Linguistic Deviations in Advertising Messages of Chocolates and Beverages: It's Impact Measurement on the Psychology of Children in India

THESIS

Submitted in partial Fulfillment

Of the requirement for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY

RUCHIKA SHARMA

(2006PHXF406P)

Under the supervision of

Prof. Sangeeta Sharma

BIRLA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE

PILANI (RAJASTHAN) INDIA

2015

BIRLA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE, PILANI

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled **"Linguistics Deviations in Advertising Messages of Chocolates and Beverages: It's Impact Measurement on the Psychology of Children in India"** and submitted by **Ruchika Sharma** ID No **2006PHXF406P** for award of Ph.D. of the Institute embodies original work done by her under my supervision.

Signature of the Supervisor

Name in capital letters: **Dr. SANGEETA SHARMA**
Designation: **ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR**

Date:

Dedicated to my parents and grandparents with love and gratitude

This thesis is dedicated to my father Late Mr. Suresh Sharma whose untimely death occurred while I was pursuing my Ph.D. He always believed in me and never lost hope and patience, but unselfishly sacrificed his time and took great pleasure in supporting me financially, morally and spiritually. I also dedicate this work to my loving mother Mrs. Usha Sharma and my respected grandparents Dr. Nagraj Sharma and Mrs. Vimla Sharma for the encouragement and faith they instilled in me throughout this journey which enabled me to obtain this goal.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

 I would like to express my deep sense of gratitude to Prof. V.S Rao, Vice Chancellor, BITS Pilani for making me available all the necessary facilities for the successful completion of the study. I am highly grateful to Prof. A.K Sarkar, Director, BITS Pilani, Pilani campus for his inspiration. It is my pleasant duty to thank Prof. S.K Verma, Dean, Academic Research Committee for his constant encouragement.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, **Prof. Sangeeta Sharma**, for her encouragement, invaluable guidance and support throughout my study. Without her assistance and contribution, this thesis would never have been completed. Her constant faith in me enabled me to give my 100% to this project. It's an honor to be one of her students.

I also thank to Prof. G.S Chauhan (Head, Department of Humanities and Social Sciences) who provided me with the vision and positive academic work environment. I am also thankful to all the faculty members and research scholars of the department for their encouragement.

I wish to express my sincere thanks and gratitude to the Doctoral Advisory Committee members **Prof. G.S Chauhan** and **Prof. Geetha B** who have reviewed my thesis and made valuable suggestions.

SUMMARY

The study was conducted with the main aim of finding the usage of linguistic deviations in advertising slogans and its impact measurement on the children as consumers. During the first phase of the study, advertising slogans were tabulated and content analysis was done and the significance of the findings was tested using Chi Square technique. During phase two, experiment was carried out by using slogans of popular brands. First, respondents were shown old advertising slogans and their responses were collected with the help of a questionnaire. After few days same respondents were shown new advertising slogans for the same brands and their responses were collected using the same questionnaire. This study focuses on the extent of impact of advertising slogans on children with specific reference to ad identification and brand recall. Children's understanding of advertisements was also measured in terms of relevance of taglines and their likability for the same. During phase three, the findings of the experiment were further tested to see the ability of generalization of the results by applying bootstrap simulation technique, random samples were generated.

The descriptive approach was used for testing the cumulative frequencies of linguistic deviations observed in advertising slogans obtained from content analysis. For the second phase quantitative approach was used. Chi square was used to test the significance of the findings and Pearson correlation was used to test the reliability of the treatments given. For the first phase Monte Carlo simulation was run to test the efficacy of generalizing the findings of the experiment on a larger sample that is representative of Indian population.

The results from the content analysis indicate that out of six linguistic deviations, grammatical and semantic deviations are predominantly used in advertising slogans of confectionery and beverages ads. These deviations draw attention in a very short span of time whereas other deviations such as phonological and graphological deviations need careful glimpse to get noticed.

The findings of the experiment suggest that age and gender do have an impact on kids' ability to identify ads and brand recall. The findings from the experiment corroborate with the cognitive development model given by Piaget. However, children's understanding and likability of the advertising content show no such influence of gender and age.

Finally, the results from the simulation further strengthen the findings of the experiment. The same experiment, if conducted on a larger sample will give the similar results. This can be concluded that linguistic deviations do catch children's attention and it definitely has an impact on their ad identification and brand recall.

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

India is the second most populous country of the world after China with nearly 17.5% of the world`s population (United Nations, 2012).The average age of Indian population is somewhere around 25 (India Demographics Profile, 2014) and therefore it is deemed as a young country. Future of consumerism in India therefore depends upon children and youth of the country. For a company aiming at establishing a stronghold for the future and sustain in the long term, it is imperative to recognize this fact and get on as quickly as it can to focus the good part of marketing efforts on the youth and children. Recognizing this fact the research has been taken up to understand the role of slogans in overall impact of advertisements on children as consumers.

1.1 Background and Motivation

For companies to thrive in a marketplace they need to sell their products and services to more and more consumers. However said so, it becomes difficult with increasing level of competition in marketplaces in India as well as around the globe. In order to sustain this cutthroat competition, companies have to reach out to their customers firstly for creating needs and wants for their products & services and secondly by motivating them to buy their brand through their brand's unique selling propositions. Advertising is a technique used by these companies to reach out to the potential customers. They advertise to create demands through wants and needs creation and to attract the existing customers towards their brand. While advertising, one most important thing to consider for these advertisers is the selection of audience to aim at. This is important because in this ever changing

environment purchase behavior of the families is also changing. First, males were the only purchase decision maker in the family, later females too joined hands in buying decisions, currently children play an important role in making purchase decisions and to some extent making the purchase (Kaur and Singh, 2006). In the recent advertising literature, the importance of children as consumers has been realized (Gilbert, 1957; Burns and Harrison, 2015; Holdert and Antonides, 1997). It has been found that more and more families are becoming nuclear in structure and are transforming into dual earning households. This change brings the children at the forefront when making purchases and also when making purchase decision. Also it has been observed that for the products that are meant for the self-consumption, such as confectionaries and beverages, children in modern times also possess a fair share of purchasing power. With the purchasing power comes the independence of purchase decisions, and for making these decisions environmental influence comes into play. To make purchase decisions for the products meant for self-consumption children are found to be influenced by their mothers, peers and to a good extent television advertising (Churchill and Moschis, 1978, 1979; Adler et al., 1980).

Television advertising, as the above quoted studies suggests, is the most effective source of advertising as far as the children are concerned. This is also true for Indian children as well. Children as young as 5 years of age begin to understand the advertising and are able to distinguish them from regular programs (Butter et. al. 1991; Young, 1990). From age 8, these children begin to understand the persuasive intent of the advertising (Palmer and MacNeil, 1991). These advertisements, through their jingles and taglines get registered in the cognitive structure of children by forming a node associating particular sound, music

or tagline to a specific brand. At the time of purchase, many of these associations play part in assisting the recognition and recall of specific brands by children. It has also been found that the brand loyalty or associations formed by these young consumers get stuck in their memory for a long time (Madison Avenue, 1980). Television advertising persuades its consumers through both visual as well as oral aids. Technically, an advertisement gets divided into Audio, Video and Music. Apart from music and enactment, rest of the advertisement gets formally written by experts called copywriters. Copywriters are the ones with a job to visualize the ideas for the advertisements and convert these ideas into text. This written content of an advertisement contains slogan, headline, subhead and a body. Slogans among these are very important as they have the role of standing out and sticking to the minds of consumers for a very long time. Slogans should subconsciously play their role in the minds of the consumers every time they go for a purchase, by constantly reminding them of the brand. For slogans and also the advertisements to be as effective as they are meant to be, language of the written content is crucially effective.

Language plays a vital role in development of a human mind. From infanthood to the adulthood, learning of language helps the human mind to understand its surrounding, to develop into a complex cognitive structure understanding norms and complex actions of the society and being able to think rationally, which truly distinguishes humans from other species (Noam Chomsky, 1957). If used in an apt manner language also helps to motivate and inspire human minds. Many researchers, through experimental studies have observed that too simple a message fails to create an impact in the listeners' memory and therefore in order to leave a long lasting and easily memorable impact, writers

(technically known as copywriters) have to create a proper mix of complexity and simplicity in their messages. Copywriters make use of language in a manipulative manner in order to make the advertising messages both attractive and effective. This manipulation of language by deviating from linguistic norms is at the mercy of copywriters` creativity. The amount of linguistic deviations used in the advertising slogans is totally subjected to the level of creativity of copywriters. As per the literature, different kinds of linguistic deviations are being used in advertising slogans, one more than the other, namely: Phonological, Graphological, Grammatical, Lexical and Morphological, Syntactic and Semantic. These linguistic deviations offer a rich source of expression of ideas in an innovative manner that grabs the immediate attention and leaves a long lasting impact on the minds of target audience. These deviations help to convey more in less and also to stand out from the competition as a unique as well as an attractive brand. Researchers are constantly on a lookout to understand how language affects the consumers in a manner so as to motivate the purchase. In the modern times, the focus of this research is especially on children since they are believed to have a substantial effect on purchases of their families in short as well as long term.

Majority of the research on understanding children psychology and effect of linguistic deviations on children is limited to the American, British or European audiences. Recent advances in the Indian economy as well as the observed demographic changes in Indian households have attracted researchers to focus on Indian markets but when it comes to children as consumers the level of research is not sufficient and conclusive. Further, since India is just a developing economy and households here though changing are very different from the developed economies therefore the researches conducted in all those

developed economies is not directly applicable here. Therefore, research on children as consumers in Indian households demands attention. All these motivations and literature gap bring the initial motivation for this research.

1.2 Scope and Objective

The focus on advertising to children has increased in recent years. Not only the advertisers are trying to get more and more insights into the young consumer's mind but parents too are getting cautious in terms of monitoring the content and exposure to advertisements. To extend the understanding of children as consumers, advertisers are going into the realms of cognitive development. Lots of studies have focused on cognitive development as a basis to understand the information processing power of kids. These studies have established children as full fledge consumers in themselves. By the age of eight, children's cognitive development is full and they can begin to process complex information. Copywriters, due to this are no longer focusing only on simple and easy to comprehend normative slogans, but they are manipulating words and deviating from the normal norms of grammar, syntax and morphology. These deviations are widely used by the copywriters.

As it is long established fact, that children not only possess purchase power, they also possess significant influence on their parents' purchase decision. That is the reason that the advertisers are not targeting just adults for consumer durables but they also are considering children's role in the buying decision of adults. This pester power is however limited in consumer durables but the product category in which they hold one hundred percent purchase power are confectionery and beverages. This product segment is prime focus of advertisers mainly because kids possess full autocracy in purchase power. It is

generally difficult to find logical USP for such products, therefore copywriters use ample of creative language to lure these young consumers. Therefore, understanding the types of deviations used and the frequency of the same become quite relevant. However, there are studies that have segregated the types of deviations but the types and frequency of these deviations in the slogans of confectionery and beverages is very scantily studied so far.

The child centric research has considered cognitive development as an axle that has helped researchers to understand children as consumers in terms of their information processing and also the other associations that they develop with a brand at an early age. These developmental theories have helped in finding the answers to questions such as how children are similar to adults in association formations and how their limited rationality allows them to easily fall for the persuasive intents of the advertisements.

Advertising as a complete unit is persuasive with gamut of attractiveness and opportunities to build stronger and varied associations with the brands. The ample research available in this regard corroborates with the above statement. However, there are also studies that have tried to see all the components of an ad from various angles such as comparison of verbal and nonverbal content in ads, techniques of copywriting, information processing at various age groups and gender that is spread across various product segments, etc. The verbal content and its role in achieving the overall effectiveness in consumers mind is not yet done so far. In strict regard to child oriented studies have considered factors such as cognitive development and associations for an ad but the relationship between cognitive development, language learning and impact of linguistic deviations in the process of brand recognition and brand recall has not yet

established. Therefore the specific objectives of this study is to consider Piaget's development theory as ground to understand the following:

- To identify the types of deviations used in advertising slogans of chocolates and beverages.

- To understand the impact of advertising slogans on children's brand recall and recognition.

1.3 Contribution to Knowledge

The thesis attempts to contribute in various ways. Overall it contributes to the literature in following ways. First and foremost, this study fills the literature gap in usage of linguistic deviations in advertising and advertising targeted towards children as consumers in India. This thesis has merged the streams of research with theoretical developments in advertising to kids, the cognitive development theories and advertisements targeted towards children. It provides real experimental evidences that determines the importance and influence of linguistic deviations in advertising to Indian kids which very few studies attempts to do for Indian market.

Second, this thesis investigates the categorization of linguistic deviations in advertising slogans and the frequency with which these types are predominantly used in ads specially those of the confectionary and beverages segments and are meant for the children as consumers.

Thirdly, this thesis attempts to define the role of linguistic deviations in recognition and recall for the advertised brands in the minds of children. This thesis is among the few works, to reach out to children in real life situations and gather data to conduct an

experimental study understanding this impact. However, no studies so far have explored implications of Piaget's cognitive development theory on children's brand recall and recognition in India. This study is one of its kind that focuses on both gender specific and age specific analysis of the collected data. Review of related literature reveals that to this date, no study has been conducted as an example of generalizing results for the entire Indian market under study by using Monte Carlo Simulation.

1.4 Research Methods and Analysis

In order to effectively conduct the proposed research investigation and test the research framework, both qualitative and quantitative approaches have been used as discussed in chapter 3 and 4. For qualitative work, content analysis was done for 702 advertising slogans of confectionery and beverages that were advertised during 2009-2013 in India. The analyses proved the presence of all the six types of linguistic deviations in advertising slogans that is indicative of role of creativity in ads targeted towards children. Thus, augmenting the literature that states the effect of advertisements on brand associations is more when it is presented in creative ways.

Out of these 702 slogans, products/ brands that has advertised two or more slogans during this period were segregated These 44 such brands with old and new slogans were further segregated on the basis of established brands that spend most on advertising. Finally, randomly 11 brands were selected for Experiment i.e. quantitative part of the study. This quantitative work was performed on primary data collected through questionnaires aiming at measuring the effect of linguistic deviations on children's brand recall and recognition. For this work, 200 school children were selected by using convenient sampling technique, eliminating the effects of extraneous variables. The data collected

was analysed by using non parametric statistical techniques such as Chi Square, Sign test, Wilcoxon Test, Friedman ANOVA. The results of the experiment were further tested for large sample using non parametric simulation technique i.e. bootstrap methodology.

The experimental findings concretely highlight the effect of gender as well as age factors in children's brand recognition and recall. The Monte Carlo simulation has further strengthens these findings by providing concurrence data that can be generalised for entire Indian kids' market.

1.5 Limitations

As this research is confined to the analysis and impact measurement of linguistic deviations of slogans on children's brand recall and recognition, the review of the literature suggests that there are other advertising elements that might have impact on brand recall and recognition. A plethora of other elements such as music, story, jingles, and visuals are likely exogenous factors. To keep the study with manageable proportions for rigorous investigation and maintain parsimony, the following limitations are to be considered:

1. The content analysis was done only for two product segments i.e. confectionery and beverages. More product segments can be included realising the growing pester power of children.

2. Copywriter use rhetoric devices too as a mode for create taglines but only linguistic deviations are considered as these overlap with most of the rhetoric devices. However, these can be separately considered for this type of study.

3. The number of advertising slogans taken for the experiment were eleven. More number of slogans can be included in the study.

4. The study was carried out in only two phases with old and new advertising slogans within a small time gap of two weeks.

1.6 Delimitations

The study has following delimitations that has to be considered while interpreting the results

1. The linguistic deviations used for the content analyses were taken only from 2009-13. A larger time frame could have been considered. However the time frame for the current study is selected subjecting to the available resources.

2. The content analysis was deliberately limited to the frequency analysis of broad categories of linguistic deviations. A detailed analysis was possible but not permissible as per the focus of the study.

3. The present research was carried out among the children of 4th to 9th standard from Pilani schools only. Schools for experiment were selected purposefully considering the apt sample technique.

4. The sample for the experiment was limited to 200 children considering the time and effort needed to complete the project. However, this limitation has been taken care of by generating random samples through simulation.

5. Only the advertising slogans were shown to the respondents without any visual or audio clues. This was done purposefully to eliminate the effect of any other advertisement component capable of assisting in recognition or recall.

6. The analysis was kept limited to just recognition and recall abilities of children. Other brand associations in silo as well as impacting the recognition and recall, were not considered subjecting to the limitation of time.

7. The simulation was performed on the existing data and not by randomly generating the new data. This was done because of undefined parameters for the data. The parameter definition exercise could have been performed given the stringent mathematical requirements.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

The remainder of the thesis consists of 4 chapters organized as follows.

Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature on advertising organized in according to target audience that is from general consumers to children.as consumers with a special discussion of Indian children. Then the literature on children psychological development has been reviewed to understand the cognitive development of children with respect to the age. Finally, literature on language of advertising has also been reviewed in order to get understanding of linguistic devices used by copywriters and the importance of such as an integral part of advertisements.

Chapter 3 studies the various types of linguistic deviations used in the advertising slogans of confectionery and beverages. In addition to the literature study, content analysis of 703 advertising slogans from year 2009-2013 has also been carried out to develop an understanding about linguistic deviations used in advertisements of confectionary and beverages segment within India. The content analysis reveals the frequencies of different deviations used so as to know favorability of few deviations over others. This study acts as a starting point for the data analysis carried out in next chapter.

Chapter 4 focuses on experimental analysis of the impact that is created by advertising slogans on children as consumers. This analysis is carried out to understand the impact of

slogans on children`s recognition and recall of the advertised brands. The analysis was carried out in two phases. First phase involves the actual collection of data from children ageing 8-16 years and carrying out statistical analysis to test the formed hypothesis. Second phase involves simulation of large population data from the collected data using bootstrapping technique and then carrying out similar statistical analysis to test the hypothesis. Second phase is carried out for the purpose of generalizing the results obtained in the first phase so that these can be used for practical purposes.

