

**EFFECTS OF TELEVISED ALCOHOL ADVERTISEMENTS ON THE DRINKING  
BEHAVIOUR OF YOUTH: A CASE STUDY OF PRAKTISEER COMMUNITY IN  
GREATER TUBATSE MUNICIPALITY**

by

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## DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to:

- God Almighty
- My late grandmother, Linah Mapulane and my late father, Lesiba Godfrey 'Tau' Mapulane.
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## **ABSTRACT**

This study investigates the effects of televised alcohol advertisements on the drinking behaviour of youth in Praktiseer community of the Greater Tubatse Municipality. The nature and trends of alcohol consumption in South Africa are examined. The study also focuses on the impact of alcohol exposure, and the costs alcohol abuse can incur on the individual and society at large. The types of advertising models and the regulatory systems in advertising were identified. Data were collected through a self-administered questionnaire. The study hypothesised that the exposure to alcohol advertisements influences alcohol abuse among the youth. However, alcohol industry claims that the youth is not its niche market and hence should not be blamed for any abusive behaviour of alcohol by the youth. Just like the few studies interested in the effects of alcohol advertising, alcohol exposure and alcohol abuse, the present study also reveals that televised alcohol advertisements have a great influence in alcohol consumption among the youth in Praktiseer community.

## **ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS**

|                     |   |
|---------------------|---|
| AIDA:               | Attention- Interest- Desire- Action.                                |
| ARA:                | Industry Association for Responsible Alcohol Use                    |
| ASA:                | Advertising Standards Authority                                     |
| AUDs:               | Alcohol Use Disorders   |
| AUDIT:              | Alcohol Use Identification Test                                     |
| BACs:               | Blood Alcohol Concentrations  |
| CAGE questionnaire: | Cut-Annoyed- Guilty- Eye Opener.                                    |
| CAMY:               | Center on Alcohol Marketing and Youth                               |
| CSIR:               | Council for Scientific and Industrial Research                      |
| DAGMAR:             | Defining- Advertising- Goals- for Measured- Results                 |
| DALYs:              | Disability Adjusted Life Years                                      |
| FAO:                | Food and Agriculture Organisation                                   |
| MRC:                | Medical Research Council  |
| NCADA:              | National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Abuse                       |
| NIAAA:              | National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism                  |
| NIMSS:              | National Injury Mortality Surveillance System                       |
| OIG:                | Office of Inspector General   |
| RBT:                | Random Breath Testing   |
| SABC:               | South African Broadcasting Cooperation                              |
| SABSSM:             | South African National HIV, Incidence, Behaviour and Communications |
| SACENDU:            | South African Community Epidemiology Network on Drug Use            |
| SADHS:              | South African Demographic and Health Survey                         |
| SPSS:               | Statistical Package for Social Science                              |
| WHO:                | World Health Organisation   |

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# CHAPTER ONE

## PROBLEM IN PERSPECTIVE

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Alcohol drinking has become an important part in the social lives of most young people. However, the widespread over abusive alcohol drinking has been recognised as a major problem on young people in many societies. Binge drinking is also notable and trending among the youth. According to the Center on Alcohol Marketing and Youth - CAMY (2010), alcohol drinking among the youth in United States is growing rapidly with about 10.4 million young people aged between twelve to twenty-one years are reported to consume alcohol, while 6.9 million binge drink in 2009. Similar trends are recognised in South Africa, which have been regarded as one of the highest alcohol consumption country as stated by the World Health Organisation WHO report in 2011. To emphasise that, Parry (2005) indicated that over 5 billion litres of alcoholic beverages are consumed yearly in the country.

Excessive use and abuse of alcohol amongst the youth is common. Some start drinking alcohol at an early age, for instance, at the age of fifteen years. Clinard and Meier (2008:32) state that some of the researchers of alcohol consumption and youth have indicated that many teenagers experiment with alcohol on a regular basis, while others drink excessively to the point of drunkenness. As a result, they become vulnerable to alcohol-attributed problems such as car-traffic accidents and injuries, disabilities, health conditions, infections and others. Harrison (2009) noted that, in 2000, the global burden of alcohol-related deaths and disability were estimated to 1.6% in developing countries and 9.2% in developed countries.

In addition, Rehm, Gmel, Sempos and Trevisan (2003) pointed out that alcohol accounts to 3.2% of deaths and 40% of Disability Adjusted Life Years (DALYs) lost. Meanwhile, in 2000, alcohol-related harms in South Africa accounted for 7.1% of all deaths and 70% of DALYs (Parry, Pluddemann, Steyne, Bradshaw, Norman & Laubsher, 2005). Despite the high rates of alcohol-induced risks, alcohol is still regarded as a dominant substance abuse across the country. Parry and Pluddemann (2005) point out that alcohol is regarded as the third contributor to the

infections and interpersonal violence. Furthermore, Parry et al., (2005) showed that alcohol accounts for 40% of violence, 15% of alcohol use disorders and 15% of road traffic injuries in the country.

This widespread of abusive drinking behaviours among the youth poses a serious public health threat. The findings of the study by Grant, Dawson, Stinson, Chou, DuFour and Pickering (2004) show that alcohol abuse has increased with 4.6% between 1991-1992 and 2001-2002. This averages almost half within twelve months annually. Hence, the efforts by governments and policy makers through anti-alcohol campaigns, there is still a sizeable number of drinkers in the country. Although there might be slight changes in alcohol patterns and habits, the majority of youth still find alcohol drinking enjoyable and something “cool” to engage in. In most cases, drinking is associated with socialisation, fun, excitement and relaxation.

These positive perceptions about alcohol drinking come from different sources, such as family, peers and external influences- such as mass media. Mass media are one of many factors that have the potential to encourage the youth to drink. Alcohol advertising has been regarded as one of the influences that contribute to shaping these perceptions. Alcohol advertising is widely criticised on creating a climate in which alcohol consumption is regarded as a normal way of living. Anderson, Bruijn, Angus, Gordon and Hastings (2009:230) state that:

For young people who have not started to drink, expectancies are influenced by normative assumptions about teenage drinking as well as through the observations of drinking by parents, peers and models in the mass media.

Despite the criticism, the truth of the matter is that today many people rely heavily on the media, including advertising, ranging from information to entertainment. The society is saturated with media products. The society encounters media messages everywhere they go; alcohol advertisements included. In a contemporary media and communications landscape, youth is exposed to alcohol advertisements at an extraordinary level from various sources. The massive exposure of advertising is unavoidable.

Beside the traditional modes of advertising such as television, radio and print media, the introduction of digital technologies has opened new platforms for alcohol advertising. The alcohol industry is aggressively harnessing the potential of online advertising through mobile phones and social networks such as Facebook, Twitter and others. As frequenters of such media, youth have greater vulnerability to alcohol than adults and there is increasing evidence of the impact of drinking on young people's health, both short and long terms, including the increased likelihood of being in a risky situation when drunk are discussed in the next chapter.

As stated above, there are many factors that may encourage alcohol use among youth, and alcohol advertising has been identified as one potential influence. Growing evidence suggests that alcohol advertising will increase the likelihood that young people will start to drink alcohol at an earlier stage and worsen the drinking pattern for those who already drink. This tendencies call for public scrutiny of the inappropriate promotion of alcohol and has also created added impetus to tighten restrictions around alcohol advertising. The South African government and policy makers have joined forces to combat the scourge of alcohol use and abuse among the youth.

According to South African Government Information (2013), Minister of Social Development, Ms Bathabile Dlamini, indicated in her statement during media briefing:

...cabinet approved that the Control of Marketing of Alcohol Beverages Bill should be gazetted for public comment. The intention of the Bill is to reduce the exposure to the advertising and promotion of alcohol.

South African Government Information (2013:1) outlines the purpose of the Bill, which is to assist and guide in the reduction of alcohol-related harms and the protection of public health and community wellbeing by limiting the exposure of alcohol marketing by:

- restricting the advertisement of alcoholic beverages;

- prohibiting any sponsorship associated with alcoholic beverages excluding donations; and
- prohibiting any promotion of alcoholic beverages.

The Control of Alcoholic Beverages Bill (Wolhuster, 2013) suggested that alcohol advertising should be totally banned in the country. However, that has raised public debates and analyses that are of the view that restricting alcohol marketing might have negative impact on the sustainability of industries involved, hence the economy of the country (Fieldgate, Jeffrey, Madinane, Ebrahum, Soobyah & Jordaan, 2013; and Myers & Parry, 2013).

According to Fieldgate et al., (2013: 13), estimated that liquor industry employed roughly 21,300 workers in 2009, with around 15,100 working in the wine and spirits segments of the market and 6,200 in the malt beer industry. Other industries that can be affected badly include the media, in particular with, sporting events sponsorship. Some of these aspects are dealt with in the following chapter.

This study evaluates the effects of television alcohol advertisements on youth. It focuses on a case study of the Praktiseer community in the Greater Tubatse Municipality. The study also draws its theoretical insights from long-term theories of media. In order to explain the effects of television alcohol advertisements, this chapter provides a general outline of the study such as the background, the scope and significance of the study. The aim and objectives of the study are also highlighted in this chapter.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

The explosive rise in alcohol advertising has powerful effects on youth. However, alcohol denies the fact that their alcohol advertisements target particularly the youth, studies consistently demonstrate that young people are regularly exposed to alcohol advertisements across a variety of setting and media platforms.

Moreover, studies have shown that youth continue to be exposed to alcohol advertising through television, print media with high youth readership, like magazines, and product placement in film, music, videos, comics and dramas. Alongside these various forms of alcohol advertising, there is accumulating evidence that young people are encountering alcohol messages, associations and products in a multitude of everyday settings and interactions. For example, alcohol-sponsored sport and music events, free gift promotions, alcohol-branded merchandised and competitions.

Scholars interested in the possibilities of the influence of alcohol advertising to alcohol consumption of youth indicate that there is a causal link and advertising shapes attitudes and behaviours of young people by encouraging them to drink. The findings of few researches undertaken in most countries including South Africa demonstrate that attitudes and assumptions about drinking are not only influenced by the content of advertising, but also by the sheer volume and variety of alcohol marketing and promotion. Some of the studies are discussed in detail in the following chapter.

With convincing evidence supporting the link between alcohol advertising and alcohol consumption of youth, there is an urgent need to tackle the problem of alcohol advertising in South Africa with a robust policy and stronger regulatory oversight. The youth are vulnerable to alcohol advertisements and as a prime target group for alcohol advertisers, are at high risk of alcohol-related problem.

Advertising is the livelihood of many media outlets especially commercial media. The media gain their revenue from the space or airtime they sell to advertisers. On the other hand, advertisers use the media as a vehicle to sell their services or products to the audience. Burton (2005:228) acknowledges that there is a mutual relationship between the two by saying the following:

It is less easy to see mutuality in the relationship between advertisers and consumers, where it is not in the interest of the former to empower the latter. The media are integral to the working of advertising. Advertising is integral to the finances of the media.

Embodied from the citation is that advertising plays an important role in the sustainability of the media. It is the business of the media to sell advertisements to target audience. The media are the vehicles for transporting advertisements to the media consumers. Therefore, the media are responsible for presenting those advertisements in a manner that can influence the attitudes of the media consumers towards them. The impression is that one of the factors that influence how much attention will be paid to an advertisement is the attitude of the media user towards it.

This is not to dismiss or even take for granted the creative aspects of advertising that are used to help break through the clutter, gain attention and add to the memorability of the advertisements to the viewers. Although the viewers are bombarded by advertisements time and again, only selective attention can be paid to advertising, and only some advertisements can be attended to and remembered even though a consumer may be generally interested in advertising. Thus, creativity remains crucial in determining the effectiveness of any given advertisement including alcohol advertisements.

It is given that advertisements can be stimulus by targeting emotions and mentality of a viewer. The creative aspects in an advertisement such as the storyline, slogans, music, the environment and the actors, can make the viewer to pay more attention to the advertisement. They can change the attitude of the viewer towards certain advertisements. They can make a person to start to compare themselves with the portrayals that he or she sees from the advertisements. It should be born in mind that the primary purpose of advertisers is to sell products to the viewers.

Although, the alcohol industry might not be responsible for alcohol abuse by youth, there is a great exposure of alcohol advertisements day in, day out. Snyder, Fleming-Millici, Slater, Sun and Strizhakova (2006:21-22) indicate that there are often greater concentrations of alcohol advertisements in media aimed at youth than at adults.

Advertisers use exposure as one of the techniques that are used to get the attention of the viewers. It is assumed that exposure to television advertisements of alcohol might increase the chances that young people can start drinking or drink more if they



are already drinking. Judged by the magnitude of exposures and expenditures, advertising is a vital and important activity. A rule of thumb in the advertising industry is that most people are exposed to a numerous advertising messages on a daily basis, but they might notice only few advertisements which include alcohol advertisements as well.

Anderson et al., (2009:230) state that alcohol is associated with the likelihood that adolescents will start to drink alcohol with increased drinking amongst baseline drinkers. Again, alcohol advertising and promotion increases the likelihood that adolescents will start to use alcohol and drink more if they are already using alcohol. Therefore, the exposure to alcohol advertising and awareness of alcohol messages amongst the youth might lead to earlier drinking, higher consumption for those who are already drinking alcohol and increase in alcohol-related harms.

In addition, Bonomo, Bowes, Coffey, Carlin and Patton (2004:1522) say that drinking by young people is associated with automobile crash injury and death, suicide and depression, missed classes and decreased academic performance, loss of memory, blackouts, fighting, property damage, peer criticism and broken friendships or antisocial behaviour, date rape and unprotected sexual intercourse that places people at risk for sexually transmitted diseases, HIV infection and unplanned pregnancy.

The reports from Center on Alcohol Marketing and Youth report (2006) concur with the statement above claiming that the earlier young people start to drink, the worse the consequences of drinking are likely to be and seven times more likely to be involved in an alcohol-related motor vehicle crash. They tend to suffer poorer mental health, poorer education outcome and increased risk of crime in early adulthood.

According to Pitkänen, Kokko, Lyyra and Pulkkinen (2008:49), family history of alcoholism and higher parental substance use in general have been shown to be associated with heavier use of alcohol and smoking. They also say that lack of nurturing and broken family increase the risk for antisocial behaviour, anxiety in childhood and depression in early adolescence.

At this juncture, it is important to acknowledge that excessive alcohol consumption can exacerbate the spreading of HIV/AIDS or other sexually transmitted diseases. Studies have supported the link between alcohol abuse and sexual transmitted infections prevalence, especially among alcohol users.

Taylor, Dlamini, Kagoro, Jinabhai and de Vries (2003:99) say that:

Odds ratio estimates indicate that conditional odds of learners who smoke being sexually active are more than twice that of non-smokers. The same is true for learners who drink alcohol. Thus, smoking and drinking among learners increases the likelihood of sexual activity, thereby placing them at risk for HIV/AIDS infection.

Additionally, LaBrie and Earleywine (2000:321) elaborate that alcohol consumption and sexual behaviour often correlate. Researchers interested in HIV/AIDS and other STDs believe that alcohol consumption contributes to risky sexual behaviour. It has been said that alcohol also fuels deaths and disabilities amongst the youth. In 2002, the global burden of alcohol in terms of deaths and disabilities in developing countries was lower than developed countries with 1.6% and 9.2% respectively.

But, Fielder, Donovan and Ouschan (2009:1157) maintain that alcohol accounts for 1.8 million deaths every year, in which, it causes 3.2% of all deaths and 40% of disease burden globally. They further state that young people are susceptible to short-term social harms such as suicides and risky sexual behaviour, and long-term physiological effects such as loss of memory and chronic disease, resulting from alcohol consumption.

These death tolls and disability burdens do not only affect developed countries. South Africa is also one of the high mortality developing countries. In 2000, almost 80% deaths and disability adjusted life years (DALYs) lost was alcohol-related. Alcohol was also the third contributor to homicide, infections and interpersonal violence (Parry et al., 2005).

A recent study conducted by Parry (2002) indicates that, in countries such as Botswana, Namibia, Nigeria, Mozambique and South Africa, common results of alcohol-related problems are, namely, trauma, violence, organ system damage, various cancers, unsafe sexual practices, injuries to the brain of the developing foetus and general poor nutritional status of families with a heavy drinking parent or parents, among others. Parry (2002:218) emphasises that alcohol misuse is a contributing factor in many of these disorders and hence it is likely to be included as a significant component of the health profile of developing countries in the future.

Furthermore, Parry and Pluddeman (2005) compiled a comparative summary of alcohol abuse in these countries. It is estimated that during 1981, more than 137 million litres of alcohol beverages were consumed in Botswana whereas in Namibia and Mozambique respectively 93% and 95% of men still use alcohol as their primary drug. In South Africa, alcohol still remains the dominant substance abuse. During 2003 it was estimated that Mpumalanga led with the highest percentage of (72%), Cape Town with 53% and Durban with 40%.

As part of the effort of fighting underage alcohol abuse in South African, the government has embarked on an aggressive pursuit of banning alcohol advertisements on television and tighten rules and regulations for trading hours for tavern owners. According to *BuaNews: Tshwane* (2011:02:18), the Social Development Minister, Bathabile Dlamini, issued a statement saying:

Our government recognises that the drug problem is a complex one, requiring decisive action in areas including education, health, law enforcement, social development and sports and recreation. To this end, we have launched the national anti-substance abuse campaign and to ensure that this matter receives the urgency which it deserves.

The Department of Health and the Department of Social Development proposed that alcohol advertising should be banned as such portray alcohol drinking as fun, exciting and other ways that glamourise it. The point here is that such kind of portrayals can encourage and reinforce the use of alcohol despite the claims from the industry that children and the youth are not targeted.

In the United States, the banning of liquor advertisements, particularly beer and wine advertisements, on television is supported by the majority of adults (70%). Similarly, public health advocates and community initiatives routinely call for the strict regulation or even elimination of alcohol advertising (Agostinelli & Grube, 2002:15). Alcohol abuse or underage alcohol consumption seems to be a huge problem that needs attention. There should be a collective effort between the government and communities in combating the scourge. It is probable that alcohol advertising may predispose young people to drinking.

Conversely, this influence may make the youth to respond favourably towards alcohol advertisements. Given the potential role of alcohol advertising in alcohol use among the youth, this study evaluates the effects of televised alcohol advertisements on the youth in the Praktiseer community.

### **1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Generally, excessive alcohol consumption by the youth in South Africa seems to be a major problem nowadays. There are various factors that contribute to alcohol abuse, such as the family, peer pressure and the media. A society is made up of individuals who have a common understanding of its social issues and activities. The society is guided by norms, values and principles all of which assist in moulding the behaviour of the community members. An organised society has norms and values that guide them to behave in a socially acceptable manner.

Alcohol and its consumption are an acceptable and enjoyable part of the South African culture, with a long history and deep rooted socio-culture. Ojo, Louwagie, Morojele, Rendall-Mkosi, London, Olorungu and Davids (2010:180) state that the practice of alcohol consumption in South Africa started during apartheid era referred to as *dop* system. London (1999:1408) says that a particular feature of South African agriculture has been the payment of farm workers with alcohol in lieu of wages, known as the infamous *tot* or *dop* system.

This system was institutionalised in the early years of colonial settlement in Cape Colony. Apart from this, alcohol drinking seems to be deep-rooted from the

grassroots of culture and traditions of different communities. This is noted by Gumede (1995) as follows:

On certain occasions such as weddings, graduation ceremonies, the propitiation of ancestral spirits ceremonies and others, alcohol would be prepared along with feasting for communal consumption.

In this context, alcohol drinking is seen as a norm to certain communities. In a community one has to participate in social activities for sense of belonging. This kind of practices can give the impression that drinking is normality. Therefore, alcohol consumption might not be a problem to certain individuals or the community in general because of their social settings, culture, traditions, environment and economic factors which influence them to drink alcohol. South Africa is a diverse country that consists of different social groups and cultures. Every group is given a privilege to practice its culture and traditions freely. Hence, alcohol consumption seems to escalate rapidly compared to other countries.

The researcher is concerned with the deviant behaviour of the youth in the Praktiseer community. Miltenberger (2008:2) describes behaviour as “what people do or say. It is not a static characteristic of the person”. The youth in the community of Praktiseer is uncontrollable. They have adopted strange and unaccepted behaviour within the community. The researcher has engaged with few stakeholders in the community such as community leaders, parents, religious leaders, school principals and teachers, health practitioners, police stations, social workers, etcetera, in order to elicit their opinions about the obnoxious behaviour of the youth, particularly with regard to alcohol abuse or underage alcohol consumption by the youth in the community. According to the National Youth Commission Act of 1996, youth is persons in the age group between fourteen to thirty-five years.

Nowadays, a growing number of behaviours are labelled in different ways such as ‘unhealthy’ or ‘risky’ by epidemiology and public health ambassadors (Peretti-Watel & Lorente, 2004:251). Parry (2002:217) defines the term epidemiologic transition as a complex and inter-related changes that people observe over time in the patterns of health and disease of a society or country.

He further states that alcohol plays a significant role in leisure activities and in certain cultural and religious traditions in both developed and developing countries. The alcohol beverage industry is also often directly and indirectly a large provider of formal and informal employment, and generates substantial amounts of tax revenue for governments, particularly in certain developing countries. Every modern society practices its own drinking customs, and subcultures display their own behaviours as well. Subgroups differ in the ways they use alcohol, in the extent of their drinking, and in their attitudes towards alcoholism and drunkenness (Clinard & Meier, 2008: 276).

Ringel, Collins and Ellickson (2006:473) assert that underage alcohol use is an important public health concern. The negative consequences of underage use accrue not only to the individual user in a range of areas such as reduced educational attainment and increase in risky sexual behaviour, but also to others through increased likelihood of violence and drunk driving.

There are various social problems that the society is encountering on a daily basis, namely, crime, divorce, deaths, suicide, human trafficking, human abuse, substance abuse and alcoholism. The media depict these social problems through their news reporting, documentaries, dramas, and others. Therefore, the media are a true reflection of the society. The true colour or reflection of the society is seen through the media. In spite of the efforts made by the media to mirror the reality of the society, they are criticised for condoning delinquent behaviour, particularly amongst the youth.

Clinard and Meier (2008:5) indicate that deviance constitutes departures from norms that draw social disapproval such that the variations elicit, or are likely to elicit if detected, negative sanctions. Reciprocally, Franzese (2009:7) alludes to that the process of defining behaviours as deviant or not, establishing a boundary between acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in a given society. Moreover, Clinard and Meier (2008:5-9) state that norms make crucial contributions to the process of maintaining order. They are sometimes regarded as cultural ideas or expressions of what society expects in certain situations.

The youth in the community faces challenges such as suicide, murder, theft, drunkenness, fighting and risky sexual behaviours. The main challenge is the high rate of unemployment that breeds poverty, crime, and substance abuse. The youth is characterised by poor performance at school and drop out. The researcher visited the police station and the magistrate court several times and observed that the majority of convicts are young people. In most cases, the court proceedings are about incidents that the youth is involved in like drugs smuggling, murder, bank robberies, money laundering, assaults, shoplifting and so forth.

The researcher also visited few health and welfare institutions around the area. It was noticed that most casualties in the local clinic are young people. They are victims of alcohol-related accidents and violent acts. The researcher also noticed that the youth is disrespectful, aggressive and self-centred.

All these kinds of behaviour are usually tied up with substance use and alcohol abuse. Simultaneously, the media are often linked with the spreading of delinquent behaviour among the youth. Therefore, the researcher attempts to determine the impact of televised alcohol advertisements on youth in this community.

#### **1.4 HYPOTHESIS**

This study assumes that exposure to televised alcohol advertisements is likely to reinforce alcohol abuse amongst the youth. It is, therefore, the interest of this study to examine the effects of television advertisements of alcohol on youth, particularly in Praktiseer community in the Greater Tubatse Municipality.

#### **1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES**

Research objectives are there to spell out what the research is designed to explore, measure and explain. Aaker, Kumar and Day (2000:71) state that objectives of a research may be spelled out in terms of a hypothesis or even be formulated as a question.

### 1.5.1 Aim

The main aim or the primary objective of this study is to describe the way in which television advertisements of alcohol encourage alcohol consumption among youth in Praktiseer within the Greater Tubatse Municipality.

### 1.5.2 Objectives

It is essential to outline the objectives of the study in order for the researcher to remain focused. Therefore, the objectives of this study are as follows:

- To identify alcohol advertisements and how they influence behaviour.
- To examine behaviour of the youth in relation to alcohol advertisements on television.
- To analyse the effects of television advertisements of alcohol on youth behaviour.

### 1.6 DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Advertising is defined in the Code of Advertising Practice of the Advertising Standards Authority as follows: "...any visual or aural communication, representation, reference or notification of any kind which is intended to promote the sale, leasing or use of any goods or services or which appeals for or promotes the support of any cause" (Burns, 2001).
- Addiction is a chronic, relapsing disease characterised by compulsive drug seeking and use, despite serious adverse consequences, and by long-lasting changes in the brain (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2011).
- Alcohol is a large group of organic compounds derived from hydrocarbons and containing one or more hydroxyl (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2011).
- Alcohol abuse is a pattern of problem drinking that result in health consequences, social, problems or both (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2004).
- *Alcopops* is a colloquial term describing certain flavoured alcoholic beverages (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alcopop>).



- Binge drinking is a pattern of drinking alcohol in a row at one setting and brings blood alcohol concentration to 0.08 gram percent or above (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2004).
- *Diphaso* is a cultural ceremony held to welcome somebody (baby) in the family or to appease the ancestors.
- *Dop or tot* system is system whereby farm workers were paid part of their wages in the form of alcohol- invariably wine (Ojo et al., 2010).
- Legal drinking age is the age at which a person can consume or purchase alcoholic food or alcoholic beverages (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/legal>).
- *Lesheleba* is a sour-like fermented porridge used to make a traditional beer.
- *Lobolo* is a traditional African custom whereby the prospective husband' pays certain amount, in the form of cattle or money, to the bride's family to acquire the right to marry her.
- *Marula* are wild fruits used to make a (*morula*) beer.
- Minor means a person who has not attained the age of 18 years (Liquor Act 59 of 2003).
- *Morula* is an alcoholic drink made from *marula* (see *marula*).
- *Papsak* is a cheap box wine sold in its foil container, without a box (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/papsak>).
- *Pulamolomo* (mouth opener) is a bottle of brandy from groom's family presented to the bride's family before *Lobolo* negotiations (see *Lobolo*).
- *Shebeens* are private homes where alcohol is brewed, sold and consumed (Parry & Bennets, 1998).
- Substance abuse refers to the improper, excessive, irresponsible, or self-damaging use of addictive substances (Reber & Reber, 2001).
- *Tho-tho-tho* is a distilled homemade alcoholic drink made from a concoction of sorghum, yeast and sugar.
- *Umqombothi* is a Zulu name referred to traditional beer.
- Youth refers to persons in the age group between 14 to 35 years (National Youth Commission Act of 1996).

## **1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

The study is about the effects of televised alcohol advertisements on the drinking behaviour of the youth. It is limited to the Praktiseer community in the Greater Tubatse Municipality.

## **1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The influence of televised alcohol advertising on the drinking behaviour of the youth is a matter of substantial debate despite research studies done for decades. The increasing rate of alcohol consumption, especially by young people is growing at faster pace.

Snyder et al., (2006) conducted research on effects of alcohol advertising exposure on drinking among youth. Data on alcohol advertising expenditure on television, radio, billboards, and newspapers were collected. Individuals aged 15 to 26 years old were sampled within households in 24 United States media markets. The results showed that individuals who saw one more advertisement on average than other individuals had 1% more alcoholic drinks per month. For every additional dollar per capita spent on advertising in the market, individuals consumed 3% more alcoholic beverages per month.

Several studies have been conducted about prevalence of drinking behaviour of youth or adolescents. Parry (2000:216) state that most research studies in South Africa are conducted by research companies such as Health Organisation (WHO), Medical Research Council (MRC), National Injury Mortality Surveillance Systems (NIMSS) and others.

Data from the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) indicate that recorded alcohol consumption in most developing countries is considerably lower than in most developed countries. The main reason for this is the widespread of poverty in those countries. Furthermore, in many developing countries, per capita consumption understates the actual consumption of drinkers because the majority of the population, particularly women, do not drink (Parry, 2000:216).

The most comprehensive study of alcohol use among youth in both urban and non-urban areas was conducted in 1994. Rocha-Silva, de Miranda and Erasmus (1995:8) assessed alcohol use among Black people. The overall results of that study revealed that males' rates of lifetime alcohol consumption were slightly higher among those from the urban areas with 50.9%, while urban females were far likely to have used alcohol than their counterparts with 47.2%.

Similarly, Flisher, Ziervogel, Chalton, Leger and Robertson (1993) conducted a study in 1990 in the Cape Peninsula. A representative sample of 7340 learners in grades 8 to 12 from 16 high schools was used. Of the total sample, 53.2% of the respondents reported using alcohol, while 26.2% of the students had used alcohol within the week prior to the interview, and 15.4% of respondents reported binge drinking. Another study conducted by Morojele, Parry, Ziervogel and Robertson (2000) examined the drinking behaviour of female school-leavers in Cape Town, and social-psychological predictors of their drinking behaviour. Convenience sampling was used with 221 female participants from Grade 12 in 3 schools around that area.

Madu and Matla (2003) also conducted a study on illicit drug use, cigarette smoking and alcohol drinking behaviour among school adolescents in Polokwane (Limpopo Province). A total number of 435 learners between the ages of 15 and 19 year olds from Grade 9 to Grade 12 participated in this study. Findings of this study indicate a prevalence rate of 19.8% for illicit drug use, 10.6% for cigarette smoking and 39.1% for alcohol consumption among the participants. The majority of the drug users and cigarette smokers indicated that they do so when they are bored, tired or stressed, or at parties. However, most of those who drink alcohol indicated that they do so at parties, weekends, or any other time.

Pelzer and Phaswana (1999) conducted a study at the then University of the North (Northern Province) comprising of 47 male and 43 female students. The study shows that the past month prevalence rate for alcohol use was 57% for male students and 5% for female students.

The researcher found it necessary to briefly outline some studies conducted on a broader scale. South African Community Epidemiology Network on Drug Use

(SACENDU) has been monitoring alcohol and other drug use in South Africa since 1996. SACENDU serves as a useful source of information on drug use trends over time and its findings lend support to existing research showing that alcohol is still the major substance of use and abuse in South Africa (Pithey & Morojele, 2000:14). In addition, Parry and Pluddeman (2005:11) emphasise that, in South Africa, alcohol remains the dominant substance abuse.

The Praktiseer community is one of the semi-urban areas in the Greater Tubatse Municipality (Limpopo Province). There are proximately 343468 inhabitants and 53850 households living in Greater Tubatse area. Ninety-nine percentage of the population is Black and 1% White. Among them, women represent 54% of the population and men 46% of which 91% speak Sepedi, 4% Swazi and 2% Tsonga. Only 66% of the population is not economically active. There are roughly twenty mines in the area (Statistics South Africa 2007).

The crime rate trends from April 2003 to March 2005 were 54% burglaries, robberies and theft, and 30% violent crimes (Community Empowerment Impact Assessment Report, 2007). No study has been reported about the effects of alcohol television advertisements on youth in the Praktiseer community of the Greater Tubatse Municipality. The data would be needed for the development of effective preventive and intervention strategies for the youth in this community.

## **1.9 DEMARCATION OF CHAPTERS**

The layout of this research study is divided into five chapters, in the following sequential order:

### **1.9.1 Chapter one: Problem in Perspective**

This chapter contains the formulation of the problem, the background to the study, the hypothesis, the aim and objectives of the study, the definition of concepts used in the discussion, the scope of the study, the significance of the study and demarcation of chapters.

### **1.9.2 Chapter two: Literature Review**

Literature review and theoretical framework, as well as an overview of advertising fall under this chapter.

### 1.9.3 Chapter three: Research Methods

The chapter elaborates on the research design the study used, an outline of participants and data collection methods, as well as the ethical considerations for the study.

### 1.9.4 Chapter four: Data Analysis and Interpretation

The analysis of data and the interpretation of the results are discussed in this chapter.

### 1.9.5 Chapter five: Findings, Recommendations and Conclusion

This chapter discusses the findings of the study, recommendations and conclusion.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW IN CONNECTION WITH TELEVISION ALCOHOL ADVERTISEMENTS**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is to give an overview of the studies that attempted to establish a relationship between effects of television alcohol advertisements and alcohol drinking among the youth. It also explains the theoretical perspectives that serve as a pillar of the hypothesis of this study.

Alcohol drinking among young people has become a normality and socially acceptable behaviour in most western societies. But the main concern is that young people are highly susceptible and at risk of alcohol-related harms. South Africa is one of the countries that make efforts to fight the scourge of alcohol and substance abuse. According to Parry (2005:426), over 5 billion litres of alcoholic beverages are consumed in South Africa per year. While, the Center on Alcohol Marketing and Youth (2006) reports that over 10 million of young people between the ages of twelve to twenty reported drinking and 6.9 million reported binge drinking in the United States of America in 2009 only. Given these high rates of alcohol consumption among the youth, it appears that alcohol drinking is one of the most commonly used substances in most western societies. It has become a normal phenomenon and socially acceptable, especially within the younger generation than the older generation (Essau & Hutchinson, 2008).

Drinking alcohol can be dangerous, especially when consumed too much, to the body and brain of the user. It can lead to physical and mental changes that can put the user and others in danger. Anderson (2007:13) is of the view that alcohol is a ubiquitous toxin that can harm almost any system or organ of the body. The user can become happy, relaxed and hyperactive at first, but later the person can feel drowsy, confused or dizzy. It means the person is unstable to do anything like driving or just standing - chances are, the person can fall, involve in car accidents or become violent because he or she is not thinking straight.

Snyder et al., (2006:18) state that drinking among the youth can result in a variety of negative consequences, including poor grades, risky sex, alcohol addiction and car crashes. The truth of the matter is that alcohol beverages are essentially in demand and building their identities is easy by utilising a complex mix of marketing technologies, such as, sponsorships, product placement, new product development, point-of-purchase materials, promotions and person-to-person. In light of this, alcohol use is common among the youth and become even worse if the youth initiating drinking at an earlier age. Snyder et al., (2006:18) state that drinkers younger than 21 years, who consume approximately 20% of all alcohol drinks, imbibe more heavily than adults per drinking episode and are involved in twice as many fatal car crashes while drunk.

According to Anderson et al., (2009: 230) alcohol is associated with the likelihood that adolescents will start to drink alcohol with increased drinking amongst baseline drinkers. It also increases the likelihood that adolescents will start to use alcohol and drink more if they are already using alcohol. In addition, Clinard and Meier (2008:32) indicate that some researchers of alcohol consumption and youth have indicated that many teenagers experiment with alcohol on a regular basis, while others drink excessively to the point of drunkenness.

Most of the familiar signs of drunkenness, also known as blackout drinking, is when the person finds it difficult to walk, cannot speak properly, confused with low reasoning capacity, weakened balance, blurry vision, impulsive behaviour, short tempered, to mention the few. It is for this reason that most people find themselves in risky situations without having the idea what happened, such as getting into unplanned sexual activities.

