*

Bryman et al. (2014, p.170) defines target population as "The universe of units, like people, nations, cities, regions, firms etc. from which the sample is to be selected". Robson (2011) further states that participants representing the larger group are selected as representatives. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p.238) briefly describe a target population as “the full set of cases from which a sample is taken”. The choice of participants should be based on the focus of the research, thus allowing the researchers to meet their research aims and answer the research questions (Symon & Cassell, 2012).

The target population for this study was as follows:

- Age: respondents had to be youth that are above the legal alcohol drinking age; i.e. between the ages of 18 – 34 years.
- Gender: both genders were represented.
- Race: respondents represented the diverse racial groups of South African population.

- Behaviour: respondents had to be consumers of alcohol.

A wide range of target populations were selected in previous research that sought to understand the effects of advertising on the youth alcohol consumption: ranging from 6th to 9th grade scholars (Morgenstern et al, 2011), to 15 - 25 yrs old (Manuel Sancho, Jose Miguel and Alda, 2011),and university students aged 18 - 35 years old (Sharma, 2013). It should be noted that a large number of articles in this area of study used adolescents as the target population as it is assumed that this is when consumer learning takes place and consumption choices are made.

However, in South African, the legal drinking age is currently 18 years and the classification for “youth” is anyone below the age of 35 years old. Hence the target sample of 18 – 34 years was deemed ethical and appropriate for this research.

The rationale for the selection of this segment of the population is as follows:

1. The decision to consume alcohol is primarily made at an early stage of an individual’s life, i.e. around the legal drinking age;
2. Young adults are impressionable, thus making them easily influenced by external factors;
3. Consumption growth of the alcohol category is set to come from new consumers entering the market (i.e. those who previously did not part taking in the category, of which those coming of age are the biggest segment).

Johannesburg is the second largest city in Africa with more than 4.4 million people living in it (STATSA, 2016). The city is classified as an economic hub for the country, and as such, there is a wide diversity of people living in the city. Thus, making Johannesburg an ideal location in which to conduct this study.

### *3.3.2 Sample method and sampling size*

Bryman et al. (2014, p. 383) define sampling as "the segment or subset of the population that is selected from investigation. It is a subset of the population". Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p. 679) describe quota sampling as "a non-probability sampling procedure that ensures that the sample represents certain

characteristics of the population chosen by the researcher". The benefits of this method, as stated by Robson (2011), is that it is feasible and it allows one to draw inference of the various elements of a population, even though it is not a probability method sampling.

Convenience sampling, in particular quota sampling, was used in previous youth alcohol studies as it allowed for controlling for age and gender (Manuel Sancho, Jose Miguel and Alda, 2011: Gunay & Baker, 2011; Morgenstern et al., 2011; Sharma et al., 2013).

The respondent selection method employed was one of non-random quota sampling. The relevant control variables which defined the quotas were age (i.e. must be over the age of 18 years) and alcohol consumption status (i.e. must be consumer of alcoholic beverages). Respondents were selected based on particular criteria.

There is an estimated 1.22 million economically active young people in Johannesburg (18-34 years), of which 31.5% are unemployed (STATSA, 2016). A significant number of young people can be found at tertiary institutions. However, to ensure a true representation and diversity of the youth population, this study collected questionnaires from youths in different life stages (i.e. students and the employed). The unemployed youth were not considered for this study as the researcher made the assumption that this youth group would have the added limitation of not being able to afford alcohol, which would affect their responses.

The sample size was arrived at by considering the table for determining minimum returned sample size as recommended by Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001). With a youth population size of 1.22 million in Johannesburg, along with the fact that categorical data would be collected through administration of the questionnaire, and an alpha level of acceptable risk of 0.5 (i.e. t-value of 1.96), according to the table, the recommended sample size would have had to be between 278 and 306.

A total of 300 youths were issued with a handwritten questionnaire. In order to ensure 95% - 100% returned surveys, the research selected areas where the youth could be found, where they were not pressed for time, and where it would be easy to have the respondents complete the questionnaire on the spot and return to the

interviewer. The fieldwork of issuing and collecting the questionnaire was done over a period of one month across different areas in Gauteng (mainly in Johannesburg) in order to collect data from the youth that is representative of some of the life stages.

The researcher capitalised on the lecture breaks, and with the assistance of the lecturers, questionnaires were given to students at Wits University and the Central Johannesburg FET collage. A total of 164 questionnaires were completed by students at these learning institutions. These students were from different racial groups and backgrounds. Seventy-seven questionnaires were issued and collected from youth who are employed by one of the country's largest construction company, Group Five. The respondents work on one of the construction sites which Group Five has been commissioned to do. These respondents would represent the blue-collar / manual youth workers. The remaining 69 questionnaires were collected from youth commuters travelling between Pretoria and Johannesburg during a work day. It can be assumed that these respondents are employed (i.e. white-collar / office youth workers). One trip on the Gauteng Business Express commuter train was done. The train offers speed and comfort for commuters travelling from Pretoria, Centurion, Kempton Park and Johannesburg. Commuters, those who fall within the youth age group, were asked to participate in the study.

The sample size (i.e. 300) is deemed sufficient to test the relationships between the variables using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) on AMOS statistical software (Byrne, 2013), which was utilised for data analysis. The data analysis and interpretation is further discussed in Section 3.6. Details of the research instrument are discussed in the following section.

## 3.4 Data collection instrument

### *3.4.1 Structure of research data collection instrument*

Quinlan et al. (2011, p.97); Wagner, Garner and Kawulich (2012, p. 112) define data collection as "a means of gathering the data required for the research project. According to Neuman (2014), the data collection process can be categorised into

two groups: collecting data in the form of numbers (quantitative) or in the form of words or pictures (qualitative). According to Bryman et al. (2014, p.225), “there are three types of data collection instruments; unstructured, semi-structured, and fully structured. In an unstructured interview, the researcher uses a brief set of prompts and the interviewee is then allowed to respond freely. In a semi-structured interview, the researcher has a list of questions on fairly specific topics to be covered, often referred to as an interview guide, but the interviewee has leeway in how to reply”. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p.682) consider fully structured instruments as “a data collection method that allows replication with ease and are highly reliable”.

Robson (2011) and Bryman et al. (2014) both agree that structured research interviews are those where all respondents are asked exactly the same questions in the same order. As the research in question sought to establish consistencies in the relationships between the variables, it was crucial to ensure that the respondents were made to answer the same questions. For this reason, the research used a **structured method** of collecting data (also known as questionnaire).

As previously mentioned, quantitative research strategy was used for this study. This study utilised a self-completion questionnaire (also referred to as self-administered questionnaire). Self-administered questionnaires were also used across the different studies that examine the influence of alcohol advertising on consumption (Manuel Sancho, Jose Miguel & Alda, 2011; Gunay & Baker, 2011; Morgenstern et al., 2011; Sharma et al., 2013).

Questionnaires are a technique that broadly falls within survey research – which involves asking a sample of many respondents the same questions, in order to measure several variables and simultaneously test multiple hypotheses (Neuman, 2014). As Bryman (2012) proposes, this data collection instrument is administered without the assistance of an interviewer. Therefore, the participants must be able to read and understand the questions in the questionnaire and record the answers themselves (Neuman, 2014). Self-administered questionnaires come in several forms, including mail (postal) surveys; group-administered; and e-mail and internet surveys (Babbie, 2013; Wagner et al., 2012). The main advantages of this type of data collection instrument as described by Bryman (2012) are that they are cheap

and quick to administer. Other advantages associated with self-administered questionnaires include the elimination of interviewer bias and gathering sensitive information. Due to the sensitivity of gathering information, self-administered questionnaires offered a useful way of extracting sensitive information regarding, for example, alcohol consumption behaviour, often associated with personal interviewing.

### *3.4.2 Research instrument items and source*

The questionnaire was administered in English, and consisted of six sections. Section A asked demographic questions, general opinions on the nation's state of alcohol consumption, and a single screen question to ensure that the respondents who are completing the questionnaire are current consumer of alcohol. Section B contained the scales measuring advertising exposure, while Section C asked questions around parental alcohol usage and attitudes, and Section D collected responses on peer alcohol usage and attitudes. Section E consisted of a scale to measure personal attitude and Section F was a scale to measure the outcome variable of the research (i.e. self-reported alcohol consumption). The close-ended questions that allowed for restriction of options, measured the impact of the predictor variables against the consumption behaviour. The questionnaire took approximately 10 minutes to complete.

The following section discusses the questions that were asked in the questionnaire, in order to test each variable. Refer to Annexure 1 for the research instrument.

The measurement scale for all questions was constant for data analysis purposes. A five-point Likert scale was used to capture responses. Response options for each item within each question included the following: "strongly disagree" (scoring 1), "disagree" (scoring 2), "neutral" (scoring 3), "agree" (scoring 4) and "strongly agree" (scoring 5)

#### *3.4.2.1 Predictor variable: Reported advertising exposure*

Advertising influence was assessed using recalled exposure to advertised messages. The study adopted measures constructed by Schooler, Feighery and Flora (1996); Anderson et al. (2009); Smith and Foxcroft (2009).

To assess exposure, the participants were asked if they had experienced the following in the past year (1) seen an alcoholic drink or brand being advertised on TV; (2) heard an advert on Radio advertising an alcoholic drink or brand, (3) seen a Print advert (newspapers or magazines) advertising an alcoholic drink or brand; (4) engaged a social media campaign (Facebook, Instagram, Twitter) that was linked to an alcoholic drink or brand, (5) attended any event that was sponsored by an alcohol brand or alcohol manufacturing company, (6) seen any outdoor billboards advertising an alcoholic drink or brand; (7) seen any actor(actress) drinking a branded alcoholic drink on a TV show or movie. The respondents were asked to make a single selection for each statement based on the measurement scale, “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

The responses to these statements were used in establishing Hypothesis 1*:*

*H1: There is a positive relationship between reported alcohol advertising exposure and reported alcohol consumption.*

#### *3.4.2.2 Predictor variable 2: Parental Influence*

All items used to examine parental influence were adopted from measures used by Grube and Wallack (1994). As discussed in the literature review in chapter 2, parental influence is a uni-dimensional construct that is made up of parental usage and parenting.

Parental alcohol usage was assessed by asking “I often see my parents/ guardian drinking alcohol”, “My parents/guardian often give me alcohol to consume at home”, and “I have often seen my parents/guardian drunk after having had too much alcohol to drink”. These questions were adapted from the study conducted by Gunter, Hansen, and Tour (2011).

To assess parents' attitudes and rules (i.e. parenting), questions were adapted from two different studies previously conducted. The questions on parents' general attitudes was adapted from Hung et al. (2011), while the rules on alcohol consumption was measured through assessing degree of rule-setting regarding alcohol use established by the respondents' parents/guardians. This scale was developed by Van der Vorst et al. (2005) and adapted for this research. Under parenting, the following statements were presented to the respondents and they had to respond using the five-point Likert scale adopted for this study; "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree": "My parents'/guardian's generally have a positive attitude toward drinking alcohol", "My parent/guardian don't have an issue with me having one glass of alcohol in their presence", "My parents/guardian do not want me to drink several glasses of alcohol while they are not present", "My parents/guardian do not want me to go out drinking with friends".

The combined responses to these seven statements on parental usage and parenting (i.e. parental attitudes and rules) assisted in answering hypothesis 2:

*H2: There is a positive relationship between parental influence and reported alcohol consumption.*

#### *3.4.2.3 Predictor variable 2: Peer Influence*

Similar to parental influence, peer influence is a uni-dimensional construct made up of peer attitudes and peer usage. The social side of drinking (i.e. peer usage) was explored through statements that were posed to the respondents: "All my peers drink alcohol", "All of my peers get drunk at least once a week", "I always see my peers drunk after having had too much alcohol to drink". These statements were adapted from the study conducted by Gunter, Hansen, and Tour (2011).

To assess peers' attitudes, respondents were asked to use the scale used in this study to answer the following questions: "My peers generally have a positive attitude toward drinking alcohol", "I am okay with my peers encouraging me to drink", "I am okay with complying with my peers' attitudes towards drinking". The first two statements were adopted from Grube and Wallack (1994), while the last statement to

measure peer influence was taken from Hung et al. (2011), where the respondents were asked how they felt about their peers encouraging them to consume alcohol.

The responses to both the peer usage and peer attitude statements assisted in answering hypothesis 3:

*H3: There is a positive relationship between peer influence and reported alcohol consumption.*

#### *3.4.2.4 Predictor variable 4: Personal Attitude*

Consistent with the TBA, respondents were asked to indicate their attitude toward consuming five or more standard drinks in a single session. Participants were asked to select a response that best describes their personal opinions on a five-point bipolar adjective scale. The respondents were asked their opinion on them finding drinking five or more standard drinks in a single session favourable, enjoyable, good, pleasant, and satisfying.

These scales was adapted from Ajzen's TBA measure; unenjoyable/enjoyable; bad/good; unfavourable/favourable; unpleasant/pleasant; and unsatisfying/satisfying (Ajzen, 2006).

These statements were used to assess hypothesis 4:

*H4: There is a positive relationship between personal attitudes and reported alcohol consumption.*

#### *3.4.2.5 Outcome variable: self-reported alcohol consumption*

Alcohol consumption was measured by the self-reported quantity of consumption, and context of drinking occasions. The statements used to assess consumer risk behaviours are similar to those commonly used in substance abuse surveys (Simons-Morton et al. 2001).

Quantity was measured by asking how many times the respondents consumed varying quantities (in glasses) of alcohol in a period of a week. This scale was adapted from Freisthler, Holmes, and Wolf (2014). Responses were given different

drinking ranges and asked to indicate their consumption on a five-point scale ranging from ‘‘strongly disagree’’ to “strongly agree”.

The context of drinking occasions was measured in terms indicating specific events where drinking typically occurs. Respondents were asked to indicate where they often consumed alcohol: at home, in bars/restaurants, night clubs/social events. This scale was also adapted from the study conducted by Freisthler, Holmes, and Wolf (2014).

## 3.5 Procedure for data collection

### *3.5.1 Questionnaire distribution and collection method*

Data collection consists of gathering data from the sample in order to answer the research questions (Bryman 2012; Wagner et al. 2012). There are various methods that can be used for research data collection (Bryman, 2012), including participant observation; interviews (face-to-face, telephone, or internet-based); self-administered questionnaires (mail/postal surveys; group-administered; and e-mail and internet surveys) (Babbie 2013; Wagner et al. 2012); focus group discussions; and documents. In quantitative research, Neuman (2014) describes data collection as quite a systematic, pre-determined process, which entails carefully recording and validating information, usually in numeric form.

The study utilised one form of data collection; a pen-and-paper self-administered questionnaire through personal direct distribution. There are numerous advantages for using this method of administering a questionnaire, as described by Bourque and Fielder (2003) below:

- No interviewer error - no possibility of interviewer bias since the respondent completes the survey unaided
- Cost savings – less expensive than face-to-face interviews because they do not involve employing and training experienced interviewers
- Greater efficiency – a large volume of surveys can be distributed all at once, resulting in less administrative time

- Anonymity – the respondent is assured of confidentiality and anonymity

### *3.5.2 Pilot research*

A pilot study was conducted among a small sample group (18 respondents) before the main data collection fieldwork was conducted. This was done in order to obtain feedback from respondents regarding their understanding of the questions and to identify any other issues encountered while completing the survey. Welman and Kruger (2001) suggest conducting a pilot study so that flaws are detected in the measurement procedures, unclear and ambiguous statements are identified, and non-verbal behaviours are observed. The pilot survey was administered to a convenience sample and the respondents were asked to share their feedback directly with the researcher after completing the survey.

### *3.5.3 Ethical consideration when collecting data*

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p.680) describe ethics as “the standards of the researcher's behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of a research project, or who are affected by it". Bryman et al. (2012) states that there are four main ethical principle areas to consider, as prescribed by Diener and Crandall (1978): whether there is harm to principles; whether there is a lack of informed consent; whether there is an invasion of privacy; and whether deception is involved.

The next section provides a description of how the ethical considerations were adhered to in this study, in terms of the ethical issues described by Bryman (2012).

#### *3.5.3.1 Ethical issue: Deception*

Deception includes issues around self-declaration and refers to instances when the researcher does not fully represent their work as what it is, often in order to constrain the participants’ understanding of what the study is about in order for them to respond more naturally (Bryman, 2012). In order to counter this, the questionnaire used in this study provided a disclaimer to the participants with information about the

researcher and the aim of the study prior to the start of the questionnaire. The author can commit that the respondents were not deceived in any way regarding the purpose of the research and what was expected of them as participants. The respondents were also informed that the research was being conducted for academic purposes only, and that there were no sponsors of this study.

Research by Dillman (2007) has shown that the messages contained in a self-administered questionnaire's cover letter will affect the response rate. Therefore the questionnaire for this study was accompanied by a cover letter in which brief introductions and the purpose of the research, and the individual, non-commercial academic nature was stressed. Additionally, the significance of the study, the importance of their assistance, and the assurance of confidentiality and anonymity of the response was highlighted. Please refer to the cover letter of the questionnaire (refer to Appendix 1).

#### *3.5.3.2 Ethical Issue: Harm*

The main responsibility of the researcher is to ensure that the no harm befalls the participants as a result of their involvement in the study (Wagner et al., 2012). The term harm can refer to numerous facets, from physical harm; developmental harm; and loss of self-esteem (Bryman, 2012) to harming the respondent legally, economically, etc. (Neuman, 2014).

Due to the South African legislation on the minimum drinking age, all respondents that were approached were asked if they were within the legal drinking age (i.e. 18 years and older). The Research proposal and the questionnaire was submitted to The Wits Business School Faculty Academic Ethics Committee for review where the granting of ethical clearance prior to the research being conducted was obtained, particularly to ensure no harm is caused to the respondents.

#### *3.5.3.3 Ethical issue: Informed consent*

Wagner et al. (2012, p.132) describe consent as "an individual's personal right to agree (or not) to participate in a research study after fully understanding the total

research process and consequences." The respondents were made aware that participation in the study was completely voluntary and they could opt out.