Chapter 5 provides an overall conclusion to the thesis and suggests further possible research directions on the basis of findings

1.8 References

1. Adler, R. P., & Faber, R. J. (1980). Background: Children's television viewing patterns. The effects of television advertising on children. Lexington Books, Lexington, 13-28.

2. Burns, A. C., & Harrison, M. C. (2015). Children's Self-Perceptions of Their Participation in Retail Store Patronage Decisions. In Proceedings of the 1982 Academy of Marketing Science (AMS) Annual Conference (pp. 66-69). Springer International Publishing.

3. Butter, E. J., Weikel, K. B., Otto, V., Wright, K. P., &Deinzer, G. (1991). TV advertising of OTC medicines and its effects on child viewers. Psychology & Marketing, 8(2), 117-128.

4. Gilbert, E. (1957). Advertising and marketing to young people. Printers' Ink Books.

5.   Holdert, F., &Antonides, G. (1997). Family Type Effects on Household Members'

Decision Making. Advances in Consumer Research, 24(1).

6.   India demographics profile (2014),

http://www.indexmundi.com/india/demographics_profile.html

7.   Moschis, G. P., & Churchill Jr, G. A. (1978). Consumer socialization: A

theoretical and empirical analysis. Journal of Marketing Research, 599-609.

8.   Noam, C. (1957). Syntactic structures. The Hague: Mouton.

9.   Palmer, E. L., &MacNeil, M. (1991). Children's comprehension processes: From

Piaget to public policy. Responding to the screen: Reception and reaction

processes, 27-44.

10.   Seventeen Makes a Sales Call (1980), Madison Avenue, Vol. 22, pp. 85, 88-91,

94-96.

11.   World Population Prospects: 2012 revision, United Nations,

http://www.worldometers.info/world-population/india-population/

12.   Young, B. M. (1990). Television advertising and children. Oxford University

Press, USA.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

"Stopping advertising to save money is like stopping your watch to save time." – Henry Ford

2.1 Advertising

Advertising is a form of communication that is rooted deeply into a modern man`s life. It can be seen as present in every aspect of life throughout the day, right from the time we wake up until we go back to sleep and at times even in the sleep as subconscious dreams. Guidlach (1931) over eight decades ago pointed out the role of advertising as to make human beings do things that they have never would have done otherwise. However, there is no single generally accepted definition for advertising. Advertising can be regarded as a means to persuade consumers to take action with respect to products, ideas or services. The whole idea or purpose behind advertising is to drive consumer behavior towards the product, idea or service being marketed, to create a demand for the product through need and want creation (Pop and Dredetianu, 2014). This leads us to search for an answer as how does advertising achieve this purpose of persuading consumers. The purpose of producer is not to provide information about the product but to sell more quantities of the product. The advertisement says what the seller wishes, however following a particular mechanism it does the job of generating information to the consumer. Next question comes is how to make consumers respond positively to the advertising. This is achieved

in various ways such as companies perform the point of sales data analysis in order to list the consumer types that fall in most probable buyers of the brand and then selecting the media that is most suitable for these targeted audience. Reputability of advertised brands also rises by increasing the probability of consumers remembering the name of the brand, which is technically termed as brand recall, since the more consumers remember the more they talk about and thus higher the reputation. Advertising is a form of communication that is built on two pillars: visual aids and vocal effect. The visual part is used as a means of amplification of the conveyed message through vocal aids and involves animation, graphics and influential figures in the form of ambassadors. Vocal part of the advertising communication is a bit tricky and complex. It is totally dependent on the language used for the communication. The language is used in such a way that the message appears to be compact yet complete enough to make the readers comprehend the intended message, subtle yet complex enough to keep the interest of readers alive and get stuck into their mind. Therefore, the language is seen as a powerful tool by the advertisers or copyrighters to be more precise. This seen importance of the linguistics in advertising communication prompted more and more researchers to dive into finding out the most optimized and best possible way to frame the communication. Though, no universally accepted formula for writing an advertising communication has been devised yet, large number of researches have been done into positive and negative uses of language in advertising communication.

From historical times, advertising has been at the forefront for traders and sellers. In historic times merchants used to advertise their products for awareness and brand building. This act of advertising helped them to sell most possible at the best possible. In

those times, the modes of advertising communication were limited to few such as trademarks, display and word of mouth.

Trademarks: It is one of the earliest modes of advertising. The artists, traders of goods and animals used to brand their artifacts, goods, and cattle respectively in order to distinguish with other traders by placing a unique mark on them. Later, in the technical terms, this process was called trademarking and the marks were termed as trademarks. This trademarking was done for two primary purposes: for distinguishing their goods and cattle and for branding them in terms of quality enabling the customers, who come looking for the particular quality, to identify. Trademarking also provides a kind of assurance to the consumers since with branding the product with their mark traders in one manner are endorsing the promised quality of the product and thus can be held legally liable in case of fraud. In the modern world, branding has evolved into a complex phenomenon starting right from the design of the product to the company logo and packing of the product. Trademark in the modern times is just a small subset of the complete branding phenomenon but is still deemed as important for the purpose of distinguishing and endorsing the promised quality.

Display: This is another one of the earliest modes of advertising. In this products to be advertised were put out for the display of common public or intended buyers. These displayed products acts as a visual stimuli to attract and influence the cognitive structure of potential buyer, thus subconsciously motivating them to purchase or register the product for future purchase. This method is effectively used even today by almost all the shopkeepers. Companies have even evolved technologically in display advertising and

have begun to use internet as a means to display the products to the potential buyers in the form of images and animations.

Word-of-mouth: Ignoring the advertising through secondary sources i.e. buyers, the town criers during historic times were the main source of word of mouth advertising. During that time, the important news or announcements from kings and councils were circulated through town criers. These town criers were also used as the source of advertisements or circulation of any offers from the merchants. This method later evolved into the announcement through speaker system in small towns and villages. This might even be seen as the alternative of modern day radio advertising in the historic times.

With the advancement of time and technology the modes of advertising have also advanced as well as increased. In modern day we have large number of modes of advertising out of which the most important ones are Billboards, Print media, Television, Radio and Internet.

Billboards: This is a form of outdoor advertising, where large posters of advertising communication generally visual and vocal both combined are displayed in high population density areas or such places which are visible to a large number of varied audience throughout the day. There isn't much research focused on the outdoor advertising since television is considered as the most important and influential source of advertising thus attracting majority of the research. However as pointed out by Donthu et. al. (1993) the death of outdoor research can be attributed to the fact that it is extremely difficult to create outdoor advertising viewership environment in the lab settings and thus the experimental methods that are applicable to the other modes does not simply work

with outdoor advertising. Though there exists some of the noticeable researches on outdoor advertising, one such is King and Tinkham (1989) that found significant improvement in the awareness and recall when advertised through the method of billboards. Billboards have even evolved from being just static posters stuck on large boards to being digital in nature displaying changing and dynamic content thus attracting more attention to their historic counterparts.

Print Media: This is a mode of advertising through written communication with an option of including pictures or graphs, published in various public sources such as newspapers, magazines and books. This mode can be considered as the earliest of the modern day methods of advertising communication, with its roots being traced to as early as 1478. At that time William Caxton, an English adapter of Gutenberg`s ideal, printed and distributed a handbill which called the attention of potential buyers to a book of ecclesiastical rules he had just published. This paved a pathway to use printing press as an effective mode of delivering the advertising messages to the minds of literate portion of the population. For involving products several studies show that printed advertisement is able to form higher level of connection with people as compared to the television advertisements (Bogart, Tolley and Orenstein, 1970). Even in modern times, the effectiveness of print media as a mode of advertising communication is well accepted and that is the reason why after television advertisements print media acts as the biggest source of advertising. The major advantages of print media advertisements are that these appears as non-intrusive meaning that they do not interrupt in between any work of the reader rather reader reads through the advertisement on his or her will. These give unlimited exposure to the reader and thus can be very effective in long term recall.

Biggest advantage of print media is targeting of the advertisements which is very precise as compared to the other media and thus it is sometimes possible to reach maximum targets without spending too much, since no unintended audience are viewing the advertising communication.

Radio: This mode of communication can be seen as a modern day alternative of town criers. Instead of manually shouting the offers and advertisements in the streets of town the audio message gets recorded and broadcast on a radio. This is far more effective than the historical manual method as it has far higher reach and is far cheaper in terms of both time and money. Through this mode it is possible to select or filter out the target listeners of the message and thus making the communication more effective (in terms of value for money) by reaching only to the intended audiences.

Television: This is the most used mode of advertising communication in modern day. This mode can be seen as the radio communication with visual aids. Television has by far maximum reach and provides a global mode of communication with better filtering options of targets. With presence of visual aid along with audio, the advertising communication messages or ads can be designed in a manner that is not possible in any other media. The communication through this mode has been proved to be by far most effective as far as the advertising communications are concerned. Also this is the most utilized mode for ads in today`s modern world.

Internet: This medium of communication is still in the growth stage however, the speed with which it is growing is expected to cross all other advertising medium in the future. Internet provides a variety of opportunities to formulate the communication messages. It

helps to reach the farthest nook and corners of the world within an instant and is relatively cheaper as compared to the TV advertising. Internet makes the individual level of targeting possible which is only a myth in other mediums. Advertising on this medium is generally termed as digital marketing. The level of ease and customization digital marketing provides makes it the hottest mode of advertising in the modern world and is attracting the interest of more and more researchers.

When we talk about advertising in general it means that we are considering the entire customer base. However for the purpose of our study we are focusing on children as consumers. Though it doesn't seem very different than adult consumers it is in fact an area that demands a special attention. Coming from the variety of researches conducted in this area children are in fact very important to be focused upon as advertising targets as they play an important role in family`s purchase decisions. We therefore now discuss the topic of advertising to children in detail.

2.2 Advertising to Children as Consumers

In the past, majority of the research in the field of family decision making in regard to purchase and consumption has focused on spouses. Lately, the marketing industry has begun to realize the importance of role of children in consumption and purchase decision making, with their increasing purchasing power and raised consciousness towards brands. More and more studies now are directed towards studying the influence of children in family decision making. Now a days children have become a target market for variety of products and are gaining increasing attention of marketers, since it has been observed that children act in a dual role as active buyers as well as a stimuli in other parental purchases.

Marketers segregate children into three different categories: the primary, the influencer, and the future market as depicted in the following figure (Kaur and Singh, 2006)
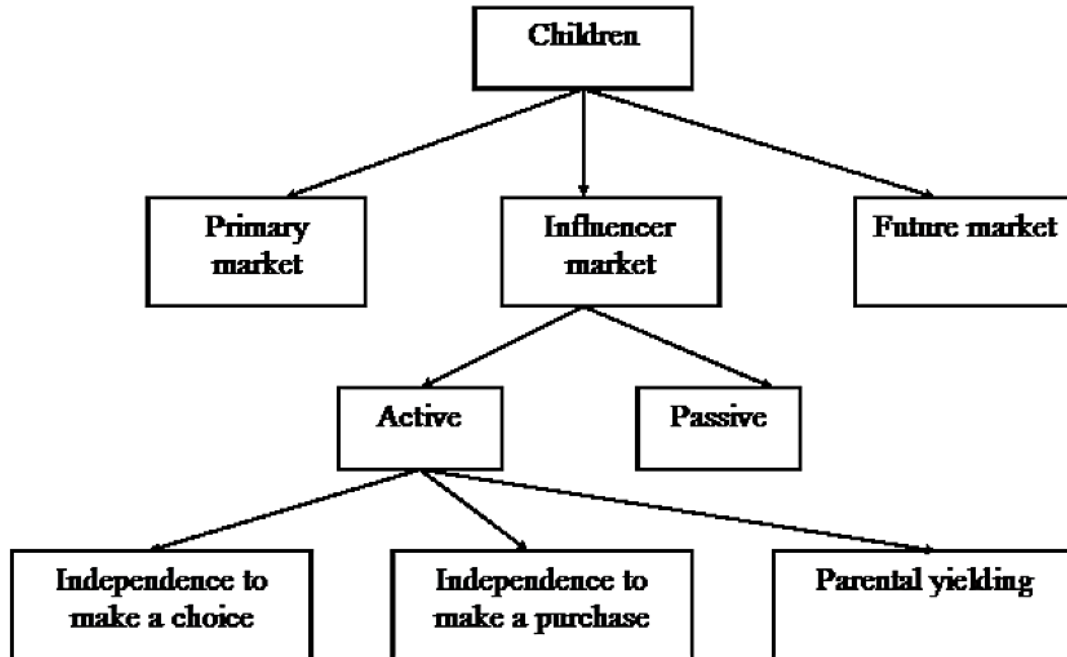
Though children act as influencers, the level of influence depends on many factors such as the kind of product, family's sex role orientation, age and gender of children and the extent of socializing children are involved in (Belch et. al. 1985). Studies done in the western world stands as testimony that children have purchasing power as well as influence in purchase decisions in self-related products such as snacks (Ahuja and Stinson, 1993), toys (Burns and Harrison, 2015; Jensen, 1995; Williams and Veeck, 1998) and own clothing (Converse and Crawford, 1949; Foxman and Tansuhaj, 1988; Holdert and Antonides, 1997; Van Syckle, 1951). Children`s influence in family purchase decisions has also been proved such as in finalizing holiday destinations (Ahuja and Stinson, 1993; Belch et al., 1985; Dunne, 1999; Holdert and Antonides, 1997; Jenkins, 1979), movies (Darley and Lim, 1986) and outside dining (Filiatrault and Ritchie, 1980;

Williams and Veeck, 1998). All these studies act as a backbone for giving children equal importance in persuasion efforts through advertisements. Advertising has had a profound effect on the attitude, awareness and behavior of children. It has made the concept of consumerism very strong among children. Children have come a long way to have wants and demands of their own. They understand the meaning of brands and are mindful enough to put forth their opinions and choices at the time of purchase. Marketing pioneer Eugene Gilbert in his 1957 publication 'Advertising and Marketing to Young People', pointed towards a significant cultural change in the outlooks of society and marketers towards relationship between children, youth and the consumer marketplace. Rather than directly experimenting with youth, Gilbert adopted a recourse through psychological literature in understanding the cognition of young people. He talked about youth`s desires and their distinct ability to influence the household on existing as well as in purchasing new products. He further noted that these capabilities of youth somehow gives an idea about what to advertise to them. Advertising plays a big role in shaping up this consumer behavior in kids and making them a part of family`s purchase decisions.

2.2.1 Socialization of Child Consumers

Consumer socialization of children begins at an early stage. Children begin to express their choices to the parents long before they begin to purchase on their own (Reynolds and Wells, 1977). It has been found that children are involved in the consumption process as early as from age five (McNeal, 1969). It is observed that mothers take their children along to shopping thus giving them the exposure to the purchase process since age two. Therefore, it is believed that most of the children form their share of opinion about consumption process by the age of nine, though differing on the basis of their class and

gender. Various cognitive development theories proposes sequential stages in the development of cognitive ability with age and in line with these theories children attitudes and values are observed to go through various changes during childhood. Young children have been found to display consumer related skills beyond stage of cognitive development, which has been established as age eight in various theories (Ward et. al. 1977; Moschis et. al. 1980). Adler et. al. (1980) observes that with advancing childhood years the amount of television viewing increases and so does the use of television as an information source. Another study (Madison Avenue, 1980) tries to establish that the brand preferences that develop in the teenage are likely to remain stuck in the cognitive structure as the child advances into adulthood. As advocated by cognitive child development theories, children gain there insights into consumption and purchase process and develop preferences and choices during childhood. During these development stages socialization as consumers at the school or playgrounds with peers and at home or parties with parents and relatives plays an important role in shaping up the preferences, attitudes and brand consciousness among children. Therefore, these brand choices and consumption preferences of children are observed to be dependent upon the society they live in thus on the social class, interaction with parents and gender to a great extent (Churchill and Moschis, 1978, 1979).

2.2.2 Children and Television Advertising

Many of the marketers suggest that parents transform the kind of influence that advertising has on their children. It has been found that a big part of the consumer behavior and attitude of children shapes up as a result of parent and peer interaction. Banks (1975) and Robertson (1979) observed a positive parent-child communication as

encouraged by advertising and thus resulting in a consumption learning experience for children. There has been an extensive research done on children and television advertising. McNeal (1987) categorizes this research on children and television advertising into three different areas; first, that deals with processing of the advertising information, second, that deals with cognition within children and third that deals with the consumer behavior among children as a resultant of advertising. The processing of advertising can further be separated into attention and understanding of advertising. Attention involves various different factors such as motivation level and attitude towards advertisements, influence of parents and peers, knowledge about advertisements, whether the advertisements are eye catching, is the advertised content interesting and what are the products being advertised. McNeal also separates the consumer behavior into three types; purchase behavior, purchase request behavior and anti-social behavior that involve conflict with parents over purchases. When children are exposed to the advertisements, they undergo a sequence of cognitive processes that facilitates the behavioral impact of advertisements on these children. An expert on impact of advertising children (Young, 1990) listed out different types of effects of advertising on children

1. The effect on knowledge, attitudes and values, both long and short term.

2. The effect on other people, particularly parents.

3. The effect on choices or consumption behaviour.

Another expert Goldstein (1994) provides two contradicting views on the impact of advertising on children. One view is a standard outlook that sees advertisements as the means of creating wants among children who then demand from their parents to fulfill

these wants. Within this process there might arise a conflict among children and their parents but as the outlook suggests its children who always win in the end.

TVCOMMERCIAL ➤ WANTS ➤ DEMANDS ➤ CHILD-PARENTCONFLICT PURCHASE

Another contradicting view discusses the elements missing from the standard outlook. It says that children also get influenced by their parents and peers in addition to the advertisements. Parents do realize their responsibility and take decision making into their own hands. The children`s own nature and attitude that make them selectively listen to the media and to advertising. Children when exposed to the advertising they all understand its meaning differently and uses the information received in a different manner.

With consideration and analysis of both the views Goldstein argues that television advertisement viewing does not play any role in creation of wants among children rather it acts as a driving force in consumerism of children that has been acquired by them from the socialization. There are number of researches studying how television acts as a source of information and plays an important role in consumer socialization (Churchill and Moschis, 1979; Caron and Ward, 1975; Reynolds and Wells, 1977; Robertson and Rossiter, 1977). Even after such a large body of research on the subject the impact of advertising on children`s consumer behavior is not decisive still.

