INFLUENCE OF SOCIALISATION AGENTS ON
GENERATION Y STUDENTS’ APPAREL
PURCHASING INTENTIONS

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November 2013

Vanderbijlpark
I declare that:

INFLUENCE OF SOCIALISATION AGENTS ON GENERATION Y STUDENTS’ APPAREL PURCHASING INTENTIONS

is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this dissertation has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at any other university.

_____________________________

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To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have language edited the completed research of Efe Jide-Akinwale for the Master of Commerce, Marketing Management, thesis entitled: *Influence of socialisation agents on Generation Y student’s apparel purchasing intentions.*

The responsibility of implementing the recommended language changes rests with the author of the thesis.

Yours truly,

[Signature]

Linda Scott
Several individuals motivated and assisted me in accomplishing my goal, which is the successful completion of this thesis:

• To God who inspires and grants me favour to direct me in my life.

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Efe Jide-Akinwale
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ABSTRACT

INFLUENCE OF SOCIALISATION AGENTS ON GENERATION Y STUDENTS’ APPAREL PURCHASING INTENTIONS

KEY WORDS: Consumer behaviour, Generation Y, consumer socialisation

The global apparel market is an increasingly desirable industry sector for many marketers. The apparel retail industry in South Africa has experienced significant growth since the year 2000. In 2009, South Africans spent approximately R57 million on apparel items (Statistics South Africa, 2009). On average, South Africans spend R600 or more per month on apparel, making the apparel industry a very lucrative market.

Consumer socialisation is the process by which the youth gain the necessary skills and knowledge that enable them to function as consumers in the marketplace. Consumer socialisation highlights the sources of consumer influences or ‘socialisation agents’ that transfer norms, develop attitudes, motivations and behaviour to the learner. Consumer attitudes, behaviour and skills are acquired through socialisation agents such as parents (father, mother and guardian), peers (brothers, sisters and friends) and the mass media (newspaper, television, radio, magazines).

The Generation Y cohort (defined as individuals born between 1986 and 2005) is described as the largest and most profitable consumer group for marketers. Generation Y is a lucrative and growing market segment, particularly for apparel retailers. Apparel includes clothing, shoes, jewellery and cosmetics. Those Generation Y members engaged in tertiary education represent an especially important segment given that tertiary education often translates into higher future earning potential and a higher social status within a community and among peers.

The primary objective of this research study was to investigate Generation Y students’ attitudes towards the influence of socialisation agents’ on apparel purchasing intentions in South Africa. The target population used in this research study was defined as full-time Generation Y undergraduate students, aged between 18-24 years, who were enrolled at public higher education institutions (HEIs) in South Africa in 2013. The sampling frame comprised the 23 registered South African public HEIs. A non-probability judgement
sample method was used to narrow this sampling frame down to two HEI campuses situated in the Gauteng Province. For this study, a convenience sample of 500 full-time Generation Y students who were registered at these two South African HEI campuses during 2013 was drawn.

A self-administered questionnaire was used for the collection of primary data for this research study. Academic staff at each of the two HEIs were contacted and asked if they would assist with the distribution of the survey questionnaire to students during class. The attitude towards the influence of socialisation agents on apparel purchasing intentions was measured based on peers, parents and the media.

The outcomes from this research study suggest that Generation Y students do not perceive the influence of socialisation agents (peers/parents/media) as being particularly positive. While there was a significant positive relationship between their perceptions concerning the influence of peers, parents and media on apparel purchasing, none of these socialisation agents were perceived as having a significant influence on the Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending. In terms of gender differences, males perceived the peer influence to be more important while females perceived the parent influence to be more important. There was no significant difference between males and females concerning the importance of the media influence on apparel purchasing.

The analysis of statistical information gathered from this study will be relevant to both marketing practitioners and academia in understanding Generation Y consumers’ attitudes towards the influence of socialisation agents (peers/parents/media) in apparel purchasing intentions.
OPSOMMING

INVLOED VAN SOSIALISERINGSGAGENTE OP GENERASIE Y STUDENTE SE VOORNEMENS VIR DIE AANKOOP VAN KLEDING

SLEUTELWOORDE: Gebruikersgedrag, Generasie Y, gebruikerssosialisering


Gebruikersosialisering is die proses waardeur die jeug die nodige kennis en vaardighede ontwikkel sodat hulle as gebruikers kan optree in die mark. Gebruikersosialisering beklemtoon die bronne van gebruikersinvloede of ‘sosialiseringsagente’ wat norms oordra en ook houdings, motiverings en gedrag by die leerder ontwikkel. Gebruikershoudings, gedrag en vaardighede word bekom deur sosialiseringsagente soos ouers (vader, moeder en voog), eweknieë (broers, susters en vriende) en die massamedia (koerante, televisie, radio en tydskrifte).

Die Generasie Y groep (wat gedefinieer word as individue wat tussen 1986 en 2005 gebore is) word beskryf as die grootste en mees winsgewende groep vir bemarkers. Generasie Y is ‘n winsgewende en groeiende marksegment, veral vir kledinghandelaars. Kleding sluit die volgende in: klerasie, skoene, juwele en kosmetiek. Die Generasie Y lede wat tersiêre opleiding ondergaan, verteenwoordig ‘n baie spesiale segment omdat tersiëre opleiding dikwels vertaal word in hoër toekomstige inkomste-potensiaal asook ‘n hoër sosiale status in die gemeenskap en onder eweknieë.

Die primêre doelwit van hierdie navorsingstudie is om Generasie Y se houdings jeens die invloed van sosialiseringsagente op die voornemens om kleding aan te koop, te ondersoek. Die teikenpopulasie in hierdie navorsingstudie is gedefinieer as voltydse voorgraadse Generasie Y studente wat by enige openbare hoër opvoedingsinstelling (HOI) in Suid-Afrika ingeskryf is gedurende 2013.
oordeelsteekproef is gebruik om die steekproef te verklein tot twee HOI kampusse in Gauteng. Vir hierdie studie is ’n geriefsteekproef van 500 voltydse Generasie Y studente wat by die twee Suid-Afrikaanse HOI kampusse ingeskryf is gedurende 2013, gebruik.

’n Self-geadministreerde vraelys is vir die versameling van die primêre dat vir hierdie navorsingstudie gebruik. Daar is met akademiese personeel by elk van die twee kampusse geskakel en hulle samewerking is verkry om die vraelyste tydens klastyd te versprei. Die houding jeens die invloed van sosialiseringsagente op kleding-aankoopvoornemens is gemeet gebaseer op eweknieë, ouers en die media.

Die resultate van hierdie navorsingstudie dui daarop dat Generasie Y studente nie die invloed van sosialiseringsagente (eweknieë/ouers/media) as positief ervaar nie. Alhoewel daar ’n beduidende positiewe verband tussen hulle persepsies rakende die invloed van eweknieë, ouers en media op kleding-aankope was, het nie een van hierdie agente ’n beduidende invloed op Generasie Y studente se maandelikse besteding op kleding gehad nie. Mans beleef die invloed van eweknieë as meer belangrik terwyl vroue die invloed van ouers as meer belangrik beleef. Daar was geen beduidende verskil tussen mans en vroue aangaande die belangrikheid van die invloed van die media op kleding-aankope nie.

Die inligting wat bekom is uit die statistiese verwerking van die data wat ingesamel is, is van toepassing vir beide bemarkers en akademici in die bevordering van begrip vir Generasie Y gebruikers se houdings jeens die invloed van sosialiseringsagente (eweknieë/ouers/media) se voornemens vir die aankope van kleding.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The global apparel market is an increasingly desirable industry sector for many marketers. The apparel retail industry in South Africa has experienced significant growth since the year 2000. In South Africa, the apparel industry generated approximately US$6.1 billion in 2004, which represented 3.6 percent of the Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) in the period of 2000 to 2004 (Noordwyk, 2007:1). In 2009, the apparel industry contributed 21 percent of the total income of the retail industry, represented the largest contributor to a profit margin of 3.9 percent and accounted for 21 percent of the total number of South Africans employed (Statistics South Africa, 2009). According to the youth market specialists, HDI youth marketeers (2010), members of South Africa’s Generation Y cohort spend approximately R90 billion yearly of which R28.5 billion is spent by students. In 2009, South Africans spent approximately R57 million on apparel items (Statistics South Africa, 2009). In a research conducted by Noordwyk (2007:156), South Africans, on average, spend R600 or more per month on apparel, making the apparel industry a very lucrative market.

Ward (1974:7) describes consumer socialisation as the process by which “young people acquire skills, knowledge, and attitude relevant to their functioning as consumers in the marketplace”. Consumer socialisation highlights the source of consumer influences or “socialisation agents” that transfer norms, develop attitudes, motivations and behaviour to the learner (Moschis & Churchill, 1978:600).

Consumer attitudes, behaviour and skills are acquired through socialisation agents such as parents (father, mother and guardian), peers (brothers, sisters and friends) and the mass media (newspaper, television, radio, magazines) (Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993:53). Various researchers have identified three sources of consumer socialisation influences,

Normative and informative interpersonal influences affect the way individuals socialise and learn from the environment (Sing et al., 2003:870). Normative influence refers to an individual’s acceptance of a specific group’s acceptable norms and expectations (Blythe, 2008:217; Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993:53). In terms of marketing, informative influence refers to an inclination to learn about products and brands by observing and seeking information from other individuals (Sing et al., 2003:870). Hence, consumers receive interpersonal influences from socialisation agents by either following or observing the agents’ behaviour (Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993:53). A study conducted in America shows that Generation Y consumers affirm to purchasing a product or brand when observing their peers or friends’ purchasing behaviour (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:238; Kotler & Keller, 2012:176). Similarly, Mascarenhas and Higby (1993:53) state that when making purchasing decisions, Generation Y consumers’ value the opinion of reference groups above their own opinion. Hence, Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2010:237) opine that where reference groups are solid, marketers should consider approaches on how to reach and influence the group’s opinion leaders.

According to Markert (2004:21), Generation Y encompasses individuals born between 1986 and 2005. The Generation Y cohort is described as the largest and most profitable consumer group for marketers, a position that was previously held by the baby boomers generation. Many studies have found that Generation Y consumers are technology wise, have more disposable income than the baby boomer generation, are trendsetters and are quite comfortable with change (Berndt, 2007:5; Cant & Machado, 2005:50; Economist, 2000-2001:9; Farris et al., 2002:94-95; Wolburg & Pokrywcynski, 2001:32). Generation Y consumers demonstrate a general liking towards purchasing, they have enough discretionary time for shopping and they have a tendency to spend money freely and quickly (Ma & Niehm, 2006:622). A study conducted in the United States of America (USA) found that Generation Y consumers have a purchasing power of around US$200 billion per annum (Gardyn, 2002:18). According to the Harris Poll conducted in 2007, “US$63 billion was spent by teenagers and that number is expected to increase to about US$263 billion annually” (Crane, 2007:2). Generation Y are purchase influencers in that
they influence their parents spending in the household, especially in dual-income households (Cant et al., 2006:107).

Generation Y is a lucrative and growing market segment, particularly for apparel retailers. Apparel includes clothing, shoes, jewellery and cosmetics (Graham & Hamdan 1988:29; Hall 1987:57). Generation Y members have been brought up in an era where apparel shopping is not regarded as a simple act of purchasing but rather a challenging activity due to the increase of retail and product choices (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003:95). Research reveals that Generation Y females spend US$312 a month, with half of that spent on clothing, jewellery and beauty (Brookman, 2000). Even though in recent times the world economy has witnessed a vast recession, members of the Generation Y cohort are still spending more money than before, especially at shopping malls (Lockyer, 2009). A recent survey conducted on Generation Y’s reasons for going to a shopping mall states that, “71 percent of the cohort participants said that they go to the mall to shop, 57 percent to eat, 49 percent to socialise and 40 percent to seek entertainment” and “while buying an accessory or an item of clothing may be frivolous to an adult right now, to Generation Y it is still socially important” (Hall, 2009).

South Africa is a nation of over 50 million people of which 40 percent may be categorised as being part of Generation Y (Statistics South Africa, 2011). Various researchers have further divided Generation Y consumers (also known as echo boomers and the millennium generation) into three sub segments, namely Generation Y adults (aged 19 - 28), Generation Y teenagers (aged 13 - 18) and Generation Y kids or tweens (aged 8 - 12) (Schiffman & Kanuk 2010:410; Berndt, 2007:3; Morton, 2002:46). Those Generation Y members engaged in tertiary education represent an especially important segment, given that tertiary education often translates into higher future earning potential and a higher social status within a community and among peers (Bevan-Dye & Suruijlal, 2011). Studies that focus on students at tertiary institutions typically define them as individuals between the ages of 18 and 24 (Wolburg & Pokrywcynski, 2001; Steel, 2012).

The Generation Y cohort is a viable target market for retailers. In South Africa, Generation Y consumers are believed to have influenced spending of between R7 billion and R8 billion in 2005 and their pocket money amounts to approximately R5 billion a year (Cant & Machado, 2005:50). Consequently, with the estimated population size, the
influence on power to spend and the purchasing power of Generation Y, it is worthwhile for retailers to understand their buying decisions.

South Africa Generation Y consumers are regarded as the born free generation, and are seen to be culturally tolerant, embrace diversity, are open-minded, socially conscious and do not see differences as far as race is concerned (Kezi Communication, 2009:1). Various researchers propose that different generational experiences brought about by changes in environmental forces during formative years, play an important role in shaping each generation’s patterns of consumer behaviour (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003:95-97; Twenge & Cambell, 2008:873).

Martin and Turley (2004:466) argue that there is a dearth of information about the consumption patterns of Generation Y consumers. The Marketing Science Institute's (MSI) research priorities for 2004–2006 included trying to understand and market to cohorts such as Generation Y. More information is needed about this specific group, especially when the Generation Y cohorts comprise such a large portion of the total population (Noble et al., 2009:618).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Generation Y spends more on apparel than on any other single product category (Alch, 2000). In Africa, the South African retailing industry is seen as the leader in the market (Cant & Machado, 2005:8). One of the most important products to Generation Y consumers is apparel, because apparel enables Generation Y to express themselves and gain recognition among their peers (Milner, 2004).

Serving the apparel needs of Generation Y consumer groups effectively depends on understanding what their apparel needs and wants are, as well as understanding the consumer socialisation process that influences their apparel consumption. According to Halstead (2006:4), for the youth, apparel represents substantial symbolic connections. However, empirical research on Generation Y is limited and focused primarily on the spending power of Generation Y (Gardyn, 2002:19), mall consumption patterns (Martin & Turley, 2004), Generation Y female decision-making styles (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003) and socialisation agents influencing Anglo and Hispanic American Generation Y females’ apparel consumption (Halstead, 2006).
Little is known about the consumer socialisation process and socialisation agents that influence South African Generation Y members, especially in the post-apartheid era. Through exploring the socialisation agents that influence Generation Y’s apparel purchasing intentions, this research will contribute to developing specific targeting and positioning strategies for this specific target market.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives have been formulated for the study:

1.3.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study is to determine the interpersonal influence of socialisation agents on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions, in order to model the formation of marketing strategies for effectively targeting this market.

1.3.2 Theoretical objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives are formulated for the study:

- Outline the fundamental principles of consumer behaviour
- Review the literature on consumer decision making
- Conduct a review of the literature regarding consumer socialisation and socialisation agents
- Conduct a review of the literature pertaining to the Generation Y cohort.

1.3.3 Empirical objectives

In accordance with the primary objective of the study, the following empirical objectives are formulated:

- Determine Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending
- Determine the relationship between peers, parents, and the media and Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending
- Determine the influence of peers, parents, and the media on Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending
• Determine whether there is a difference between male and female Generation Y students’ perceptions towards the influence of peers, parents and the media, on their apparel spending.

1.4 HYPOTHESES

The following five hypotheses were formulated for the study:

Ho1: There is no significant correlation between, peers, parents, the media and Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

Ha1: There is significant correlation between, peers, parents, the media and Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

Ho2: Peers do not have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

Ha2: Peers do have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

Ho3: Parents do not have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

Ha3: Parents do have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

Ho4: The media do not have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

Ha4: The media do have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

Ho5: There is no difference between male and female Generation Y students’ perceptions towards the influence of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media), on their apparel spending.
Ha5: There is a difference between male and female Generation Y students’ perceptions towards the influence of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media), on their apparel spending.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study entailed a literature review and an empirical study. Quantitative research, using the survey method, was used for the empirical portion of the study. A descriptive research design with a single cross-sectional sample was followed.

1.5.1 Literature Review

In order to support the empirical study, a review of South African and international literature was conducted using secondary data sources that included the Internet, business articles, textbooks, academic journals, newspaper articles and online academic databases.

1.5.2 Empirical Study

The empirical portion of this study comprises the following methodology dimensions:

1.5.2.1 Target Population

The target population, relevant to this study comprised full-time undergraduate Generation Y students, aged between 18 and 24, registered at South African higher education institutions (HEIs). The target population is defined as follows:

- Element: Generation Y full-time undergraduate students aged between 18 and 24
- Sampling Unit: South African public registered HEIs
- Extent: Gauteng, South Africa
- Time: 2013

1.5.2.2 Sampling frame

The sample frame comprised 23 registered South African public HEIs, as listed by the higher education in South Africa (Higher Education in South Africa, 2011). A judgement sample of two HEI campuses, one a traditional university and the other a university of technology located in the Gauteng province of South Africa, was selected from the
sampling frame. In South Africa, the Gauteng province comprises the largest share of the South African population and was, therefore, chosen as the main sample of this study. A convenience sample of full-time undergraduate students was selected from the two HEIs.

1.5.2.3 Sampling method

The sampling method that was employed in this study comprised a non-probability, convenience sample of Generation Y full-time undergraduate students, between the ages of 18 and 24. The self-administered questionnaire was hand-delivered to the participating lecturers at each of the two HEIs, from whom permission was solicited. These lecturers were then requested to distribute the questionnaire to their students either during class or after class.

1.5.2.4 Sample Size

A sample size of 500 full-time undergraduate Generation Y students was selected for this study. This sample size correlates with previous studies on the same subject, such as Kumar et al. (2009:521) (sample size of 411) and Hyllegard et al. (2009:115) (sample size of 425), and as such, was considered to be sufficiently large. This sample size of 500 full-time undergraduate students was split equally between the two selected HEIs, thereby allowing a sample size of 250 full-time undergraduate students per HEI.

1.5.2.5 Measuring instrument and data collection method

A structured self-administered questionnaire was utilised to gather the required data for this study. The questionnaire utilised in this study, included two existing scales that were used in previously published research. In order to measure the interpersonal influences of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) on South African Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions, the Mascarenhas and Higby’s (1993) interpersonal influence scale was adapted and used. In order to measure the extent to which these socialisation agents influence South African Generation Y students’ purchasing-related behavioural intentions, a mass media and personal source influence scale was used, comprising five items adopted from the Strutton and Lumpkin (1992) information source typologies scale, and five items adapted from the Murray (1985) personal source influence scale.
The participants were requested to complete a structured questionnaire consisting of three sections. The first section (Section A) gathered the participant’s demographic data. The second section (Section B) included the items pertaining to the interpersonal influences of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) on purchasing intentions. This 24-item scale measuring the students’ perceptions to interpersonal influence statements comprised scale items describing possible influences originating from peers, parents and the media that are normative and informative, pertaining to product, brand and store choices. This scale comprised three dimensions, namely peers (normative and informative) (11 items), parents (normative and informative) (eight items) and the media (normative and informative) (five items). The students’ perceptions were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 6= strongly agree) based on the participants extent of agreement or disagreement to the statements that relate to the interpersonal influences of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) on their purchasing intentions. The third section (Section C) included various mass media and personal sources of different socialisation agents possibly influencing South African Generation Y students’ purchasing-related behavioural intentions. This ten-item mass media and personal influence scale comprised two dimensions, namely mass media influences (five items) and personal source influences (five items). The students’ perceptions were measured on a ten-item rating scale (1=least influential, 10=most influential) based on the participants’ extent of agreement or disagreement to the various mass media and personal sources possibly influencing purchasing intentions.

In addition, the questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, instructions on how to complete the questionnaire as well as requesting participation from the participants. In order to ascertain its reliability, the questionnaire was piloted on a convenience sample of 50 students on a South African HEI campus that did not form part of the sampling frame of the main study. The results of the pilot test were duly coded and tabulated, and subsequently, considered when adopting the final questionnaire.

A structured format was applied to conduct this study, where lecturers of the applicable classes were contacted and permission was requested to carry out the survey. The participating lecturers were informed that the questionnaire was to be completed on a voluntary basis only and that no student was to be coerced into completing the
questionnaire. Thereafter, during the scheduled class times of the full-time undergraduate students, a hand delivered self-administered questionnaire was distributed for completion, which was collected thereafter.

1.5.3 Statistical analysis

The captured data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 21 for Microsoft Windows. The following statistical methods were used on the empirical data sets:

- Reliability and validity analysis
- Descriptive analysis
- Significance tests

1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The research study complied with the ethical standards of academic research. The required permission was obtained from all of the participating lecturers. Participation in the survey was voluntary and no individual person or institution was forced to partake in it. The participants’ identity and information was protected.

1.7 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 2 of this study consists of an in-depth discussion relating to consumer behaviour. A definition of consumer behaviour and consumer socialisation is included. A detailed discussion of the consumer decision-making process, socialisation agents and their influences on consumer decision making and purchasing intentions is included. Attention has been given to the characteristics of the members of the Generation Y cohort.