#### *3.5.3.4 Ethical issue: Invasion of privacy*

Protection of privacy refers to efforts made to preserve the integrity of the data collected, particularly with regard to information gathered from the participants in the research (Blanche et al., 2006). In this study, the respondents were required to provide potentially sensitive information (regarding demographics, opinions, and personal circumstances, etc.). Therefore, both anonymity and confidentiality was disclosed in the cover letter of the questionnaire (refer to Appendix 1). Furthermore, respondents were not required to reveal their personal information such as their names or any information that could make them easily identifiable (eg. ID or student numbers).

## 3.6 Data analysis and interpretation

Following the collection of data, the data screening process suggested by Churchill (1979) was implemented to ensure data was cleaned before performing any statistical analysis.

### *3.6.1 Data Processing*

Saunders and Lewis (2012, p.187) define data processing as “the way we prepare data so that it is suitable for analysis. Prior to analysing and establishing insights from the data, the raw data needs to be assessed for errors. The raw data is said to be disorganised, may be inclusive of errors and might have missing values. Therefore, the raw data had to be prepared before it can be analysed; which entailed three processes: (1) coding, (2) entering, and (3) cleaning (Neuman, 2014).

#### *3.6.1.1 Step 1: Data Coding*

Bryman et al. (2014, 336) deduces that "Coding is the starting point for most forms of qualitative data analysis. Coding implies that the coded data will not be presented in the original format but will be interpreted and re-presented by the researcher".

The researcher created a set of rules that assigned numbers to the particular attributes of a variable. This was done so that it was easy to conduct statistical analysis of the raw data on computer software, as suggested by Neuman (2014).

Since data was collected via the pen-and-paper questionnaire, manual coding was required. In order to assist with the manual coding process, the response categories were pre-coded, particularly since all of the questions in the questionnaire were closed ended. Therefore, on a five point Likert scale for instance, the answer option for the respondents' selection of "Strongly Agree" were pre-coded as the number "5"; "Strongly Disagree" pre-coded as the number "1". Any missing values were coded in accordance with the convention used on SPSS software (e.g. cells given a special code such as -999)

#### *3.6.1.2 Step 2: Data Entry*

The numerical data from the pen-and-paper self-administered questionnaire was entered manually from the pre-coded questionnaires into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. Blanche et al. (2006) describe that each row in the spreadsheet must represent an individual respondent and each column will represent the response to a particular variable (i.e. questionnaire item). This is the method that was employed in this study.

#### *3.6.1.3 Step 3: Data cleaning*

After meticulous coding and entering the data into a computer, the researcher checked for errors, as these could easily occur and make the results of the study invalid if not eliminated (Neuman, 2014). As recommended by Blanche et al. (2006), the author of this research randomly selected 15% of the cases and checked the dataset for errors via applying conditional formatting in Microsoft Excel. That way, errors and missing information, would have been easily identifiable. The second check was conducted by running a summary of the frequency tables of all the variables on Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. This was

mainly conducted in order to check for impossible codes which if invalid, were manually corrected (Blanche et al., 2006).

### *3.6.2 Research data analysis: Structural equation modelling*

Once the collected data had been cleaned and transformed into the appropriate format, the data were then taken through the process of analysis; which as Babbie (2013) stated, involves interpreting that data in order to draw conclusions that reflect the ideas, interests and theories that initiated the research. In quantitative research, the researcher utilises several data analysis techniques, usually through the use of computer software (Neuman, 2014). There are numerous methods that can be used to analyse quantitative data, ranging from more basic analysis (such as univariant analysis) to more complex, multivariate analysis (such as factor analysis, cluster analysis, multiple linear regression, structural equation modelling, etc.) (Babbie, 2013).

To analyse the quantitative data collected, prior research that was conducted in this area was referred to, and they all used statistical means to analyse the data. Gunay and Baker (2011), and Sharma (2013) both used ANOVA, while Sancho, Miguel and Alda (2011) used structural model using EQS 6.1 and Morgenstern, et al. (2011) used logical regression modelling.

For analysis and interpretation of this research, a Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) approach was used as there were many variables to consider (Bagozzi, 1981). SEM is a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory approach to analysis of structural theory bearing on some phenomena (Byrne, 2013). It uses various types of models to predict relationships among observed variables, with the basic goal of providing a quantitative test of a theoretical model hypothesised by the researcher.

SEM offers several advantages. First, this approach provides the analysis of data for deductive purposes (Byrne, 2013), such as in this study where causal relationships between variables are inferred in the hypothesised research model. Second, unlike

the traditional multivariate procedures which are incapable of either assessing or correcting for measurement errors, SEM provides explicit estimates of these parameters. Third, these models can incorporate multiple independent and dependent variables. Last, SEM procedures can incorporate both unobserved (i.e. latent) variables such as attitude, and observed variables, such as alcohol consumption.

SEM uses a combination of factor analysis and regression analysis which allows for continuous and discrete predictors and outcomes, and establishes the relationships among the latent or measured variables. According to MacCallium and Austin (2000), SEM goes beyond regression models to incorporate multiple independent and dependent variables.

This study tested whether causal relationships between the variables could be inferred. In addition, this study has also hypothesised the direction of the relationships (i.e. positive) among the variables in the conceptual framework. Therefore, SEM was beneficial in terms of its deductive ability, as outlined by Byrne (2013).

### *3.6.3 Statistical software approach*

Statistical analysis of the data was conducted in several steps on Microsoft Excel, SPSS 22 and the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS 22) statistical software, as outlined below:

Excel: was used for data capturing and cleaning.

SPSS 22:

- The cleaned data was imported from Excel.
- Data transformation and descriptive statistical analysis was conducted (e.g. profiling respondents, frequency tables, etc.).
- Regression analysis was performed to test the relationship between demographic variables measured on interval scales.

AMOS 22:

The SEM process consisted of two steps conducted on AMOS 22 statistical software. The first step involved specifying and validating the measurement model which was conducted through confirmatory factor analysis (Byrne, 2013). The second step of the SEM process consisted of fitting the structural model which was conducted through path modelling (Byrne, 2013).

- **Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA):** was used to check the reliability and validity of measurement instruments.
- **Path modelling:** was used to assess the conceptual model fit to the data. Model fit indicators such as Chi-square values, Comparative fit index (CFI), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and the Random Measure of Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA) was used to evaluate the model fit (Byrne, 2013). To show adequate fit between the model and the data, the chi-square values had to be less than 3, the, CFI GFI, , IFI, NFI, and TLI had to be greater than 0.9, while the RMSEA would have had to be less or equal to 0.08 (Byrne, 2013).

It was also used to test the proposed hypotheses, the acceptance or rejection thereof, and to check significance levels of path coefficients (see details in Testing the hypotheses below).

### *3.6.4 Testing for hypothesis*

A two-step process was followed in testing the hypothesis. First was to establish the links among the latent variables (regression analysis), followed by explaining the relationship between the variables (Path Modelling). These are discussed below.

#### *3.6.4.1 Step 1: Regression analysis*

Regression analysis is used to describe the relationship between variables that are mainly measured on interval scales, such as the respondents' profile data (Maree, 2007). In this study, the potential direct effect of the demographic variables on the dependent variables was also examined using multiple regression analysis on

SPSS, in order to ensure that an alternative explanation of the results (in terms of relationships between the examined variables) was not due to demographic influences.

#### *3.6.4.2 Step 2: Structural Equation Modelling*

Once the research model fit had been assessed using Confirmatory Factor Analysis, Path Modelling was then conducted using AMOS 22 software package. Path modelling explains the relationships between manifest (i.e. observed) variables and latent (i.e. unobserved) variables (Byrne, 2013) and tests the structural paths of the hypotheses in the conceptual model. This was done through the assessment of the Path Coefficients, which demonstrated the extent of relationships (i.e. the strength, direction and significance) between constructs.

## 3.7 Research reliability and validity measures

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) and Bryman et al. (2014) concur that reliability is concerned with the issues of consistency of the measures. Bryman (2012, p.36) states that there are "three prominent factors involved: Stability (are we confident that the measure is stable over time and does not vary over time), Internal reliability (are the indicators that make up the scale or index consistent), Inter-observer consistency (are the observers involved in recording observation consistent in what they record)". Reliability is the extent to which data collection techniques or analysis procedures followed are in a position to generate a coherent result, and reliability was checked by utilising the Cronbach's alpha values and the composite reliability values (Bryman, 2012).

Previous research used the Cronbach's alpha to measure the quality of the measurement procedure that provides repeatability and accuracy. The value of the Cronbach's alpha varied between 0.72 and 0.85 in the previous studies conducted by Sancho, Miguel and Alda (2011), Morgenstern et al (2011), and Sharma (2013).

According to Churchill (1979), for reliability to be proven, the value of Cronbach alpha which is greater than 0.7 is recommended (Churchill, 1979). The higher the

score of the coefficients (that is closer to 1.0) the greater the indication of levels of reliability, which will indicate the higher levels of consistent outcomes and accuracy.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p. 668) define validity as "the extent to which your measurement questions actually measure the presence of those constructs you intended them to measure". Robson (2011) and Bryman et al. (2014) also subscribe to this definition. Internal validity addresses the question of whether a study and its conclusions holds water or is sound – particularly where there is a causal relationship between two or more variables (Bryman, 2012).

Previous similar studies used the convergent method of establishing validity. In Manuel Sancho, Jose Miguel and Alda (2011)'s study, the maximum-likelihood estimation was estimated through confirmatory factor analysis for five factors. Those items with factorial loadings lower than 0.6 (as recommended by prior studies) were deleted in order to assure the convergent validity of the instrument. Morgenstern et al. (2011) measured bivariate associations between covariates and alcohol use were tested, while Sharma et al. (2013) adapted existing scale with chi-squared tests, where validity had previously been proven.

A valid measurement procedure does a good job of measuring the concept that it purports to measure. Validity requires that an instrument is reliable. An instrument can be reliable without being valid. Similar to previous studies, the study considered using previously tested measures, taking from the fields of Social Sciences in order to ensure that the measures used would answer the research question. Convergent validity values were generated in order to further test the validity.

## 3.8 Limitations of the study

The following section discusses the technical and administrative limitations that were encountered in conducting the study; particularly related to the elements of the research methodology.

Wagner, Garner and Kawulich (2012, p. 84) state that "Measurement has its limitations insofar as reactivity, instrumentation and statistical regression may influence the research results". Adanza (2006, p. 20) defines a limitation as "a phase or aspect of the investigation that may affect the result adversely but over which you have no control".

### *3.8.1 Technical limitations*

- **Research design and data collection instrument**: The research instrument requested respondents to indicate self-reported measures, rather than actually observing behaviour. Therefore, caution had to used when interpreting the relationships that are observed between the variables (i.e. internal validity was constrained). Furthermore, the outcome variable (i.e. alcohol consumption) could not be controlled by the researcher (unlike if the experimental design research method was use). Lastly, only selected variables were tested in this study, yet there are other variables that also impact alcohol consumption among the youth. Therefore, causality between the variables can only be inferred, and not established (Bourque & Fielder, 2003).
- **Sample and sampling constraints**: As the study used non-probability sampling techniques (through convenience sampling) amongst youths found in different environments in Johannesburg, the results cannot be generalisable to the entire youth population of South Africa (i.e. external validity is constrained) (Bourque & Fielder, 2003).
- **Respondent error**: – Since the technique employed for collecting data was self-administered questionnaires, there could be a greater probability that respondents could have misunderstood questions as there was no opportunity

to get clarification from the interviewer (Bryman, 2012). This is particularly important in South Africa where respondents may not speak English as a first (or even second or third) language. However, a pilot survey was conducted beforehand in order to minimise the possibility of respondent error, as recommended by Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008). In the pilot, feedback from the respondents regarding their comprehension was collected and other issues respondents had with completing the questionnaire were addressed before going into the field to collect data for this study.

- **Time frame and lack of temporal sequence of events:** The study is cross-sectional in nature, which poses the challenge of not being inform about the temporal sequence of events; that is, if the measured exposure preceded the alcohol outcomes. For example, does advertising lead to drinking or does drinking lead to higher attention of advertising? Temporal antecedence of exposure would be one, though not the only, important indication of a causal relationship (Hill, 1965).

### *3.8.2 Administrative limitations*

- **Incomplete questionnaires and missing responses**: A self-administered questionnaires was used to collect data. Therefore, there was a greater chance of respondents not completing all the questions in the questionnaire (Bourque & Fielder, 2003).
- **Restricted time frame**: Given that some of the respondents of this study were students, the author could only conduct the data collection during the school term when most students were on campus. Therefore, school holidays and examination periods had to be factored into the study.

## 3.9 Conclusion of Research Methodology

This chapter has presented the design of the empirical research that was carried out. The starting point was an explanation of the different research strategies and designs. This research employed a quantitative approach and collected data based on a specific point in time; i.e. cross-sectional design. Non-random quota sampling

was employed, and a total of 300 youths spilt into 3 life stages (i.e. students (164), blue-collar youth workers (77), and white-collar youth workers (69)) were given the research instrument, which was developed from existing measures adopted from the empirical literature.

Data processing was discussed in this chapter covering areas such as data coding, data entry, and data cleansing. Once the processing stages were completed, data was analysed via the Structural Equation Model (SEM). The study tested whether causal relationships between variables could be inferred; therefore the SEM was the best suited model to use due to its deductive ability and allowed the testing of the direction of the relationship between the variables.

The research reliability and validity were also discussed, detailing the measures that were used to establish these. The limitations of the study were discussed, detailing both the technical and administrative limitations

# 4 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

## 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the findings that were obtained through empirical investigation. The chapter provides statistical analysis of data that was collected through the data collection tool (i.e. the self-administered research questionnaire).

Discussed in this chapter are the results for demographic data, measurement instrument reliability and validity and the path modelling statistics. The Chapter has three main divisions. The first section (section 4.2) provides descriptive statistics for the demographic data. Section 4.3 provides the results of the data collected to measure the predictor and outcome variables. Section 4.4 provides the results for from Structural Equation Modelling (SPSS). SPSS was used to conduct Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Path Modelling. CFA was conducted to check for Model Fit, Reliability and Validity of the scales used in the research questionnaire. To check the validity of the scales, shared variance was compared to average variance extracted (AVE). Path Modelling was conducted to check for model fit, and to test the hypotheses of the study.

## 4.2 Sample Description

According to Kneale and Santy (1999), any study should commence by explaining the demographic or descriptive traits of the sample used in the study, and that it ought to be presented in a comprehensible way. The purpose of descriptive statistics is to search for patterns, to put together and present a set of data describing the characteristics of the sample so as to make comparisons (Hsu & Shine, 2007). Descriptive statistics involve simple summaries about the samples and the dimensions of the data**.** The descriptive statistics can be represented in the form of pie charts or tables, showing the basic data of the main components of the study.

Table 4.1 presents the profile of the participants. Of the 300 respondents who participated in the study, 58.7% of the participants were female and 41.3% were male. The percentage representation of the females in this study is high; reflecting the dynamics of the South African population, where there are more females than male (51.3% vs 48.7%) (Stats SA, 2016).

Most of the respondents indicated that they consume alcohol (89.3%), while the remaining 10.7% said they did not drink alcohol. A large portion of the respondents were between the ages 18-20 years representing 54% of the total sample. This was followed by those between the ages 21-24 years representing 19%, those between the ages of 25-29 years and finally those between the ages of 30-35 years. Most of the participants were Black/African represented 66.3% of the total sample. This was followed by White (16.3%) of the total sample, those who were Coloured represented (9.0%), followed by Indian, represented 7.7% and finally those under others, representing 0.67%.

When asked if they believed there was an alcohol drinking problem in general in South Africa, 82% indicated that there was a problem, while 18% believed otherwise. Most of the youths who participated in the research believe that there is an alcohol drinking problem amongst their age group (i.e. youth) (85.3%), while 14.7% indicated the opposite. The majority of the respondents believe that the government is not doing enough to drive responsible drinking among the youth (80.3%), while only 19.3% believed that the government was doing enough. This indicates that the responsible drinking campaigns rolled out by the government might not be visible and/or effective to the youth target audience.

**Table 4.1: Sample demographic profile**

| **Gender** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 124 | 41.3 |
| Female | 176 | 58.7 |
| **Drink Alcohol** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 268 | 89.3 |
| No | 32 | 10.7 |
| Total | 300 | 100 |
| **Age** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** |
| 18 years – 20 years | 162 | 54 |
| 21 years – 24 years | 58 | 19.3 |
| 25 years – 29 years | 46 | 15.3 |
| 30 years - 35 years | 34 | 11.3 |
| Total | 300 | 100 |
| **Race** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** |
| Black/African | 199 | 66.3 |
| White | 49 | 16.3 |
| Coloured | 27 | 9 |
| Indian | 23 | 7.7 |
| Other | 2 | 0.7 |
| Total | 300 | 100 |
| **Believe there is an alcohol drinking problem in general in RSA** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 246 | 82 |
| No | 54 | 18 |
| Total | 300 | 100 |
| **Believe there is an alcohol drinking problem amongst the youth in RSA** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 256 | 85.3 |
| No | 44 | 14.7 |
| Total | 300 | 100 |
| **Believe the government is doing enough to drive responsible drinking** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** |
| Yes | 58 | 19.3 |
| No | 241 | 80.3 |
| Total | 300 | 100 |

## 4.3 Questionnaire results

All research constructs were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale. The participants had to indicate their level of agreement with the statements posed, used to measure each variable, ranging from “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “neutral”, “agree”, and “strongly agree”.

### *4.3.1 Alcohol advertising exposure*

The first predictor variable “Reported Alcohol advertising exposure” was measured with seven items, ranging from B1 to B7. Advertising influence was assessed using recalled exposure to advertised messages. The study adopted measures constructed by Schooler, Feighery and Flora (1996); Anderson et al. (2009); Smith and Foxcroft (2009).

To assess exposure, the participants were asked if they had experienced the following in the past year (1) seen an alcoholic drink or brand being advertised on TV; (2) heard an advert on Radio advertising an alcoholic drink or brand, (3) seen a Print advert (newspapers or magazines) advertising an alcoholic drink or brand; (4) engaged a social media campaign (Facebook, Instagram, Twitter) that was linked to an alcoholic drink or brand, (5) attended any event that was sponsored by an alcohol brand or alcohol manufacturing company, (6) seen any outdoor billboards advertising an alcoholic drink or brand; (7) seen any actor(actress) drinking a branded alcoholic drink on a TV show or movie.