In the modern world, there are innumerable advertisements are shown every day on television. Each of these advertisement provides a large amount of information to process. Because of huge number and exposure, it becomes difficult for children to

comprehensively process and appreciate the intended message. The level of information that any child can process depends on the degree of attention that has been paid to the advertisements. In addition, the attention plays an important role in the effectiveness of the message received, as a study suggests that low level of attention produces low level of effects (Young, 1990). The level of attention and belief in the degree of truthfulness of the advertisements are also proved to be highly correlated (Greenberg et. al. 1986).

After studying the relationship between the level of attention paid to advertisements by children and effectiveness of the advertisements, it is important to understand that attention comprises of two sub variables, the level of exposure of children to the advertisements out there and the degree of attention paid to these advertisements. Many researchers have been involved across the globe to collect the data on the average exposure time of children to television overall and advertisements in particular. After all the collected data and their analysis, it is observed that the exposure time varies pointedly from one country to another. It has also been observed that total television viewing time is directly related to the total viewing time of advertisements, depending upon variety of factors such as age i.e. directly proportional to the TV viewing hours (Nikken et. al., 1992); social class i.e. inversely proportional to TV viewing hours (Murray and Kippax, 1981; Young, 1990) and season i.e. differential levels of TV viewing hours in winters and summers (Witterbroodt, 1990). After establishing the TV viewing hours and number of advertisements present in these programs, researchers have attempted to find exposure time of children to these advertisements. However, like TV viewing hours, advertisement exposure also varies a great deal within or between countries. Once some idea has been constructed on the exposure time researchers establish the fact that it is important to study

degree of attention of children to advertisements along with it in order to draw any inferences out of the studies. Since children watch TV along with other tasks in hand like eating, studying or talking to people around, it is noted that the degree of attention paid to these advertisements is considerably low. The degree of attention, apart from internal factors of children as mentioned above, has been found to be linked with various inherent factors in advertising videos namely; music, sound-effects, characters, fast moving images and language.

Music: It plays an important role in catching as well as maintaining the attention of viewers. Music has been found to promote the repeated viewing of advertisement and thus increasing the probable influence (Calvert and Scott, 1989; Scott 1990). Music is likely to get stuck in the minds of children also reinforces the recognition and recall process. However, though important music cannot act in a stand-alone manner and make the advertisement effective, rather it has to be used in tandem with other features as dialogues, visuals, etc.

Sound-effects: Like music, sound effects also play the similar role of stimulating the subconscious part of the brain. These sound effects present in the advertising if used in an appropriate manner, are very effective in attracting the immediate attention and are likely to get registered in the mind of children. These effects make the advertising video more sensational rather than a bland collection of images moving in synchronized order, therefore it is able to attract and thus demands for attention from children. However, sensational may be like music, stand-alone sound effects in an advertising video mean nothing and only when these are combined with other features they play their magic.

Fast moving images: These play a role of visual stimulation as human mind registers or notices something way more when it is sudden or if seen as moving fast rather than going in a slow and steady motion. Therefore, with all the other features if fast moving images are present in an advertising video it surely promises to catch the visual attention on children.

Characters: They inspire the children a great deal. When children see their favorite characters whom they idealizes and get inspired with using a particular product they immediately get inspired. The presence of their favorite characters in an advertisement not only draws their attention, removing from everything else they were doing, it also inspires them to go for using the same product thus shaping their attitude and purchase behavior.

Language: This involves content of the advertising messages. New words are formed or normal usage of language is presented in ads in such a manner that you cannot take that out of your mind. Young consumers, who are still at a very nascent stage in terms of their cognitive capabilities and language acquisition process, are affected far more by this amazing use of language presentation than their adult counterparts. Copywriters manipulate language by using several devices to create catchy and persuading messages that can draw anyone's attention within seconds. Language along with other components of advertisements play very important role in persuading capabilities of an ad. However, this role in isolation is not yet explored in depth, though accepted as a very powerful component by the researchers.

2.3 Children's Understanding of Television Advertising

In spite of all the parental worries about the exposure time and degree of attention of children towards the advertisements, and about the TV viewing time and number of advertisements children watch on an average, it is very important to study how children understand these advertisements. It is important to know whether the intended message is being conveyed and getting registered in children`s mind in rightly manner. Researcher`s derive children`s understanding of advertisements and their impact upon them from various different factors such as; if children are able to tell difference between advertisements and programs, if they are able to recognize the promotional purpose of the advertisements and if they are able to recognize the persuasive intent of advertisements.

2.3.1 Difference between Advertisements and Programs

In discussion of impact of advertisements on children, it is vital to understand if the children are able to differentiate the advertisements from programs. Young (1990) says that children will be able to process the information in advertisements with apt cognitive skills only when they could differentiate them from programs. There have been number of researches dedicated towards understanding the factors that affect children`s ability to differentiate ads from programs. Researches have adopted two approaches to measure the children`s awareness of the distinction. Firstly, studying the verbal responses of children to the open ended questionnaires, where positive relationship was found between age and verbal ability to differentiate (Blatt et. al. 1972; Ward et. al. 1972; Ward and Wackman, 1972). Secondly studying the deviations in visual attention levels of children between programs and ads, where several researchers observed attention drops during ads in comparison to programs and further noticed that the attention continues to drop during

the same subsequent series of advertisements (Ward et. al. 1972; Zuckerman, Ziegler and Stevenson, 1978). They further observed the phenomena of attention decline in respect to the age and observed that the attention declines more and more above age eight and thus younger the children more difficult it is for them to differentiate between ads and programs. Researches puts forth number of ways in which ads differs from programs:

Length: ads are much shorter 10 seconds to 2 minutes (Condry, 1989)

Frequency: ads repeats throughout the day with a much higher frequency (Condry, 1989)

Purpose: ads are aimed at persuading the audiences in order to create wants and ultimately purchases (Young, 1990)

Other than these, presence of features like jingles, music, brand name, etc. also makes ads stand out in comparison to the programs. Still the ability of children to distinguish between ads and programs differs with age. Findings suggest that with growing age the ability of distinction develops varying on the individual basis. Level of understanding of TV ads, when progressed from infancy to adulthood, is expected to mature in three stages: Recognition, Growing understanding and Skepticism. As an infant children are in a learning phase of recognition and are still in the process of recognizing and making out different things around them. As the children grow older they begin to understand their environment and hence the advertisements, this understanding continues to grow as they progress towards adulthood. With growing understanding with the age, children now start to become skeptical of the advertising claims they watch on TV. Though distinct in role, these three stages overlap and it is not possible to see a clear boundary when children are progressing from one stage to another. After going through a number of studies (Adler et.

al. 1980; Blosser and Roberts, 1984; Butter et. al. 1991; Dorr, 1986; Palmer and McDowell, 1979; Young, 1990) it can be inferred that by age five children, with a probability of 80%, are able to distinguish advertisements from television programs.

However, being able to distinguish ads from programs, does not ascertain that the children have also been able to understand the intent, although vice-versa is true. Researchers Blosser and Roberts (1985) noted that findings in child psychology shows that identification of news and advertisements by name always happen before understanding the intent.

2.3.2 Awareness of Persuasive Intent

As Kunkel and Roberts (1991) state "the degree to which children are able to recognize the persuasive intent of advertising aimed at them, has been a central focus of research on children and advertising". The importance of this children`s awareness originates from the legal argument that if children are oblivious of the persuasive intent of the advertisements aimed at them then such advertisements will be deemed as unfair and/or misleading. Awareness of children has been advocated by many a researchers as very important for children to be able to use cognitive skills to process the information thrown towards them (Young, 1990), to be able to establish the truthfulness of the advertisement (Smith and Sweeney, 1984). This awareness helps children to develop cognitive defenses against the advertisements, that is able them to question and counter advertiser`s promises (Kunkel, 2001). Awareness also help children to comprehend the true meaning of advertising as intended by the advertiser (Dorr, 1986). There has been a considerable amount of research on children`s awareness of advertising content, it is still inconclusive as to what is the definition of awareness. The awareness of children is found to be

affected by their age as well as their cognitive development. Cognitive development or growth occur with age and therefore increasing age means increased awareness. Based on a number of research experiments (Robertson and Rossiter, 1974; Gaines and Esserman, 1981; Ward et. al. 1977; Donohue et. al. 1980; Stutts et. al. 1981; Stephens and stutts, 1982; Macklin, 1982, 1983, 1985, 1987; Meyer et. al. 1978; Palmer and MacNeil, 1991) the probable age for awareness of advertising intent can be assumed as eight years.

2.3.3 Issues related to Methodology

When discussing or referring to a large number of studies focusing on understanding children`s ability to understand television advertising, it also becomes important that we take care of the validity and accuracy of the methodologies employed to measure the level of understanding. Many of the early researchers are believed to have employed rudimentary methodologies but never came under scrutiny of criticism. Some of the techniques employed, are criticized for giving wrongful impressions of how soon children are able to understand the persuasive intent of advertising (Adler et. al. 1980). Non-verbal signs are observed to suggest recognition (of persuasive intent) earlier than it may occur. To establish the concreteness of the suggested findings researchers may also use verbal methods by asking the questions to children about the advertisements` purpose. Young (1990) expresses concern about the extent of options given to the children under research as according to him less number of options might limit the degree of expressed intent in responses. For the purpose of collecting data i.e. obtaining responses, generally 5 or 7 point Likert scale is preferred by the researchers as they seem to provide enough options to express the degree of intent rightly.

Discussing in detail, the issues with the research techniques can be listed out more specifically. First, the meaning of awareness of advertising intent is ambiguous. What researchers meant by 'understanding of advertising content by children', though the topic was researched extensively, remained vague only until 1980s when finally researchers had reached to a consensus as to what it means. According to generally accepted definition, 'understanding of intent of TV advertising' means recognition of differences by children in the interests of advertiser and receiver, advertiser aims at persuading them, the advertising messages tends to be biased (Kunkel, 1991). It was found that the findings of these researches, aimed at inferring the age at which children begin to understand, are dependent upon the definition of awareness to a great extent and thus tend to differ with different understandings of the meaning. For example, considering the two extreme scenarios, if researches had taken just the 'selling intent' as the definition then the findings point towards the children as young as third-graders and if the definition is 'understanding the economic relationship between advertiser and consumer in totality' even sixth graders failed to understand the intent fully (Wartella, 1980). Apart from the definition, the methods used also have a profound effect on the findings of these researches. Some researchers have just used the verbal abilities observed that young children fail to understand the intent however though there may be a problem with understanding the questions by young children (Macklin, 1987). Some relied totally on the non-verbal ability, which had given the findings that even 3 years old children tend to understand the intent, which again seems bizarre (Donohue, Hencke and Donohue, 1980). Therefore, use of verbal abilities of children under questioning along with the non-verbal cues seemed to have given a fair bit of results.

2.4 Global Scenario of Advertising Regulations

In the race to lure more and more consumers through advertising, it is highly probable that the line of morality is crossed here and there. This means that the companies or advertisers may end up doing false promises about their product or the advertisements might be misleading and encourage the uses of products that are discouraged by world health organizations such as fast food, alcohol etc. Even though there is a possibility of malpractices, the advertisements are being shown and claims are being made, right or wrong, across the world almost freely to the adults. However, when it comes to advertising products to the children directly or advertising children related products WHO in association with countries have stricter guidelines for regulating them. These guidelines are not common across the world however; different countries have different guidelines as per their legal and social norms. From last decade or so, obesity and underage drinking or binge drinking are among the major concerns of WHO that are responsible for the large number of diseases among children (World Health Statistics, 2014). WHO in 2004 onwards have developed a notion that advertisements to the children are somewhat responsible for these problems and called upon the advertising industry to reduce and regulate the level of advertising to children. Dr. Oliver Gray (2005) explored the question that, what part can advertising practically play in reversing the trends towards obesity and excessive consumerism. In his publication, he listed out some of the findings related to the regulations in place in some of the European countries regarding advertising to children, such as in Sweden direct advertising to children below age 12 is made illegal, in Greece toy related advertisements are banned between 7am and 10pm, Italy has banned the appearance of under 14 children in advertisements and UK

government demanded some voluntary action from the advertising industry on food related advertising and be cautious not to show advertisements that might cause physical, mental or moral harm to the children that are defined as below age 18 (Brinsley Dresden and Jamie Barnard, 2004). Germany regulates the advertising to children by no single law rather having different legislations for different media and different products. For TV advertising Germany has strict directives in place that says that advertisements must not impair the targeted children physically, mentally or morally in their development (Peter Schotthofer, 2002). Netherlands has succeeded in creating a separate youth advertising code that suggests, "Food marketing should not show children that they will achieve social success by using the products. Additionally, it is prohibited to show any child stars in food advertising. Finally, all food marketing in primary schools is banned by the new food advertising code" (Liesbeth Hop, 2005). (Jennifer V. Koester, 2003) in USA the regulation environment of advertising to children has moved from being entirely self-regulated to be under the purview of government scrutiny and control. For television networks, it is mandatory that advertisements placed in programs directed towards children under age 12, cannot exceed 10.5 mins per hour on weekends and 12 mins per hour on weekdays. CARU (Children's Advertising Review Unit) acts as primary review unit evaluating children`s advertising under age 12. They do this by issuing specific guidelines for the self-regulation to be imposed by the industry. CARU`s principles applying to the advertising across all media are as follows:

- Advertisers should always take into account the level of knowledge, sophistication and maturity of the audience to which their message is primarily directed.

- Advertisers should exercise care not to exploit unfairly the imaginative quality of children. Unreasonable expectations of product quality or performance should not be simulated either directly or indirectly by advertising.

- Advertisers should communicate information in a truthful and accurate manner and in language understandable to young children with full recognition that the child may learn practices from advertising which may affect his or her health and well-being.

- Advertisers are urged to capitalize on the potential of advertising to influence behaviour by developing advertising that, wherever possible, addresses itself to positive and beneficial social behaviour.

- Care should be taken to incorporate minority and other groups in advertisements in order to present positive and pro-social roles and role models wherever possible. Social stereotyping and appeals to prejudice should be avoided.

- Advertisers should contribute to this parent–child relationship in a constructive manner.

The South African population is considered young with around 43% of the population below age 20. Kids in South Africa are found to have a considerable say in the consumption decisions of household and they themselves exert a good purchasing power. Children from higher income household are found to be brand aware and conscious. As far as regulation of advertising content is considered self-regulation plays an important role in South Africa and this system is highly sophisticated and well developed there (Shahida Cassim, 2005). A review of children`s behavior as a response to advertising in the Middle East has been published by Emerald in 2013. As per the survey, there exists high level of materialism in parents as well as children in the Middle East. Children there

are highly influenced by the advertisements and tend to prefer heavily pushed products over the less pushed ones. Even when it comes to the parents especially mothers in suggesting products to their kids advertisements play a very important role (Hagar and Noha, 2012; Nassar and Zien, 2012; Soni and Singh, 2015). A study of the impact of TV advertising on children in Pakistan (Kashif, Ayyaz and Basharat, 2014) reveals that TV advertisements do have a considerable impact on children`s eating habits as well as choice of products and brands. However like any other part of the world the major concern related to these advertisements among Pakistani parents is that many of the products advertised are not actually healthy to eat but the misleading content of these advertising has been successfully influencing children to consume more and more of these products thus promoting unhealthy eating habits among them. What comes out of the findings of this research is same as in rest of the world that advertising to children requires stricter regulations in relation to the physical, mental and moral effect of the content on children.

In January 2005, Markos Kyprianou, European Commissioner for Health and Consumer Protection, gave the food industry a year to 'stop advertising junk food to children and improve product labelling or face legislation in the European Union' (FT report). Dr Gray has also published ICC`s (International Chamber of Commerce) International code of advertising practices for self-regulation to be imposed by advertising industry. ICC code suggests that advertising to children

- should encourage safety and good behaviour
- should not present physical, spiritual or morally dangerous situations

- should not exploit children's credulity, loyalty, vulnerability or lack of experience

- should not include any direct appeal to children and young people to persuade their parents or other adults to buy advertised products for them

- should not aim alcohol ads at minors

- Should not undermine the authority, responsibility, judgement or tastes of parents, taking into account the current social values.

ICC Framework for Responsible Food and Beverage Communications recommends that advertisements

- have substantiation for claims of health benefits

- do not encourage excess consumption

- do not depict snacks as meals

- do not undermine healthy lifestyle messages

- do not undermine parents' role.

2.5 Advertising to Indian Kids

Indian kids are no different than other kids around the world in their ability of being full-fledged consumers. They not only hold key driving force in purchase power but they also have the ability to influence their parents' purchase decisions. India is a young country with approximately 53% of the population under age 25 (Bansal, 2004). India is growing at a rapid pace as an economy and hence the social as well as household structure is going through a radical change in India, with a shift towards nuclear households having modern thinking in their sex role orientation and unrestricted decision-making (Chadha, 1995; Dhobal, 1999). The number of dual earning households are growing in Indian

society and this is bringing a phenomenal change in the influence of children on parent`s purchasing decisions especially mother and also the level of purchasing power they now hold (Kaur and Singh, 2006).