These comprehensive reviews not only provide compelling evidence for the impact of alcohol advertising, but also indicate that the effect of alcohol advertising operates at a number of levels. It has been found that alcohol advertising influences the age at which drinking commences, the volume and frequency of drinking and alcohol-related beliefs and attitudes. Furthermore, these effects have been found to be cumulative and more noticeable as the exposure of advertising increases.

This point was emphasised by Ellickson, Collins, Hambarsoomians and McCaffrey (2005:235) stating that 72.7% of adolescents are current drinkers and 56.4% of adolescents report having been drunk at least once in their life by Grade 12. This suggests that, chances are, most learners could have tasted alcohol while they are still in their secondary schools. Therefore, that could be their starting point of consuming alcohol. The Center on Alcohol Marketing and Youth (2010) adds that alcohol drinking among the youth in the United States is growing rapidly. About 10.4 million young people aged between twelve to twenty-one years are reported to consume alcohol, while 6.9 million binge drink.

Exposure to alcohol can be in different ways, for instance, through various media and the surroundings. For example, exposure can be in the form of transit advertising, billboards in shopping complex, taxi ranks or in taverns. These can also contribute to the consumption of alcohol by young people. They are exposed to alcohol advertising everywhere. The media, especially television will just aggravate the drinking pattern because of their influence. As Pasch, Hearst, Nelson, Forsyth and Lytle (2008:643) state that exposure to alcohol outlets due to distance, densities in a specific area, or liberal opening hours and low drinking age requirements, may be another important adverse environmental influence. Higher alcohol outlet densities have been found to be related to self-reported youth drinking and driving and associated with heavy drinking, frequent drinking, and drinking-related problems particularly among students.

From this perspective, this means that the youth found themselves rarely far away from mediated messages in their surroundings. On the one hand, they get exposed to alcohol through advertising. Alcohol advertising on billboards, buses, and other similar places can be one of the environmental influences that can shape beliefs, attitudes and alcohol behaviours of the youth. On the other hand, they also get exposed to alcohol from people they usually spend time with, such as families and friends. This implies that, the youth is forever exposed to alcohol on daily basis and this inculcates the idea that alcohol and alcohol consumption is normal.

In a manner parallel to the proceeding discussion, alcohol use is associated with a wide array of negative consequences and an increased rate of risk behaviours such



as injuries, sexual activity, violence and drug use and drinking and driving. There are three main social and environmental factors that have been suggested as risks for adolescent alcohol use.

Alcoholism is one of the leading causes of a dysfunctional family. It is said that alcohol can break down a family through domestic violence, divorce and others. Family with a history of alcohol use can be a reliable determinant of alcohol use amongst young people. In the study entitled "Parenting influences on the development of alcohol abuse and dependence" by Theodore and Johnson (1997), the findings confirm that family environment, and particularly parenting effects, such as inadequate parenting and other parent-child interaction patterns that promote aggressive and antisocial personality disorders, strongly influence a child's risk of alcohol abuse and dependence.

According to Pitkänen, Kokko and Lyyra (2008:49), family history of alcoholism and higher parental substance use in general have been shown to be associated with heavier use of alcohol and smoking. They also say that lack of nurturing and broken family increase the risk for antisocial behaviour, anxiety in childhood and depression in early adolescence. The upbringing of a child can also lead to alcohol dependence because they can use alcohol to escape their family problems. The more the youth get exposed to family-related problems, the more the likelihood of alcohol dependence. Ellickson et al., (2005:236) say that family issues have been found to be important predictors of adolescent's substance use. Apart from that, peer pressure and physical environment have been found to be other factors that influence alcohol use among the youth.

When it comes to alcohol drinking, family and friends are seen to have the influence on the user. But, it depends on the closeness of the social connections one have with family members or peers. If one sees his friends drinking more or less, that will determine how much he should drink. Based on the weight of this reviews, it is crystal clear that family and friends take an important part in the drinking behaviour of the youth.

The implication is that alcohol drinking in South Africa is deep rooted and guided by moral values of the societies. And because of this, alcohol drinking seems to be a good practice in the society. Therefore, it will be short sighted not to give a picture of the history of alcohol consumption of the country.

## **2.2 A BRIEF HISTORY OF ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

Alcohol consumption in South Africa has a long social and cultural history which can be traced from pre-colonial and early stages of apartheid eras. Gumede (1995:26) indicates that during pre-colonial period only elderly people and authorities in the community were allowed to drink alcohol. Women and young people were only allowed to drink alcohol in certain occasions such as when preparing rituals and specific ceremonies.

Setlalentoa, Pisa, Thekisho, Ryke and Loots (2010:11) emphasise that traditionally alcohol serves many purposes in African communities, such as strengthening of friendship and body and also associated with manhood. During colonial times, alcohol was exchanged for labour and goods, and this was referred to as *dop* or *tot* system (Pithey & Morojele, 2002:7). Lionel, Rautenbach and Maistry (2010:301) state that "It was only in 1961 that the 1928 Liquor Act was amended to abolish the *dop* system, but it didn't exclude giving wine as a gift to farm workers." Although this system was outlawed in the 1960s in the country, it is practised in wine farms dominated provinces like Western and Northern Cape (Pithey & Morojele, 2002:8).

Alcohol is always part of important social gatherings and occasions in different communities, including weddings, graduations - both academics and initiation schools - ancestral ceremonies or *diphaso* in Northern Sotho. Like with other ceremonies that involve ancestors, *umqombothi* must be prepared. For example, during *diphaso*, an elder person in the family would be requested to invite the ancestors by firstly drinking alcohol and then pouring it on the grave; or on a sacred place if the ritual is performed at home.

The traditional beer is prepared by old women in the community. It is a mixture of a sorghum which is cooked in a three-leg pot. The cooked sorghum is called *lesheleba*

- a sourish fermented porridge which can be eaten by children because it is believed to be harmless. But, Gumede (1995:26) emphasises that the porridge has 2% of alcohol.

Alongside with traditional beer, factory-produced alcohol beverages are used in marriages or *lobolo* negotiations. During *lobola* process, the groom's family is expected to present an expensive whiskey to the bride's family before the commencement of the process. This is called a *pulamolomo* – 'mouth opener'. The illegal production, consumption and selling of alcoholic beverages in South Africa is rife due to, perhaps, unemployment and poverty. Some people depend on the money generated from the selling of these illicit beverages. This includes *thothotho* and *morula*. *Thothotho* is one of the distilled drinks made from concoction of sorghum or bread, yeast and sugar; while *morula* is made from a wild fruits called *marula*, usually found in Mpumalanga and Limpopo Provinces.

For apparent reasons, Black people were not allowed to purchase alcohol from licensed liquor stores until 1962. This has contributed to the increasing number of informal liquor outlets where alcoholic beverages were sold to Black communities. These outlets were called *shebeens* (Pithey & Morojele, 2010:07). Currently, the South African liquor industry is comprised with 23 000 licensed liquor outlets and 180 000 of informal liquor outlets countrywide (Schneider et al., 2007:666). Most of the illicit drinks are obtained in the *shebeens* at a cheap price. This can encourage alcohol consumption among Black communities, especially young people. Fieldgate et al., (2013) show that in 2004, alcohol consumption among adults was equivalent to 9.5 litres of pure alcohol in which 2.5 litres were homemade or illegally produced alcohol per person.

These types of alcoholic drinks are usually classified as unrecorded alcohol. According to World Health Organisation-WHO (2009), unrecorded alcohol can be defined as a "homemade alcohols, illegally produced or smuggled alcohol products as well as surrogate alcohol that is not officially intended for human consumption". Despite the fact that they are readily available at a cheaper price compared to factory-produced beverages, they can be harmful to the health of the users since the content of alcohol in them is unknown.

What is gathered here is that people use alcohol for a wide range of reasons and in different contexts, including cultural and religious participation, social gatherings, family and peer influence, relaxation, festivals and sporting events, habit or addiction. The implication is that alcohol is always available for everyone including the youth. This can encourage the youth to drink or even drink more for those who already engaging in drinking behaviour.

### **2.3 ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES**

Several studies reported within the last decade have examined the drinking behaviour of adolescents and young adults (Gill, 2002:109). The United Kingdom teenagers are characterised by high levels of intoxication and binge drinking, when compared to their counterparts (Hibell, Anderson, Ahlstrom, Balakireva, Bjarnason, Kokkevi & Morgan, 2000:33). Recent evidence suggests that these high levels are being maintained but, significantly, have not increased further (Plant & Miller, 2001:513).

But, underage alcohol use is an important health concern. The negative consequences of underage use of alcohol accrue not only to the individual user in a range of areas such as reduced educational attainment and increases in risky sexual behaviour, violence and drunken driving (Ringel, Collins & Ellickson, 2006:473-474). The World Health Organisation report (1999) estimates that there are about 2 billion people worldwide consuming alcoholic beverages and 76.3 million with diagnosed alcohol use disorders. From a public health perspective, the global burden related to alcohol consumption, both in terms of morbidity and mortality, is considerably high in most parts of the world.

Globally, alcohol consumption causes 3.2% of deaths (1.8 million) and 4.0% of the Disability-Adjusted Life Years lost translating to a total of 58.3 million (Rehm et al., 2003). Overall, there are causal relationships between alcohol consumption and more than 60 types of disease and injury. Alcohol consumption is the leading risk factor for disease burden in low mortality developing countries, and the third largest risk factor in developed countries.

In Europe alone, alcohol consumption was responsible for over 55 000 deaths among young people aged 15 to 29 years in 1999 (Rehm et al., 2003: 42). A study was conducted between August 1992 and December 1998 in Australia by Bonomo et al., (2004) on teenage drinking and the onset of alcohol dependence. A community sample of almost two thousand individuals was followed from ages 14–15 to 20–21 years. The study found that most teenagers who start to drink at their early stages were likely to continue to their adulthood stages.

Similar findings have been found elsewhere, such as Garfield, Chung and Rathouz (2003: 2424) who conducted a survey in 2002 among grade eight and ten learners. Twenty percent of Grade eights admitted to drinking an alcohol beverage in the previous thirty days, as well as thirty-five percent of tenth graders. Adolescent drinkers have also been found to account for nearly twenty percent of total alcohol consumption, spending an estimated \$22.5 billion in 1999. Most young people depend on alcohol and when they want to discontinue or reduce using alcohol find themselves suffering from withdrawal syndrome.

Essau and Hutchinson (2008:104-105) state that individuals with alcohol dependence tend to spend most of their time using alcohol to recover from its effects, for example, hangovers. Because they want to reduce their alcohol intake, they would drink small portion of alcohol, not knowing that they make their drinking behaviour even worse. This is usually termed binge drinking. According to the CAMY report (2006), 10.4 million young people in the United States of America between the ages of 12 to 20 years, reported drinking and 6.9 million reported binge drinking in 2009.

In their study, Viner and Tyler (2007) showed that binge drinking has a significant later of adversity and social exclusion. The implication is that if a young person start drinking alcohol as earlier as twelve years, they might jeopardise their future because they have high chances of exposing and engaging in harmful situations induced by alcohol drinking. This includes car accidents, violence, leaving school and so forth.

Atkinson, Elliot, Bellis and Sumnal (2011) did a survey among fifteen to sixteen years old school learners in the United Kingdom. A total percentage of ninety participants reported having drunk alcohol at least once in their lifetimes. While 85% reported having drunk alcohol in the last twelve months and 65% in the last thirty days. The survey also revealed that the majority (85%) of pupils admitted that alcohol is fairly or very easy to obtain.

Similar findings were shown amongst learners aged fifteen to sixteen years in Europe. The study Anderson, Gentile and Buckley (2007) showed that 90% of participants reported that they had drunk alcohol at some point in their lifetime. Drinking at home or someone's home were mostly common places to drink alcohol. However, a sizeable number of them indicated that they prefer drinking alcohol in outdoor public spaces and bars.

Hao, Su, Liu, Zhang, Yang, Chen, Buaio and Cui (2004) conducted a research on alcohol consumption and prevalence rates of alcohol-related problems. A total number of 24 9992 respondents from five areas in China were interviewed through a self-report questionnaire. The results showed that 59% of participants reported drinking alcohol. The rate of alcohol use was higher in men than in women wherein, 38.8% of women have taken alcohol in their lives.

In the study of a developmental approach to alcoholic drinking behaviour in adulthood, Pitkänen et al., (2008:55-56) indicate that drinking habits unfold over time, from childhood through adolescence into adulthood, with considerable individual variation over time. It was found that all participants had used alcohol at some point in their lives. At age of fourteen, 40% of the girls and 35% of the boys used alcohol.

In addition, descriptive data showed that 63% of men and 37% of women used alcohol more often than once a week at the age of twenty-seven, and that at the age of forty-two years the percentage of men was the same (63%), but for women it had increased to 52%. At age 27, 27% of men and 4% of women reported having been drunk or consumed five or more drinks in a row at least once a week; the corresponding figures at age 42 were 22% and 7%, respectively.

Murgraft, Parrott and Bennett (1999:11) reflect that risky single-occasion drinking (RSOD) also referred to as binge drinking has dire consequences upon health and well-being, including unplanned pregnancies, Sexually Transmitted Disease such as HIV/AIDS, crime, and car accidents. The prevalence of binge drinking is alarming. The increasing popularity and availability of various inexpensive alcoholic beverages makes alcohol drinking fashionable among the youth. It is believed that wealthier or developed countries consume more than other countries. But the fact of the matter is that the problem of alcohol abuse is not peculiar to international countries.

Alcohol use and abuse is regarded as a global concern though it varies widely by country. It is important to understand the pattern of alcohol consumption in different countries so that suitable measures can be implemented when tackling this scourge. The trends of alcohol use and abuse in South Africa and other countries are shown in few studies. The following section outlines those studies.

## **2.4 ALCOHOL DRINKING PATTERNS IN SOUTH AFRICA**

Many countries, of which South Africa is one, lament their own experiences of harmful drinking by young people. Most South Africans have tried alcohol at some stages in their lifetime, and many drink at the level of drunkenness and become dependent to alcohol. However, it does not matter the level of drinking if that has become risky to health and wealth fare of an individual. Alcohol is responsible for a considerable burden of death, disease and injuries.

In South Africa, drinking has been reported to be a major contributor to injury resulting from road accidents, social problems such as violence, suicide, homicide, and sexually related deceases. As such, alcohol-related harm is not restricted to individuals who drink alcohol but to the community at large. According to Parry (2005), South Africa is regarded as the country with higher alcohol consumption.

The South African Demographic and Health Survey of 1998 found that most adults drink a lot during weekends, while others drink at risky levels in public places like taverns and on community events such as weddings and funerals (Parry et al., 2005).

Harrison (2009:10-13) states that, in 2000, the global burden of alcohol in terms of death and disability was between 1.6 % (for high-mortality developing countries) and 9.2% (for developed regions) of total disability adjusted life years lost (DALYs), accounting for 4.5 billion years lost. Furthermore, it was found that 45% of men and 70% of women in Afro Region E (including countries like Ethiopia and South Africa) abstain from drinking alcohol. Therefore, while consumption per adult is only 7.1 litres of pure alcohol per year in this region, consumption per drinker is 16.7 litres per year.

In 2000, it was calculated that alcohol-related harm accounted for 7.1% of all deaths and 70% of DALYs in South Africa, resulting in 1.1 million and was the third contributor to the infections and interpersonal violence. The three largest contributors of the burden specifically related to alcohol include homicide and violence (40% of alcohol's burden), alcohol use disorders (15%) and road traffic injuries (15%) (Parry et al., 2005).

The study done by Parry and Pluddenmann (2005) report that alcohol remains the dominant substance abuse across sites in South Africa. Between 53% (Cape Town) and 72% (Mpumalanga) of patients in treatment have alcohol as a primary or secondary substance abuse. In all sites, the proportion of patients older than 20 years having alcohol as a primary substance abuse was substantially greater than for younger patients. Between 40% (Durban) and 50% (Cape Town) of all non-natural deaths in 2003 had Blood Alcohol Concentrations (BACs) 0.05g/100ml. BACs were particularly high for transport-related deaths and homicides, with 51% of homicides and 53% of transport-related deaths in Cape Town having BACs at that level, compared to 40% and 47% respectively in Durban. BAC levels in Durban appear to be increasing annually.

This study used few studies taken amongst the high school and university students which are related to alcohol consumption. The researcher used the following studies specifically to emphasise on the trend of alcohol abuse amongst the youth in different communities in South Africa.



### **2.4.1 Drinking Patterns among High School Learners**

Recent studies have documented that alcohol and drugs remain the most common substances abuse among high school learners (Ghuman, Weitz & Knight, 2012; Onya, Tessera, Myers & Flisher, 2012; and Prinsloo, Ladikos & Nesser, 2005). The use and abuse of alcohol among school learners can predicts the prevalence of drug abuse. The combination of use of these substances can lead to dependency or addiction. Ghuman et al., (2012) conducted a research on prevalence patterns and predictors of alcohol use and abuse among high school learners in Grades 11 and 12 in KwaZulu Natal Province. Their study revealed that heavy drinking patterns at young age, especially for a longer period, can have negative effects on achievements in life, health and general well-being of learners.

Meanwhile, similar studies indicate that learners admitted to use alcohol and smoking drugs simultaneously and in several occasions. They confirmed that they start using alcohol and drugs at a very tender age of 15 (Onya et al., 2012; and Prinsloo et al., 2005). These studies highlight the pervasiveness of alcohol and drug abuse among high school learners in South Africa. Among other drugs, including mandrax and cocaine, dagga was most commonly used and readily available drug in high schools. Zulu, Urbani, van der Merwe and der Walt (2004) assert that alcohol and other drugs are brought to and consumed on the premises of some schools, particularly in disadvantaged communities.

In 2003, Betancourt and Herrera (2006) examined alcohol and drug abuse and sexual and physical abuse among 1424 from three urban high schools in Mthata to examine alcohol and drug abuse and sexual and physical abuse. The study concluded that alcohol was the most commonly abused drug in the screened group, followed by dagga, mandrax and cocaine. The Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT) was used to detect substance use and sexual and physical abuse. The findings indicated that alcohol was the main abused drug, followed by dagga, mandrax and cocaine. A total percentage of 10.46% of learners were victimised physically, while 6.69% were sexually abused.

This concurs with Madu and Matla (2003) who conducted a research study around the Polokwane area, based on stratified cluster sample of 435 participants. The sample was divided into 243 females and 192 males. The study indicates that prevalence rate of 19.8% for illicit drug use, 10.6% for cigarette smoking and 39.1% for alcohol consumption among the participants. Dagga is widely used as an acceptable herb to smoke and most women use it to lose weight.

Apart from abovementioned reasons for school learners to use substances, studies have found that there is a link between substance abuse and violence in high schools. Morojele and Brook (2006) showed that adolescents who frequently use substances (such as tobacco, alcohol and cannabis) were more likely to experience multiple violent acts than those who rarely or never used them. Moreover, Plüddemann, Flisher, McKetin, Parry and Lombard (2010) found that methamphetamine use was associated with aggressive or delinquent behaviour among high school learners in Cape Town.

Concurrently, smoking can be influenced by communities and families where learners are coming from. King, Flisher, Psych, Mallett and Graham (2002) examined the association between antisocial behaviour and tobacco smoking among Black, White and Coloured learners in Cape Town. The study revealed that the majority of learners smoking tobacco are whites with 36.3% as compared to Coloureds (29.7%) and Blacks (9.7%). It was further indicated that personal experience of antisocial behaviour by adults can influence tobacco smoking among high school learners.

It shows that drinking and smoking varies in terms of ethnicity. Cooper (2009:135) states that comparisons of alcohol and tobacco usage amongst sub-populations have been reported and the harmful effects of alcohol and nicotine on renal function were investigated. In addition, Brown and Bobkowski (2011) alluded to the fact that alcohol, tobacco and other drugs are detrimental to adolescents' health.

The abovementioned studies emphasise that alcohol and drug use are more prevalent among young people who attend schools. The main concern is that these substances can be accessed and used in and around school premises. It is this availability that facilitates the pervasiveness.

Prinsloo et al., (2005:29) alluded to that, both legal and illegal drugs are readily available to many young people in South Africa at the broader societal and the specific community levels. Although current legislation in the advertising industry prohibits the sale of alcohol to persons under the age of eighteen, direct or indirect access to alcohol is easy.

#### **2.4.2 Drinking Patterns among University Students**

The prevalence of alcohol use in universities is rife. Findings from studies (Nkhoma & Maforah, 1994; Rocha-Silva, de Miranda & Erasmus, 1996; Pelzer & Phaswana, 1999; Plüddemann et al., 1999; and Madu & Matla, 2003) demonstrate that alcohol use is widespread among university students. The suggestion is that students who drink alcohol while at tertiary institutions have been drinking from high school and those who were not drinking before start to drink at the university.

In a particular study conducted at the then University of the North (Limpopo Province), Pelzer and Phaswana (1999) found that prevalence rate of alcohol use among fifty students (47 males and 43 females) had a difference of 57% and 5% respectively. This is totalled to relatively 41.5% overall. In a similar study at the University of Limpopo, Madu and Matla (2003:126) state that most students who drink report that alcohol is easily accessible on campuses and let alone speak about it. Students who reported to have consumed alcohol regularly indicated that they cannot imagine their university life without alcohol because “is the way of life” or an important part of their sense of self as stated by Parry and Bennetts (1998).

Based on these findings, it clearly shows that male students drink more than their counterparts. The reason is that, traditionally, alcohol use and risky drinking have mainly been linked to male students than female students due to the influence of moral values and gender socialisation (Madu & Matla (2003:130). It means, traditionally, it is a taboo for a woman to be seen drunk especially in the public. In contrast, Pithey and Morojele (2000:10) quote Rocha-Silva, de Miranda and Erasmus (1996) that alcohol drinking is also seen in women, especially in urban areas than in rural areas, with 40.9% and 29.3% respectively.

In their study, it was found that 50.9% males were more likely to have consumed alcohol than females in both the urban (50.9%) and rural (47.2%) areas.

In addition, Madu and Matla (2003:124) state that most students who drink report that alcohol is easily accessible on campuses and let alone speak about it. Some students indicated that drinking alcohol “is the way of life” and cannot imagine life without alcohol. To add on that, Parry and Bennetts (1998) in Parry (2000: 217-218) state that students who drink alcohol regularly mentioned that drinking is “an important part of their sense of self”.

Nkhoma and Maforah (1994) conducted a study of drinking patterns among black university students in the University of Cape Town. They have found that 75% of students reported drinking alcohol in their lifetime, in which 50% were male students. Sixty percent of students mentioned that they usually drink during parties, while 55% drink during weekends, especially from Friday to Sunday.

#### **2.4.3 Alcohol Consumption and Women**

Plüddemann, Theron and Steel (1999) did a research among 543 (269 male and 274 female) second year students at the University of Stellenbosch. Participants were classified in to non-drinkers, moderate drinkers and severe drinkers. The study revealed that of the female students 21% were non-drinkers, 39% moderate drinkers and 40% severe drinkers. The male students consisted of 16% non-drinkers, 27.5% moderate drinkers and 56.5% severe drinkers. However, majority of 33% male students reported drinking three times per week or more, while for those who drink alcohol six or more drinks per occasion were 30.5%. It was also found that 12% of males reported that they drink alcohol to the point of drunkenness almost every day.

Based on the findings of the above mentioned studies, the consensus is that alcohol is the leading substance that the youth use and abuse. They tend to use alcohol with other drugs such as dagga, mandrax, cocaine and others. Some of the reasons they use these substances is because they are easily accessible on day to day basis. It means that the youth are exposed to alcohol and other substances almost every day.

They get exposed to alcohol-induced violence and sexual activities. Researches have demonstrated that risky alcohol drinking is associated with risky sexual practices and behaviours such as unplanned and unprotected sexual interactions among the youth. These kinds of behaviours and practices can result to unwanted pregnancy or exposed to sexually infected diseases like HIV/AIDS.

#### **2.4.4 Alcohol Consumption and Risks of HIV infection in South Africa**

South Africa is facing the epidemic of HIV/AIDS and other Sexually Transmitted Diseases almost every day. Looking in the current status quo of the country, there are several aspects that can be pointed out to cause the widespread of this incurable diseases. For one, unemployment and poverty - these can be used as excuses for one to engage in sexual activities. For example, prostitution is legal in the country. Even though the main cause of engaging in prostitution is not known, the assumption is that sex workers might come from poor backgrounds and using their bodies for an exchange of money is the only way to generate income for themselves and their families.

But, one of the causes of the widespread of sexual infectious diseases is unprotected sex. Studies (Morojele, Kachienga, Mokoko, Nkoko, Parry, Moshia and Saxena, 2006; Kalichman, Simbayi, Cain and Jooste, 2007; Watt, Aunon, Skinner, Kalichman and Pieterse, 2007) have found that the common place for risky sexual practices is at the alcohol-serving venues. According to UNAIDS global report (2010), about 3.1 million people were newly infected with HIV in 1999 and in 2009 was estimated to 2.6 million. Even though there was a declination of new HIV infections, most countries in sub-Saharan Africa still have the majority of those infections which was estimated to 1.8 million in 2009. Studies have recently provided evidence that alcohol use and abuse have a causal link to HIV infections and other STIs, in particular with young people in South Africa.

Recently, a study was conducted Watt et al., (2012) focusing on the practice of exchanging alcohol for sexual favours in alcohol drinking outlets in Cape Town. Data were collected through interviews and observations among thirty-one women and thirteen men aged between eighteen and fifty-five years. The study found out

that practice of trading of alcohol for sex in taverns and *shebeens* is common and expected. Participants admitted that when a man buy alcohol for a woman, it is obvious that he wants to engage with the woman sexually. Other behaviours like sexual harassment and heavy drinking were also reported to be common in those places.

Meanwhile, Morojele et al., (2006:197) show that alcohol consumption has a causal link on risky sexual behaviours among heavy drinkers. The sample of the study consisted of adults between the ages of twenty-five and forty-four years from Gauteng Province. It was a qualitative study, therefore, interviews, observations, in-depth interviews and focus groups were employed to collect data. The findings of the study showed that most participants pointed out that alcohol consumption was rife and commonly used by community members, especially unemployed people and those who frequent alcohol drinking outlets.

Moreover, participants indicated that heavy drinking leads to social problems such as inter-personal and domestic violence. Participants, mainly men, admitted to likely engage in alcohol-induced violence and drunken sex. They emphasised that alcohol would make people to flirt and it becomes easy to reveal their sexual desires towards their potential sexual partners. It was indicated also that they only in protected sex with their “other girlfriends” and not with their spouses, but it not always the case. Participants also indicated that they sometimes regret that they had drunken sex because it might risk their life.

A particular study was done among 772 (614 men, 158 women) patients in a public STI clinic in Cape Town (Kalichman et al., 2007). The sample was made patients who were receiving treatment in the clinic. The findings of the study demonstrated that 45% men and 20% women reported that they had drink before sex in the past three months, while 30% men and 59% women reported that their partner would drink before sexual interactions. Kalichman et al., (2007:1630) drew the conclusion that drunken sex is related to HIV infection risks.

The abovementioned studies showed that alcohol arouses violent and sexual behaviours among alcohol users, especially in alcohol-serving places. It was also

emphasised that protected sex is not guaranteed because both partners are drunk. It is a rule of a thumb that engaging in unprotected sexual interactions can be risky and chances of being infected with HIV and other Sexual Transmission Diseases are high. Apart from this, because alcohol users also get involved in alcohol-induced violence, can endanger them and get infected through the cuts from injuries.

Although it is documented that alcohol use can be influenced by several factors, the proceeding discussion is about the exposure of alcohol to young people. Advertising is considered to be one of those contributing factors. A brief discussion on the history of advertising is also discussed in this section.

## **2.5 THE HISTORY OF ADVERTISING**

Advertising is one of the forms of the medium that existed for a long time. The history of advertising can be divided into:

### **2.5.1 The Genesis of Advertising**

Although advertising is a sign of modernity, it actually can be traced back to the earliest history (Kolker, 2009:90). Branston and Stafford (1999:302) note that flyers were the first form of printed advertising. The first printed advertisements were in 1468 by the British printer called William Caxton when he was promoting one of his books. America experienced the first advertisement in 1704 by John Campbell - the publisher of *Boston News-Letter*. It was in a form of a notice from somebody wishing to sell an estate on Long Island and Colonial newspapers listed cargo arriving from Europe and invited readers to come, look and buy.

Branston and Stafford (1999:302) further point out that the origin of advertising can be traced from when Johannes Gutenberg developed the first printing press in Germany in 1456. This type of the printing press was equipped with movable types cast which permitted mass production of the printed word, made mass-produced advertising possible.

Advertising's early development was inextricably linked to that of the mass-circulation press. British and American newspapers had published paid advertisements since the seventeenth century. These were short and printing factual notices similar to classified advertisements (Gorman & McLean, 2009:69). But, classified advertising was introduced in 1729 by Benjamin Franklin in his newspaper called *Pennsylvanian Gazette*. Classified advertisements have been the bedrock of a major source of income for newspapers since then (Kolker, 2009:90). Since 1758, classified advertisements were intended to provide information of availability of goods and services such as jobs and houses to potential customers till today (Gorman & McLean, 2009:69).

### **2.5.2 Periods of Depression: 1860s – 1890s**

This period is where advertising started to boom because more manufacturing companies were developed and needed to advertise their products to the public. Because there were many companies, there were more products available. Therefore, they had to advertise in order for people to know companies. Advertising was also used to differentiate between the products of different manufacturers (Gorman & McLean, 2009:70).

One of the highlights of periods of depression was overproduction of product by industries which means there was under-consumption. Therefore, industrialists used advertising to market their products in order to increase demand rate (Gorman & McLean, 2009:70). Furthermore, Gorman and McLean (2009:71) state that this period of the history of advertising is when brand naming started. The purpose of brand naming was to make people to be able to differentiate between different products from competitors. It was important to plant distinctions in the mind of the public through advertisements because competing products were more or less identical. This has led to brand-name advertising.

### **2.5.3 The Emergence of Modern Advertising**

This was the beginning of a modern advertising. Modern advertising is a product of the late nineteenth century. This changed the development of advertising drastically.



This period is characterised by a penny newspaper which cost the public only a penny. In 1833, a penny newspaper called *New York Sun* was introduced by Benjamin Day (Branston & Stanfford, 1999:303). In the last two decades of the nineteenth century, the press was transformed, supported by advertising revenue. In these publications small factual notices gave way to larger advertisements incorporating large print, pictures even colour. This was made possible by steam - powered presses. Such physical appearance of advertisements reflected a major shift in intention of providing information to persuading buyers (Gorman & McLean, 2009:70).

#### **2.5.4 Consumer Culture**

The rise of advertising was closely intertwined with the development of consumer culture. In recent years, historians have shown that the origins of consumer culture can be found before the 1880s. The final triumph of these values in the United States occurred only after the World War II. There can be no doubt that the forty years from 1880 saw a major change in American patterns of consumption, and a shift toward the values of consumer culture (Gorman & McLean, 2009:72-73).

In addition, from the late 1920s advertisers increasingly supplemented their use of the printed press by exploiting the new medium of radio. It was the era wherein radio was introduced and advertisers had other avenues to use. Radio provided a new way to try to grab the consumer's attention. More than print advertising, radio allowed the commercial to be blended easily with entertainment. In 1900 to 1930, advertising was already providing revenue for both printing media and electronic media (Gorman & McLean, 2009:72-76).

Today, we see the overwhelming use of new media and social media by advertisers. This reflects an increasing trend of interactive advertisements whereby viewer can respond to become part of the advertising message. Most companies are now using other platforms such as internet and cell phones to advertise their goods and services. Social networks such as facebook and twitter are now considered as the most effective platforms for advertising.

## 2.6 THE HISTORY OF ADVERTISING IN SOUTH AFRICA

According to Oosthuizen (2001:310), advertising in South Africa can be traced back when the concept of commercial sector was introduced. The author further states that when the South African Broadcasting Cooperation (SABC) was established in 1936, the Cooperation had no news service of its own, and reached an agreement with the South African Press Association to provide the SABC with four bulletins a day, to be broadcast at 08:00,13:00,19:00 and 20:00.

In 1938, the cooperation endured an ordeal of low listenership rates and financial difficulties due to wartime shortages and Afrikaaner disenchantment with the service. In order to ease the SABC's financial burden, the cooperation was exempt from income tax on investments and the Post Office's percentage of the license fee was reduced from 5 to 1 per cent. Nonetheless, these measures proved insufficient. Therefore, a new channel was introduced that would be supported by the sale of advertising time (Oosthuizen, 2001:310). In other words, this was the stepping stone of the advertising industry in South Africa.

It was the time for the industry to flourish. This also made the commercial radio to become operational again. The service was primarily aimed at relieving the SABC of its financial problems through the sale of advertising time. In order to expand the commercial radio and generating more revenues, a third bilingual advertising-based radio service, known as *Springbok Radio* was introduced on the 1<sup>st</sup> May 1950. Although, the main of this radio station was to provide good entertainment for its listeners, it gave the advertisers an efficient advertising medium (Oosthuizen, 2001:311).

The implication is that the establishment of commercial radio stations came into rescue for SABC because there was more revenues to ease the financial constraints as the airtime sales for advertisements rose. The term advertising is usually confused with, if not used interchangeably with the term marketing or promotion. Same applies to the term publicity. When one starts talking about advertising, it is rare not to mention marketing and publicity. Marketing and publicity are more suitable terms to describe persuasive activities which work across media.

## **2.7 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ADVERTISING, PUBLICITY AND MARKETING**

Burton (2005: 225-226) describe advertising as a paid-for intentional persuasive communication. It is in itself a vast economic activity and is explicitly devoted to promoting partial views of products and services that it merits critical attention. Meanwhile, Fill (2002:132) defines marketing as planned and integrated communication activity that communicates with an organisation's stakeholders. Burton (2005:225-226) explains publicity as unpaid advertising which can provide good exposure at minimal cost. Publicity usually works alongside advertising, and is about activities which draw attention to, and create a favourable attitude towards the product or service being sold.

From the definitions above, it is gathered that these concepts are described as planned, integrated and intentional communication activities that aim to create a positive attitude towards a products in the mind of the consumer. Thus, draw the attention of the consumers.

Therefore, one could argue that for a product to have a positive reception there is a need for either one or all of these methods. Alcohol is seems to be one of the products that simultaneously receive a great exposure and a positive reception, especially amongst the youth. The following section is about the exposure of alcohol.

## **2.8 ALCOHOL EXPOSURE**

Despite the conflicting claims as to whether there is a direct link between alcohol exposure and the alcohol abuse among the youth, scholars such as Ringel et al., (2006); Grube and Wallack (1994); and Smith and Foxcroft (2009) underpin that excessive alcohol exposure contributes to the abuse of alcohol among the youth.

When reviewing the literature, it is clear that social factors such as peer pressure are not the sole cause of alcohol use and abuse among the youth. Other contributory factors cited by researchers include family background (Pitkänen et al., 2008; Brook, Morojele, Brook & Rosen, 2006; and Onya, Tessera, Myers & Flisher, 2010) cultural and traditional practices, environmental and economic factors (Gumede, 1995;

Clinard & Meier, 2008). By the same token, advertising is the sole determinant of the alcohol consumption by the youth (Anderson et al., 2009). Many government initiatives and public health campaigns have been directed in recent years at curbing young people's use of such substances. However, the unfortunate part is that the substance use is often depicted as being normal in most media products.