Figure 4.1 below illustrates the overall scoring from the seven above mentioned statements to measure alcohol advertising exposure. The participants were asked to capture their response on a five-point Likert-type scale. The results are also represented in tabular format, illustrated in Table 4.2

For the statement “Seen an alcoholic drink or brand being advertised on TV”, most of the participants strongly agree with the statement and represented 69.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who agreed with the

statement (13.3%), those who were neutral (11.7%), those who strongly disagreed (4.0%) and the remainder disagreed (1.7%) of the total sample.

For the statement “Heard an advert on Radio advertising an alcoholic drink or brands”, most of the participants strongly agree with the statement and represented 38.7% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who were neutral with the statement (23.3%), those who agreed (21.7%), those who strongly disagreed (9.3%) and the remainder strongly disagreed (7.0%) of the total sample.

The response from the participants for the statement “Seen a Print advert (newspapers or magazines) advertising an alcoholic drink or brand” was that most strongly agreed with the statement and represented 56.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who agreed with the statement (24.0%), those who were neutral (12.6%), those who disagreed (4.0%) and the remainder strongly disagreed (3.3%).

For the statement “Engaged a social media campaign via Facebook, Instagram, or Twitter, that was linked to an alcoholic drink or brand”, most of the participants strongly agreed with the statement and represented 52.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who agreed with the statement (17.6%), those who strongly disagreed (13.0%), those who were neutral (9.6%) and the remainder disagreed (7.6%).

Under the statement “Attended an event that was sponsored by any alcohol brand or manufacturing company”, most of the participants strongly agree with the statement and represented 52.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who agreed with the statement (17.6%), those who strongly disagreed (13.0%), those who were neutral (9.6%) and the remainder disagreed (7.6%).

The participants’ response to the statement “Seen outdoor Billboards advertising any alcoholic drink or brand” was that most strongly agree with the statement and represented 59.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who agreed with the statement (23.3%), those who were neutral (10.7%), those who disagreed (4.7%) and the remainder strongly disagreed (2.0%).

For the statement “Seen any actor (actress) drinking a branded alcoholic drink on a TV show or movie”, most of the participants strongly agree with the statement and represented 48.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who agreed with the statement (21.3%), those who were neutral (14.0%), those who disagreed (9.3%) and the remainder strongly disagreed (7.0%).

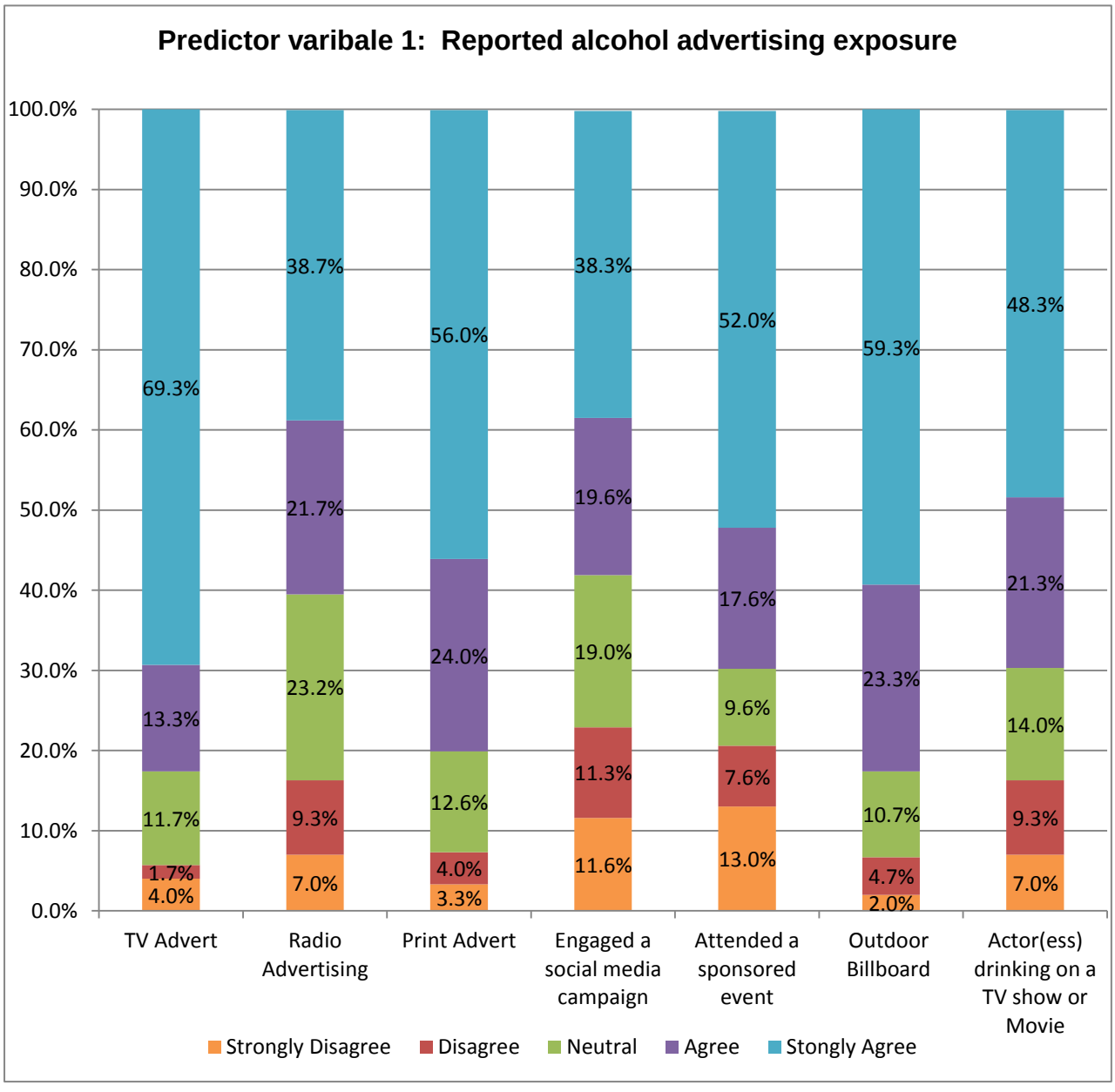


**Figure 4.1: Predictor variable 1 results: Reported alcohol advertising exposure**

**Table 4.2: Predictor variable 1 results: Reported alcohol advertising exposure**

| | Participants responses | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Alcohol advertising exposure** | **Strongly Disagree** | **Disagree** | **Neutral** | **Agree** | **Strongly Agree** |
| TV Advert | 4.0% | 1.7% | 11.7% | 13.3% | 69.3% |
| Radio Advertising | 7.0% | 9.3% | 23.2% | 21.7% | 38.7% |
| Print Advert | 3.3% | 4.0% | 12.6% | 24.0% | 56.0% |
| Engaged a social media campaign | 11.6% | 11.3% | 19.0% | 19.6% | 38.3% |
| Attended a sponsored event | 13.0% | 7.6% | 9.6% | 17.6% | 52.0% |
| Outdoor Billboard | 2.0% | 4.7% | 10.7% | 23.3% | 59.3% |
| Actor(ess) drinking on a TV show or Movie | 7.0% | 9.3% | 14.0% | 21.3% | 48.3% |

### *4.3.2 Parental influence*

As discussed in the literature review in chapter 2, parental influence is a uni-dimensional construct that is made up of parental usage and parenting. In total, 7 items were used to measure this variable (C1 to C7).

#### *4.3.2.1 Parental influence - parental usage*

Parental alcohol usage was assessed by asking “I often see my parents/ guardian drinking alcohol”, “My parents/guardian often give me alcohol to consume at home”,

and “I have often seen my parents/guardian drunk after having had too much alcohol to drink”. These questions were adapted from the study conducted by Gunter, Hansen, and Tour (2011).

Figure 4.2 illustrates the responses to the three statements that were adapted for this study to measure parental usage of alcohol. These statements were “I often see my parents/ guardian drinking alcohol”, “My parents/guardians often give me alcohol to consume at home?”, and “I have often seen my parents/guardian drunk after having had too much alcohol to drink?”. The participants were asked to capture their response on a five-point Likert-type scale. The results are also represented in tabular format, illustrated in Table 4.3

For the statement “I often see my parents/ guardian drinking alcohol”, most of the participants strongly disagree with the statement and represented 37.7% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who were neutral with the statement (18.3%), those who disagree (16.7%), those who agreed (14.0%) and the remainder strongly agreed (13.3%).

The result of the responses to the statement, “My parents/guardians often give me alcohol to consume at home?” was that most of the participants strongly disagree with the statement and represented 68.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who were neutral with the statement (12.0%), those who disagree (11.3%), those who strongly agreed (4.7%) and the remainder agreed (4.0%).

When asked “I have often seen my parents/guardian drunk after having had too much alcohol to drink?” most of the participants responded by strongly disagree with the statement and represented 53.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who disagreed with the statement (18.7%), those who both strongly agree and those who were neutral (10.3%) and the remainder agreed (7.7%).

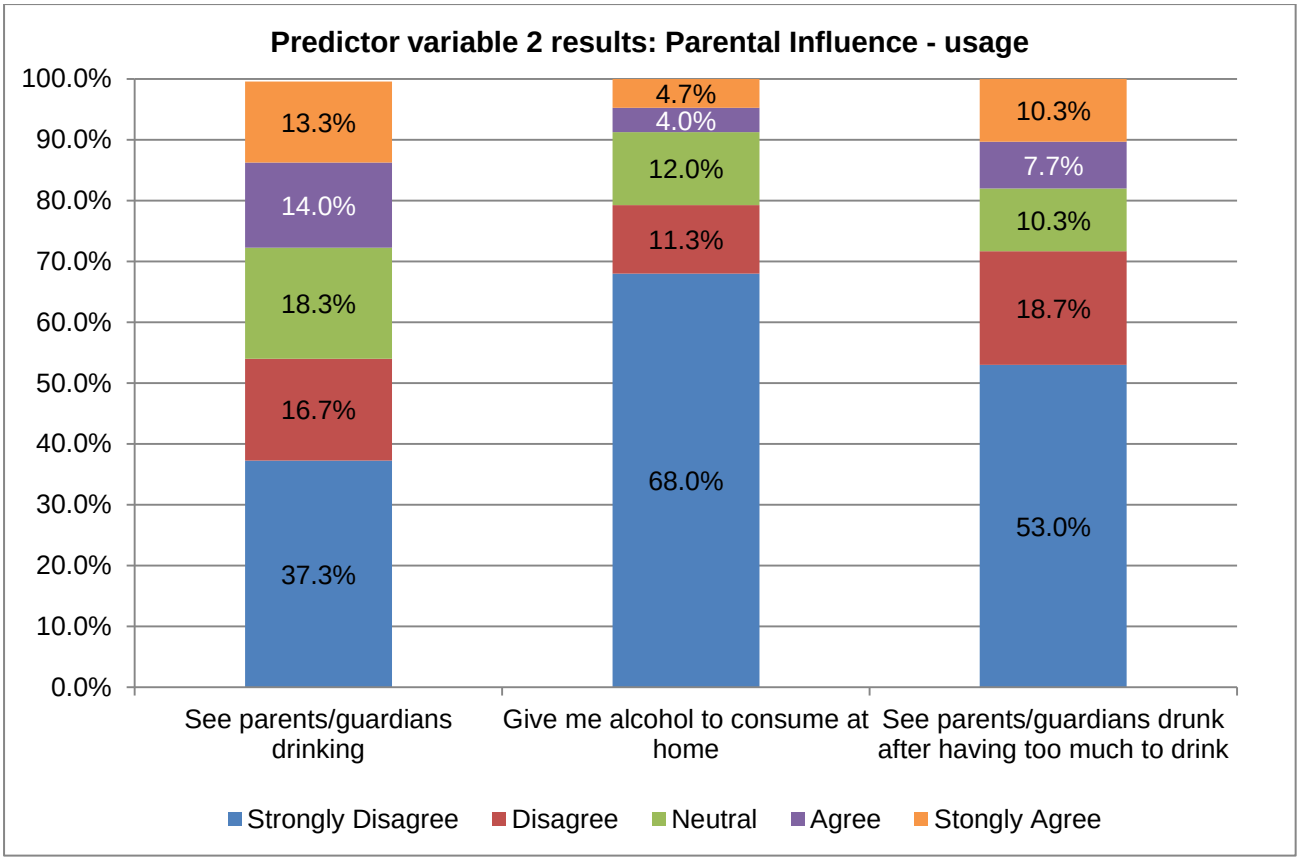


**Figure 4.2: Predictor variable 2 results: Parental influence – parental usage**

**Table 4.3: Predictor variable 2 results: Parental influence – parental usage**

| | **Participants responses** | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Parental Usage** | **Strongly Disagree** | **Disagree** | **Neutral** | **Agree** | **Strongly Agree** |
| See parents/guardians drinking | 37.3% | 16.7% | 18.3% | 14.0% | 13.3% |
| Give me alcohol to consume at home | 68.0% | 11.3% | 12.0% | 4.0% | 4.7% |
| See parents/guardians drunk after having too much to drink | 53.0% | 18.7% | 10.3% | 7.7% | 10.3% |

#### *4.3.2.2 Parental influence - parenting*

To assess parents' attitudes and rules (i.e. parenting), questions were adapted from two different studies previously conducted. The questions on parents' general attitudes was adapted from Hung et al. (2011), while the rules on alcohol consumption was measured through assessing the degree of rule-setting regarding alcohol use established by the respondents' parents/guardians. This scale was developed by Van der Vorst et al. (2005) and adapted for this research.

Figure 4.3 below illustrates the statement "My parents'/guardian's generally have a positive attitude toward drinking alcohol". Most of the participants strongly disagree with the statement and represented 39.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who were neutral with the statement (25.3%), those who disagreed (18.3%), those who agreed (11.3%) and the remainder strongly agreed (5.6%).

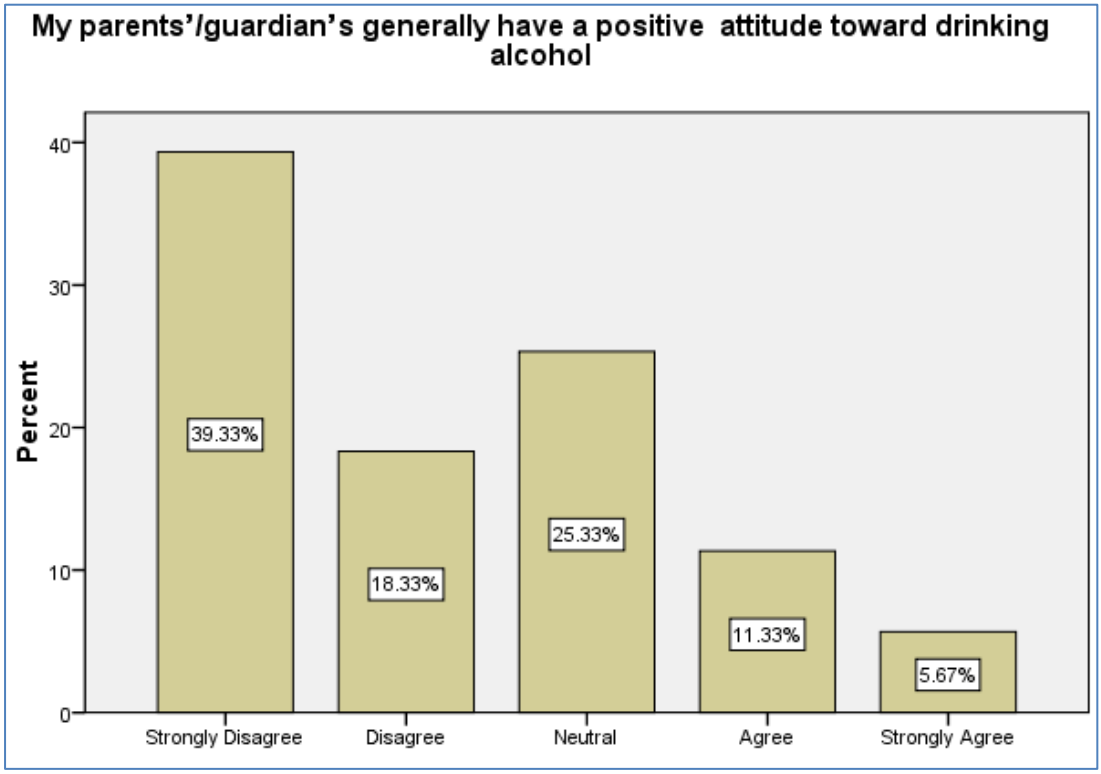


**Figure 4.3: Predictor variable 2 results: Parental influence - parenting: parenting (attitudes)**

Figure 4.4 below illustrates the statement “My parent/guardian don’t have an issue with me having one glass of alcohol in their presence”. Most of the participants strongly disagree with the statement and represented 36.6% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly agreed with the statement (21.6%), those who agreed (19.6%), those who were neutral (14.0%) and the remainder disagreed (8.0%).