The emphasis in Chapter 3 is on the population, sampling method, sample frame and data collection method, which will be discussed in this section. The measuring instrument and statistical techniques will be outlined and discussed. Data analysis and statistical procedures used in the study will be outlined and problems experienced, including the response rate to the questionnaire, will be discussed.
The emphasis in Chapter 4 is on the research methods utilised for the empirical portion of the study. The findings of the research study are presented in this chapter. The results are analysed, interpreted and evaluated.

In Chapter 5, a conclusion of the study is drawn and recommendations are made. Limitations and suggestions for further research are also included in this chapter.

1.8 SYNOPSIS

This chapter consist of the problem statement, the objectives of the study, hypotheses, research design and methodology, ethical consideration and chapter classification. The following chapter, Chapter 2, comprises of a literature review on the influence of socialisation agents on Generation Y apparel purchasing intentions, models of consumer behaviour are examined, and variables influencing consumer behaviour. In addition, it also provides a discussion on consumer socialisation and its importance, interpersonal influences, symbolic consumption on consumer’s behaviour towards the intention to purchase. The characteristics of Generation Y are also deliberated on.
CHAPTER 2

CONSUMER SOCIALISATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The process of interactions amongst people mostly translates to a learned way of behaviour. Individuals interact and learn at different social institutions, such as at home, in school, amongst community members including in the cyber world. Hence, the process by which people learn to become consumers is defined as consumer socialisation (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2008:397). However, in order to understand consumer socialisation, as it relates to the study of socialisation agents influencing Generation Y apparel purchase intentions, first requires an understanding of what a consumer is. According to Cant (2010:31), a consumer is any individual with specific needs and with the desire to satisfy these needs. Countries and businesses are dependent on the continuous patronage of consumers for economic development and growth. The population explosion in the global market between the years 1999 and 2011 records a population growth of over 1.2 percent, with an estimated 7 billion people (Haub & Gribble, 2011:2). Schiffman et al. (2010:104) opine that such a significant increase in the population is an indication for marketers to increase their organisation’s market size, which can be attained through recognising and satisfying consumer needs better than that of competitors.

Generally, consumers are regarded as sovereign, meaning that marketers are at the mercy of the target market’s choices. Consequently, this portrays the consumer as central and key to any organisation’s success. (Shaikh, 2006:209). Hence, marketers are faced with the challenge of offering products to satisfy consumers’ needs, which require effective marketing strategies for achieving company objectives. Therefore, it is critical for marketers to develop effective marketing strategies to gain consumers’ attention and ultimately make the purchase decision. In addition, in order to survive in a volatile economy, a complete understanding of the target markets characteristics and consumer behaviour is essential for effective marketing decisions (Labbe, 2000:38; Hawkins et al., 2010:7). This implies that marketers need to be knowledgeable about their current and potential target market’s behaviour (Schiffman et al., 2010:23). Therefore, in order to
gain an understanding into the influence of socialisation agents on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions, it is essential to review past literature pertaining to consumer behaviour.

This chapter consists of five sections. Section 2.2 elaborates on consumer behaviour and decision-making processes with the use of consumer decision models, which leads to Section 2.3, examining the variables influencing consumer buying behaviour. The preceding section gives direction into Section 2.4, which focuses on consumer socialisation and Section 2.5, discussions on symbolic consumption. Finally, Section 2.6, centres on the sample of this study, which is the Generation Y cohort. The five sections outlined in this chapter provide structure into the objectives set out in Chapter 1.

2.2 INTRODUCTION TO CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

An organisation’s main objective is to provide consumer satisfaction and be profitable. For marketers to achieve this it is important to understand consumer behaviour. Therefore, a discussion on the definition of consumer behaviour and the decision-making process, using models, is necessary. The proceeding section, Section 2.3, provides a background into consumer behaviour.

2.2.1 Defining consumer behaviour

Although consumer behaviour differs in terms of the nature and dynamics thereof, there are common characteristics, which exist (Schiffman et al., 2010:23). Even though the terms consumer and customer are used interchangeably in marketing often, theoretically the meanings differ. According to Blythe (2008:446), a consumer is anyone benefitting from a product or service, while the customer is the one making the decision to purchase a product or a service. Young and Pagoso (2008:88) characterises two types of consumers, namely the personal consumer and the organisational consumer. The personal consumer purchases products and services for personal usage or for third party consumption, while the organisational consumer purchases products, equipment and services for the operation of the organisation. For the purpose of this study, the term consumer will be used.

Consumer behaviour is the behaviour that consumers demonstrate when searching, obtaining, consuming and disposing of products and services to satisfy their needs.
Chapter 2: Consumer socialisation

(Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:6; Schiffman et al., 2010:23; Kotler & Keller, 2012:173). Consumer behaviour focuses on how consumers spend their resources by purchasing products and services to satisfy unfulfilled needs and wants, which include product or service decisions, reasons for purchasing, time of purchase, place of purchase, the frequency of purchase, the processes used to assess the purchased products, thereby influencing future purchases. Consumer behaviour provides a road map to understanding the consumers’ mind set towards their intention to purchase. Understanding the consumer assists the marketer in marketing strategies and product mix decision making, which is critical for remaining competitive (Huffman, 2006:25). Cant et al. (2006:6) concur stating that clarity into how the target market behaves provides the bedrock for organisational success.

Consumer decision making involves need acknowledgment, gathering of information on the product or service and evaluating available alternatives based on perceived values derived from the substitute products. The most important perceived value of benefit stands the best option to be selected. Determining the reason why consumers prefer one product to another is of great importance for marketers. Marketers should take into consideration that past events and life changes influence consumers’ needs, and thus, decision making (Twenge & Cambell, 2008:873). These changes have to be ascertained, for better projection and effective development of marketing strategies. Therefore, marketing research is critical for determining and predicting consumer behaviour. For the purpose of this study, consumer behaviour is defined as the behaviour of consumers when making consumption-related decisions. Understanding the consumer decision-making process provides valuable insight for marketers into consumer’s behaviour, more importantly to this study, it provides insight into the value of socialisation agents in consumer behaviour.

2.2.2 Overview of the consumer decision-making process

Consumers can decide how to satisfy their needs with the availability of different product choice or alternatives available in the market. However, research indicates that consumers make decisions through a process, referred to as the consumer decision process, comprising different stages (Cant et al., 2006:193). Various researchers attempt to simplify consumer behaviour by explaining the consumer’s decision-making process through different models (Sproles, 1979:197; Engel et el., 2006:85; Hawkins &
Mothersbaugh, 2010:27; Schiffman et al., 2010:36; Kotler & Keller, 2012:183). Although these consumer decision-making process (CDP) models differ, there are various similarities pertaining to various stimuli, influential factors, decision-making processes and results, as diagrammatically depicted in Figure 2.1.

**Figure 2.1: A theoretical model of consumer behaviour (Kotler, 2000:161)**

According to Kotler’s (2000:161) theoretical model of consumer behaviour (refer to Figure 2.1), it is evident that consumers’ behaviour is influenced by stimuli, factors affecting their decision-making and the process how they make decisions. In addition, consumers makes purchase decisions based on certain characteristics, such as cultural, social, personal and psychological (Kotler & Keller, 2012:100). However, according to the Maslow theory, it is of the assumption that consumers try to satisfy their needs and wants in a hierarchical manner, which indicates a preference in need.

Dr Abraham Maslow, a renowned psychologist, noted that the compelling motivation for consumers to find a solution to their unfulfilled needs and wants is dependent on the level of importance of a specific need. On this basis, Maslow formulated a generally accepted theory (1954) on the order in which human beings arrange their needs (Kotler & Keller
that is consumers are inspired to fulfil basic needs first before attending to the next unfulfilled need. Consumers tend to develop the drive to fulfil these needs through inherent endowment and social interactions. Maslow explains that human motivation is based on five basic needs, namely physiological, safety, social, egoistic and self-actualisation. The first level of needs, at the bottom of the tier, refers to physiological needs, which include the fulfilment of basic essentials for survival such as food, water, air, shelter, sex and sleep (Kreitner, 2007:378). The second level on the pyramid represents a need for safety and security, the desire for peace of mind over physical existence, protection, order and stability (Schiffman et al., 2010:36). The third level depicts social needs, which reflects on the desire to be part of a group such as affection by family members, companions or friends (Cant, 2010:105). The fourth level represents needs such as ego, which identify a drive to achieve a high standing compared to others, and tends to feed a consumer’s prestige, status and desires (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:361). The last level on the pyramid is self-actualisation needs, these needs reflect a desire to know, understand and create a system of values for self-fulfilment (Pride & Ferrell, 2011B:156).

According to Maslow’s theory, people initially strive to satisfy the needs at the bottom of the pyramid, that is, physiological needs, like food, water and shelter. As the lower level needs are satisfied, people move higher on the hierarchy to accomplish needs on upper levels, such as the needs for safety, belonging and self-actualisation (Armstrong & Kotler, 2009:175; Blythe, 2008:36). Sometimes, a consumer can satisfy needs at the lowest level and upper level as represented on the Maslow’s needs pyramid simultaneously (Schiffman et al., 2010:36). The relationship between consumers’ behaviour and the consumer decision-making process, necessitate discussion on the model for improved understanding.

2.2.3 Consumer decision-making process models

In order to have an insight into the process of how the consumer makes decisions, a discussion on the consumer decision-making process model is essential. Models that support the process of consumer decision-making include, the Schiffman, Kanuk and Wisenblit model, the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model, the Hawkins and Mothersbaugh model and the Sproles model. These models give directions to marketers on how to attract and retain targeted market; hence, a discussion on these models follows.
2.2.3.1 Schiffman, Kanuk and Wisenblit consumer decision-making model

In marketing research, the Schiffman Kanuk and Wisenblit model is considered extensive in describing the processes consumers undergo before making a purchase decision (Du Preez, 2003:12). The Schiffman, Kanuk and Wisenblit model (2010) is different from the other models, in that it depicts the consumer decision-making process in three unique stages, which is indirectly applicable in this research study. The stages are input stage, process stage and the output stage (Schiffman et al., 2010:36). In the input stage, a list of variables that influence a consumer’s recognition of a need or want, is highlighted and the sources from where a consumer obtains product information, categorised into two sections, namely organisational marketing efforts, and external sociological influences. Organisational efforts are activities companies develop to reach, entice and enlighten potential consumers on the benefits of the products and services offered (Armstrong & Kotler, 2009:163). Secondly, the external sociological influences include family, friends, neighbours, other informal and non-commercial sources, social class, and cultural and subcultural membership (Blythe, 2013:20).

The process stage focuses on inner influences, which may affect a consumer when making a purchase decision and are categorised as psychological. These factors are interpreted as motivation, perception, learning, personality and attitudes. This implies that a target market, who is inspired, is prepared to act (Kotler & Keller, 2012:183). The output stage considers two closely connected post decision actions, that is, purchase behaviour and post purchase evaluation. Consumer purchase behaviour is explained in three types of purchases, that is, the trial purchase, repeat purchase and long-term commitment purchase (Schiffman et al., 2010: 497). In the post purchase evaluation, marketers are able to ascertain if the products performance meets the expectations of targeted market (Armstrong & Kotler, 2009:179).

2.2.3.2 Engel, Blackwell and Miniard model of consumer behaviour

The Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model is considered important in marketing research, providing insight into consumers’ decision-making (Du Preez, 2003:12). This model (2006:85) shows the categorisation process involved in a consumer buying behaviour with variables that influence purchase intention, the process is clustered to explain
consumers’ buying behaviour. According to Du Preez (2003:12), this model is comprehensive and can be used in examining apparel-buying intention.

This model differs from the Schiffman, Kanuk and Wisenblit model, as it includes five steps through that a consumer goes through in searching and subsequently processing information. The five steps are exposure, attention, comprehension, acceptance and retention (Engel et al., 2006:77). There are similarities between the Schiffman, Kanuk and Wisenblit, and the Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, models. The input stage of the Schiffman, Kanuk and Wisenblit model focuses on the efforts of organisations to entice and enlighten consumers about the benefits of a products or service offered. The Engel, Blackwell and Miniard model similarly starts with exposure referring to the information available to the consumers and incorporates how consumers decide to consider or not to consider the information. Comprehension is the third step pertaining to marketers’ anticipating that consumers will understand the information disseminated as planned. The forth step, acceptance, is when consumer accedes to information received, which results into a change of current attitude, beliefs or other internal factors. This correlates with the internal influences as described in the Hawkins and Mothersbaugh model. The last step, which is retention, refers to the process consumers go through in remembering new or additional product information. The variables, which can influence a consumer in making a decision to buy or not to buy, are environmental such as personal influences, family members, social class, and individual differences such as motivation, personality and lifestyle. The effects of these variables on consumer behaviour are significant and; therefore, critical to marketers (Armstrong & Kotler, 2009:163). The variables are similar to those of the Schiffman, Kanuk and Wisenblit model (Schiffman et al., 2010).

2.2.3.3 Hawkins and Mothersbaugh consumer behaviour model

The Hawkins and Mothersbaugh model is valuable in marketing research due to this model also describing the processes consumers undergo before making a purchase decision (Du Preez, 2003:12). The Hawkins & Mothersbaugh model examines consumers’ behaviour in a broader view than the other models, and highlights a more indirect influence on consumption decision, which explains how an individual’s self-concept and lifestyle affect consumer behaviour (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:27). This model reflects on the general description of consumer behaviour and outlays the consumer decision process into five stages resulting from situational predicaments. These
stages include problem recognition, information search, alternative evaluation, selection, and post purchase process (Kazmi, 2007:184).

The model depicts how an individual develops self-concepts, and subsequently, lifestyles based on a variety of internal influences, namely psychological and physical influences and external influences, such as sociological and demographic influences (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:26). The outcome from internal and external influences reflects on the consumers’ buying decisions and respective involvement. A consumer’s self-concept and lifestyles produce needs and desires, which require consumption decisions in order to be satisfied. As consumers face diverse situations, a need may arise which requires that a purchase decision is made, the situations may give reasons to a consumer to want to satisfy that desire (Hawkins et al., 2010:25). Consumers have a perception of themselves, referred to as a self-concept, and aim to live in a particular way resulting from acquired resources, referred to as their lifestyle. According to Hawkins & Mothersbaugh (2010:26), internal factors such as the individual’s personality, values, emotions and memory, and external factors such as a consumer’s culture, age, friends, family and subculture, determine a consumer’s perception of themselves and their lifestyle.

2.2.3.4 Sproles consumer fashion-adoption process model

The Sproles consumer fashion-adoption process model is generally accepted, inclusive in the clothing field, and applicable to apparel products (Du Preez, 2003:12). Figure 2.2 diagrammatically illustrates the decision-making process model by Sproles, depicting a simplistic flow of how consumers make consumption-related decisions.

![Figure 2.2: Sproles model (Adapted from Du Preez 2003:12)](image-url)

The Sproles model (1979) focuses on the process of where and how information is sought by consumers, which is important in decision-making. The medium through which consumers learn about product information that is important in making decisions is divided into five sections, namely the knowledge/awareness of product to be purchased, the importance/interest attached to the specific product such as the colour, style and brand.
name, evaluation of the product, identification of alternatives and the decision to purchase or not (Yoo, 2003:51). The last section of this model has similarities with the consumer behaviour process and the need recognition (acknowledgement) section of the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard model.

Step one of the process is how a consumer learns and gathers product information (Michman et al., 2003:44). In order to make a purchase, the consumer needs to have an idea of what to buy. Attributes of the product, which prompt attraction for the consumer are the style and the colour of the product (Sproles, 1979:197-198). Another reason why a consumer may show interest in a product, which is the second step, could be due to the evidence of a brand name or the designer label, such as when purchasing apparel (Pride & Ferrell, 2011B:161). Branded apparel products are perceived to be of higher quality and more acceptable to peers than non-branded apparel products (Noble et al., 2009:624).

Step three, is evaluation of the product. The consumer assesses the functionality of the product to establish clarity in the consumer’s mind (Botha et al., 2004:56). A favourable product evaluation by the consumer indicates a movement to the next step, which is the identification of alternatives. At this stage, marketers may take advantage and entice consumers with alternatives, and social influence such as socialisation agents, could have a significant impact on the outcome of the purchase decision (Pride & Ferrell, 2011B:172). Sproles (1979:198) suggests that the colour, fit, style, price, brand, physical characteristics and climate, are additional influencing attributes that consumers consider before purchasing. The Sproles model proposes that age, gender, socioeconomic classes and physical product features influence consumers’ fashion-oriented behaviour. Marketer tends to focus on the assumption from the Sproles model, and use it as bases for targeting market segmentation.

For the purpose of this study, which is the influence of socialisation agents on Generation Y students’ apparel purchase intentions, the models of Sproles (1979), Engel et al. (2006), Schiffman et al. (2010) and Hawkins & Mothersbaugh (2010), as adopted from Du Preez (2003), are integrated. The discussions on the various consumer decision-making models laid the foundation into the steps consumers take in making buying decisions. However, it is important for marketers to understand what influences consumers in making buying decisions. Hence, the variables influencing consumers’ buying behaviour are discussed in the next section.
2.3 VARIABLES INFLUENCING CONSUMER BUYING BEHAVIOUR

As indicated by the consumer decision-making models by Sproles (1979:197), Engel et al. (2006:85), Schiffman et al. (2010:36) and Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2010:27), the variables that influence consumer buying behaviour, as applicable to apparel purchasing, include the organisational marketing mix elements, internal psychological influences, demographics and socio-cultural environmental influences (Du Preez, 2003:13). An integration of the above four models is presented in Figure 2.3.
Figure 2.3: A conceptual theoretical model: a Marco-perceptive of variables influencing apparel shopping behaviour (Du Preez, 2003:13).
Section A of the conceptual theoretical model pertains to the organisational marketing efforts, Section B relates to the interaction between the market and the consumer and Section C of the model focused on the variables influencing consumer buying decisions. Owing to this study focusing on consumer buying decisions, Section C is investigated in detail. Section C of the conceptual theoretical model is subdivided into three broad categories, namely demographics, sociocultural influences and psychological field (Engel et al., 2006:85; Schiffman et al., 2010:484; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:27). A discussion of these three broad categories follows.

### 2.3.1 Demographics

Demographic refers to a population characteristic such as size, distribution and structure, which includes gender, language, age, household, income, occupation, educational level and are attributes that can influence consumer buying decision (Michman et al., 2003:42). Statistics on age, education, gender, occupation, income, and household provide relevant information for marketers with objectives to attract special age cohort segments such as Generation Y (Cant et al., 2006:110). Batra and Kazmi (2008:189-190) suggest that marketing offerings are influenced mostly by demographic features, for example apparel producers target segment that are conscious of personality and self-image. However, the demographic representation of a consumer independently may not influence the buying decision. Hence, it is important to discuss other influencing factors such as the sociocultural influence.

### 2.3.2 Socio-cultural influences

A social cultural influence is the role of interpersonal and non-personal relationships on consumer buying behaviour and includes family, opinion leaders, reference groups, social class, culture or subculture, and lifestyle (Pride & Ferrell, 2011b:162). The seven listed socio cultural influences are discussed briefly below, as these relate to the influence on consumers’ behaviour.

#### 2.3.2.1 Family

Conventionally speaking, a family refer to a group of two or more individuals, connected by blood, marriage or adoption, who live in the same household (Rutenberg, 2008:60). Members of a family are the first set of people an individual is in contact with and learns
from (Cant, 2010:113). The general behaviour and values that a consumer exhibits may have a direct relation to family interactions such as how, what and where to shop (Solomon, 2009:477; Hawkins et al., 2010:194). Rousseau and Du Plessis (2003:112) affirm that one of the sources where information is sought, regarding product features and choices, is amongst members of a family household. In addition, Armstrong and Kotler (2009:171) agree that members of a family are one of the major influencers in the buying decision-making process of a consumer. Parents, one of the socialisation agents to be studied as an influencer in Generation Y’s apparel purchase intentions, are part of the family. Marketers cannot afford to ignore the role of families or household in the consumer decision process.

2.3.2.2 Opinion leaders

Opinion leaders are informal group or people who offer informal advice or information on a product or its alternatives. The purpose is to provide guidance to the information seeker on which brand of product to be considered, or how a specific product or service is to be used (Schiffman et al., 2010:282). Examples of opinion leaders are close family members, peers, neighbours and colleagues (Kotler & Keller, 2012:175). According to Hawkins & Mothersbaugh (2010:240), consumers generally exhibit confidence in the confirmation of opinion leaders above marketing communication efforts. Organisations incorporate this when developing marketing strategies. For instance Hot Topic, an apparel company with over 494 retail outlets in America, developed marketing strategies by monitoring the style and behaviour of opinion leaders and aligning itself to attract the impulsive and fashion conscious Generation Y market (Kotler & Keller, 2012:175). This strategy by Hot Topic in 2003, paid off, resulting to over US$116 billion sales revenue and a projected 37 percent annual growth (Kimberly, 2003:137). Conclusively, endorsement of a product item by an opinion leader enhances the likelihood of acceptance by the general consumer (Cant, 2010:115). Marketers should identify and utilise opinion leaders to enhance communication and acceptance by the target consumers.

2.3.2.3 Reference groups

A reference group refers to an individual or group that serves as a point of comparison, or affiliation, for an individual in consumption decision, because members within the group regard this source as dependable (Schiffman et al., 2010:281). All individuals associate
themselves with a group, seeking acceptance from its members. (Solomon, 2009:430). According to Cant (2010:115), members of a reference group influence the group in at least one or three ways, namely normative, expressive or informative. Normative influence is evident when an individual’s behaviour adapts to the group’s acceptable norms (Blythe, 2008:217). Expressive influence means behaviour resulting from the show of certain values. Informative influence refers to when consumers regard the voice or opinion of a reference group as the most credible above all. A study in America found Generation Y consumers’ affirming buying specific products due to their peers advising them to, or buying a specific product (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:238; Kotler & Keller, 2012:176). Similarly, Mascarenhas and Higby (1993:53) state that when making purchase decisions the opinion of reference group is important.