The main well-known approaches - economic and consumer studies - have been used to assess the impact of alcohol advertising and alcohol drinking among teenagers, but this study is more into consumer studies because, evidently, they have established beyond reasonable doubt that alcohol advertising encourages the initial and subsequent drinking of alcohol among the youth. This is discussed below.

### **2.8.1 The Causal Link between Alcohol Exposure and Alcohol Use**

A number of longitudinal and cross sectional studies have clearly demonstrated the causal link between the effects of exposure of alcohol advertising and alcohol consumption among teenagers. For instance, Aitken, Eadie, Leathar, McNeil and Scott (1988) study found out that alcohol advertising is more familiar and attracted to young people who are currently drinking alcohol than their counterparts. It has been found that elements such as humour, animation, music and others make the advertisement to be interesting to adolescents. These elements are discussed below.

There are few studies (Atkin and Block, 1983; Connolly, Casswell, Jia-Zhang and Silva, 1994; Kohn and Smart, 1984; Unger, Schuster, Zogg, Dent & Stacy, 2003; Stacy, Zogg, Unger & Dent, 2004; Ellickson et al., 2005) that have indicated that alcohol consumption among young people can be linked directly to advertising exposure. Furthermore, Grube and Wallack (1994) showed that greater recall of alcohol advertising is significantly related to more positive beliefs about alcohol use, which in turn are associated with greater future intentions to drink alcohol among children and adolescents.

Advertising on television was accepted by South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) in January 1978 and this had a major impact on the finances of the press,

which dropped drastically from 46.1% in 1975 to 26.6% in 1987 (Fourie, 2007:50). Most of the research that has attempted to demonstrate relationships between alcohol advertising exposure and consumption among the youth were based on observational surveys, cross-sectional studies or longitudinal studies. Such studies use survey methodology to determine whether reported exposure to alcohol advertising is linked with alcohol consumption.

Some studies demonstrated a positive association between recall of alcohol brands and current alcohol consumption among adolescents. Further, exposure to alcohol advertising directly and positively predicts alcohol consumption for students of middle and high school ages (Adlaf & Kohn, 1989; Collins, Schell, Ellickson & McCaffrey, 2003 and Unger et al., 2003).

In addition, affective responses toward beer advertising are positively related to current and later alcohol use among children and adolescents (Austin & Knaus, 2000; Austin & Nach-Ferguson, 1995; Casswell & Zhang, 1998; Connolly et al., 1994; Wyllie, Zhang, & Casswell, 1998a, 1998b). The relationships between responses toward alcohol advertising and drinking behaviours, however, are complex. It is probable that alcohol advertising may predispose young people to drinking. Conversely, being predisposed to drinking may make young people respond more favourably toward alcohol advertisements.

Pasch et al., (2008: 642) state that research has also shown that increased density of neighbourhood alcohol outlets has been associated with decreases in social capital increased violence in suburban areas, increased assault rates, increased violent crime rates, increased rates of child maltreatment, and increased rates of motor vehicle crashes. Yet, there is a paucity of published literature on youth alcohol use and distance to and density of alcohol outlets.

The exposure to alcohol outlets is important among adolescents, particularly as the distance to and density of alcohol outlets may increase access for youth and alter perceptions of an environment that alcohol use is seen as normative.

Gruenewald (2007:870) indicated that alcohol outlets are environmental features of communities that expose populations to opportunities to drink and socially model others' drinking behaviour. Given the potential role of alcohol advertising in alcohol consumption among the youth, this study investigates how television alcohol advertisements influence alcohol use by the youth in the community of Praktiseer. Furthermore, the researcher in a nutshell discusses some of the aspects of alcohol advertisements that make them more or less appealing to the youth.

Although it has been argued that the marketing of alcohol products has only limited influence, primarily on brand choice (market share), there is growing evidence that marketing also influences how people think and feel about alcohol, and levels and patterns of consumption (market size). Moreover, bans on alcohol advertising have been shown to be both an effective and cost-effective public policy measure to reduce alcohol consumption (Saffer & Dave 2002; and Doran, Vos & Cobiac, 2008).

## **2.8.2 Positive Views on Alcohol Exposure and intentions to drink**

Recently, reviews of longitudinal studies confirm a strong association between alcohol advertising exposure and the drinking behaviour of the youth (Anderson et al., 2009; and Smith & Geller 2009). Exposure to alcohol advertising is associated with initiation of drinking, intention to drink (Pasch et al., 2007), maintenance of drinking (Collins et al., 2007), and increased drinking (Snyder et al., 2006). In addition to that, Agostinelli and Grube (2002) suggested that attention to and the liking of alcohol advertising is closely related to positive views on drinking, increased intentions to drink as an adult and increased drinking behaviour among youth.

The youth is more exposed to alcohol on television than other media outlets. Brown and Bobkowski (2011:117) indicate that around the world, the amount of time adolescents spend with media depends primarily on access. While nearly every household in many developed countries, such as Germany, South Korea, and United States owns at least one television set, rates of ownership are lower in many other parts of the world. For instance, in China in 2002, 90% of households owned a television set, while in South Africa in 2004, only 60% of households did.

Many protective and risk factors have been identified for youth drinking uptake and behaviour. Alcohol marketing has been suggested as one of these risk factors (Babor et al., 2003); with recent systematic reviews appearing to support this assertion (Anderson et al., 2009; and Smith & Foxcroft, 2009). This has led to some within the public health field calling for a complete ban on alcohol marketing, arguing that it is pervasive and linked to youth drinking initiation, consumption levels and continued drinking (Anderson et al., 2009:232).

### **2.8.3 Alcohol Promotion influences pro-drinking Attitudes**

The promotion of alcohol and alcohol products is not sufficiently restricted to prevent the youth coming into contact with alcohol-related images and messages. Research shows that young people are regularly exposed to alcohol advertising (Fielder, Donovan & Ouschan, 2009:1157-1158). Babor et al., (2003); Anderson (2009); and Hurtz, Henriksen, Wang, Feighery and Fortmann (2007) underpin that for young people, the cumulative influence of alcohol marketing inculcates pro-drinking attitudes and plays a significant role in their decision to drink, and their drinking behaviour. But, Nelson (2001:239) holds the thought that advertising of alcoholic beverages is a potential public health issue if it can be shown that advertising has a direct and material effect on alcohol consumption or alcohol abuse outcomes.

Societal norms and portrayals of drinking and drug use in films and advertisements encourage drinking and other drug use, and alcohol advertisements often target young people (Snyder et al., 2006). Recent studies have pointed out that alcohol advertisements are linked to earlier onset of alcohol consumption as well as to greater quantities of consumption among those who have already initiated use (Smith & Foxcroft, 2009: 98-99).

According to Brown and Bobkowski (2011:190) alcohol is the substance most often featured on television. They indicated that in the late 1990s, majority of the United States' top-rated television programmes depicted alcohol use while in 2007 only, more than 340 000 alcohol advertisements were aired. Alcohol portrayals are also displayed in entertainments such as movies, soap operas, situation comedies, music videos and so forth.

In 2001, 35% of the music videos on the United States cable channels MTV and BET (Black Entertainment Television) depicted alcohol, 13% drug use, and 10% included tobacco. They further state that early adolescents' exposure to movies that depict alcohol use also is associated with their likelihood to begin drinking. The amount of alcohol advertising featured within a media market has been shown to be associated with the likelihood of underage drinking (15–20 years old) in that market.

Snyder et al., (2006) studied effects of alcohol advertising exposure on drinking among youth. A random sample of youth aged fifteen to twenty six from twenty-four United States Nielsen media markets were interviewed four times during twenty-one months. Interviews were conducted in April through July 1999, December through to January 2000, May through to June 2000, and December through to January 2001, using a computer-aided telephone interviewing.

The results of the study showed that youth who saw more alcohol advertisements on average drank more. This translates to that each additional advertisement seen increased the number of drinks consumed by 1%. On the other hand, youth in markets with greater alcohol advertising expenditures drank more, which means that each additional dollar spent per capita raised the number of drinks consumed by 3%. This concludes that alcohol advertising contributes to increase drinking among youth.

Smith and Foxcroft (2009) examined the effect of alcohol advertising, marketing and portrayal on drinking behaviour in young people in October 2006 by using seven cohort studies that followed up more than 13,000 young people aged ten to twenty-six years of ages. Those studies evaluated young people's exposure to alcohol advertising or attitudes to alcohol advertising and alcohol drinking behaviour at baseline and alcohol drinking outcomes after a given period of time. Data from prospective cohort studies suggest that there is an association between exposure to alcohol advertising or promotional activity and subsequent alcohol consumption in young people.



There is an enormous wealth of evidence that alcohol advertisements are related to positive attitudes and beliefs about alcohol amongst young people. In addition, Anderson (2007:10-11) states that the content of advertisements is related to expectancies about the use of alcohol amongst young people and the role of alcohol in their lives. Young people are particularly drawn to elements of music, characters, story and humour.

Austin et al., (2006) carried out a study on how alcohol advertising influences underage drinking focusing mainly on the role of desirability, identification and scepticism. Data were collected in 2000 through to 2001 using computer-assisted self-administered interviews with 652 young people aged nine to seventeen years. Latent variable structural equations models showed that scepticism was negatively associated with positive effects toward alcohol portrayals and positively with the desire to emulate characters portrayed in alcohol advertisements.

These, in turn, predicted expectancies and liking of or desire for beer toys and brands, which predicted alcohol use. The conclusion drawn was that media alcohol portrayals influence children's drinking through a progressive decision-making process, with its influence underestimated by typical exposure-and-effects analyses.

Anderson et al., (2009) conducted a series of studies on the impact of alcohol advertising and media exposure on alcohol use from 1990 to 2008. Most of the participants were from the age of eighteen or younger. Amongst them, thirteen of them followed up a total of over 38,000 young people from eight to ninety-six months. Additionally, the studies measured exposure to advertising and promotion in a variety of ways, including estimates of the volume of media and advertising exposure, ownership of branded merchandise, recall and receptivity, and one study on expenditure on advertisements.

Further, one study reported outcomes at multiple time-points, 3, 5, and 8 years. Seven studies provided data on initiation of alcohol use amongst non-drinkers, whereas, three studies on maintenance and frequency of drinking amongst baseline drinkers, and seven studies on alcohol use of the total sample of non-drinkers and drinkers at baseline.

Moreover, twelve of the thirteen studies concluded that an impact of exposure on subsequent alcohol use, including initiation of drinking and heavier drinking amongst existing drinkers, has a dose response relationship in all studies. The thirteenth study, which tested the impact of outdoor advertising placed near schools failed to detect an impact on alcohol use, but found an impact on intentions to use. Therefore, the overall conclusion was that longitudinal studies consistently suggest that exposure to media and commercial communications on alcohol is associated with the likelihood that adolescents will start to use alcohol, and drink more if they are already using alcohol.

#### **2.8.4 Alcohol Exposure and Multiple Youth Drinking Outcomes**

Morgenstern, Isensee, Sargent and Hanewinkel (2011) used a cross-sectional survey of 3415 sixth to eighth graders from twenty-nine schools in three German states in June 2008. Exposure to nine alcohol and eight non-alcohol advertisements was measured with advertisement images. Most students indicated frequent contact and brand recall. They reported ever drinking, current drinking, binge drinking, intentions of using alcohol and expectancies. The study demonstrates a positive association between exposure to alcohol advertising and multiple youth drinking outcomes, showing that the association is content-specific, not a function of general advertisement exposure.

Collins et al., (2007) examined early adolescent exposure to alcohol advertising and its relationship to underage drinking. Two in-school surveys of 1786 South Dakota youth measured exposure to television beer advertisements, alcohol advertisements in magazines, in-store beer displays and beer concessions, radio listening time, and ownership of beer promotional items during 6th grade, and drinking intentions and behaviour at 7<sup>th</sup> grade. Adding to that, the findings showed that multivariate regression equations predicted the two drinking outcomes using the advertising exposure variables and controlling for psychosocial factors and prior drinking.

The outcomes of the survey were that the joint effect of exposure to advertising from all six sources at Grade 6 was strongly predictive of Grade 7 drinking and Grade 7 intentions to drink. Youth in the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of alcohol marketing exposure had a

predicted probability of drinking that was 50% greater than that of youth in the 25th percentile.

Recently, a study by (Gordon, Harris, Mackintosh and Moodie, 2011) on the impact of alcohol marketing on youth drinking behaviour revealed that there is an association between involvement with, and awareness of, alcohol marketing and drinking uptake or increased drinking frequency. A two-stage cohort study was undertaken. The study utilised a self-administered questionnaire and interview. Respondents were drawn from secondary schools in three local areas of the West of Scotland, in United Kingdom. A sample of 920 teenagers aged from 12 to 14 years old in 2006 was done and then two years later a cohort of 552 teenagers aged 14 to 16 years old were followed up. Data were gathered on multiple forms of alcohol marketing and measures of drinking initiation, frequency and consumption.

### **2.8.5 Alcohol Expectancies**

Gordon et al., (2011) also conducted a study called Assessing the Cumulative Impact of Alcohol Marketing on Youth Drinking. The baseline was conducted from October 2006 to March 2007 and the follow-up was conducted 2 years later, from October 2008 to March 2009. The findings show a slight association between awareness of and involvement with alcohol marketing, and youth drinking behaviour. They also show a significant association between appreciation of alcohol advertising and youth drinking behaviour.

Marketing is only one of a number of variables that can influence youth towards drinking often to a greater degree as compared to other factors such as family drinking and peer influence.

This is emphasised by the study conducted by Gentile, Walsh, Bloomgren, Attie and Noorman (2001) which shows that media and advertisements are the most significant predictors of adolescents' knowledge about alcohol brands, preference for alcohol brands, current drinking behaviours, alcohol brand loyalty, and intentions to drink. They further state that one mediating variable that has received empirical support is that of alcohol expectancies.

Expectancies can be defined as the attitudes (usually positive) about the effects and potential benefits that are derived from drinking. They are theoretically and empirically linked to advertising, because they are usually used as the types of attitudes that beer advertisements attempt to teach. Such attitudes like 'There is always alcohol at a really good party,' or 'You have more fun if you are drinking alcohol'.

Engels, Hermans, van Baaren, Hollentein and Bot (2009) carried out a survey on alcohol portrayal in movies, and commercials are generally positive and might stimulate young people to drink. Young adult male pairs were in a natural setting, watching a movie clip for an hour with two commercial breaks. They were also allowed to drink non-alcohol and alcoholic beverages. These participants were randomly assigned to one of four conditions varying on the type of movie (many versus few alcohol portrayals) and commercials (alcohol commercials present or not).

This resulted in participants assigned to the conditions with substantial alcohol exposure in either movies or commercials consuming more alcohol than other participants. Those in the condition with alcohol portrayal in movie and commercials drank on average 1.5 glasses more than those in the condition with no alcohol portrayal, within a period of one hour. The study thus demonstrated a causal link between exposure to drinking models and alcohol commercials on acute alcohol consumption.

### **2.8.6 Elements contained in Alcohol Advertisements**

As to what youth like about alcohol advertisements, Waiters, Treno and Grube (2001) found that children and adolescents respond positively to animals, humour, and musical elements featured in television alcohol advertisements. Elementary school children were particularly fond of the animal characters. Specifically, young girls were attracted to animals' cuteness, whereas boys were attracted to animals' actions or voices.

In addition, Atkin and Block (1983:58) assert that advertisements featuring celebrities are rated significantly more interesting, effective, and important, and stronger than those with non- celebrity endorsers. Furthermore, the study done by Chen, Grube, Bersamin, Waiters and Keefe (2005) examined the liking of specific elements such as humour, music, people characters, animal characters and story) contained in a sample of beer advertisements. They found that liking of specific elements contributed to overall liking of the advertisement and subsequent advertising effectiveness and purchase intentions.

Concurrently, youth liking of elements contained in alcohol advertisements has been established in the literature and humour is a widely used advertising technique, particularly in television (Catanescu & Tom, 2001; and Zhang & Zinkhan, 2006). Whilst humour appeals to most audiences, various forms appeal to different age groups. For instance, slapstick and clownish humour appeal to children (Buijzen & Valkenberg, 2004), adolescents also like slapstick humour but enjoy more sophisticated forms such as sarcasm, irony and sexual allusion (Acuff & Reiher, 1997).

It is reported that children who are more aware of beer advertisements are also more knowledgeable about beer brands and slogans, have more favourable attitudes towards drinking, and are more likely to report an intention to drink beer once they are adults. It is also stated that teenagers often pay more attention to beer commercials than to soft drink commercials, partly because beer advertisements use techniques, such as animation and cute animal icons that appeal to children (Grube & Wallack, 1994:257).

Popular music is another element used in advertising that appeals to children and youth, hence, it has become a pervasive element in advertising. Liking of the music in an advertisement has been identified as influencing alcohol effectiveness among the youth (Chen et al., 2005:554-555). Research indicates that beer advertisements containing an engaging storyline have been found to be more attractive to youth than those without them (Chen et al., 2005; Miller & Mizerski, 2005; and Austin et al., 2006).

A cross-sectional survey (Hurtz et al., 2007) was administered in non-tracked required courses to 2125 Grades six, seven and eight in three California middle schools. Two-thirds of middle school students reported at least weekly visits to liquor, convenience, or small grocery stores where alcohol advertising is widespread. Such exposure was associated with higher odds of ever drinking, but was not associated with current drinking. One-fifth of students reported owning at least one alcohol promotional item. These students were three times more likely to have ever tried drinking and 1.5 times more likely to report current drinking than students without such items. This study provides clear evidence of an association of adolescent drinking with weekly exposure to alcohol advertising in stores and with ownership of alcohol promotional items.

Additionally, Ellikson et al., (2005) found that alcohol advertising has the power to influence adolescents' drinking behaviours with studies reporting a positive effect between exposure to alcohol advertising and the initiation or reinforcement of alcohol consumption. The influence of alcohol exposure on alcohol consumption does not apply only on television. Some studies have shown that alcohol exposure in other media industries such as magazines is found. King III, Siegal, Jernigan, Wulach, Ross and Dixon (2009:631-632) indicated that alcoholic beverages popular among the underage youths are more likely than those less popular among youths to be advertised in magazines with high youth readerships.

Garfield, Chung and Rathouz (2003) survey confirmed that magazine advertising by the beer and liquor industries is associated with adolescent readership. They further elaborated that adolescent readership ranged from 1.0 to 7.1 million. The alcohol industry placed 9148 advertisements at a cost of 696 million dollars. Of the 9148 advertisements, 1201 (13%) were for beer, 443 (5%) for wine, and 7504 (82%) for liquor. This translates to 1.6 times more for beer with 95% confidence interval and 95% for liquor. Wine industry advertising was not associated with adolescent readership.

Despite the intensive evidence that alcohol exposure is associated with the use and abuse of alcohol by youth, there is still much debate about whether alcohol advertising is partially responsible for youth consumption trends. Some studies failed

to reproduce similar findings on the correlation of alcohol exposure and alcohol consumption by the youth.

On the one hand, Sobell, Sobell, Toneatto and Leo (1993) in Gentile et al., (2001:11) oppose that exposure to televised alcohol advertising has also been found to produce a decrease in the confidence of heavy drinkers that they could resist drinking heavily again in the future. On the other hand, the study of Gunter, Hansen and Touri (2009) showed that there are no significant relationships between exposure to any type of alcohol advertising (cinema, magazine, television) and general alcohol consumption.

They further explain that exposure to televised advertising for *alcopops* and for cider in each case emerged as a significant predictor of consumption of each of those types of alcohol. While there was no evidence that alcohol advertising plays a significant role in shaping general alcohol consumption among young people, it does seem to play a part in driving consumption of certain types of alcoholic beverage.

Although, the South African government have suggested the banning of alcohol advertising on the media, there are still some disputes whether it can be a better solution in curbing the alcohol abuse by youth. Some researchers interested in alcohol advertising state that alcohol industry is very crucial in the economy of most countries. The study of Schneider, Norma, Parry, Bradshaw and Pluddeman (2007) confirmed that alcohol is now an integral part of the South African economy, and the wine and brewing industries have made South Africa a role player in the global alcohol market. On the other hand, the alcohol industry generates income for many South Africans through job creation and taxes. But it was also reported that in 2002 and 2003 alcohol abuse cost the country R9 billion.

Other suggestions were made such as one of them was to revisit the regulatory system and stiff up some clauses stipulated in the regulatory system of advertising industry. However, Snyder et al., (2006:19-20) state that, even when the alcohol industry adheres to their advertising practices and code, requiring that at least 70% of the audience for print, radio and television advertisements consist of adults of legal drinking age, many youth are exposed to alcohol advertisements.

The regulatory system of advertising industry is discussed below. But, first and foremost, there is a need to discuss alcohol expenditure.

## **2.9 ALCOHOL-RELATED EXPENDITURES**

While the extent to which alcohol exposure actually influence the way in which the youth structure their attitudinal and behavioural orientations towards alcohol consumption will be discussed later in this chapter, suffice it to say at this point that the society widely, if not universally, believe that alcohol exposure on television has the most significant impact on the intake of alcohol amongst the youth.

Although, alcohol abuse causes enormous economic, social and emotional cost, it is not doubtful that alcohol industry is one of the components that contribute to domestic economy in South Africa. This is confirmed by the analysis of Fieldgate, Jeffrey, Madinane, Ebrahim, Soobyah and Jordaan (2013: 35) indicating that "...the industry makes a huge contribution to employment, domestic output (GDP), taxation and export earnings. Therefore, this should be regarded as an important component for the growth of the economy." The alcohol industry has developed into a major force in the economy of South Africa by providing employment and contributing largely to domestic output (GDP), export earnings and government taxation revenues.

According to an analysis of Fieldgate et al., (2013: 35-34) indicates that Quantec Research estimated that liquor industry employed roughly 21,300 workers in 2009, with around 15,100 working in the wine and spirits segments of the market and 6,200 in the malt beer industry. The industry contributes to government taxation through excise duties, value added tax (VAT), corporate tax and personal income tax. They further indicates that the direct impact of the liquor industry on tax revenue was estimated at R19,5 billion in 2009, whereas indirect and induced impacts raised the government tax to an estimation of R41,8 billion the same year. In addition, the 2013 Budget Review shows that the government received 100, 98 in excise tax from every 340 ml can of malt beer sold in 2012/2013.



Although the industry makes valuable contributions to the economy of South Africa, the scourge of alcohol abuse is still a major concern in the country. The relationship between alcohol advertising and consumption is complex. On one hand, the alcohol and advertising industries steadfastly reject the link between alcohol advertising and consumption. On the other hand, alcohol advertisers inject cash flow to the media industry.

Kolker (2009:89) states that it is not a matter of transforming people's mind but the economic structure of the society. The role of advertising is to create a circulation of a capital, which is the foundation of the media design. When viewers buy, they help create profit for the company that is advertising, making them richer, allowing them to advertise more.

### **2.9.1 ALCOHOL ADVERTISING EXPENDITURES**

Television is one of the medium that seems to be dominating as compared to others on alcoholic beverages advertising spend. Ringel et al., (2006:473) state that in 2002 the alcohol industry spent over \$1.9 billion on media advertising with the largest share of 58% being spent on television.

Additionally, in 2002, the alcohol industry spent \$1.42 billion on advertising through television, radio, print and outdoor advertising, which is a 17% increase from 1999. The beer industry spent \$ 891 million; and the wine and wine cooler industry, \$133 million. More than 77% of distilled liquor advertising expenditures went to magazines (Garfield et al., 2003: 2425-2426).

This implication is that advertising is indeed a source of income in this process because it allows the media to flourish by providing the cash they need. The common understanding of profit gained from the advertising is that it only benefits the media. However, alcohol industry contributes to the economy of the country.

According to Fieldgate et al., (2013:52-54) in 2011 it was estimated that R1.73 billion was spent on liquor advertising. It was also estimated that in 2012 R1.8 billion was spent on liquor advertising alone. This implies that, total media advertising

expenditure totalled R34.2 billion in 2012. Alcohol beverages advertising spent increased from 3.6% in 2000 to 5.3% from 2000 to 2012 respectively. Among all the categories, alcoholic beverages had the 7th largest share in total advertising spend in 2012.

It clearly shows that alcohol advertising have a larger portion in the media industry. If this is the case, therefore, the liquor industry plays a bigger role in both the media and the economy of the country. This can also mean that there will always be a high demand for alcohol, thus, the problem of alcohol abuse will remain the problem to the societies for ever.

Alcohol abuse is widely recognised as a major social problem with significant consequences related to health, safety and other societal factors. Much has been made of the influence of alcohol on the youth and adults. However, one related area that has remained largely opaque is the direct causal relationship between alcohol advertisements and alcohol consumption amongst the youth. Despite the profusion of research done primarily on the aftermaths of alcohol abuse, relatively, it is still difficult to measure the economic costs of alcohol abuse. Nevertheless, estimations of these costs can give a light of the dimensions of alcohol abuse. The economic costs of alcohol can be divided as follows:

### **2.9.2 Alcohol-related Problems**

Individuals develop and live in social systems through physiological and psychological processes. People influence and are influenced by their families, social networks, the organisations in which they participate, their communities, and their society. They are guided by norms and values within their social systems. Interventions to improve health or to influence health-related behaviour can occur at any one or several of those levels. It is necessary to understand the interactions between health and behaviour and the interplay among them.

As Rehm, Gmel, Sempos and Trevisan (2003:49) point out, alcohol use is related to a huge health burden in the United States and most countries worldwide. It is related

to a wide variety of negative health outcomes including morbidity, mortality, and disability. Rehm and Patra (2010:12) state that approximately 39 deaths per 100 000 population are attributable to alcohol and illicit drug use across the globe.

Alcohol dependence and alcohol abuse or harmful use causes substantial morbidity and mortality as stated by (Fieldgate et al., 2013:37). Excessive alcohol use can range from immediate health risks to long term health risks. Major diseases such as cancer, cardiovascular diseases, dementia, high blood pressure and sexual transmitted diseases are commonly linked to alcohol. Rehm et al., (2003:44) emphasise that many studies have reported consistent relationships between average consumption of alcohol and different types of cancer. These health conditions can also lead to death.

Grant, Springbett and Graham (2009:14) state that in 2003, the overall estimation of death attributed to alcohol consumption in Scotland was 2,882 (5.0%) among people aged sixteen and above. In comparison, in 2004, 3.8% of all deaths in South Africa were attributed to alcohol. Furthermore, there were an estimated 9.2% of burden of disease and injury attributed to alcohol the same year (Fieldgate et al., 2013:38-39).

Injuries such road traffic accidents, pedestrian accidents, drowning, fire and falls are usually linked to excessive alcohol use. Although records on fire deaths caused by alcohol are scarce, records show that among people aged less than 65 years, 22% of male falls and 14% of female falls were attributed to alcohol, compared to 12% and 4% of falls among male and females aged 65 years and over respectively (Grant et al., 2009:14). Therefore, the consensus is that alcohol plays a causal role in the development of mortality and morbidity. Alcohol abuse can cause social and medical impacts on the user and people around him. This is discussed as follows:

### **2.9.3 Social and Medical Impacts of Alcohol**

Apart from chronic and acute health effects caused by alcohol abuse, there are psychological and social impacts which often associated with alcohol consumption. These include violence, domestic abuse, homicide, absenteeism in the workplace, and so forth.

### *(a) Social impact of alcohol*

Alcohol abuse is linked to social ills such as violent crime in neighbourhood, domestic violence and marital disharmony. Schneider et al., (2007:665) state that injury burden attributable to alcohol is substantially higher for men than for women. Violence accounts for 69.5% of the disability adjusted life years-DALYs attributed to alcohol in males and 58.3% in females.

The impact of alcohol consumption reaches deep into society. Alcohol consumption causes harm far beyond the physical and psychological health of the drinker. It also causes harm to the well-being and health of others. Diseases and injuries, for instance, have social implications, including medical costs (such as alcohol addiction treatment facilities) that are borne by governments, negative effects on productivity, and financial and psychological burdens on families (Fieldgate et al., 2013:39).

### *(b) Medical impact of alcohol*

The researcher found it necessary to discuss the health cost and psychological impact of alcohol as separate entities in order to emphasize the impact of alcohol use on them. The increasingly popular practice among adolescents and young adults of consuming alcohol has raised concern regarding potential increases in maladaptive drinking practices, negative psychological and physiological intoxication side effects, and risky behavioural outcomes.

Mental health can have different connotations to different people. For example, it can include happiness, contentment, and so forth and mental ill-health is the opposite of this such as sadness, exhaustion, confusion and so on.

Alcohol abusers can suffer from psychological disorders such as anxiety disorder and depression. The most common types of anxiety disorders are generalised as anxiety disorder, panic disorder and obsessive-compulsive disorder (Schneider et al., 2007:665-666). Although psychological disorders can be caused by external influences such as alcohol, the effects can be for temporary or last for longer period.

For instance, alcohol can have the ability to affect one's mood- arouse emotions and dampen down others. This can include other symptoms like depression, sleep problems, to mention the few. Alcohol abuse can lead to addiction, which can be costly to recover. For example, alcohol treatment and recovery facilities such as rehabilitation can be expensive because they need quality treatment programs, qualified medical professionals, the treatment location that caters to patient's needs and budget, transportation and etcetera.

According to National Institute on Drug Abuse (2011), the total costs of drug abuse and addiction due to use of tobacco, alcohol and illegal drugs are estimated at \$524 billion a year in the United States. Add to that, the average cost for treatment of alcohol or drug abuse in outpatient facilities was an estimated \$1,433 per course of treatment in 2002, according to report released by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration SAMHSA (2008).

*(c) Alcohol and its impact in workplace*

Alcoholism can be characterised by compulsive and uncontrolled consumption of alcohol, binge drinking, blackouts and irresponsible behaviour when under the influence. Missing work, school, social withdrawal and isolation are symptoms of alcohol addiction.

According to National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Abuse - NCADA (2009) substance abuse and addiction are problems that plague the workplace across the board, especially amongst full-time workers aged 18-25, of whom 38% are binge drinkers.

The costs to society in terms of lost productivity, health care costs, traffic accidents, and personal tragedies are staggering. Alcohol is a major factor in injuries, both at home, at work, and on the road. But, despite the existence of comprehensive guidelines for alcohol policies in workplaces, alcoholism is still at high rate.

According to Breugem, Barnett, Cormack, O'Keeffe and Bowshall (2006:21-22), emphasise that alcohol is a contributing factor in an estimated 4% of work-related

fatalities whilst other drugs are estimated to contribute to 2% of work-related fatalities. In total, alcohol and other drugs are involved in at least 5% of work-related fatalities in Australia. Moreover, alcohol use is associated with 3% to 11% of workplace injuries, whilst the involvement of other drugs is likely to be approximately 2%.

In the workplace, the costs of alcoholism and alcohol abuse can manifest themselves in different ways. An excessive alcohol use while at work can jeopardise both efficiency and safety by increasing the likelihood of mistakes, errors of judgement, and accident proneness and other on-the job injuries. It can lead to poor performance of duties- including absenteeism, inefficiency, poor decision making and damaged customer relations and productivity problems such as procrastination, inconsistent performance, poor quality of work and other frequent mistakes. Sickness absence due to heavy drinking can also lead to dismissal or unemployment.

A report by Medical Research Council and UNISA (2007) indicates that alcohol abuse costs South Africa at least R9 billion a year. It has a negative effect on the community and business sectors due to absenteeism, poor productivity, high job turnover, interpersonal conflicts, injuries and damage to property.

What is gathered here is that alcohol consumption can put both the user and other people at risks. On the one hand, the alcohol industry always claims that the youth is not their target. The basement of its argument is that it is guided by regulatory system. On the other hand, the society and the government emphasise that the regulation of advertising is not tight enough to discourage alcohol consumption. Instead, it helps the industry to promote alcohol consumption by the way they package these advertisements.

Most countries have adopted the self-regulatory system, which might also be the reason most governments want to tighten up the system or a total ban of alcohol advertising in the media. A snapshot of the regulatory system of advertising industry is discussed below.

## 2.10 ALCOHOL ADVERTISING REGULATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

As the clamour to impose tighter regulations on alcohol advertising grows in a number of countries, there has been a rise in the number of alcohol industry-funded 'policy' groups aimed at supporting responsible drinking policies and programs. This includes the Industry Association for responsible Alcohol Use (ARA), Tavern Intervention Programme for Men (TIP), Arrive Alive, Drive Awake and media campaigns, such as Drive Awake, Reality Check, No Regret Friday, to name but a few.

Advertising is accorded constitutional protection as a form of expression by section 16 of *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. Advertisements may be limited by the conflicting rights of others or by law of general application, for instance section 36 of the Constitution (Burns, 2001:238). Hence, measures of control are generally put in place to protect society from deceptive, misleading or harmful advertising. Most developed countries have established programmes of self-regulation which complement their legal systems (Harker, 1998:102).

Moreover, Haker and Cassim (2002:2) alluded that regulation is primarily concerned with social control and specifically the interaction between authority and exchange. The authority of the state is used to protect those involved in the exchange process. The item exchanged in advertising is information and problems arise when misleading, deceptive or offensive information is communicated to the marketplace.

In other words, the prime function of regulatory system in advertising industry is to instruct the advertisers to oblige to adhere to the codes of conduct according to the system. It also enables the society to communicate their views or feel free to complain should they feel offended by any advertisement. The alcohol industry can choose between self-regulation and State regulation. South Africa's alcohol industry is self-regulated.

In many developed countries, alcohol marketing and advertising are subject to a system of self-regulation operated by representatives of the advertising, media and alcohol industries. One of the major aims of alcohol self-regulatory codes is to

prohibit advertising that targets underage youth. However, the effectiveness of these codes has been questioned in Australia and elsewhere (Jones & Donovan, 2002:126-127).

In 1969, the advertising industry formed the Advertising Standards Authority (ASA) and adopted a code of conduct based on the British Code of Advertising Practice and the International Code of Advertising Practice (Burns, 2001:239). The advertising industry can be self-regulated or be regulated by the government. The difference between State regulation and self-regulation is outlined below.

### **2.10.1 State regulation versus self-regulation**

The advertising industry in most developing countries operates in a system of self-regulation. Advertisers, advertising agencies and the media agree on a code of advertising standards that they attempt to uphold (Harker & Cassim, 2002:1). Wilmshurst and Mackay (1999:20) define State regulation as:

...those rules or statutes that are enforced by the government for the purpose of providing consumers protection against harmful advertising. However, this method of regulation has always been criticised as being oppressive, ineffectual, and weakly enforced.

Currently, alcohol advertising in South Africa is covered by a number of laws and codes of practice, including the Trade Practices Act of 1979 and the Consumer Affairs Act of 1999. In addition, there are a further 72 Acts that make reference to advertising within specific spheres of activity in South Africa (Haker, 1998:103).

This discussion about regulation of advertising acknowledges that advertising industry has to be regulated in order to avoid exploitation of customers and to encourage fair play amongst the advertisers. It also elaborates the voluntary role of the regulatory body for protecting customers by enforcing statutes that are stipulated in the legislation system of the advertising industry.