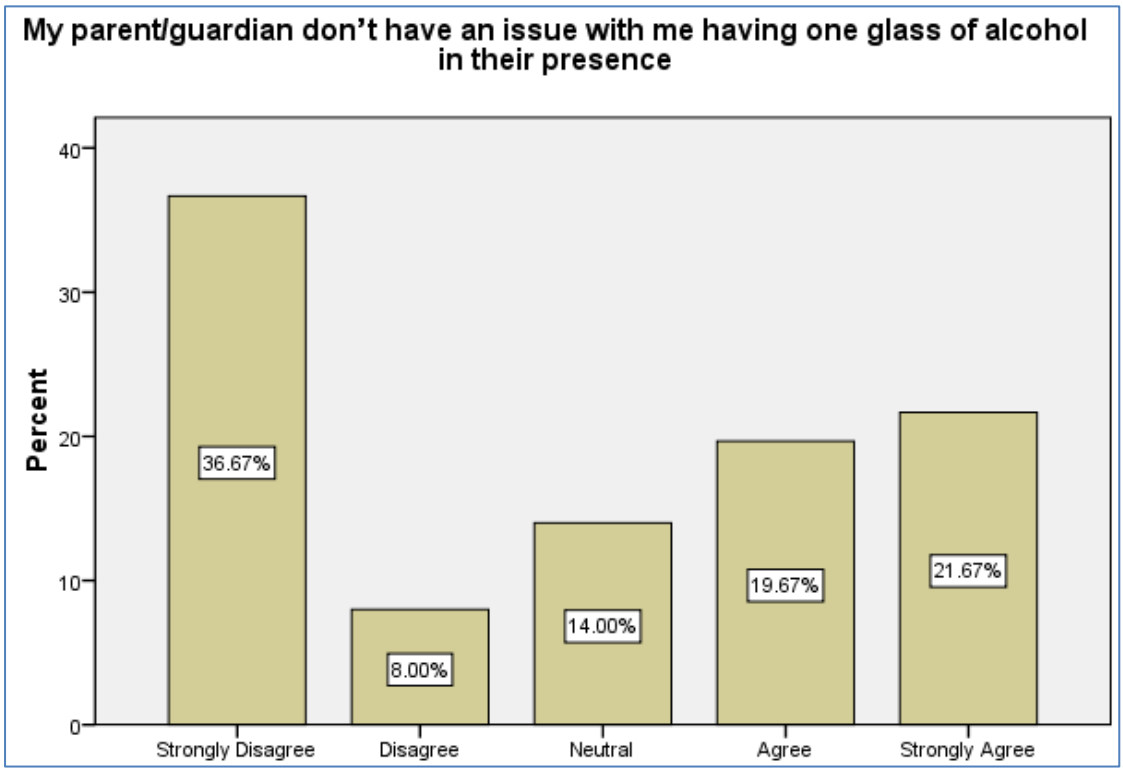


**Figure 4.4: Predictor variable 2 results: Parental influence - parenting (drinking in their presence)**

Figure 4.5 illustrates the statement “My parents/guardians do not want me to drink several glasses of alcohol while they are not present” Most of the participants strongly agree with the statement and represented 27.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly disagreed with the statement (20.3%), those who were neutral (19.6%), those who agreed (17.3%) and the remainder disagreed (15.6%).

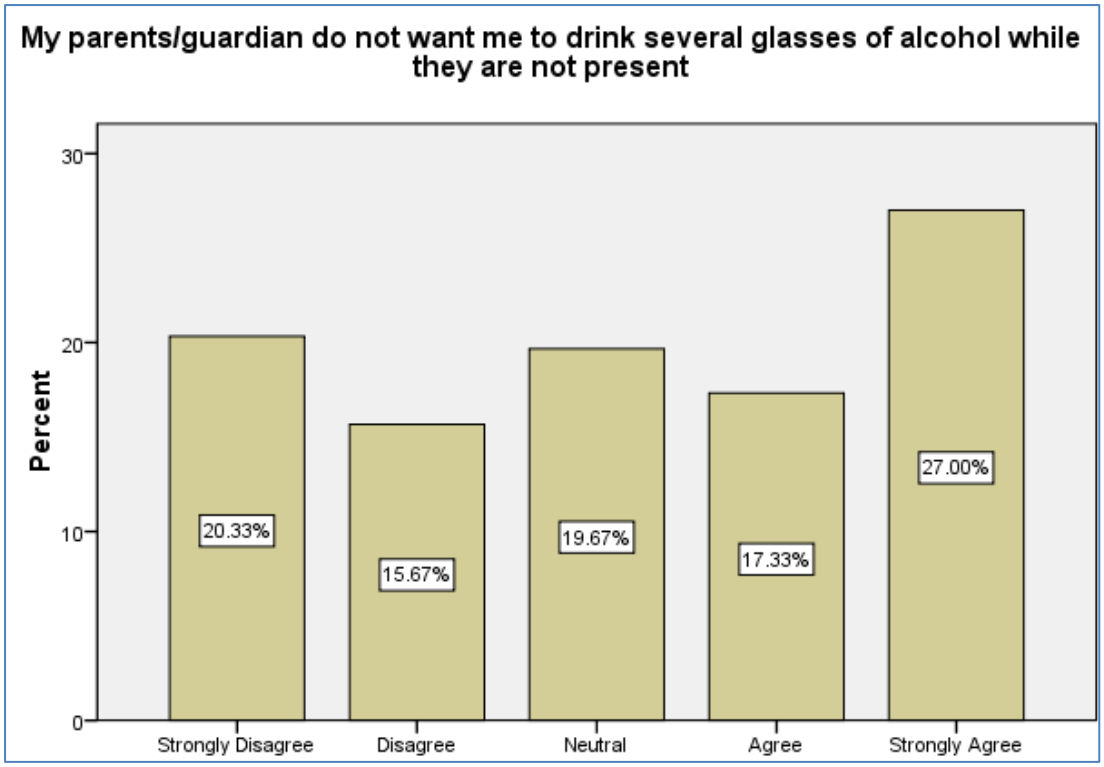


**Figure 4.5: Predictor variable 2 results: Parental influence - parenting (drinking while they are not present)**

Figure 4.6 below illustrates the statement “My parents/guardian do not want me to go out drinking with friends” Most of the participants were neutral with the statement and represented 25.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly agreed with the statement (24.7%), those who strongly disagreed (21.7%), those who disagreed (17.0%) and the remainder agreed (11.3%).

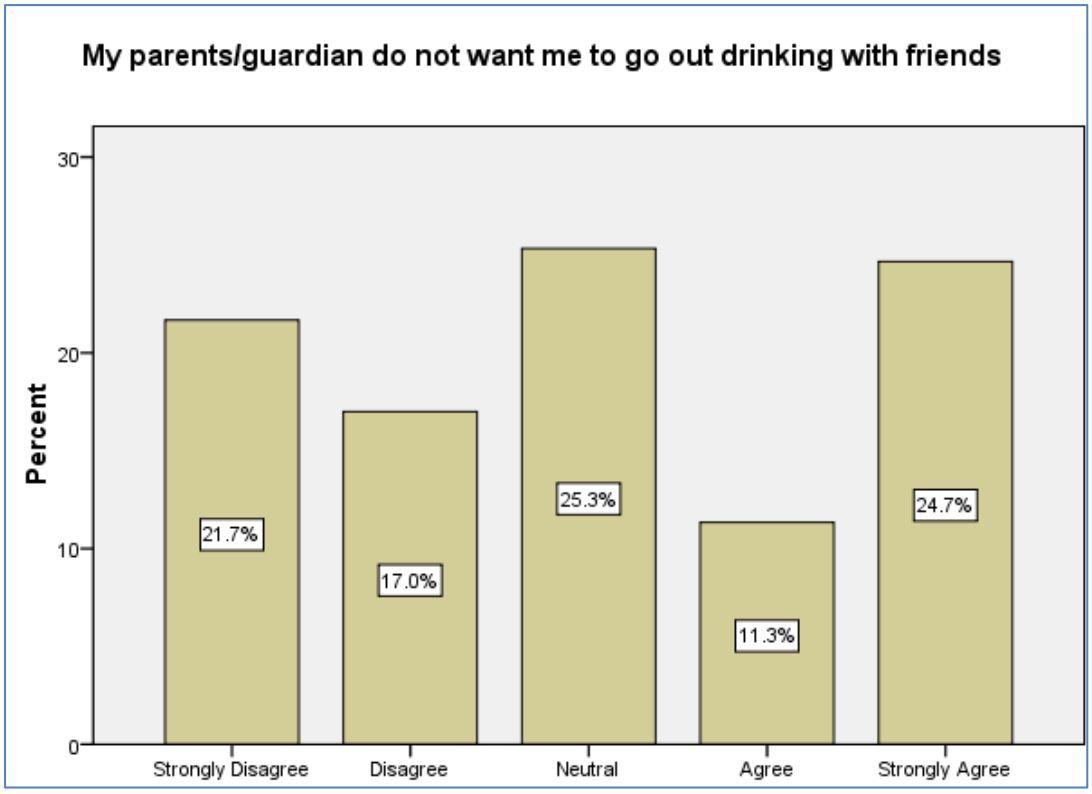


**Figure 4.6:** Predictor variable 2 results: Parental influence - parenting (drinking with friends)

### *4.3.3 Predictor variable 3: Peer influence*

Similar to parental influence, peer influence is a uni-dimensional construct made up of peer attitudes and peer usage. A total of six items were used to measure peer influence.

#### *4.3.3.1 Peer influence - peer usage*

The social side of drinking (i.e. peer usage) was explored through statements that were posed to the respondents: “All my peers drink alcohol”, “All of my peers get drunk at least once a week”, “I always see my peers drunk after having had too much alcohol to drink”. These statements were adapted from a study conducted by Gunter, Hansen, and Tour (2011).

Figure 4.7 illustrates the consolidated results from the responses collated from the participants for statements relating to peer usage. The same results are presented in a table format in Table 4.4.

For the statement “All my peers drink alcohol”, most of the participants agreed with the statement and represented 32.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly agreed with the statement (26.7%), those who were neutral (21.7%), those who disagreed (11.7%) and the remainder strongly disagreed (7.7%).

The results for the statement “All of my peers get drunk at least once a week” show that most of the participants disagreed with the statement and represented 25.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly disagreed with the statement (20.3%), those who were neutral (20.0%), those who strongly agreed (18.3%) and the remainder agreed (15.3%).

For the statement “I always see my peers drunk after having had too much alcohol to drink”, most of the participants agreed with the statement and represented 24.7% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly agreed with the statement (23.3%), those who were neutral (19.7%), those who disagreed (17.0%) and the remainder strongly disagreed (15.3%).

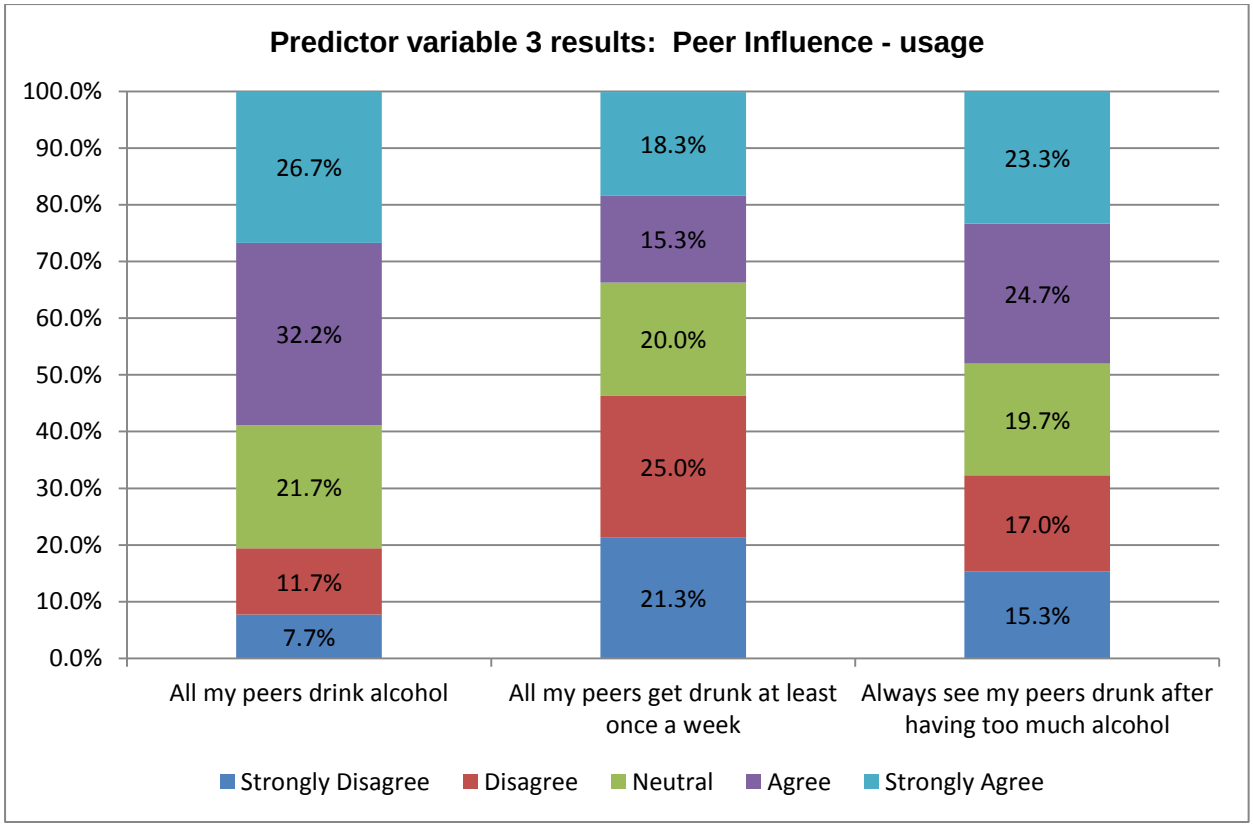


**Figure 4.7: Predictor variable 3 results: Peer influence – usage**

**Table 4.4: Predictor variable 3 results: Peer influence - usage**

| | Participants responses | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Peer Usage** | **Strongly Disagree** | **Disagree** | **Neutral** | **Agree** | **Strongly Agree** |
| All my peers drink alcohol | 7.7% | 11.7% | 21.7% | 32.2% | 26.7% |
| All my peers get drunk at least once a week | 21.3% | 25.0% | 20.0% | 15.3% | 18.3% |
| Always see my peers drunk after having too much alcohol | 15.3% | 17.0% | 19.7% | 24.7% | 23.3% |

#### *4.3.3.2 Peer influence - peer attitude*

To assess peers' attitudes, respondents were asked to use the scale used in this study to answer the following questions: "My peers generally have a positive attitude toward drinking alcohol", "I am okay with my peers encouraging me to drink", "I am okay with complying with my peers' attitudes towards drinking". The first two statements were adopted from Grube and Wallack (1994), while the last statement to measure peer influence was taken from Hung et al. (2011), where the respondents were asked how they felt about their peers encouraging them to consume alcohol.

Figure 4.8 illustrates the statement "My peers generally have a positive attitude toward drinking alcohol". Most of the participants agreed with the statement and represented 35.7% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly agreed with the statement (29.0%), those who were neutral (22.3%), those who strongly disagreed (7.0%) and the remainder disagreed (6.0%).

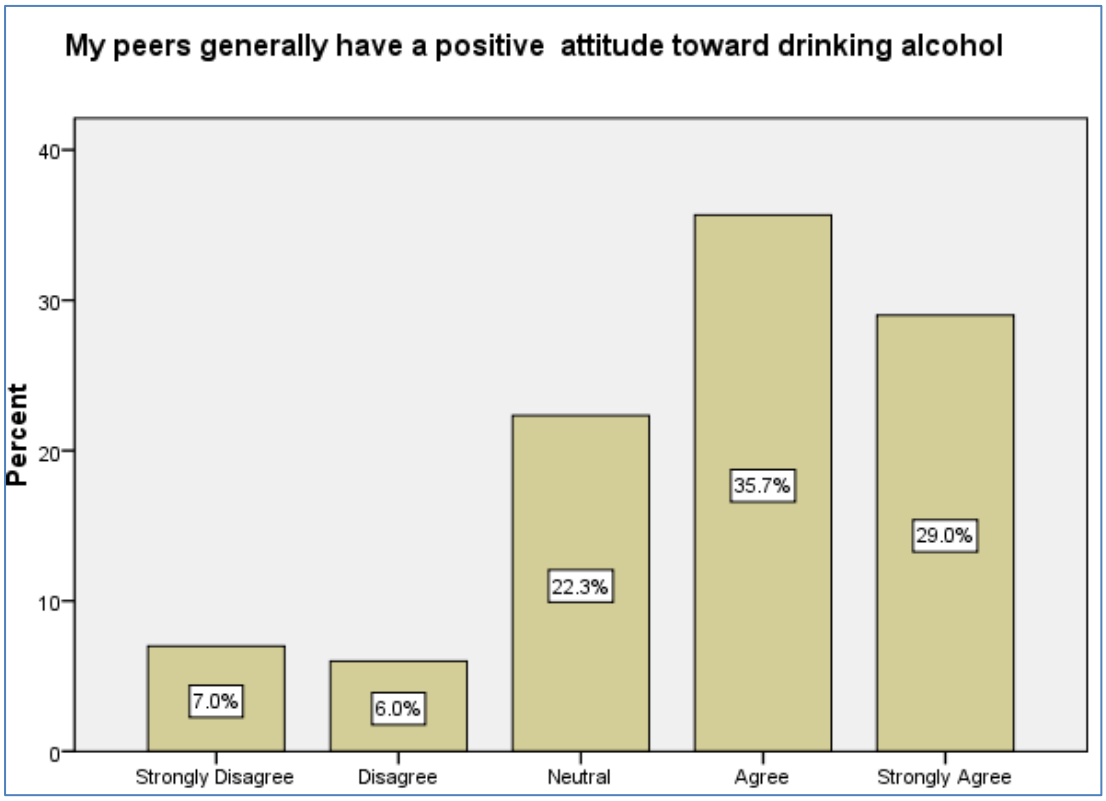


**Figure 4.8: Predictor variable 3 results: Peer influence -– attitude: (positive peers' attitude)**

Figure 4.9 illustrates the statement “I am okay with my peers encouraging me to drink”. Most of the participants were neutral with the statement and represented 28.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly disagreed with the statement (26.0%), those who disagreed (18.7%), those who agreed (15.7%) and the remainder strongly agree (11.3%).