Cartoon Network India in a recent survey of theirs made an effort to chart out subtle deviations in children`s behavior and preferences. The survey brings to the notice exciting details in regard to children`s attitudes and choices on the basis of their exposure to technology, their TV viewing habits, media consumption and frequency patterns, purchase power, choice of favorite icons, and cognizance about the nation and the world at large. Survey noted an increasing trend in the level of access children have to the new technologies. Talking about the use of mobile phones survey reported that approximately 9 percent of children within age group 7 to 14 own their personal mobile phones. As far as TV viewership is concerned, survey sparks a very good news for all the advertisers out in the market, when it reports that television is the single largest media consumed by children on the daily basis with the viewing percentage reaching as high as 98 percent across all age groups. Newspapers comes at number two in terms of media consumption by children followed by radio, comics, magazine, cinema and the Internet (Tanwar, 2008), Singh (1998), Kapoor and Verma (2005) carried out a study in Delhi to examine children`s understanding of TV advertising. In their studies, they noted that the children as young as age six were able to differentiate a TV program from advertisements and had a fair bit of understanding about the purpose and intention of advertisements. They further noted that with cognitive development as children`s understanding increased, from as early as at the age eight, they were able to respond to the television advertisements in a well informed and mature manner. Researchers have also established

that increased number of viewing hours proves to be favorable in terms of attitudes towards advertising, however advancing age results in declining attention and interest in advertisements. Singh also noted that majority of wants and thus purchase requests of children are influenced from commercials or friends and society. Panwar and Agnihotri (2006) conducted another experimental study in the region of western Gujarat. They found that children`s ability to process advertising messages and understand their intent does not only depend upon their cognitive power and therefore age but also on their social and personal environment. Social standards of acceptable behavior depending upon the gender also plays a role and determines how both gender process ad messages. They further noted that the intrinsic factor such as model, character or endorser, story line, slogan and the music also plays an important role in liking or disliking and thus the ability to interpret the message of a particular advertisement. Singh (1992) conducted an experiment to study buying behavior of a family in India while purchasing a television. He observes that children of parents that fall in the category of Engineers and Doctors, out of five categories under study; Teachers, Doctors, Businessmen, Lawyers and Engineers, have a noticeable influence on their parents in buying decision. This shows that education and personal disposable income of families plays an important role in defining the role of children in purchase decisions of a family. Hundal (2001) studied the buying behavior of rural families in Punjab for purchasing durables such as TV, refrigerator, etc. He noticed that in rural families both spouses along with some influence of their children make purchase decisions. In another study by Kids-Link conducted upon children aged 13-15 years in Delhi region, it was noted that more than 50 percent of kids are able to influence parent`s purchase decision making. Since their constant exposure to

television, friends and society, children according to their parents do possess a fair knowledge as consumers and therefore are consulted by their parents for making purchase decisions about the products that are not directly linked with them. Kapoor (2001) observed families in Delhi region and found that children along with wives act as need creators, as most of the needs for household items and durables arise from and communicated by children. These children do not play any role in decisions such as how much to spend (Kaur, 2003; Singh and Kaur, 2004; Verma, 1982) rather they play an influential role in arriving at the answer to the questions: What and Which one to purchase (Sen Gupta and Verma, 2000; Singh, 1992; Singh and Kaur, 2003; Synovate, 2004). Kaur and Singh (2004) also found that children are capable of creating the need and want to purchase a durable product in the family. Chadha (1995) observes that in the households with older parent, children play even more important role in purchase decision making. Differences in decision making on the basis of sexes is more prominent in India. Indian girls see their families as more unified as compared to their counterparts (Sundberg et. al. 1969). Historically, children were active only in the final adoption stage of FMCG product but now they are found active in all five stages of product acceptance namely: awareness, knowledge, preference, conviction, and adoption (Dhobal, 1999). He also noticed that Indian kids in new urban families acts as influencers for FMCGs, vacations, educational products etc., whereas they act as buyers for toiletries and initiators for durables. Bansal (2004) categorizes middle class Indian youth on the basis of their purchasing power. Early Youth (aged 13-21) who depends upon their parents for money and has a purchasing power of only $20 to $40 per month. These youth are most influenced by advertisements of all and also by their parents and peers. Middle Youth

(aged 22-28) who are in between adulthood and childhood have higher purchasing power of $140 - $800. They have higher and significant influence on the purchase decisions of their family. Late Youth (aged >28) who are practically adults, are independent and ready to or already in process of having a separate family of their own. They are more focused on career and are influenced by their spouses, kids and peers.

Mukherji (2005) examined communication patterns, mediation behavior and advertising attitudes of Indian families and compared these with those of American and Japanese families. They found that Indian mothers have least negative attitudes towards television advertisements aimed at children. Indian mothers exercise least control over their children when it comes to television viewing. However like other countries in India as well the regulations for the advertising content of food products to children requires special attention, seeing the rapid increase in advertisements directed towards children.

2.6 Children's Products in India

High birth rate and rapid economic development makes India an attractive market for children`s products. With the current rate of development and growth prospects India shows all the potential to be the world`s largest market for products aimed at children. Within these children oriented products lies confectionary and beverages. For these two segments children possess both purchasing power and influencing power to initiate the purchase and therefore becomes an important party to motivate and sway by the marketers. Market for confectionaries in India was close to US $1.3bn and is expected to grow by 71% to reach US$2.2bn in 2018 (Whitehead, 2015). In addition to this market for beverages in India is close to $5.3bn and is the fastest growing one (Pai,

PFNDAI).These data clearly indicates that the confectionary and beverages market in India shows a huge potential to virtually swell in the recent future and therefore it is likely to attract huge competition as well. To survive and grow in the segment it becomes a necessity for the companies not only to market aggressively but innovatively and effectively, with a special focus on children. As discussed above at the forefront of marketing in India lies TV advertisements and therefore it is imperative for the companies to come up with TV advertisements that could leave a long lasting impact on children and aid in generating recognition and recall for their brand. This great importance and dire need for effective advertisements in these two categories give rise to research opportunities in the field of advertising communications aimed at children, to explore different aspects of advertising communication that could help in achieving the primary purpose of these TV advertisements i.e. generating recognition and recall among consumers so as to increase the brand value and brand loyalty and thus ultimately sales of that particular brand.

2.7 Child Psychology and Advertising

Child psychology is a fascinating area to be discussed so as to understand the effect and understanding of the advertising content aimed at children. It is believed that children at different ages understand the advertising content differently and they might also in the process take up the content that is exterior to the main selling proposition, mostly one carrying social norms (Ratner, 1978). Such beliefs sparks the researches focused on understanding the cognitive development of children at different ages and its impact on understanding of advertisements. Earliest of the cognitive development theories that showed the potential for explaining the effect of age on children`s reaction to advertising

was Piaget`s theory of Cognitive Development. Piaget observed children for their actions and behavior. He learned from his observation that children do possess their own ideas. They are not dependent only on their parents and teachers for the thoughts but rather construct their own thoughts as well. He then formally studied the cognitive development of children and adolescents. Piaget classified all the developmental ages right from being a children to being an adolescent into four different stages: sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational and formal operational. He said that each child passes through these four different phases of development before stepping into the adulthood. With each stage comes new intellectual abilities and increasingly complex understanding of the world, for every child. He also insisted that a child`s cognitive development follows these stages in sequence and that no stage of development can be skipped for anyone. Though he accepted the possibility that at any given point of time a child may or may not possess the characteristics or understandings relevant to more than one stages. As far as the division of age is concerned for each of these stages he suggested the age by taking up the averages across samples. As he suggested the relation between cognitive stage of development and age of a child depends upon the factors like social environment and family background of that particular child. Following are the four stages of cognitive development discussed in detail:

Sensorimotor (Birth - 2 years old): This stage of cognitive development begins at the time of birth and lasts on an average up to 2 years. This stage is characterized by use of motor activities sans symbols. In this stage the knowledge is limited reason being its dependence upon the physical interactions and experiences which are lacked in the stage. Infants as they are called in this stage fail to predict reactions and mostly rely on a trial

and error method for learning. This method of learning involves taking anything to everything in mouth. With increasing mobility also increases the cognitive ability of these infants. This stage also encompasses early language development for these infants. Object permanence also occurs in this stage, where these infants begin to realize that the objects do exists even after they cannot be seen.

Preoperational (2 – 7 years old): This stage of cognitive development begins at toddlerhood and continues to the childhood. In this stage memory and imagination of children develops. They begin to use language during this stage. In this stage children begin to make sense of the relationship of past and future however fails to understand more complex relationships like cause and effect. In this stage the intelligence in not logical but rather egocentric and intuitive.

Concrete Operational (7 – 11 years old): This stage of cognitive development goes from childhood to adolescence. In this stage logical intellectual development occurs and also the use of systematic manipulation of symbols related to concrete objects. Thinking in this stage becomes less egocentric with heightened awareness of external events and begin to involve tangible references.

Formal Operational (adolescence – adulthood): This stage of cognitive development goes from adolescence to adulthood. In this stage the use of abstract concepts and related symbols increases. Thinking of multiple variables in an orderly fashion becomes a possibility in this stage. Adolescents develop the ability to formulate hypothesis and thinking about abstract relationships and concepts.

Piaget (1952) stated that though intellectual development is a lifelong process in humans after the attainment of adulthood no new structure of development is required in order to explain the development. After attaining adulthood development involves developing more complex schema through the addition of knowledge and experience. However like any other theory Piaget`s theory of cognitive development also faced its fair share of criticism. During 1960s and 1970s researchers as experimented more and more with children`s cognitive development, began to identify the shortcomings in Piaget`s theory. Mainly researchers identified three major shortcomings in Piaget`s theory. First, it was claimed that Piaget under estimate the ability of children. This is because he used rather confusing and abstract terms in describing tasks in hand. Also his tasks were deemed to be overly difficult for children of those ages. Second, according to Piaget the thinking attributed to a particular stage will be consistent across all tasks within that stage. Though researchers refuted this claim and found that children are capable of exhibiting different thinking across different cognitive tasks within the same stage. Third, as per Piaget`s beliefs it is a wasteful and unsuccessful exercise to make an attempt to teach children developmentally advanced concepts. However researchers have claimed to observe that in some instances children do learn more advanced concepts on teaching with brief instructions. Researchers believe that children are more competent in their practical knowledge than Piaget`s original claim. Piaget`s theory proves to be very successful in describing age-related patterns, however it fails as a theory to explain children`s cognitive activity. Research experiments on preschoolers based on Piaget`s theory failed to achieve the results on capabilities of children in this age group as the theory predicted (Gelman, 1979, Gelman and Shatz, 1978). Piaget`s theory suggests limits to the

capability of children to process information within each age group, but it fails to explain why their capabilities are limited (Calder, Robertson, and Rossiter, 1975). Today, virtually all researchers on cognitive development accept the fact that child`s cognition is not as broadly stage like as Piaget initially stated (Bjorklund, 2004; Flavell, Miller, and Miller, 2002) Due to these limitations Piaget`s theory is rather less useful for deciding upon the methods to promote processing in children.

Even after facing a series of criticism Piaget`s theory has served as a starting point for virtually every contemporary research on cognitive development. His contributions to the field of child development are undoubtedly greater than any other theorist. He opened a window for researchers on the outlook of children being at the center and in command of their own development (McClelland and Siegler, 2001). He provided a road map to anyone who wishes to pursue a research on cognitive development.

In contrast to Piaget`s self-thinking and thought creating outlook of children cognitive development, Vygotsky (1978) believed that development is a social process. Right from birth to adulthood a child is assisted by who are around him (family, friends or peers) and are experienced in the skills and technologies available in the particular cultural environment. He suggests that the cognitive development of a child is fostered by a collaborative environment in and around child`s zone of development. According to him one`s culture is reflected in one`s behavior since right from the birth culture plays an important role in cognitive development. He states that prior to mastering own behavior a child masters social behavior and this is done with the help of development of speech. With the advancement of age speech takes two important forms: egocentric and socialized speech. First comes the socialized speech followed by egocentric speech

development, though both the forms are found to be interlinked. The relationship between speech and actions plays an important role in the cognitive development of a child and as suggested above the relationship gets highly influenced with the child`s environment. This relationship between speech and actions affects the development of various psychological functions such as perception, sensory motor, and attention. After development of primary functions such as these Vygotsky describes further cognitive development with the internalization of higher psychological functions. As a child advances in age the memory also develops and therefore with advancing age reliability upon the external signs or the external environment becomes less and less since a child is now able to memorize or reconstruct the external signs internally. Now the higher forms of psychological functions that existed only externally slowly begins to turns inward as the development progresses. He further refuted the long existing notion that learning has nothing to do with cognitive development and suggested that learning plays an important role in the development. He proposed that learning creates a zone of proximal development, i.e. it initiates many different internal developmental processes that are able to activate only on child`s contact with environment and peers. Post this when these processes becomes internalized they become child`s developmental success.

Apart from these two popular perspectives there is another prevailing theory on cognitive development that is generally known as Core Knowledge Perspective. This perspective talks about an innate core domain of thought which is present at the birth and supports cognitive development around it. Each core develops independently, resulting in uneven domain specific changes. However, findings on this early readymade knowledge that is core are mixed and unclear.

2.7.1 Language Development

Discussion of children`s cognitive development is partial without touching upon the realms of linguistic accomplishments of children. Remarkable exhibition of linguistic capabilities by children have surprised researchers that how they attain such an immense vocabulary and difficult grammatical system in such a short time and has prompted them to question the development. We begin the discussion on this remarkable linguistic demonstration with a popular debate set out in 1950s between well-known behaviorists B.F Skinner and linguist Noam Chomsky, acting as catalyst for sparking a plethora of research into language development.

Language comprises of many subsystems dealing with sound, meaning, overall structure and daily use. First subsystem termed as phonology deals with structure and sequence of speech sounds, providing rules for the same. Second subsystem termed as semantics deals with words and their meanings both literal as well as hidden. Third subsystem termed as grammar, consist of two parts: syntax, explaining how words can be arranged into sentences, and morphology, defining use of grammatical markers. Last subsystem termed as pragmatics, charting out rules of engagement for appropriate and effective communication.

Over the years, researchers have achieved a lot in terms of theorizing language development that can be applied to children around the globe. All these theories given by researchers take either of the two perspectives that are debatable since 1950s as mentioned above.

Behaviorist Perspective: B. F Skinner (1957) proposed that just like any other behavior language is also acquired through operant conditioning. As per the phenomena, children acquire the knowledge of language as and when their sounds or blabbers are reinforced with actual words by their parents. Some behaviorists also claim the role of imitation behind the acquisition of language by children. Although, the above phenomena of reinforcement and imitation can only be linked to early language development. Some of the researchers still cling to the behaviorist perspective even today. Critically speaking, reinforcement can be a valid phenomenon behind the acquisition of language, parents have to involve in intense and complex tutoring for this time consuming endeavor that is seemingly impossible. Also, as mentioned above learning such a vast vocabulary and complex grammar, in early age cannot be explained fully by imitation and reinforcement techniques.

Nativist Perspective: Linguist Noam Chomsky (1957) seeded the idea of children's self-reliability in terms of language learning. He proposed that children are born with Language Acquisition Device (LAD), an inborn system that allows them to bring together words into comprehensible grammatically consistent original utterances, as soon as they acquire sufficient vocabulary. Chomsky (1976, 1997) elaborated LAD consisting of a subsystem universal grammar giving set of rules that can be applied to human language. Children make us of this subsystem in order to understand grammatical categories and relationships in any language they are exposed to. With the help of LAD, children learn the language structure artlessly, without much exposure. Thus as opposed to the behaviorist view, nativist perspective do not rely upon the intense tutoring of

parents for language acquisition by children. It rather justifies the acquisition of such complex linguistic skills at the early stage through LAD (Chomsky, 1994).

In recent times researchers have risen beyond contrast of Skinner-Chomsky debate, focusing upon interactions between internal tendencies and environmental effects. This point of view of researchers is termed as **Interactionist Perspective**. This perspective further gets sub-divided into two different theories namely Information Processing Theory and Social Interaction Theory.

Information Processing Theories: these theories focus on neural network of the brain and suggests that children make sense of their intricate language surroundings by applying potent analytical intellectual abilities of a general kind and not any capability that is specifically tuned to the language (Bates, 1999; Elman, 2001; MacWhinney 1999).

Social Interaction Theory: According to this perspective a presence of strong desire to understand others and to be understood by others along with the rich environment enable the learning of such complex language systems by children.

After ending our discussion of cognitive and language development we move on to the discussion of theory related to Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior. Understanding of these psychological functions is very important for a better understanding of development perspectives as well as to understand the kind of reaction that can be received through promotion. Two such very important theories are from Martin Fishbein and IcekAjzen and Norman H Anderson. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) developed the theory of Reasoned Action as an improvement over Information Integration Theory by Norman H Anderson (1981).

Information Integration Theory: This theory was proposed as an explanation for a judgement making process for an individual. As per the theory, individual combine information from various source around in order to arrive at any judgement. The theory suggests three main functions in modeling the process of making judgement. First, The Valuation Function, which empirically derives mapping of stimuli to an interval scale. Second, The Integration Function, which is an algebraic function that combines subjective values of the information. Third, The Response Function, which is a process of transforming inner impression into an explicit response.

Reasoned Action Theory: Suggested initially as an improvement to information integration theory, it overlays mainly two important changes. First, the theory talks of behavioral intention as an additional element of persuasion. In contrast to information integration theory it is explicitly concerned with behavior and do not attempt to predict attitude. The theory also identifies the situations which prevents the attitude from transforming into behavior. Therefore, it attempts to predict behavioral intention, which is a sort of middle ground between attitude and behavior prediction. Second, the theory uses an additional element alongside attitude, norms (expectations of other people), in prediction of behavioral intention. Subjective norms also play an important role in causing behavior along with attitudes. These comprises of two behavioral elements: Normative beliefs (One`s thinking of others expectation from him/her) and Motivation (how important others expectation is to him/her)

2.8 References

1.   Adib, H., & El-Bassiouny, N. (2012). Materialism in young consumers: An investigation of family communication patterns and parental mediation practices in Egypt. Journal of Islamic Marketing, 3(3), 255-282.

2.   Adler, R. P., & Faber, R. J. (1980). Background: Children's television viewing patterns. The effects of television advertising on children. Lexington Books, Lexington, 13-28.

3.   Ahuja, R.D.B. & Stinson, K. M. (1993). Female-headed single parent families: an exploratory study of children's influence in family decision making. Advances in Consumer research, 20, 469-474.

4.   Anderson, N. H. (1981). Foundations of information integration theory.

5.   Banks, S. (1975). Public policy on ads to children. Journal of Advertising Research, 15(4), 7-12.

6.   Bansal, R. (2004). Urban youth. Business World.

7.   Bates, E. (1999). Plasticity, localization and language development. The changing nervous system: Neurobehavioral consequences of early brain disorders, 214-253.