The researcher finds it also important to discuss the nature of regulatory system in developed and developing countries in order to show the benchmark for developing



countries in terms of regulation of advertising. Broadcast advertising for alcoholic beverages is subject to various regulatory limitations and must comply with many different self-regulatory standards and industry codes of conduct. These various safeguards complement each other at national level to ensure the highest level of responsibility on all broadcast advertising.

Therefore, there is a need for the development of alcohol policy in order to control the availability and accessibility of alcohol beverages. Babor et al., (2003:66-67) defines alcohol policy as measures put in place to control the supply or affect the demand for alcoholic beverages in a population, including education and treatment programs, alcohol control and harm-reduction strategies.

### **2.10.2 Alcohol Policy Measures**

A variety of measures has been implemented around the world to limit drinking among young people, yet, how best to reduce risks of alcohol abuse amongst them, remains uncertain. Prevention and intervention measures, such as limiting accessibility of alcohol by young people through minimum drinking age laws and educating them about risks of taking alcohol through campaigns, have been introduced. Yet, the rate of alcohol abuse is high.

The implementation of public policies seeking to address the links between alcohol consumption, health and social welfare would thus be considered as alcohol policies, bearing in mind the main purpose of alcohol policies in the first place which is to serve the interests of public health and social well-being through their impact on health and social determinants, such as drinking patterns, the drinking environment, and the health services available to treat problem drinkers (Babor et al., 2003:68). This definition is thus born out of recognition of the fact that alcohol-related problems are the result of a complex interplay between individual use of alcoholic beverages and the surrounding cultural, economic, physical environment, political and social contexts.

Godfrey and Maynard (1995:238) have classified various policy options available to reduce the public health burden of alcohol consumption into three main groups, namely:

- population based policies,
- problem-directed policies, and
- direct interventions.

According to Godfrey and Maynard (1995:238), population-based policies are policies aimed at altering levels of alcohol consumption among the population. They include policies on taxation, advertising, availability controls which include prohibition, rationing and state monopolies, promotion of beverages with low or no alcohol content, regulation of density of outlets, hours and days of sale, drinking locations, and minimum drinking age, health promotion campaigns and school-based education.

Such strategies are usually seen as relatively 'blunt' instruments, because, rather than being directed at only those people with drinking problems, they affect all drinkers. However, it is worth noting that, except for school-based education and health promotion campaigns, these are generally the policies where effectiveness has been most clearly demonstrated (Godfrey & Maynard, 1995:238-239).

Godfrey and Maynard (1995-238-239) describe the problem-directed policies as policies that are aimed at specific alcohol-related problems such as drink driving, for example, the promotion of widespread random breath testing or alcohol-related offences. These policies are more focused and, hence, are less likely to affect the non-problem drinker. However, there is a risk that focusing on achieving reductions in one problem only might, in turn, cause others to go unnoticed and maybe even worsen in magnitude.

The same authors explain direct interventions policies as policies that involve interventions directed at individual drinkers. These include brief interventions, treatment and rehabilitation programs. Except for brief interventions, many such 'treatments' are administered only to those individuals with the most severe

problems. Successful interventions have potentially a major impact in improving the individual's quality of life, but would have to encompass a sizable population of this particular group in order to have a noticeable impact on the macro level of problems.

Restricting availability means putting obstacles and regulations on how easy it is to obtain alcoholic beverages, or when, where and to whom it is sold and served. Restricting the availability of alcoholic beverages thus includes a variety of measures from sales monopolies to sales restrictions and age limits, all measures that are generally considered to be effective. The availability can be restricted by either physical or economic means.

For instance, in South Africa, the legal limit is a breath alcohol content of 0.24mg per 1,000ml, or a blood alcohol limit of 0.05gram per 100ml as indicated by National Road Traffic Act 93 of 1996 section 65 (1) and (2) as follows:

- (1) No person shall on a public road -
  - (a) drive a vehicle; or
  - (b) occupy the driver's seat of a motor vehicle the engine of which is running, while under the influence of intoxicating liquor or a drug having a narcotic effect.
- (2) No person shall on a public road –
  - (a) drive a vehicle; or
  - (b) occupy the driver's seat of a motor vehicle the engine of which is running,  
while the concentration of alcohol in any specimen of blood taken from any part of his or her body is not less than 0, 05 gram per 100 millilitres, or in the case of a professional driver referred to in section 32, not less than 0, 02 gram per 100 millilitres.

Another control measure that is in place in South Africa is public drinking. Liquor Act 29 of 1989 section 154 (1) (c) provides that a person who is drunk in or near:

- (a) any road, street, lane, thoroughfare, square, park or market;
- (b) any ship, warehouse or public garage, shall be guilty of an offence and may be prosecuted accordingly.

Österberg and Simpura (1999:30) state that in most countries there is some form of legislation that deals with the production and sale of alcoholic beverages, as they are usually regarded as a special commodity. The rationale behind these regulations varies from quality control of products and public health considerations to elimination of the private–profit interest and religious considerations, all of which can provide support for stringent restrictions.

According to the World Health Organisation (1999), there are areas such as definition of alcoholic beverage, restrictions on availability, drink driving, price and taxation, advertising and sponsorship, and alcohol-free environments that need to be considered when determining alcohol policies. For instance, on-premises retail sale and off-premise retail sale. Off-premise retail sale refers to the selling of alcoholic beverages for consumption elsewhere and not on the site of sale.

World Health Organisation (1999) differentiates on-premises retail sale and off-premise retail sale as follows:

Off-premise sale takes place, for example, in state monopoly stores, wine shops, supermarkets, and petrol stations or kiosks, depending on the regulations of the country. While on-premises retail sale refers to the selling of alcoholic beverages for consumption at the site of the sale, generally in pubs, bars, cafes or restaurants.

*(a) Definition of an alcoholic beverage*

An integral part of the legislation on alcohol is the definition of an alcoholic beverage, as that definition sets the limit for when the laws apply and to what beverages they apply. The definition is usually not considered as an area of alcohol policy, but it can potentially have important repercussions. The consequence of a limit that is set very high is that some beverages with lower alcohol content are not subject to any regulation (World Health Organisation, 1999). For example, the limit of alcohol by volume could be set at such a level that cider is not considered an alcoholic beverage, leaving it outside of any advertising restrictions. Beverages just below the

legal limit are also not subject to an alcohol specific tax, which, justifiably, can be used for promoting beverages with lower alcohol content.

*(b) State monopolies and licensing systems*

One of the choices available to governments in relation to alcoholic beverages is to decide on the level of control over the sale and production of alcoholic beverages. Governments can elect full control (State monopoly), partial control (licensing system) or no control (which could entail that anybody is allowed to sell or serve alcoholic beverages).

Alcohol should be considered a special commodity as noted by Babor et al., (2003:70-72) that should be controlled by specific regulations. However, the strictness of these general sales restrictions may vary to a great degree from one country to another.

Holder, Kuhlhorn, Nordlund, Osterberg, Romelsjo and Unland (1998:22) state that a retail State monopoly usually means that a body run by the state is the main or only body allowed to sell alcoholic beverages off premises. Often a system of State monopoly stores also means a smaller number of outlets and limited hours of sale.

Rehn, Room and Edwards (2001:11) indicate that, traditionally, the State monopoly approach has been characteristic of the developed countries. However, recent political developments have led to changes that have deregulated the market and opened up availability in some of these countries. In addition, Babor et al., (2003:70) state that the existing evidence is fairly strong that off-premise State monopolies limit both alcohol consumption and related problems, and that abolishing monopolies can increase alcohol consumption.

While the World Health Organisation (2001) notes that, apart from the monopolies, some countries require a licence for the sale of at least one alcoholic beverage. Holder et al., (1998: 22) say that a licensing system entails that anyone who wants to sell or produce alcoholic beverages has to apply for a licence granted by the municipality, local government or the state, usually paying a fee.

Although people are granted the license to sell or produce alcohol, it can increase the level of alcohol drinking because the license does not explain how much the license holder should sell or produce. Since they have a permission to do so, it means alcohol will be available anytime. Meanwhile, in other countries, there are no specific restrictions on the off premise sale of alcoholic beverages. One explanation is that these countries may have general sales restrictions that cover all goods that are not alcohol-specific (World Health Organisation, 2001). This is because countries have different licensing systems. Some countries require licences while others have state monopolies or have no restrictions in place. Production monopolies are often mainly intended to assure that taxes are collected effectively, rather than having any great public health purpose.

*(c) Age requirements for purchase and consumption of alcoholic beverages*

Setting minimum legal age limits is a measure targeted at barring young people, who are regarded as particularly vulnerable, from having easy access to alcoholic beverages. The age of onset of drinking alcoholic beverages has been found to be important regarding short term as well as long term effects on health (Chou & Pickering, 1992:1199).

In many countries, a minimum age exists at which it becomes legally permissible to drink or to purchase alcohol. The implementation of such legislation is seen as a means to control when young people are introduced to beverage alcohol. It sets a formal threshold at which the consumption of alcohol is deemed appropriate in a particular society and provides a legally enforceable tool in preventing alcohol access by those under a certain age. One of the few studies from outside North America shows that introducing an age limit of 15 years for off-premise sales in Denmark in 1995 reduced alcohol consumption among youth, both under and over the legal age limit (Møller, 2002:155).

The overall legal age for drinking and purchasing alcohol varies from fifteen to twenty-one years. However, in most African countries two thirds have an age limit of seventeen or eighteen (Gabhainn & François, 2000:1). Grube and Nygaard (2001:88) state that there is fairly strong empirical support for laws that raise the

drinking age requirements, as they reduce alcohol consumption and problems among young people. However, potential benefits from drinking age laws are maximised if the laws are enforced through frequent and consistent checking by sales assistants and bar staff for the age of customers, both off- and on-premises. Evidence exists that even a moderate increase in enforcement can significantly reduce the sale of alcoholic beverages to under-age youth (Wagenaar, Murray & Toomey, 2000).

*(d) Drink driving legislation*

Many alcohol policy measures have been shown to reduce alcohol-related traffic accidents and fatalities. These include increased alcohol prices, minimum purchase ages and reductions in the density of sales outlets, supported by mass media campaigns. Drink driving is another policy measure introduced in South Africa. The introduction of drink driving legislation was to reduce the risk of harm to the driver, passengers, pedestrians and other drivers. According to World Health Organisation (1999), the aim of drink-driving legislation is to reduce the number of accidents, injuries and fatalities that result from driving while being intoxicated. In many cases, this approach also covers legislation for boating and civil aviation, and even bicycling in some countries.

In most countries, it is against the law to drive while above a specified Blood Alcohol Concentration (BAC). World Health Organisation (1999) states that the legal blood alcohol concentration level in a country is usually based on the evidence of risk, public safety and what is perceived as publicly convenient and acceptable.

There are several methods of testing for the intoxication of drivers such as random or justified suspicion after accident, breathalyser, blood or urine sampling. But, Rehn et al., (2001:13-15) are of the view that the effectiveness of any drink-driving law is primarily determined by the degree of certainty of detection and the quickness of punishment. A successful drink driving strategy would ideally require highly visible, frequent and random road checks, which include breath testing and blood sampling.

Moreover, Babor et al., (2003:72-73) concur that occasional roadblocks where all drivers are tested would not qualify as true Random Breath Testing (RBT) but, a highly visible or non-selective testing can have a sustained and significant effect in reducing drink driving and the associated crashes, injuries and deaths. In Australia, one study found that RBT was twice as effective as selective checkpoints (Henstridge, Homel & Mackay, 1997:23). Babor et al., (2003:73) state that there is evidence to support the conclusion that a fairly low BAC limit, visible and frequent enforcement, suspension of driving licence in case of an offence and certainty of punishment together form a successful drink driving legislation.

In addition, the World Health Organisation (2001) states that drink driving legislation is quite widespread, with almost all countries having a defined, legal BAC limit for driving a car, but in more than 25% of the countries that limit is fairly high, with plus 0.6 per millilitre.

Drink driving is one of the biggest threats on the roads in South Africa. Drink driving laws are stipulated in the National Road Traffic Act 93 of 1996, section 65(1). In most cases, victims of road accidents are found exceeded legal limit of alcohol in the blood, which is 0.05 in South Africa. Drink driving can lead to licence or permit being suspended. Section 35 of the National Road Traffic Act 93 of 1996 stipulates that: "On conviction of certain offences licences and permit shall be suspended for a minimum period and learner's driving licence may not be obtained."

The Medical Research Council report (2003) shows that the Blood Alcohol Concentration (BAC) of 46.5% of drivers killed in crashes exceeded the legal limit of 0.05g/ml while 9.5% consumed more than five times the legal limit. The BAC of 57.1% of pedestrians killed in crashes exceeded the legal limit while 24.7% consumed more than five times of alcohol.

Public drinking is also not allowed in South Africa as stipulated in Liquor Act 29 of 1989 section 154(1). Intoxicated pedestrians account for a high proportion of people killed and injured on the roads. Driving requires a variety of skills that can change continually.



A driver must maintain alertness and be able to react quickly to hazards, see clearly, and possess the ability to judge distance and speed. Certain drinking patterns can impair a number of the skills necessary for safely driving a motor vehicle and increase crash risk.

Many countries have taken action to address impaired driving, making it both unacceptable to society and a criminal offense. An important first step in this process has been the establishment of a maximum permissible blood alcohol concentration (BAC) level.

*(e) Price and taxation*

Due to a high rate of alcohol abuse and alcohol-related problems, there have been numerous calls for an extra levy to be imposed on alcohol products in South Africa. The assumption is that high costs of alcohol beverages can help reduce the cost often associated with alcohol consumption and elevates government tax revenues. In many countries, alcohol is an important source for raising government revenue and, therefore, an established target of taxation (National Research Council, 1997). The inclusion of alcohol and cigarette taxes in the budget speech is evident that they play an important economic role of the country, despite their social impacts.

According to Budget Speech review of financial year 2012/2013, sin tax on alcohol went up from 6% to 20%. A litre of wine cost 18 cents more, a 340ml can of beer cost 9 cents more while a 750ml of spirits cost R6 more. These increases aim to boost tax rates on alcohol to the level of other countries and also an attempt to lower alcohol abuse.

Laws around taxation are also fairly easy to adopt and to enforce, especially in countries with good government control of the market. However, ineffective enforcement of a taxation policy generates large black markets for illegally produced or smuggled alcohol products, which evade all taxation (World Health Organisation, 1999). Österberg and Simpura (1999:32) say that taxation and pricing can be an effective public health instrument for reducing overall alcohol consumption and alcohol-related harm. Only quite rarely, however, are the precise objectives of

alcohol control explicitly stated in the laws embodying such policies. Additionally, Rehn et al., (2001:13-16) indicate that the real price of alcoholic beverages needs to rise, at or beyond the rate of inflation, if pricing is to be used as a strategy to contain alcohol consumption. Their point of view is that the restraining influences in tax and price policy stems from inflation control which is not adjusted frequently despite the fluctuation of inflation rates.

Holder et al., (1998:23) observed that in some countries, the official policy of the pricing system is to steer people towards a particular type of low-alcohol or non-alcoholic beverage, in order to substantially reduce risky or high blood alcohol levels. In contrast, Venter (2011:3) is of the view that raising excise taxes would lead alcohol consumers to have incentive to substitute to unrecorded alcohol.

South Africa is regarded as the hub of illegal alcohol outlets such as *shebeens* and unrecorded alcohol is readily available to people, the high price of alcohol beverages will make the youth to resort to homebrewed beers. This drinking pattern will worsen the alcohol abuse among the youth.

## **2.11 MODELS OF ADVERTISING**

This section attempts to elaborate on the models or approaches that advertisers usually use. The approach that the advertisers select will determine the success or failure of their advertisements. The approach is the most vital tool in marketing the services or goods. Welbacher (2001:19) confirms that advertising is seen as a means of communicating persuasively with consumers. This communication process - if it is successful - ultimately results in the sale of the product or service advertised to at least some of the consumers that have been exposed to the advertising. If such sales do not happen, the advertising is judged not to have been effective.

Advertising is a form of promotion, and promotion is the face of a company. As one of the four pillars of marketing (along with product, place, and price), promotion encompasses the variety of techniques an advertiser uses to communicate with current and potential consumers. The goal of promotion is to ensure that targeted customers know and like a company's products.

There are many tools available to communicate a brand message to potential consumers, including advertisements on television and radio, print advertisements in newspapers and magazines, on the World Wide Web, outdoors on billboards and bus shelters, as well as in store promotions, coupons, direct mail, and many others (Glowa, 2002:4). Advertisers use promotion as one of the marketing tools to ensure that the audience get information about a particular product or service. Advertisers use different channels for promotion such as radio, magazines, billboards and television.

Glowa (2002:5) indicates that different products, at different stages of the product life cycle, require different promotional strategies to achieve different objectives. To pull buyers to a store or to push the distribution channel to stock and sell, there are five general categories of promotion, namely:

- Advertising
- Personal selling
- Sales promotion
- Public relations and publicity
- Direct selling

Therefore, the role of advertising is to make consumers, whatever their current state of attitudes toward, information about, or images of a brand, more informed about the brand and more generally favourable to it. Advertising must, that is, produce some sort of mental change in the consumer: he or she must think differently about the brand after being exposed to successful advertising (Welbacher, 2001).

### **2.11.1 Categories of Advertising Purpose**

Advertisers create advertisements with a variety of objectives in mind from getting people to sample a product, to persuading them to donate money for an environmental cause or vote for a political candidate. Jones and Slater (2003:231) provide six categories of advertising purpose, arranged from most direct to most indirect, namely.

- *To prompt action:* Direct action advertising is designed to motivate people to act. It involves advertisements that try to persuade people to make a purchase, call a phone number or mail/fax/email an order form and includes many of the common advertisements consumers see in newspapers, in-store advertising and package advertising.
- *To encourage information search:* In some cases, it is unreasonable to assume that a consumer is ready to make an immediate purchase based solely on advertising. In these cases, consumers need more information – a test drive or a demonstration – before making up their minds. This is often the case for big-ticket items and such advertisements often include a telephone number or website so that the consumer can seek more information.
- *To relate product to needs:* A less direct form of advertising, this category includes those advertisements that draw a link in the consumers' minds between the product and their needs as consumers.
- *To encourage recall of past product satisfaction and prompt a repurchase:* Advertisements of this nature are designed to summon memories of past satisfaction and get customers to purchase the product again.
- *To modify attitudes:* One of the more challenging objectives facing advertisers is to modify attitudes towards a product. This is often appropriate when a firm's product has received a bad reputation for one reason or another or if a firm is attempting to recapture customers they lost to a competitor.
- *To reinforce attitudes:* The final category of advertising objectives seeks to reinforce attitudes that customers already have towards a product. Market leaders often use this to maintain their market share and volume. Advertisements work because they make an effective appeal to some need or desire in the people who view, read or listen to them. The advertising appeal is an attempt to draw a connection between the product and the audience. At the broadest level, there are two main types of appeals, namely: logical and emotional. Logical appeals aim for the buyer's head, while emotional appeals aim for the buyer's heart.

### **2.11.2 Development of Hierarchy Effects Models**

Communication advocates suggest that there is a series of stages between the point of unawareness of a product and or brand and the ultimate purchase or sale of a particular brand. The body of work in the marketing and advertising literature that relates to this advertising effectiveness controversy is called the hierarchy of effects and has been accorded theoretical status by many advertising and marketing practitioners and academics (Barry, 1987:251).

### **2.12 TYPES OF HIERARCHY OF EFFECTS MODELS**

De Beer (1998:337-338) outlines two main models of hierarchy effects of advertising, named *modus operandi*, that is AIDA and DAGMAR. AIDA is an acronym for Attention, Interest, Desire and Action whereas DAGMAR is an acronym for Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Results. Such models present a learning process by which consumers go through to complete the buying process. These models assume that a purchase will only be made when all the steps in the hierarchy of effects have been completed. The model is dynamic in that each single step in the sequence depends upon the preceding step (Glowa, 2003:8).

A hierarchy of effects models is based on the assumption that people first *learn* something from advertising, then form *feelings* about the product in question, and finally take *action* (for example, purchasing a product). This order of stages is often called the learn-feel-do sequence. A final possible sequence which is the most common is the do-feel-do sequence. In these circumstances, no learning is going on; the customer is aware of the product and has probably used it before. A customer buys a product, likes the way it works or is satisfied with the purchase, and advertising reinforces those feelings prompting the customer to purchase the product again and again (Glowa, 2002:8-9).

#### **2.12.1 AIDA model**

According to AIDA model, for an advertisement to be successful, it must have the following elements: attention, interest, desire, and action (De Beer, 1998:337-338).

One of the techniques that are used in advertising to grab the attention of the audience is the placement and attractiveness of the advertisement. Placing an advertisement is one of the most important elements that advertisers do not usually ignore.

Advertisement placement is about the type of the medium and time slot used for advertising a product. Television as compared to other media can be suitable for alcohol advertisements because of its visual element. Hence, it gives attractive pictures that complement the advertisement. Then it is easy to grab the attention of the audience.

As soon as the advertisement gets attention of audiences, they will develop an interest of acquiring more information about it. Advertisements provide information related to it such as the price and place to find it and benefits of using the product or service. This information is enough to convince an audience to try the product, meaning the desire to find out if it can help to solve their problems. The desire will lead them to buy the product and also recommending it to others if they were satisfied. This will make the advertisement successful.

Glowa (2003:14) explains that the AIDA model suggests consumers move from an Awareness –Interest – Desire - Action or that the consumers acquired a Learn-Feel-Do mentality. This means, consumers learn about the existence of a product, then they develop a feeling of desire to buy or know more about the product and they ultimately buy or use the product. In the case of alcohol advertisement, the youth will learn that there is a beer called *Hunter's Dry* from the advertisement on television, and then wish to taste the beer, and finally make a purchase.

When advertisers grab the attention of the audience, it means that they are now aware of the product's availability in the marketplace. Awareness is one of the marketing tools that the advertisers usually use. Jones and Slater (2003:231-235) argue that awareness introduces new brand information, reminds the consumer to buy the brand, and encourage the consumer to use more of the brand.

It is the first of several components that make up the totality of the brand and its advertising. Other components include brand knowledge, brand image, and brand attitudes. Awareness relates to the consumer's realisation that the brand exists.

In order to get the attention of the consumers, advertisers usually use powerful words or slogans and pictures that will catch the viewers' eye and make them to have interest to know more about the advertisement. The visual element of television makes the audience to watch the advertisement until it ends. This makes them to spend time on the advertisement and to understand its messages in more detail. The interest and desire work together and in order to build interest on viewers. Advertisements offer information that can help in a real way. They do this by appealing to personal needs and wants.

### **2.12.2 DAGMAR Model**

One of the earliest influential models is called DAGMAR, an acronym for Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Results. The model was built around four stages of communication results, namely:

- awareness,
- comprehension,
- conviction, and
- action.

Since its first inception, there have been numerous variations published. Each variation has shown several phases of communication such as awareness phase up to the decision phase to make a purchase (Jones & Slater, 2003: 235). In addition, De Beer (1998:337-338) explains that Dagmar model assumes that advertising operates through a hierarchy of communication effects which can be presented as follows:

- unawareness,
- awareness,
- comprehension,
- conviction, and

- action.

According to this theory, an audience is unaware that a particular product or service exists. The advertisers inform the audience by placing an advertisement on any media. The audience see the product or service being advertised. For instance, on television, and become aware of its existence. In order for the viewer to understand the product, more information is needed, which means that the audience will attentively watch the advertisement so that he or she understands the product or service. If he or she understands the advertisements clearly, it means that they will be persuaded enough to reach the verdict of buying or using the product. That can help the advertiser to fulfil his or her purpose which is to sell the product to the audience.

This discussion also applies to the effects of television advertisements of alcohol in a sense that most audiences get attracted easily by the advertising that they see on television as compared to other media. Television is stimulus and the pictures can be printed permanently in his or her mind. The viewer can remember each and every element in an advertisement, especially alcohol advertisements because most of them are attractive.

They have a high-speed music and portrayed by famous and attractive models. These models attempt to emphasise that a long-term exposure of alcohol advertisement can contribute to alcohol consumption amongst the youth. In other words, generally, an extensive exposure to media products or message can influence the media users depending on the aim of the message the media are communicating. Theories of media effects have shown that the media have an impact on how people think and behave. The Modelling theory is one of those theories, which this study draws its theoretical perspectives from. The discussion is as follows:

### **2.13 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

There is almost a general consensus that the media may have direct effect on most people's behaviour only under extreme circumstances, which include, war, disaster,



social upheaval or in the case of media content which intentionally designed to have a specific kind of effect, for example, advertisements (Fourie, 2007:232). However, these effects do not occur immediately, but after a long exposure to certain media content.

Researchers interested in the effects of adolescents' use of media have developed theoretical models to help explain how the process works and why some adolescents may be more positively or negatively influenced by the media they consume than others. One of the most notable theories is Social Learning Theory.

### **2.13.1 Social Learning Theory**

This theory emphasises on the importance of observing and modelling the behaviours, attitudes and emotional reactions of others. It also underpins that learning in a social context can occur solely through observation. Thus, it focuses on learning by observing and modeling. Initially, the theory evolved from behaviourism but today it can also include ideas that cognitivists also hold. It is therefore, sometimes referred to as Social Cognitive Learning theory (DeFluer & Dennis, 1994:583; Ormond, 1999:52; Schunk, 1987:149).

This theory was developed by Albert Bandura and his colleagues in 1960s through experiments. One of the popular experiments is called *Bobo* doll (Bandura & Huston, 1961). In a nutshell, the *Bobo* doll experiment was a collective experiment for studying the behaviour of children after observing a depiction by a model acting aggressively to the doll. The experiments demonstrated that children imitated aggressive behaviours they saw portrayed by the model to the same doll in the presence of the model (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1961).

The imitation of aggressive behaviours by children after they have observed from the model clearly state that people can learn by just observing others without being instructed to do so. Furthermore, people can further learn from the imitations of others or from the model. In addition, Blake (1958:33) states that a mere observation response of a model has a facilitating effect on subjects' reactions in the immediate social influence setting. This implies that environmental and cognitive factors can

influence the human learning and behaviour. Therefore, people can learn from one another by pure observations, imitations and modelling.

For the purposes of this chapter, as stated above, the researcher has employed one of the well-known long-term media effects theories called the Modelling theory. This theory complements Social Learning theory in a sense that they both have the same underpinnings that people learn from observing others, although in social learning emphasises on social context, whereas the Modelling theory basis its argument from media perspectives.

Generally, the Modelling theory takes that media users can adopt behaviours that were depicted from the media products or media content. In this study, televised alcohol advertisements are used as one of the forms of the mass media whereby alcohol behaviours are portrayed. This theory is utilised as a supportive instrument to proof the hypothesised idea that by viewing a certain televised alcohol advertisement can encourage young people to start or drink more if they have already drinking alcohol.

### **2.13.2 Modelling theory**

The Modelling theory argues that not in all circumstances, but some media users can adopt the media's depictions of human behaviour. DeFluer and Dennis (1994:583) reflect that the term Modelling theory has come into use to indicate the application of more general Social Learning theory in the case where people acquire behavioural forms that they find portrayed in the media products. It heavily focuses on how the presentation of people, social interactions and social problems in the media affect people's expectations and motivate their behaviour. Norms provide the basis by which people draw their social expectations.

Therefore, the normative behaviour they observe around them impacts on the way they perceive the world. Thus, people tend to adopt social norms and human behaviours because they are expected to behave in a certain way when interacting with other people.

Bandura suggests that learning is conducted through observing and modelling the behaviours, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. Bandura (1977b:22) states that "...from observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action". Ormond (1999:52) adds that social learning considers that people learn from one another, including such concepts as observational learning, imitation and modelling. Meanwhile, Schunk (1987:149) states that social learning theory is a theory based on the ideas that people learn by watching what others do.

The notion here is that people adopt human behaviour through observation of other people and use learned behaviours as a frame of references in social contexts. By so doing, they either imitate or model their behaviour based on others' behaviour. Rosenthal and Zimmerman (1978:44) say modelling is an important means of acquiring skills, beliefs, and novel behaviours. In addition, Schunk (1987:149-150) maintains that modelled actions can serve as social prompts, such as when one emulates the behaviours of high-status models to obtain approval from others.

People imitate and adopt behaviours that they have experienced them by themselves and their rewards that punishment. Mostly if the results of such experience are positive, the likelihood is that they will be adopted and imitated over and over again. Bandura (1977b) states that generally, learning phenomena resulting from direct experience can occur on a vicarious basis through observation of other people's behaviour and its consequences from them. Furthermore, Schunk (1987:150) states that modelled behaviours are more likely to be performed if they have previously led to rewarding outcomes than if they have resulted in punishment, regardless of whether individuals have experienced the consequences directly or vicariously.

When one observes a depicted behaviour and its consequences, people have a belief or expect the outcome to be the same as the action. If young people see an alcohol advertisement portraying drinking alcohol and some rewards after drinking alcohol, they expect to have the same rewards when they imitate the behaviour in real-life situations.

For instance, one of the popular slogans of *Hunter's Dry* is “*Refreshes like nothing on earth.*” In most cases, alcohol advertisements have a storyline that goes hand in hand with the slogan. Therefore, the advertisements will be portrayed in a way that the viewer will believe that indeed drinking *Hunter's Dry* is refreshing than other drinks. The advertisement or the slogan emphasises that there is nothing and nothing at all on earth that can make one feel refreshed that a bottle of *Hunter's Dry*. Observing competent models perform actions that result in success conveys information to observers about the sequence of actions one should use to succeed.

Despite the fact that learning can be achieved through observation, it is a process. The stages are discussed below. By learning through observation and its consequences, one can acquire new integrated behaviours, without testing if they are good or bad. Anderson (2000:100) attests to that by saying that “If imitation were the sole means by which new behaviours are acquired, then learning would be haphazard at best, because it would rely on trial-and-error performances.”

This kind of learning is termed observational learning which comprises four sub-processes, namely, attention, retention, production and motivation (Bandura, 1986:23). In a nutshell, Schunk (1987:154) explains the sub-processes of observational learning as follows:

- Attention - the observer pays attention to relevant depicted behaviours for them to be meaningfully perceived and rewarding;
- Retention - the observer needs to preserve modelled behaviours in order to apply them in real-life situation;
- Production - involves translating visual and symbolic conceptions of modelled events into overt behaviours; and
- Motivational inducements for action can result from direct, vicarious, and self-produced experiences.

These sub-processes of observational learning can be applicable in the media in the form of alcohol advertisements. The media users pay attention to the advertisement because they have interests in that particular advertisement.

They acquire behaviours portrayed in the advertisement and use them social contexts, for instance, when they are with their families, friends, colleagues and so forth. But the media imitate the behaviours if they have positive rewards. As a result, they adopt those behaviours as their second nature. Mass media are a tremendous source of information for individuals as well as society. They serve as the vehicle of thought. They also serve as a powerful tool for people to understand and manage their environment and situations they encounter in their lives.

They are used by the advertising industry to inform people about their products and services through advertising. Without advertising, the public will know less about various products and services which are available in the market as well as their prices. Thus mass media help both the industries and consumers.

Television is seen as one of the most preferred vehicles of communicating messages because of its visual nature that shows and expose actions in details, as it sometimes referred to 'a hot medium'. DeFluer and Dennis (1994:584) emphasise that television and movies present many depictions of people acting out patterns of behaviour in various ways. But because of its pictorial nature and stimulus, messages communicated through television can last longer in the mind of the media user. Advertisements are fleeting naturally but the way they are portrayed on television, can be remembered by media consumers after a long period.

It is because it has a strong influential element because it gives the audience a picture of various social groups, social behaviour and social settings in action. Influential people like celebrities are usually used to portray a particular behaviour or actions. This makes depictions believable and ultimately makes the imitation or adoption of those actions and behaviour easy. Austin, Roberts and Nass (1990:545) emphasise that television can influence people because it contains a wealth of distorted depictions.

In life, people prefer to think and talk about events that make them happy than those that make them sad. One of the techniques used in advertising is humour and fun to make advertisements attractive, interesting and easy to remember and attractive. It is this kind of elements that help media users to get influenced and ultimately adopt

what they saw. DeFluer and Dennis (1994:584) state that these depictions can serve as models of behaviour that can be imitated, and people who see an action depicted may adopt it as part of their own behavioural repertoire.

The visual images of behaviour portrayals provided by television can become one of the factors that influence behaviour of individuals. The way behaviours such as fun, happiness and others, portrayed in the alcohol advertisement can encourage young people's drinking pattern. Most alcohol advertisements include a phrase 'enjoy responsibly'. Despite the message behind the phrase, it simply means that alcohol is meant to be enjoyed.

This means that the Modelling theory is about the media portrayals that members of the audience can imitate or adopt. The media show many aspects of human life in the form of dramas, movies and so forth. These media portray various actions and behaviour by displaying them on different media products. Generally, this theory states that people can reproduce behaviours or actions that are depicted in media content. The depictions can be imitated by any media consumer to an extent that they adopt them as their lifestyle or habits.

The modelling process proceeds in stages. The receiver first encounters the model depicting the behaviour. If the person identifies with the model, he or she may reproduce the form of action portrayed by it. But, before permanently adopting it, the observer must perceive some positive benefit. If that is the case, the behaviour may be tried out, and if adopting it solves some problem for the person, it may be used again and again in similar circumstances (DeFluer & Dennis, 1994:585).

The media depictions help in modelling the behaviour of media consumers. The media consumer goes into different stages before adopting the behaviour represented in media content. The audience will firstly identify the person or the model used in the depiction. In other words, the audience should relate to the persons used so that he or she realises the positive benefit. The importance of adopting the behaviour is that he or she can try to use the action or behaviour when facing any social setting or situations. If trying that behaviour helps the audience, then he or she can repeatedly use it and end up adopting it.

DeFluer and Dennis (1994:585) outline summarised propositions of the Modelling theory as follows:

- *An individual encounters a form of action portrayed by a person in a media presentation*

An individual simply means the audience or media consumer. The audience sees an action portrayed by a person such as a celebrity in media content. For this study, media presentation refers to advertisements of alcohol on television. This simply means that advertisers use celebrities deliberately knowing that they will have a positive impact on most people, especially the youth.

- *The individual identifies with the model, then he or she believes that he or she like the model*

The audience then relate with the celebrity. He or she starts to perceive himself or herself the same as the celebrity. The depictions make the audience believe that if he or she can behave the way that celebrity is behaving, he or she will get a better solution for his or her problems he or she is facing. In other words, when the youth see that particular celebrity drinking that particular liquor, they develop a perception that if they could start drinking that alcohol, they would belong to the same class with the rich and famous people in the country.

- *The individual remembers and reproduces (imitates) the actions of the model in some later situation*

The audience remember the actions and apply them when he or she is in different situations in their lives. Because they have a picture of the represented behaviour or action, it is easy for him or her to reproduce them. Then, from the perception, they got, they start to have positive attitudes towards that alcohol drink and it becomes their favourite liquor.

- *Reproducing the performed activity results in some reward (positive reinforcement) for the individual*

By applying those actions in social situations, the audience benefits positively. The imitation of these actions by the audience helps him or her to gain a positive reinforcement. The audience have trust and believe that even in future the same action will solve his or her problems as it did during trial.