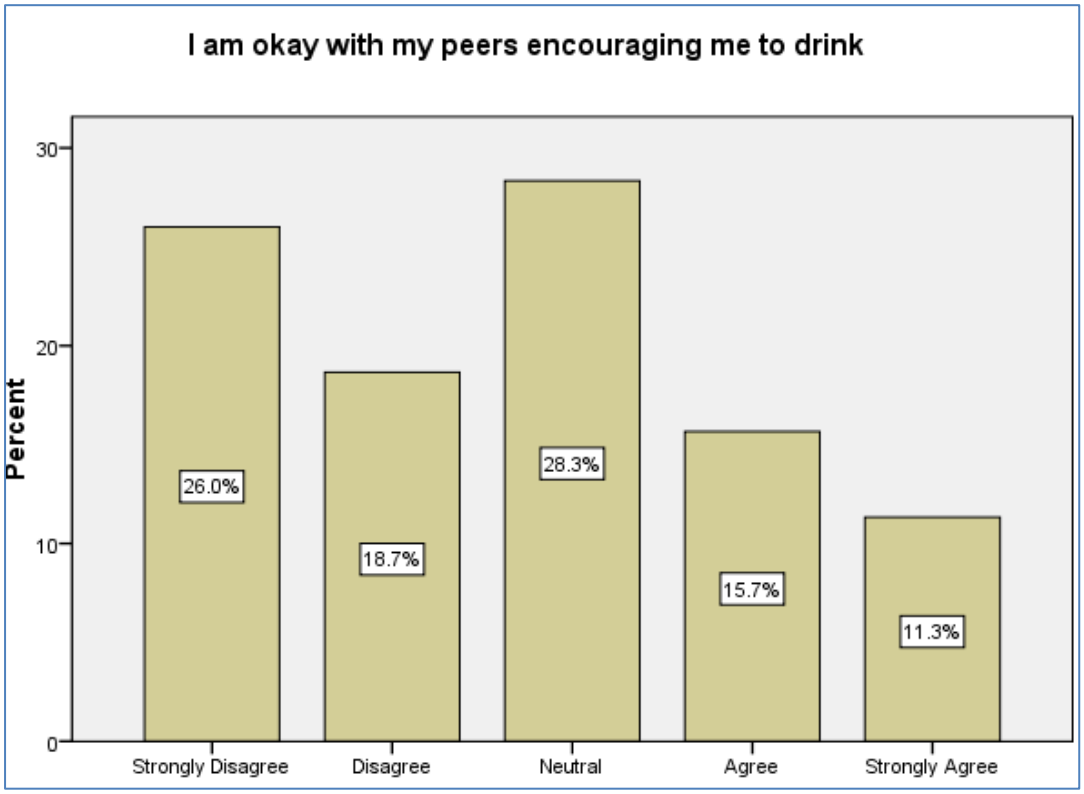


**Figure 4.9: Predictor variable 3 results: Peer influence - attitude: (encouragement from peers)**

Figure 4.10 illustrates the statement “I am okay with complying with my peers’ attitudes towards drinking”. Most of the participants were neutral with the statement and represented 30.7% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly disagreed with the statement (21.3%), those who agreed (19.0%), those who disagreed (17.0%) and the remainder strongly agree (12.0%).

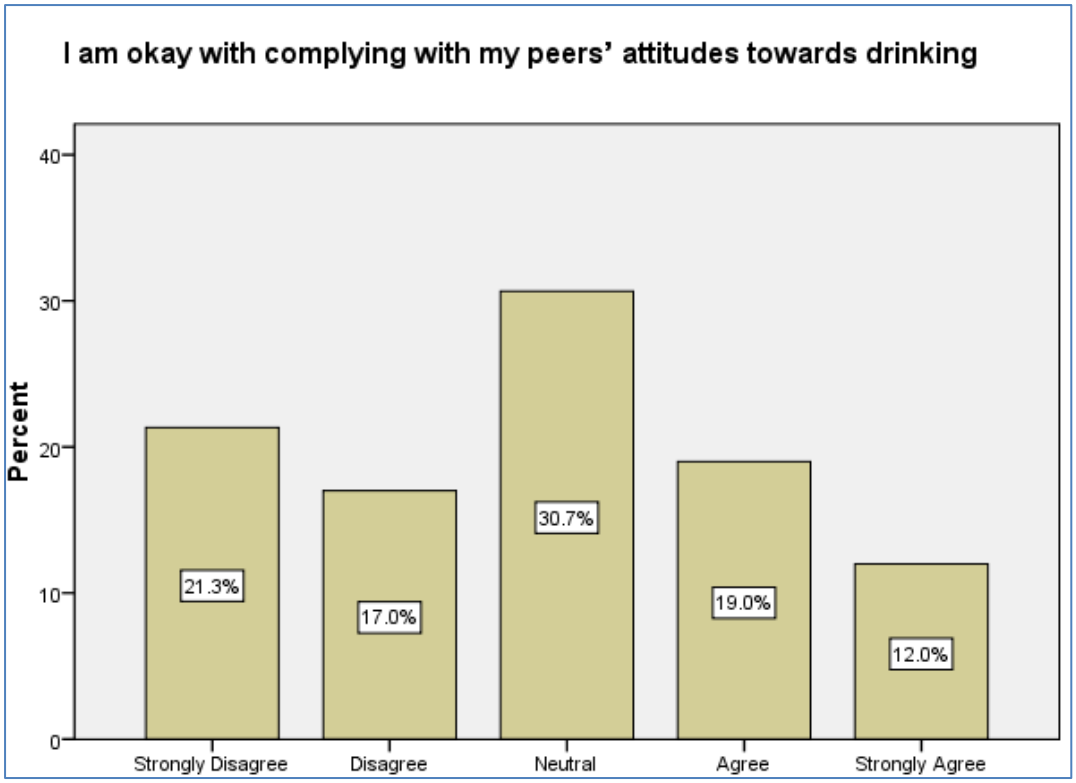


**Figure 4.10: Predictor variable 3 results: (Peer influence -– attitude (): complying with peers' attitude)**

### *4.3.4 Predictor variable 4: Personal attitudes*

Consistent with the TPB, respondents were asked to indicate their attitude toward consuming five or more standard drinks in a single session. Participants were asked to select a response that best describes their personal opinions on a five-point bipolar adjective scale. These scales was adapted from Ajzen's TPB measure; unenjoyable/enjoyable; bad/good; unfavourable/favourable; unpleasant/pleasant; and unsatisfying/satisfying (Ajzen, 2006).

Figure 4.11 and Table 4.5 illustrate the consolidated responses from the participants to the statements adapted to measure favourability, enjoyability, pleasantness, satisfaction and goodness. A five-point Likert-type scale was used to capture responses from the participants.

For favourability, most of the participants were neutral with the statement and represented 27.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who

strongly disagreed with the statement (24.3%), those who agreed (18.3%), those who strongly agreed (16.7%) and the remainder disagreed (13.3%).

The statement asking respondents to what degree they thought having five or more standard drinks in a single session enjoyable, most of the participants agreed with the statement and represented 31.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly disagreed with the statement (21.0%), those who were neutral (19.0%), those who strongly agreed (16.7%) and the remainder disagreed (12.3%).

For the statement “My drinking five or more standard drinks in a single session is good”, most of the participants were neutral with the statement and represented 29.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly disagreed with the statement (22.0%), those who disagreed (21.0%), those who agreed (17.3%) and the remainder strongly agreed (9.7%).

The statement “My drinking five or more standard drinks in a single session is pleasant, showed most of the participants were neutral with the statement and represented 31.7% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who agreed with the statement (20.0%), those who disagreed (18.3%), those who strongly disagreed (17.3%) and the remainder strongly agreed (12.7%).

The participants response to the statement, “My drinking five or more standard drinks in a single session is satisfying”, was mostly neutral represented by 25.7% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly disagreed with the statement (21.3%), those who agreed (19.7%), those who disagreed (18.3%) and the remainder strongly agreed (15.0%).

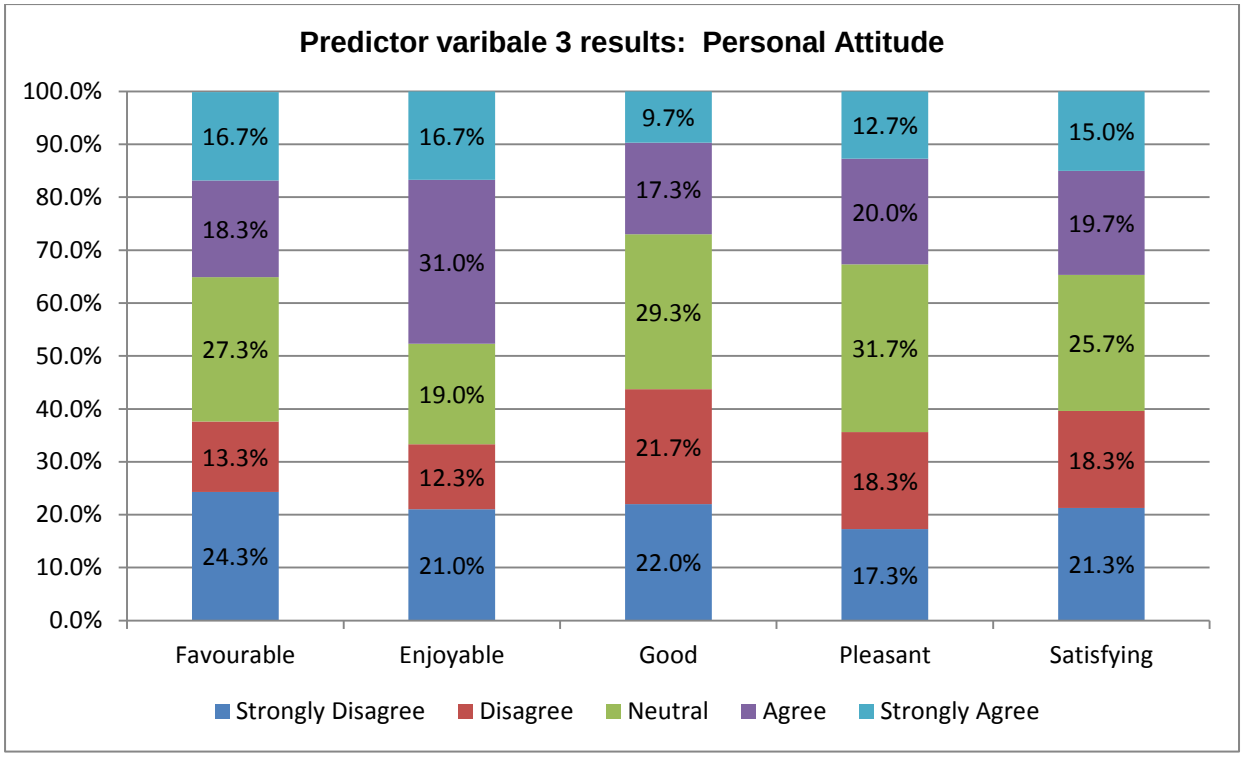


**Figure 4.11: Predictor variable 3 responses: Personal attitude**

**Table 4.5: Predictor variable 3 responses: Personal attitude**

| | Participants responses | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Personal attitude** | **Strongly Disagree** | **Disagree** | **Neutral** | **Agree** | **Strongly Agree** |
| Favourable | 24.3% | 13.3% | 27.3% | 18.3% | 16.7% |
| Enjoyable | 21.0% | 12.3% | 19.0% | 31.0% | 16.7% |
| Good | 22.0% | 21.7% | 29.3% | 17.3% | 9.7% |
| Pleasant | 17.3% | 18.3% | 31.7% | 20.0% | 12.7% |
| Satisfying | 21.3% | 18.3% | 25.7% | 19.7% | 15.0% |

### *4.3.5 Outcome variable: self-reported alcohol consumption*

Alcohol consumption was measured by the self-reported quantity of consumption, and context of drinking occasions. The statements used to assess consumer risk behaviours are similar to those commonly used in substance abuse surveys (Simons-Morton et al. 2001). Six items were used to measure this variable (F1 – F6).

#### *4.3.5.1 Self-reported drinking: quantity of consumption*

Quantity consumed was measured by asking how many times the respondents consumed varying quantities (in glasses) of alcohol in a period of a week. This scale was adapted from Freisthler, Holmes, and Wolf (2014).

Figure 4.12 and Table 4.6 illustrate the responses from the participants with regards to the quantities of alcohol they consume in a week. For the statement “I have 1 – 2 glasses of alcohol to drink a week”, most of the participants strongly disagree with the statement and represented 48.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who disagreed with the statement (17.7%), those who agreed (15.0%), those who were neutral (12.3%) and the remainder strongly agreed (7.0%).

The responses for the statement “I have 3 – 4 glasses of alcohol to drink a week”, were that most of the participants strongly disagree with the statement and represented 57.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who disagreed with the statement (19.7%), those who were neutral (9.3%), those who agreed (8.7%) and the remainder strongly agreed (5.3%).

Most participants strongly disagreed with the statement “I have 5 – 7 glasses of alcohol to drink a week”, represented 62.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who disagreed with the statement (16.7%), those who were neutral (7.3%), those who agreed (8.0%) and the remainder strongly agreed (5.7%).

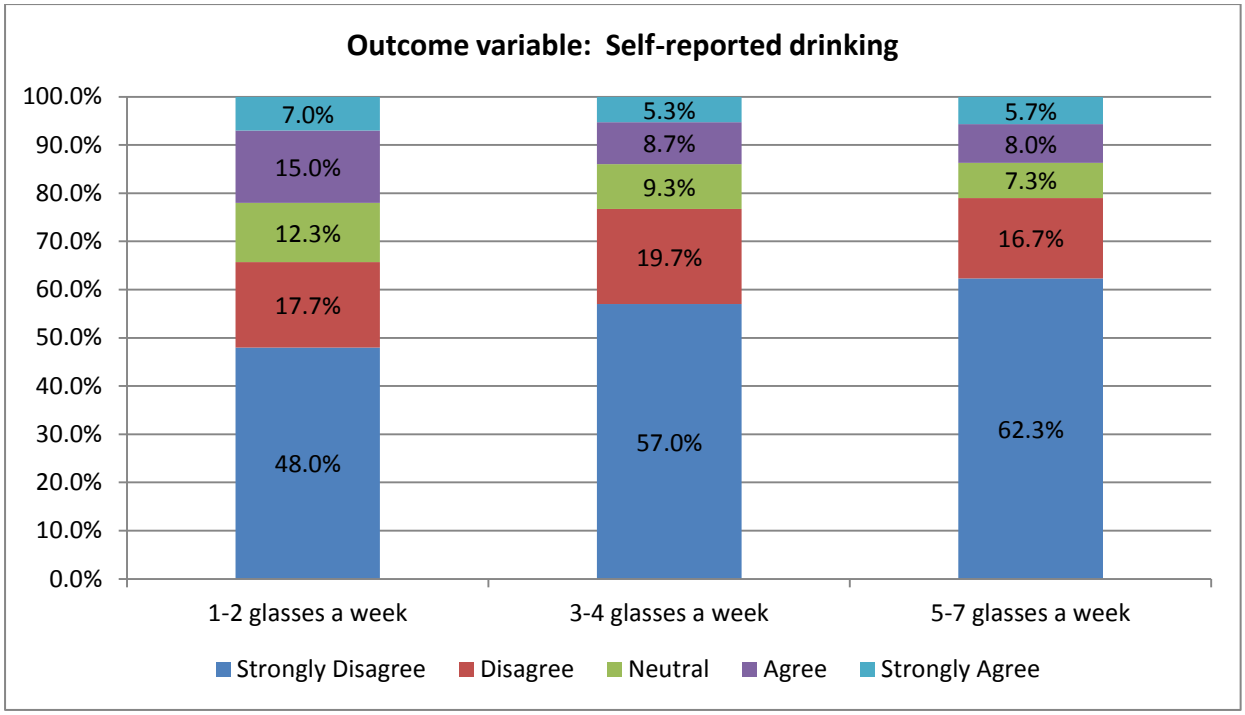


**Figure 4.12: Outcome variable results: Self-reported alcohol consumption**

**Table 4.6: Outcome variable results: Self-reported alcohol consumption**

| | Participants responses | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Self-reported alcohol consumption - Frequency of consumption** | **Strongly Disagree** | **Disagree** | **Neutral** | **Agree** | **Strongly Agree** |
| 1-2 glasses a week | 48.0% | 17.7% | 12.3% | 15.0% | 7.0% |
| 3-4 glasses a week | 57.0% | 19.7% | 9.3% | 8.7% | 5.3% |
| 5-7 glasses a week | 62.3% | 16.7% | 7.3% | 8.0% | 5.7% |

### *4.3.5.2 Self-reported drinking: drinking occasions*

The contexts of drinking occasions was measured in terms indicating specific events where drinking typically occurs. Respondents were asked to indicate where they often consumed alcohol: at home, in bars/restaurants, night clubs/social events. This scale was also adapted from the study conducted by Freisthler, Holmes, and Wolf (2014).

Figure 4.13 illustrates the statement “I often drink alcohol at home”. Most of the participants strongly disagree with the statement and represented 50.0% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who were neutral with the statement (17.3%), those who disagreed (12.3%), those who agreed (11.7%) and the remainder strongly agreed (8.7%).

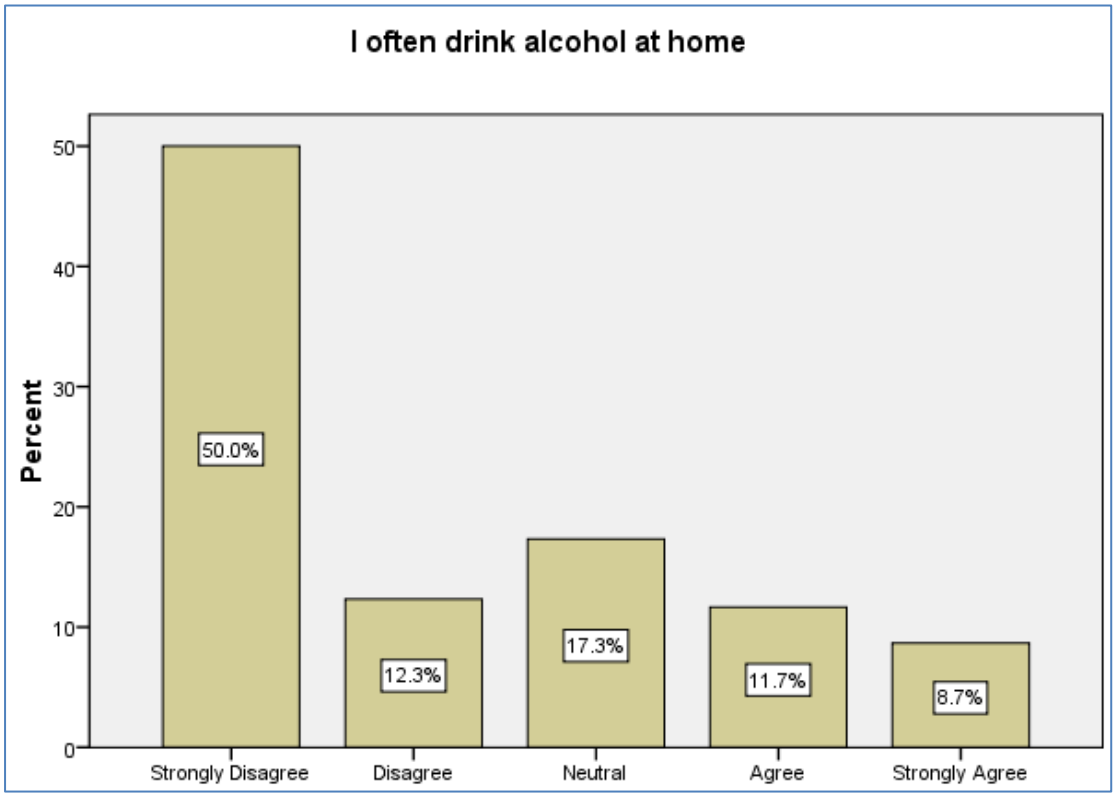


**Figure 4.13: Outcome variable results: (Self-reported consumption): drinking at home**

Figure 4.14 illustrates the statement “I often drink alcohol at a restaurant/bar”. Most of the participants agreed with the statement and represented 28.3% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who strongly disagree with the

statement (25.7%), those who were neutral (20.0%), those who strongly agreed (17.3%) and the remainder disagreed (8.7%).