2.3.2.4 Social class

Social class may be described as an informal categorisation of people within a society, which may be due to a combination of income level, education, occupation, lifestyles and other factors (Armstrong & Kotler, 2009:166). This implies that people within society are separated into the elite or ordinary league (Solomon, 2009:514). Consumers who are conscious of social status often choose specific product brands for the functional use such as basic physical and survival needs, as well as to express superiority (Kim et al., 2002:497). Cant et al. (2006:78) concur, stating that consumers purchase products in order to communicate the social class to which they belong. Consumers who are status conscious tend to display similarities in buying behaviour, which informs marketers on product offerings for this group. In addition, the economic importance of dual-earning households is of more affluence as it has an influence on their purchasing power (Lamb et al., 2012:70).

2.3.2.5 Culture

Culture refers to learned beliefs, values, norms and customs, which provide direction to the consumption behaviour of members of a specific society (Cant, 2010:112). According to Yuanyuan (2012:8), culture influences how an individual thinks, and ultimately, decision-making. Culture influences attitudes, values, standards, religious beliefs, character traits and physical belongings (Schiffman et al., 2010:366), yet consumers are rarely aware of how impactful this influence is. There are several cultural characteristics,
that is, it is learned, instilled, transferred, dynamic and adaptive (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:398; McEwen et al., 2006:68). Marketing tactics based upon values of society must be adaptive (Armstrong & Kotler, 2009:164). Marketing organisations should be able to detect changes in cultural trends and adapt marketing strategies in order to succeed in a competitive market (Cant et al., 2006:69).

2.3.2.6 Subculture

In a subculture, members share beliefs and common experiences that set them apart from other members of a culture, such as nationality, religion, and racial groups (Armstrong & Kotler, 2009:164). A subculture provides specific ways of recognition and socialisation for their members (Kotler & Keller, 2012:175). Subcultures, like culture, tend to pass their beliefs and values from one generation to another. Racial, religious and ethnic upbringing may influence consumers’ choices of food, style of dressing, taste in music, and alcohol consumption, to name but a few (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:157). The choice of product that consumers purchase may not be understood without considering the cultural context in which the decisions are made (Kim et al., 2002:481). According to Zietsman (2006:36), of all the socio-cultural influences, culture has the most far reaching impact on consumer behaviour. The effectiveness of an organisation in a culturally different market place may be affected significantly by how well decision-makers grasp the consumer buying behaviour (Solomon, 2009:604).

2.3.2.7 Lifestyle

Demographic elements are useful in providing a start-up analysis for the market; however, they do not provide sufficient clarity into the market, but most demographic characteristics give a direction of lifestyles. Lifestyle is how an individual lives, spends time and money (Kotler & Keller, 2012:179). According to Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2010:434), an individual’s lifestyle has a significant influence on the consumption behaviour. Hence, consumers who share similarities in lifestyle appear to demonstrate a liking for the same products. This could provide direction for marketers on how to reach such consumers. Though an insight into the socio-cultural influences on consumers has been addressed, a further discussion on the psychological variables, which influence consumer-buying behaviour, is needed. The value of socio-cultural influences mainly lies within transfers of information within the groups, possibility of reward and group
affiliation or identification. Where these factors are identified regarding the target market by marketers, the formulation of marketing strategies is easier. However, influences on consumers’ buying do not lie solely on socio-cultural factors, but on psychological variables. A discussion on psychological variables is examined in the following section.

2.3.1 Psychological variables

Psychological variables refer to an individual’s inner or emotional being. This relates to how a consumer receives, interprets and process information (Kotler & Keller, 2012:182). According to Kim et al. (2002:481) psychological needs also relate to consumer personality. A consumers’ choice of specific products does not only reflect functionality, such as satisfaction of basic needs, but also of the product characteristics to express the consumers’ psychological needs (Schiffman et al., 2010:167). Nevertheless, a consumer’s response to information is influenced through five key psychological processes, namely personality, motivation, perception, learning and attitude (Lantos, 2010:316).

Personality is inner characteristics that are unique to an individual (Botha et al., 2004:50). This implies people exhibit different characteristics. Motivation to consume results from when a consumer’s need becomes a motive and this produces adequate level of passion to drive the consumer to act (Cant, 2010:104). The views an individual holds about consumer products and services are founded on perceived benefits (Blythe, 2008:106). However, perception is very individualist. Learning is the result of information processing; this explains changes in our behaviour because of experiences. Most people’s behaviour is learned, even though most of our learning is incidental (Cant et al., 2006:122). An individual’s attitude is learned and a reflection of behaviour towards events or situations that is consistent (Solomon, 2009:280). However, it is important for marketers to know how to appeal to the target market’s psychological needs and provide products accordingly. The description of the five key psychological processes that is personality, motivation, perception, leaning and attitude laid the foundation for a discussion on personality and self-concept as it relates to consumers’ psychological needs.

Personality characterises an individual’s reaction when faced with similar circumstances (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:373). Therefore, a consumer’s personality is highly likely to influence product choice (Pride & Ferrell, 2011b:160). Hence, it is important to understand a consumer’s personality. However, there are characteristics that could
provide indication into an individual’s personality. That is, individual dissimilarities is a reflection of personality, change is part of personality, it is also both enduring and consistent (Schiffman et al., 2010:136). No two individuals are the same. Nevertheless, many people may be alike in terms of single personality attributes, but not in terms of others. For example, some people may be willing to accept foreign-made products, whereas others can express the contrary. In addition, an individual’s personality tends to be both consistent and lasting. (Blythe, 2008:74). Marketers need to understand these personality attributes to explain or predict consumer behaviour, knowing that consumers’ do not change personality traits. Rather, if marketers know which personality characteristics elicit specific responses, the marketers can attempt to appeal to the appropriate attribute inborn in the target group of consumers. The discussions on who a consumer is, processes of understanding consumers, and variables influencing consumer buying behaviour have provided directions into the core of this chapter, which is consumer socialisation. In the proceeding section, discussions on socialisation and socialisation agents are addressed.

2.4 CONSUMER SOCIALISATION

Consumer socialisation is examined in detail to give insight to the socialisation agents influencing consumers, and specifically, the Generation Y cohort. Consumer socialisation is described by scholars as the process by which people develop skills, knowledge, and attitude that is pertinent to how consumers act in the marketplace (Du Plessis & Hoyer & MacInnis, 2008:397; Martin & Turley, 2004:466; Rousseau, 2003:372; Ward, 1974:1-2).

The main aspect of consumer socialisation process is the cognition, development of attitudes and value formation as it relates to consumption (Haq & Rahman, 2008). In addition, Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2010:215), suggests that consumers learn consumption behaviour through three categories, that is, consumer skills, preferences that relate to consumption and attitude formation towards consumption. These behavioural formations are learnt through the process of socialisation (Pride & Ferrell, 2011:207). Hence, the process of socialisation should be defined clearly to provide clarity into the different agents of socialisation.
2.4.1 Socialisation defined

Blythe (2008:216) defines socialisation as the process of learning, which results in a formation of a behaviour that is acceptable within a group, and having an understanding of what is deemed unacceptable behaviour, (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2008:397) and this is particularly evident within a reference group. An individual’s need for social association drives the process of socialisation (Blythe, 2008:217). In addition, the process of socialisation is a continuous process throughout a consumer’s life (Schiffman et al., 2010:323). Members of a family and interpersonal interactions are part of the influence on behavioural formation.

2.4.1.1 Family influences

A family circle is the foremost point for interaction and learning for any individual. Hence, members of a family could be seen as a fundamental influencer of consumer behaviour (Cant et al., 2006:218). Implying that the socialisation of members within a family circle involves the transference of fundamental values and manner of behaving that is in line with culture (Cant, 2010:113). Lu Hsu and Chang (2008:149) concur, stating that parental influences on consumers are the most significant and important. The result of such influences could be noticed in ethical and religious ideologies, interpersonal dexterities, priming and dressing standards. Solomon (2009:499) adds that members of a family and reference group have significant roles in the socialisation process of a consumer, and exposure to the mass media is very relevant. Furthermore the role or place of family on the influence of consumers in making buying decisions should never be downplayed. Marketers may need to understand prevailing family structures in order to reach target market. However, reference groups are formed from interpersonal relationships, which are discussed next.

2.4.1.2 Interpersonal influences

Interpersonal interaction between individuals or among group members facilitates behavioural formation. According to Sandhusen (2008:241), interpersonal influences results from interaction between individuals or groups of individuals that directly affect an individual when making a consumption decision. Influences from interpersonal associations may arise from social and cultural affiliation such as family, peers and reference groups. There are three types of interpersonal influences on how consumers
make decisions, namely value expressive, normative and informative influences (Cant, 2010:115).

Value-expressive influence, affects the attitudes and behaviour among members of a reference group (Lantos, 2010:242). Hence, the group sets a standard to which members can relate with their own attitudes and behaviour. According to Blythe (2008:217), value-expressive influence results from an individual’s need for psychological affiliation with a reference group. That is the aspiration to satisfy an esteem or ego need. This type of influence portrays consumer related behaviour (Cant, 2010:115).

Normative influence occurs when members of a group respond in agreement to the standard set by a reference group on how members should behave (Noel, 2009:54). The decision for members of a reference group to conform is to avoid being seen as out of place, or to seek compliments. This type of influence may put pressure on members of the group to partake in an activity or decision they did not necessarily choose to do (Larson, 2009:110). Individuals within a reference group look up to the group for information on the acceptable way of behaviour.

Informative influence refers to when consumers accept information from within a reference group as credible (Chandrasekar, 2010:138). This is particularly evident when a product to be purchased is difficult to obtain and not purchased regularly (Cant, 2010:115). This nature of influence helps to provide guidance for consumers when searching for products. According to Batra and Kazmi (2008:302), informative influence on a consumer can be seen where prior knowledge of a product to be purchased is important and there is credibility in the source of information. Where the consumer accepts the source as knowledgeable, purchase behaviour is influenced. This infers that marketers use knowledgeable and credible sources to reach target market, such as using sport celebrities endorsement for selling sporting wear (Bush et al., 2004:115; Bevan-Dye et al., 2009:182; Noel, 2009:55).

However, for this study the focus is on normative and informative interpersonal influences of socialisation agents on Generation Y apparel purchase intentions. The discussion of socialisation lays the background for the discussion on the importance of consumer socialisation and consumer socialisation agents in consumer behaviour.
2.4.2 Importance of consumer socialisation

Consumer socialisation is important to the understanding of consumer behaviour (Solomon, 2009:492). According to Bush el al. (2004:110), consumer socialisation enlightens researchers about the processes and outcomes of consumer learning, provides insight into the beliefs and behaviour pertinent to a target market and provides direction to understand consumption patterns. Understanding how consumers obtain consumption-related perceptions is most often rooted in the socialisation theory (Martin & Turley 2004:466). Hence, Ward (1974:1-2) adds that socialisation of consumers is significant to how skills are acquired, which influence consumer behaviour in future purchases. This process continues through a lifetime, causing people to approve values that influence consumption (Schiffman et al., 2010:326). Shim et al. (2011:297) suggest that consumer socialisation goes beyond how an individual learns skills and acquires information on how to become consumers, but indicates that a relationship exists between values, motivations and the lifestyle options a consumer adopts. For marketers it is of foremost interest to connect with how Generation Y members acquire consumer related behaviour, as this cohort is commercially important (Parment, 2013:190). This provides marketers with hands-on information to implement strategic plans of action to reach this identified profitable market segment.

According to Ward (1974:1), the development of the consumer socialisation concept provides two major benefits to marketers, namely the possibility of predicting something about a consumer's childhood experiences, and it provides an insight to envisage how young people will learn and develop into consumers in the marketplace. The concept of consumer socialisation informs how consumers learn to respond when challenged with consumption-related choices from a variety of socio-cultural and environmental influences (Schiffman et al., 2010:326). Ward (1974:4-6) suggests that one of the theoretical frameworks in examining the concept of consumer socialisation, is the theory of social learning.

2.4.3 Social learning theory

Social learning, or environmental theory, reinforces consumer socialisation. This theory emphasises that what is learned in the early life of a consumer is carried on into adulthood, and emerges in consumption-related activities (Moore & Moschis, 1980:758;
Pinto et al., 2005:363). Social learning theory emphasises that learning occurs through modelling other people’s behaviour and social communication/interaction, with important reference to social agents as a source of influence (Haq & Rahman, 2008:75), which are found to be similarly helpful in forming an individual - consumer behaviour (Mangleburg et al., 2004:102). Social theory also relates to how young consumers form impressions about people/characters (role models) and use the character to negotiate with their parents in order to influence purchase of their desired product (John, 1999:184). According to Ward (1974:6-9) two factors provide clarity into the theory of social learning, that is, socialisation agents and social structure variables.

2.4.3.1 Socialisation agents

For a marketer it is critical to understand consumer behaviour, as consumers are fundamental to the sustainability and profitability of the company (Farris et al., 2002:95; Nobel et al., 2009:618). Consumer behaviour is a form of behaviour resulting from sources of internal and external influences. Among the reasons that consumers choose to consume is social purposes, which result from interactions amongst peers, parental involvement, and exposure to the media (Martin & Turley, 2004:467). In several studies, peers, parents and the media have been considered as agents of socialisation (Lachance et al., 2003:48; Pinto et al., 2005:359; Shim et al, 2011:291). To gain insight into the influences of peers, parents and the media on consumers, it is important to examine these socialisation agents in detail. Socialisation agents are a primarily consumption-related behaviour influencer (Schiffman et al., 2010:325). This is particularly true for younger consumers (such as Generation Y) (Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993:53).

A socialisation agent is an individual or institution, involved in passing across basic values and behaviours of a group, mainly because they are in close proximity and control the means of rewards and/or punishments (Schiffman et al., 2010:325). Consumer socialisation brings to light sources of consumption influencers or socialisation agents (Funk, 2008:90). A consumption influencer is the source through which behavioural norms are transferred, attitudes are formed, and that serve as the basis for motivation to the learner (Moschis & Churchill, 1978:600; Köhler et al., 2011:105). Generally, for most consumers their parents are the primary reference when making consumption decision (Sabri et al., 2005:253). Socialisation agents often do not realise how much influence they represent on consumers (Generation Y) (Ward, 1974:6-9). The extent of influence from
socialisation agents on consumers may be attributed to the regularity in interaction, dominance, and the right to exert control over rewards and punishments (Moschis & Moore, 1979:102; Schiffman et al., 2010:325). Martin and Turley (2004:467), add that socialisation agents commonly are used in persuading potential or initially unwilling consumers to consume. According to the findings by Higby and Mascarenhas (1993:56), socialisation agents have significant influences on teens or members of Generation Y cohorts, especially when purchasing apparel. This research study aims to agree or disagree with the findings as it relates to Generation Y apparel purchase intentions. In similar opinions, Sabri et al. (2005:253) and Martin and Turley (2004:467) agree that the intentions behind socially-driven purchases have been highly attributed to peer-to-peer communication about consumption, greater exposure to television, and certain types of parent-child communication, which is also noticeable in apparel consumption by consumers. Peers, parents and the media are the socialisation agents relevant to this study and are discussed in detail.

The process of interactions among peers is a basic human activity, which is born out of the desire to fulfil psycho-physiological and sociological need (Ward 1974). Peer interaction represents an important agent for socialisation, because of the need for conformity to a group (Funk, 2008:90). Köhler et al. (2011) adds that peer interaction appears to be an important agent of socialisation, beyond the parental relationship. Consumers acquire consumption-related behaviour through interaction, which may be a reflection of affiliation, recognition and acceptance through peer association or influences (Lachance et al., 2003:54). Research conducted by De Gregorio and Sung (2010:93) agrees that consumers’ attitudes and behaviour are related directly to peer interactions, and reflect purchase-related decisions; that is, consumers are inclined to communicate with peers about consumption-related matters, before purchasing products or services. Wang et al. (2012:205) agree that peer interaction and communication influences consumers purchase intention, either directly by way of conformity, or indirectly, highlighting the importance of a product to the consumer. Furthermore, socialisation through peer association can manifest in the development of a consumer’s self-concept (Blythe, 2008:216). That is when an individual blends his/her identity with the norms and behaviour of the group or peer association. For example, when young consumers interact with their peers about consumption (inter alia clothing and apparel adornments) and take note of what members of their peer desire, this may influence what that young consumer
also wants. In addition, Chaplin and John (2010:182) state that peer interaction can boost a consumer’s self-esteem and confidence in him/herself. Although findings by Kamaruddin and Mokhlis (2003:154) support that peer influence, as an agent of socialisation appears to be more noticeable, especially applicable for younger consumers.

For young consumers, parents are the immediate point for interaction and social learning (Caruana & Vassallo, 2003; Arnon, 2008:393). Given that in most situations parent(s) are the initial point of reference for young consumers, this immediately provides opportunities, which mostly influence consumption-related behaviour (Sabrina, 2005:67). In addition, Lueg et al. (2006:148) state that the frequency in consumer communication and interaction with parents contributes to the level of influence that is exhibited in purchase-related decisions. Although Lachance et al. (2003:54) suggest that as young consumers grow older peer influence starts to manifest and become stronger because of indulgence in more social interactions, and (Blythe, 2008:243) influence by parent may be reversed as young consumers grow older and indulge in other social interaction, the influence on consumption could take a form of children-to-parents.

In consumer socialisation, the media is significant, as it is one of the sources from where consumers’ acquire behaviour, attitudes and belief, which is helpful when making consumption-related decisions (De Gregorio & Sung, 2010:86). The media provides a platform for consumers to make informed purchase decisions. Spero and Stone (2004:157) indicate that the media gives young consumers the opportunity to gain control of information; that is, information is easy to assess, convenient to interact with, and the ability to comprehend the information that is available through the media, in order to make informed purchase decisions. According to Ibrahim et al. (2011:132) marketing-related messages displayed by the media are considered as an influencing drive for young consumers, it helps to relate media consumption to a consumer’s related values and attitudes. In addition, invention of the Internet provides a boost for marketing communication through the media, and holds an enormous amount of information for consumers to make informed purchase decisions (Lueg et al., 2006:148). What is notable is that Internet media sites are social networks, and provide a platform for people, who are also consumers, to socialise, interact, communicate about different issues, and find consumer-related information, which translates to an important agent for consumer socialisation (Köhler et al., 2011:105). Social media records high volume of interaction
among peers who also act as agents of socialisation and promote consumer socialisation (Wang et al., 2012:199). This makes socialisation process accessible and easy. Although the scope of this study is not specifically on social media as an agent of socialisation, but discussions on the media will not be complete without mentioning the influence of social media.

2.4.3.2 Social structure

Social structure variables consist of social class, gender and ethnicity. The importance of these variables in consumer socialisation is demonstrated in their use to assist the learner to link an external social setting to the learning that happens (Moschis & Churchill, 1978:599-609). Social class is an informal positioning of people in a culture. The income level, occupation, educational background, where a consumer lives and other informal factors may be a measure for assessing a consumer’s social class (Solomon, 2009:514). According to Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2010:136), the end of the socioeconomic status (higher or lower) to which a consumer belongs, has a direct influence on the consumption patterns and choices. For instance, consumers who live in an upper class community are exposed to the consumption patterns in their household and by implication are more attuned to the market place than consumers in a lower socioeconomic environment are. Gender relates to the sex role of an individual. Mothers are inclined to have a lead-follower relationship with children with regards to purchase, as mothers go shopping more with the children than fathers go (Huddleston & Minahan, 2011:37-38). Hence, most young consumers acquire particular gender-role interpretations often from studying shopping done by their parents and others (Moschis & Moore, 1979:110).

Although as children grow into adolescent (Generation Y), there is the tendency to copy and find affirmation from their peers on consumer products, and this applies more to females than male adolescents (Moore & Moschis, 1980:759). Ethnic identification is significant in the socialisation adolescent, such as age group, as these consumers share similar characteristics to members of their ethnic group. For example, there are similarities in the characteristics of a Zulu ethnic group, as compared to an Afrikaans ethnic group. A similarity in ethnic groups reflects in a similarity in consumption behaviour of group members (Hawkins and Mothersbaugh, 2010:158). The findings support the argument that socialisation absorbs culture (Blackwell et al., 2006:430).
Social structure variables can have influence on consumer socialisation of Generation Y, as they relate to past study. In the succeeding section, symbolic consumption is examined.