8.   Belch, G. E., Belch, M. A., & Ceresino, G. (1985). Parental and teenage child influences in family decision making. Journal of business research, 13(2), 163-176.

9.   Bjorklund, D. F. (2004). Children`s Thinking. (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth

10. Blatt, J., Spencer, L., & Ward, S. (1972). A cognitive development study of children's reactions to television advertising. Television and social behaviour, 4, 452-466.

11. Blatt, J., Spencer, L., & Ward, S. (1972). A cognitive development study of children's reactions to television advertising. Television and social behaviour, 4, 452-466.

12. Blosser, B. J. & Roberts, D. F. (1984). Age differences in Children's Perception of Message Intent. Communication Research, 12: 455-484

13. Bogart, L., Tolley, B. S., & Orenstein, F. (1970). What one little ad can do.Journal of Advertising research, 10(4), 3-13.

14. Burns, A. C., & Harrison, M. C. (2015). Children's Self-Perceptions of Their Participation in Retail Store Patronage Decisions. In Proceedings of the 1982 Academy of Marketing Science (AMS) Annual Conference (pp. 66-69). Springer International Publishing.

15. Butter, E. J., Weikel, K. B., Otto, V., Wright, K. P., & Deinzer, G. (1991). TV advertising of OTC medicines and its effects on child viewers. Psychology & Marketing, 8(2), 117-128.

16. Calder, B. J., Robertson, T. S., &Rossiter, J. R. (1975). Children's consumer information processing. Communication Research, 2(3), 307-316.

17. Calvert, S. L., & Scott, M. C. (1989). Sound effects for children's temporal integration of fast-paced television content. Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media, 33(3), 233-246.

18. Caron, A., & Ward, S. (1975). Gift decisions by kids and parents. Journal of Advertising Research, 15(4), 15-20.

19. Cassim, S. (2005). Advertising to children in South Africa. Young Consumers, 6(3), 51-55.

20.   Chadha, R. (1995). The emerging consumer: a changing profile of the urban Indian house-wife and its implications. New Age International Publishers.

21.   Chomsky, N. (1976). Constraints on rules of grammar.

22.   Chomsky, N. (1994). Naturalism and dualism in the study of language and mind: Agnes Cuming Lecture, 1993 (University College Dublin). International journal of philosophical studies, 2(2), 181-209.

23.   Chomsky, N. (1997). What makes mainstream media mainstream. Z magazine, 10(10), 17-23.

24.   Churchill Jr, G. A., &Moschis, G. P. (1979). Television and interpersonal influences on adolescent consumer learning. Journal of consumer research, 23-35.

25.   Condry, J. C. (1989). The psychology of television. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

26.   Converse, P. D., & Crawford, C. M. (1949). Family Buying: Who Does It? Who Influences It? Current Economic Comment, 11, 28-50.

27.   Darley, W. K., & Lim, J. S. (1986). Family decision making in leisure-time activities: An exploratory investigation of the impact of locus of control, child age influence factor and parental type on perceived child influence. Advances in consumer research, 13(1), 370-374.

28.   Dhobal, S. (1999). NUFgen marketing or selling to the new urban family. Business Today, 22, 66-81.

29.   Donohue, T. R., Henke, L. L., & Donohue, W. A. (1980). Do kids know what TV commercials intend. Journal of Advertising Research, 20(5), 51-57.

30.   Donohue, T. R., Meyer, T. P., & Henke, L. L. (1978). Black and white children: Perceptions of TV commercials. The Journal of Marketing, 34-40.

31.   Donthu, N., Cherian, J., & Bhargava, M. (1993). Factors influencing recall of outdoor advertising. Journal of Advertising Research.

32.   Dorr, A. (1986). Television and children: A special medium for a special audience. Sage Publications (CA).

33.   Dresden, B. & Barnard, J. (2004). Legal and regulatory controls on advertising and marketing to children in the United Kingdom. Young Consumers, 5(1), 77 – 83

34.   Dunne, M. (1999). The role and influence of children in family holiday decision making. International Journal of Advertising and Marketing to Children, 1(3), 181-191.

35.   Elman, J. L. (2001). Connectionism and language acquisition. Language development: The essential readings, 295-306.

36.   Filiatrault, P., & Ritchie, J. B. (1980). Joint purchasing decisions: A comparison of influence structure in family and couple decision-making units. Journal of Consumer Research, 131-140.

37.   Fishbein, M., &Ajzen, I. (1975). Belief, attitude, intention and behaviour: An introduction to theory and research.

38.   Flavell, J. H., Miller, P. H. & Miller, S. A. (2002). Cognitive Development (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall

39.   Foxman, E. R., & Tansuhaj, P. S. (1988). Adolescents' and mothers' perceptions of relative influence in family purchase decisions: patterns of agreement and disagreement. Advances in consumer research, 15(1), 449-453.

40.   Gaines, L., & Esserman, J. F. (1981). A quantitative study of young children's comprehension of television programmes and commercials. Television Advertising and Children. New York: Child Research Service, 95-105.

41.   Gelman, R. & Shatz, M. (1978). Appropriate speech adjustments: The operation of conversational constraints on talk to two-year-olds. In M. Lewis & L.A. Rosenblum (Eds.), Interaction, conversation and the development of language (pp. 27-61). New York: Wiley

42.   Gelman, R. (1979). Preschool thought. American Psychologist, 34(10), 900.

43.   Gilbert, E. (1957). Advertising and marketing to young people. Printers' Ink Books.

44.   Goldstein, J. H. (1994). Children and advertising: policy implications of scholarly research. Advertising Association.

45.   Gray, O. (2005). Responsible advertising in Europe. Young Consumers, 6(4), 19-23.

46.   Greenberg, B.S. et. al. (1986) Children`s Views on Advertising. London: Research Department IBA

47.   Guidlach, (1931) History: American Advertising in the Twentieth Century, targetmarket.org/targe_6.htm

48.   Holdert, F., & Antonides, G. (1997). Family Type Effects on Household Members' Decision Making. Advances in Consumer Research, 24(1).

49.   Hop, L. (2005). Advertising to children in the Netherlands. Young Consumers, 6(4), 35-37.

50.   Hundal, B. S. (2001). Consumer Behaviour in Rural Market: A Study of Durables. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar.

51.   Jenkins, R. L. (1979). The influence of children in family decision-making: parents' perceptions. Advances in consumer research, 6(1), 413-418.

52.   Jensen, J. M. (1995). Children's purchase requests and parental responses: results from an exploratory study in Denmark. European Advances in Consumer Research, 2(1), 54-60.

53.   Kapoor, N., & Verma, D. P. S. (2005). Children's understanding of TV advertisements: Influence of age, sex and parents. Vision: The Journal of Business Perspective, 9(1), 21-36.

54.   Kapoor, S. (2001). Family Influence On Purchase Decisions- A Study with Reference to Consumer Durables, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Delhi, Delhi.

55.   Kashif, M., Ayyaz, M., & Basharat, S. (2014). TV food advertising aimed at children: qualitative study of Pakistani fathers' views. Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 26(4), 647-658.

56.   Kaur, P. (2003). Dynamics of Purchase Decision Making in Families: A Study of Consumer Durables, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar.

57.   Kaur, P., & Singh, R. (2004). 'Role-structures in the buying decision process for durables. Paradigm, January-June.

58.   Kaur, P., & Singh, R. (2004). 'Role-structures in the buying decision process for durables. Paradigm, January-June.

59.   Kaur, P., & Singh, R. (2006). Children in family purchase decision making in India and the West: A review. Academy of Marketing Science Review, 2006, 1.

60.   Kaur, P., & Singh, R. (2006). Children in family purchase decision making in India and the West: A review. Academy of Marketing Science Review, 2006, 1.

61.   King, K. W., & Tinkham, S. F. (1989). The learning and retention of outdoor advertising. Journal of Advertising Research.

62.   Koester, J. V. (2003). Legal briefing: advertising to children in the USA. Young Consumers, 4(1), 65-71.

63.   Kunkel, D. (2001). Children and television advertising. Handbook of children and the media, 375-393.

64.   Kunkel, D., & Roberts, D. (1991). Young minds and marketplace values: Issues in children's television advertising. Journal of Social Issues, 47(1), 57-72.

65.   KYPRIANOU, M. COMMISSION REGULATION (EC) No 245/2007.

66.   Macklin, M. C. (1985). Do young children understand the selling intent of commercials? Journal of Consumer Affairs, 19(2), 293-304.

67.   Macklin, M. C. (1987). Preschoolers' understanding of the informational function of television advertising. Journal of Consumer research, 229-239.

68.   MacWhinney, B. (1999). The emergence of language. Taylor & Francis.

69. McClelland, J. L., & Siegler, R. (Eds.). (2001). Mechanisms of cognitive development: Behavioral and neural perspectives. Psychology Press.

70. McNeal, J. U. (1969). CHILD CONSUMER-NEW MARKET. Journal of Retailing, 45 (2), 15.

71. McNeal, J. U. (1987). Children as consumers.

72. Moschis, G. P., & Churchill Jr, G. A. (1978). Consumer socialization: A theoretical and empirical analysis. Journal of Marketing Research, 599-609.

73. Moschis, G. P., & Moore, R. L. (1980). Purchasing behaviour of adolescent consumers. In Proceedings of the American Marketing Association (Vol. 45, pp. 89-92). Chicago: American Marketing Association.

74. Mukherji, J. (2005). Maternal communication patterns, advertising attitudes and mediation behaviours in urban India. Journal of Marketing Communications, 11(4), 247-262.

75. Murray, J. P., & Kippax, S. (1981). Television's impact on children and adults: International perspectives on theory and research. In Mass communication review yearbook (Vol. 2). Sage Beverly Hills, CA.

76. Nassar, M. A., & Al Zien, A. (2012). Effects of television advertising on children in the Middle East. Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues, 5(4), 267-280.

77. Noam, C. (1957). Syntactic structures. The Hague: Mouton.

78. Pai, Jagadish. Protein Foods & Nutrition Development Association of India (PFNDAI), *http://www.in-beverage.org/pfndai.pdf*

79.   Palmer, E. L., & MacNeil, M. (1991). Children's comprehension processes: From Piaget to public policy. Responding to the screen: Reception and reaction processes, 27-44.

80.   Palmer, E. L., & McDowell, C. N. (1979). Program/commercial separators in children's television programming. Journal of Communication, 29(3), 197-201.

81.   Panwar, J. S., & Agnihotri, M. (2006). Advertising message processing amongst urban children: An Indian experience-with special reference to TV advertising. Asia pacific Journal of Marketing and logistics, 18(4), 303-327.

82.   Piaget, J. (1952). The origins of intelligence in children (Vol. 8, No. 5, p. 18). New York: International Universities Press.

83.   POP, A., & DREDETIANU, M. (2014). Essentials of Advertising Communication. Academica Science Journal-Economica Series, 1(4), 17-23.

84.   Ratner, N., & Bruner, J. (1978). Games, social exchange and the acquisition of language. Journal of child language, 5(03), 391-401.

85.   Reynolds, F. D. & Wells, W. D. (1977). Consumer Behaviour. McGraw-Hill

86.   Robertson, T. S. (1979). Parental mediation of television advertising effects. Journal of Communication, 29(1), 12-25.

87.   Robertson, T. S., &Rossiter, J. R. (1977). Children's responsiveness to commercials. Journal of Communication, 27(1), 101-106.

88.   Schotthofer, P. (2002). Legal briefing: advertising to children in Germany. Young Consumers, 3(4), 50-51.

89.   Scott, L. M. (1990). Understanding jingles and needle drop: A rhetorical approach to music in advertising. Journal of Consumer Research, 223-236.

90.   Sen Gupta, S., & Verma, D. P. S. (2000). We, not me who will buy. Indian Management, 39(5), 61-5.

91.   Seventeen Makes a Sales Call (1980), Madison Avenue, Vol. 22, pp. 85, 88-91, 94-96.

92.   Singh, D. (1998). Children as consumers. Indian Management, 37(9), 78-81.

93.   Singh, P. (1992). Family buying behaviour for TV-an empirical investigation. Vanijya, 4(March), 124-33.

94.   Singh, R., & Soni, P. (2015). Ethics in Food Advertising to Children in India—A Parental Perspective. Journal of Food Products Marketing, 21(2), 141-159.

95.   Skinner, B. F. (1957). The experimental analysis of behaviour. American scientist, 343-371.

96.   Smith, G., & Sweeney, E. (1984). Children and television advertising: An overview. CRU.

97.   Stephens, N., Stutts, M. A., & Burdick, R. (1982). Preschoolers' ability to distinguish between television programming and commercials. Journal of Advertising, 11(2), 16-26.

98.   Stutts, M. A., Vance, D., & Hudleson, S. (1981). Program-commercial separators in children's television: Do they help a child tell the difference between Bugs Bunny and the Quick Rabbit? Journal of Advertising, 10(2), 16-48.

99.   Sundberg, N., Sharma, V., Wodtli, T., & Rohila, P. (1969). Family cohesiveness and autonomy of adolescents in India and the United States. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 403-407.

100. Synovate. (2004). Global car purchase survey asks: do kids drive their parents?

     www.synovate.com

101. Van der Voort, T. H., Nikken, P., & Van Lil, J. E. (1992). Replication: Determinants of parental guidance of children's television viewing: A Dutch replication study. Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media, 36(1), 61-74.

102. Van Syckle, C. (1951). Practices Followed by Consumers in Buying 'Large Expenditure' Items of Clothing, Furniture and Equipment. Quoted in R. Ferber, Marketing Research.

103. Verma, K. P. (1982). 'Marketing strategies for consumer durables: the case of a domestic refrigerator. The Indian Journal of Commerce, 35(4).

104. Vygotsky, L. (1978). Interaction between learning and development. Readings on the development of children, 23(3), 34-41.

105. Wackman, D. B., Wartella, E., & Ward, S. (1977). Learning to be consumers: The role of the family. Journal of Communication, 27(1), 138-151.

106. Ward, S., & Wackman, D. B. (1972). Children's purchase influence attempts and parental yielding. Journal of Marketing Research, 316-319.

107. Wartella, E. (1980). Individual differences in children's responses to television advertising. Children and the faces of television: Teaching, violence, selling, 307, 322.

108. Whitehead, R. J. (2015), *http://www.foodnavigator-asia.com/Markets/Analysts-predict-lightning-growth-for-Indian-confectionery-market?utm_source=copyright&utm_medium=OnSite&utm_campaign=copyright*

109. Williams, L. A., & Veeck, A. (1998). An exploratory study of children's purchase influence in urban China. Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research, 3, 13-19.

110. Witterbroodt, I. (1990). De Invloed van Televisiereclame op kinderen. Literatuurstudieen Onderzoekbij Schoolgaande Kinderen. Leuven: M.A. dissertation, Catholic University of Leuven.

111. Young, B. M. (1990). Television advertising and children. Oxford University Press, USA.

112. Zuckerman, P., Ziegler, M., & Stevenson, H. W. (1978). Children's viewing of television and recognition memory of commercials. Child Development, 96-104.

113. (2014). World Health Statistics. World Health Organization.

CHAPTER 3

LINGUISTIC DEVIATIONS IN ADVERTISING SLOGANS

3.1 Introduction

Widdowson (2000) defines human language as means of cognition and communication. As per his definition of language, it is something that empowers self-thinking and be responsible for us to be able to cooperate with other people in the community. It follows that advertisement is in a way a communication between the one who creates the advertisement and the one who watches it. It is a communication that has its own principles. Advertisements are smart, clever and entertaining puzzles that have been created to catch the immediate attention of the target and leave a lasting impression in their mind. Of course not all of the advertisements that have been made are able to achieve this and end up being silly, unimaginative and sometimes even irritating for the audience. In a day, on an average an individual is exposed to approximate 1500 advertisements, but majority of these fails to catch the attention and goes unnoticed. There are, however, a few advertisements that manage to stand out and catch the attention of the viewer. These advertisements are designed proficiently to make them persuasive, noticeable and at the same time entertaining. In today`s cut throat competition each and every firm has to be continuously on their toes and make effort to attract new customers as well as to retain the existing ones. With the increased daily exposure to media and internet, advertising has come out as a very effective and important method to maintain

and increase the customer base. This race of attracting customers led to the ever increasing number of new advertisements, which has become a matter of concern to the advertising agencies and creative heads. The advertisers have to come up very quickly with original and unique ways to formulate and deliver the message. It is important to design the communication creatively and cleverly enough so as to stand out of this huge clutter of advertisements and make a mark in the target`s cognitive structure, since the primary aim of advertising is to gain the attention of the target with the intention of stimulating the recognition and recall of the advertised brand. Today advertisements have to constantly compete with each other and their creators seek to find every conceivable way to attract the targeted in an innovative manner. As Featherstone (2001:76), cited by Shie (2005), observes "Most advertising is constantly striving for novelty, for effective and striking devices which will overcome the 'fatigue' of audiences over- exposed to advertising".

When creating creative and effective communication message copywriters (the individuals who are responsible for the creation of an advertising message) face another challenge and that is the time limit, i.e. the copywriters are given a very narrow time frame within which they have to say everything that has to be said about the brand, in a manner which draws customers attention and stays in their memory for long enough to make purchase. They must, as Arens (2004) points out, condense all that can be said about a product into a few pertinent, succinct points.

Angela Goddard (2002) lay emphasis on the idea of narrator and narratees. According to her the writer is the person who conceptualize and converts the idea into text in reality (in case of advertising texts, the real writers are referred to as the copywriters and are artists

who work in an advertising agency′s creative department), whereas the narrator is the one who is a storyteller within the text. Copywriters can construct all sorts of different narrators in order to convey the message to the audience. Copywriters are the ones with a job to visualize the ideas for the advertisements and convert those ideas into text by writing the Headlines, Subheads, and Body.