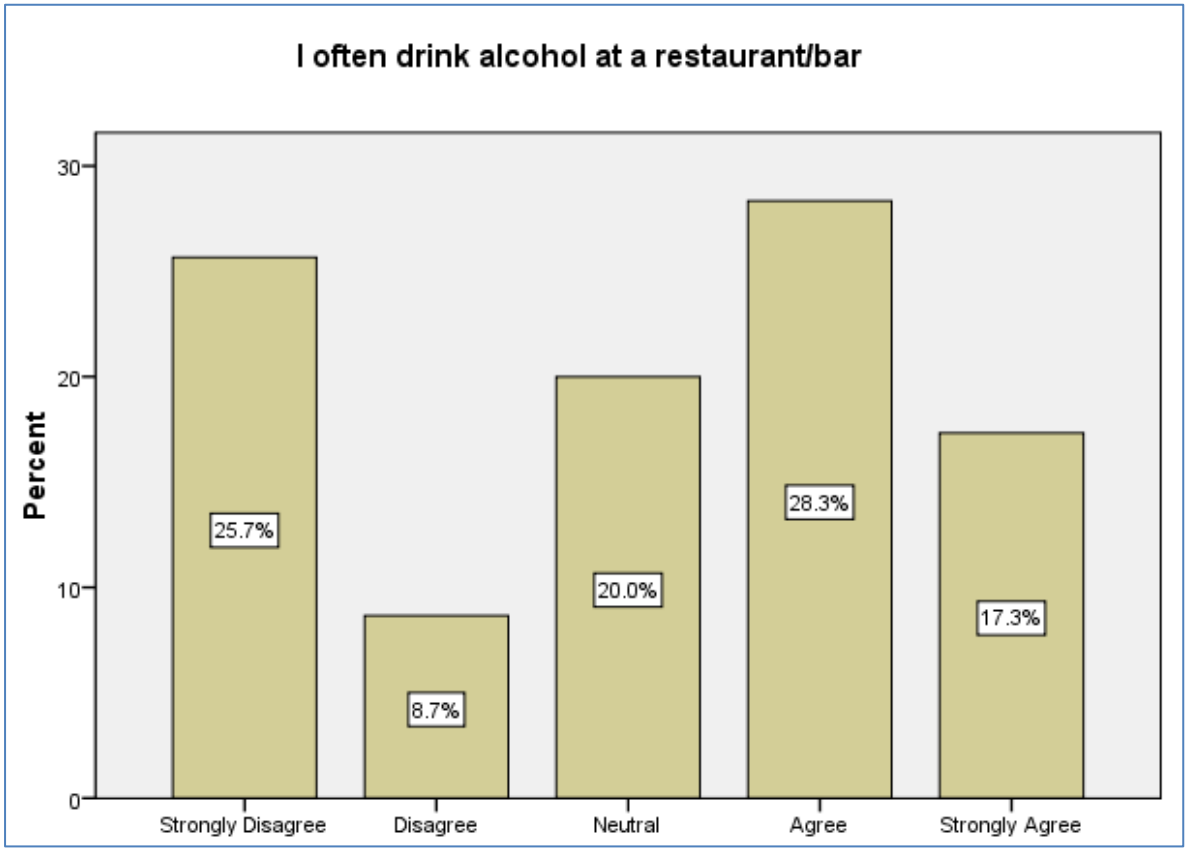


**Figure 4.14: Outcome variable results: (Self-reported alcohol consumption): drinking at restaurant/bar**

Figure 4.15 illustrates the statement “I often consume alcohol at a club or an event”. Most of the participants strongly agreed with the statement and represented 48.7% respectively of the total sample. This was followed by those who agreed with the statement (25.0%), those who strongly disagreed (19.7%), those who were neutral (11.3%) and the remainder disagreed (3.3%).

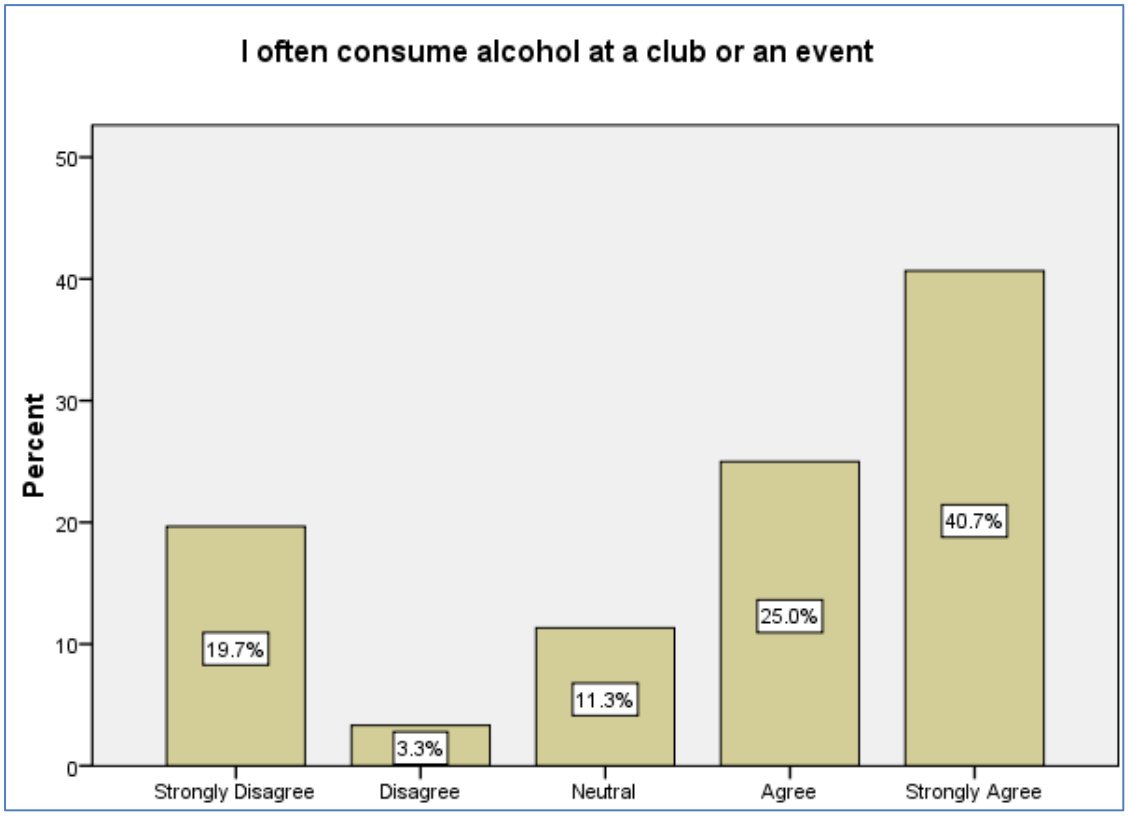


**Figure 4.15: Outcome variable results: (Self-reported alcohol consumption): drinking at clubs or events**

## 4.4 Structural Equation Modelling approach

Data analysis was performed using the structural equation modelling (SEM). Structural equation modelling has become a popular statistical technique to test theory in several fields of knowledge (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black 1998; Schumacker & Lomax 2004). Qureshi and Kang (2014, p.3) describe SEM as “a multivariate, statistical technique largely employed for studying relationships between latent variables (or constructs) and observed variables that constitute a model”. Additionally, it is according to Bollen (1989), Mitchell (1994) Hoyle (1995) Malaeb, Summers and Pugesek (2000) Reckhow, Arhonditsis, Kenny, Hauser, Tribo, Wu, Elcock, Steinberg, Stow and Mcbrid (2005) and Grace (2006) a statistical method with which a researcher can create theoretical concepts and validate proposed causal relationships through two or more structural equations. It is recognised as being similar to regression analysis but more predominant in that it

assesses the causal relationships among constructs while concurrently accounting for measurement error (He, Gai, Wu & Wan 2012; Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams & Hair 2014). SEM's ability to address numerous modelling difficulties, the endogeneity among constructs and composite underlying data structures found in various phenomena (Washington, Karlaftis & Mannering 2003) can be assumed to be part of the reason for its popularity.

SEM is fundamentally a framework that involves concurrently solving systems of linear equations and includes procedures such as regression, factor analysis and path analysis (Beran & Violato 2010; Stein, Morris & Nock 2012). SEM with Smart PLS involves performing a procedure known as Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and path analysis (Chen, Zhang, Liu & Mo 2011) concurrently. The function of CFA is to evaluate how well the latent variables are measured by the observed variables (Chen et al. 2011) while that of path analysis is to investigate causal relationships among unobserved variables (Nusair et al. 2010).

### *4.4.1 Reliability and Validity tests in CFA*

Once an appropriate overall fit was established, the following step was to assess reliability and validity, under the guidance of previous literature (Byrne 1994; Chau & Lai 2003; Fornell et al. 1981; Gerbing & Anderson 1988; Hair et al. 1998). As advocated by Chau (1997), the squaring of factor loadings was conducted to assess item reliability. Item reliability recognises "the amount of variance in an item due to underlying construct rather than to error" (Chau 1997, p. 324). Discriminant and convergent validity was also examined by using the AVE as suggested by Fornell et al. (1981). According to Nusair et al. (2010) a low-cross correlation signifies discriminant validity while the strong loading of items on their familiar construct is an indication of convergent validity. Sarstedt et al. (2014) describes discriminant validity as the degree to which a construct is empirically different from other constructs in the model, both in terms of how it links with other constructs and in terms of how specifically the items represent only this single construct. Convergent validity alternatively is referred to as the degree to which a construct is represented by its measurement items (Sarstedt et al. 2014).

### *4.4.2 Path Modelling*

The next phase of data analysis through the use of SEM involved path analysis (Beran et al. 2010; Stein et al. 2012). Path modelling describes the relationships between observed or measured variables and theoretical constructs (Roche, Duffield & White 2011) and tests the structural paths of the conceptualised research model (Anderson et al. 1988). This SEM procedure was carried out in order to demonstrate and test the theoretical underpinnings of the study and the significance of the relationships between model constructs (Jenatabadi et al. 2014). The study's structural model was evaluated by examining the t-statistics as well as standardised regression coefficients (Matzler & Renzl 2006). In conducting path modelling, a particular responsibility is to explain standardised regression coefficients as well as predictive ability (Wu 2010).

### *4.4.3 Summary of Measurement Accuracy Statistics*

Table 4.7 provides a summary of the measurement statistics. In particular, it provides both the descriptive statistics of the measurement instruments and the reliability and validity values of the measurement instruments. The descriptive statistics provided are the mean values of measurement items and their standard deviations. The Cronbach Alpha coefficients and Composite Reliability values measure the Reliability of the measurement instruments. The item to total correlation values and factor loading assesses the convergent validity of the instruments while the AVE and the correlation matrix evaluates the discriminant validity.

## Table 4.7: Scale accuracy analysis

| Research constructs | | Scale item | | Cronbach's test | | CR | AVE | Factor loadings |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | SD | Item-total | α value | | | |
| PI | PI 1 | 3.59 | 1.214 | 0.535 | 0.724 | 0.787 | 0.500 | 0.615 |
| | PI 2 | 2.86 | 1.442 | 0.507 | | | | 0.940 |
| | PI 3 | 3.24 | 1.383 | 0.529 | | | | 0.549 |
| | PI 5 | 2.68 | 1.318 | 0.503 | | | | 0.635 |
| AE | AE 4 | 3.62 | 1.391 | 0.354 | 0.637 | 0.739 | 0.501 | 0.604 |
| | AE 5 | 3.88 | 1.444 | 0.352 | | | | 0.914 |
| | AE 6 | 4.33 | 0.979 | 0.565 | | | | 0.545 |
| PA | PA 1 | 2.90 | 1.397 | 0.777 | 0.930 | 0.947 | 0.782 | 0.895 |
| | PA 2 | 3.10 | 1.392 | 0.806 | | | | 0.888 |
| | PA 3 | 2.71 | 1.256 | 0.804 | | | | 0.896 |
| | PA 4 | 2.92 | 1.258 | 0.860 | | | | 0.893 |
| | PA 5 | 2.89 | 1.352 | 0.788 | | | | 0.849 |
| PEI | PEI 1 | 2.49 | 1.446 | 0.516 | 0.806 | 0.857 | 0.502 | 0.724 |
| | PEI 2 | 1.66 | 1.126 | 0.402 | | | | 0.740 |
| | PEI 3 | 2.04 | 1.369 | 0.423 | | | | 0.621 |
| | PEI 4 | 2.26 | 1.246 | 0.385 | | | | 0.670 |
| | PEI 5 | 2.82 | 1.608 | 0.332 | | | | 0.796 |
| | PEI 6 | 3.15 | 1.464 | 0.101 | | | | 0.686 |
| AC | AC 1 | 2.15 | 1.348 | 0.601 | 0.806 | 0.860 | 0.510 | 0.743 |
| | AC 2 | 1.86 | 1.214 | 0.631 | | | | 0.762 |
| | AC 3 | 1.78 | 1.218 | 0.600 | | | | 0.771 |
| | AC 4 | 2.17 | 1.378 | 0.438 | | | | 0.526 |
| | AC 5 | 3.03 | 1.448 | 0.608 | | | | 0.777 |
| | AC 6 | 3.64 | 1.516 | 0.482 | | | | 0.674 |

*Note: AE = Adverting Exposure; PI =Parental Influence; PEI= Peer Influence; PA = Personal Attitude; AC = Alcohol consumption*

*SD= Standard Deviation CR= Composite Reliability AVE= Average Variance Extracted*

** Scores: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 3 – Moderately Agree; 5 – Strongly Agree*

#### *4.4.3.1 Cronbach's Alpha test*

Proceeding from the discussion of Cronbach's Alpha and results provided in Table 4.7, literature asserts that a higher level of Cronbach's coefficient alpha indicates a higher reliability of the measurement scale (Chinomona 2011). From the results provided in Table 4.7, the Cronbach's Alpha value for each research construct ranges from 0.637 to 0.930. The cut-off point recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) is 0.6. These Cronbach Alpha values therefore confirmed the existence of reliability. Thus, one can assert that the measurement instruments used in this study were reliable.

#### *4.4.3.2 Composite Reliability (CR)*

The Composite Reliability test was also conducted in order to examine the internal reliability of each research construct, as recommended by Chinomona (2011). A Composite Reliability index that is greater than 0.7 signifies sufficient internal consistency of the construct (Nunnally 1967). In this regard, the results of Composite Reliability that range from 0.739 to 0.947 are shown in Table 4.7. These Composite reliability values confirm the existence of internal reliability for all constructs of the study. Therefore, based on the Cronbach Alpha values and the Composite reliability values, one can safely conclude that the measurement instruments used in this study were to a great extent reliable.

#### *4.4.3.3 Validity*

Validity tests were conducted and convergent and discriminant validity was evaluated. Both tests are described as well as the findings.

#### *4.4.3.3.1 Convergent validity*

Convergent validity determines the degree to which a construct converges in its indicators by giving explanation of the items' variance (Sarstedt et al*.* 2014). Apart from assessing the convergent validity of items through checking correlations in the item-total index (Nusair et al. 2010:), factor loadings were also examined in order to identify convergent validity of measurement items as recommended by Sarstedt et al*.* (2014). According to Nusair et al. (2010) items exhibit good convergent validity when they load strongly on their common construct. Literature maintains that a loading that is above 0.5 signifies convergent validity (Anderson et al. 1988). In this regard, the final items used in the current study loaded well on their respective constructs with the values ranging from 0.526 - 0.940 (see Table 4.7). This therefore indicates good convergent validity where items are explaining more than 50% of their respective constructs. Furthermore, since item-to-total correlation values are above the recommended threshold of 0.5, this further substantiates the existence of convergent validity.

#### *4.4.3.3.2 Discriminant validity*

Inter-construct Correlation Matrix

Proceeding from the foregoing discussion of discriminant validity, Hair, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt (2014) assert that when determining if there is discriminant validity or not, what must be done is to identify whether the observed variable displays a higher loading on its own construct than on any other construct included in the structural model. Theoretically, to check if there is discriminant validity is to assess if the correlation between the research's constructs is less than 1.0. However, in practice it is recommended that the inter-construct correlation matrix values should be lower than 0.850 (Chinomona (2011). As indicated in Table 4.7, the inter-correlation values for all paired latent variables are equal to or less than 0.69, hence confirming the existence of discriminant validity.

#### *4.4.3.4 Average Variance Extracted (AVE)*

According to Chinomona (2011, p. 109) “the average variance extracted estimate reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct”. A good representation of the latent construct by the item is identified when the variance extracted estimate is above 0.5 (Sarstedt et al. 2014; Fornell et al. 1981; Fraering & Minor 2006). Therefore the results of AVE that range from 0.500 to 0.782 in Table 4.8 authenticate good representation of the latent construct by the items.