- *Thus, positive reinforcement increases the probability that the person will use the reproduced activity again as a means of responding to a similar situation*

The positive benefit and the trust that the audience gained makes him or her to imitate the same behaviour in future. He or she repeatedly reproduces the behaviour and that reinforces the permanent adoption of the behaviour or action. Thus, positive reinforcement increases the possibility that the media viewer will use the reproduced behaviour again as a means of responding to something or someone or in a situation. In other words, the fact that the media can bring positive reinforcement, the same applies to advertisements. If a single advertisement can influence an individual media user, then it is easy to influence the majority of youth in South Africa.

*(a) Identification with the model*

The second stage is identification, which is central to the Modelling theory. In general, it refers to circumstances in which the observer approves of the portrayal and either wants to be like the model or believes that he or she likes the model. In some cases, we can add another possibility that the viewer finds the model different but attractive and therefore sees the modelled behaviour as a suitable guide to his or her own actions (DeFluer & Dennis, 1994:585). The audience supports the portrayal and perceives himself or herself the same as the celebrity. He or she believes that there is no difference between him or her and the celebrity. He or she believes that both are on the same standard because he or she can relate to the celebrity. The audience admires the celebrity and thinks that the actions can guide him or her when encountering situations.

*(b) Imitating and adopting the portrayed behaviour*



DeFluer and Dennis (1994:585 -586) state that a viewer can imitate a form of activity that was observed on television and ended up adopting it on a permanent basis on few occasions. A person can imitate and adopt a behaviour shown on the media if that person is confronted with a situation to which some sort of response must be made, but he or she lacks an appropriate, previously learned way of acting to handle the problem.

A mode of response remembered from a mass media presentation may seem worth trying. When that happens, and if it works as a way of responding to the situation, that alone provides reinforcement of the imitation. If the response generates even more valued rewards, such as approval from others or a strong feeling of self-satisfaction or achievement, then the reinforcement is even stronger.

This implies that people try or apply actions that they saw from the media when they are facing situations in life. They remember the actions or behaviour portrayed in the media and respond to those situations. They find it easy to imitate, especially if they have seen that although people are attracted by different elements of pictures. The reward that they get when applying those actions or they become satisfied, they tend to adopt or use the actions again and again.

Basically, this theory assumes that people live their lives according to what they get from the media content. People can change their behaviour based on the representations they get from the media. Advertisements are one of the vehicles used to inform or convey messages to the society. Alcohol advertisements also depict social behaviour that audiences can reproduce in their live or daily basis.

Most advertisements are attractive and they normally use models that are famous and role models to some media consumers. It is then easy for media users to be convinced because they can relate with the model. The audiences associate themselves with the person acting in the advertisement. This can influence the audience enough to try the behaviour that is being portrayed.

In this study, *Hunter's Dry* 'desert walk' advertisement is used to show how alcohol advertisements can portray social behaviour. The advertisement uses four well-

known South African celebrities, namely, *Thapelo Mokoena* (actor and television presenter), Jack Parrow (Afrikaans rapper), JR and *Tumi Masemola* (musicians) as characters. The advertisement portrays *Thapelo Mokoena* (main actor) and his friends- referred to as *chinas* in the advertisement. They experience a bus breakdown on their tour. They decided to walk on the desert for help. As they are walking, the unrelenting heat gets to them and they suddenly start bickering. Eventually, they came across a garage that proves to be a desert oasis equipped with a fridge stocking ice cold *Hunter's Dry*. They take a sip and start bickering again but with enthusiasm and groove. *Thapelo* shakes his head and says to himself, "You Can't Change Your *Chinas*, But You Can Refresh Them".

Based on the above description of *Hunter's Dry* advertisements, the salient idea is that drinking an alcohol can bring ultimate refreshment to the viewer. The youth sees drinking alcohol as the solution for challenges they encounter in their lives. This is emphasised by when they start bickering, especially the second time, because they showed that they finally got what they have been looking for to ease the heat. They forgot about their main problem - which is to find a help to fix their bus. The advertisement also instils the thought that drinking alcohol is a good activity when hanging around with friends. It says to the youth that collective activities can benefit all.

It is also easy for the youth to relate with their role models in the advertisement. *Thapelo* is depicted as the smart guy in the group and the youth want to see themselves being leaders and heroes within the group of people they socialise with. As they see the advertisement, it becomes easy for them to replicate the portrayed behaviour, especially if it is done by their role models.

Generally, the Modelling theory assumes that the mass media portray behaviour forms and actions that may be replicated by the audience and adopt them as their habits and lifestyles. One can simply say this theory is based on the popular proverb that says "Monkey see, Monkey do". The media reflect human behaviour that is learned through observations. The observer can at the later stage use the media portrayed behaviour as frame of reference when facing social problems.

The youth are avid media consumers. Basically, most of them define who they are, how they think, and what they do is informed by what they see and hear in the media. Television alcohol advertisements reflect the real world to the youth. Alcohol advertisements like any other form of mass media carry information with different connotations.

Although the conveyed meaning can be understood differently by the youth, slightly they can reproduce the same meaning in their social contexts. In other words, the portrayed behaviour and actions in alcohol advertisements may increase the probability of alcohol consumption amongst the youth. To sum up this section, an overview is outlined below. According to Parry (2005:246), over 5 billion litres of alcoholic beverages are consumed in South Africa per year. This complements estimations of WHO (1999) indicating that about 2 billion people drink alcohol across the globe. However, young people are more likely to use and abuse alcohol more than their elders, (Snyder et al., 2006; Anderson et al., 2009; and Clinard & Meier, 2008).

Alcohol use is related to health burden, deaths and disability adjusted life years across the globe (Rehm et al., 2003; Grant et al., 2009; Rehm & Patra, 2010; and Fieldgate et al., 2013). Alcohol accounts for 69.5% of injury burden attributed to alcohol, 3.2% of deaths and 4.0% of DALYs globally (Sneider et al., 2007). Alcohol abuse can be costly in terms of prevention and treatment services. But it can be more costly if the person use alcohol at work because it affects the production of the company, thus the economy of the country. Work-related fatalities due to alcohol were recorded (Breugem et al., 2006). In South Africa, alcohol abuse cost at least nine billion a year (Medical Research Council & UNISA, 2007).

Alongside with alcohol, other substances such as dagga, mandrax and cocaine are found to be primary or secondary substance abuse, especially in high schools (Betancourt & Herrera, 2006; King et al., 2002; Madu & Matla, 2003; Onya et al., 2012; and Prinsloo et al., 2005). Alcohol drinking behaviour in universities in South Africa was also discussed (Pelzer & Phaswana, 1999; Madu & Matla, 2003; Nkhoma & Maforah, 1994; and Plüddemann et al., 1999).

The abovementioned studies on high school and university based studies have revealed that alcohol is readily available and easily accessible and mostly students drink to intoxication especially on weekends.

It is evident that the youth is more vulnerable to alcohol-related problems and alcohol-induced risks such as violence, road traffic accidents, pedestrian accidents, drowning, falls, fire, homicides, suicides, unprotected sexual interactions (Grant et al., 2009). The youth are likely to engage in heavy drinking to an extent of drunkenness which can lead to permanent physical and medical conditions like psychological disorder, memory loss and various cancers (Rehm et al., 2003; Schneider et al., 2007; and Fieldgate et al., 2013).

According to UNAIDS global report (2010), South Africa is one the countries that have the high rate of HIV prevalence. Studies (Morojele et al., 2006; Kalichman et al., 2007; and Watt et al., 2007) found that an exposure to alcohol can result to heavy alcohol drinking pattern among teenagers. Several factors were identified that facilitate alcohol use. Family, peer pressure and advertising were some of those factors.

Family history of alcoholism and higher parental substance use in general have been shown to be associated with heavier use of alcohol and dependence (Pitkänen et al., 2008; Ellickson et al., 2005; Brook et al., 2006; and Onya et al., 2005). The use of alcohol in South African communities can be dated during colonial eras in the form of *dop* system (Gumede, 1995; and Pithey & Morojele, 2002) but outlawed in 1960s (Lionel et al., 2010).

Traditionally, alcohol serves different purposes in most African communities (Setlalentoa et al., 2010). What seems to be a challenge is that there is a widespread of illegal production and trading of alcohol in the form of homebrewed distilled alcoholic beverages, especially among Black communities through *shebeens* and taverns (Pithey & Morojele, 2010; and Schneider et al., 2007). In 2004, 9.5 litres of these beverages were consumed mostly by adults (Fieldgate et al., 2013).

Though young people are exposed from their family background and peer pressure, the general consensus is that alcohol advertising offer extensive exposure to alcohol. Studies have documented the link between alcohol advertising exposure and alcohol consumption (Atkin et al., 1983; Connolly et al., 1994; Kohn & Smart, 1984; Unger et al., 2003; Stacy et al., 2004; and Ellickson et al., 2005). This consensus is based on the evidence by studies that claim that positive responses towards advertising predispose alcohol drinking. The way advertisers packages the advertisements is enough to influence young people to engage in alcohol drinking (Willie et al., 1998a,1998b; Austin & Knaus, 2000; Agostinelli & Grube, 2002;Babor et al., 2003; Collins et al., 2007; and Smith & Geller, 2009).

Although, the industry denies the fact that it targets the youth by portraying drinking as fun and enjoyable activity to engage in, Snyder et al., (2006); Smith and Foxcroft, (2009) emphasise that the depictions encourage early alcohol drinking. Various elements such as popular music, animation, slogans and celebrities are used in advertisements as a mechanism to attract young people (Grube & Wallack, 1994; Chen et al., 2005; Miller & Mizerski, 2005; and Austin et al., 2006).

It is not arguable that alcohol industry contributes to the economy of the country despite the negative effects alcohol abuse might have (Fieldgate et al., 2013). It not rocket science that media industry gain its revenues from advertising (Fieldgate et al., 2013). Since alcohol industry injects a huge portion of money into media industry, rules and regulations and policies need to be put into place in order to avoid manipulation of this mutual relationship. Most advertising industries in different countries have adopted self-regulatory systems (Burns, 2001; Haker & Cassim, 2002; and Jones & Donovan, 2002).

Alcohol policies are also important in controlling the availability and accessibility of alcohol beverages within different societies (Liquor Act, 1989; Godfrey & Maynard, 1995; Holder et al., 1998; National Road Traffic Act, 1996; Gabhainn & François, 2000; Rehn et al., 2001; WHO, 2001; and Babor et al., 2003).

One of the most effective methods that seem to work in most countries for curbing alcohol abuse is through increment of prices and tax on alcohol beverages (National

Research Council, 1997; Österberg & Simpura, 1999; WHO, 1999; and Budget Speech review, 2012). Despite the efforts made by the South African government to curb the scourge of alcohol use and abuse, especially amongst the youth, it is still one of the biggest problems in the country.

The main aim of advertising is to persuade potential buyers to purchase what is being advertised. If the advertisement can influence the buying decision of the buyer, it is considered to be successful. However, the positive response of the buyer is hierarchical. It means certain steps or models need to be considered, like AIDA and DAGMAR is considered in the process of advertising (De Beer, 1998; and Glowa, 2003).

Following the preceding discussion, the implication is that the media (advertising) have power to influence viewers towards a particular phenomenon. This is usually called effects of the media, whether in a short or long term. There is a general belief that media has an impact on how people shape their ideas and attitudes towards a particular aspect. These effects are the foundation of the hypothesis of this study. By employing the Modelling theory, it assists in understanding the effects of the media and support the hypothesis of the study.

In a nutshell, the theory entails that people do what they have seen other people doing. In other words, people imitate others because they saw them doing that- "Monkey see, Monkey does". However, this can only happen after a long period of time (Blake, 1958; Bandura & Hudson, 1961, Bandura et al., 1961; DeFluer & Dennis, 1994; and Fourie, 2007). The Social Cognitive theory claims that learning is conducted through observing and modelling the behaviours, attitudes and emotional reactions of others (Bandura, 1971, 1977; and Ormond, 1999).

However, modelled behaviours are likely to be imitated if they have led to rewards of some sort in the past (Schunk, 1987). Before one can model behaviour, there are several steps that need to be followed as DeFluer and Dennis (1994) outlined them. In this study, a *Hunter's Dry* advertisement was used to emphasise the effects of televised alcohol advertisement on the drinking behaviour of the youth.

## **2.14 CONCLUSION**

This chapter reviewed the literature on the trend of alcohol consumption by the youth from different countries, including South Africa. Studies based on high school and university students were outlined to show the nature of alcohol use and abuse amongst the youth in the country. The chapter also gave an overview of alcohol exposure and alcohol expenditures in general.

The researcher found it important to outline theoretical perspectives that inform this study in order to highlight the behavioural change of people in the society. The chapter also provided a useful way of applying the Modelling theory to the effects of television alcohol advertisements. It further explained the regulatory nature of advertising to indicate that advertising is also recognised by the constitution of the country.

It also drew upon perspectives from advertising models to analyse the success of television advertisements of alcohol. The following chapter presents the methods and procedures that were used to collect and analyse data on the effects of television advertisements of alcohol on youth of the Praktiseer community in the Greater Tubatse Municipality.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the preceding chapter, the researcher reviewed literature dealing with television alcohol advertisements and theoretical framework. This chapter deals with the research methodology used in the study. It further describes and explains the procedures that were used for the collection and analysis of data on the effects of television alcohol advertisements on the consumption of alcohol by the youth in the Praktiseer community.

A research can be described as a process wherein several steps are considered in order to resolve a problem. This is what Wimmer and Dominick (2006), Neuman (2007) and Babbie (2007) refer to. It starts with an inquisitive mind which needs to go through a rigorous process in order to put things into proper perspective. Therefore, it requires a researcher to follow several steps such as choosing the appropriate research methodology for the study.

The purpose of a research can be categorised into three categories, namely, exploration, description and explanation (Babbie, 2007; Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006; Du Plooy, 2009; and Neuman, 2007). For this study, an exploratory research approach is applied to determine whether television alcohol advertisements are the cause of the escalating alcohol abuse among the youth in the Praktiseer community. The researcher attempted to explore the relationship between television alcohol advertisements and the alcohol consumption amongst the youth.

Most of the literature the researcher has viewed, is about the exposure of alcohol advertisements and the youth; preferences of alcohol advertisements; the use of alcohol and illicit drugs, and so forth. Therefore, the researcher attempts to explore the effects of television alcohol advertisements on the behaviour of the youth.

Du Plooy (2002:41) indicates that the ways in which we acquire knowledge about a specific communication phenomenon is linked to assumptions that underlie different



research processes and procedures. These assumptions are interlinked and interdependent with the research methodology used. They also determine which research design is used, to eventually influence the interpretation of findings. In addition, Brennen (2013:8) states that methodology focuses on how we gain knowledge about the world, while Mouton (1997:37) refers research methodology as a mode of transport used in research journey.

Research methodology is therefore a vehicle that takes the researcher from one point to another through various specific steps in order to achieve the aim of the study itself. It is a systematic analysis of methods to be applied to the study. A research methodology is like a recipe book that provides instructions and guides the researcher how to assemble and deploy specific methods in research. There are two main categories of research methodologies, namely, qualitative and quantitative (Neuman, 2000:7).

Brennen (2013:14) says that qualitative research strives to understand the traditions, contexts, usages and meanings of words, concepts and ideas. Aliaga and Gunderson (2002) describe quantitative research as the research that attempts to explain a phenomenon by collecting data that is quantifiable and analysed by using mathematically based methods, in particular statistics.

Therefore, in this study, both a qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed to tackle the effects of televised alcohol advertisements on the consumption of alcohol among the youth in the community of Praktiseer. Although, Borrego, Douglas and Amelink (2009:53) postulate that there is no particular method that is privileged over any other, however, the choice must be driven by the research questions. After all, research, in the broadest sense, is search for truth, as stated by Kotler (2002:129).

The main problem of this study is whether television alcohol advertisements have an impact on the consumption of alcohol among the youth in the Praktiseer community. The attempt here is to explain the social problems that the youth faces within the community in relation to televised alcohol advertisements.

Ritchie and Lewis (2003: 5-22) indicate that a qualitative methods are used to address research questions that require explanation or understanding of social phenomena and their contexts. The main aim of using a qualitative approach in this study was to enable the researcher to explain graphs, charts and tables that present the data.

Reciprocally, Wimmer and Dominick (2006:113) state that qualitative research involves several methods of data collection, such as focus groups, field observation, in-depth interviews, and case studies. In this study, self-administered questionnaires were used to gather the views of the respondents in the community of Praktiseer. This is discussed in details below.

In concurrence, Kirk and Miller (1986:9) hold that a qualitative research is a particular tradition in social science that fundamentally depends on watching people in their own territory and interpreting with them in their own language, on their own terms. This method allows a researcher to view behaviour in a natural setting without the artificiality that sometimes surrounds experimental or survey research (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006:113).

The conclusion drawn is that, both a qualitative and quantitative research designs are most valuable for this study. Therefore, this chapter also explains the execution of the process of obtaining data. The validity and reliability are also addressed, followed by a discussion of data collection and analysis.

### **3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

This study employed both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Self-administered questionnaires were the main tools for collecting data. A questionnaire is attached an appendix. Du Plooy (2009:85) defines a research design as a plan of how the research is going to be conducted, indicating who or what is involved, and where and when the study will take place.

Smith (1988:179) also expresses that a research design is a comprehensive data collection plan whose purpose is to answer research questions and test research hypotheses. This is discussed as follows:

### **3.2.1 Participants**

The participants in this study were respondents who were provided with self-administered questionnaires for collecting data. The participants were the youth from the age of fourteen to thirty- five years, which is the age bracket for this study. The respondents were also from five sections within the community of Praktiseer. More of this is discussed in the population and sampling section.

#### **3.2.1.1 Questionnaire**

In this study, self-report questionnaires were used as a tool for data collection which was distributed among the youth in five sections in the community of Praktiseer. The researcher aimed at eighty respondents. However, a total number of one hundred questionnaires were distributed in case other respondents did not return or spoil them. The questionnaire contained both open-ended and closed-ended questions. The intention for including both types of questions was to avoid monotony and to 'gather as much information as possible from respondents. The collected data, especially closed-ended questions, were analysed through IBM *Statistical Package for Social Science* (IBM SPSS) version 21 by the statistician, raw as they were. The data were presented in the form of graphs, frequencies and charts. In order to make them understandable, the researcher interpreted the same data from the statistician in a form of narration.

Questioning technique is crucial when designing a research. There are two main approaches of questioning techniques, namely, Thurstone and Likert Currie (2005:97-99). However, the researcher used Likert approach because most questions included in the questionnaire requested the respondents to rate their answers based on a given scale such as choosing if they strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree or strongly agree or tick on an answer that they agree or

disagree or yes or no. The highest number represented the positive response of the respondent, while the lowest number represented the negative response.

According to Currie (2005:95), there are several designs for survey questionnaires. Each design is governed by the purpose of the survey and the kind of data that the researcher seeks. All designs, however, must meet certain criteria, such as to:

- measure what they are supposed to measure;
- be distributed to a random sample of people to whom the subject of the survey is relevant; and
- be structured carefully so that the questions or statements are unambiguous and likely to elicit the response needed.

In addition, Wimmer and Dominick (2006:181) point out that survey questionnaire should consist of clear instructions and space for responses. A questionnaire should indicate a definite purpose that is related to the objectives of the study. It should also state clearly the main purpose of the undergoing research.

The questions in the questionnaire were grouped into three sections based on the objectives and research questions. Section A was focusing on the demographic information such as gender, age, educational qualifications, to name the few. The purpose of this section was to determine whether the participants fall under the age group of the study, which is fourteen to thirty-five years. Section B addressed questions on effects of television alcohol advertisements on the behaviour of the youth, while Section C tackled questions on televised alcohol advertisements that the youth prefer most.

The researcher explained the topic to respondents so that they can understand what they were participating for. The researcher also considered whether the environment was comfortable for respondents to participate freely. The time given to complete the questionnaire was also adjusted as requested by the respondents so that they do not get tired and decide to discontinue participating in the study.

Codes were assigned to each question in the questionnaire, especially closed-ended questions. Some questions were on a scale of five-point while others were beyond that, depending on the question. Currie (2005:97) refers this as an equal interval scale.

### **3.2.1.2 Pilot study**

A pilot study or pre-testing of a questionnaire is vital before the final version of the questionnaire is adopted for use in the study. It helps the researcher to make necessary changes in the main questionnaire. It also assists the researcher to see if the questionnaire is understandable to respondents and can also be completed within a given time frame. The pilot study was conducted in the nearby informal settlement in the Praktiseer called *Ga-Ramauba*. A total of forty (40) questionnaires were distributed to the community members. The researcher administered the pilot study so that the questionnaires can be collected after they have been completed.

### **3.2.1.3 Procedure**

After the proposal for this study was approved by the University of Limpopo Ethics Committee, the researcher approached the community leaders in Praktiseer in order to inform them and be granted permission to conduct research in the community. The pilot study was conducted during school holidays since most of the youth were available most of the time. The cooperation from parents and guardians was of great assistance for allowing their children to participate in the study. But, in order to preserve the privacy of the respondents, parents and guardians were asked to leave the place of interview since the topic is sensitive by nature. The researcher informed the respondents about the purpose of the study from the onset. The researcher also emphasised on the necessity of confidentiality and anonymity in the questionnaire. The findings of the pilot study were not used in the main study.

## **3.3 DATA COLLECTION**

There are two types of data, namely, secondary and primary data. Church (2001:33) describes secondary data as a data that derive from information that is available in

the statistical information in the published articles, the data available in the text, tables, graphs, and appendices of the published articles, or upon the original data. In addition, Heaton (2008:34) states that secondary analysis involves the re-use of pre-existing qualitative data derived from previous research studies. These data include material such as semi-structured interviews, responses to open-ended questions in questionnaires, field notes and research diaries. In this regard, the researcher has reviewed literature (Chapter 2) on the impact of televised alcohol advertisements on alcohol use by the youth.

Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:661) define primary data as first-hand data that the researcher gathers for the problem under investigation. This implies that, a primary data for this study is the exact responses the researcher got from the respondents when filling in the questionnaire.

### **3.3.1 Questionnaire**

A self-report questionnaire was used for data collection. A questionnaire consisted of both closed-ended and open-ended questions with the aim of gathering as much information as possible from the respondents. A frequently used questionnaire in organisations is one that is designed to measure people's attitude towards something. There are several techniques for this, one of which is the self-report questionnaire. It is a questionnaire in which respondents are asked to report their feelings, beliefs and behaviour towards the subject of the survey (Currie, 2005:96).

The data were also analysed through the IBM SPSS programme by the statistician in the University of Limpopo. The aim of analysing data through IBM SPSS was for the purpose of gaining more refined information and for validity and reliability of the study.

A total number of one hundred questionnaires were distributed to the youth between the ages of fourteen and thirty-five (35) years in five sections in the Praktiseer community. A total of twenty questionnaires in each section were distributed to the youth. Questionnaires were already coded and this made them convenient for the respondents as it reduces time for completion.

The researcher supervised the questionnaires in case respondents do not understand some of the questions, can explain to them. The researcher was also available to collect completed questionnaires, however, only eighty-three were returned back.

### **3.4 SAMPLING**

This study is limited to the community of Praktiseer. The respondents are the youth between the ages of fourteen to thirty-five years old. The participants for this study are from five sections in the community. The researcher gathered only information concerning the effects of television alcohol advertisements on the alcohol consumption of the youth in the community. Therefore, the population is elaborated as follows:

#### **3.4.1 Description of population**

Currie (2005:94) defines population as the term used to describe the main group of people from which a sample is drawn. A population, therefore, may be an organisation's workforce, a management group or a group of customers. In this study, population is the youth in the community of Praktiseer between the ages of fourteen and thirty-five.

Praktiseer community is one of the semi-urban townships in the outskirts of the Greater Tubatse Municipality (Limpopo Province). According to Community Survey report (2007), there are proximately 343468 inhabitants and 53850 households living in this municipal area. Ninety-nine percent of the population is Black and 1% White. Among them, women represent 54% of the population and men 46%, 91% speak Sepedi, 4% Swazi and 2% Tsonga.

Since the establishment of the municipality in 2000 as part of the Sekhukhune District Municipality, there have been a rapid change and development. This is especially indicated by the abundance establishments in mining industry around the

area. Tubatse or Burgersfort is now regarded as South Africa's first democratic platinum city.

Despite the proliferation of mines, roughly twenty of them, the socio-economic status of the area is generally poor. According to Community Empowerment Impact Assessment report (2007) indicates that the majority of people work in mining and agriculture, which employ approximately 20%. While other organisations such as forestry and fishing employ 12% of the people. Therefore, approximately 66% of the population is not economically active.

The Greater Tubatse Municipality area comprises five proclaimed towns and about 166 villages. This municipal area has a total number of twenty-nine wards. The area of interest in this study is Praktiseer community, which falls under ward 21. In 2005, it was reported that this ward has a smallest population of 13286 as compared to other wards (Spatial Development Framework 2007:31).

In case of the population of the community itself, it was shown that in 2001 there were approximately 11,157 inhabitants and 2,830 households living in the community. The majority of the population is Black people, at 99.22%, 0.40% of Coloured people, 0.35% of Indian or Asian and 0.03% of White people. Among them, women represent 54.53% and men 45.47% (Statistics South Africa, 2002). The following tables illustrate the above statements.

| <b>Gender</b> | <b>People</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------|
| Female        | 6,084         | 54.53%            |
| Male          | 5,073         | 45.47%            |

Table 1- Source: Map data©2013AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd, Google Imagery, Landsat.

| <b>Population group</b> | <b>People</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
|-------------------------|---------------|-------------------|
| Black African           | 11,070        | 99.22%            |
| Coloured                | 45            | 0.40%             |
| Indian or Asian         | 39            | 0.35%             |
| White                   | 3             | 0.03%             |

Table 2- Source: Map data©2013 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd, Google Imagery, Landsat.



These demographics show that Praktiseer community has a large population. Therefore, there is a need to draw a sample that will represent the whole community.

### **3.5 SAMPLING METHOD**

The main goal of a scientific research is to describe the nature of population, variables, concepts and others. It is often impractical to study an entire population due to time and resource constraints. Instead, the researcher look at a portion or sample of the population that is representative of the entire population.

According to Currie (2005:94), a sample is a representative cross-section of people drawn from a population so that their responses may be studied. This study has employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The rule of thumb is that the sampling procedures in qualitative research are not so rigidly prescribed as in quantitative studies. This flexibility is, however, may be confusing for some researchers and mistakes may be made. As a precautionary measure, the researcher explained how the sampling of this study was made under below.

In order to emphasise on the importance of describing the sampling in a research, Coyne (1997:623) states that sample selection has a profound effect on the ultimate quality of the research. In addition, Onwuehuzie and Leech (2007:242) emphasise that in general, sample sizes in qualitative research should not be too large that it is difficult to extract thick, rich data and simultaneously it should not be too small that it is difficult to achieve data saturation, theoretical saturation or informational redundancy. This implies that the researcher should strategise on how to draw the sample.

It is, therefore, the researcher's interest to present the criteria for evaluating the sampling strategies by Curtis, Gesler, Smith and Washburn (2000:1003) as follows:

- The sampling strategy should be relevant to the conceptual framework and the research questions addressed by the research.

- The sample should be likely to generate rich information on the type of phenomena which need to be studied.
- The sample should enhance the generalisability of the findings.
- The sample should produce believable descriptions or explanations (in the sense of being true to real life).
- Is the sample strategy ethical?
- Is the sampling plan feasible?

What is gathered from the above statements is that the sample is relevant if it is based on a theory or the research question. This study aimed at investigating the effects of televised alcohol advertisements on the drinking behaviour of the youth in Praktiseer community. Then, the sample was drawn from young people in the community of Praktiseer. This study has adopted a probability sampling method. In this study the sample was drawn as follows:

For this study, the respondents were informed about the purpose of participating in the study. The sample size for this study also helped gather as much information as possible, since hundred and fifty questionnaires were distributed, which is approximately half of the sample size. In order to cover all five sections in the community, the researcher divided the questionnaires into twenty for each section.

Furthermore, the researcher gave questionnaires to only sixth house in all sections and only to young people who falls under the age group of this study, which is fourteen to thirty-five years. The community has three developed areas and three informal settlements, namely, Dark City, *Ga-Ramauba*, *Segorong*, *Shushumela1*, *Shushumela2* and *Skiring* respectively. However, only one section called *Ga-Ramauba* was excluded in this survey because the community members were used in a pilot study. Therefore, they are familiar with some of the questions and this might lead to subjectivity.

### 3.5.1 Sample Size

As stated above that it is necessary to evaluate the sampling strategies so that the sample size should not be too be nor too small. The researcher was guided by a table for determining sample size from a given population adopted from Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608), which is presented below as Table 3.

| S   | N    | S   | N       | S   |
|-----|------|-----|---------|-----|
| 10  | 220  | 140 | 1200    | 291 |
| 14  | 230  | 144 | 1300    | 297 |
| 19  | 240  | 148 | 1400    | 302 |
| 24  | 250  | 152 | 1500    | 306 |
| 28  | 260  | 155 | 1600    | 310 |
| 32  | 270  | 159 | 1700    | 313 |
| 36  | 280  | 162 | 1800    | 317 |
| 40  | 290  | 165 | 1900    | 320 |
| 44  | 300  | 169 | 2000    | 322 |
| 48  | 320  | 175 | 2200    | 327 |
| 52  | 340  | 181 | 2400    | 331 |
| 56  | 360  | 186 | 2600    | 335 |
| 59  | 380  | 191 | 2800    | 338 |
| 63  | 400  | 196 | 3000    | 341 |
| 66  | 420  | 201 | 3500    | 346 |
| 70  | 440  | 205 | 4000    | 351 |
| 73  | 460  | 210 | 4500    | 354 |
| 76  | 480  | 214 | 5000    | 357 |
| 80  | 500  | 217 | 6000    | 361 |
| 86  | 550  | 226 | 7000    | 364 |
| 92  | 600  | 234 | 8000    | 367 |
| 97  | 650  | 242 | 9000    | 368 |
| 103 | 700  | 248 | 10000   | 370 |
| 108 | 750  | 254 | 15000   | 375 |
| 113 | 800  | 260 | 20000   | 377 |
| 118 | 850  | 265 | 30000   | 379 |
| 123 | 900  | 269 | 40000   | 380 |
| 127 | 950  | 274 | 50000   | 381 |
| 132 | 1000 | 278 | 75000   | 382 |
| 136 | 1100 | 285 | 1000000 | 384 |

**Table 3, N- Population size; S- sample size**

According to the statistics given above, Praktiseer has a population of 13286 in 2005. This is the population that was used for this study. Moreover, according to

Table 3, a population sizes of 10000 is equivalent to sampling size of 370 and 150000 is equivalent to 375. In this regard, since the population size for this research is between the two, a wild guess is that, 13286 population size is equivalent to 373 sampling size. Therefore, the views of the participants statistically represent the views of the whole community.

### **3.6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE STUDY**

Neuman (2007:138) mentions that perfect reliability and validity are virtually impossible to achieve. Rather, they are ideals researchers strive for. Research is only as good as the investigator. It is the researcher's creativity, sensitivity, flexibility and skill in using the verification strategies that determines the reliability and validity of the evolving study (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson & Spiers, 2002:12).

The use of reliability and validity are common in quantitative research and now it is reconsidered in the qualitative research paradigm. Since reliability and validity are rooted in positivist perspective then they should be redefined for their use in a naturalistic approach (Golafshani, 2003:597). Reliability and validity are issues that have been described in great deal by advocates of quantitative researchers.

The validity and the norms that are applied to quantitative research are not entirely applicable to qualitative research. Validity in qualitative research means the extent to which the data are plausible, credible and trustworthy; and thus can be defended when challenged (Muhammad, Muhammad & Muhammad, 2008: 35). The same authors state that both qualitative and quantitative researchers need credibility of the research. The credibility of a qualitative research depends on the ability and effort of the researcher.

In order to understand the meaning of reliability and validity, the researcher found it necessary to extent the discussion of these two concepts by providing various definitions given by different scholars. Babbie (2007:150-153) describes reliability as a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, yields the same result each time, whereas validity is referred to as the extent to

which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration.

Neuman (2007:138-141) points out that reliability is about an indicator's dependability and consistency whereas validity is about how well the conceptual and operational definitions match with each other.

On the one hand, Joppe (2000:1) defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. Moreover, validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are.

Embodied in the descriptions above is that reliability and validity can be summarised by stating that reliability is when the research results have consistency, dependability and repeatability, whereas validity is about ensuring the trustworthiness of the same methodology.

But, Golafshani (2003:601-603) emphasises that:

...in order to ensure reliability in a qualitative research, examination of trustworthiness is crucial and if the validity or trustworthiness can be maximised then more credible and defensible result may lead to generalisability.

Then, the validity or trustworthiness is crucial in a research. In order to maximize the credibility of this study, validity and reliability were reflected below.

### **3.6.1 Validity**

The validity of the study in simple terms means that the researcher has followed necessary criteria to ensure whether the findings are not biased or favours the ideas of the researcher. The validity of this study was determined by using qualitative research method to acquire accurate and unbiased data. In an effort to reduce bias and increase the validity of the study, the data were gathered through a pilot-tested questionnaire.

The validity in this study was highlighted by classifying questions based on the objectives of the study. The questionnaire was written in a layman's language. In other words, there were no bombastic words. The researcher was available to explain where the respondents had some difficulties. Both types of questions were included in the questionnaire. To avoid and reduce the risk of subjectivity, the researcher reported raw data as it is as findings. The researcher collected completed questionnaires on the spot in order to increase response rate necessary to provide an acceptable validity level.

### **3.6.2 Reliability**

Reliability of the study is when the findings of the study can be used in other studies. The reliability of this study was verified by the approved methods used to collect and analysing of data until the reporting of the final results. The data were also presented statistically through IBM SPSS programme to ensure that the results are reliable from distinct research methods. The reliability was also ensured by distributing a pre-tested and modified questionnaire to the respondents. The pilot study was aimed at improving the questionnaire and ensuring that all mistakes and errors are rectified immediately. Therefore, in this study, the pilot study was used to comprehend the reliability of the study.

Apart from aspects mentioned above on ensuring validity and reliability, the study adopted the University of Limpopo's Code of Ethics. The respondents were adequately informed that the aim of the study was for academic purposes and permission was granted by the University to research about this problem. They were informed that they are not forced or no coercion was used on them to participate in the study rather they volunteered to do so. The researcher consistently reminded them that the information they provide in the study is confidential and that there is nowhere in the study where they will be requested to furnish their names.

### **3.7 CONFIDENTIALITY**

Confidentiality is one of the standard rules especially when collecting data through questionnaires. Respondents need to be reassured that their participation is valuable and the information they provide on the questionnaire stays between them and the researcher. Therefore, personal information and identities must not be disclosed to any other person. This also helps respondents to be at ease and gain confidence when responding.

One of the criteria used for sample evaluation is to consider ethical matters and feasibility. These were catered for in this study in the sense that aspects of confidentiality and anonymity were stressed in the questionnaires during the pilot study and in the research itself. This also indicates that the researcher took into consideration ethics that bind the research.

The study was feasible to be conducted in the community since the researcher understands some of the languages used in the area. However, due to time and financial constraints the researcher could not translate the questionnaires to suit language preferences of the respondents. Therefore, it was easy to explain where the respondents found some difficulties. The respondents were also given an ample time to fill in the questionnaires at their own pace and own place.