Headline is considered as the part of print advertisement with prime importance, as explained by the researchers such as Boyee and Arens (1994). They define headline as a term that refers to the set of words in the foremost position of any advertisement. Primary role of any headline is to draw attention of the audience and to be memorable for them. Subheads can be seen as small headlines with a purpose to communicate the key pointers of the sales pitch. As it is believed that majority of the audience would read only headline and subheads, therefore it is important to construct them in a way that the sales message gets conveyed and gets registered into the reader`s cognitive structure for some time in the future. Body is written to tell the complete story i.e. to communicate the sales pitch in detail, as a logical continuation of the headline and subhead.

Apart from headline, subhead and body there is another important term that is given special attention while writing any advertisement, it is the slogan of the advertisement. Usually slogan is a headline that has been so popular that it got stuck in minds of audience. Boyee and Arens (1994) observe that through continuous usage these headlines or slogans become standard statements that are used on an everyday basis. Slogans are responsible for stability in a campaign and helps by summarizing the key idea or message, that company wants to be associated to its product brand or itself, into a brief statement (274). Boyee and Arens (1994) define an effective slogan as ″short, simple,

memorable, easy to repeat, and helpful in differentiating the product or the company from its competitors″ (274). They also gave alternative terms for the slogans that are theme lines and taglines.

To summarize the terminology of an advertisement communication, we must define the slogan. Advertising slogan has many definitions. Among the most appropriate and accepted is ″a word or phrase that is easy to remember, used for example by a political party or in advertising to attract people′s attention or to suggest an idea quickly.″ (Sally and Ashby, 2001). In short we can say that a slogan is a precisely communicated memorable advertising phrase.

A slogan becomes a mode of identification for any product, in the minds of the consumers, when a brand or company uses it consistently to represent or to advertise that product. The concept of slogan is used among authors of advertising books in various ways. As agreed upon commonly by all the writers advertising layout can be divided into several parts: headline, body copy (the main part of the advertising message, often divided into subheads), signature line (a mention of a brand-name, often accompanied by a price-tag, slogan or trade-mark) and standing details (e.g. the address of the firm) (Leech, 1972: 59). As per this understanding of an advertisement, slogan is not synonymous with or a part of headline and vice versa, which suggests that the term slogan is ordinarily used in narrow sense. However, Greg Myers (1994) uses the term 'slogan' in a larger sense - for any catchy phrase, what a headline definitely is. In many cases, it has also been observed that the demarcations between slogan and headline dissolve.

Despite the fact that most of the present-day advertisements rely heavily on visual content and design, it is still language that forms the critical part of advertising. In order to attract consumers′ attention and stay in their minds for long enough to induce a purchase, advertisers must usually do a bit more than just convey the message in a straightforward manner. This can be achieved through creativity. According to Wales (2001), creativity is inventiveness in form, the departure of what is expected in language. While this is regarded as inappropriate in many assortments of English language, it is, according to Crystal (1990), a positive and desirable feature of communication in the world of advertising: ″Most advertising slogans gain their effect by manipulating the linguistic norms of everyday language″.

3.2 Theoretical Background

3.2.1 Linguistic means used in advertising language

In his book (Leech, 1972) Leech brings the notion of loaded language, suggesting that the advertising belongs to loaded language. Loaded language as per literature can be defined as the language that comprises of strong words with positive or negative associations that unfairly frame words into limited or biased contexts. The purpose of using such a language is to produce an emotional response in the minds of the audience, in order to affect their thoughts on the discussed subject directly. It is the writing or speech, which implies an accusation of demagoguery or of pandering to the audience. According to Leech this kind of language aims to influence the will, opinions or attitudes of the audience. He asserts that advertising differ from other type of communications that uses loaded language, such as political journalism and religious oratory, in terms of exhibiting

a precise material goal, which is to influence the mental disposition in order to extract desired behavior from the audience i.e. to initiate the buying of a particular intended product. Hughes branded advertising as "linguistic Capitalism", meaning that "advertising is from a linguistic point of view , a dubious manifestation of free enterprise in which the language, the common property of the speech community, becomes natural resource which is exploited by the agencies in the sectional interests of the clients' marketing program" (Hughes,1987). He sees an additional advantage with the usage of words over images and sounds, and it is that words come free, however images and sounds require money and effort to make. It has been widely accepted in the literature that the primary purpose of advertising is to persuade people to make the purchase of the intended product. Among the great competition the makers of the advertisements work towards exhibiting the uniqueness of the product so that it stands out and gets noticed and remembered at the time of purchase. For this purpose the advertiser is constantly on the hunt for new and innovative techniques. The advertiser must succeed in catching the attention of the audience and make them identify the product. Copywriters intend to create unique, unanticipated, stimulating texts with memorable slogans or phrases. The deviation of an expression from the expectation of the audience doesn`t really means that the expression is going to be rejected as nonsensical or faulty, since the deviation occurs at the form level rather than the content level. Occurrence of such deviations is not only unique to advertising text, it has been however observed that these figurative expressions and deviations are in fact commonly found in everyday speech (Pollio, Smith and Pollio, 1990; Todorov, 1982).

Variation and creativity play an important role in advertising language. The most distinctive feature of an advertising language can undeniably be accepted as its capability to stay in sync with the current trend and to re-invent itself continuously, in order to come up with distinctive shapes and to craft totally unforeseen surprise elements for receiving full attention of the audience (M. Vasiloaia). The advertising text is made complex with a purpose that the reader or listener of the text is required to put in some effort to understand and the resultant is the influence on him for buying the product. Leech spells out the principles of advertising texts as: Attention value, Readability (by means of simple, personal, and colloquial style), Memorability (most important in the process of advertising is to remember the name of the product) and Selling power (Leech, 1972). Out of these principles the last principal of selling power is deemed to be very crucial for advertising text as it defines the sole purpose behind creation of the text. David Ogilvy (1985) in his book says: "I do not regard advertising as entertainment or an art form, but as a medium of information. When I write an advertisement, I don't want you to tell me that you find it 'creative'. I want you to find it so interesting that you buy the product."

A copywriter while writing an ad must be aware of the fact that the language with deviations is commonly and widely used for the purpose of actual portrayal of the circumstances in which the advertisement is created. Geenwald and Leavitt (1984) state that a fundamental feature of the field of exposure condition is that the consumer has complete freedom to ignore an ad or to devote the barest minimum of processing effort to it. Since the reader is under no obligation to read any part of the ad namely: headline, body or subheads, neither is there any compulsion for him to finish reading what he has glanced at or what he started reading. Therefore the usage of deviations in the language

serves the purpose of influencing or motivating the potential reader to read through the advertisement. In this regard, Berlyne (1971) found that incongruity (i.e. deviation) is among those factors that attract and arrest attention. Hence, when the exposure of any advertisement is not mandatory, consumer is believed to contribute higher attention to the ad language with deviations present in comparison to ad language without deviations. The deviations also produce "pleasure of the text" (Barthes, 1985) i.e. the reward that comes from processing a clever arrangement of signs. Based upon his experimental research in aesthetics, Barthes suggested that presence of incongruity or deviation in language can help produce a satisfying level of stimulation. This rewarding character of artful deviation thus suggests that ad language with deviation present should help produce higher positive attitude towards the advertisements.

Cook (1997) defines the word discourse as a phrase or language which has text and context present together. He further suggests that we may categorize advertising as a form of discourse, this is because "it can tell us a good deal about our own society and our own psychology". Though to make the discussion complete we could go for the analysis of complete discourse of advertising, meaning, the analysis of interaction of all the elements that participate in advertising discourse namely: participants, function, substance, pictures, music, a society, paralanguage, language, a situation, other advertising and any other discourse. Such an analysis would be very difficult to elaborate given such limited space, as it will require an entire theory dedicated to itself. For this reason, in the present work we would only go for the analysis of language of advertising from the linguistic, especially phonological, graphological, grammatical, lexical and

morphological, syntactic and semantic point of view. A systematic analysis and classification of all of these deviations in language of advertising is as follows:

3.2.2 Phonological deviations

There is not much scope for phonological deviations in advertising language, but it takes into consideration only those messages where the pronunciation of the word is different from the commonly accepted pronunciation. This deviation in the pronunciation might be due to the presence of deviation in spelling of the word. As an example we can refer to this advertisement from Amul where the writers of the advertisement put forth the message as ″Bengal loves trinAMUL″. Leech mentioned some of this category like ″aphesis (the omission of an initial part of a word or phrase, e.g. ′tis for it is), syncope (the omission of a medial part, e.g. ne′er for never), apocopate (the omission of a final part, e.g. oft for often) and special pronunciation for the convenience of rhyming, as when the noun ″wind″ is pronounced like the verb ″wind″. Or some word stresses are placed in unusual places, like ba′luster (Tennyson), ba′stard (Browning) and ′July (D. G. Rossetti)″ (Ren&Yu, 2013). Different pronunciation creates different effect of hearing, as quoted by Alexander pope that ″sound must seem an echo to the sense". in advertising messages these phonological deviations are generally represented by the frequent appearance of alliteration, end rhyme, rhyme of the beginning and the end, homograph, etc.

3.2.3 Graphological Deviations

This type of deviations are predominantly found in advertising messages. It is the simplest yet effective way to grab the attention of the readers. The deviation provides

copywriters a freedom to go on making unlimited changes to the spelling of the words of interest while not disturbing the pronunciation at all. The orthographic devices such as selection of script, its colour, type and size are normally used to draw immediate attention of the consumers. As Tang Xiangjin (2002) mentioned, English is rich in deviation of word spelling. For the sake of being emphatic, vivid, associative and conspicuous, spelling deviations come into wide and frequent use by repetition of morphemes, words and punctuations, capitalization, misplacement, deletion, addition, substitution and malapropism. This form of deviation not only retains the original meaning of the phrase but also adds information by putting brand into words and making it stick out and using numbers and symbols. As spelling represents pronunciation and any deviation in pronunciation will be definitely reflected in the written form. For e.g. Amul′s message ″Test Daily″

3.2.4 Grammatical Deviations

Usage of this deviation permits copywriters to deviate from the basic system of rules while using the language for writing advertisements. The deviation comprises of rule omission or suspension, rule change or rule addition. Such as:

- *Frequent use of disjunctive grammar*: The copywriters independently use minor or non-finite clauses in the sentences. Such use is largely confined to headlines, subheads and slogans (leech 1966). Such a rule omission generally involves appearance of the most attractive quality of a product immediately following the name of the product, the purpose of such usage is to apparently make an association of the product name with a tag line which is easy to remember.

- *Liberal use of imperative sentences*: Leech during his study on frequency of occurrence of different sentence types in English language advertising found that in the television samples, ratio of appearance of interrogative clauses was over one in every thirty major independent clauses studied, whereas ratio of appearance of imperative clauses was over one in every four major independent clauses studied. As advertising intends to encourage consumers for taking action (action here signifies making purchase), copywriters make use of imperatives due to their ability to create a sense of conversation in the minds of consumers. Use of these imperatives is frequent for the items that are related directly to the procurement of the advertised product, such as: get, buy, ask for, choose, etc. These imperatives are also used for items relating to the consumption or use of the product, such as: have, try, use, enjoy, etc. and for the items that appeals for notice of the product, such as: look, see, watch, remember, make sure, etc. (Leech 1972)

- *Frequent use of Presupposition:* It is used rather liberally as compared to assertion because of the ease with which an assertion can be denied in comparison to a presupposition. Angela Goddard writes that presupposition is "all about reading between lines; since this is, as it suggests, a hidden process, it is very interesting to advertisers, as we can be taking in all sorts of assumptions without consciously paying attention to them." (Goddard 2011).

- *Liberal and widespread use of exclamatives:* The difference between imperatives and exclamatives is just the exclamation mark. The sentence structure that is

appearing in these messages might be simple but the exclamation mark that has been put there tells us to read them with an emphasis.

- *Use of ellipsis:* Ellipsis belongs to cohesive devices and it is defined as "the omission of part of a structure." (Goddard 2011). Anaphoric textual ellipsis are the omissions where ellipted elements relate to the preceding sentence. Situational ellipsis of interrogative clauses allows the omission of subject and the operator. A very important reason for the using of this technique is the reduction on the usage of number of words which directly saves money on advertising cost for the company. Another important reason might be to prevent unnecessary diversion of attention to those parts of the message which are there just for the completion of sentences and not to serve advertiser's interest (Cook 1997). In general the usage of ellipsis is seen in spoken language, or in casual communications of face-to-face type. Usage of ellipsis in advertising communication generates an effect of intimacy with the reader and helps in creating a conversational tone; at times signifying the closeness between advertiser and the reader. Ellipsis also creates closeness, since it is not important to define the meanings explicitly in communication between two people who know each other and shares common knowledge and history, thus the listener is very well able to fill in the gaps left out by the speaker (Cook 1997, Goddard 2011).

3.2.5 Lexical deviation

This type of deviation is one of the richest source of new expression for copywriters. It allows copywriters to use unexpected letters so as to attract the attention of the readers. The division of lexical deviations is as follows-

Functional conversion: "The process of coining new words in a different part of speech without adding any derivative elements is called conversion." (Kvetko, 2001). The two words differ in meaning and syntactic function within the sentence. The key forms of conversion are: the formation of verbs from nouns; nouns from verbs; adjectives from nouns and nouns from phrasal verbs (Kvetko, 2001). Feng Guangyi (1992) quotes that "the change of part of speech is of course for certain purposes. To use a noun or an adjective as a verb is to combine the static state with a dynamic one for better linguistic appeal, while to change a noun into an adjective or vice versa is to emphasize the properties or state of the person or object and to make the language more vivid". Conversion proves to be far more productive when used in some languages than in others; in English, it is a fairly productive process. In advertising communications, application of puns created by means of conversion is often proven as very imaginative. The most frequently used strategy is replacing a word (of any word class) with the brand name, so that the brand name acquires syntactic features of original fictive word. This tendency is still used even after a hundred years: "Get that Pepsi feeling." 'Pepsi' word here acts as an adjective.

Neologism: It means coining new words, most of which remain nonce words, which are made up for a few occasions and unabsorbed by the standard language. Coinage appears most frequently when making up names of a product. The change of the normal spelling is also a technique of coining new words. The words formed by affixation, compounding, shortening, blending, and back-formation and by other ways of creating new words, undoubtedly appear in the communication text. The readers of the text even need not pay attention to such words, because such words sound familiar and ordinary to the readers.

However, if a new word is 'deviated' i.e. it is somehow accommodated to the context of the advertising text, it appears striking and interesting to the reader. The new words and phrases formed by compounding can be easily found in the sentences. One very distinctive feature of advertising language is an assortment of lexical units, with each unit comprising of two or more bases (roots) (Kvetko 2001). Such units are termed as compound words. That can be defined with the help of certain qualities such as semantic unity, morphological and syntactic functioning that is further characterized by its inseparableness (it cannot be interrupted by other word) and also certain phonetical and graphic qualities. For e.g. "pal banaye Magical", "Non-stop Khaauch Khaauch". Copywriters rarely limit their horses of creativity in using these compound words in other types of discourse and the result of this is various products qualities are created such as good as homemade, pain- relieving, state of the art, hand crafted, one of a kind , all new, front facing, built in, etc.. According to Kvetko "affixation is another process of building new words by adding an established prefix or suffix to the existing base. It is a most productive process of creating new words in English". Prefix and suffix differs in their appearance. Suffix appears after and prefix occurs before the base. Suffixes usually change not only the lexical meaning of the word but also its word class. Whereas a prefix rarely changes the word class, it only changes the lexical meaning. For e.g. "provodkative, cookability" (Cook 1997), anti-aging, jewel-like, Casiology. Another technique that is mainly used by advertisers is shortening. It is a general process in which part of the original word is taken away, in the sense that it expresses the trend of modern English towards monosyllabism. Shortening involves other techniques such as intialisms, clipping and acronyms. Clipping is reduction of a word to a shorter form that is done by

cutting off one or more syllables of a word. Acronyms are the words that are formed from the initials of expressions consisting one or more word and can be accepted or read as ordinary words. The most popular examples of these are NATO, AIDS, and UNESCO. Initials differ from acronyms in the procedure through which they are formed. Initialisms are basically abbreviation with alphabetical reading. Another popular technique that is predominantly used by copywriters us blending. It is somewhat similar process to shortening. It combines or fuses the elements of two different words. The popular examples of this are- brunch (breakfast +lunch), motel (motorway+ hotel), vegeburger (vegetarian+ hamburger), smog (smoke+ fog).

Anomalous Lexical Collocation collocation: this deviation allows copywriters to use such combinations of words which cannot be collocated together in normal usage. Similarly Anomalous Lexical Collocation collocations are the outcome of liberal usage of idiomatic expressions and collocations. Due to the familiarity of these idiomatic expressions to the target customers, copywriters freely make ample use of idioms and proverbs in advertising messages.

Oxford advanced learner's dictionary (2001) defines idioms as "an expression (i.e. term or phrase) whose meaning cannot be deduced from the literal definitions and the arrangement of its parts, but refers instead to a figurative meaning that is known only through conventional use". Whereas, proverb is a well-known phrase or sentence that gives advice or says something that is generally true. Copywriters by taking the advantage of this familiarity creatively replace or change a word from that expression by creating a pun and subsequently relating it with product or product qualities. This relationship is mostly augmented by the picture that generally accompanies the text. The

text gives the common meaning of the idiom but it represents the image and the literal meaning of its constituents.

On the similar grounds, a collocation is "a combination of words in a language, which happens very often and more frequently than would happen by chance." (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2001).

3.2.6 Semantic Deviations

Semantic deviation may be translated into "nonsense" or "absurdity". Thus we often find some ridiculous sentences in some works. But "the very face-value oddity lends it abnormal power of significance" (Leech, 1969). That means the seemingly meaningless and ridiculous sentences have specific meanings in a certain context.