**Table 4.8: Correlation between the constructs**

| RESEARCH CONSTRUCTS | AC | AE | PA | PEI | PI |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Alcohol Consumption (AC)** | 1.000 | | | | |
| **Advertisement Exposure (AE)** | 0.427 | 1.000 | | | |
| **Personal Attitude (PA)** | 0.692 | 0.331 | 1.000 | | |
| **Peer Influence (PEI)** | 0.554 | 0.276 | 0.557 | 1.000 | |
| **Parental Influence (PI)** | 0.355 | 0.116 | 0.287 | 0.155 | 1.000 |

*Note: AE = Adverting Exposure; PI =Parental Influence; PEI= Peer Influence; PA = Personal; AC = Alcohol Consumption*

#### *4.4.3.5 Share Variances (SV)*

To get the Shared Variances of the research variables, this study squared the highest Shared Variances of the paired constructs. In this study, the Highest Shared

Variances for Alcohol Consumption (AC), Adverting Exposure (AE), Parental Influence (PI), Peer Influence (PEI) and Personal Attitude (PA) are 0.479, 0.182, 0.126, 0.310 and 0.479 respectively. Drawing the AVE values presented in Table 4.8, these Shared Variances are all above the corresponding AVE – therefore further validating was required that indeed discriminant validity exist.

### *4.4.4 Structural Model Testing*

As the second procedure in Structural Equation Modelling (Chen et al. 2011), structural modelling was conducted. Essentially, the procedure is conducted for the purpose of evaluating causal relationships among latent variables (Nusair et al. 2010). This procedure includes “multiple regression analysis and path analysis and models the relationship among latent variables” (Chen et al. 2011, p. 243). Figure 4.16 is a representation of the path model. Much like the CFA model, the ovals represent the latent variables while the rectangles represent the observed variables. The unidirectional arrow signifies the influence of one variable on another.

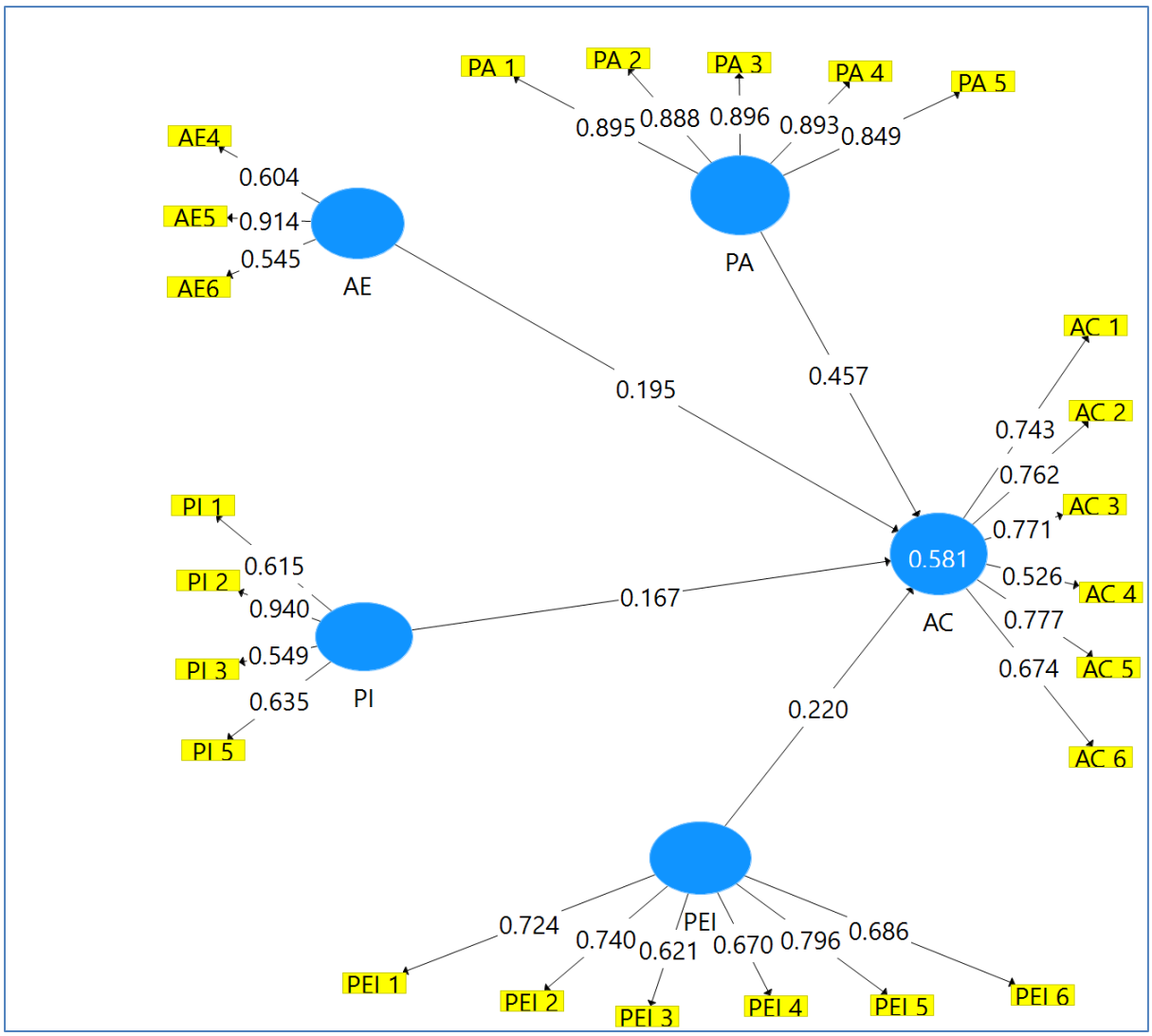


**Figure 4.16: Structural model**

*Note: AE = Adverting Exposure; PI =Parental Influence; PEI= Peer Influence; PA = Personal; AC = Alcohol Consumption*

### *4.4.5 Hypothesis testing*

As the hypothesised measurement and structural model has been assessed and finalised, the next step was to examine causal relationships among latent variables by path analysis (Nusair et al. 2010). According to Byrne (2001) and Nusair et al. (2010) SEM asserts that particular latent variables directly or indirectly influence certain other latent variables with the model, resulting in estimation results that portray how these latent variables are related. For this study, estimation results

elicited through hypothesis testing are indicated in Table 4.9. The table indicates the proposed hypotheses, path coefficients, t-statistics and whether a hypothesis is rejected or supported. Literature asserts that t >1.96 are indicators of relationship significance and that higher path coefficients indicate strong relationships among latent variables (Chinomona, Lin, Wang & Cheng 2010).

**Table 4.9 Hypothesis testing results**

| **Proposed hypothesis relationship** | **Hypothesis** | **Path Coefficients** | **T-Statistics** | **Rejected/ Supported** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Adverting Exposure (AE) → Alcohol Consumption (AC) | H1 | 0.195 | 2.016 | Supported and significant |
| Parental Influence (PI) → Alcohol Consumption (AC) | H2 | 0.167 | 1.786 | Supported but insignificant |
| Peer Influence (PEI) → Alcohol Consumption (AC) | H3 | 0.220 | 5.067 | Supported and significant |
| Personal Attitude (PA) → Alcohol Consumption (AC) | H4 | 0.457 | 14.241 | Supported and significant |

*Note: AE = Adverting Exposure; PI =Parental Influence; PEI= Peer Influence; PA = Personal*

## 4.5 Conclusion of Presentation of Results

This chapter provided the empirical results drawn from the research. Descriptive statistics of the study were presented. There were in total 300 participants in the study who completed a self-administered questionnaire. Similar to the South African population, there were more female participants in the study than males (58.7% vs 41.3%), A total of 89.3% of the respondents were current consumers of alcohol. Eighteen to twenty year olds constituted the majority of the respondents (54%), followed by 21 – 24 year olds (19.3%), 25 -29 year olds (15.3%), and 30 – 34 year olds (11.3%). The majority of the respondents were African/Black (66.2%), which also reflects the racial composition of the South African population. Over 80% of the youth surveyed believe that there is an alcohol consumption problem in general and among the youth of South Africa. 80% of the respondents also believe that government is not doing enough to encourage responsible drinking among the youth.

The next section of this chapter presented the the results for the data collected to measure the predictor and outcome variables. Results from all items used in the measurement tool were presented which enabled the identification of the significance of each item within each variable.

Section 4.4 provided the results of the Structural Equation Modelling (SPSS) approach that was used. The starting point was to present the summary of the measurement statistics: Reliability, Validity, Average Variance Constructed, and Shared Variance tests were conducted respectively and all the tests elicited results confirming reliability and validity of measurement. The Cronbach's Alpha value for each research construct ranged from 0.637 to 0.930, and scores greater than greater than 0.7 signifies sufficient internal consistency of the construct. For Convergent Validity, the values ranged from 0.526 - 0.940, indicating a good convergent validity as items are explaining more than 50% of their respective constructs. The inter-correlation values for all paired latent variables are equal to or less than 0.692 hence confirming the existence of discriminant validity. The results of AVE that range from 0.500 to 0.782 in Table 4.7 authenticate good representation of the latent construct

by the items. Shared Variances were all above the corresponding AVE – therefore further validating that indeed discriminant validity exists.

Structural Equation Modelling was undertaken subsequently. CFA and structural modelling were carried out. The primary purpose was to examine the influence of advertising exposure, parental influence, peer influence and personal attitude on alcohol consumption among the youth in South Africa. Of the four posited hypotheses, three were positively (H1, H3 and H4) supported in a significant way, while one more (H2) was supported but in an insignificant way.

# 5 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

## 5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on interpreting the results of the study on the impact of socialisation agents and personal attitudes on alcohol consumption among the youth in South Africa. Overall, this study examines both external factors (i.e. advertising, parents and peers) and an internal factor (i.e. personal attitudes) and their influence on youth alcohol consumption.

The first sub-problem was to determine the relationship between consumption socialisation agents (i.e. advertising, parents and peer group) and the consumption of alcohol among the youth in South Africa. The intended outcome of this study was to provide possible intervention solutions that stem from exploring the factors influencing the youth learning process and consumption decision of alcohol (i.e. advertising, parents and peer group influence).

The second sub-problem was to determine the relationship between personal attitudes and the consumption of alcohol among the youth in South Africa. Attitude, as a factor in the Theory of Planned Behaviour was found to be a significant predictor of alcohol consumption amongst university students as per the findings by Johnston and White (2003) and McMillan and Conner (2003). Their findings suggest that those students with a more favourable attitude towards consuming alcohol are more likely to participate in the act of consuming alcohol. Therefore, attitude represents a key variable examined within the context of this research.

Alcohol consumption in South African is on the increase, particularly among the youth. Unfortunately, some of the efforts to reduce the harmful use of alcohol have achieved limited success. Policy makers have yet to identify effective means of discouraging alcohol consumption among young people. Identifying factors that influence the start and continued use of alcohol can assist in the development of programs and preventive strategies of intervention. Determining the factors that influence young consumers, their attitudes, consumption and buying patterns could

also provide a cornerstone of any marketing strategy for industry players. It is not only important to understand consumer behaviour, but it is equally as important to also understand how individuals learn and adapt future behaviours

There is thus a need for a greater appreciation of the factors that are driving youth drinking and how these factors can be favourably modified to achieve improvements in outcomes (Pettigrew et al. 2013).

Drawing on the results in Table 4.9 (Hypothesis testing results), illustrated in chapter 4, it can be noted that all the posited hypotheses were supported as proposed. Thus, all the four hypotheses which were expected to be positive - were found to be positive in a significant way, except H2 which was positive, but insignificant. A discussion of each proposed hypothesis and the findings is provided below.

## 5.2 Advertising Exposure and Alcohol Consumption

The results obtained following the test of H1 confirmed that there is an association between Advertising Exposure and reported Alcohol Consumption. A path coefficient of 0.195 was realised after testing H1. This means that Advertising Exposure has a positive and strong influence on Alcohol Consumption – the third after peer influence and personal attitude. Furthermore, the results indicate that advertising exposure and alcohol consumption are positively related to each other in a significant way (t=2.016).

This finding supports the consumer studies that have previously shown that there is a link between advertising exposure and alcohol consumption among the youth. Such studies include Collins, Ellickson, McCaffrey, and Hambarsoomians (2007); Sancho, Miguel, and Aldas (2011); Woodside, 1999; Saffer (1991); Cook, Bond, and Greenfield (2014). Furthermore, this also supports the views of the South African policy makers, who have argued that an effective way of preventing the harmful use of alcohol is through banning the marketing and advertising of alcoholic beverages. The Ban on Alcohol Marketing and Advertising Bill has been tabled in parliament and is currently under review.

## 5.3 Parental Influence and Alcohol Consumption

The results obtained following the test of H2 confirmed that there is an association between Parental Influence (PI) and reported Alcohol Consumption (AC). However, the association is positive as postulated in the hypothesis statement. A path coefficient of 0.167 was realised after testing H2. This means that parental influence has a positive but weak relationship with alcohol consumption. In terms of strength, this relationship is the least of all empirically tested relationships. Furthermore, the results indicate that the relationship between parental influence and alcohol consumption is insignificant (t= 1.786).

The findings of the study support the notion that there is a positive relationship in the alcohol role modelling from parents to offspring. This suggests that not only are alcohol uptake and intake per occasion habits transmitted to offspring, but parental frequency of alcohol consumption predicts frequency of alcohol consumption in their offspring. There have been several cross-sectional studies conducted that work that support this view; Kinard and Webster (2010); Weitzman, Nelson, and Wechsler (2003); Hung et al. (2011). Cross sectional studies that came to the same conclusion include studies done by Pedersen and Von Soest (2013); Pettigrew, et al. (2013).This also means that parental attitudes and the rules they set around alcohol consumption when their offspring are young is also important in influencing alcohol consumption. This was also found in studies conducted by Pedersen and Von Soest (2013); Pettigrew, et al. (2013).

Although the relationship between parental influence and alcohol consumption has been established, it must be noted that it is a weak relationship. This would support the findings from the study conducted by Koning, Engels, Verdurmen, and Vollebergh (2010), where they found that parental alcohol use had little importance at that early stage of drinking.

## 5.4 Peer Influence and Alcohol Consumption

The results obtained following the test of H3 confirmed that there is an association between Peer Influence (PEI) and reported Alcohol Consumption (AC). A path

coefficient of 0.220 was realised after testing H3. This means that peer influence has the second strongest effect on alcohol consumption when compared to all other predictor variables in the conceptual model (second from personal attitude). Furthermore, the results indicate that the relationship between peer influence and alcohol consumption is positive in a very significant way (t= 5.067).

The finding in this study support findings from other previous studies. According to Chen et al. (2015), pro-alcohol descriptive norms (e.g. perceived high alcohol consumption amongst one's peers) predicted an increase in alcohol initiation and consumption. Hund et al. (2001) found that there was an increased likelihood of consuming alcohol in the presence of peers who drink. Kiuru et al. (2010) found that not only did adolescents select their peer associates based on similar drinking behaviours, but were also influenced by the drinking behaviours of their peers. Similar findings were also supported by Kinard and Webster (2010), Lee et al. (2015).

## 5.5 Personal Attitude and Alcohol Consumption

The results obtained following the test of H4 confirmed that there is an association between Personal Attitude (PA) and reported Alcohol Consumption (AC). A path coefficient of 0.457 was realised after testing H4. This means that personal attitude has the strongest effect on alcohol consumption when compared to all other factors in research models that influence consumption of alcohol (advertising exposure, parental influence and peer influence). Furthermore, the relationship is very strong indicated by the significant association (t= 14.241).

It can thus be said, based on the findings of this study that personal attitudes is a significant predictor of engaging in the activity of alcohol consumption. The same conclusion was reached in studies conducted by Johnston and White (2003); McMillan and Conner (2003). This means that those students with a more favourable attitude towards alcohol consumption are more likely to intend to consume.

## 5.6 Summary of overall analysis of hypotheses testing results

This chapter addresses and discusses the finding of the hypotheses that were tested. In the discussion, reference was made to findings of previous studies. The findings of this study are welcome as they establish the significance of factors that influence alcohol consumption within the South African local context.

The results of the Individual path coefficients of H1, H2, H3 and H4 were 0.195; 0.167; 0.220 and 0.457 respectively. Generally, these results indicate, in order of importance, that personal attitude (14.241), peer influence (5.067) and advertising exposure (2.016) have positive and significant influence on alcohol consumption in South Africa. However, parental influence although to a lesser extent, has a positive effect on alcohol consumption (1.786) – the impact is weak and not very important.

# 6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to make deductions from the results presented in chapter 5. The chapter first provides an overview of the findings. Herein, major findings of the study are reviewed once more. Thereafter, the implications that findings have on the current study are described. This is followed by the conclusion and recommendations with regard to the findings. In the last part of the chapter, the study's limitations are described, and suggestions for future research are included.

## 6.2 Overview of findings

The current study investigates the impact of socialisation agents, namely advertising exposure, parental influence, peer influence, and personal attitude on alcohol consumption amongst the youth in South Africa. The data were collected from a total of 300 young people through a self-administered questionnaire. Almost 90% of the participants were current consumers of alcohol, and the sample was weighted more towards those under the age of thirty (88.6%). Participants were representative of the South African racial groups, with 66.3% being Black, 16.3% White, 9% Coloured, and 7.7% Indian.

In general the participants indicated that they believed that there was an alcohol drinking problem in the country (82%), and when asked specifically about drinking being a problem among young people, 85.3% believed this to be true. The majority of the respondents believed the government is not doing enough to drive responsible drinking among the youth (80.3%).

Using a five-point Likert-type scale, the respondents were asked to provide their response on questions on advertising exposure, parental and peer use and attitude towards consuming alcohol, and their own personal alcohol usage and attitudes towards drinking.

The four hypothesis developed by the study were examined. Consumption was measured in terms of self-reported quantity of standard drinks consumed in a week. Findings regarding each variable were tested and hypotheses are discussed below.

### *6.2.1 Adverting Exposure and Alcohol Consumption*

It was revealed that advertising exposure has a positive relationship with alcohol consumption. This was expected since advertising exposure is likely to motivate the people to consume alcohol. Based on these findings, it can therefore be affirmed that to some extent, young people who are exposed to alcohol advertisements are more likely to be enticed to consume alcohol.

In terms of ranking, TV adverts, outdoor billboards, and print media received the highest “strongly agree” scores, indicating that the use of mass media continues to be effective in creating exposure. Attending events sponsored by an alcoholic beverage followed the abovementioned mass media elements very closely, with 52% of the participants strongly agreeing to this activity. Although there is a growing global trend of using social media to engage with young people, only 38.3% of the participants strongly agreeing to have engaged a social media campaign that was linked to an alcoholic drink or brand.