### 2.5 SYMBOLIC CONSUMPTION

Consumer socialisation examines how young consumers obtain information that provides guidance in making purchase decisions, but it does not clarify why these decisions are made. In the past, researchers debated that the consumer’s use of a product is not only for its functional purpose, but also for its symbolic characteristics (Benson, 2000:497-513; Moynagh & Worsley, 2002:294; Kadirov & Varey, 2006). According to Piacentini and Mailer (2004:251), symbolic consumption represents the process by which an individual uses consumer products as tools to create, foster, and develop desired identity. Symbolic consumption gives a clearer viewpoint into why some consumers seek out specific products. A consumer’s belongings or display of expensive personal item has a lot to say about the consumers’ social standing/status (Schiffman et al., 2010:338). Similarly, certain consumers express self in the form of possessions that are acquired (Ger & Belk 1996:295; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:429). Past studies indicate a relationship between the product consumer’s use and self-image, this mostly relates to apparel items (Solomon, 2009:207). For Generation Y, consumption of some item is symbolic, as a way of forming their identity and gaining reputation. According to Piacentini and Mailer (2004:253), Generation Y consumers tend to have a strong desire to affirm their maturity and freedom to their peers through what they consume. Understanding the importance of the different changes and stages in consumer’s lives can lead to a better understanding of consumer behaviour. In addition, Urich (2008:13) affirms that symbolic consumption is an expressive medium of articulating a message. Generally, symbolic consumption is relevant in relation to consumer behaviour for two reasons (a) an individual’s perception towards the consumption patterns of another contributes directly to the consumer’s consumption choices, and (b) this view helps to elaborate to what extent products act as socially common symbols (Belk, 1980:366). The communication of symbolic meaning depends on commonly-shared knowledge, language and understanding of members of specific social group. Apparel adornment is an important medium through which consumers express self symbolically, and show affiliation to group (Hawkins et al., 2007:361).
According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2005), apparel is, “personal attire clothing or something that clothes or adorns”; apparel is perceived as the fulfilment of physiological/survival needs (Blythe, 2008:36). Although apparel is first a physiological need, in the present appearance-conscious era it also serves as both a social and an esteem need, that is, apparel is used in expressing social status or symbols (Armstrong & Kotler, 2009:167). The socialisation of consumers provides a platform for learning and skills acquisition, and consequently, this helps consumers to interpret the meaning of apparel (Halstead, 2006:22). According to Yuanyuan (2012:16), a study of America consumers reveals that apparel use is a form of the expression of self. Ramos (2011:4) agrees that this is also true for South African consumers, as apparel serves as a means of exhibiting social affiliation/status. In addition, for some consumers, apparel is a way for modifying appearances (Schiffman et al., 2010:167). This section addressed symbolic consumption. The subsequent section focuses on the target segment for this research study, which is the Generation Y cohort.

2.6 OVERVIEW OF GENERATION Y COHORT

Marketers are faced with the challenge of selling products to consumers, and Generation Y is particularly challenging. This is primarily because Generation Y consumers are difficult to convince to make purchases, though many find this group to spend their resources easily, and as such, influencers of household purchases (Horovitz, 2002:1; Martin & Turley, 2004:464). As a result, marketers need to develop effective marketing strategies to achieve efficient results, including identifying Generation Y. For the purpose of this study pertaining to the influence of socialisation agents on Generation Y apparel purchase, it is necessary to define and examine the characteristics of this cohort. The subsections below describe Generation Y and some of the characteristics they exhibit, which may be useful to marketers targeting this cohort.

2.6.1 Generation Y cohort defined

Generation Y cohort are popularly known as the millennium generation (Parment, 2013:190), they are those individuals born between 1986 and 2005 (Markert, 2004:21). According to Schiffman et al. (2010:410), members of the Generation Y cohort include individuals who range from ages eight to 28. Studies that focus on students at tertiary
institutions typically define them as individuals between the ages of 18 and 24 (Wolburg & Pokrywcynski, 2001; Steel, 2012).

The Generation Y cohort is said to represent the largest generation globally since the baby boomers (Koutras, 2006:106). According to Harrington et al. (2010:436), more than 50 percent of the world population comprises of Generation Y members. In the United States of America, the Generation Y cohort represents the largest segment comprising over 78 million members (Qualman, 2010; Kotler & Keller 2012:242). While in South Africa, the Generation Y cohort accounts for more than 6 million of the total population (Statistics SA, 2001) and represents 40 percent of South Africa population (Statistics South Africa, 2011). Post-apartheid, South Africans’ have experienced a major shift in the political and economic landscape. This new terrain transformation, since 1994, has affected the economic, income and educational distribution in South Africa (Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2003:399). Generation Y members being brought up in this new dispensation are better privileged to formal education, which is expected to translate to having more opportunities for higher discretionary income than the previous generations.

The population size that the Generation Y cohort accounts for comprises a segment that cannot be ignored (Taylor & Cosenza, 2002:394). This generational cohort is categorised by the unique characteristics they demonstrate, different to the older generation, and this has resulted in a shift in values and product demand (Paul, 2001:42; Cant et al., 2006:100). The Generation Y cohort is brought up in an era that is dominated with fast global communication, patchy media and a prevailing emphasis on materialism. Among the differences Generation Y consumers’ exhibit is the lack of ease to be easily cajoled by traditional marketing approaches (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:132). Hence, marketers need to find ways of relating and communicating with Generation Y. In addition, Generation Y consumers are generally characterised with a robust sense of independence and autonomy (Williams et al., 2010:9). They are more technologically hands-on, privileged to accessible formal education, assertive, and innovative; the Generation Y cohort has access to the households’ discretionary income, more than previous generations (Brier, 2004:16-19). Subsequently, to grasp the underlying study fully, it is important to look into the characteristics of the members of this cohort.
2.6.2 Characteristics of Generation Y

Members of Generation Y are the first generation to grow up in dual-income households (Williams et al., 2010:8). Consequently, Generation Y members have access to more disposal income than older generations (Farris et al., 2002:89). Similarly, Walen (2007:41) states that the Generation Y cohort is a financially powerful cohort. Although this generational cohort has grown up under serious global economic uncertainty (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:133; Parment, 2013:189), nevertheless, Generation Y consumers are seen as the biggest spenders, and they influence household spending (Martin & Turley, 2004:466; Taylor & Cosenza, 2002:393; Schiffman et al., 2010:410; Harrington et al., 2010:432). In the United States, Generation Y consumers account for more than US$208 billion spending, directly influence over US$91 billion and demonstrate an indirect influence on an estimated amount of IS$117.6 billion purchases as at 2012 (Statistic Brain, 2012).

Parker et al. (2004:177) state that Generation Y consumers are very trendy and they value apparel. This cohort’s consumers are very conscious of physical adornments and pay attention to materialism (Cant et al., 2006:106). Past research found the American Generation Y associate apparel as a form for self-expression and social affiliation (Taylor & Cosenza, 2002:395). For Generation Y consumers, apparel purchases rank topmost on the spending list (Hyllegard et al., 2009:112). Crane (2007:2) adds that Generation Y consumers spend up to 12 percent of available discretionary income on apparel items. In addition, Strydom (2004) finds South African Generation Y consumers to be apparel conscious, and over 60 percent indicate consistencies with fashion vogues and the interest in buying apparel products.

Members of Generation Y are characterised by a strong sense of freedom and independence (Beard, 2003:226). This cohort is very assertive, self-reliant, emotionally and intellectually expressive, innovative and inquisitive. For instance, in the United States of America most Generation Y members are now put in charge of the family grocery purchases, giving them the power to affect the marketplace (Farris et al., 2002:90). Such responsibilities have necessitated a level of freedom to spend, and independence. Members of the Generation Y cohort are self-expressive and do not miss words when making an important point (Williams et al., 2010:9). These cohorts are very broadminded and easily adjust to change; they are self-centred, spontaneous and big spenders (Eisner,
Although, as consumers Generation Y are not easily cajoled by marketing hype (Farris et al., 2002:92; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:133) but prefer marketing advertisements with fun or irony that provide true and correct information (Solomon, 2009:582).

Generation Y cohorts are on record as the highest educated generation with disposal income (William et al., 2010:9). Many members of this generation are either in institutions of learning, or already in the workforce (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:133). This is so because Generation Y considers education very important. According to Farris et al. (2002:95), members of Generation Y are keen, well informed and fair-minded. As consumers, this cohort has indeed educated themselves on organisational products and service offerings through organisation’s website. Considering that, Generation Y members are informed consumers. These young consumers will expect reasonable pricing and might want to negotiate based on competitor’s marketed price. Generation Y members are also excel in challenges (Gorrell, 2008; Wilson & field, 2007).

Generation Y cohort are highly literate in technology. This cohort has grown-up alongside the invention of the Internet (Kotler & Keller, 2012:241). Generation Y members view the Internet as an unrestrained recreational area (Williams et al., 2010:9). This cohort sees the world as a connected global village, with the touch of a button. Generation Y cohort has access to the Internet, smart cellphones, and various items of communication (Parment, 2013:192). According to a research study, more than 90 percent of these generational cohorts are constantly online (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:133). Generation Y members are the front-runners in cyber space (Goldenberg, 2007:12). Generation Y members are also good multi-taskers. Multitasking comes easily to this cohort and enables them to articulate information from the media at faster rates than ever before (Donnelly, 2008:19). This cohort is versatile on blogging platforms, Facebook, MySpace, YouTube, which they use to socialise and transmit information faster than trained personnel do (Farris et al., 2002:93; Dickey & Sullivan, 2007:10).

For Generation Y members, peer acceptance is important, and evident in the choice of product and brand that is purchased (William et al., 2010:9). In certain instances the opinion of peers is often of more value and taken into account more than the voice of the product expert. Recognition from peers is a form of acceptance, and a show of affiliation for Generation Y consumers (Gorrell, 2008). Generation Y consumers’ value the opinion
of reference groups above their own opinion. Where reference groups are solid, marketers should consider approaches on how to reach and influence the group’s opinion leaders (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:237).

Generation Y members like to be encouraged to flaunt rules. However, members of this cohort are in representation across different political divided. This cohort exhibits pessimism towards the performances of political leaders and the media. Individuals in the Generation Y cohort are concerned with environmental and social issues such as green living (Gronbach, 2000b:36; Alch, 2000:45; Kotler & Keller, 2012:241). Consequently, they advocate for change through organisations such as non-governmental organisations (Williams et al., 2010:10). This cohort represents a market not yet harnessed for non-profit organisations, social and environment causes. If these organisations can engage and connect with the members of this cohort, they will attain great strides (Rugimbana, 2007; Livesley, 2008:10-11; Wells, 2008:34-37).

According to Williams et al. (2010:9), Generation Y members are very concerned about their self-image. The Generation Y cohort always wants to put up appearances that are talked about (Toh et al., 2011:1089). As consumers, Generation Y consciously keeps up with current trends; this consumer group spends more on apparel than other product categories (Crane, 2007:2). For Generation Y consumers, items of electronics are necessary such as iPads, iPods, iPhones, BlackBerrys, and video games (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:132). Piercings and tattooed bodies also identify the Generation Y cohort (Himmel, 2008:44).

Similarly, South African Generation Y consumers are open-minded, embrace diversity, techno-savvy and liberal. This generation was born into the era of technological, political and social changes (Kezi Communication, 2009:1). Members of this cohort are regarded as the “born free” (Kezi Communication, 2009:1). South African Generation Y members are literally the first generation to connect with multiracial South Africa (Bevan-Dye et al., 2011:5582). According to Weldon (2009:1), South African Generation Y consumers’ exhibit similar trends to other young consumers, globally. For instance, the usage of cellphones and technological items among South African Generation Y is comparable with other countries such as the United Kingdom, Greece, Germany, United States and Spain. According to Duarte (2009:1), South African consumers rate sixth in the world in the use of cell phone and Internet surfing. In addition, similarities were also found with
regard to interest in sports, preferred movie stars, the use of social media and common relaxation activities (Jordaan et al., 2011:3). Newton (2009:1) agrees that a South African Generation Y cohort is vast and knowledgeable, technologically. This cohort is more interested in social networking sites than watching television; asserting, that the South African Generation Y cohort is techno savvy.

While differences between Generation Y cohorts exist, similarities are also apparent. The similarities among Generation Y consumers cut across boundaries. This generational cohort is the first to experience a world without borders the worldwide media (Hawkins et al., 2010:132). This has given rise to the concept of global teenager or global Generation Y (Tully, 1994:90). Generation Y cohort are global consumers. This is in evidence with their timely and continuous connectivity with the world, which concept supports global marketing strategy for Generation Y cohort (Wee, 1999:365). In summary, the Generation Y cohort presents both opportunities and challenges to marketers. The characteristics of this cohort precede them; specifically the apparel market provides significant business opportunities for marketers, as Generation Y members are said to spend more in this product category (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:134; Williams et al., 2010:9). According to Rundell (2006:46), South African consumers spend a significant amount of their income on apparel items. Hence, understanding what influences the apparel purchase intentions of Generation Y consumers, is critical for marketers.

2.7 SYNOPSIS

The primary objective of this study was to determine Generation Y students’ attitudes towards the influence of socialisation agents on apparel purchase intentions. Although there are various socialisation agents, the focus was on the influence of peers, parents and the media on Generation Y students. However, there are three types of interpersonal influences, of which normative and informative are included as part of the measuring instrument for statistical purpose.

In this chapter, consumer buying behaviour was discussed in Section 2.2, the definition of consumer behaviour in Section 2.2.1, with an overview of the consumer decision-making process in Section 2.2.2, and in Section 2.2.3 models were used to explain the consumer decision process. Section 2.3 examined variables influencing consumer buying behaviour, which includes demographics (Section 2.3.1), socio-cultural influences (Section 2.3.2)
and psychological variables (Section 2.3.3). Discussions relating to consumer socialisation were included in (Section 2.4), followed by the definition of socialisation (Section 2.4.1) including the importance of socialisation (Section 2.4.2). Furthermore, Section 2.5 outlined an overview of symbolic consumption. A discussion on Generation Y students (Section 2.6), concluded this chapter, with the definition of the Generation Y cohort (Section 2.6.1), including the characteristics of the Generation Y cohort (2.6.2).

An analysis of the research methodology, as outlined for the empirical part of this study, is provided in the following chapter. The focus of Chapter 3 is on research design, approach and strategy, data collection method, pre-testing of the questionnaire, administration of the questionnaire, preliminary data analysis, and statistical analysis.
3.1 INTRODUCTION

Burns and Bush (2010:35) define marketing research as the process of designing, collecting and analysing the use of data in providing assistance in decision making in relation to a specific marketing problem. The focus of marketing research is on following a process that produces results in information, which will be useful in assisting decision makers in an organisation. The preceding chapter focused on providing a literature review on various aspects of consumer decision making and consumer socialisation, which forms part of the broad spectrum of consumer behaviour, thereby laying the foundation for the research instrument and the research methodology. Through analysing the empirical portion of this study, this chapter focuses on discussing the research methodology employed in this study.

As indicated in Chapter 1, the primary objective of this study was to determine the interpersonal influence of socialisation agents on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions in order to develop marketing strategies for effectively targeting this market. This primary objective was then deconstructed into four empirical objectives (refer to Section 1.3.3), which dictated the collection for the following required data:

- Determine Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending
- Determine the relationship between peers, parents, and the media and Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending
- Determine the influence of peers, parents, and the media on Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending
- Determine whether there is a difference between male and female Generation Y students’ perceptions towards the influence of peers, parents and the media, on their apparel spending.
This chapter outlines the research methodology used in the gathering of data for this study, which is divided into eight sections. Section 3.2 describes the research design of the study. In Section 3.3, the research approach used in the study is discussed. The sampling procedures are discussed in Section 3.4. Section 3.5 describes the data collection method used and the development of the research instrument, taking into account the question format, questionnaire layout, and questionnaire design. The pretesting and pilot testing of the questionnaire used for this study is described in Section 3.6. In Section 3.7, the operational procedure by which the questionnaire was administered effectively is described. In addition, the preliminary data analysis is outlined in Section 3.8. In section 3.9, the statistical analysis applied in the study, specifically the reliability and validity analysis, descriptive analysis, and tests of significance are explained. The following section describes the research design selected for this study, which was used to ensure that the study draws on reliable procedures and methods of enquiry.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

When undertaking a research project a research design is followed for achieving the research objectives. Three types of research designs can be distinguished, namely exploratory research, casual research and descriptive research (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:32). The choice of a suitable research design depends mainly on the research objectives. These marketing research designs are briefly discussed as follows:

- **Exploratory research** is used to examine the feasibility of conducting a study, or exploring a subject area to provide insights into and ideas on research problems and consequent hypotheses (Kumar, 2008:15). This method of research can be used for a qualitative study, observation or surveys (Kent, 2007:17).

- **Descriptive research** is used to find answers to questions relating to what, who, when, how, and where (Wilson, 2006:34). It may be used in projecting a study’s outcome to a greater population sample (Burns & Bush, 2010:149). According to Kumar (2008:10), descriptive research may be used to explain attitudes towards an issue.

- **Causal research** is used to ascertain or explore a relationship between two or more variables. This research method examines the extent to which one or more
independent variables influences one or more than one dependent variable (Kent, 2007:18).

For the purpose of this study, a descriptive research design was implemented as this study seeks to uncover the interpersonal influences of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) on Generation Y students’ apparel purchase intentions. As advised by Moutinho and Hutcheson (2011:67), a single cross-sectional design was used, as the information was obtained from the sample only once. The research approach used in this study is discussed next.

3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

Kothari (2004:5) distinguishes between two basic research approaches that can be used in a research study, namely qualitative and quantitative research. In qualitative research, the questions are unstructured, and useful with a smaller number of participants (Wilson, 2006:135). Qualitative research is employed when researchers seek clarity to specific problems, using techniques that are not dependent on numerical measurements, in an attempt to understand participants’ experience of a specific occurrence (Malhotra, 2010:73). Quantitative research provides data used for statistical analysis, which are collected by using formal instruments such as questionnaires (Kent, 2007:10). It involves predetermined planned questions with the option of prearranged structured answers, which is useful with a large number of participants (Wilson, 2006:135). Quantitative research is used to test hypotheses on a large representative sample (Matthews & Ross, 2010:142).

A quantitative research approach was applied for the purpose of this study. The questionnaire utilised in this study included two existing scales that were used in previously published research. The first scale (24 items), measuring the interpersonal influence of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) that are normative and informative, on apparel purchasing intentions was adapted from the Mascarenhas and Higby (1993) interpersonal influence scale, which was used in a similar study done in Philadelphia and Detroit (United States of America) (Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993:54). The second scale (10 items), mass media and personal source influence scale, measuring the extent to which these socialisation agents influence South African Generation Y students’ purchasing-related behavioural intentions, consists of five items adopted from
the Strutton and Lumpkin (1992) information source typologies scale, and five items adapted from the Murray (1985) personal source influence scale. The following section describes the sampling strategy utilised in this study.

### 3.4 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The sampling strategy is described as the process followed in carrying out the sample design and sampling methods. Salkind (2012:95) states that the sampling process includes a description of the target population, the sample frame, the sample method and the sample size. A discussion on the sampling procedure followed in this research study follows.

#### 3.4.1 Defining the target population

A target population is the complete unit from which a sample is chosen (Bryman & Bell, 2011:176), sharing similar characteristics relevant for the purpose of the research (Downing & Clark, 2003:2; Kent, 2007:227). Although every element in a given population can be measured, referring to a census, this is not always feasible; therefore, only a selection of the population, namely a sample of that population, are taken (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:165). The objectives of the study to be undertaken, determines the selection of the sample (Burns & Bush, 2010:364). Malhotra and Birks (2007:406) warn that accurately defining the target population is imperative to the successful achievement of reliable and valid results. The target population relevant to this study was defined as Generation Y students between the ages of 18 and 24 years, who were enrolled full-time at registered public South Africa HEIs during 2013.

#### 3.4.2 Sampling frame

The sampling frame, representing a given target population, is referring to a list of the sampling population, such as a telephone directory (Scheaffer et al., 2012:9). In accordance with the title of this dissertation, students, more specifically under-graduate students, were selected for this study. Therefore, the sampling frame for this study consisted of 23 public registered South African HEIs, comprising 11 universities, six comprehensive universities and six universities of technology, as published by Higher Education in South Africa (2009). From this list of 23 registered institutions, one sample was selected conveniently from two HEIs located in the Gauteng province. The Gauteng
province comprises of the largest share of the South African population; therefore, it was chosen for this study. The two HEIs were selected based on convenience sampling due to their close geographic proximity, which makes the research more manageable and reduces time and cost. One group of participants, namely full-time registered students, was then selected by means of convenience sampling.

3.4.3 Sampling method

The sampling method indicates the approach used in selecting a sample (Matthews & Ross, 2010:154). Two methods of sampling can be distinguished, namely probability sampling or non-probability sampling (Kothari, 2004:15).

Probability sampling is a sampling method based on a random selection concept where each element of the population has a known, non-zero opportunity to be selected for the study sample (Kent, 2007:231). There are four different probability-sampling methods, which constitute, simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling. The simple random sampling method ensures that each member in the sample frame has the same, independent possibility of being added into the sample (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:175). The systematic sampling method relates to how each element is chosen from a sample frame in accordance to predetermined intervals (Leedy & Omrod, 2005:203). In the method of stratified sampling, the units are selected randomly from the population that is subdivided into groups, called strata (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:164). In cluster sampling, the individuals’ characteristics are chosen rather than the individuals themselves (Salkind, 2012:102).

Non-probability sampling is a method in which every population element is selected based on the personal discretion of the researcher, therefore it is subjective (Blumberg et al., 2008:235). According to Wilson (2006:200), the selection of the population element by means of non-probability sampling methods is not based on uncertainty, but on an inherently influenced process, compared to the probability sampling method. There are four different types of non-probability sampling methods, namely convenience sampling, quota sampling, snowball sampling and judgement sampling (Bryman & Bell, 2011:190). Convenience sampling is a method where the sample is drawn based on convenience and the choice of the sample unit is based on the researcher’s expert judgement (Kent, 2007:235), and the sample unit is easy to generate because of its accessibility (Salkind,
2012:103). Convenience sampling is often utilised when the population elements are generated by intercepting possible participants at busy shopping malls, a location with busy passers-by or the use of students (Burns & Bush, 2010:383). Quota sampling involves the researcher selecting specific participants because they meet a specific set of criteria determined by the research design (Matthews & Ross, 2010:165). The snowball sampling method is used when the initial participants are asked for information to identify additional possible participants with specific characteristics, who will subsequently also participate in the study (Babbie, 2010:208).

The sampling method used for this study was a non-probability convenience sampling of full-time Generation Y students, registered at two South African HEIs, aged between 18 and 24 years.