In this deviation complex mixtures of words are formed of signs and the meaning of which is encoded by the creator. A sign as explained by wales "is used to denote something which stands for, or refers to, something else, in a meaningful way". He further stresses that almost anything in society can be a meaningful sign. Thus, a stranger can be assigned to a certain group of people simply on the basis of signs: clothes, hair style, or accent (Wales, 2001). Dyer has aptly explained the meaning of sign that it is made up of signifier and signified. Signifier is a material vehicle or a form whereas signified is a mental concept or reference. The sign is the whole that results from the association of the signifier with the signified (Dyer, 1982). Another concept that helps in identifying the meaning of a construct is connotation and denotation. Whenever faced with a new phrase the reader assigns a new meaning to that word if he or she knows nothing about the context in which it is to be used. This literal meaning denotes what a

word means as per the dictionary or common usage. Along with this the word might have figurative meanings as well. This meaning connotes additional layers of meaning and instigates associations. These connotative meanings depend on individuals thus, it is not possible to provide exact list of connotation of an expression. Individuals determine these connotative meanings based on their perception and past experiences that is formed by a community or society in large. This interesting spectrum of connotative provides a view to the human mind that one denotative can have multiple connotative.

Vestergaard and Schroder (1985) in their research found out that in advertising language, the most frequent word for 'acquisition of product' is 'get', and not 'buy', because 'buy' has some unpleasant connotations, like 'money' and the parting with it. This particular aspect is taken care of by the advertisers as they cannot take a chance to be misunderstood by these connotative associations as these are very powerful source of behavior formation in potential consumers. Therefore, to provide a positive meaning copywriters use trope. A trope is "a word or phrase that is used in a way that is different from its usual meaning in order to create a particular mental image or effect." (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2001). Illogical unqualified comparatives and role borrowing are few of the techniques of semantic deviations used by copywriters for e.g. "Supersonic Snack", "Always Affordable" etc. Illogical comparatives involve directly speaking of an inanimate object, or an abstract concept, as if it were a living entity, often one with specifically human attributes. These attributes may include sensations, emotions, desires, physical gestures and expressions, and powers of speech, among others. Whereas, unqualified comparatives are the comparative adjectives with nothing in the contact- either in the text or in the visual layout to compare them with. This is done to

show the superiority of it. In role borrowing, the linguistic feature of one role is employed to another.

3.2.7 Code mixing

As Coulmas (2005) points it out, bilinguals" choices of codes go beyond the boundaries of a single language. Past studies on linguistic deviations in advertisements has considered the classification based on Leech and Cook. However for this study code mixing is also considered as one of the deviations. This special inclusion is done on the basis of predominant use of bilingual languages in advertising slogans. This code mixing/code switching is a communicative strategy that is widespread in bilingual communities. India being a diversified country is one of the largest nations of bilinguals. Since the aim of this study is to analyze TV advertising slogans of confectionery and beverages in India, it would be highly unjust for this study not to consider code mixing and code switching. The variation in the terminology is due the variation in their definitions. Some authors refer code mixing as synonym for code switching (Lanz, 2011) whereas others use code mixing for code mixing and borrowings (Pfaff, 1979). According to Ardilla (2005) code mixing is alternation of two languages in single utterance. According to him the difference between code mixing and code switching lies in the degree of usage. Code switching occurs when the speaker switches to the second language and continues using it whereas; code mixing is mixing of words. Most of the researchers have followed Ardilla's views and also keeping in view that this study aims at analyzing slogans only, Code Mixing (term as well as definition) will be used now onwards. Moreover these switches occur in everyday conversation and that prompts advertisers to use it lavishly. Code switching, apart from providing convenience of

expressions to the bilinguals, also reflects a certain meaning and attitude of the speaker (Gumperz, 1982).

Code mixing is a technique that is identified by the advertisers as a persuasive tool in both monolingual as well as bilingual communities. The only prerequisite is that consumers should have a basic understanding of second language so that they can understand a pun or change in the meaning and thus, appreciate the code mixed advertisement. English is the predominant second language that is used by copywriters. This usage can be understood by the phenomenon of globalization, due to which geographic and cultural borders are melting, thus making English as a language of globalization (Cerdeño, 2010). To avoid the clash, copywriters use commonly accepted words of both the languages so as to cater to the bilingual minds of consumers.

3.3 Methodology

The research that has been undertaken in this study is the practical content analysis research. Aim of undertaking such a research is to determine the rate of usage manifest and form contexts of linguistic deviations used in advertising slogans and the relative significance of these linguistic deviations in relation to product specialization. The category selection for the deviations was undertaken on the basis of the accepted and widely used categorization given by Cook (1997), Indubala Pandaya (1977) and Sangeeta Sharma(2006).

For the purpose of conducting this research two product categories namely: Confectionary and Beverages, were selected. Reason behind narrowing down on these two product categories is the primary aim of the thesis i.e. studying the effect of language

used in advertisements on children`s recognition and recall of any particular brand. As already discussed in previous chapter that the children are believed to have a purchase decision and power in these two categories of products and therefore these two categories are most suitable for the study. Post selection of categories, the advertising slogans of all confectionery and beverages ads for Indian market were collected as research material from the official websites and video ads. After the complete list of slogans was prepared, a thorough linguistic analysis of these slogans was performed in order to determine the means of linguistic deviations used in each of these. These linguistic deviations were separated through a coding process, which involved allocation of a code to each of the deviation that is found. The basis for the coding was the categorization that has been done in the first part of the chapter, generated on the basis of existing literature (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Once the coding task was complete these deviations were recorded in a tabular format by making a cross table for linguistic deviations and products. This tabular data was then analyzed and on the basis of the analysis a table of attributes for exact enumeration of linguistic deviations was prepared. Since, qualitative content analysis allows the researcher to assign a unit of text to more than one category simultaneously (Tesch, 2013), the similar procedure was adopted in the content analysis done here. The table of attributes acted as a basis for the measurable evidence. From the table we could make the general statistics and consequently generate graphs for the purpose of interpreting the data. The crosstab (table: 1) that has been prepared was also tested statistically using Chi Square analysis in order to know the significance of each of the linguistic deviations for each of the product category.

3.3.1 Content analysis

Researchers have shifted their focus on finding out the functions and effects of symbols meanings and messages. Across all the disciplines of humanities and social sciences, society texts, contexts, images and interfaces are widely researched (Krippendorff, 2004). The qualitative approach used to find description of the content of any media text such as advertisements is content analysis. A lot of researchers have used content analysis as a mode to address both linguistics and extra linguistic features. The previous work on linguistics is focused on constructed text of the advertisements and its influential capacity to persuade potential consumers. On the other hand, the previous work on extra linguistics is focused on the images in advertisements and the role they play in overall messages. Content analysis is often an end in itself. It is a method to answer questions related to the content. The utility of systematic content analysis lies alone or in conjunction with other methods of answering theoretical or applied questions. These questions are majorly explored in various academic disciplines such as sociology, political sciences, economics, psychology and nutrition. Especially when the question is to explore consumer communication out of several other methods, content analysis has been widely used in evaluating various verbal and non-verbal messages created by host of sources (Yale&Gelly, 1988). To meet accepted methodological standards, as pointed out by kassarjian (1977) in "content analysis in consumer research" to objectively attain systematization, quantification, sampling and reliability. content analysis is an observational research method that is used systematically analyze the symbolic content of all forms of recorded communication that can be further analyzed at many levels such as images, words, roles, etc. Krippendorff (2004) defines content analysis "as a research

technique for making replicable and valid inferences from the contexts of their use". Dyer (1982) describes the basic assumption of content analysis by explaining the relation between the existence and frequency of certain content item in a text. Also by the intentions of the text producer and response of the audience, that is most often verbally presented. Content analysis is identification and quantification of relevant categories of content within a text and its relationship among categories. It works on this basic presumption that certain meaning can be assigned to recurrent element, whether it is verbal or visual, and this certain ascription of meaning can further reveal certain other underlying messages. Talking about advertising specifically, Krippendorff (2004) has given the types of content analysis techniques that are exercised by the researchers. He points out that analyst in advertising typically measures different parameters to identify the extra textual phenomena such as identifying the presence or absence of a concept that is indicative of the source's awareness or knowledge of the object that is referred. The frequency of occurrence of an idea in a series of messages denotes the importance of that idea, and this is something that is also one of the analyses made with the help of content analysis. In advertising messages the numbers of favorable or unfavorable characteristics attributed to an idea indicates the attitude held by the writer, the readers or the common culture toward which the object is indicated. Researchers also try to find out the intensity or uncertainty associated with the beliefs and motivations that the idea signifies by analyzing the kinds of adjectives or hedges used in the statements about that idea. They also count the frequency of co–occurrence of two concepts that indicates the strength of associations between those concepts in the minds of the audience. To sum up one can say that the application of content analysis in advertising is widespread, be it written text

such as speech, letters or articles in a form of digital or print, be it a text in form of pictures, video, films or other visual media. Both manifest and latent content of a text is analyzed with this technique of content analysis. Visible and countable components of the message are known as manifest content whereas latent content is the meaning behind the manifest content. The interpretations of the both the kinds of content might vary in depth and level of abstractions (Graneheim and Lundman, 2004). Apart from latent and manifest, content analysis is meant to also investigate both substantive and form features of a text. Substantive features refer to what is being said in the message whereas, form features refer to how it is being said (Schreier, 2012).

The types of approaches used by researchers in advertisements can be divided into linguistic and semiotic approaches. Researchers such as Leech (1966), Dyer (1982), Cook (2001), Myers (1997) are pioneers of linguistic approaches, whereas, the most popular semiotic approaches to advertising are those given by Barthes (1972), Williamson (1978), as well as Creedon and Cramer (2007) and McCracken (1993) who focused on representation of women in mass communication. Vestergaard and Schrøder's (1985) focused on sociological and less linguistic aspects of advertising. All the researchers have illustrated the wide range of techniques but there is not always a clear cut distinction between any two aforementioned approaches. To analyze the verbal aspects linguistics have dealt with identification of linguistic aspects and means used in advertising text.

Leech (1966) in his work on English–language advertising in 1960s has given the extensive repertoire of linguistic choices available to copywriters when creating advertising material. Rees (1982) elaborated how slogans have been used whereas,

Cook (1992) focused on parallelism, metaphor, metonymy, homophones, puns, parody and rhyme, and Myers (1994) included alliteration, assonance, rhyme, homophones.

3.4 Sampling Technique

The slogans from 702 advertisements of confectionery and beverages product category within Indian market were studied. The observation was done over a period of 5 years, from 2009 to 2013. The purpose and thinking behind the choice of these two product categories out of all is already discussed above.

3.5 Hypothesis Development

This study is analytical in nature with an objective of identifying and quantifying associations between slogans and linguistic deviations. For the purpose of this study the secondary data has been collected in the form of advertising slogans of the existing confectionary and beverages ads for the companies in Indian market. Keeping the objective of the study in mind following hypothesis have been formed and tested.

H1: Advertising slogans have phonological deviations present in them

H2: Advertising slogans have graphological deviations present in them

H3: Advertising slogans have grammatical deviations present in them

H4: Advertising slogans have lexical deviations present in them

H5: Advertising slogans have semantic deviations present in them

H6: Type of linguistic deviations present in advertising slogans are significantly related to the product specialization

H7: Advertising slogans uses one type of linguistic deviation more often than others

3.6 Analyses

The below table depicts the analysis of deviations done for the slogans of confectionery and beverages ads. For the convenience of the study the categories are further divided into snacks, chocolates and beverages. As the purpose of the study was to calculate the frequency of all the types of deviations(table:1) present so as to establish the relevance of these in slogans, the analysis focuses on finding out the broad six types of aforementioned deviations.

Table 1: No. of deviations in advertising slogans

Product category	Total slogans	GD	LD	SD	GrD	PD	CD
Biscuits and snacks	595	452	174	218	38	13	56
Beverages	49	19	8	28	0	0	9
Chocolate/ Candies	49	29	10	31	0	2	16
Total	703	500	192	277	38	15	81

From the above table the hypothesis H1 to H5 were tested for all the three product categories Advertising messages use all the types of deviations as one of the important tool for catching attention and seem to have an acceptance for all these hypothesis, with exceptions for H1 and H2 in Beverages category and H2 for Chocolates and Candies category, as we observe an absence of phonological deviations and graphological deviations all together in beverages ads and of graphological deviations in chocolates and candy ads. Out of total 703 advertising slogans, all the six types of deviations were

present. The majority of grammatical deviations across all the product category is one of the stirking findings.

3.6.1 Deviations in biscuits and snacks category:

 From the numbers seen in the table above, as well as from the pie chart(figure 1) below it is observed that in advertising slogans for biscuit and snacks, grammatical deviations, semantic deviations and lexical deviations takes up the majority of the chunk, whereas phonological deviations and graphological deviations are not much in number or percentage wise. Out of total 595 advertising slogans 75.96 percent slogans had grammatical deviation whereas semantic deviations were 36.63 percent. The number of lexical deviations is slightly less i.e. 29.24 percent, but it is more than phonological and graphological deviations.

Figure 1: Deviations in slogans of Biscuits and Snacks
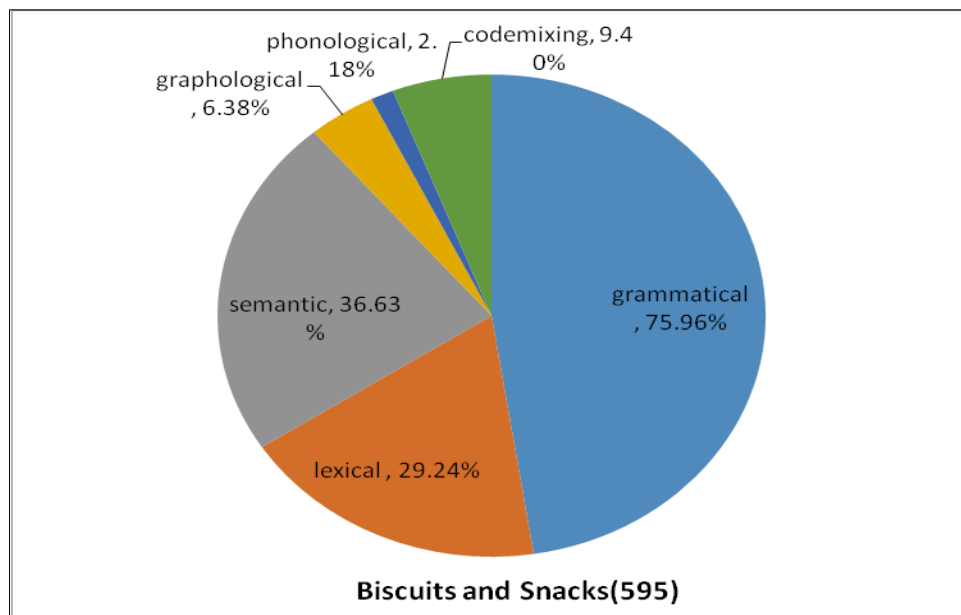
The reason that can be inferred for this could be an extra challenge for the copywriters to come up with deviated spellings and pronunciation that is within the comprehensibility of kids. Moreover, inclusion of these deviations might also increase the possibility of making slogans complex more than the desired level.

3.6.2 Deviations in beverages:

Similar to the biscuits and snacks category, here too the presence of grammatical deviations, semantic deviations and lexical deviations dominate the sample and phonological deviations and graphological deviations lack considerably. As per the figure 2 , out of 49 slogans of beverages ads, semantic deviations are 57 percent and grammatical deviations are 38.77 percent. Majority of the beverages ads consists of jingles and due to which coining of new words and rhyming becomes quite predominant. This results in more number of semantic deviations in comparison to phonological or graphological deviations. Another predominant deviation appears to be code mixing in this product category i.e. 36 percent.

Figure 2: Deviations in slogans of Beverages
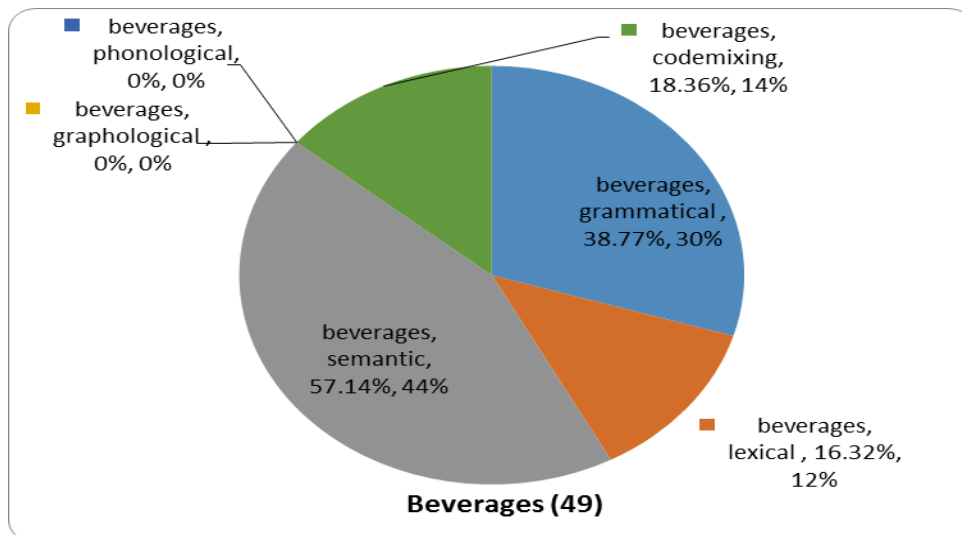
Most of the beverages ads are targeted towards not only kids but youth as well. This leads to usage of youth's language i.e. Hinglish in all the beverages ads. This observation can also be linked to the complexity of the advertisements that gets increased by using these deviations and the type of challenges these deviations provide to the copywriters.

3.6.3 Deviations in chocolates and candies:

As expected like the above two categories, since this category also aims at children the similar pie of deviations has been observed though with a slightly different mix here and there. As shown in figure 3, out of total 59 ads, semantic deviations were predominantly found carrying 52.54 percentage, whereas grammatical deviations were 49.15 percent. In this product category also the existence of phonological and graphological deviation was almost negligible. Copywriters like beverages ads, in this product category also use semantic deviations along with code mixing.