### **3.8 CONCLUSION**

This chapter discussed the way the research was conducted. It encompasses discussions on the research methodology of the study, research design, data collection methods, procedures regarding validity and reliability, and the limitations of the study. A questionnaire was the main data-collection technique in this study. The next chapter discusses data analysis and findings of the study.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the data analysis and interpretation. A total number of eighty-three respondents from Praktiseer community in the Greater Tubatse Municipality participated in this study in 2013. A statistician analysed the data, using the IBM *Statistical Package for Social Sciences* (IBM SPSS) version 21. The presentation of data was in various forms such as frequencies, tables, percentages, bars and charts. The aim of this study was to describe the influence of television alcohol advertisements on alcohol consumption among the youth in Praktiseer community in the Greater Tubatse Municipality.

The objectives of this were to:

- identify alcohol advertisements and how they influence behaviour;
- examine the behaviour of the youth in relation to alcohol advertisements on television; and
- analyse the effects of television alcohol advertisements on the youth behaviour.

The researcher collected data from the respondents using self-administered questionnaires, which had three sections, namely:

- Section A: Background information;
- Section B: Effects of television alcohol advertisements on the behaviour of the youth; and
- Section C: Preferences of alcohol advertisements on television.

#### 4.2 SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The background information collected included gender, age, ethnicity, educational



level and area.

#### 4.2.1 Respondent's gender

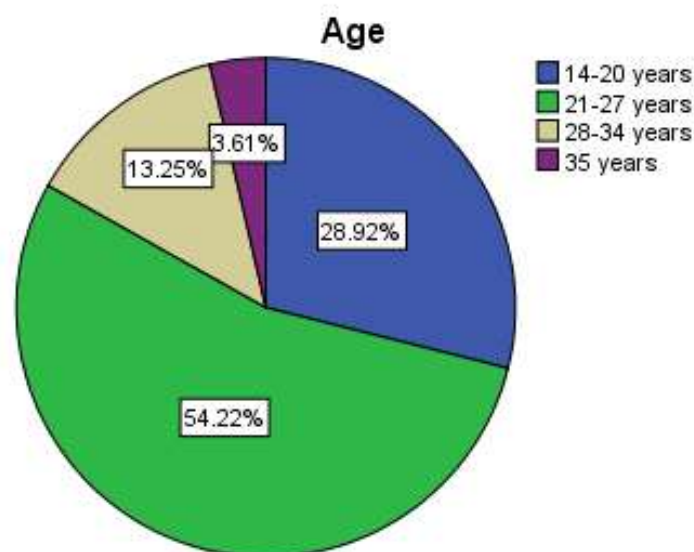
**Table 4** below shows gender of the respondents, 61.4% were males and 38.6% were females.

**Table 4**

|              | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Male         | 51        | 61.4    | 61.4          | 61.4               |
| Valid Female | 32        | 38.6    | 38.6          | 100.0              |
| Total        | 83        | 100.0   | 100.0         |                    |

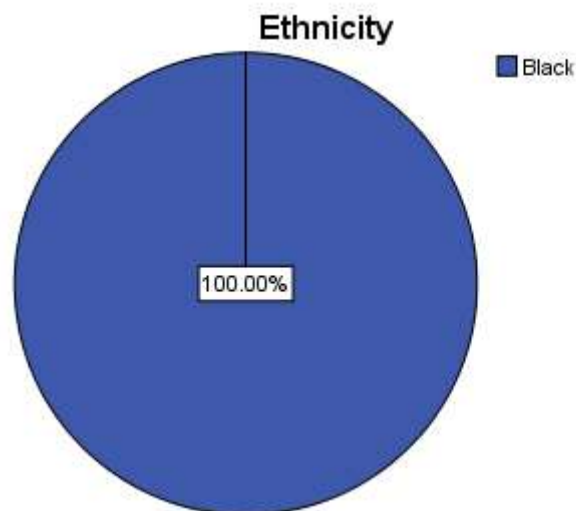
#### 4.2.2 Respondent's age

The respondents' ages were within the youth age group of 14-35 years. Of the respondents, 54.2% (45) were 21-27; 28.9% (24) were 14-20; 13.3% (11) were 28-34; and 3.6% (3) were 35. The following chart **Age** depicts the results.

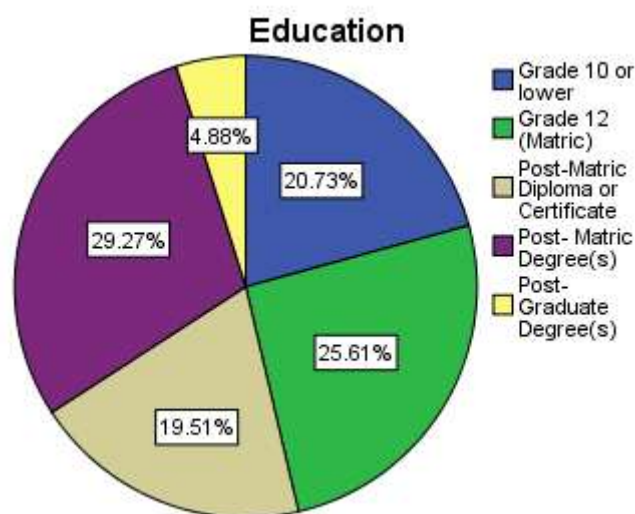


### 4.2.3 Respondent's ethnicity

The majority of respondents were Blacks (81) with 97.6%. The chart **Ethnicity** below indicates.



### 4.2.4 Respondent's highest educational levels



The above chart **Education** indicated that 20.7% (17) of the respondents had Grade 10 and lower; 25.6% (21) had Grade 12; 19.5% (16) had post-matric diploma or certificate; 29.3% (24) had post-matric degree; and 4.9% (4) had post-graduate degree.

#### 4.2.5 Respondent's area of residing

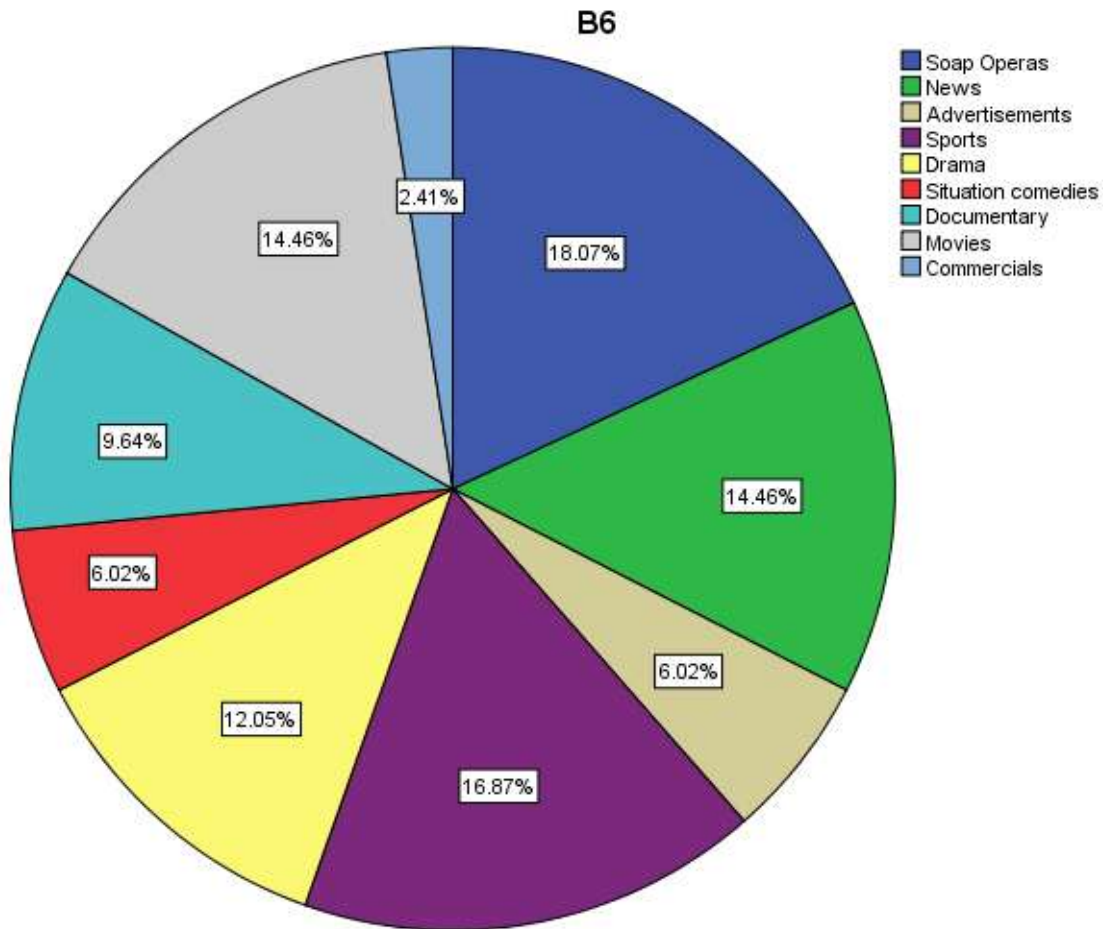
**Table 5**

|             | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Urban | 35        | 42.2    | 42.2          | 42.2               |
| Rural       | 47        | 56.6    | 56.6          | 98.8               |
| Other       | 1         | 1.2     | 1.2           | 100.0              |
| Total       | 83        | 100.0   | 100.0         |                    |

**Table 5** above shows that most of the respondents (47) described their area of residence as rural with 56.6% while others (35) described their area as urban with 42.2%.

### 4.3 SECTION B: EFFECTS OF TELEVISED ALCOHOL ADVERTISEMENTS ON THE BEHAVIOUR OF THE YOUTH

#### 4.3.1 Television programmes respondent liked the most



The above chart **B6** presents research findings of television programmes that respondents like the most. In order to identify television alcohol advertisements, respondents were asked to choose the correct answer from the list of options provided. The respondents were provided programmes to choose from such as:

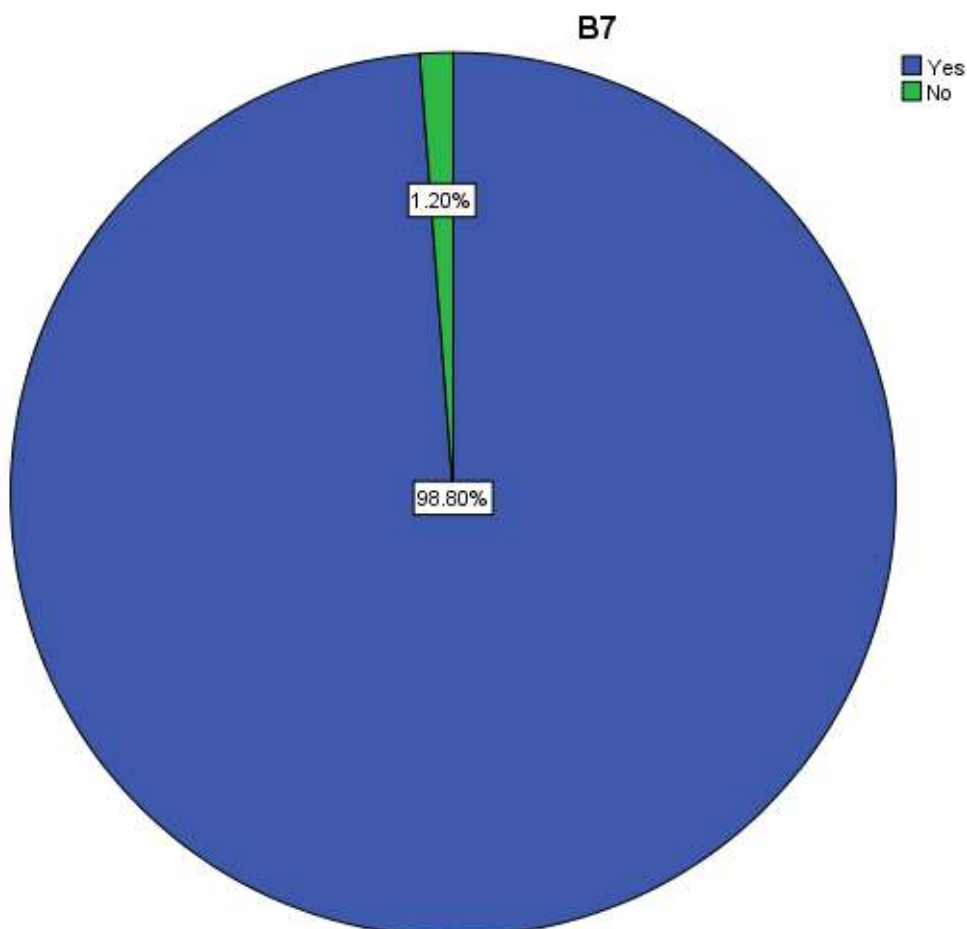
- Soap operas
- News
- Advertisements
- Sports
- Drama
- Situation comedies
- Documentary
- Movies
- Commercials
- Other (please explain)

It shows that 18.1% (15) of the responded indicated they like soap operas. A further 16.9% (14) of the respondents indicated sports as the second most likely television programme; 14.5% (12) of the respondents indicated news; 6% (5) and 12% (10) indicated advertisements and dramas respectively.

About 6% (5) of the respondents indicated they like situation comedies, while 9.6% (8) indicated 'they like documentaries'. Only 2.4% (2) of the respondents indicated they like commercials. A percentage of 14.5% (12) of the respondents indicated they like movies than other television programmes.

#### 4.3.2 Respondent saw alcohol advertisements while watching television

**B7** below shows that of the respondents, 98.8% (82) of the respondents stated 'yes they see alcohol advertisements' while watching television, while 1.2% (1) of the respondents stated 'no'.



### 4.3.3 Features that respondent remembered in the alcohol advertisements

The following sub-sections discuss what the respondents remember in the alcohol advertisements they saw.

#### 4.3.3.1 People in the advertisements were attractive

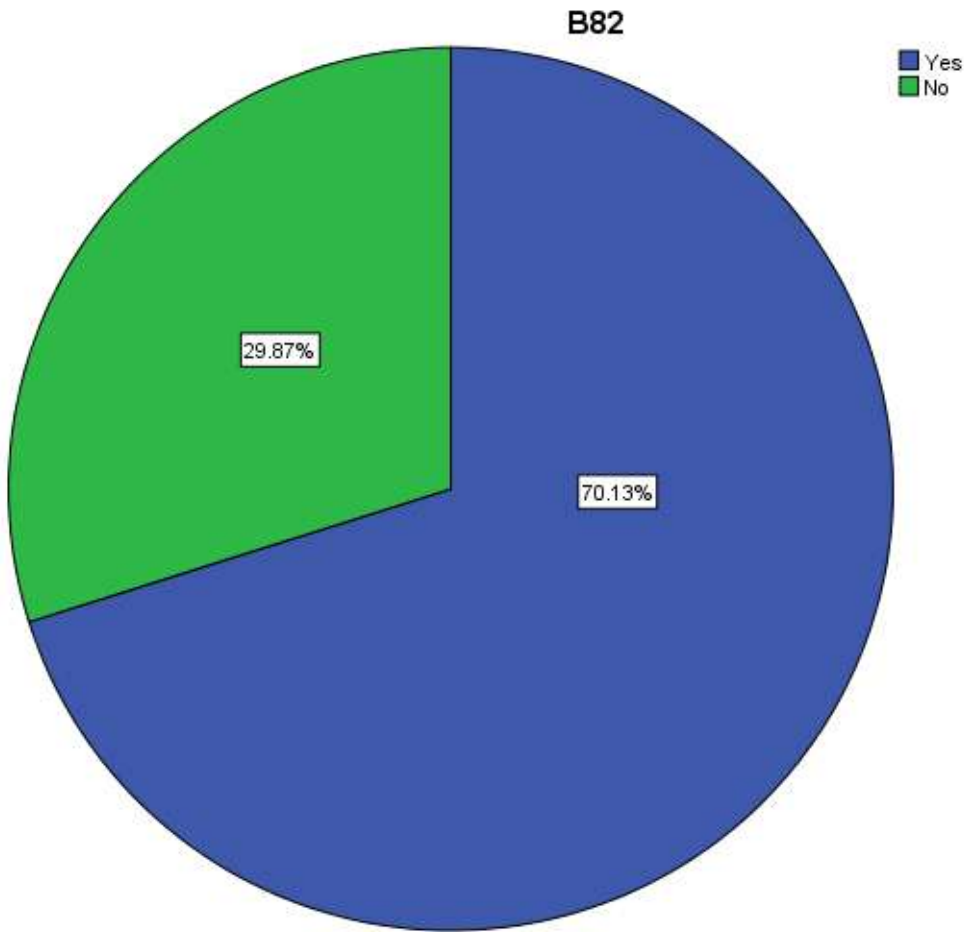
The following **Table 6** shows that of the respondents, 77.1% (64) indicated 'yes they remember people drinking and looking attractive in the advertisements', while 20.5% (17) of the respondents indicated 'no'.

**Table 6**

|                | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Yes      | 64        | 77.1    | 79.0          | 79.0               |
| Valid No       | 17        | 20.5    | 21.0          | 100.0              |
| Total          | 81        | 97.6    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing System | 2         | 2.4     |               |                    |
| Total          | 83        | 100.0   |               |                    |

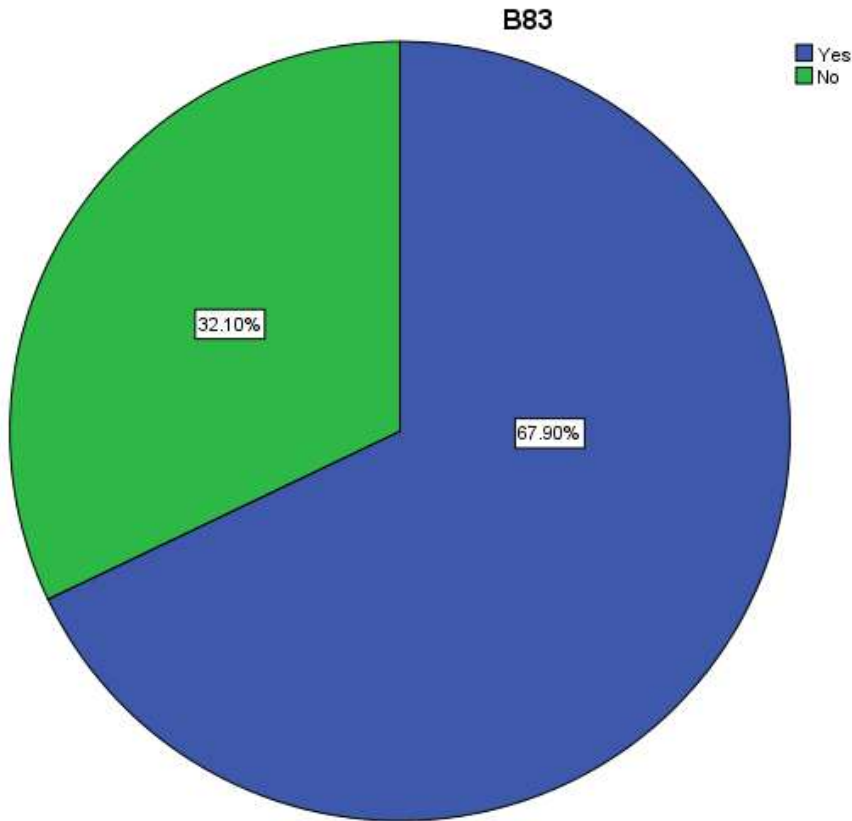
#### 4.3.3.2 Male and female actors were physically attracted to each other

The following chart **B82** below indicates that 65.1% (54) of the respondents, stated 'yes both the male and female actors were attracted to each other', and 27.7% (23) stated 'no'.



#### 4.3.3.3 People in the advertisements were masculine and strong

The chart **B83** below shows that 66.3% (55) of the respondents indicated 'yes they remember people in the advertisements looked like they have strength and they were muscular' and only 31.3% (26) of the respondents indicated 'no'.



#### 4.3.3.4 Advertisements were funny

**Table 7**

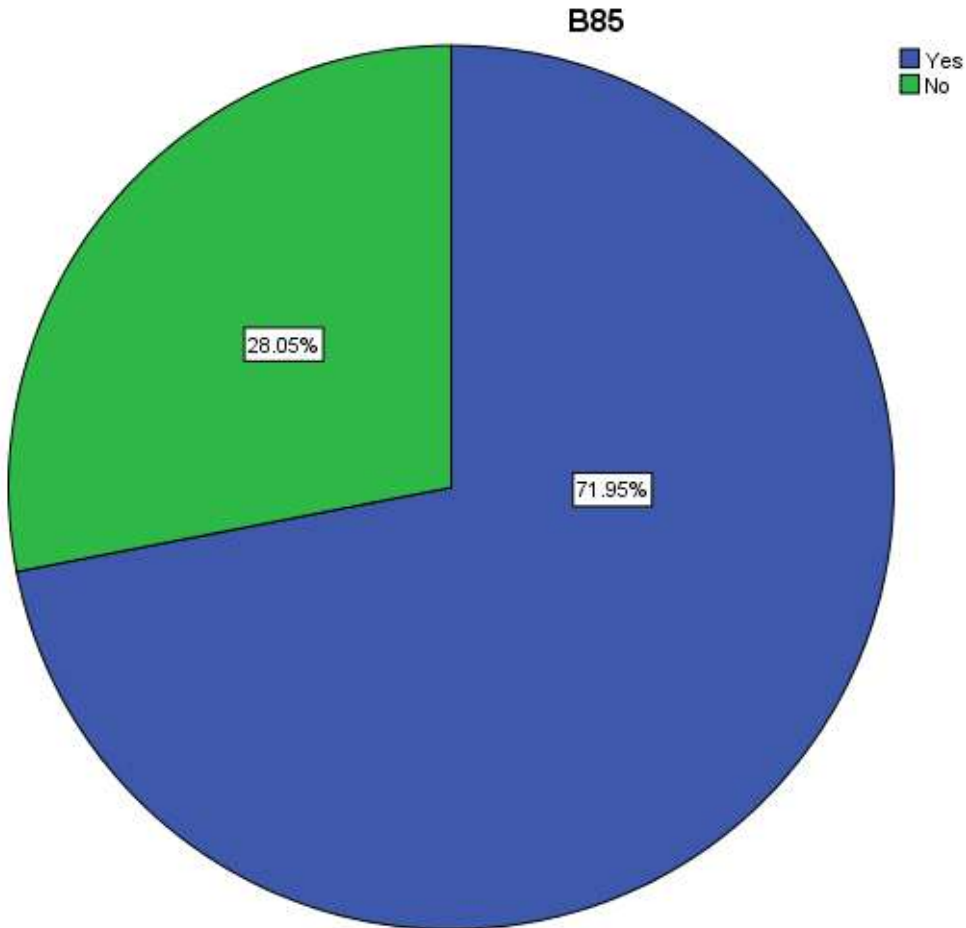
|                | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Yes      | 54        | 65.1    | 65.9          | 65.9               |
| Valid No       | 28        | 33.7    | 34.1          | 100.0              |
| Total          | 82        | 98.8    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing System | 1         | 1.2     |               |                    |
| Total          | 83        | 100.0   |               |                    |

**Table 7** above indicates that a percentage of 65.1% (54) of the respondents that indicated 'yes advertisements were funny'. Only 33.7% (28) of the respondents indicated 'no'.



#### 4.3.3.5 Advertisements portrayed drinking as a great way to socialise

The chart **B85** below shows that 71.1% (59) of the respondents stated that they remember advertisements portrayed drinking as a great way to meet people while 27.7% (23) of the respondents stated 'no'.



**Table 8** below indicates that only 3.6% (3) of the respondents indicated 'yes' they remember about other ways in which people in the alcohol advertisements were portrayed. Another 3.6% (3) of the respondents indicated 'no', however, the respondents did not explain 'other' for both answers.

**Table 8**

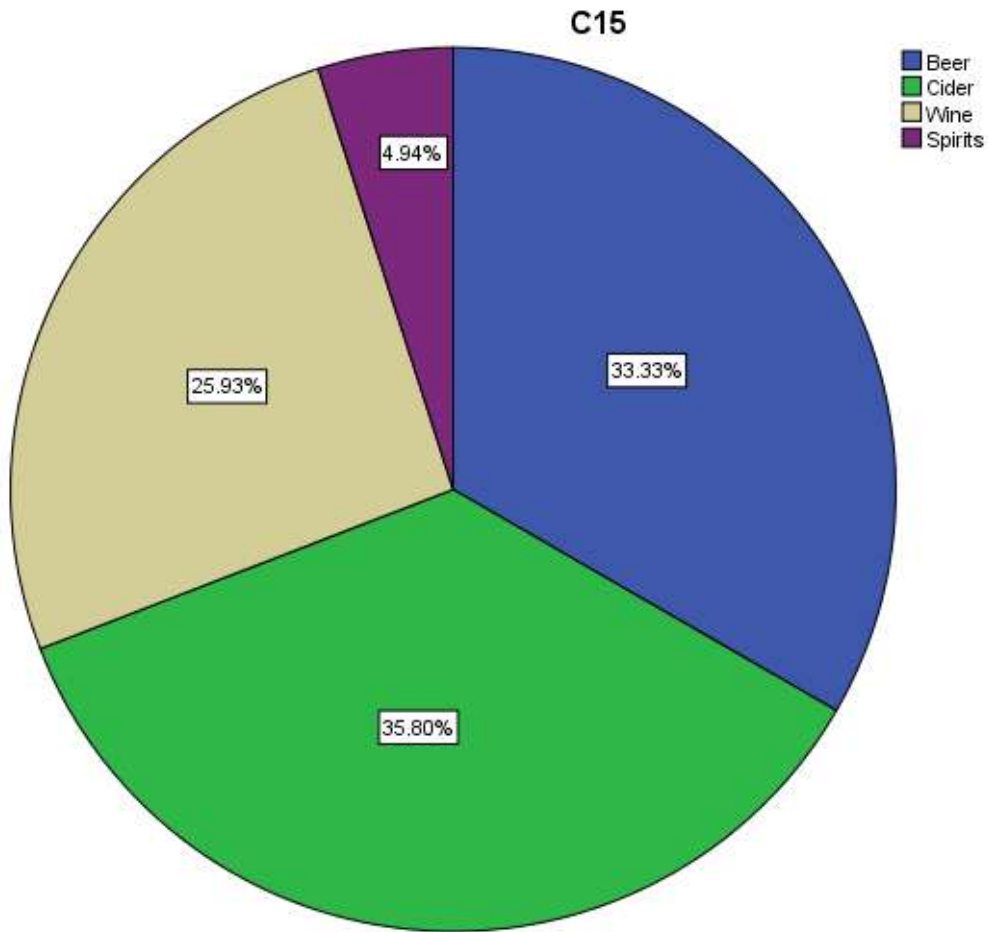
|                | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Yes      | 3         | 3.6     | 50.0          | 50.0               |
| Valid No       | 3         | 3.6     | 50.0          | 100.0              |
| Total          | 6         | 7.2     | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing System | 77        | 92.8    |               |                    |
| Total          | 83        | 100.0   |               |                    |

#### **4.3.4 Respondent's favourite category of alcohol advertisements**

The respondents were asked to select one option from a provided list of categories of alcohol advertisements that they favour the most. The alcohol advertisements were categorised into four, namely:

- Beer
- Cider
- Wine
- Spirits.

The chart **C15** below shows that 32.5% (27) of the respondents indicated they favour beer advertisements. Furthermore, 34.9% (29) of the respondents indicated they favour cider. About 25.3% (21) of the respondents indicated that they favour wine, and 4.8% (4) of the respondents indicated they favour spirits.

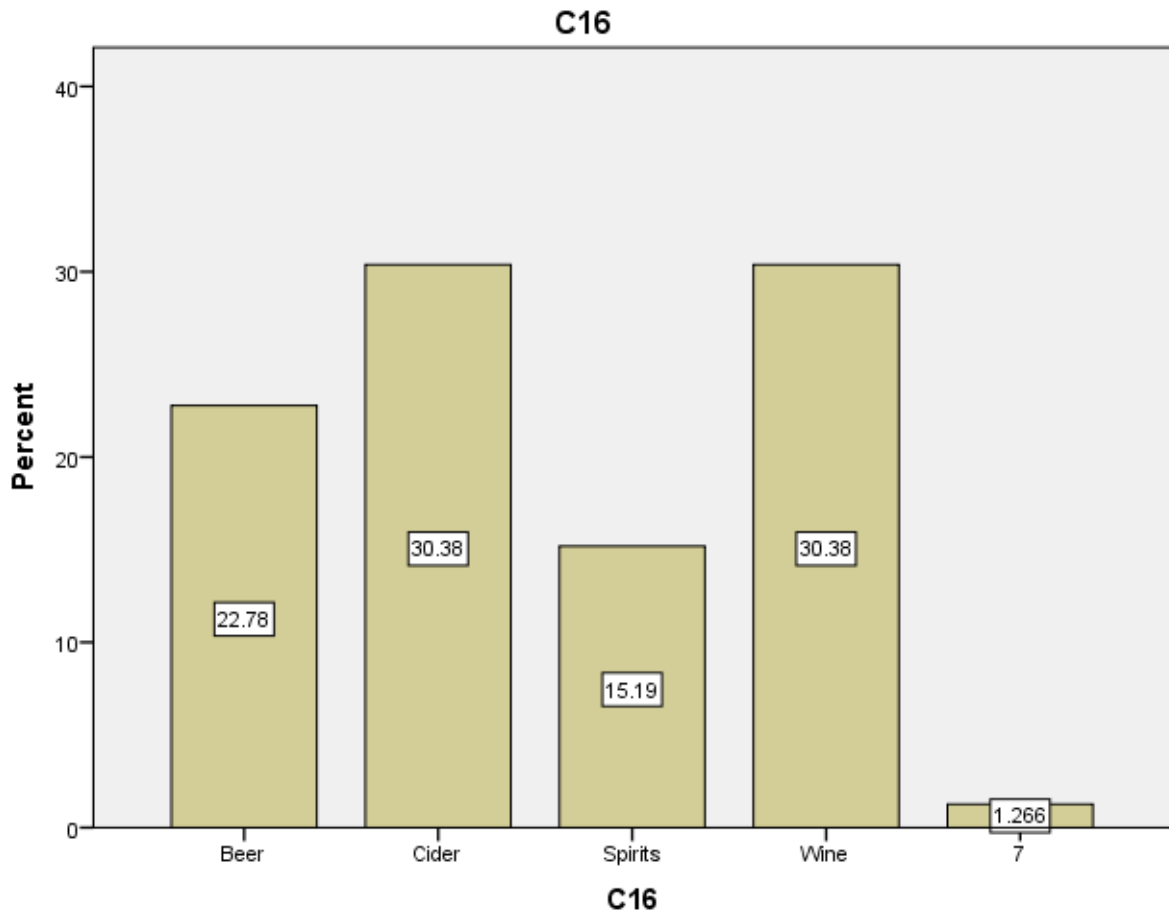


#### 4.3.5 Alcohol beverages respondent once drank

The respondents were provided with the list of categories of alcoholic drinks that they have drunk once in their life time. The list is as follows:

- Beer
- Cider
- Spirits
- Wine

Respondents were asked which alcoholic drink they once drank in their lifetime. It was found that the majority (24) of respondents have drunk either cider or wine with an equal percentages of 28.9%, 21.7% (18) respondents drank beer and only 14.5% (12) drank spirits. The graph **C16** below indicates.



In order to rate the appearance of alcohol advertisements on television, respondents were asked to indicate the correct time scales that they see alcohol advertisements per week. The time scales were divided into none, 1-2 times, 3-4 times, 5-6 times, 7-8 times, 9-10 times and more than 10 times.

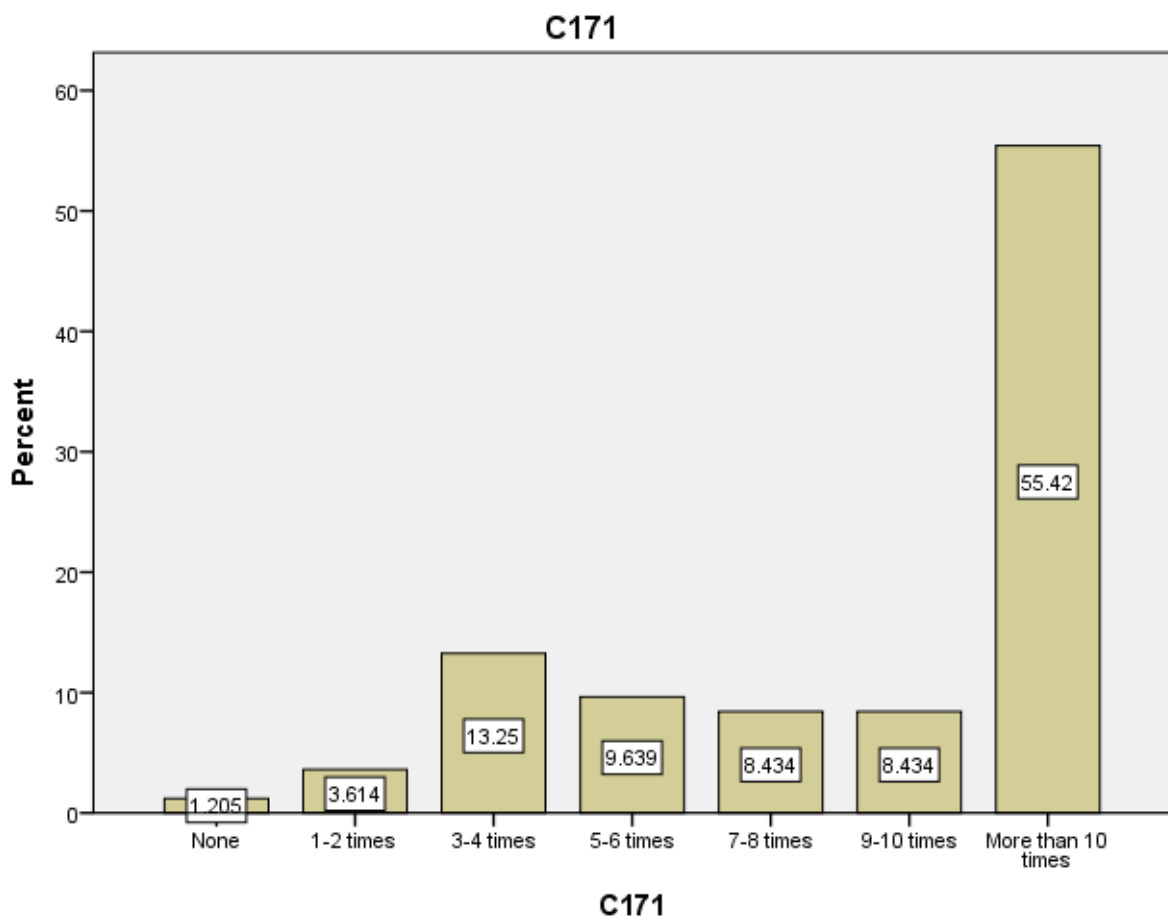
#### **4.3.6 The frequency in which respondent saw alcohol advertisements on television per week**

The respondents were asked to identify the regular terms they see advertisements of alcoholic drinks on television per week. The consistency or pattern of appearance of alcoholic beverages on television was shown by the following responses.