### 3.4.4 Sample size

A sample size refers to the amount of elements that will be included in the research study (Burns & Bush, 2010:60). Hair et al. (2007:139) advice, when conducting a non-probability sampling method, as applied in this study, to use a sample size in the range of similar studies conducted in order to compare other researcher’s judgements. Blumberg et al. (2008:273) concur, advising that researchers use a sample size relating to previous studies on a similar topic.

A sample size of 500 full-time undergraduate Generation Y students was selected for this study. This sample size is in the range of other studies of this nature, such as those conducted by Kumar et al. (2009:521) (sample size of 411) and Hyllegard et al. (2009:115) (sample size of 425), and therefore was considered sufficiently large. The sample size of 500 Generation Y undergraduate students was split between the two registered South African public HEIs, thus allowing a sample size of 250 Generation Y full-time undergraduate students per HEI.

### 3.5 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

According to Burns and Bush (2010:60), data collection consists of various methods used for gathering primary information, encompassing different methods depending on the data to be collected. Blumberg et al. (2008:278) state that for obtaining quantitative data,
the data can be collected by means of two methods, namely the observation method and the survey method.

The observation method involves the systematic gathering of actual behavioural patterns, without questioning or actual communication between the observed participant and the researcher or interviewer (Stevens *et al.*, 2013:121). This method is often criticised for gathering biased data, in that the researcher knows little or nothing about the observed person’s motives, beliefs, preference and attitudes (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:290). Malhotra (2010:237) recommends that when using this method, it should be in collaboration with the survey method rather than independently.

The survey method involves the gathering of information from a large population of participants using a structured questionnaire (Kent, 2007:182) and can be administered through different methods such as personal interviews, mail surveys, telephone surveys and online interviews (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:267). The survey approach is the most preferred method of primary data collection due to this method being simple to manage, analyse, code and interpret (Blumberg *et al.*, 2008:278). An additional survey method, namely the drop-off survey, often referred to as the drop and collect method, involves physically dropping off the questionnaire at the participants’ location, after which arrangements for collecting the completed questionnaire are agreed upon (Burns & Bush, 2010:288). Malhotra (2010:211) opines that the drop-off survey method is an effective way of generating a higher response rate.

A self-administered questionnaire entails that participants respond to the questions in the questionnaire given without the assistance of the researcher or interviewer. Administering self-administered questionnaires is simplified when the participants assemble in central location (Babbie, 2011:269).

In this study, a self-administered questionnaire using the drop off-survey method was used to collect the required data specified in Section 3.1. The questionnaires were hand-delivered to the participating academic staff members of the two selected HEI campuses, from whom permission had been obtained telephonically. The questionnaires where then distributed to their students for completion during class or after class, by the participating lecturers. The research instrument in this study, namely the questionnaire, will be discussed in the next session.
3.5.1 Questionnaire design

A questionnaire is defined as any set of specific questions for obtaining information from the participants in order to meet the objectives of the study (Brace, 2008:4; Babbie, 2011:255). Matthews and Ross (2010:206a) concur stating that a poor questionnaire design will result in either not achieving the research objectives of the study, or the collection of inadequate data. Salkind (2012:149) opines that the design of the questionnaire should be in accordance with the researcher’s goal and meet the expected purpose for the study. A soundly worded cover letter that introduces the purpose of the study and provides the relevant contact details is essential when using self-administered questionnaires. This is to encourage the participants to partake in the research process and motivate the participants to complete the questionnaire (Bradley, 2010:189).

The wording used in the questionnaire design is the interpretation of the content and structure of the researcher’s desired question into words, which should be clear and easy to understand by the participants (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:384). Hence, attention given to using simple direct questions and familiar terms is critical in questionnaire design, thereby avoiding incorrect interpretation by the participants but obtaining information, which addresses the research problem (Bryman & Bell, 2011:240). Furthermore, questionnaires should comprise clear questions, which are not ambiguous, or double-barrelled (Pallant, 2010:10). Burns and Bush (2010:337) concur stating that the wording of the questions should be kept simple, meaningful and clear to avoid response inaccuracy and non-response from the participants. Furthermore when designing the questionnaire the participants vocabulary skills should be taken into consideration. In addition, the questions must be specific, avoid asking about two issues in a single question, such as using the word ‘and’ in the question, as this could result in ambiguity (Burns & Bush, 2010:337).

The questionnaire of this study portrayed simple and brief objectives as guided by the aforementioned recommendations. The guiding principles mentioned above were adhered to in the wording of the questions, where simple English terminology was used to ensure clear understanding of the questions. As advised by Connaway and Powell (2010:164) a cover letter, explaining the purpose of the study and the relevant contact details, was attached to the questionnaire. Annexure A present the questionnaire used in this study.
3.5.2 Questioning format

In order to obtain the necessary data, the study utilised two existing scales from the literature that were used in previously published research. The first scale was adapted from the Mascarenhas and Higby’s (1993) interpersonal influence scale. Mascarenhas and Higby (1993) employed this scale to conduct research on high-school students in Philadelphia and Detroit (United States of America), determining the impact of the three sources of influence (peers, parents and the media) and the two influence types (normative and informative). Owing to their scale corresponding with the first three objectives of this study, as formulated in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3.3), the scale was adapted and employed in this study. The 24-item interpersonal influence scale, measuring the interpersonal influences of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) among South African Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions, consisted of three constructs, namely the influence of peers (normative and informative) (11 items), parents (normative and informative) (eight items) and the media (normative and informative) (five items) on apparel purchasing intentions. The students’ perceptions were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 6=strongly agree) based on the participants extent of agreement or disagreement to the statements that relate to the interpersonal influences of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) on their purchasing intentions.

The second scale, a mass media and personal source influence scale consists of five items adopted from the Strutton and Lumpkin (1992) information source typologies scale and five items adapted from the Murray (1985) personal source influence scale. This scale was used due to corresponding with the fourth objective of this study, as formulated in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3.3). The ten-item scale measuring the students’ perceptions on mass media and personal source influences on purchasing-related behavioural intentions comprised two dimensions, namely mass media sources (five items) and personal influence sources (five items). The students perceptions were measured on a ten-point ranking scale (1=least influential, 10=most influential) based on the participants’ extent of agreement or disagreement to the various media and personal sources possibly influencing purchasing intentions.

The questions in a questionnaire can either be open questions, also referred to as structured questions, or closed questions, also referred to as unstructured questions.
In the case of an open question, the question asked requires the participants to respond in writing a word, phrase or comment in the space provided (Burns & Bush, 2010:300). According to Malhotra and Birks (2007:381), open-ended questions are useful in exploratory research. With closed questions, the participants are required to choose an answer from a set of alternatives provided (Matthews & Ross, 2010:201). Bryman and Bell (2011:232) state that closed-ended questions are employed for self-administered questionnaires, as applied in this study, in order to enhance participant cooperation.

Once the type of research design has been determined, the decision regarding measurement and scaling procedures can be taken. Measurement is a process where describing numbers describes the characteristics of a phenomenon of interest in a reliable and valid manner (Kent, 2007:132). As such, the characteristics of the object such as the behaviour, attitude or opinion are measured rather than the object itself (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:336; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:234). The research instrument used in the measurement of these characteristics is referred to as a scale. Scaling is considered as an extension of measurement. (Kothari, 2004:76). For the purpose of this study, the focus will be directed at itemised rating scales.

In an itemised rating scale, the participants are presented with a scale that is numbered, comprising short descriptions or items related to each category. The scale requires a participant to select the category that describes their attitude or opinion that is rated best. The itemised rating scales most frequently used are semantic differential scales, Staple scales and Likert scales (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:348).

- **Semantic differential scale:** This scale is a bipolar measuring scale (Brace, 2008:76), comprising of opposite statements that relate to the attributes or perceptions of the object under study, which are placed at two ends of the scale (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:261). The participants are asked to indicate, which response most support their attitudes towards the object or event being evaluated by choosing between extreme points (Burns & Bush, 2010:314), ranging from categories of one to seven (Welman et al., 2005:157; Wilson & MacLean, 2011:261). The participants’ responses are summarised, giving a complete representation of the meaning of an object as well as a measure used to carry out the subject rating (Blumberg et al., 2008:467). Brace (2008:76) opines that
statements on the scaling points must be kept as simple as possible, as the participants are expected to read and fully comprehend both ends of the scale. According to Stone and Desmond (2007:154), although the semantic differential scale is relatively simple to apply and explain, a disadvantage of this scale is that the meaning assigned to an adjective may differ for a different situation and person.

- **Staple scale**: Beri (2007:146) states that the staple scale is an adjustment from the semantic differential scale, measuring both drive and intensity of attitudes simultaneously. According to Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:243), the staple scale has numerical labels that represent the different categories of the scale, usually presented vertically with an adjective in the middle of favourably and unfavourably rating (Bajpai, 2011:59), which range between -5 to +5 consisting of 10 categories (Brace, 2008:78). The absence of a middle ground in this scale compels the participant’s choice toward either an unfavourable or a favourable response with respect to the object being measured. The scale produces interval data, but although this scale is useful, simple and efficient in determining the attitudes of participants from a large sample (Blumberg et al., 2008:467), it is considered confusing and complex in its application (Brace, 2008:78).

- **Likert scale**: Kent (2007:135) refers to the Likert scale as a summed scale. This scale comprises statements that relate to the research study to which the participants signify to what extent they disagree or agree to each statement (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:262). According to Salkind (2012: 144), each statement is allocated a numerical score, ranging from -2 to +2 or 1 to 5. The development of a Likert scale requires the formation of statements that are associated with the object. Grover and Vriens (2006:90) state that it is important that the statements be distributed equally between favourable and unfavourable statements, in order to reduce bias. Although the Likert scale is reasonably simple to prepare, interpret, and administer, as well as simple to answer (Kumar, 2008:108; Babbie, 2010:17), it is time consuming to complete in comparison with itemised rating scales as it takes time for the participants to read each statement (Grover & Vriens, 2006:88).
The techniques mentioned above and effects were considered in the question format. For the purpose of this study, an undisguised, structured, self-administered questionnaire was used. The questions that were used in obtaining the participants' demographic information comprised nine multiple-choice questions where the participants had to indicate their university, province of origin, year of study, gender, ethnic group, mother tongue language, age, average monthly apparel spending and monthly allowance. In section B of the questionnaire of this study, a six-point Likert was used to measure the extent to which the participants’ agree or disagree with each specific statement, and intentions, which is consistent with other similar studies measuring the influence of socialisation agents on purchasing intentions (Halstead, 2006; Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993). These statements were assigned numerical values, that varied between strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). A midpoint statement on the scale, indicating a uncertain position on the statement was not included, thereby compelling the participants to be either in agreement or not with the statement, as advised by Pallant (2010:10). To achieve the purpose of this study, a category of uncertain was not applicable because the participant is either in agreement with the influence of socialisation agents on apparel purchase intentions or not.

3.5.3 Questionnaire layout

The questionnaire layout is synonymous with the appearance of the questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2007:338). Wilson and MacLean (2011:264) state that a questionnaire layout should be logical, well organised, user-friendly, consistent, without spelling mistakes and appealing to the target sample. Attention should be given to the font type and size, headings must be consistent for easy identification, the response required should be stated clearly and the response alternatives should be coded for data entry purposes (Anderson & Morgan, 2008:117). Matthews and Ross (2010:212) concur, stating that the order in which questions are presented in a questionnaire must be logical to the participants whereby the initial question asked should lead to the next line of questions, serving to introduce the next set of questions on a different subject. In addition, Salkind (2012:149) suggests that easy questions should be placed first, followed by the more challenging questions. A well-planned questionnaire layout is more likely to increase the response rate and is, therefore, an important aspect in a self-administered questionnaire (Bryman & Bell, 2011:238). Hence, the active participation of participants in a study, suggests an effective questionnaire (Zikmund et al., 2012:335).
The development of a questionnaire in a research study, comprises stages, namely first to obtain specific classification information of the participants and secondly obtaining information pertaining to the research topic and objectives, referred to as basic information (Stevens et al., 2006:148). According to Malhotra (2010:350), classification of information indicates the participants’ socio economic and demographical descriptors.

The questionnaire used for this study (refer to Annexure A) comprised three sections. Section A (A1-A9) was designated to collect demographical information from the participants, including a question determining the participants’ monthly average apparel spending and their monthly allowance in order to determine their purchasing intentions. One filter question relating to demographic information was included in Section A to ascertain that the participants meet the necessary age requirement of the sample. This requirement included the participants’ age to ensure that the participants are part of the defined target population of 18 to 24 years of age. The second section, Section B (B1-B24), measured the interpersonal influence of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) of apparel purchasing intentions. Section C (C1-C10) measured the degree to which these socialisation agents influence apparel purchasing behaviour. In order to gather the required information related to the topic and research objectives presented in Section 1.3.3, two measuring instruments were applied. The first scale was adapted from the Mascarenhas and Higby’s (1993) interpersonal influence scale, the second scale (the mass media and personal source influence scale), consisting of five items, was adopted from the Strutton and Lumpkin (1992) information source typologies scale, and five items were adapted from the Murray (1985) personal source influence scale.

Although the socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media), used in this study, were adapted from Mascarenhas and Higby’s (1993:54) measurement instrument, various other authors researched these socialisation agents. Table 3.1 presents the three socialisation agents being measured, as well as a summary of previous research on these socialisation agents.
Table 3.1: Socialisation agents influencing purchasing intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agents</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Chaplin <em>et al.</em>, (2010); Churchill &amp; Moschis (1979); Halstead (2006); Lachance <em>et al.</em>, (2003); Mascarenhas &amp; Higby (1993); Sabrina (2005); Toh Bee Hwa <em>et al.</em>, (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peers</td>
<td>Chaplin <em>et al.</em>, (2010); Churchill &amp; Moschis (1979); Koester &amp; May (1985); Lachance <em>et al.</em>, (2003); Mascarenhas &amp; Higby (1993); Moschis &amp; Churchill (1978); Toh Bee Hwa <em>et al.</em>, (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media</td>
<td>Churchill &amp; Moschis (1979); Lachance <em>et al.</em>, (2003); Mascarenhas &amp; Higby (1993); Moschis &amp; Churchill (1978); Noble <em>et al.</em>, (2009); Russell &amp; Tyler (2002); Shearer (2002)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A discussion relating to the methods used in the pre-testing of the questionnaire will follow.

3.6 PRE-TESTING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The data collection instrument of a research survey is pretested by firstly administering the questionnaire to a smaller group of participants who are not part of the final study, but share similarities required for the research topic (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:255). Before a questionnaire can be piloted, it should undergo a pre-test. Pre-testing of the questionnaire is an important measure taken in the development of a questionnaire for achieving the research objectives. The purpose of pre-testing the questionnaire is to draw attention to any errors or oversights in the questionnaire and to allow time to address the issues before it is distributed for the main survey (Parasuraman *et al.*, 2007:303; Sciglimpaglia, 2010:109). Pre-testing the questionnaire is important as it provides the researcher with the opportunity to have a first-hand response to the questionnaire. The response will give an indication to the researcher whether it is necessary to make any changes to the wording of the questionnaire or to the question content (Beri, 2007:115). Failure to pre-test may result in an unsuccessful study and is therefore advisable (Blumberg *et al.*, 2008:74). Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:224) state that pre-testing the questionnaire provides an opportunity for coding and tabulation. The tabulated results
provide the researcher with information to examine whether such data are applicable and acceptable for the objectives of the study (Beri, 2007:116). Therefore, it is important that the pre-test samples share close similarities such as behaviour, attitude and understanding of the subject matter with the main sample (Bryman & Bell, 2011:263). In addition, Malhotra (2010:354) states that when pre-testing the questionnaire, the language used, the wording used, the order in which the questions are placed, and the difficulty level of the questions need to be considered. In addition, Stevens et al. (2006:149) state that pre-testing is often helpful in aiding the researcher to address any obstacles a questionnaire might reveal on its completion, as well as providing an indication of the completion time required. Regardless of the method of survey, personal interviews should be used to implement the pre-test, as this allows the researcher to observe the participants extensively and reveals information about potentially unclear or offensive items (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:255).

Following the completion of the questionnaire by the participants, the interviewer debriefs the participants by describing the objectives of the study to the participants, and asking for feedback to determine if the questions or items where interpreted as anticipated (Malhotra, 2010:354). Welman et al. (2005:118) opine that debriefing is one of the ways of pre-testing the questionnaire before administering it to the main study. It draws the attention of the researcher to a number of salient points such as whether the wording of the questionnaire is clear and if the questionnaire meets the research objectives.

If there are any significant concerns noticed or raised by most of the participants during pre-testing of the questionnaire, the researcher needs to address these concerns, and if required, have a second pre-test to determine if the concerns were dealt with accordingly (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:255). Significant concerns may include unclear and offensive wording, or any part of the questionnaire that may seem confusing or otherwise problematic (Burns & Bush, 2010:354). Pre-testing of the questionnaire is an on-going activity to achieve the appropriate survey result. After the pre-testing has been carried out, and recommended editing is completed, the final step is to administer the questionnaire to the main study (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:255).

In this study, the questionnaire was pre-tested on three individuals, namely three experienced academic researchers, one of whom was a first language English speaker and the other two, second language English speakers, were chosen to participate in the
debriefing approach to pre-testing the questionnaire to ascertain that the questionnaire could be understood by first English- and non-English-speaking participants. Owing to the multilingual context of the South African environment, it is important that all participants understand the questionnaire. It took the participants approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire, which was sufficient according to Maree and Pietersen (2010: 159). The feedback received from the pre-testing was used to refine the items in the questionnaire in order to make them more understandable.

On completion of the pre-testing stage, the questionnaire was then piloted on a convenience sample of 50 students to ensure the reliability of the scales used in the study. This sample was attained from a HEI that did not form part of the main sample. The shortcomings of the questionnaire identified after the pilot test were corrected. The final questionnaire, combined with a cover letter (refer to Annexure A), comprising of 24 Likert scaled items, ten rating scaled items, and nine forced scaled items, was distributed for the main survey.

3.7 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The administration of the questionnaire is carried out after a successful pre-test has been achieved. Specific procedures need to be followed in the administration of the questionnaire for survey (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:255). The main survey was conducted between April 2013 and May 2013. A non-probability convenience sample of 500 Generation Y registered full-time students was used, for the completion of this study. After the relevant permission was obtained telephonically from the participating lecturers at the two HEIs, the researcher delivered the self-administered questionnaires personally. Owing to the duration of the questionnaire not exceeding 15 minutes, a single class period was deemed sufficient for completion. Attached to the questionnaire was a cover letter explaining the nature and the purpose of the study, as well as instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. Under the supervision of the participating lecturers, the questionnaires were handed out for completion during class time. The lecturers could choose a single class period most convenient for them. The lecturers were requested to inform their students that participation in the study was voluntary. After two weeks the questionnaires were collected from the relevant lecturers.
Data collected from the study, were tabulated and analysed for the purpose of drawing conclusions and formulating recommendations. The research findings are reported on in Chapter 4.

3.8 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

The following step after data collection involves preliminary data analysis. Peck et al (2008:6) define preliminary data analysis as involving a brief graphical and numerical representation of the data collected. Preliminary data analysis includes data editing, coding and tabulation (Bajpai, 2011:204). Editing is the process of reviewing the questionnaire for errors for increasing accuracy and precision (Kumar, 2008:18; Malhotra, 2010:453). The editing process includes, but is not limited to, the identification of errors and omissions in the collected data in order to make the required corrections (Beri, 2007:235).

Coding is the process of classifying data. This includes assigning codes to each specific response of a question that may be represented in a tabular form (Wiid & Diggines, 2010:230). The process facilitates processing of data and calculations. Coding is used for transforming participants’ feedback into a countable form (Wilson, 2006:223). Tabulation involves representing the responses in a table form (Kumar, 2008:18). The one-way frequency table is regarded as one of the simplest tabulations (Lamb et al., 2013:156), specifying the number of possible responses a participant has given to each category of each question (Sreejesh et al., 2013:175).

This research study’s questionnaire was divided into three sections. Section A was designated at collecting demographic data from the participants, Section B measured the interpersonal influences of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) and Section C measured the participants’ perceptions towards the influence of mass media and personal sources on their apparel purchasing intentions. Pre-coding of the questionnaire took place under the direction of the study supervisor and with the support of an experienced statistician. Table 3.2 presents the coding of the data per construct.
Table 3.2: Coding of the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data type</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demographic data</td>
<td>A1-A9</td>
<td>Section A: Questions A1-A9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale B: Interpersonal influences</td>
<td>B1-B30</td>
<td>Section B: Items B1-B24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer (normative/informative)</td>
<td>B1-B11</td>
<td>Section B: Items B1-B11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent (normative/informative)</td>
<td>B12-B19</td>
<td>Section B: Items B12-B19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media (normative/informative)</td>
<td>B20-B24</td>
<td>Section B: Items B20-B24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale C: Mass media and personal source influences</td>
<td>C1-C10</td>
<td>Section C: Items C1-C10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mass media sources</td>
<td>C1-C5</td>
<td>Section C: Items C1-C5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal sources</td>
<td>C6-C10</td>
<td>Section C: Items C6-C10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next section examines the statistical analysis techniques applied, which is useful for the presentation of the data collected from the survey.

**3.9 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

The process of examining the data collected is referred to as statistical analysis. This process allows the researcher to explore and address the research questions that have been presented in order to represent the findings of the research study (Matthews & Ross, 2010:368). According to Wilson (2006:225), statistical analysis assists the researcher in understanding what the data means.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is a sophisticated, user-friendly software package that is used in the marketing research process (Burns & Bush, 2010:62). This process involves the description of identified problems, organising information collected, and putting forward the final research outcomes systematically (Malhotra, 2010:59). The analysis of the data captured for this study was done using the SPSS program, Version 21 for Microsoft Windows. The following statistical methods were applied on the empirical data sets:

- Reliability analysis
- Validity analysis
• Descriptive analysis
• Significance tests

These statistical methods will now be discussed in detail.