### *6.2.2 Parental Influence and Alcohol Consumption*

Only 5.6% of the participants strongly agreed that their parents/guardians have a positive attitude towards drinking alcohol, yet a combined 41.2% of the participants marked “agree” or “strongly agree” to the statement of their parents/guardians not having a problem with them drinking one glass of alcohol. Having said that, based on the results from the statements posed to the participants, a large number of their parents/guardians do not want them to drink several glasses of alcohol in their absence (a combined 44% of “agree” and “strongly agreed”).

The hypotheses test findings indicated that parental influence has a positive relationship on alcohol consumption. However, the relationship is insignificant. This means that, to a large extent, parents are less likely to encourage their children to consume alcohol. Furthermore, young people do not see the drinking behaviour of parents/guardians having an influence on their decision to consume alcohol. The findings confirm this notion to some extent.

### *6.2.3 Peer Influence and Alcohol Consumption*

A combined 58.9% of the participants indicated that they “agree” or “strongly agree” that their peers consume alcohol. The majority (a combined 64.7%) indicated that their peers generally have a positive attitude towards drinking alcohol. However, a large number of the participants (a combined 46.7%) were not comfortable with their peers encouraging them to drink and were not comfortable with complying with the peer pressure.

The hypotheses testing finding indicates a positive and significant relationship between peer influence and alcohol consumption was found. The influence of peers’ alcohol usage and attitudes towards drinking alcohol is indeed likely to lead to youth alcohol consumption. Based on these findings, it can therefore be confirmed that higher levels of peer influence strongly impact on alcohol consumption.

### *6.2.4 Personal Attitude and Alcohol Consumption*

This study found that a positive relationship between personal attitude and alcohol consumption existed. Not only that, but this variable indicated the strongest relationship in comparison to all the others examined.

Drinking five of more standard drinks in a single session is considered excessive (as indicated in previous studies and discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2 of this study). However, a large number of the respondents indicated that they found drinking five or more standard drinks in a single session favourable, enjoyable, good, pleasant and satisfying.

Based on the current research findings, it can therefore be affirmed that personal attitude has the strongest impact on alcohol consumption.

## 6.3 Conclusions and Implications of the study

The current research has both academic and practical implications. Academically, the current study contributes to the existing literature on the relationship between socialisation agents, personal attitudes and alcohol consumption. On the practical side, this study examines some factors that have been overlooked in the making and passing of the reduction of alcohol use policies. The findings have produced some inferences for the study. They are discussed below.

### *6.3.1 Advertising Exposure and Alcohol Consumption*

The study's first empirical objective was to investigate the influence of advertising exposure and alcohol consumption. The findings acquired after analysis revealed that the exposure to alcohol advertising will have a positive and important influence on alcohol consumption in South Africa. The findings also revealed that the relationship between the two variables is significant at t-statistic of 2.016. Therefore, it is now understood that when compared to other constructs in the conceptual model, advertising exposure is the third most important factor to influence alcohol consumption in South Africa

Therefore, this study supports the Department of Health's step towards restricting the advertising of alcohol in order to reduce the consumption of alcohol and the associated undesirable consequences.

### *6.3.2 Parental Influence and Alcohol Consumption*

The study's second empirical objective was to investigate the influence of parental influence on alcohol consumption. The findings realised after analysis, identified that parental influence has the least impact on alcohol consumption since the relationship between the two variables is insignificant at t-statistic of 1.786.

This also means that while parental influence can have a positive influence on alcohol consumption as hypothesised – the relationship is weak or insignificant. This implies that most parents are less likely to encourage their children to consume alcohol. Therefore, the more the parents assert their influence on their children, the less likely they are to engage in alcohol consumption.

### *6.3.3 Peer Influence and Alcohol Consumption*

The study's third empirical objective was to investigate the effects of peer influence on alcohol consumption. The findings obtained after analysis revealed that peer influence has the second strongest positive influence on alcohol consumption at t-statistic of 5.067. Thus, by implication, peers strongly influence young people to consume alcohol more than advertising exposure and parental influence. It can therefore be concluded that parents should take note of the peers associating with their children in order to reduce the negative influence that can lead to alcohol consumption

### *6.3.4 Personal Attitude and Alcohol Consumption*

The study's fourth empirical objective was to investigate the influence of personal attitude on alcohol consumption. The findings acquired following analysis, conveyed that personal attitude has the strongest impact on alcohol consumption at t-statistic of 14.241. This means that most children end up consuming alcohol out of their personal will and not motivated by external influences. Thus, inculcating family values that discourage alcohol consumption at a tender age may shape the attitude of children to the extent that they can resist being influenced by parents, advertising and peers when it comes to alcohol consumption.

### *6.3.5 Overall implication of the study*

These findings, on the whole, indicate that the study's theoretical proposition is valid and acceptable. It is also evident, ranked by importance, that personal attitude, peer influence and advertising exposure, have the strongest impact on alcohol

consumption. However, parental influence has the weakest effects on alcohol consumption. Therefore, although very topical in the liquor manufacturing and distribution industry and with government on the brink of passing a Bill on banning alcohol advertising, this study has found that there are other factors that influence youth alcohol consumption which are more significant (i.e. personal attitudes and peer influence). Therefore, interventions that address these significant variables should be prioritised.

## 6.4 Recommendations

Findings of the current study have prompted suggestions that are likely to lead to the reduction of alcohol consumption.

### *6.4.1 Recommendations on the influence of advertising exposure and alcohol consumption*

The findings realised have conveyed that advertising exposure has a positive impact on alcohol consumption and this relationship is significant. The study therefore recommends that there is a need for government to come up with legislation that restricts the advertisement of alcohol, especially in public media and platforms. Pressure groups and social activists may campaign against misleading advertising by alcohol companies that entice children to desire consuming alcohol.

Some of the challenges of passing this Bill, as highlighted by the South African Chamber of Commerce, include the adverse economic impact on the different industries such as manufacturing, advertising, retail, and sports. Therefore, an alternative to a complete ban on alcohol advertising should be considered. These could include time restriction on TV adverts (i.e. only flight TV adverts when young people have a lower chance to be exposed to the adverts), limit alcoholic beverage sponsored events (eg. Sport events, concerts, and parties), and placing restrictions on the placement of alcohol advertising material in high traffic and reach areas (eg. Restaurants, bars and night clubs, outdoor billboards, youth targeted magazines).

The ban of alcohol advertising needs to also be supported by an increased communication on the risk of alcohol consumption and effects of misuse. In this study, young people have indicated that the government is not doing enough to encourage responsible drinking. This research found that there are certain media types used by alcohol manufacturers that have higher levels of recall among the youth surveyed. Therefore, there is an opportunity for government to use the very same mass media to reach young people (in particular, TV advertising, outdoor billboards, and print media) to communicate responsible drinking in the form of public media messages. All the departments represented in the inter-ministerial committee, IMC (i.e. Ministry of Health, Basic Education, Economic Development, Finance, Transport, and South African Police Service) need to work together to reinforce the same communication. The Department of Government Communication and Information Systems (GCIS) is well positioned to drive the unified communication, production of material and media buy-in for this type of initiative. This is one way government will be able to build scale and of optimising advertising budgets across the department, and increase effectiveness.

### *6.4.2 Recommendations on the influence of parental influence and alcohol consumption*

The findings further showed that parental influence has a weak impact on alcohol consumption. As such, the study recommends that parents should continue inculcating family values that discourage their children from desiring to consume alcohol. Parents and guardians should not sponsor or facilitate youth drinking at home on the assumption that “it will occur anyway”. Parents and guardians need to be aware that parental supervision can reduce the risks of young people misusing alcohol.

### *6.4.3 Recommendations on the influence of peer influence and alcohol consumption*

It was also acknowledged from the findings that peer pressure has the second strongest positive influence on alcohol consumption. The study therefore

recommends that children should be careful of the peers with whom they associate. In the same vein, parents should watch and advise their children if they notice that they have bad peers. However, as adolescents get older, they spend less time with their parents or guardians, increasing the opportunities of participating in risky activities such as excessive use of alcohol. Therefore, it is important for parents, guardians and the community at large, to play an active role in promoting the youth's ability to resist peer pressure. Byrne and Mazanov (2005) suggest building social skills and offering stress management solutions could be a way to do this.

On the positive side, peer pressure can also be used to influence the youth in a positive way. Changing predominant group norms can drive the behavioural changes overall. Therefore using social influencers such as young celebrities, artists, community leaders and spokespeople for the youth might yield effective results of reducing the harmful use of alcohol.

### *6.4.4 Recommendations on the influence of personal attitude and alcohol consumption*

The study's findings furthermore indicated that personal attitude has the strongest influence on alcohol consumption. The study therefore proposes that in order to reduce the consumption of alcohol, parents and relative and perhaps guardians or teachers should play a crucial role in modelling the children with values and norms that discourage the consumption of alcohol. Such an effort will shape the attitude of the children and hence reduce their chances of abusing alcohol.

### *6.4.5 Overall recommendations*

Since the alcohol consumption which may degenerate into alcohol abuse is noted to lead to adverse consequences, it is therefore important to have policies that discourage the consumption of alcohol and programs in place to support these policies. The current South African National Liquor policy and interventions only speak to making alcohol less accessible through controlling products, pricing, and distribution. What these interventions fail to do is to address the social influences surrounding alcohol consumption. This study has found that the socialisation agents

of advertising exposure, peer influence and personal attitude are the important factors that significantly impact on alcohol consumption in a positive way. Therefore, in order to address the social influence of alcohol consumption, the entire South African community needs to come on board and play an active role in helping to curb this problem.

The South African government must proceed with the process of passing the Bill to ban the advertising and marketing of alcohol. This might be a drastic move, impacting a wide range of industries, therefore as an alternative, the government should consider less drastic yet impactful ways of limiting access to advertising and marketing among the youth population.

The alcohol industry needs to provide a meaningful commitment to building societies where young people are not encouraged to drink alcohol in order to have an attractive and successful life, as sometimes shown on TV adverts. Young people are highly impressionable, as such, exposure to TV advertisements and the lifestyle depicted on them, can have an impact on the values and attitudes they will form on alcohol consumption. Parents and guardians also play a crucial part in the modelling of children's attitudes. Therefore, parents, guardians, and the general community should not actively encourage the use of alcohol.

Peer influence was found to also have a significant impact on youth alcohol consumption. Along with society being involved in building young people's ability to resist peer pressure, a recommendation is made of changing predominant group norms. In other words, use influential young people such as TV personalities, artists and performers, and youth representatives, in order to drive behavioural change in other young people. Instead of glamourising consuming and misusing alcohol, influential young people can be the change we want to see.

To support the National Liquor policy, the author of this paper recommends that a national social-orientated strategy should be designed to animate and sustain a broad and deep societal plan to reduce youth drinking, to rally support around government and private sector actions aimed at encouraging responsible drinking,

and to encourage parents, guardians and peers to discourage and not facilitate youth drinking.

## 6.5 Limitations and future studies

The current research has some limitations. Initially, the study is limited to the Gauteng province in South Africa. This study can be expanded to include other provinces of South Africa. Furthermore, the study surveyed a specific target market audience (i.e. youth who are either students or employed), which mean that the views of the unemployed youth who have limited access to finance and might be influenced by different circumstances were not considered. This study can be expanded to include youth who are at different life stages of their lives.

The study found that personal attitudes have a significant influence on alcohol consumption. However, factors that influence the formation of these attitudes remain unknown. Future studies can consider examining factors that affect the formation of personal attitudes in relation to alcohol consumption.

Peer influence was found to have the second highest significant importance to youth alcohol consumption. Future studies should consider generating the understanding of changing predominant group norms.

Future studies can also be considered to expanding the current conceptual model by including other factors not considered in the current study, such as stress. Perhaps too, an inter-country comparison of the current conceptual model might produce interesting research findings and therefore future studies can consider this research direction. In doing so, more knowledge with regard to antecedents of alcohol consumption in South Africa and beyond will be uncovered, thus making a further contribution to existing literature on the subject.

## 6.6 Summary

The final chapter of this study was intended to make inferences from the findings and to make recommendations. The chapter was structured under five main headings.

Firstly, a recapitulation of the findings was provided. This was followed by a highlighting of implications that these findings have. Thereafter, the chapter provided final deductions of the study. Recommendations were then made. The chapter ended with a discussion on the limitations that were encountered and suggestions were made for future studies.

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# APPENDIX 1: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE




The University of the Witwatersrand
Wits Business School
Date: Aug 2016
Dear Sir/Madam

**Questionnaire: The impact of Socialisation Agents and Personal Attitudes on youth alcohol consumption**

Thank you for your attention to this academic questionnaire. I am studying towards a Masters of Management in Strategic Marketing at the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

I am currently conducting research for my dissertation entitled: *The impact of socialisation agents and personal attitudes alcohol consumption among the South African youth*
I would like to invite you to take part in this study by completing the questionnaire overleaf.

In order to participate in this survey, you have to **consume alcohol and be over the legal drinking age (over 18 years old).** Participation in this research study is completely anonymous with no personal identification details requested. Please note that your participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any time. This research is for academic purposes only and the information obtained will be kept strictly confidential.

The questionnaire will take approximately **10 minutes** to complete.

The study was approved unconditionally by the Wits Business School Ethics Committee of the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. Should you have any queries relating to the research, please feel free to e-mail me: 9703924e@students.wits.ac.za. Alternatively you may contact my dissertation supervisor, Dr Yvonne Saini on yvonne.saini@wits.ac.za.

**Regards**

**Kagiso Matjila**

## SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The section is asking your background information and personal opinion. Please indicate your answer by ticking **(X)** on the appropriate box.

**A1.** Please indicate your gender

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Male | | Female | |

**A2.** Do you drink alcohol?

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | | No | |

**A3.** Please indicate which age group you fall under. Please indicate your answer

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18 - 20 | | 21 – 24 | | 25 – 29 | | 30 - 35 | |

**A4.** Please indicate your race by ticking by ticking (X) on the appropriate box.

| | |
|---|---|
| Black/African | |
| White | |
| Coloured | |
| Indian | |
| Other | |

If any other race, please specify ……..

**A5.** Do you believe there is an alcohol drinking problem in general in South Africa?

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | | No | |

**A6.** Do you believe there is an alcohol drinking problem amongst the youth (age 18 – 34) in South Africa?

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | | No | |

**A7.** Do you believe our government is doing enough to drive responsible drinking among the youth?

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | | No | |

## SECTION B: ADVERTISING EXPOSURE

Below are statements about exposure to alcohol advertising across different media platforms. For each statement, you are requested to indicate your response by ticking the appropriate number in the 5 point scale below please mark (X) the relevant box.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strong Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |

### *"During the past year, I have…"*

***Please tick only one number for each media type***

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **B1** | seen a alcoholic drink or brand being advertised on TV | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **B2** | heard an advert on Radio advertising an alcoholic drink or brands | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **B3** | seen a Print advert (newspapers or magazines) advertising an alcoholic drink or brand | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **B4** | engaged a social media campaign via Facebook, Instagram, or Twitter, that was linked to an alcoholic drink or brand | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **B5** | attended an event that was sponsored by any alcohol brand or manufacturing company | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **B6** | seen a outdoor Billboards advertising any alcoholic drink or brand | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **B7** | Seen any actor(ess) drinking a branded alcoholic drink on a TV show or movie | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## SECTION C: PARENTS

**Parental Usage:**

Below are statements about your parents'/guardians' alcohol usage. For each statement, you are requested to indicate your response by ticking the appropriate number on the 5 point scale below.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strong Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |

***Please tick only one number for each statement.***

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **C1** | I often see my parents/ guardian drinking alcohol | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **C2** | My parents/guardian often give me alcohol to consume at home? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **C3** | I have often seen my parents/guardian drunk after having had too much alcohol to drink? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Parental Attitudes:**

Below are statements about your parents'/guardians' attitudes towards drinking alcohol. For each statement, you are requested to indicate your response by ticking the appropriate number in the 5 point scale below.

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **C4** | My parents'/guardian's generally have a positive attitude toward drinking alcohol | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **C5** | My parent/guardian don't have an issue with me having one glass of alcohol in their presence | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **C6** | My parents/guardian do not want me to drink several glasses of alcohol while they are not present | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **C7** | My parents/guardian do not want me to go out drinking with friends | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## SECTION D: PEERS

**Peer Usage:**

Below are statements about your peers' alcohol usage. For each statement, you are requested to indicate your response by ticking the appropriate number in the 5 point scale below.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strong Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |

***Please tick only one number for each statement.***

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **D1** | All my peers drink alcohol | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **D2** | All of my peers get drunk at least once a week | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **D3** | I always see my peers drunk after having had too much alcohol to drink | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Peer Attitude:**

Below are statements about your peers' attitude to alcohol consumption. For each statement, you are requested to indicate your response by ticking the appropriate number in the 5 point scale below:

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **D4** | My peers generally have a positive attitude toward drinking alcohol | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **D5** | I am okay with my peers encouraging me to drink | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **D6** | I am okay with complying with my peers' attitudes towards drinking | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## SECTION E: PERSONAL ATTITUDE

Below is a scale used to measure your opinion on alcohol drinking behaviour. For each statement, you are requested to indicate your response by ticking the appropriate number in the 5 point scale below:

***Please tick only one number for each statement.***

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **E1** | My drinking five or more standard drinks in a single session is **favourable** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **E2** | My drinking five or more standard drinks in a single session is **enjoyable** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **E3** | My drinking five or more standard drinks in a single session is **good** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **E4** | My drinking five or more standard drinks in a single session is **pleasant** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **E5** | My drinking five or more standard drinks in a single session is **satisfying** | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## SECTION F: ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION

Using the scale below, please answer the below questions by making a tick next to the response that applies to you

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strong Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |

***Please tick only one number for each statement.***

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **F1** | I have 1 - 2 glasses of alcohol to drink a week | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **F2** | I have 3 – 4 glasses of alcohol to drink a week | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **F3** | I have 5 – 7 glasses of alcohol to drink a week | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **F4** | I often drink alcohol at home | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **F5** | I often drink alcohol at a restaurant/bar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **F6** | I often consume alcohol at a club or an event | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

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**Thank you for time and your cooperation. Your responses and views are much appreciated**