##### **4.3.6.1 Beer advertisements per week**

The following graph **C171** shows that 1.2% (1) of the respondents indicated that none of the beer advertisements were seen on television. Of the respondents, 3.6 %

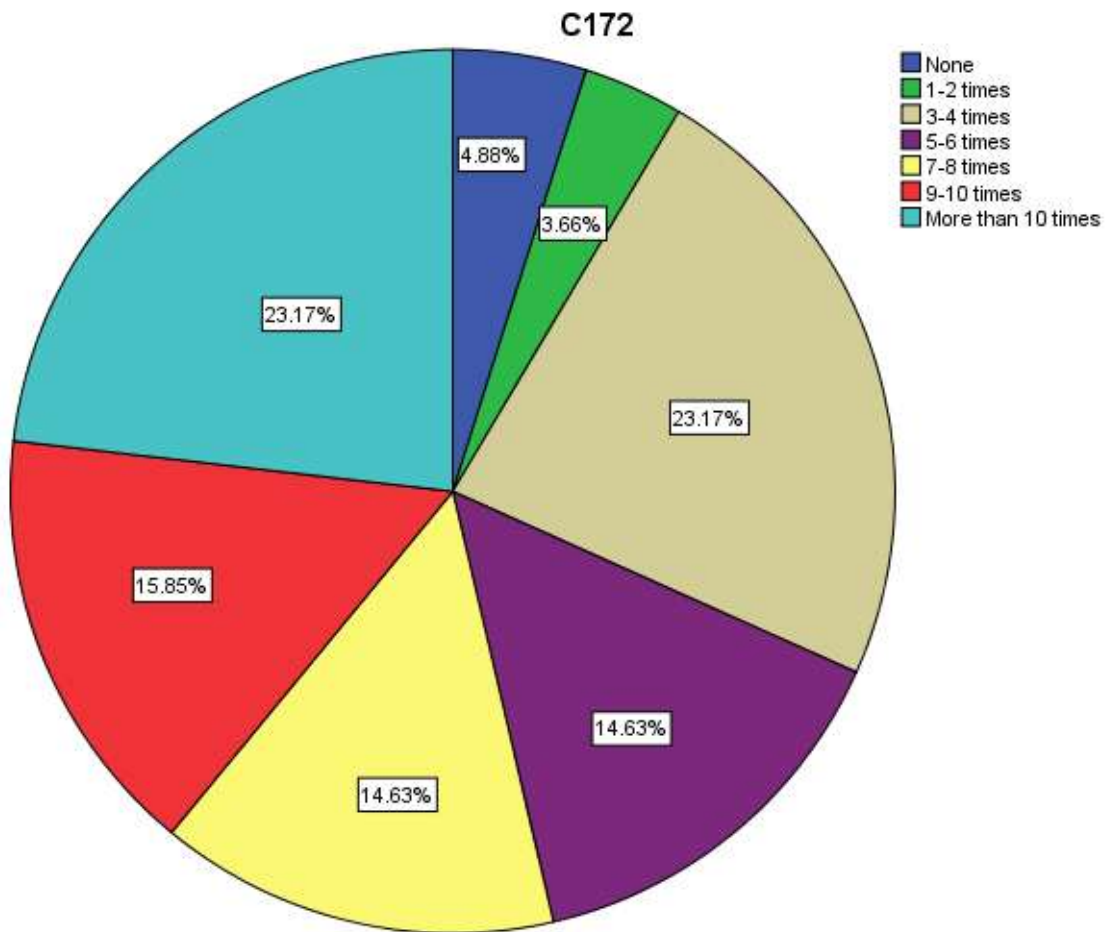
(3) indicated they see beer advertisements 1-2 times per week; 13.3% (11) indicated beer advertisements are seen 3-4 times per week; 9.6% (8) indicated beer advertisements are seen 5-6 times per week; 8.4% (7) indicated beer advertisements are seen 7-8 times per week, while 8.4% (7) indicated beer advertisements are seen 9-10 times per week. The majority of respondents at 55.4% (46) indicated that beer advertisements are seen more than 10 times per week.



#### 4.3.6.2 Cider advertisements per week

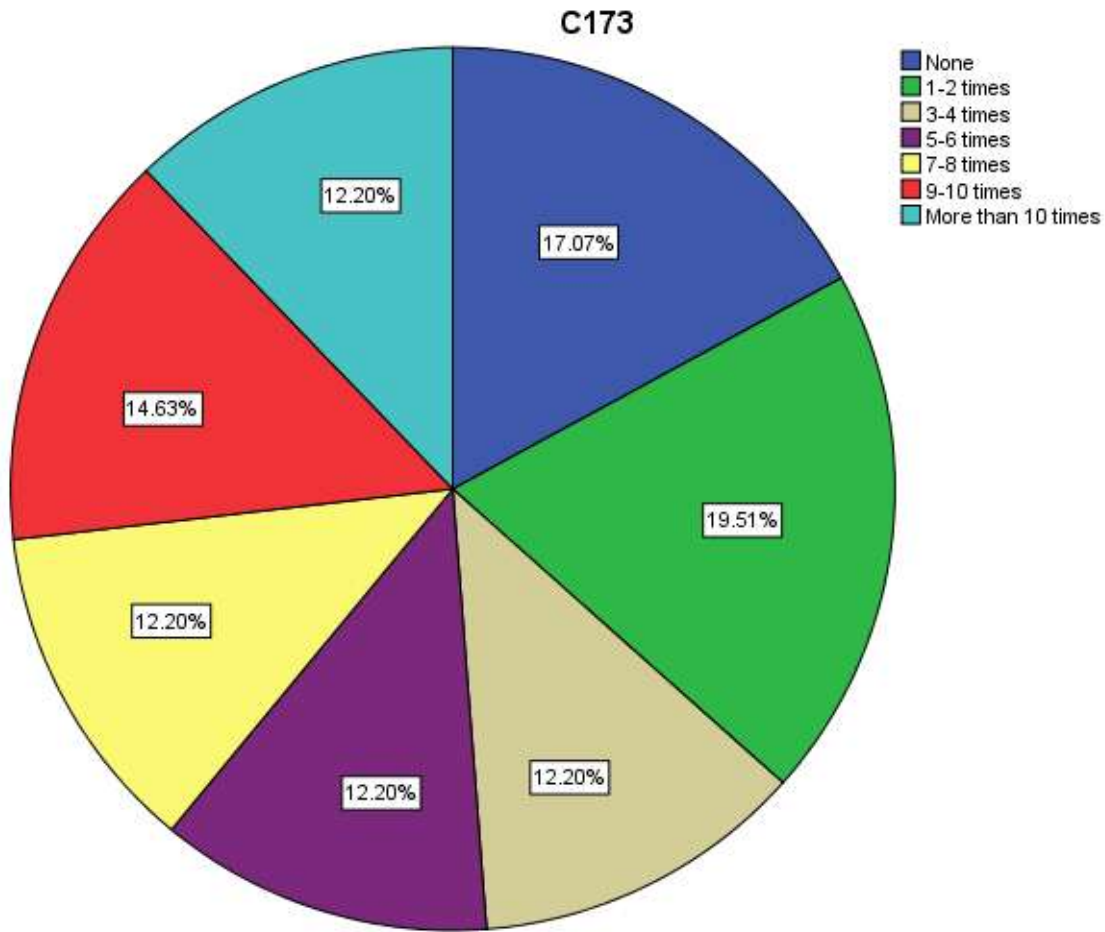
**C172** below indicates that a percentage of 4.8% (4) of the respondents indicated that none of the cider advertisements were seen per week; 3.6% (3) stated that they see cider advertisements 1-2 times per week; 22.9% (19) stated that they see cider

advertisements 3-4 times per week; 14.5% (12) responded that they see cider advertisements 5-6 times per week; 14.5% (12) responded that they see cider advertisements 7-8 times per week; 15.7% (13) indicated they see cider advertisements 9-10 times per week, and 22.9% (19) stated that they see cider advertisements more than 10 times per week.



#### 4.3.6.3 Spirits advertisements per week

**C173** below shows that 16.9% (14) of the respondents indicated spirits advertisements are rare to be seen on television per week. But only 19.3% (16) of the respondents indicated they see spirits advertisements 1-2 times per week, and a total number of 50 respondents indicated that spirits advertisements are also seen 3-4 times, 5-6 times, 7-8 times, 9-10 and more than 10 times per week, with 12%.



#### 4.3.6.4 Wine advertisements per week

It was found that only 8.4% (7) indicated they have seen none of the wine advertisements per week, 22.9% (19) indicated they see wine advertisements 1-2 times per week, 19.3% (16) indicated they see wine advertisements 3-4 times per week, 10.8% (9) indicated they see wine advertisements 5-6 times per week, 4.8% (4) indicated they see wine advertisements 7-8 times per week, 16.9% (14) indicated they see wine advertisements 9-10 times per week, while 15.7% (13) indicated they see wine advertisements more than 10 times per week. **Table 9** below indicates.

**Table 9**

|                    | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| None               | 7         | 8.4     | 8.5           | 8.5                |
| 1-2 times          | 19        | 22.9    | 23.2          | 31.7               |
| 3-4 times          | 16        | 19.3    | 19.5          | 51.2               |
| 5-6 times          | 9         | 10.8    | 11.0          | 62.2               |
| Valid 7-8 times    | 4         | 4.8     | 4.9           | 67.1               |
| 9-10 times         | 14        | 16.9    | 17.1          | 84.1               |
| More than 10 times | 13        | 15.7    | 15.9          | 100.0              |
| Total              | 82        | 98.8    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing System     | 1         | 1.2     |               |                    |
| Total              | 83        | 100.0   |               |                    |

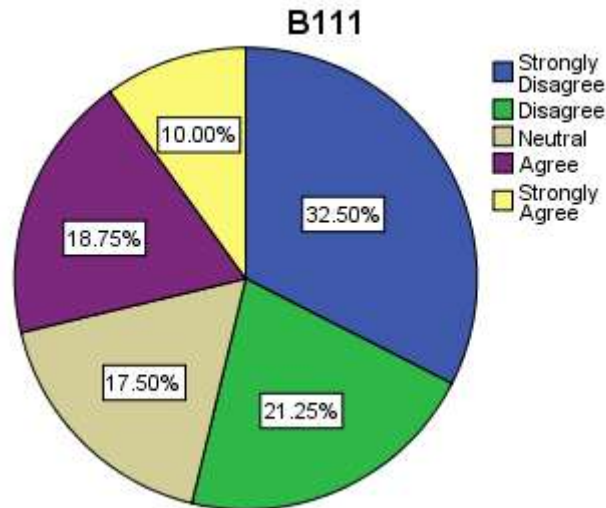
#### **4.3.7 Respondent's behaviour when he is drunk**

The respondents' behaviour was assessed based on how they behave when they are drunk and under which circumstances they do drink alcohol. The respondents had to select the correct response from a list of eleven questions using the five point scale to rate their behaviour, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree.

##### **4.3.7.1 Respect**

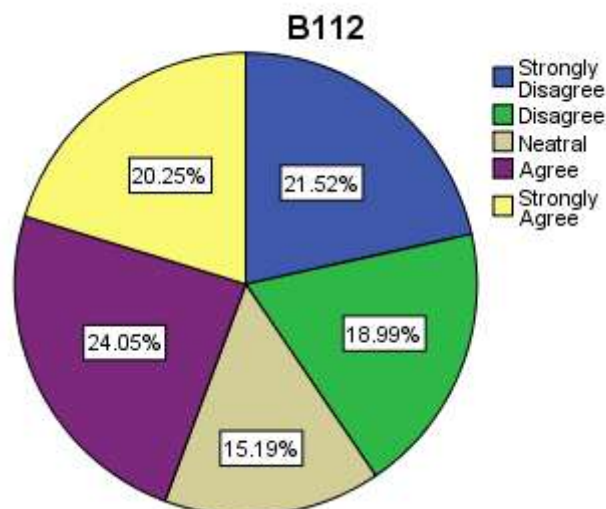
The chart **B111** below indicates that 31.3% (26) of the respondents indicated they strongly disagree that they show respect when they are drunk; 20.5% (17) indicated they disagree that they show respect when they are drunk; 16.9% (14) indicated they are neutral; 18.1% (15) indicated they agree that they show respect when they are drunk; and 9.6% (8) indicated they strongly agree that they show respect when they are drunk.





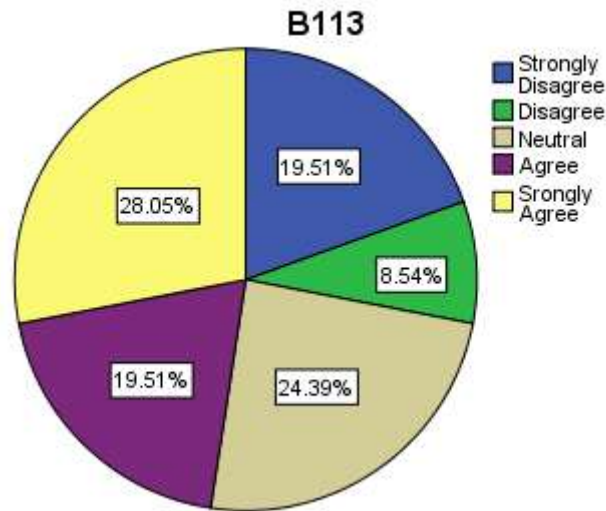
#### 4.3.7.2 Fight

**B112** below shows that a percentage of 20.5% (17) of the respondents indicated they strongly disagree that they fight when they are drunk. Furthermore, 18.1% (15) of the respondents indicated they disagree that they fight when they are drunk while 14.5% (12) of the respondents indicated neutral. About 22.9% (19) of the respondents indicated they agree that they fight when they are drunk; and only 19.3% (16) of the respondents indicated that they strongly agree that they fight when they are drunk. Therefore, the majority of the respondents admitted that they fight when they are drunk.



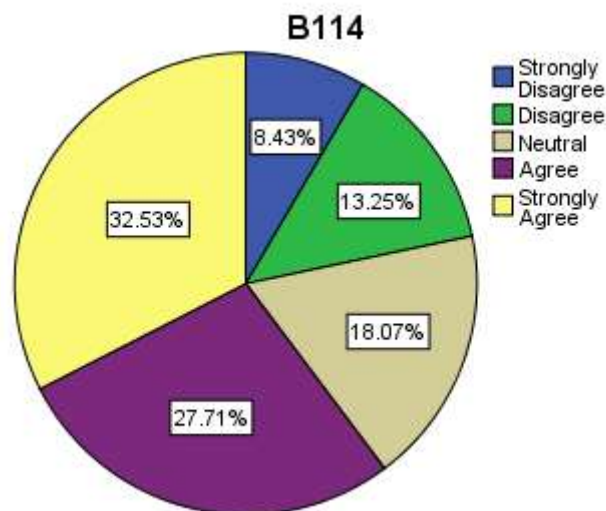
### 4.3.7.3 Speed

**B113** below shows that 19.3% (16) of the respondents indicated they strongly disagree that they drive at high speed when they are drunk; 8.4% (7) indicated disagree and 24.1% (20) indicated neutral. Only 19.3% (16) indicated agree and 27.7% (23) indicated strongly agree.



### 4.3.7.4 Health harm

The chart **B114** below shows that 8.4% (7) of the respondents indicated they strongly disagree that alcohol can harm their health; 13.3% (11) indicated they disagree; 18.1% (15) indicated neutral; 27.7% (23) indicated agree; and 32.5% (27) indicated strongly agree.



#### 4.3.7.5 Happy

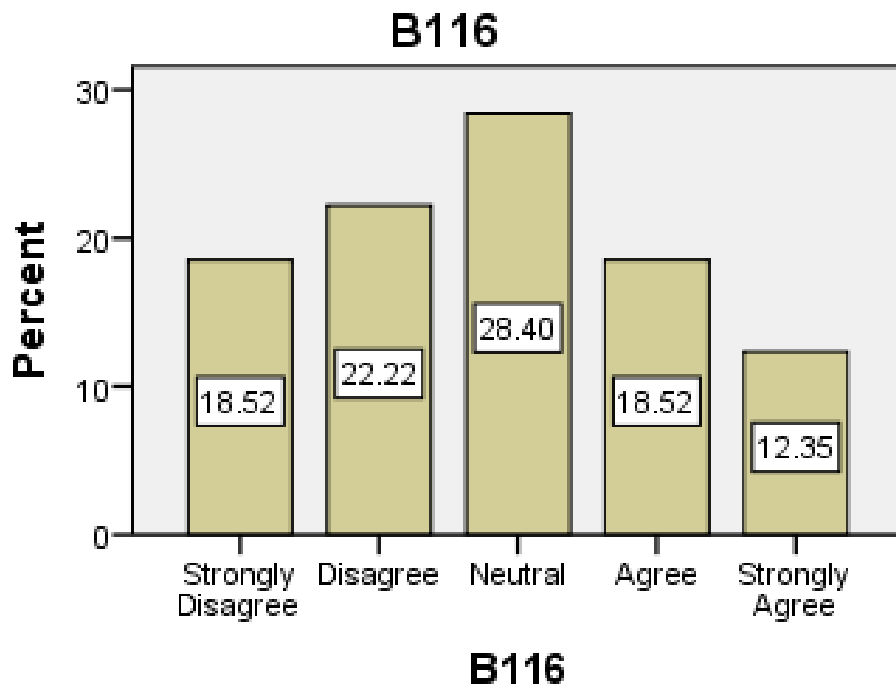
As presented below by **Table 10**, of the respondents, 7.2% (6) indicated they strongly disagree that they become happy when they are drunk; 3.6% (3) indicated they disagree that they become happy when they are drunk; 15.7% (13) indicated they are just neutral; 38.6% (32) indicated they agree that they become happy when they are drunk; and 32.5% (27) indicated they strongly agree that they become happy when they are drunk.

**Table 10**

|                |                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid          | Strongly Disagree | 6         | 7.2     | 7.4           | 7.4                |
|                | Disagree          | 3         | 3.6     | 3.7           | 11.1               |
|                | Neutral           | 13        | 15.7    | 16.0          | 27.2               |
|                | Agree             | 32        | 38.6    | 39.5          | 66.7               |
|                | Strongly Agree    | 27        | 32.5    | 33.3          | 100.0              |
| Total          |                   | 81        | 97.6    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing System |                   | 2         | 2.4     |               |                    |
| Total          |                   | 83        | 100.0   |               |                    |

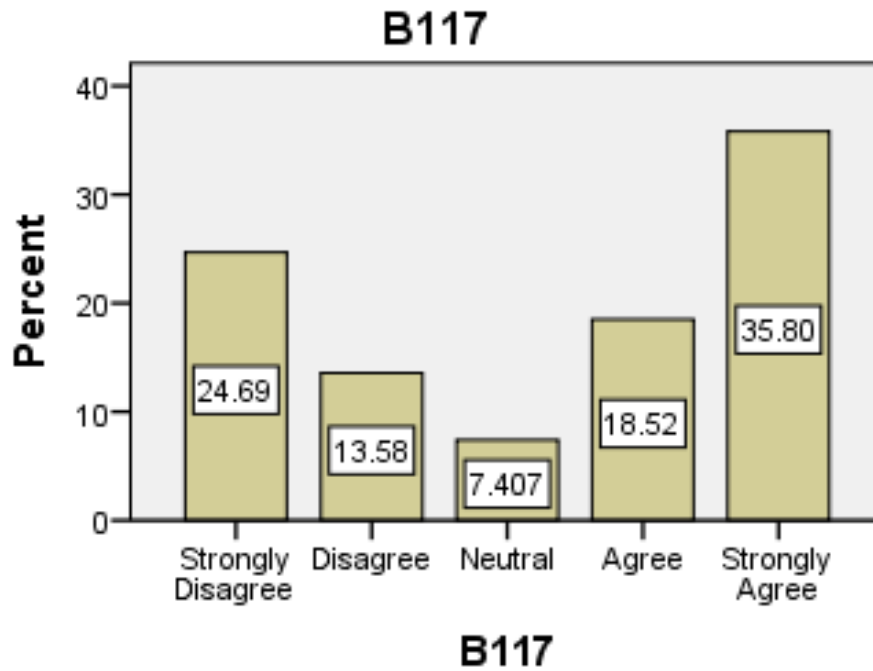
#### 4.3.7.6 Lazy

The following graph, **B116** indicates that a total percentage of 18.1% (15) of the respondents indicated they strongly disagree that they become lazy when they are drunk. Furthermore, 21.7% (18) of the respondents indicated they disagree that they become lazy when they are drunk. Only 27.7% (23) of the respondents indicated they are neutral, while 18.1% (15) of the respondents indicated they agree that they become lazy when they are drunk. Only 12% (10) of the respondents indicated they strongly agree that they become lazy when they are drunk.



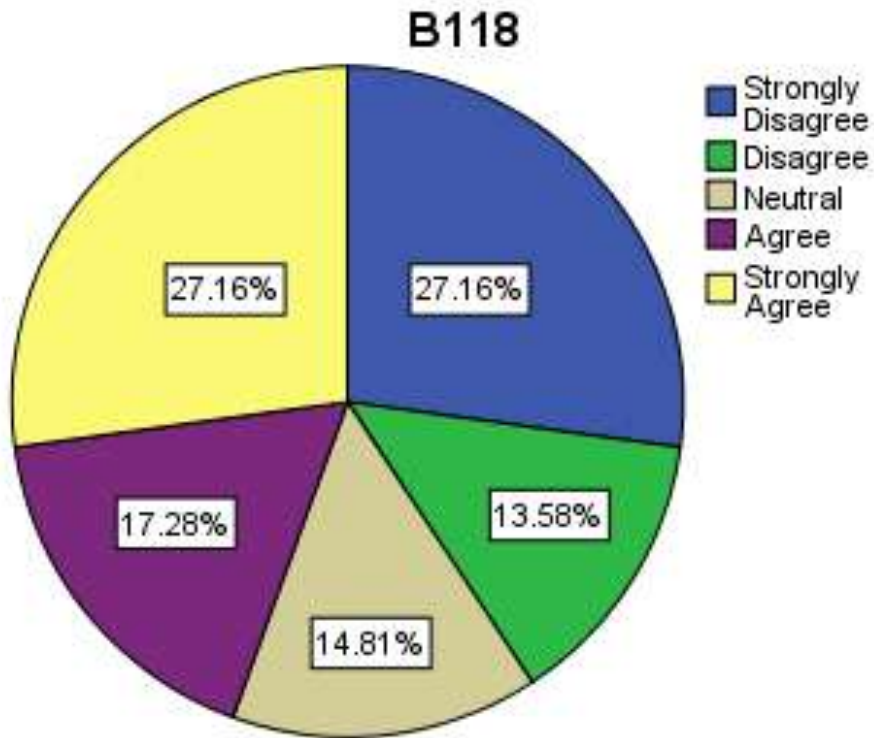
#### 4.3.7.7 Led to commit crime

It was found that 24.1% (20) of the respondents indicated they strongly disagree that they commit crime when they are drunk; 13.3% (11) indicated disagree; 7.2% (6) indicated neutral; 18.1% (15) indicated agree; and 34.9% (29) indicated strongly agree. Therefore, the majority of the respondents strongly agree that they commit crime when under the influence of alcohol. The following graph, **B117** indicates.



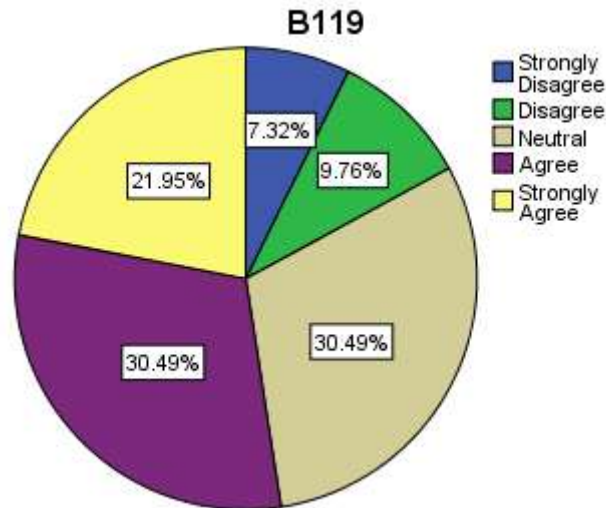
#### 4.3.7.8 Smoke

**B118** below shows that 26.5% (22) of the respondents indicated they strongly disagree that they smoke when they are drunk; 13.3% (11) indicated disagree; 14.5% (12) indicated neutral; 16.9% (14) indicated agree; and 16.9% (14) indicated strongly agree.



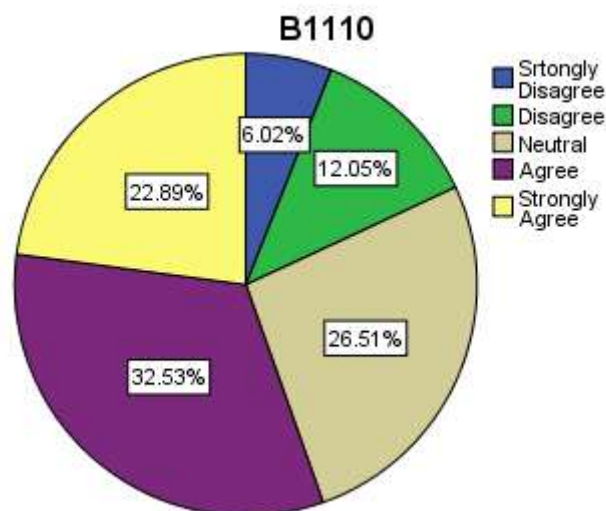
#### 4.3.7.9 Feel relaxed

The following chart, **B119** shows that a percentage of 7.2% (6) of the respondents indicated they strongly disagree that they become relaxed when they are drunk. Furthermore, 9.6% (8) of the respondents indicated they disagree that they become relaxed when they are drunk. Only 30.1% (25) of the respondents indicated neutral. Another 30.1% (25) of the respondents indicated they agree that they become relaxed when they are drunk. Only 21.7% (18) of the respondents indicated they strongly agree that they become relaxed when they are drunk.



#### 4.3.7.10 Adventurous

The following **chart, B1110** indicates that 6% (5) of the respondents indicated they strongly disagree that alcohol makes them adventurous; 12% (10) indicated they disagree; 26.5% (22) indicated neutral; 32.5 % ( 27) indicated agree; and 22.6% (19) indicated strongly agree.



#### 4.3.7.11 Stress free

**Table 11** below shows that 8.4% (7) of the respondents indicated they strongly disagree that they become stress free when they are drunk; 9.6% (8) indicated disagree; 14.5% (12) indicated neutral; 28.9% (24) indicated agree; and 37.3% (31)

indicated strongly. The majority of the respondents indicated that alcohol releases them from stress.

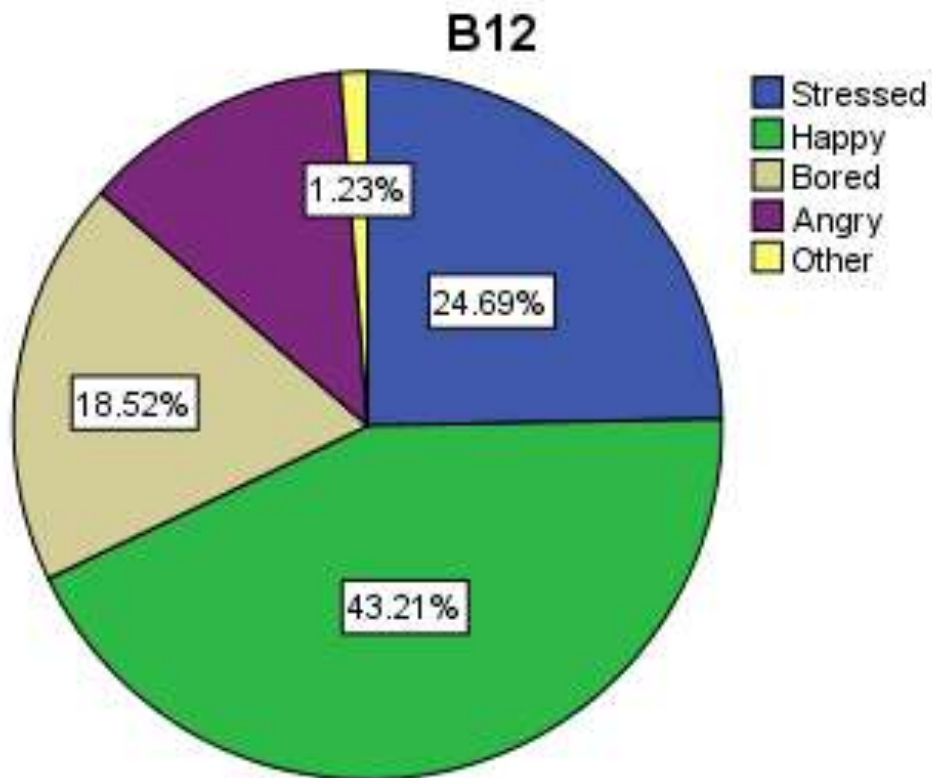
**Table 11**

|                   | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Strongly Disagree | 7         | 8.4     | 8.5           | 8.5                |
| Disagree          | 8         | 9.6     | 9.8           | 18.3               |
| Valid Neutral     | 12        | 14.5    | 14.6          | 32.9               |
| Agree             | 24        | 28.9    | 29.3          | 62.2               |
| Strongly Agree    | 31        | 37.3    | 37.8          | 100.0              |
| Total             | 82        | 98.8    | 100.0         |                    |
| Missing System    | 1         | 1.2     |               |                    |
| Total             | 83        | 100.0   |               |                    |

#### 4.3.8 The circumstances respondent drank alcohol

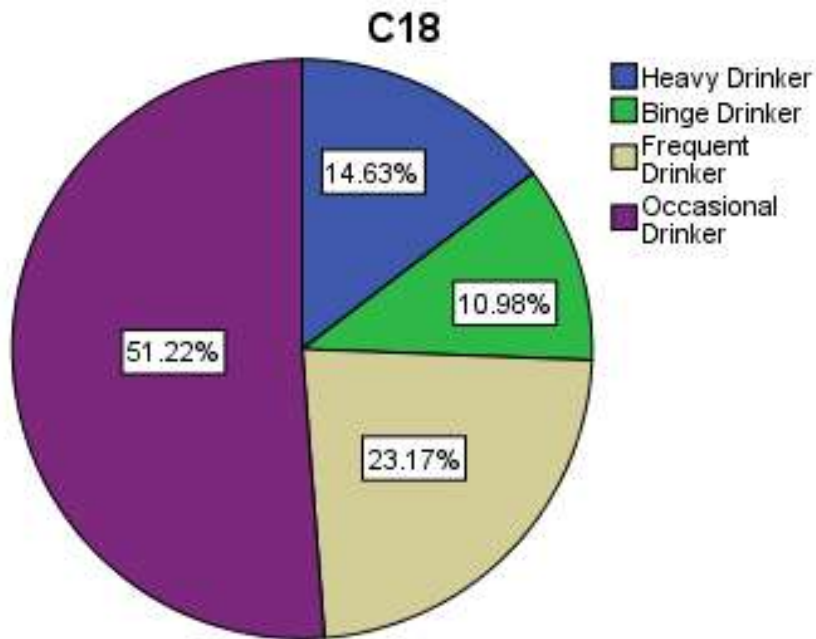
Respondents were asked under which circumstances they drink alcohol. **B12** below shows that 24.1% (20) of the respondents indicated they drink alcohol when they are stressed; 42.2% (35) indicated they drink alcohol when they are happy; 18.1% (15) indicated they drink alcohol when they are bored; and 12% (10) indicated they drink alcohol when they are angry. Only 1.2% (1) of the respondents indicated other without explanations. Therefore, the majority of the respondents stated that they normally drink alcohol when they are happy.





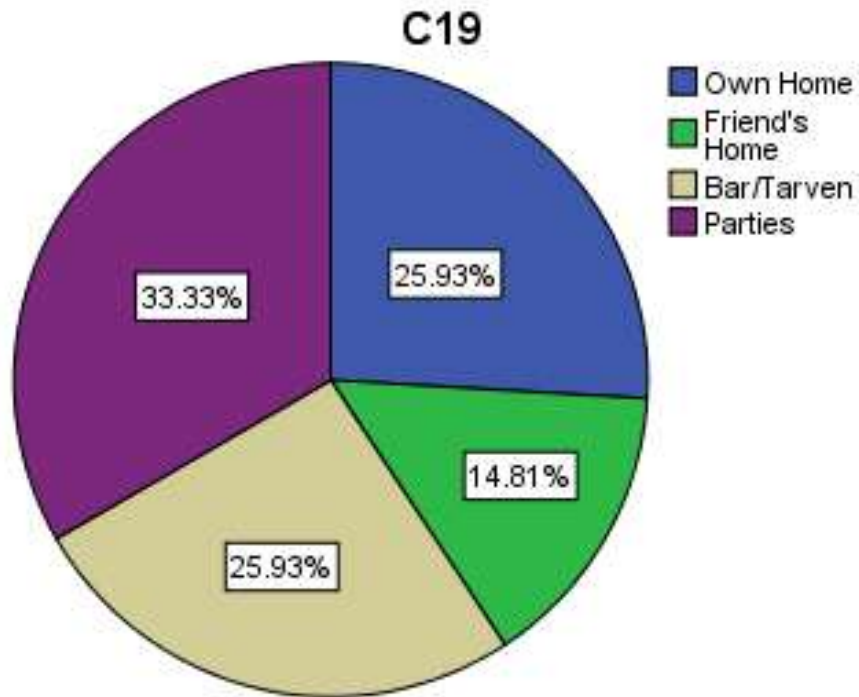
#### 4.3.9 Respondent's drinking habit

The drinking habit of the respondents was evaluated based on four types of drinkers, namely, heavy drinker, binge drinker, frequent drinker and occasional drinker. It was found that 14.5% (12) of the respondents indicated they are heavy drinkers. Furthermore, 10.8% (9) of the respondents indicated they are binge drinkers. A total number of 22.9% (19) of the respondents indicated they are frequent drinkers. The majority of the respondents 50.6% (42) indicated they are occasional drinkers. **C18** below indicates.



#### 4.3.10 Respondent's preferred place of drinking

The respondents were asked to indicate locations or situations they prefer to drink alcohol. As indicated by the **C19** below, 25.3% (21) of the respondents indicated they prefer to drink alcohol at own home; 14.5% (12) indicated they prefer to drink alcohol in a friend's home; 25.3% (21) indicated they prefer to drink alcohol in a bar or tavern; and 32.5% (27) indicated they prefer to drink alcohol at parties.