3.9.1 Reliability analysis

A scale is reliable when consistent results are returned for repeated measurements (Burns & Bush, 2010:319). According to Bryman and Bell (2011:41), reliability indicates whether a measure is stable or not stable. Consequently, reliability of a scale is deemed to have occurred when a test measures similar items repeatedly, and the outcomes are similar (Salkind, 2012:115). One of the functions of the reliability of a scale is to indicate how free the scale is from random error (Pallant, 2010:6). Two types of errors may occur with the measurement instrument; systematic and random errors. A random error is described as the error that happens randomly, that is, the researcher is likely unaware at the time it occurs. While a systematic error happens consistently, signifying that the amount of error that arises is similar each time the same measurement instrument is applied (Boyce, 2002:309). The test-retest reliability and internal consistency are two methods often used to assess a scale’s reliability. (Pallant, 2010:6).

• Test-retest reliability: test-retest reliability of a scale is measured by administering it to the same participants at two different instances and the correlation between the two scores gathered is computed (Malhotra, 2010:319), measuring how stable a test is over a period of time (Salkind, 2012:119). A high correlation test-retest score suggests a more reliable scale (Pallant, 2010:6). The time gap given between the administrations of the tests is of vital importance. The timing gap depends on how the researcher intends to use the test results and the purpose of the research study (Salkind, 2012:119). The time interval for the administrations of the tests is recommended not to be too far apart, as this may cause the participants to have a mind change, and not too short either, as participant might still recall the answers provided to the earlier test (Welman et al., 2005:146; Wilson & MacLean, 2011:70). Appleton (2013:53), states that there may be other problems that can be linked with the test-retest reliability such as the participants lack of willingness to participate for a second test and
environmental/personal factors that may result in a change in the second measurements.

- **Internal consistency reliability**: The internal consistency reliability scale refers to the assessment of reliability where the researcher uses data collected at only a single point in time (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:71). It examines how interrelated the items are when assessed (Salkind, 2012; 122). Afterwards, the scale items are measured, and the score is summed up towards forming a total score (Malhotra, 2010:319). The internal consistency reliability can be measured in several ways. One of these ways, of measuring internal consistency is known as the Cronbach coefficient alpha, the most frequently used by researchers (Pallant, 2010:6). Using the Cronbach coefficient alpha, the researcher determines the degree of correlation that exists with each item and every other item and the average is measured (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:72). Where similar scale items are included, it indicates that more content is covered as well increases in internal consistency (Blumberg et al., 2008:458).

In this study, the reliability of the research instrument applied was analysed before the final study. The Cronbach coefficient alpha technique was applied for the measurement of the instrument’s consistency as well as the reliability of the items included in the scale. Cronbach’s coefficient alpha was also applied in the final study.

**3.9.2 Validity analysis**

A validity of scale signifies to what extent it measures what it intended to measure (Pallant, 2010:7; Wilson & MacLean, 2011:73). In other words, validity of scales is the authenticity of the instrument or test the researcher is using, and that it truly measures what needed to be measured (Salkind, 2012:123). The alternative word to describe the validity of a measurement instrument can be the truthfulness, genuineness, soundness, accuracy and authenticity of the scale (Salkind, 2012:123). An effective measuring instrument is one that is without random and systematic error (Malhotra, 2010:320). Three approaches can be utilised when determining validity to ascertain the dependability of results from a measurement scale, that is, content validity, construct validity and criterion validity (Blumberg et al., 2008:449; Malhotra, 2010:320; Pallant, 2010:7; Salkind, 2012:124).
• **Content validity**: Content validity indicates to what degree a test is representative of the entire universe of items from which it was selected (Blumberg *et al.*, 2008:449; Pallant, 2010:7). Salkind (2012:124) states that content validity is the most simplistic type of validity. It is beneficial to the researcher when evaluating the usefulness achieved from tests that sample a specific area of expertise. Hunt (2007:90) describes content validity as similar to face validity. Burns and Bush (2010:321) disagree, stating that face validity merely relates to the extent to which a measurement looks like what it aims to measure. In addition, it is a subjective assessment as researchers seek the opinion from other researchers to see if they agree. In this study, the above-mentioned factors were considered for the content validity of the research instrument employed in this study. To ascertain the content validity of the scale, a pilot study was conducted.

• **Criterion validity**: Criterion validity is concerned with the link between scale scores and certain measurable criterion (Pallant, 2010:7). In addition, Salkind (2012:125) describes criterion validity as a measure of the degree that a test relates to some criterion. The criterion selected, are variables that provide details on features such as demographic and psychographic characteristics, behavioral and attitudinal measures (Malhotra, 2010:320). Criterion validity entails two types of validity, that is, predictive and concurrent validity (Welman *et al.*, 2005:144). Salkind (2012:124) states that criterion validity relates to how satisfactory a test estimates current performances (concurrent validity), or how well it forecasts upcoming performance (predictive validity).

• **Construct validity**: Construct validity is to what degree the outcome of a test correlates to a basic set of related variables (Salkind, 2012; 125). It is the most difficult to establish and takes a longer time to complete compared to the other approaches. Three types of construct validity are recognized from the literature, which include convergent, discriminant and nomological validity (Malhotra, 2010:321). Bryman and Bell (2011:160) state that convergent validity is the degree to which the measuring instrument correlates with other measures, measuring the same construct. Discriminant validity occurs when the differences in the method used to measure and the trait are different from one another (Salkind, 2012:127). While nomological validity is found when the scale
correlates with a measure that is not similar, however, the constructs are interrelated, in theory (Malhotra, 2010:321).

Following the reliability and validity measurements of the measuring instruments, descriptive analysis were utilised to summarise the captured data. The descriptive analysis employed in this study is discussed next.

### 3.9.3 Descriptive analysis

Wilson and MacLean (2011:283) describe descriptive statistics as the representation of information in brief, for example characteristics that concern large collections of data. The summarised and organised data are then represented in the form of a graph or in a tabular presentation (Swanepoel et al., 2006:6). Statistical analysis is described as when a researcher measures the frequency with which an occurrence happens in addition to the link between two variables (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:59). Burns and Bush (2010:461) suggest that in marketing research, the numerical measurements mostly used to depict the frequencies are standard deviation, range, mode, median and mean. For the purpose of this study, measures of location, measures of variability and measures of shape (Malhotra, 2010:486) were the descriptive statistics utilised.

- **Measures of location**: Measures of location, also referred to as ‘measures of central tendency’, comprise statistical measures, namely arithmetic mean, the mode and the median (Kent, 2007:310). The mean is defined as the average score, that is, all the scores are added up then divided by the number of scores (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:286). Bryman and Bell (2011:344) describe the median as the score in the middle of the lowest and highest value, once the data have been rearranged in an orderly manner, starting from lowest to the highest. The mode is the value with the highest occurrence (Matthews & Ross, 2010:353). The measures of central tendency provide varied types of information and should be applied differently (Salkind, 2012:165). According to Malhotra (2010:486), the median is the most appropriate measure to use on an interval scale.

- **Measures of variability**: The measures of variability method include the range, standard deviation and the variance. According to Salkind (2012:166), measures of dispersion or variability are the extent to which the set of scores vary from certain measures of central tendency, mostly the mean. The range is calculated by
taking away the smallest value from the largest value in the sample (Burns & Bush, 2010:468). Malhotra (2010:487) states that variance is the computation of the mean square deviation of the summation of scores from the mean. Standard deviation indicates how widely spread the scores in the distribution are and measures how far it is from the mean value (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2010:105).

- **Measures of shape:** The measures of shape consist of the assessment of skewness and kurtosis. These measures are useful for understanding the characteristics of data distribution (Malhotra, 2010:488). The skewness of values suggest how symmetrically the distribution presents, while kurtosis provides information indicating how the distribution is peaked. Once the data has a completely normal distribution, the skewness and kurtosis score obtained is zero. When the score obtained is not a zero, the data could be skewed either positively or negatively. Positively skewed data indicates that the low data distribution is clustered towards the left side, while negatively skewed indicates that the data distribution is at the high end towards the right (Pallant, 2010:57).

Descriptive analysis was applied for the purpose of this study to ascertain whether the data was normally distributed and for identifying characteristics on the large data sets.

### 3.9.4 Tests of significance

Bryman and Bell (2011:353), state that significance is used to predict how assertive the results obtained from a specific study may also be found applicable to the entire population where the sample was drawn from. A hypothesis is referred to as research questions being transformed into statements, which expresses a relationship between variables (Salkind, 2012:7). A hypothesis is referred to as a statement made with respect to a particular population, which is subject to be proved or disproved by conducting an empirical study. Hypotheses testing consists of formulating the hypotheses, including formulating the null hypotheses (Ho) and the alternative hypothesis (Ha) (Albright et al., 2010:458). The null hypothesis implies that there is no difference in the means of the specific sample and that of the wider population, indicating no relationship. While the alternative hypothesis is the opposite of null hypothesis, they are mutually exclusive (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:330), indicating variance between different groups. For this study, five hypotheses, set at the conventional five percent levels were formulated. A discussion on the various statistical methods used to test these hypotheses follows.
3.9.4.1 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis is used when a researcher wants to describe the extent to which a variable affects another variable (Kent, 2007:363). For statistical measurement, there are various correlational research techniques available. However, the Pearson’s product-moment correlation ($r$) method is the most commonly used, and regarded as the most appropriate technique for the measurement of relationship between two variables (independent $(X)$ and dependent $(Y)$) (Salkind, 2012:204). The measurement ranges between -1.00 to +1.00. Correlations may reflect a positive or negative value. A positive correlation implies that as the value of a variable changes, the value of the second variable changes in a similar direction, while a negative correlation indicates that as the value of a variable changes to a direction the second variable changes to the opposite direction. However, a correlation value with zero indicates a non-existence relationship between the two variables (Pallant, 2010:128). In this research study, correlation analysis was applied to determine the relationship between peers, parents, the media and Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

3.9.4.2 Regression analysis

Regression analysis involves assessing the relationship of an independent variable with a dependent variable (Kleinbaum et al., 2007:36). Hence, it allows the researcher to measure precisely how the independent variable predicts the dependent variable (Allen, 2004:6). This statistical tool is used frequently where the researcher cannot control the independent variables during the research survey.

Bivariate analysis involves selecting two variables at a period and investigating if any pattern exists in a direction, which indicates that the values jointly occur. This statistical analysis allows the researcher to investigate the relationship relating to only two variables at an instance (Kent, 2007:298). In order to measure the concerning variables, the bivariate analysis was the regression method employed for the purpose of this study.

3.9.4.3 T-tests

A t-test is a useful technique for testing the differences between means (Malhotra, 2010:504). The objective of carrying out the t-test on these groups is to try to answer the research questions of how different the groups are, even though they have certain shared
characteristics. This is achieved by measuring the mean of the two groups against each other. Where the mean of the two groups are largely different, this indicates that the t-test is significant (Munro, 2005:195). Field (2011:256) identifies two types of t-tests, namely the independent-samples t-test and the paired-sample t-tests. The independent-sample t-test measures the possible variations between different participants, whereas the paired-sample t-tests involve determining the difference in the means drawn from the same sample twice obtained by two separate observations. In addition, paired-sample t-tests can be used when comparing a participant’s response to two separate questions (Pallant, 2010:239). For the purpose of this study, a two independent sample t-test was conducted.

3.9.4.4 Cohen’s D-statistic

Schlotzhauer (2007:168) describes practical significance as a statistical test, based on the researcher’s judgement and suggests that inference on a study should be based on both statistical and practical significance. Cohen’s D t-test is a statistic used in the measurement of effect size, that is, it is used for providing suggestion on any significant differences between the groups under study (Pallant, 2010:242). Gravetter and Wallnau (2009:262) add that effect size indicates the important function independent variables perform in drawing conclusions with scores on the dependent variable, and estimates the influence of the independent variable irrespective of the size of sample used. A higher effect size implies that the conditions are aligned more with the influence of the independent variable and enhances the accuracy in forecasting participants’ scores on the dependent variable (Jackson, 2009:137). Guidelines as suggested by Pallant (2010:208) for interpreting this effect size are as follows:

- $0.20 \leq d < 0.50$: signifies a small, practically non-significant effect
- $0.50 \leq d < 0.80$: signifies a medium-sized effect moving towards practical significance
- $0.80 \leq d$: signifies is a large effect that has reached practically significance.

3.8 SYNOPSIS

This chapter outlined the research methodology implemented for the empirical part of this research study. This includes the research design and approach used, sampling strategy,
the methods used for collecting data, pre-testing and administration of the questionnaire, the procedures involved in the preparation of data and statistical analysis.

The next chapter will report on the results of the empirical study. This is the outcome from the pilot and main study for this research. The results will be interpreted, and presented in discussions, and tabular forms. In addition, the results of the information emanating from the participants on their demographic characteristics, the descriptive analysis and tests of significance are addressed in Chapter 4. The results established in Chapter 4 will form part of the presentation of chapter 5, which includes drawing of conclusions and recommendations for this study.
CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reports on the analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings of the study’s pilot and main survey. Section 4.2 outlines the results that emanated from the pilot test. Section 4.3, provides a summary of the results obtained from the preliminary data analysis, which includes the coding and tabulation of the data. The demographical information of the participants, the reliability and validity of the scale, the confirmatory factor analysis of the scale, including the descriptive statistics are discussed in Section 4.4. In Section 4.5, the different inferential statistics utilised in this study are formulated, discussed and tested.

The data analysis was conducted using SPSS Version 21 for Microsoft Windows. The data analysis comprised two stages, namely first analysing the results of the pilot testing of the questionnaire, and secondly, analysing the results found within the main survey’s data sets. A discussion on the data analysis procedures involved in the pilot phase follows.

4.2 RESULTS OF THE PILOT TEST

The questionnaire used in this study was pre-tested before conducting the pilot study. Two experienced researchers and three academic staff members participated in the pre-testing of the questionnaire. The results obtained from the pre-test were used to refine the questionnaire. The refined questionnaire comprised 24 Likert-scaled items for the interpersonal influence scale, and ten rating-scaled items for the mass media and personal source influence scale. After completing the pre-test, the questionnaire was pilot tested to determine the reliability of the scale within the questionnaire. The questionnaire was piloted on a convenience sample of 50 students at a HEI that did not form part of the sampling frame of the main study. It should be noted that the reliability of the mass media and personal source influence scale were not computed as this is a rating scale. Table 4.1
represents the results pertaining to the reliability of the interpersonal influence scale found within the pilot test.

Table 4.1: Summary of the pilot testing results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha</th>
<th>Average inter-item correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scale B: Interpersonal influence scale</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td>0.163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct B1 – peers (normative/informative)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.816</td>
<td>0.318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct B2 – parents (normative/informative)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.805</td>
<td>0.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct B3 – media (normative/informative)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td>0.462</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pilot test was used to examine the reliability of the questionnaire before carrying out the main survey. A pilot test is carried out before administering the main survey questionnaire to the target sample, this is to avoid or eliminate ambiguity, and ensure consistency and reliability of the scale variables (Blumberg et al., 2008:458). The Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated to determine the reliability of the interpersonal influence scale. This six-point scale returned a Cronbach alpha value of 0.820 for the entire scale, and the Cronbach alphas of the constructs within this scale range from 0.805 to 0.820, which is above the recommended level of 0.7 (Pallant, 2010:97). All the average inter-item correlation values fell within the recommended range of 0.15 and 0.50 (Clark & Watson, 1995:316). Therefore, none of the items included in the interpersonal influence scale were changed, as this scale was found reliable. These 24 items, including the ten items from the mass media and personal source influence scale, were then used to prepare the main survey questionnaire (refer to Annexure A) which was administered to a larger sample size. An overview of the descriptions of these variables and constructs used is provided in Table 4.2.
Table 4.2: Description of variables and constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Construct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Scale B: Interpersonal influence scale**

**Peer-normative influence**

B1 I rarely buy the latest products until I am sure my friends approve of them.

B2 It is important that my friends approve of the store where I buy.

B3 I am very loyal to stores where my friends shop.

B4 If I want to be like my friends, I buy the brands they buy.

B5 I save to afford the things my friends buy.

B6 I achieve a sense of belonging by buying the same apparel my friends buy.

**Peer-informative influence**

B7 My friends frequently influence the choice of who I shop with.

B8 I regularly ask my friends regarding the latest fads and fashion.

B9 I usually talk to my friends about prices and quality before I buy.

B10 To make sure I buy the right product, I often watch my friends buy.

B11 My friends usually talk to me about apparel advertisements before I buy anything.

**Parent-normative influence**

B12 I usually follow my parents’ decisions by buying the same products and brands that they buy.

B13 My parents accompany me when I purchase.

B14 What, where, and which brands I buy are very much determined by my parents.

B15 I usually shop with my parents.
B16  My parents decide most of my shopping needs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Construct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Parent-informative influence</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B17</td>
<td>I seldom buy any new product until my parents and I have discussed it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B18</td>
<td>When I do not understand prices and quality, I consult my parents.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B19</td>
<td>I often discuss my purchase plans with my parents.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Media-normative influence</strong></td>
<td>Media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td>I mostly buy those products/brands that are advertised on TV, radio and magazines.</td>
<td>Construct B3 –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B21</td>
<td>Radio and TV advertisements determine my brand loyalties.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B22</td>
<td>I continue buying the same brands as long as my favourite celebrity endorses them.</td>
<td>Media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Media-informative influence</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B23</td>
<td>I usually consult the media to determine the best buys.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B24</td>
<td>I usually look at the apparel advertisements before I buy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Scale C: Mass media and personal source influence scale</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Television advertisements</td>
<td>Construct C1 –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>Newspaper advertisements</td>
<td>Mass media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>Magazine advertisements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>Celebrity advertisements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>Store catalogues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6</td>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Construct C2 –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7</td>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>Personal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8</td>
<td>Acquaintances</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9</td>
<td>Salespersons</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

Preliminary data analysis is described as a brief graphical and numerical representation of the data collected in the survey. Preliminary data analysis includes coding, editing, and representation of data in tabular format (Bajpai, 2011:204). The following three sections provide an overview of the coding, the data gathering process, and the tabulation employed in this study.

4.3.1 Coding

Coding is referred to as the process of classifying the data by assigning a numeric code or symbol to each of the responses for each question or item in the questionnaire (Wiid & Diggines, 2010:230). The questionnaire used in this study was divided into three sections. The first section, Section A, was used to gather data concerning the participant’s demographical data. Section B, comprised the 24 items regarding the participants perceived interpersonal influence of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) on their apparel purchasing intentions. Section C, comprised the 10 items regarding the participants perceptions of the influence of mass media and personal sources on their apparel purchasing intentions. Table 4.3 presents the variables and codes used in Section A, B and C of the final questionnaire.

Table 4.3: Coding information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Construct measured</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question 1</td>
<td>Institution</td>
<td>A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 2</td>
<td>Province of origin</td>
<td>A2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 3</td>
<td>Current year of study</td>
<td>A3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 4</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>A4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 5</td>
<td>Ethnic group</td>
<td>A5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 6</td>
<td>Mother tongue language</td>
<td>A6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 7</td>
<td>Age at last birthday</td>
<td>A7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 8</td>
<td>Average monthly apparel spending</td>
<td>A8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.3: Coding information (continued …)

Scale B: Interpersonal influence scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Construct measured</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>Peers (normative)</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>Peers (normative)</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3</td>
<td>Peers (normative)</td>
<td>B3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
<td>Peers (normative)</td>
<td>B4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
<td>Peers (normative)</td>
<td>B5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 6</td>
<td>Peers (normative)</td>
<td>B6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>Peers (normative)</td>
<td>B7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 8</td>
<td>Peers (informative)</td>
<td>B8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 9</td>
<td>Peers (informative)</td>
<td>B9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 10</td>
<td>Peers (informative)</td>
<td>B10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 11</td>
<td>Peers (informative)</td>
<td>B11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 12</td>
<td>Parents (normative)</td>
<td>B12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 13</td>
<td>Parents (normative)</td>
<td>B13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 14</td>
<td>Parents (normative)</td>
<td>B14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 15</td>
<td>Parents (normative)</td>
<td>B15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 16</td>
<td>Parents (normative)</td>
<td>B16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 17</td>
<td>Parents (informative)</td>
<td>B17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 18</td>
<td>Parents (informative)</td>
<td>B18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 19</td>
<td>Parents (informative)</td>
<td>B19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 20</td>
<td>Media (normative)</td>
<td>B20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 21</td>
<td>Media (normative)</td>
<td>B21</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 22</td>
<td>Media (normative)</td>
<td>B22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 23</td>
<td>Media (informative)</td>
<td>B23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 24</td>
<td>Media (informative)</td>
<td>B24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.3: Coding information (continued …)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale C: Mass media and personal source influence scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.2 Data gathering process

As stated in Chapter 3, once permission was obtained from lecturers to distribute the questionnaire, 500 self-administered questionnaires were hand-delivered to the lecturers at the two selected HEI campuses (250 questionnaires per HEI), who distributed the questionnaires to students, either during class time or after class. The final questionnaire comprised 43 items, grouped into three sections, as specified in Chapter 3. The first section, Section A, consisting of nine items, which measured the participants’ demographic data, and the second section, Section B, consisting of 24 items, which measured the perceived interpersonal influence of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) on the participants’ apparel purchasing intention. The last section, Section C, comprised 10 items, which measured the perceived mass media and personal source influences on the participants purchasing intentions. The final questionnaire used for the main study consisted of three pages. The first page included the cover letter, explaining the aim and purpose of the research study. Of the 500 questionnaires distributed to the participants, 472 completed questionnaires were deemed useable, which translates into a response rate of 94 percent. The following section provides an overview of the tabulation of the data obtained by this questionnaire.
4.3.3 Tabulation: all variables

After the data are coded, the next step is to tabulate the data. Table 4.4 represents the frequencies obtained from the total sample, for Section B of the questionnaire, which aimed at measuring the perceived interpersonal influence of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions.

Table 4.4: Frequency table of responses: interpersonal influence scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree somewhat</th>
<th>Agree somewhat</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B14</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B16</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B17</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B18</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B19</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B21</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B22</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B23</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B24</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.5 represents the frequencies obtained from the total sample for Section C of the questionnaire, which aimed at measuring the perceived mass media and personal source influences on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions.

Table 4.5: Frequency table of responses: mass media and personal source influence scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source:</th>
<th>Ranking least (1) influential to most (10) influential</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Television advertisements</td>
<td>75 31 45 73 87 37 38 31 18 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper advertisements</td>
<td>134 47 77 63 43 38 24 18 12 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine advertisements</td>
<td>61 16 38 39 64 46 43 69 37 56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celebrity endorsements</td>
<td>130 40 49 43 46 46 41 26 19 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Store catalogues</td>
<td>31 15 30 35 68 51 58 72 45 66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>118 48 46 53 54 34 49 32 13 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>129 73 59 45 55 42 32 22 6 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquaintances</td>
<td>119 52 77 68 70 35 21 18 5 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salespersons</td>
<td>113 53 52 48 53 42 46 34 14 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other customers (in the store)</td>
<td>172 46 35 49 57 32 23 29 13 13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next section, Section 4.4, reports on the descriptive statistics computed in this study.

4.4 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics are used to summarise and describe the samples’ characteristics in a graphical form or in a tabular presentation (Swanepoel et al., 2006:6). Statistical analysis is when a researcher measures the frequency with which an occurrence happens, in addition to the link between two variables (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:590). This section reports on the demographical information of the sample and on the reliability and
the validity of the scale. Furthermore, a discussion regarding the influence of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions are included.

4.4.1 Demographical information

Demographic data indicates socio-economic descriptors of the participants involved in the survey, which is referred to as the classification of information (Malhotra, 2010:350). The information obtained is presented by means of frequency tables, bar graphs and pie charts.

Section A of the questionnaire relates to the demographic information of the total sample, which refers to the participants:

- higher education institution
- province of origin
- year of study
- gender profile
- ethnic group profile
- mother tongue language
- age
- average monthly apparel spending
- monthly allowance.

Table 4.6 presents a summary of the distribution of the participants between the two institutions.
The total sample (N) of participants who participated in this study is one sample group made up of two HEIs. For a holistic representation, the aim of this study was to achieve an equal ratio of responses from the two HEIs. According to Table 4.6, it can be seen that 51.9 percent of the participants came from a university of technology and 48.1 percent from a traditional university.
Table 4.7: Province of origin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province of origin</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>51.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KwaZulu-Natal</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limpopo</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td><strong>472</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Figure 4.7, the majority of the participants originate from the Gauteng province, representing 51.9 percent of the sample. The Free State province represented 15.7 percent, the Limpopo province represented 12.9 percent, the North West province represented 5.9 percent and KwaZulu-Natal represented 3.8 percent. The Eastern Cape, the Northern Cape and the Western Cape represented 3.2, 0.6 and 0.4 percent of the sample, respectively. One participant failed to answer the questions, resulting in a missing 0.2 percent of the responses.

Table 4.8: Current year of study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Year</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Year</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Year</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8 presented the classification of information related to the participants’ current year of study. In order to ensure a representative sample, participants enrolled at different undergraduate levels (years 1-3) were included in the sample. The largest portion of the sample was students in the first year of study, with 38.3 percent, followed by the students...
in third year of study, representing 33.10 percent. The third largest portion of the sample is the second year students, representing 28.4 percent.

### Table 4.9: Gender profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency (f)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>40.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>58.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td>472</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.9 presents the demographical information pertaining to the participants’ gender. The majority of the participants were female, representing 58.10 percent, and 40.9 percent of the sample were male. Five participants did not answer the question relating to gender, thus representing 1.1 percent of the total sample.
Table 4.10: Ethnic group profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic Group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>89.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian/Asian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td><strong>472</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10 exemplifies the demographical information pertaining to the participants’ ethnic groups. The majority (89.4%) of the participants were Black African, followed by the participants being White, with a value of 8.5 percent. Furthermore, the participants who belonged to the last two ethnic groups, namely Coloured and Asian groups represented a small portion of this sample group, with values of 1.3 percent and 0.6 percent, respectively. One participant’s information is missing in this respect, indicating a 0.2 percent.
Table 4.11: Mother tongue language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IsiNdebele</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IsiXhosa</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IsiZulu</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sesotho sa Leboa</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sesotho</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setswana</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SiSwati</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tshivenda</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xitsonga</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.11 provides a summary of the responses obtained pertaining to the participants’ mother tongue language. The majority (28.6%) of the participants were Sesotho speaking, followed by IsiZulu speaking (15.9%), Setswana speaking (9.3%), Sesotho sa Leboa...
speaking (10.0%), Afrikaans speaking (8.3%), IsiXhosa speaking (6.8%) and Xitsonga speaking (6.1%). Of the remaining participants, 5.3 percent were English speaking, 4.0 percent SiSwati speaking, 3.4 percent Tshivenda speaking and 0.8 percent IsiNdebele speaking. Seven participants, representing 1.5 percent, failed to answer the question relating to mother tongue language.

Table 4.12: Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 years</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 years</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 years</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 years</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The demographical information relating to the participants’ age is presented in Table 4.12. In accordance with the topic of this study, the age of the participants were used as a
screening question to include only those participants between 18 and 24 years old who form part of the Generation Y student sample, as defined under the target population in Chapter 3 (refer to Section 3.4.1). As evident in Table 4.12 the majority of the participants indicated being 20 years of age (22.0%), closely followed by those who indicated being 19 years of age (20.3%), and 21 years of age (20.1%). Of the remaining participants, 14.4 percent were 22 years of age, 12.6 percent 18 years of age, 7.0 percent 23 years of age and 3.6 percent 24 years of age.

Table 4.13: Average monthly apparel spending

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than R300</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R301 – R600</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>32.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R601 – R1000</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than R1000</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td><strong>472</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With reference to the first empirical objective set out in Chapter 1 (refer to Section 1.3.3), Table 4.13 presents the sample’s average monthly apparel spending. The question was included to determine the participants’ apparel purchasing intentions. Furthermore, by determining the participants’ average monthly apparel spending, specific marketing
strategies can be developed for this target market. Table 4.13 indicates that the majority of the participants (32.0%) spend between R301 – R600 on apparel per month, 29.4 percent of the participants indicated spending less than R300 on apparel per month, 23.1 percent spend between R601 – R1000, followed by 14.8 percent spending more than R1000 on apparel purchases. Lastly, 0.6% of the participants did not answer this question, which represents the missing category.

Table 4.14: Monthly allowances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monthly Allowance</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than R300</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R301 – R600</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R601 – R1000</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than R1000</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.14 presented the demographic information related to participants’ monthly allowances received. Once again, this question was included to determine the participants’ apparel purchasing power. Furthermore, by determining the participants’ monthly purchasing power, specific marketing strategies can be developed for this target market. Table 4.14 indicates that the majority of the participants (31.8%) receive a monthly allowance between R601 – R1000, closely followed by those participants (31.4%) receiving a monthly allowance of between R301 – R600. The second last
category, representing 25.6 percent of the total sample indicated receiving a monthly allowance of more than R1000. Lastly, 11.2 percent of the participants indicated receiving a monthly allowance of less than R300. Owing to the entire sample answering this question, no missing value was recorded.

In the section above, the demographical information regarding the total sample included in this study was discussed. The following section provides a discussion on the results of the reliability and validity of the questionnaire employed for the main study.

### 4.4.2 Reliability and validity of the scale

The validity of a scale is determined to ensure that the measurement scale measures what it is intended to measure (Wilson & MacLean, 2011:73). While, the reliability measures are conducted to determine if the scale generates consistent results (Burns & Bush, 2010:319). In order to ensure reliability and validity of the research instrument, this section reports on the outcome of the Cronbach alphas and average inter-item correlations of the scale in Section B of the research instrument utilised in this study. The reliability of the scale in Section C of the research instrument, namely the mass media and personal source influence scale were not computed, as this is a rating scale. Table 4.15 provides a summary of the reliability and the validity analysis of the scale in Section B of the research instrument used in this study.

**Table 4.15: Reliability and validity measures of the scales in the main study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha</th>
<th>Average inter-item correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scale B: Interpersonal influence scale</strong></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.879</td>
<td>0.240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct B1 – peers (normative/informative)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td>0.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct B2 – parents (normative/informative)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct B3 – media (normative/informative)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td>0.502</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 4.15, the scale for Section B pertaining to the interpersonal influence of socialisation agents on apparel purchasing intentions returned a Cronbach alpha value of 0.879 for the entire scale. Construct 1, pertaining to the influence of peers, returned a Cronbach alpha value of 0.871, Construct 2, pertaining to the influence of parents
returned a value of 0.859 and Construct 3, pertaining to the influence of the media, returned a Cronbach alpha value of 0.846. As all of these values exceeded the acceptable level of 0.6 (Malhotra, 2010:319), this scale is deemed reliable.

Additionally, the inter-item correlation was computed in order to establish construct validity. As shown in Table 4.15, an inter-item correlation value of 0.240 was computed for the entire scale, which is within the recommended range of 0.15 and 0.50 (Clark & Watson, 1995:316). The average inter-item correlation values of 0.393, 0.438 and 0.502 were computed for Construct 1, 2 and 3, respectively. Despite the fact that one of these constructs slightly fell outside the inter-item range, it was decided to continue with the study, since the constructs have proven to be reliable, and the overall scale have proven to be reliable and valid. This infers that this scale measures the students’ perceived interpersonal influence of socialisation agents on apparel purchasing intentions.

In addition to conducting a reliability and validity analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the perceived interpersonal influence of socialisation agents on apparel purchasing intentions, which is discussed in the following section.

**4.4.3 Confirmatory factor analysis**

Factor analysis helps the researcher to examine the interrelationship between variables that is expected to measure the constructs, as well as reducing a large set of variables to a smaller manageable set (Pett et al., 2003:3). Confirmatory factor analysis were used on the data set to determine whether the 24 items used within the interpersonal influence scale produced the proposed constructs, and to identify whether the variables loaded on the intended constructs. Principle component factor analysis using the varimax rotation was conducted on the 24 variables in the interpersonal influence scale in order to determine if the items in the scale loaded the same factors in the South African sample as those loaded in the Mascarenhas and Higby (2003:54) study.

From the interpersonal influence scale, as with the original Mascarenhas and Higby (2003) study, three factors emerged with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. These three factors explained 51.908 percent of the total variance. As is evident from Table 4.16, the items in Construct 1 (B1-B11), Construct 2 (B12-B19) and Construct 3 (B20-B24) loaded as expected on Factor 1, Factor 2 and Factor 3, respectively.
Table 4.16: Confirmatory factor analysis results: socialisation agents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>0.665</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>0.722</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>0.694</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td>0.633</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8</td>
<td>0.441</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9</td>
<td>0.384</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.573</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B14</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.801</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B16</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.751</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B17</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.699</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B18</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.621</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B19</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.798</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 4.16, the 11 items pertaining to the influence of peers on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions loaded on Factor 1. The eight items pertaining to the influence of parents on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions loaded on Factor 2.
intentions loaded on Factor 2, and the five items pertaining to the influence of the media on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions loaded on Factor 3.

The following section, Section 4.4.4, presents the descriptive statistics of the data.

4.4.4 Descriptive statistics

Measures of location, variability and shape were calculated across all the Likert-scaled items. The numerical presentation of the questionnaires that were completed is shown as the Valid N in the table below. Given the six-point Likert scale used ranged from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree, higher mean values are associated with greater agreement levels, indicating less perceived influence and lower mean values are associated with greater disagreement levels to the statements, indicating more perceived influence. The descriptive statistics relating to the total sample considered in the questionnaire for the main survey of this study are shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Descriptive statistics: total sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Valid N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scale B: Interpersonal influence scale</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct B1: Q1-11</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>2.114</td>
<td>0.8644</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td>0.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct B2: Q12-16</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>2.599</td>
<td>1.1092</td>
<td>0.493</td>
<td>-0.388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct B3: Q20-24</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>2.861</td>
<td>1.1988</td>
<td>0.260</td>
<td>-0.751</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from Table 4.17, means below three were computed on all of the constructs in the interpersonal influence scale. The mean values of the three constructs are presented from the construct with lowest mean value to the highest. Consequently, Construct 1 (peers) indicates the lowest mean value of 2.11, followed by Construct 2 (parents) with a mean value of 2.59 and Construct 3 (media) with the highest mean value of 2.86 computed. This suggests that the participants perceive the media (Construct 3) (mean = 2.861) to having the most perceived influence on their apparel purchasing intentions, followed by their parents (Construct 2) (mean = 2.599) and then their friends (Construct 1) (mean = 2.144). Furthermore, the participants’ perceive their parents (Construct 2) as having a higher influence on their apparel purchasing intentions.
compared to the influence of their peers (Construct 1). Lastly, the participants perceive their peers (Construct 1) having the least amount of influence on their apparel purchasing intentions, in relation to the other two socialisation agents, namely the media and their parents.

The standard deviation indicates how widely spread the scores in the distribution are and measures how far it is from the mean value (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2010:105). The highest standard deviation, indicating more dispersion of agreement amongst participants, was computed for the influence of peers (Construct 1) (Std. Dev. = 1.1988), followed by the influence of parents (Construct 2) (Std. Dev. = 1.1092). The lowest standard deviation, indicating less dispersion of agreement amongst the participants, was recorded for the influence of the media (Construct 1) (Std. Dev. = 0.8644).

The skewness and kurtosis was considered to determine whether there are any reasons to believe that the normality assumptions are violated. Skewness value signifies the symmetry of distribution, where the values are positively skewed it implies a positive skew symmetry of distribution, and where the values are negatively skewed, the implication is that a negative skew symmetry of distribution exist. A kurtosis calculation presents information in relation to the peakedness of the distribution, where the values are of a positive kurtosis (value > 0) the distribution is peaked, moreover a negative kurtosis value (value < 0) indicates a distribution that is flat (Pallant, 2010:57). As can be seen from Table 4.16, the scale may be classified as normally distributed, since none of the skewness scores fall outside the -2 or +2 range (Norman & Streiner, 2007:26). Regarding the peakedness of the data distribution, the kurtosis values indicate a relatively flat distribution.

4.4.5 Participants’ perceptions towards peers influence

In this section, the participants’ perceptions towards the normative and informative influence of socialisation agents, namely peers, parents and the media, on apparel purchasing intentions are discussed. Normative influence refers to an individual’s acceptance of a specific group’s acceptable norms and expectations (Blythe, 2008:217; Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993:53). In terms of marketing, informative influence refers to an inclination to learn about products and brands by observing and seeking information from other individuals (Singh, 2003:870).
According to the data summarised in Figure 4.1, the majority of the participants disagreed to peers having an informative and normative influence on their apparel purchasing intention. Furthermore, the participants' perceptions towards peers having a normative influence on their apparel purchasing behaviour is perceived to be relatively more negative than having an informative influence. This implies that participants’ do not perceive that peers’ informative or normative influences affect their apparel purchasing intentions. The participants’ perceptions towards peers influencing their apparel purchasing intentions rated the lowest.

4.4.6 Participants’ perceptions towards parents influence

As is evident from the data summarised in Figure 4.2, the majority of the participants disagree to their parents having an informative and normative influence on their apparel
purchasing intention. Furthermore, the participants perceptions towards their parents having a normative influence on their apparel purchasing behaviour is perceived to be slightly more negative than having an informative influence. Participants’ perceptions towards their parents influencing their apparel purchasing intentions rated the second highest.

4.4.7 Participants’ perceptions towards media influence

![Bar chart showing participants' perceptions towards media influence]

**Figure 4.3: Construct 3: media influence**

As is evident from the data summarised in Figure 4.3, the majority of the participants disagreed to the media having an informative and normative influence on their apparel purchasing intention. Furthermore, the participants’ perceptions towards the media having a normative influence on their apparel purchasing behaviour is perceived to be slightly more negative than having an informative influence. Participants’ perceptions towards their parents influencing their apparel purchasing intentions rated the highest.

4.4.8 Mass media and personal source influences on participants

In this section, the participants’ perceptions towards the mass media and personal source influences on their apparel purchasing intentions are discussed.
Figure 4.4: Summary of participants’ perceptions towards mass media and personal source influences

With reference to the fourth empirical objective, indicated in Chapter 1 (refer to Section 1.3.3), mass media were perceived as more important than personal source influences on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions. Figure 4.4 represents the mean values from the responses of the participants on what factors influence them the most when shopping for apparel. The above figure illustrates that information from store catalogues influences Generation Y students’ intentions to purchase apparel the most, reflecting a mean value of 6.34, while information from acquaintances represent the least influence with a mean value of 3.54. Figure 4.4, indicates that Generation Y students perceives information from mass media more important, when purchasing apparel, than information from personal sources.

The descriptive statistics have been outlined in this section in order to determine whether the data were distributed normally. A discussion relating to the reliability and validity of the research instrument and the students perceptions towards the influence of socialisation agents on apparel spending was also included. The next section will relate to the hypotheses testing conducted in this study.
4.5 HYPOTHESES TESTING

A hypothesis is a statement made by the researcher regarding a particular problem regarding a specific population, to be tested by an empirical study and then be accepted or rejected (Salkind, 2012:8). In order to achieve the empirical objectives and test the hypotheses set out in Chapter 1, comparative analysis, was employed in the form of correlation analysis, regression analysis and two independent sample t-tests, for the purpose of this study. The purpose of undertaking a comparative analysis was to determine the degree of difference, or no difference, on the participants’ perceptions of the influence of socialisation agents on their apparel spending. According to Pallant (2010:242), significance tests are indicated by a significance level set at the 5 percent level; that is $\alpha = 0.05$. The decision rule applied, as suggested by Pallant (2007:235), is as follows:

- If $P$-value > $\alpha$, then conclude $H_0$
- If $P$-value $\leq$ $\alpha$, then conclude $H_a$

Additionally, in order to determine the statistically significant difference between means, Cohen’s D statistic was calculated to examine whether the difference is practically significant, by estimating the effect size. Guidelines by Pallant (2007:208), for evaluating this effect size, are as follows:

- $0.20 \leq d < 0.50$ – small effect, practically non-significant
- $0.50 \leq d < 0.80$ – medium effect, points towards being practical significant
- $0.80 \leq d$ – large effect and the results are practically significant.

In the following section, Generation Y students’ perceptions towards interpersonal influences of socialisation agents on their apparel spending are considered. The next section will relate to the correlations analyses between the three constructs in this study.

4.5.1 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis describes the relationship, which exists between two or more variables (Salkind, 2010:202). It is used mainly for exploring the effect of one variable on another. Correlation analysis was undertaken to address the second empirical objective formulated in Chapter 1. Correlation analysis was carried out to identify the strength of
the relationships between the three constructs; therefore, Pearson’s product-moment correlation was computed.

The hypothesis was formulated as follows:

**$H_0_1$:** There is no significant correlation between, peers, parents, the media and Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

**$H_a_1$:** There is significant correlation between, peers, parents, the media and Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

Table 4.18 reports on the results of the correlation analysis.

**Table 4.18: Relationship between peers, parents and the media**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Peers</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Media</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peers</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>-0.122**</td>
<td>-0.100**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.421**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Marked correlation significant at 0.05

Table 4.18 shows that the relationship between the constructs exists, implying that a relationship can be found between the constructs. A positive linear relationship is found when the correlations between two constructs is above 0.00, while if the correlations is below 0.00, a negative correlation is found (Udayashankara, 2010:74). Hence, a positive relationship is found between the parents and the media constructs, as the value is above 0.00 (value > 0.00), while negative correlation is found between the peers (Construct 1) and parents (Construct 2), and between the peers (Construct 1), and the media (Construct 3) construct, as both values are below 0.00 (value < 0.00). Therefore, the null hypothesis $H_0_1$ is rejected, and the alternative $H_a_1$ is concluded. The correlation value, which is calculated, depicts the strength of the correlation with each construct, that is, small, which is represented by a value between 0.10 and 0.29, medium, which ranges between 0.30 and 0.49 and large, which is represented with a value between 0.50 and 1.0 (Pallant, 2010:134). In addition, the strength of the correlation of a similar range but carrying a negative sign is the same, only in a different direction. Consequently, the correlation values of the parents (Construct 2) and the media (Construct 3) are between 0.30 and...
0.49; hence, a medium strength in the relationship can be found; however, the peers (Construct 1) and the parents (Construct 2), as well as the peers (Construct 1) and the media (Construct 3), show a small relationship strength as the values fall within the range of 0.10 to 0.29. As such, the largest relationship strength calculated in this study is between the parents (Construct 2) and the media (Construct 3). This suggests that the more Generation Y students perceive themselves to be influenced by their peers, the less they perceive themselves to be influenced by their parents.