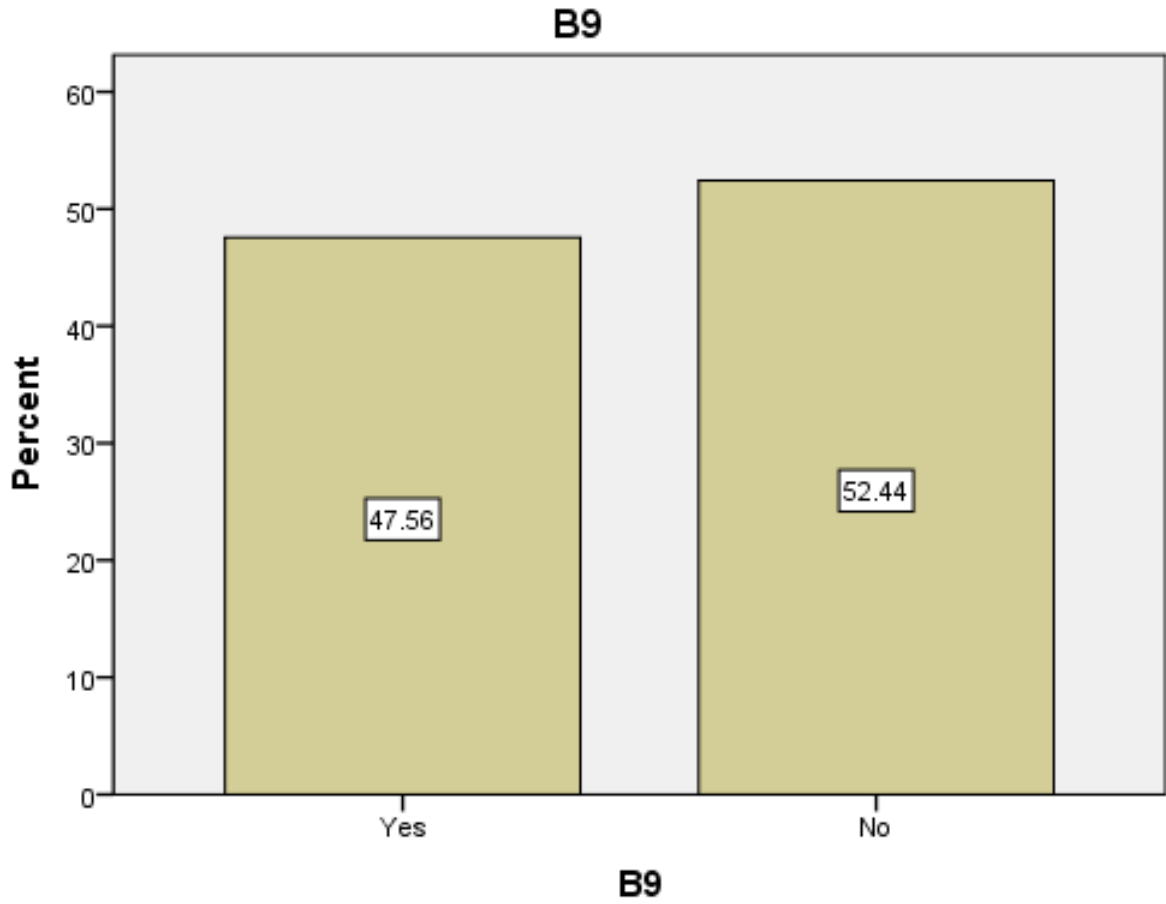


#### **4.4 SECTION C: PREFERENCES OF ALCOHOL ADVERTISEMENTS ON TELEVISION.**

The following discussion is divided in the following sub-sections:

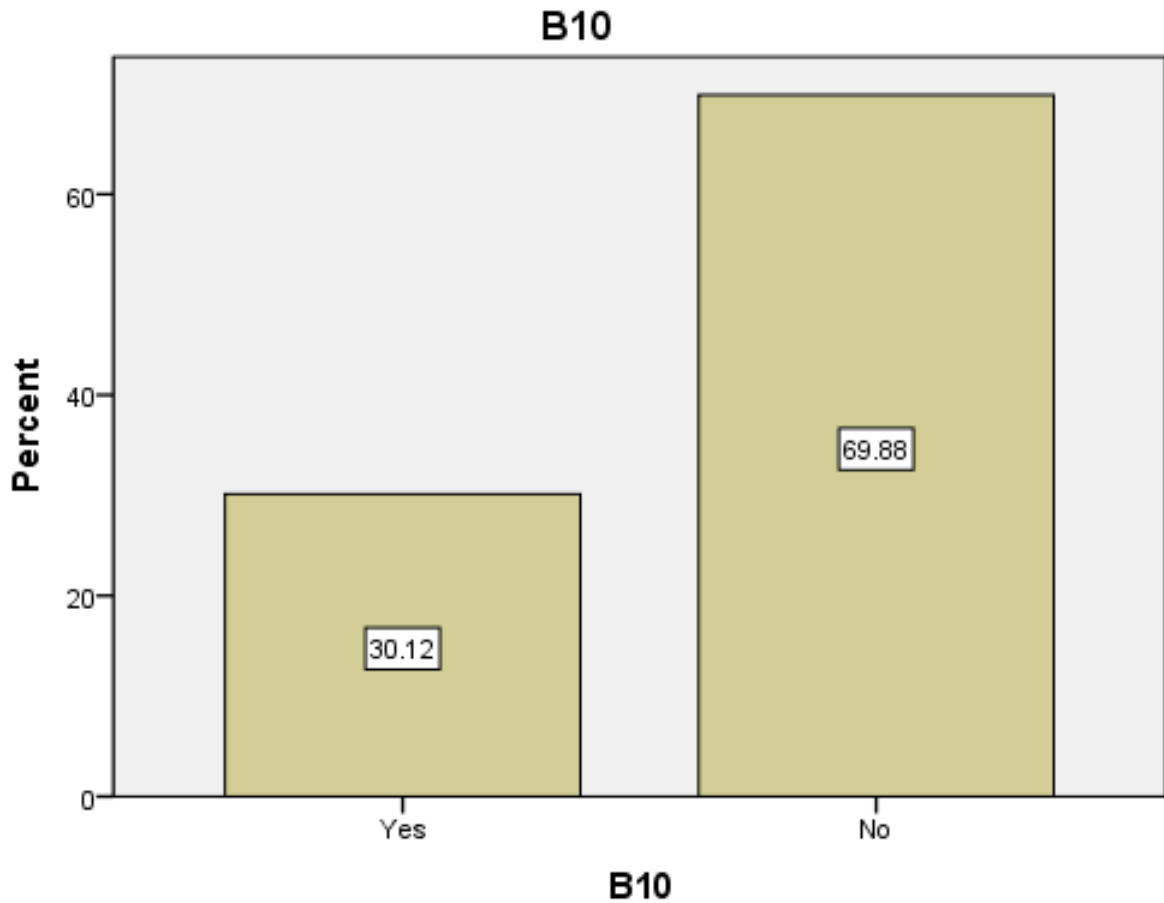
##### **4.4.1 Respondent's likelihood of purchasing alcoholic drinks that were advertised**

Respondents were asked to indicate the correct response from the list of answers, whether they buy alcohol drinks which were advertised on television. The **graph, B9** below shows that 47% (39) of the respondents indicated 'yes they usually buy alcohol drinks that were advertised on television' and 51.8% (43) indicated no.



#### 4.4.2 Modelling of advertisements' characters by the respondent

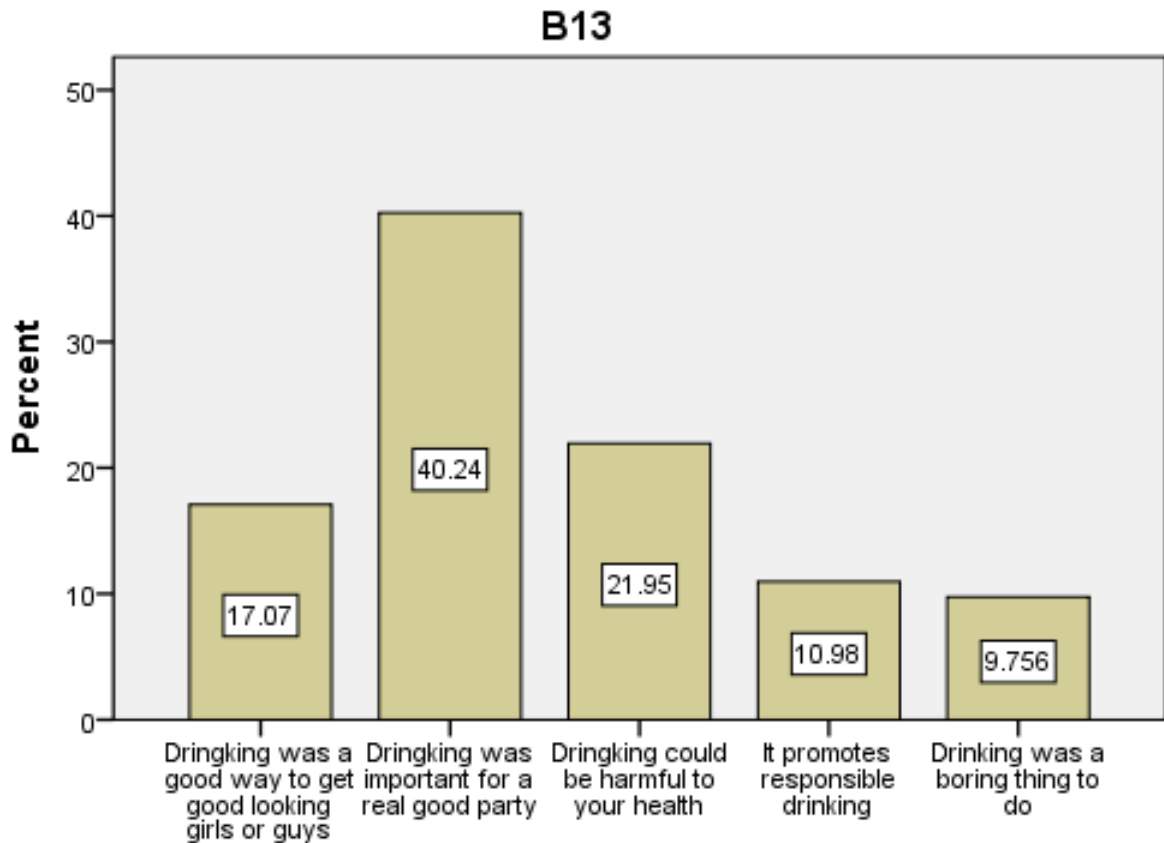
The graph, **B10** below indicates that 30.1% (25) of the respondents indicated yes they usually relate themselves with the persons in the advertisements because most of them are celebrities and models. They look young and successful, so they are their role models. They wish to live like them. While only 69.9% (58) indicated no. The respondents believed that the characters were just doing their jobs- of advertising the product.



#### 4.4.3 General perceptions made by advertisements about drinking alcohol

The respondents were provided with a list of perceptions that are created by alcohol advertisements about drinking. The responses were as follows:

The following graph, **B13** shows that 16.9% (14) of the respondents indicated drinking alcohol was a good way to get good looking girls or guys; 39.8% (33) indicated drinking alcohol was important for a good party; 21.7% (18) indicated drinking alcohol could be harmful to their health; 10.8% (9) indicated alcohol advertisements promote responsible drinking; and 9.6% (8) indicated drinking alcohol was a boring thing to do.

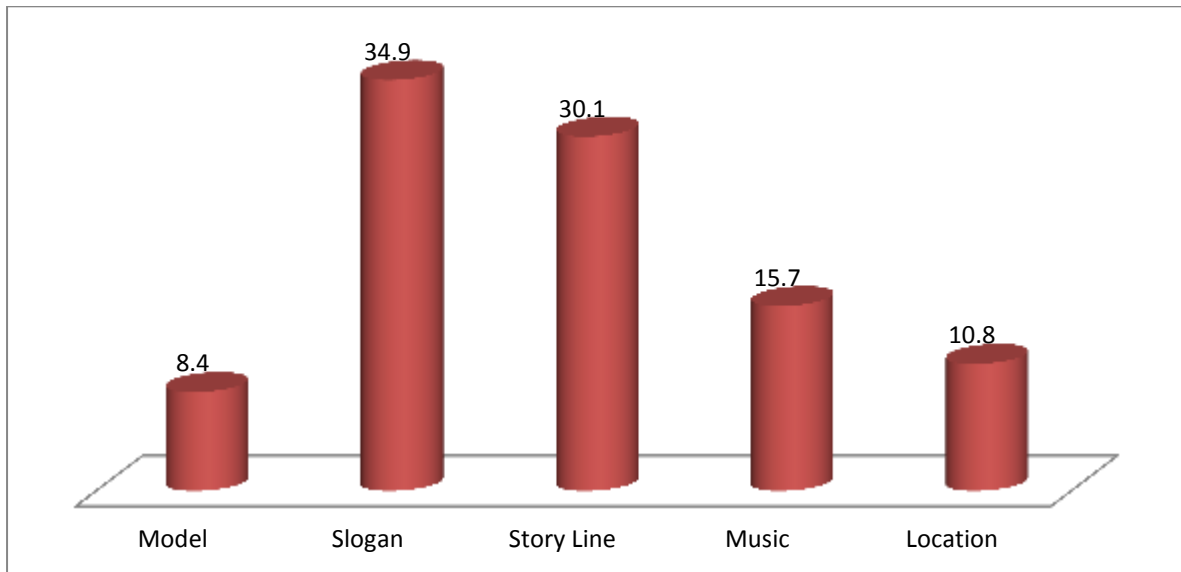


**B13**

#### 4.4.4 Features in the advertisements that appeal to the respondent

It was found that 34.9% (29) of the respondents indicated that slogan is more appealing to them in alcohol advertisements. This was followed by a storyline with a 30.1% (25) response rate. Furthermore, 15.7% (13) and 10.8% (9) of the respondents indicated they find music and location in alcohol advertisements appealing to them, respectively. Only 8.4% (7) of the respondents found the model appealing to them. Therefore, most of the respondents find a slogan of alcohol advertisements more appealing than other elements in alcohol advertisements. The following graph, **B14** below indicates.

## B14



### 4.4.5 Respondent's description of television alcohol advertisements

The researcher found it necessary to ask the respondents' general knowledge on television alcohol advertisements. The last question in the same questionnaires was the open-ended question that asked the respondents to describe television alcohol advertisements in their own words. The data from open-ended question were interpreted manually by the researcher.

It was found that, out of eighty-three (83) respondents participated in this study, forty-one (41) respondents described television alcohol advertisements as a bad influence to the youth. They further stated that alcohol advertisements lead the youth to engage in unsafe sexual activities, commit crime such as rape and murder and drink under the influence. Some described television alcohol advertisements as toxic because they encourage the youth to drink alcohol at early ages and some even neglect their studies. To some respondents, television alcohol advertisements are profit driven. They are just there to generate revenues for companies concerned.

A total number of thirty-seven (37) respondents described television alcohol advertisements as interesting, informative and funny. They indicated that they rely on them for new ideas and products. They also stated that they become excited

when they see an advertisement of their favourite alcoholic drink. They emphasised that they feel recognised and honoured by the advertisers and the media industry.

Some reiterated that drinking alcohol is one's choice. They stated that television alcohol advertisements promote responsible drinking because they show the percentage of alcohol contained in alcohol drinks and most television alcohol advertisements even emphasise that the drink is not for sale to persons under the age of 18 years. Some said that, unfortunately, advertisements cannot show the consequences of drinking alcohol because it might be insensitive and traumatic to some viewers. Only three respondents stated that television alcohol advertisements are not good at all and should be cut-off from the television screens. A total number of five respondents did not respond to the question.

#### **4.5 CONCLUSION**

This chapter discussed the data analysis and interpretation, which was presented through frequency tables, bar graphs and pie charts. The data were categorised in terms of the objectives of this study.

Chapter five concludes the findings of this study and makes recommendations for further research.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter completes the full circle of the research study. In this chapter, a review and summary of literature discussed in Chapter two are made. The main research methods used and their implications in this study are identified. Based on the research results presented in Chapter four, final conclusions and recommendations are made regarding the effects of television alcohol advertisements on the behaviour of the youth in the community of Praktiseer, Greater Tubatse Municipality.

The scourge of alcohol consumption and abuse amongst the youth in South Africa is rife and has become a public concern. This provoked the government to propose the banning of alcohol advertisements on television. In Chapter one , it was identified that there are different factors, such as family history, peer pressure and the media at large, which contribute to alcohol consumption amongst the youth. It is shown that, at this juncture, excessive alcohol consumption exacerbates the motor-vehicle death tolls, disability burdens, unplanned pregnancy and the spreading of Sexual Transmitted Diseases.

Advertising is both applauded and criticised not only for its role in selling products but also for its influence on the economy and on society. Among other things, it was indicated that alcohol and its consumption have a long history and are deep rooted and have socio-cultural effects. It was found that alcohol consumption in South Africa is been practiced since the apartheid era in a form of *dop* system. The salient idea of conducting this research was to describe the way in which television alcohol advertisements encourage the youth in the Praktiseer community to consume and abuse alcohol. In order to achieve this, the objectives were outlined and used as guidelines throughout.

Chapter two reviewed the literature on the effects of television alcohol advertisements on the behaviour of the youth. In particular, the emphasis was based on the impact of the extensive exposure of alcohol advertisement to the youth, alcohol expenditures and socioeconomic impact of alcohol abuse and alcohol consumption patterns in South Africa. The literature revealed that alcohol industry spent over one billion dollars on television advertising across the globe. In South Africa only, over five billion litres of alcoholic beverages is consumed yearly.

Several studies have shown that alcohol consumption or alcohol dependence by the youth escalates year by year. Apart from the excessive alcohol use, the youth have adopted a new culture of binge drinking which add on the high rate of underage alcohol abuse. It was stated that the exposure of alcohol advertising inculcates the prevalence and decision making of alcohol abuse among the youth. The clutter of advertisements is on rise despite the criticisms.

The regulatory methods used to remedy advertisers' abuses have been addressed. In a nutshell, the purpose of regulatory framework is to ensure that the industry comply with codes of conduct that the advertisement is legal, decent, honest and trustful. But, most importantly, is to compel advertisers to avoid exploitation of customer and to encourage fair competition amongst the advertisers.

It was elaborated that advertising is not haphazard. The effectiveness of advertisement is based on the type of advertising model that advertisers followed, such as AIDA and DAGMAR. The study drew its theoretical stance from one of the Social Learning theories called the Modelling theory. In this theory, it is argued that, in some cases, some media users can adopt the media's depictions of people's behaviour. This implies that the presentation of people, social interactions and social problems in the media has become a reservoir on how people model their behaviour. The assumption was that the youth in Praktiseer can adopt the behaviour that is portrayed in televised alcohol advertisements.

In this regard, the research methodology that was used to accumulate data for this study was explained in Chapter three. A total number of one hundred questionnaires were utilised to collect data from the youth in the community of Praktiseer.

The questionnaires were pre-tested and coded before distribution. Respondents were informed about the purpose of the research. They were also guaranteed of anonymity and confidentiality. The respondents were also aware that their participation in the study was voluntary and can discontinue anytime. It took only fifteen minutes to complete the questionnaires and the researcher was available to clarify some of the difficulties the respondents encountered.

The collected data were interpreted and analysed statistically and textually. The statistical analysis yielded the findings on the bases of IBM *Statistical Package for Social Science* (IBM SPSS) version 21. In order to make sense of the graphic representations of data, descriptive versions were given, which are illustrated in Chapter four.

### **5.1.1 Limitations of the study**

Although the study has reached its aim and objectives, there were some unavoidable limitation and shortcomings. Firstly, because of time constrains, the research was conducted for three weeks. It was not enough for the researcher to gather the views of the youth in the Praktiseer community. Again, the respondents were also not given ample time to familiarise themselves with the questionnaire before they fill it in.

Secondly, the researcher suffered from the quality of composition of the sample. By virtue of consisting of one hundred respondents, the sample was not sufficient to represent the majority of the youth in the community.

Thirdly, the designing of the questionnaire was not compatible with the language preferences of the respondents. Due to time and financial constraints, the researcher could not distribute a translated version of the questionnaire to the respondents. In addition, the questionnaire consisted of more closed-ended questions than open-ended questions. Therefore, respondents were limited to elucidate their views.

Finally, the pilot study was conducted by the researcher. This means that certain degree of objectivity might have been compromised. It was better if one or two external examiners were involved.

## 5.2 FINDINGS

In the light of all these investigations, the researcher identified the following:

The respondents were within the youth age group of fourteen (14) to thirty-five (35) years old in the community of Praktiseer. The majority of respondents were Black. Although the researcher strived to reach the balance in terms of gender, the findings showed that the majority of respondents were male and few females. Despite the fact that the community is in a rural setting and its socio-economic status is poor, most of the respondents had matriculated and acquired their post-matric qualifications.

Looking at the television programmes the youth prefer, it was noticed that the youth prefer to watch soap operas than other programmes on television. However, they stated that they enjoy advertisements too. In this study, it was indicated that the youth in the community is exposed to alcohol advertisements on a daily basis especially on television. Alcohol advertisements flash across the television screens in the middle of other television programmes. Therefore, the likelihood is that an audience can be exposed to alcohol advertisements whenever they watch television or their favourite programmes. In the same breath, the respondents acknowledged that they see alcohol advertisements while watching their favourite television programmes.

The argument of this study is that the exposure to alcohol through advertisements can contribute to alcohol abuse among the youth in Praktiseer. This means that it is not the advertisement itself that influence the youth to drink but the manner in which the advertisements are portraying alcohol drinking. When we talk about the portrayal, one can include the structure and content of the advertisement.

One of the strategies that advertisers use to sell their products or services to their niche market is to make advertisements meaningful to them. In other words, advertisements are meaningful when the needs and interests of the market are catered for. Therefore, the advertisements must be “eye-catching”.

The youth in the Praktiseer community have confirmed that alcohol advertisements are funny, boost their confidence and portray social life. Some of the respondents clearly indicated that the advertisements depict alcohol drinking as an exciting and enjoyable activity to engage with. They also indicated that the depictions in the alcohol advertisements can encourage them to drink alcohol because of the characters, models, slogans and music in them. The advertisements portray drinking as a best way to socialise, party and to chill with friends and family.

But, they emphasised and described alcohol advertisements as toxic and bad influence because they promote alcohol drinking implicitly. The youth stated that because advertisements are very interesting, they are not seen as bad influence. Apart from being interesting, they have shown that in most instances they use famous people to advertise and that grab their attention easy and make them believe that the person is also drinking. Therefore, they will have a desire to buy or drink the same alcoholic beverages that was advertised on television.

However, this study indicated that the slogan is the most appealing feature in televised alcohol advertisements. For instance, *Hunters' Dry* goes with a slogan “*You can't change your Chinas, But you can Refresh them*”. The idea behind this slogan is that one cannot change people they live or socialise with- it can be family or friends (*Chinas*). But, he can refresh them with an ice-cold bottle of *Hunters' Dry*. Some of the respondents stated that slogans are interesting and they sometimes mime them. In addition, they said the slogans also help them to remember the advertisements since they are naturally transient.

To a lesser extent, some of the youth stated that the televised alcohol advertisements promote responsible drinking by including the counter-advertising messages in the advertisements. However, it was indicated that people do not see the importance of them and in most cases, ignore them.

The study displayed that although there are different categories of alcohol advertisements, cider advertisements are the most favoured ones by the youth. This could be influenced by the fact that most of the cider advertisements use young

celebrities who can be easily associated with the young audience. Similarly, this could be influenced by the fact that most ciders are flavoured and sweet.

Therefore, they are enjoyed mostly by young people. As a result, they sell better than other alcohol brands. In addition, the majority of the youth stated that they have drunk either cider or wine in their lifetime. But, it is displayed in this study that beer advertisements appear more often than cider, wine or spirits.

Looking at the behaviour of the youth in Praktiseer community after drinking alcohol, the study has revealed that the youth have admitted that they disrespect when they are drunk. They also agree that when they are drunk they commit crime, smoke other drugs, fight, drive at high speed and become adventurous. Some of the youth emphasised that they become aggressive and brave enough to conquer the world. They admitted that when they are drunk they are tempted to do risky activities such as spinning the cars, smoke and to the extent of engaging in sexual intercourse.

They also indicated that even though they become rebellious when they are drunk, alcohol can make them feel relaxed and stress free. In addition, they said that alcohol make them party and forget about their problems such as peer pressures, unemployment, relationships and other social life problems. In this study, it was also revealed that most of the youth drink alcohol when they are happy and only few of them drink when they are stressed or bored.

In particular, this study displayed that despite the fact that the youth in the community are consuming alcohol; most of them have described their drinking habits as occasional drinkers. But, this study confirmed that they drink more during parties or in taverns, because, alcohol is at their disposal and they are not monitored as compare to when they are drinking from their homes. This makes them to be exposed easily to risky situations such as crime, drugs, rape, unprotected sexual intercourse and other alcohol-related accidents.

### 5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study primarily focused on the effects of televised alcohol advertisements on the drinking behaviour of the youth in the community of Praktiseer. Therefore, the researcher suggests that future studies focus on effects of alcohol advertisements in other mass media.

Within the scope of this study, it was possible to study effects of televised alcohol advertisements on the drinking behaviour of the youth from the ages of fourteen to thirty-five years in the community of Praktiseer only. Based on this limitation, the researcher also recommends that future studies focus on other communities in the same municipality, and other municipalities, to see if the results can be replicated.

The exposure of alcohol products should be reduced in both the media and public places such as school premises. Advertisers should develop criteria of classifying advertisements, so that there can be timeslots in which certain advertisements are aired on television. The legal drinking age in South Africa should be increased from the ages of eighteen to twenty-five years in order to promote the responsible drinking. The government should stiffen and monitor the accessibility and availability of alcohol especially in informal liquor outlets such as taverns.

This study also recommends that there should be more counter-advertising or Brewery-Sponsored counter-advertising in South Africa. The campaigns should be able to train and teach the community and the youth about the *pros* and *cons* of alcohol drinking and abuse. The campaigns should emphasise on the importance of counter-advertising messages that appear in alcohol advertisements.

The media industry and alcohol industry should make an effort to provide the society with important information about alcoholic beverages, such as percentages of alcohol contained in a bottle of a particular beverage. They should also incorporate government policies and laws in the campaigns and advertisements, so that people can be aware of legal consequences of illicit alcohol use.

In addition, the advertisers should emphasise on responsible drinking by showing promotional messages before and after the advertisement is aired. This can be done through dramas, documentaries, outdoor advertising or distribution of brochures or pamphlets in community halls, schools, clinics, taverns and so forth.

The community members, especially the unemployed youth, should be encouraged to create social clubs to mentor or advise adolescents about this scourge. In essence, this will create job opportunities for the youth and thus remove them from the streets.

#### **5.4 CONCLUSION**

A total number of eighty-three respondents participated in this study. The research results of the present study revealed that the youth in the Praktiseer community is exposed to alcohol advertisements on television than other mass media. Since they rely much on the media, television is seen as a point of reference, they consume and abuse alcohol. This confirms findings of studies by Austin and Knaus (2000); Austin and Nach-Ferguso (1995); and Casswell and Zhang (1998) that affective responses towards advertising are positively related to current and later alcohol use among children and adolescents.

However, the present study indicated there is little relationship between the people in alcohol advertisements and the youth, most of them can recall how advertisements portrayed alcohol use as a fascinating activity. Grube and Wallack (1994) showed that greater recall of alcohol advertising is significantly related to positive belief about alcohol use. The research results of this study confirmed that the youth has a tendency of using alcohol and with other illicit drugs. This confirms findings of the study by Madu and Matla (2003). The results of this study also confirmed that the youth in the community of Praktiseer admitted that they engage in risky activities, such as murder, theft, rape, and drunk driving that also lead them to imprisonment. Therefore, the conclusion is that, televised alcohol advertisements have a great impact on alcohol consumption of the youth in the Praktiseer community.



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**TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**  
**CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**

**MEETING:** 09 May 2013

**PROJECT NUMBER:** TREC/FHM/24/2013: PG

**PROJECT:**

**Title:** Effects of alcohol television advertisements on Youth: A case study of Praktiseer Community in Greater Tubatse Municipality.

**Researcher:** Ms MG Mapulane  
**Supervisor:** Dr MA Kupa  
**Co-Supervisor:** N/A  
**Department:** Media Studies  
**School:** School of Languages and Communication Studies  
**Degree:** MA in Media Studies

  
**PROF. TAB MASHEGO**

**CHAIRPERSON: TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**

The Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC) is registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council, Registration Number: **REC-0310111-031**.

**Note:**

- i) Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure as approved, the researcher(s) must re-submit the protocol to the committee.
- ii) The budget for the research will be considered separately from the protocol.  
**PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES.**

## **ADDENDUM B: QUESTIONNAIRE**

My name is Ms M.G Mapulane. I'm conducting a research on effects of televised alcohol advertisements on the drinking behaviour of youth in Praktiseer community, Greater Tubatse Municipality. It is important to participate in this study because that will assist the researcher to achieve the purpose of the study, which is to describe the way television advertisements of alcohol encourage alcohol consumption of alcohol amongst the youth.

It will take you a minimum of 15 minutes to complete this questionnaire. The researcher will explain and clarify some of the questions that you do not understand. The researcher will collect the questionnaire upon completion. This is voluntary and you will not be asked in anywhere in this questionnaire to mention your name. The information that you will give in this questionnaire will remain confidential. If there are any queries you concerning this, you are welcomed to contact me:

*Ms Mawethu Glemar Mapulane*

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*Burgersfort*

*1150*

*University of Limpopo*

*Turfloop Campus*

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**PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY CROSSING (X) THE RELEVANT BLOCK OR WRITE DOWN YOUR ANSWER IN THE SPACE PROVIDED.**

**SECTION A: Background Information**

This section of the questionnaire refers to demographic information. This is the most sensitive part in this section. However, the information will assist in comparing groups of respondents. The information that you give will remain confidential. Your co-operation is highly appreciated.

1. Gender

|        |   |
|--------|---|
| Male   | 1 |
| Female | 2 |

2. Age

|             |   |
|-------------|---|
| 14-20 years | 1 |
| 21-27 years | 2 |
| 28-34 years | 3 |
| 35 years    | 4 |

3. Ethnicity

|               |   |
|---------------|---|
| Black         | 1 |
| White         | 2 |
| Indian/ Asian | 3 |
| Coloured      | 4 |

4. Your highest educational qualification?

|                                    |   |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Grade 10 or lower                  | 1 |
| Grade 12 (Matric)                  | 2 |
| Post-Matric Diploma or Certificate | 3 |
| Post-Matric Degree (s)             | 4 |
| Post-Graduate Degree (s)           | 5 |

5. How would you describe the area in which you are residing?

|       |   |
|-------|---|
| Urban | 1 |
|-------|---|

|                                 |   |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Rural                           | 2 |
| Other ( <i>please explain</i> ) | 3 |

**SECTION B: Effects of televised alcohol advertisements on the behaviour of the youth**

This section of the questionnaire explores your perceptions, if any, with regard to televised alcohol advertisements. Choose only one option for each question.

6. Which of the following programmes on television do you like the most?

|                                 |    |
|---------------------------------|----|
| Soap Operas                     | 1  |
| News                            | 2  |
| Advertisements                  | 3  |
| Sports                          | 4  |
| Drama                           | 5  |
| Situation comedies              | 6  |
| Documentary                     | 7  |
| Movies                          | 8  |
| Commercials                     | 9  |
| Other ( <i>please explain</i> ) | 10 |

7. Do you ever see alcohol advertisements while watching television?

|     |   |
|-----|---|
| Yes | 1 |
| No  | 2 |

8. What do you remember about any of these alcohol advertisements you saw? (*Choose only one option*).

|   | Yes | No |
|---|-----|----|
| The people drinking looked attractive.  | 1   | 2  |
| The male and female actors who were drinking were physically attracted to each other. | 1   | 2  |
| The people drinking looked like they had strength and muscular.                       | 1   | 2  |
| The advertisements were funny.  | 1   | 2  |
| The advertisements portrayed drinking as a great way to meet people.                  | 1   | 2  |
| Other ( <i>please explain</i> )   | 1   | 2  |

9. Do you usually buy alcohol drink that is being advertised on television?

|     |   |
|-----|---|
| Yes | 1 |
| No  | 2 |

10. Do you usually relate yourself to the person in the advertisements?

|     |   |
|-----|---|
| Yes | 1 |
| No  | 2 |

11. How do you agree with each of the following statements? Please indicate your answer using the following 5 point scale where:

- 1. = Strongly disagree
- 2. = Disagree
- 3. = Neutral
- 4. = Agree
- 5. = Strongly Agree

When I am drunk I...

|                          | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
|--------------------------|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Respect.                 | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Fight.                   | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Speed.                   | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Harm my health.          | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Happy.                   | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Lazy.                    | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Lead me to commit crime. | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Smoke.                   | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Relaxed.                 | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Make me adventurous.     | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| Stress free              | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |

12. Under which circumstances do you drink alcohol?

|                                 |   |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Stressed                        | 1 |
| Happy                           | 2 |
| Bored                           | 3 |
| Angry                           | 4 |
| Other ( <i>please explain</i> ) | 5 |

13. Generally, do televised alcohol advertisements make you think that...  
(Choose only one option)

|  |   |
|--|---|
| Drinking was a good way to get good looking girls or guys. | 1 |
| Drinking was important for a real good party.              | 2 |
| Drinking could be harmful to your health.                  | 3 |
| It promotes responsible drinking.                          | 4 |
| Drinking was a boring thing to do.                         | 5 |

14. What do you find more appealing in televised alcohol advertisements?

|            |   |
|------------|---|
| Model      | 1 |
| Slogan     | 2 |
| Story line | 3 |
| Music      | 4 |
| Location   | 5 |

### SECTION C: Preferences of alcohol advertisements on television.

This section of the questionnaire explores your preferences, if any, with regard to alcohol advertisements on television. Choose only one option for each question.

15. Which of the following categories of televised alcohol advertisements is your favourite?

|         |   |
|---------|---|
| Beer    | 1 |
| Cider   | 2 |
| Wine    | 3 |
| Spirits | 4 |

16. Which one of the following alcoholic drinks did you once drank?

|         |   |
|---------|---|
| Beer    | 1 |
| Cider   | 2 |
| Spirits | 3 |
| Wine    | 4 |

17. How often do you see advertisements of the following alcoholic drinks on television per week? Choose only one option for each category of drink.

| Alcoholic drinks | None | 1-2 times | 3-4 times | 5-6 times | 7-8 times | 9-10 times | More than 10 times |
|------------------|------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|--------------------|
| Beer             | 1    | 2         | 3         | 4         | 5         | 6          | 7                  |
| Cider            | 1    | 2         | 3         | 4         | 5         | 6          | 7                  |
| Spirits          | 1    | 2         | 3         | 4         | 5         | 6          | 7                  |
| Wine             | 1    | 2         | 3         | 4         | 5         | 6          | 7                  |

18. How do you describe your drinking habit? (*Choose only one option*).

|                    |   |
|--------------------|---|
| Heavy drinker      | 1 |
| Binge drinker      | 2 |
| Frequent drinker   | 3 |
| Occasional drinker | 4 |

19. From which of the following locations or situations do you prefer to drink alcohol? (*Choose only one option*).

|               |   |
|---------------|---|
| Own home      | 1 |
| Friend's home | 2 |
| Bar/tavern    | 3 |
| Parties       | 4 |

20. In your own words, how would you describe television advertisements of alcohol?

.....

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**Thank you for your co-operation for completing this questionnaire. Kindly return the questionnaire as specified in the cover page.**