4.5.2 Regression analysis

Regression analysis was undertaken to determine whether peers, parents and the media influence Generation Y students apparel spending. The hypotheses were formulated as follows:

$Ho_2$: Peers do not have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

$Ha_2$: Peers do have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

$Ho_3$: Parents do not have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

$Ha_3$: Parents do have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

$Ho_4$: The media do not have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

$Ha_4$: The media do have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

Table 4.19 presents the results of the regression analysis.
Table 4.19: Influence of peers, parents and the media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable:</th>
<th>Standardised Beta</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influence of peers</td>
<td>-.006</td>
<td>.185</td>
<td>.853</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence of parents</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>.868</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence of media</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.876</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent variable:

Monthly apparel spending

*Significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.19 indicates a p-value of p=0.800>0.05 was calculated on whether peers, parents and the media influence Generation Y students apparel spending. Therefore, there is insufficient evidence to reject Ho2, Ho3 and Ho4. This suggests that peers, parents and the media do not have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ apparel spending.

The following section considers gender differences in Generation Y students’ perceptions of interpersonal influences of socialisation agents on apparel spending.

4.5.3 Independent sample t-test

For the purpose of addressing the fourth empirical objective of this study, formulated in Chapter 1 (refer to Section 1.3.3), two independent sample t-tests were utilised to determine if there were any significant gender differences concerning Generation Y students’ perceptions of interpersonal influences of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media) on apparel spending. The hypothesis was formulated as follows:

Ho5: There is no difference between male and female Generation Y students’ perceptions towards the influence of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media), on their apparel spending.

Ha5: There is a difference between male and female Generation Y students’ perceptions towards the influence of socialisation agents (peers, parents and the media), on their apparel spending.
Table 4.20: Gender difference on interpersonal influence perceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Male Mean (N=193)</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Female Mean (N=274)</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Cohen’s D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>0.965</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>0.772</td>
<td>3.664</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
<td>0.311**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>0.982</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.164</td>
<td>-4.414</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
<td>0.468**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.224</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.179</td>
<td>0.579</td>
<td>0.563</td>
<td>0.049</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Statistically significant at p < 0.05  
** Small effect, practically non-significant  
*** Medium effect and moving toward practical significance  
**** Large effect, practically significant  
***** Cohen’s D-statistic not calculated as the variable was not statistically significant

The participants that did not provide an answer to the demographic question relating to gender were excluded when conducting the two independent sample t-test. Table 4.20 indicates a p-value of p=0.000<0.05 was calculated on the constructs between male and female Generation Y students’ perceived interpersonal influences of socialisation agents on apparel spending. Therefore, for these constructs the null hypotheses, $H_{05}$, is rejected and the alternative, $H_{a5}$, is concluded. This suggests that gender does have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ perceived interpersonal influences. Male and female Generation Y students’ appear to have statistically significant different perceptions on interpersonal influences of socialisation agents on apparel spending. The male participants perceived the peer influence to be more important while females perceived the parent influence to be more important. There was no significant difference between males and females concerning the importance of the media influence on apparel purchasing.

Cohen’s D calculations were computed for determining the practically significant influences found between male and female South African Generation Y students’ perceived interpersonal influences of socialisation agents on apparel spending. These results are presented in Table 4.20. The Cohen D value computed for the perceived interpersonal influence of socialisation agents on apparel spending was 0.311 for peers and 0.468 for parents, indicating medium practical effect.
4.6 SYNOPSIS

This chapter presented findings which emanated from the study carried out on the perceived influence of socialisation agents on Generation Y student’s apparel spending. In Section 4.2 results from the pilot survey of this research study are presented. The presentation provides an analysis on the reliability and validity of the results. A preliminary data analysis was presented in Section 4.3 in the form of coding and tabulation. The next section, which is Section 4.4, graphically presents the results obtained from the demographic information of participants on the final survey questionnaire. The section also highlighted the reliability and validity of results obtained from the main survey questionnaire, including descriptive statistics.

Section 4.5, indicated the hypotheses testing for the study, to examine the relationship of the three constructs (stated in Chapter 1), to ascertain if there were any correlations on the three constructs used within the research study. These constructs are peers, parents and the media. Correlation analysis and regression analysis were employed in order to test the hypotheses formulated in Chapter 1 of this study, whether any statistically significant differences can be found between the students’ perceived interpersonal influence of peers, parents and the media on apparel spending between male and female participants.

The concluding chapter is structured to provide an overview of this research study, limitations, recommendations and suggestions for further research and conclusions inferred from this research study.
CHAPTER 5

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The Generation Y consumers are an important target market that cannot be ignored by marketers. Owing to organisations continuously competing for customer’s approval and resources, marketing efforts need to stay abreast to remain competitive in the volatile business environment. Members of the Generation Y cohort have been referred to as the millennium generation and demonstrate character traits, which are synonymous with the changes in time, which result in marketers and retailers rethinking strategies to satisfy this consumer group, as detailed in Section 1.1. Understanding how consumers behave (Section 2.2.1), as well as the process of decision-making (Section 2.2.3), is critical to marketers. The variables which influence consumer decision-making were examined in Section 2.3, in the bid to understand the target market. In addition, (Section 2.4) focused on consumer socialisation, which is the bedrock of this study, by analysing (Section 2.4.2) the institutions that help transmit buying behaviour. Symbolic consumption is examined in Section 2.5; this is to further gain clarity into why some consumers seek out specific products. As the Generation Y cohort is not persuaded easily by conventional marketing practices, then it is important that marketers and retailers understand how they behave in the market place, as well as what influences their purchasing intentions (Chapter 2). It is also important for marketers and retailers to possess ample knowledge of the characteristics of the Generation Y consumer group (Section 2.6.2), in order to effectively reach and satisfy this cohort.

As such, the primary objective for this research study, as stated in Chapter 1, was formulated as:

Determine the interpersonal influence of socialisation agents on Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing intentions, in order to model the formation of marketing strategies for effectively targeting this market.
This primary objective was then disaggregated into four theoretical objectives (Section 1.3.2) and four empirical objectives (Section 1.3.3).

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the study (Section 5.2), as well as the main findings (Section 5.3) on which recommendations (Section 5.4) are based. The chapter comprises contributions made by the study (Section 5.5) and outlines the limitations and future research opportunities (Section 5.6). The chapter ends with concluding remarks in (Section 5.7).

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The information gathered and presented in the previous chapters (1 – 4) are necessary to provide an unbiased recommendation for this research study. A review of the primary objective of the study is presented in Section 5.2.1, next the theoretical objectives are reviewed in Section 5.2.2 and in Section 5.2.3, the empirical objectives are reviewed.

5.2.1 Primary objective

In Chapter 1 the study is introduced (Section 1.1) and a summary of the problem statement is provided (Section 1.2), accentuating the need for conducting this study and explaining why Generation Y students were specifically used. The primary objective of the study, together with the theoretical and empirical objectives, is set out in Section 1.3 and the hypotheses formulated in Section 1.4. The proposed research design and methodology of the study (Section 1.5) are reviewed, and the ethical considerations (Section 1.6) are described.

5.2.2 Theoretical objectives

Chapter 2 comprises the literature review, as guided by the theoretical objectives. This chapter includes a definition of consumer behaviour (Section 2.2.1), the consumer decision-making process (Section 2.2.2), as well as consumer decision-making process models (Section 2.2.3), variables influencing consumer buying behaviour, which are demographics (Section 2.3.1), sociocultural influences (2.3.2), as well psychological variables (Section 2.3.3). Socialisation is defined (Section 2.4.1), including various socialisation influences, family influence (Section 2.4.1.1), interpersonal influences (Section 2.4.1.2), and the importance of consumer socialisation (Section 2.4). A description of symbolic consumption is provided (Section 2.5). Finally, the Generation Y
cohort as a market sector (Section 2.6), which is the target market of this research study, was discussed.

5.2.3 Empirical objectives

The research methodology employed in this research study was discussed in Chapter 3, including a discussion of the research design (Section 3.2), the research approach (Section 3.3), how the sampling strategy was developed (Section 3.4), the method of data collection (Section 3.5), and pre-testing of the questionnaire (Section 3.6). In addition, a discussion of the administration of the questionnaire (Section 3.7), preliminary data analysis (Section 3.8) and the discussion of statistical analyses (Section 3.9) were included.

Chapter 4 reports on the analysis and interpretation of the empirical portion of the study, in accordance with the empirical objectives formulated for this study.

5.3 MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The main findings of this study as it relates to the empirical objectives formulated in Chapter 1 are as follows:

5.3.1 Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending

The first empirical objective, set out in Chapter 1, was to determine the Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending. As presented in Table 4.13, the majority of students spend between R301 – R600 on apparel, per month. This outcome is contradictory to the findings from the study done by Noordwyk (2007), where it was stated that Generation Y consumers spends an average of R600 or more on apparel per month. However, this study’s finding supports Halstead (2006), indicating that students, on average, spend in the range of between US$0 and US$50, on apparel. This category of spending in today’s Rand/Dollar exchange rate, is approximately between R301 and R600, as stipulated in the research instrument used for this study.
5.3.2 Relationship between peers, parents, and the media and Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending

The next empirical objective, stated in Chapter 1, was to determine the relationship between peers, parents and the media and the Generation Y monthly apparel spending. A correlation analysis was carried out to investigate if there is an existence of a relationship between the three constructs and Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending. As indicated in Table 4.18, a relationship between the constructs exists, suggesting that a relationship can be found between the three constructs. In addition, as stated in Section 4.5.1, the finding further suggest that the more Generation Y students perceive themselves to be influenced by their peers, the less they perceive themselves to be influenced by their parents. This outcome supports the findings from the study done by Halsted (2006).

5.3.3 Influence of peers, parents, and the media on Generation Y students’ monthly apparel spending

The third empirical objective, set out in Chapter 1, was to determine the perceived influence of peers, parents and the media on Generation Y students apparel spending. As indicated in Figure 4.1, the majority of the students disagreed that peers influence their apparel spending (Section 4.4.5). This is consistent with the study carried out by Halstead (2006), and in contrast to previous studies carried out by Moschis and Churchill (1978), Piacentini and Mailer (2004:260), and Moschis and Moore (1979:110).

As presented in Figure 4.2, the majority of students did not perceive their parents as influencing their apparel spending (Section 4.4.6). This outcome is contradictory to the findings from the study done by Mascarenhas and Higby (1993), which stated that parents influence Generation Y purchasing intentions. In Figure 4.3 it was found that students’ perceptions towards media influences on apparel spending (Section 4.4.7), were relatively low, indicating a “strongly disagreed” opinion to media influence. This is contrary to previous findings from Mascarenhas and Higby (1993) and Badaoui et al. (2012), who found that media have strong influences on Generation Y apparel spending.

A regression analysis was conducted to investigate if there is a difference between students’ perceptions towards the influence of peers, parents and media towards apparel
spending; for the three socialisation agents, three hypotheses were formulated. Hypotheses Ho2 and Ha2 were formulated to ascertain if there was a statistically significant difference between the participants’ perceptions towards the influence of peers on apparel spending. Hypotheses Ho3 and Ha3 were formulated to establish if there was a statistically significant difference between participants’ perceptions towards the influence of parents on apparel spending. Hypothesis Ho4 and Ha4 were formulated to establish if there was a statistically significant difference between the participants’ perceptions towards the influence of parents on apparel spending. As illustrated in Table 4.19, Generation Y students perceive their peers, parents and the media have no statistically significant influence on their apparel spending (Section 4.5.2).

5.3.4 Influence of gender on Generation Y students’ perceptions towards the influence of peers, parents and the media, on their apparel spending.

The last empirical objective formulated in Chapter 1, aimed at determining whether there is a difference between the perceptions of male and female students towards the influence of peers, parents and on their apparel spending. A two independent sample t-test was used to investigate this objective. As presented in Table 4.20, it shows that differences in gender do have a significant influence on Generation Y students’ perceived interpersonal influences. Male and female Generation Y students’ appear to have statistically significant different perceptions on interpersonal influences of socialisation agents on apparel purchasing intentions.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations suggested are based on the contributions drawn from previous chapters that are the literature review on consumer behaviour, consumer socialisation and the characteristics of Generation Y consumers (Chapter 2) as well as the statistical analysis of the responses obtained from the students. The findings of this study, discussed in Chapter 4, indicated that the majority of the students perceive their peers, parents and the media as not influencing their apparel spending. As a result of the responses on statistical analysis from this study, the recommendations provided, pertaining to the influence of the three socialisation agents (peers, parents and media), should be
considered by retailers and marketing in order to reach and satisfy the members of Generation Y.

### 5.4.1 Peer influence

From the statistical analysis carried out in this study, it shows that peers do not statistically significantly influence students’ apparel spending. However, further investigations reveal that there are significant differences between genders towards the influence of peers. The implication is that the way peers influence male consumers is different from how female consumers are influenced in apparel purchasing intentions. This challenges the findings of Churchill and Moschis (1979:31) that peers’ influence on consumers is not significantly different with respect to the different genders. It is recommended that retailers or marketers should provide apparel products, which are clearly gender specific through distribution channels that facilitate peer affiliations. The objective is to increase the reach of Generation Y students, to induce specific buying behaviour. Marketers and retailers should maximise the use of store catalogues, which are gender-specific, to advertise apparel products.

### 5.4.2 Parent influence

The statistical results from this study indicate that parents do not statistically significantly influence Generation Y students’ apparel purchasing decisions. However, the results reveal that a statistically significant difference occurs between the different male and female participants. This is consistent with findings from Mascarenhas and Higby (1993:56), stating parents’ influence on consumers is different among male and females. This implies that the influence parents have on male students is different from that of female Generation Y students. Practically this may be due to how different genders perceive sex-roles and consumption decision making. This assumption is supported by findings from Moschis and Moore (1979:107). If retailers and marketers are to reach Generation Y consumers effectively through the influence of parents, marketing campaigns and advertising of specific products with gender identity should be used.

### 5.4.3 The media influence

The statistical analysis from this study found that the media influence has no statistically significant evidence on apparel purchasing intentions of Generation Y students. However,
statistically significant differences occur among the students between male and female genders. The investigation found that there are no differences with the influence of media on either male or female participants. This is consistent with the findings from the study carried out by Mascarenhas and Higby (1993:56). It is recommended that marketers target the Generation Y cohort using both normative and informative messages.

5.5 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The apparel marketing industry is a consumer-driven sector. The drive for competitiveness and an increase in market share holding is of importance to organisational relevance. This is especially necessary with the recent economic uncertainty in the global market. As a result, it is of importance that marketers embark on research activities to continuously review strategies towards sustaining target consumers, attracting potential consumers and remaining competitive.

Marketing communications through various advertising channels are effective tools to reach consumers, and especially Generation Y students. As discussed in Section 2.6.2, Generation Y consumers are increasingly becoming too relevant to be ignored by marketers and retailers. Resulting from this study’s finding in Figure 4.4, store catalogues and magazines are ranked as the highest and second highest influential information source for apparel purchase (Section 4.4.8). Organisations, in consideration with this research finding, should identify specific target markets and effectively utilise the right communication tools to reach the target consumer, in order to achieve business objectives.

The findings from this research study provide clarity into the understanding of South African Generation Y students’ perceptions towards the influence of socialisation agents towards apparel purchasing intentions. The outcomes from this study have important marketing implications for retailers and marketers involved in designing and implementing marketing strategies. The marketing strategies designed may be channel towards efforts to reach and attract current Generation Y students, or planning strategies in the future in order to attract prospective South African Generation Y consumers. A major contribution of this study is that manufacturers and retailers can increase their market share using strategies to attract the Generation Y students, and elicit specific buying behaviour. The suggested recommendations from the statistical results in this
study, on students’ perceptions towards socialisation agents influence on apparel purchasing intentions, can provide directions to retailers and marketers on how to effectively achieve the organisational marketing objectives.

5.6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

The statistical method used for this study is quantitative research approach. The statistical results provide the assessor with a view of the students’ perceptions towards the influence of socialisation agents (peers/parents/media) on apparel purchasing intentions. This study did not examine Generation Y students’ perceptions towards specific apparel types such as formal or casual. In addition, this study only focused on general apparel and did not consider branded apparel. Furthermore, a qualitative research method could be carried out to determine the reasons for students’ specific perceptions towards the influence of socialisation agents. However, this study only investigated three socialisation agents, to measure Generation Y students’ perceptions towards apparel purchasing intentions, there are other socialisation agents that need to be measured such as the Internet, the university and retailers.

This research study was conducted only on current full-time students. Part-time students could have been included in the study for comparing perceptions towards socialisation agents. Students who are not studying full time are assumed older, and are earning an income, so an investigation could provide relevant research information. In addition, within the Generation Y cohorts, only members from ages between 18 and 24 years were examined. This implies that younger or older Generation Y students were excluded from this study, limiting the chance of measuring consumers’ perceptions towards socialisation agents.

The sample used for this study were only two HEIs, moreover both HEIs were located in the same provincial area within South Africa. This research study could have included other HEIs, from other provincial areas in South Africa. In addition, a comparison of students’ perceptions to cultural influence across the various provincial areas in South African could have been investigated. This study was conducted on only South African Generation Y students; it could have included non-South African students for the purpose of comparison.
5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Socialisation agents are regarded as interpersonal relationships that have a direct influence on consumer buying behaviour and the possibility to convince consumers to purchase products. This is as a result of the frequency in communication and affiliations. Consequently, when consumers seek product information, the likelihood is that agents of socialisation (peers/parents/media) are their foremost source. This has positioned agents of socialisation as key influencing factors in the marketing and retailing sectors. Thus, this influence cannot be underestimated in its role in consumer-buying behaviour. The process of understanding different target consumers, involves the investigation of what or who influences a purchase decision. This is to effectively reach and satisfy the product needs in the target market.

The Generation Y consumers are different from other generational consumers and have been described as influential in the market place. Hence, marketers and retailers should strive to maintain and expand the organisational market share by implementing effective marketing strategies.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


ANNEXURE A

QUESTIONNAIRE
INFLUENCE OF SOCIALISATION AGENTS ON GENERATION Y STUDENTS’ APPAREL PURCHASING INTENTIONS

I am conducting a research project, under the supervision of Dr N. De Klerk, as part of the requirements for completing my M.Com in Marketing Management in the School of Economic Sciences at North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus).

The purpose of this research project is to examine the influence of socialisation agents on Generation Y Students’ apparel (i.e. clothing, shoes, jewellery and cosmetics) purchasing intention.

You could please assist me by completing the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire is user-friendly and should take approximately 10 minutes to complete. All responses are anonymous and the results will only be used for research purposes, outlined in the form of statistical data.

Your assistance and contribution is highly appreciated.

Efe Jide-Akinwale (efea@mgi.ac.za)
School of Economic Sciences & IT
Department of Marketing & Business Management
North West University (Vaal Campus)
**SECTION A: Demographic information**
Please mark the appropriate block using a cross (X)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A1</th>
<th>Name of your institution:</th>
<th>North-West University</th>
<th>Vaal University of Technology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>Province of origin:</td>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>Free State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>North West</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>Current year of study:</td>
<td>1st year</td>
<td>2nd year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>Gender:</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>Ethnic group:</td>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>Coloured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other (Please specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>Please indicate your mother tongue language:</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IsiNdebele</td>
<td>IsiXhosa</td>
<td>IsiZulu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Setswana</td>
<td>SiSwati</td>
<td>Tshivenda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>Age at last birthday:</td>
<td>˂18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>How much do you spend on average per month on apparel?</td>
<td>Less than R300</td>
<td>R301 – R600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>How much allowance do you receive per month?</td>
<td>Less than R300</td>
<td>R301 – R600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SECTION B: Purchasing apparel**
Please indicate the extent to which you disagree/agree with each of the following statements by placing a mark in the appropriate box; 1 being strongly disagree and 6 strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When purchasing apparel (i.e. clothing, shoes, jewellery and cosmetics):</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1 I rarely buy the latest products until I am sure my friends approve of them.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2 It is important that my friends approve of the store where I buy.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3 I am very loyal to stores where my friends shop.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4 If I want to be like my friends, I buy the brands they buy.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5 I save to afford the things my friends buy.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**When purchasing apparel (i.e. clothing, shoes, jewellery and cosmetics):**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>I achieve a sense of belonging by buying the same apparel my friends buy.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td>My friends frequently influence the choice of who I shop with.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8</td>
<td>I regularly ask my friends regarding the latest fads and fashion.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9</td>
<td>I usually talk to my friends about prices and quality before I buy.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10</td>
<td>To make sure I buy the right product, I often watch my friends buy.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td>My friends usually talk to me about apparel advertisements before I buy anything.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td>I usually follow my parents’ decisions by buying the same products and brands that they buy.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td>My parents accompany me when I purchase.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B14</td>
<td>What, where, and which brands I buy are very much determined by my parents.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
<td>I usually shop with my parents.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B16</td>
<td>My parents decide most of my shopping needs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B17</td>
<td>I seldom buy any new product until my parents and I have discussed it.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B18</td>
<td>When I do not understand prices and quality, I consult my parents.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B19</td>
<td>I often discuss my purchase plans with my parents.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td>I mostly buy those products/brands that are advertised on TV, radio and magazines.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B21</td>
<td>Radio and TV advertisements determine my brand loyalties.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B22</td>
<td>I continue buying the same brands as long as my favourite celebrity endorses them.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When purchasing apparel (i.e. clothing, shoes, jewellery and cosmetics):

| B23 | I usually consult the media to determine the best buys. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| B24 | I usually look at the apparel advertisements before I buy. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |

SECTION C: Media and personal sources
Please rank from 1 to 10 (1 being the least influential and 10 being the most influential) the following factors that influence your choices when shopping for your own apparel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My shopping choices are influenced by:</th>
<th>Influential</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1 Television Advertisements</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2 Newspaper Advertisements</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3 Magazine Advertisements</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4 Celebrity Endorsements</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5 Store Catalogues</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6 Parents</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7 Friends</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8 Acquaintances</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9 Salespersons</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C10 Other Customers (in the store)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you very much for your participation!