Figure 3: Deviations in Chocolates and Candies slogans
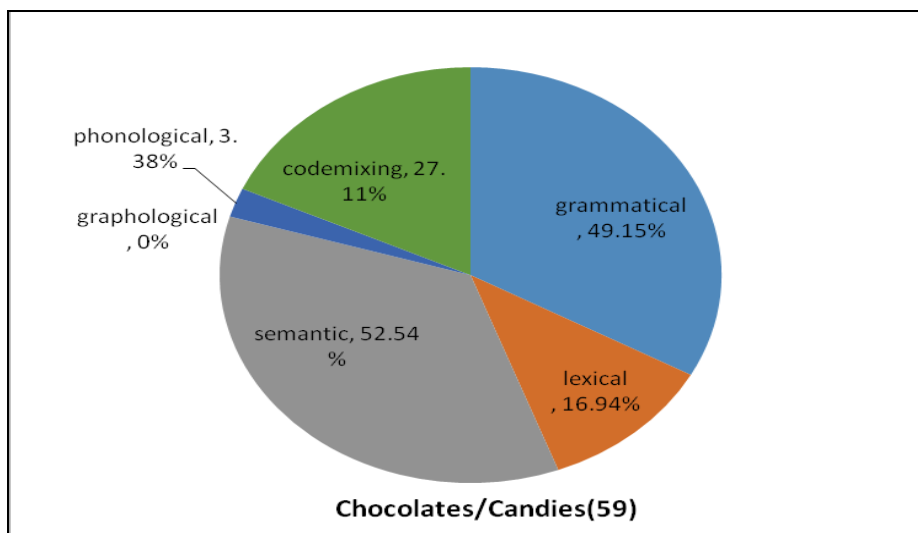
As stated earlier due to addition in the target consumers beverages ads are more oriented towards new words formations or conversions. However, it has been observed that chocolates ads are again no longer targeted specifically towards kids. These ads are freshly coming up with USPs that focus on adults too. Another reason is the dissolved boundaries of treating kids as different consumer segment. Due to their equal consumption potentials as adults, they are treated as a mature segment of consumers. This is reflected in the occurrence of semantic deviations and code mixing, that is further strengthened by the familiarity of associations created by grammatical deviations. Again the reason can be linked to the complexity as well as challenges to include these deviations in the advertisements that has been aimed for kids.

3.6.4 Category wise comparison:

By observing the category wise comparative line chart (figure:4) of cumulative percentages of deviations that are present in the tested advertisements, it can be said that the overall preferences for all the deviations move for these three categories under study. Grammatical deviations are more in number in comparison to any other deviation, reason being its ability to provide novelty by disjunctive grammar and at the same time its ability to provide similar grammatical associations, thus making the consumers relate more with the message. Another deviation that provides ample scope for novelty associations is semantic deviation across all the product categories. The fewer occurrences of phonological and graphological deviations provide a new insight in the complexity of associations these create for the young minds. Slogans are meant to capture attention in a very short span of time, out of the clutter of several another ads filled with amalgamation of several components of ads. Due to this constraint copywriters feel

restricted in the use of graphological and phonological deviations as it might easily get unnoticed especially by the children.

Figure 4: cumulative percentage of Deviations
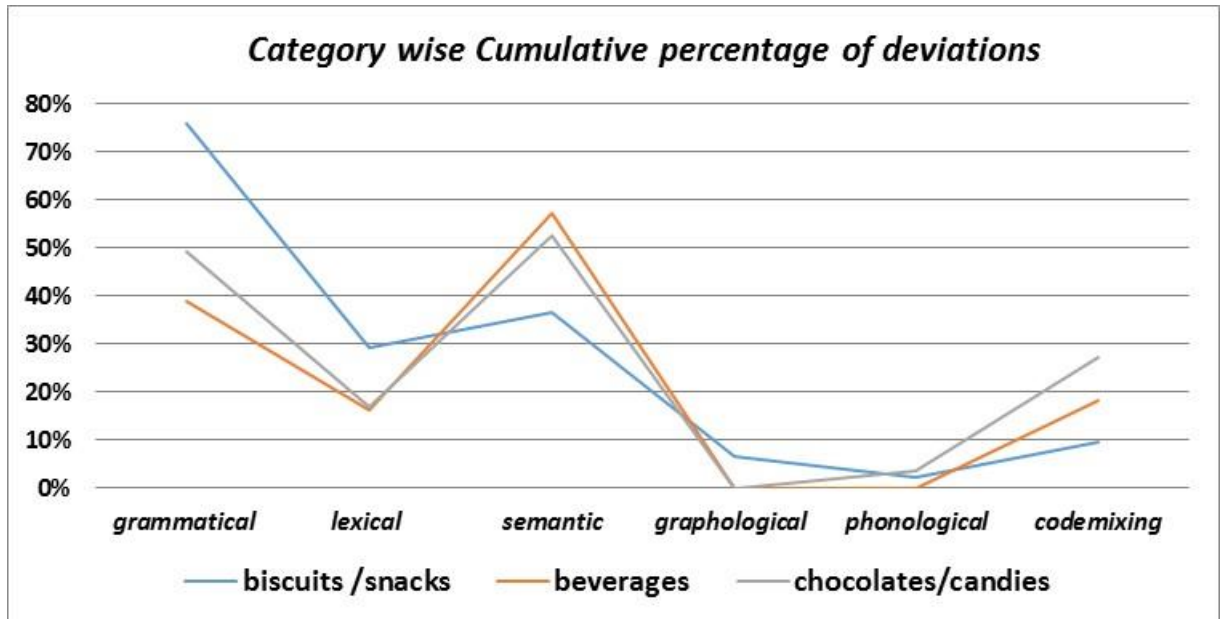
This is in general can be linked to the same target audience for all these three categories i.e. children who lack the ability to comprehend and register the advertisements that are overly complex or innovative in nature. Therefore, copywriters are keeping a check on the complexity of the advertisements within these categories in terms of using the deviations. This leads us to another belief that the level of and kind of deviations that are used by the copywriters depends to a certain degree on the target audience`s level of comprehension of the complex advertisements.

3.6.5 Relative Frequency:

As a support to the category wise observations and inferences, all the deviations in total are also analyzed, for all the three categories targeted to the children as consumers. From

the above line chart for the total deviations it can be seen that Grammatical, Lexical and Semantic deviations rule the advertisements for children and Graphological, Phonological and Codemixing deviation are being used sparsely and with care in the advertisements targeted towards children.

Figure 5: Relative Frequency of deviations
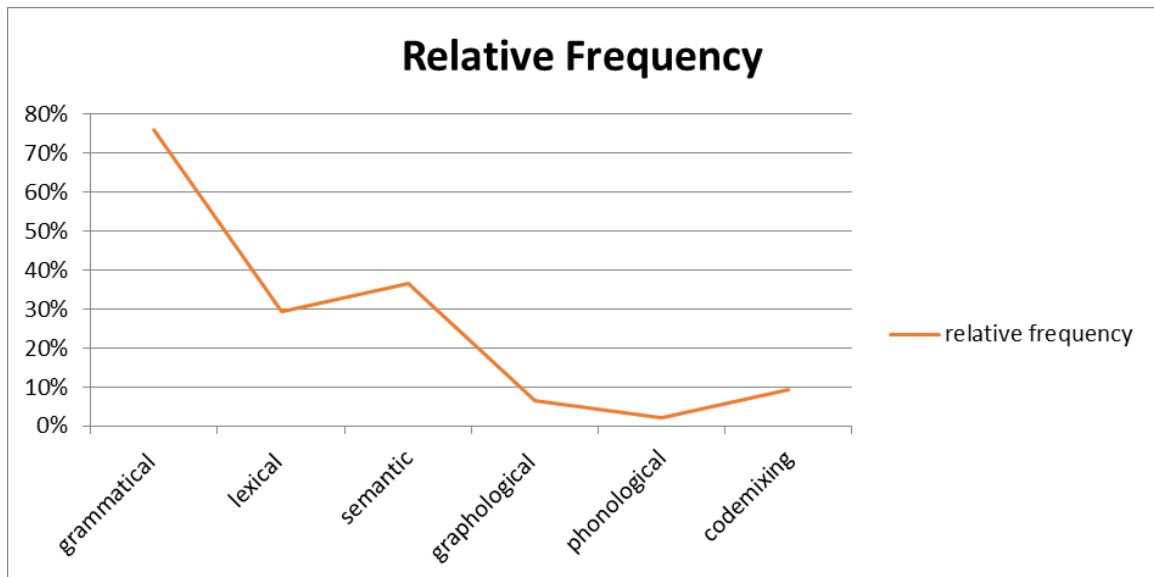
The above mentioned line graph is in accordance with the cumulative percentage observed across all three product categories. The reason for the same are already discussed.

3.6.6 Reliability of the analysis:

To test the reliability of the findings of content analysis a significance test was run. After the analyses of all deviations in the form of pie chart, a crosstab for these deviations was formed and statistical significance of the data was established. For this Chi Square

technique was used. This technique is widely used among researchers to check the reliability. With the help of this analysis, hypothesis H6 (Type of linguistic deviations present in advertising slogans are significantly related to the product specialization) was tested , and found out, as shown below in the result table, that the deviations and category are in fact significantly related.

Deviations	Chocolates	Biscuits /snacks	Beverages	Candies	Total
Grammatical	28	452	19	29	500
Lexical	30	174	8	10	192
Semantic	40	218	28	31	277
Graphological	10	38	0	0	38
Phonological	2	13	0	2	15
Codemixing	16	56	9	16	81
Total	126	951	64	88	1103

P	6.9252E-12
Chi Square	0.235537276
df	15

The chi square value and Pearson correlation value clearly states the reliability of the observations made during the content analysis techniques. These results reinforce our analysis above by labeling the numbers and percentages of deviations observed as statistically significant.

3.7 Conclusion

The study can be summarized by stating the fact that copywriters very meticulously use deviations to form catchy and appealing advertising slogans. As per the target consumers, copywriters combine the categories of deviations judiciously. The findings across the product categories reinforce the findings of the previous research that establish children

as full fledge consumers. This is very much visible in the formation and the techniques used by copywriters in the messages that are targeted towards children. However, the broad conclusion can be drawn from this study is that no advertising message is free from the usage of deviations. This establishes the relevance of studying the impact of linguistic deviations on the minds of children as consumers. As mentioned earlier impact of advertisements is long established but impact of only the language part is still under scrutiny and this study has undertaken the first step towards establishing the prevalence of deviations across the entire major product categories directed towards children.

3.8 Content Analysis of Slogans

3.8.1 Biscuits and Snacks

Product	Taglines	Deviations
Bingo	No Confusion Great Combination	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Bingo Tangle	Khao Ek Bane Anek. Khaaoge Toh Khilaaoge	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Bingo Tedhe Medhe	Har Stick Me Alag Twist	Code Mixing
Brio	It Loves You Back	Role Borrowing
Britannia Tiger Biscuit	Ab India Banega Tiger	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing
Britannia Bourbon	Bahar Se Kuch Andar Se Kuch Aur	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Britannia Cake	Achchaiyo Se Bhara	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Britannia Cookies	Tan Ko Lage Man Ko Chuye	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing, Unqualified
Britannia Good Day	Ho Gaya Re Good Day	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Britannia Marie Gold	Taki Din Chale Halka Halka	Role Borrowing

Biscuit		
Britannia Marie Gold Biscuit	Tea Time Me Jee Utho (Hindi)	Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing
Britannia Nutri Choice	Bhukh Bhagaao Kuch Health Khao	Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing
Britannia Tiger Biscuit	Tiger Roz Badho (Hindi)	Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing
Britannia Vita Marie Gold Biscuit	Kuch Apne Dil Ke Liye	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing,
Britannia Vita Marie Gold Biscuit	Fully Loaded Vita Marie,	Unqualified Comparatives
Britannia	Zindagi Me Life	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Cadbury Oreo	Only Oreo	Unqualified Comparatives
Capsico Red Pepper Sauce	Devilishly Hot	Unqualified Comparatives, Neologism, Graphological
Dabur	Celelbrate Life	Disjunctive Grammar
Dabur Honey	Apne Youth Ki Umar Badhaao	Unqualified Comparatives, Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Dominos	Hungry Kya	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Dominos	Khushiyo Ki Home Delivery	Unqualified, Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Everyday Dairy Whitener	For Great Tasting Tea	Unqualified Comparatives
Heinz Tomato Ketchup	Takes A While To Come Out	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Hippo	Bhukhe Mat Raho	
Hippo	Hippo Fights Hunger	Unqualified Comparatives
Horlicks	Family Nourisher	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Horlicks Biscuit	Toh Har Bite Ne Bhai Saaahab	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified, Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Horlicks Cookies	Rakhe Apno Ka Khayal	Disjunctive Grammar
Horlicks Foodles	The More Nourishing Noodles	Unqualified Comparatives

Kellogs Corn Flakes	Dimag Chalega Nahi Daudega	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Kurkure	Teda Hai Par Mera Hai	Disjunctive Grammar
Kwality Walls Selection	Sunday Is Not Complete Without A Selection	Disjunctive Grammar
Lays	Pal Banaye Magical	Neologism,, Code Mixing
Lays	Har Program Ka Main Food	Unqualified Comparative, Code Mixing
Lays	No One Can Eat Just One	Disjunctive Grammar
Lays	Be Dillogical	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism, Code Mixing
Macvite Digestive Biscuit	One Habit You'd Love To Keep	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Maggi	Taste Bhi Health Bhi	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Maggi Ketchup	Its Different	Disjunctive Grammar
Mother Dairy Icecream	Very Thundamental Funda	Disjunctive Grammar,Unqualified Comparatives, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Mother Dairy Ice-creams	2 Good !	Disjunctive Grammar
Mother Dairy Milk	Maa Jaisa Koi Nahi	Disjunctive Grammar
Nescafe	Shake It Make It	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Nescafe	Switch On The Best In You	Disjunctive Grammar ,Role Borrowing
Nescafe	Coffee At Its Best	Unqualified Comparatives
Parle	Life Is Delicious	Role Borrowing
Parle G	Kal Ke Genius	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Parle G	G Mane Genius	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Parle Hid And Seek Bourbon	Made With The World's Finest Chocolate	Unqualified Comparatives
Parle Hide And Seek	Tasty Itna Ki Dil Aajaaye	Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing

Parle Hide And Seek Bourbon	Turn On Fun	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Parle Milano	There Is A Secret Behind Every Milano	Unqualified Comparatives
Parle Monaco	Life Namkeen Banaiye	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Parle Musst Stix	Non Stop Khaauch Khaauch	Neologism,, Code Mixing
Smith And Jones Masala Noodles	Masala Tadka Maar Ke	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Stop Not Gols	Ekdum Bajedar	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Sunfeast Golden Bakes	Khaane Me Mast Khilaane Me Zabardast	Unqualified Comparatives
Sunfeast	Spred The Taste	Disjunctive Grammar
Sunfeast	Spread The Smile	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Sunfeast Marie Light	Eat Light Ive Light	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Sunfeast Yepiee Noodles	Its Better No?	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Sunfeast Dark Fantasy	Escape Into One	Disjunctive Grammar
Sunfeast Delicious	Perfection. Nothing Else!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Sunfeast Snacky Biscuit	Jyada Bada Jyada Karara	Unqualified Comparatives
Uncle Chips	Extra Crispy Extra Tasty	Unqualified Comparatives
Unilever Kissan	Khushi Se Khaao Khushi Se Badho, Eat Happily Grow Happily	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Vadilal Ice-cream Gourmet	Icecream Is Happinezz Condensed	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Vadilal Ice-cream Sundaes	Happiness Ka Swad	Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Amul 2009	Toasted Everywhere	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Serve Peacefully	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Split By Families	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives

Amul 2009	Pappi Pet Ka Sawal Hai	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2009	Open Now	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Mere Paas Maska Hai	Anomalous Lexical Collocation Collocation
Amul 2009	Finger Licking	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	A Butter Out Of This World	Unqualified Grammar
Amul 2009	For The Deserving	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Shar Don't Scare	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	No Discrimination	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Restores Health	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2009	Bonds Well	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Try In India	No deviation
Amul 2009	No Challenge	No deviation
Amul 2009	State Of Bliss	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Doodh Ka Kamal	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2009	Big Servings	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2009	Utterly Twitterly Delicious	Anomalous Lexical Collocation Collocation Collocation
Amul 2009	No Jam Only Butter	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	No Shortcomings	No deviation
Amul 2009	Test Daily	Graphological
Amul 2009	Tried Everyday	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Mouth This	Role Borrowing
Amul 2009	In The Centre	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Quick Bun Maska Done	Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2009	Bun Te Naan	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Amuls Never Eclipsed	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2009	Full Of Minerals	Unqualified Comparatives

Amul 2009	Chief Makhan	Anomalous Lexical Collocation Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2009	Vote For Amul (B)	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2009	Bread And Boot-Er	Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Phonological,
Amul 2009	Foolproof Fluproof Snack	Unqualified Comparatives, Graphological
Amul 2009	Big A For Small B	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2009	For All House Guests	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Belly Fix	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2009	Swayam Khao	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2009	Share 50-50	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Bhookh Worth System	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2009	Makes Breakfast Takes Off	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2009	Have A La Court	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Butter Yum	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2009	Utterly Tibet-Ally Delicious	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2009	Obscenely Good	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2009	Retire With It	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	For Posterity Not Austerity	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2009	Chai Ho	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2009	For Butter Living Conditions	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2009	Spread Butter Not Fear	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Break Fast	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	No. 1 Khana	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing

Amul 2009	Spread Butter Not Hatred	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Tiger's Food	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2009	You Just Cant Beat It	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Movable Feast	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	No Apologies	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2009	Ready To Serve	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	For Early Morning	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Amulicka Sherawat	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	Starring Amul Kapoor	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	Bite On It	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Kickstart Your Day	Role Borrowing
Amul 2010	Don't Extort , Buy	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Amul Zatak Taste	Neologism,, Code Mixing
Amul 2010	Reserved For All	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Center Of Power	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Taste Of Victory	Role Borrowing
Amul 2010	Great With Chinese	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Never Off Limits	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2010	India's Anand	Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing
Amul 2010	Scandalously Good	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2010	Above The Table	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Forget The Bridge, Try The Fridge	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Don't Grease Palms, Butter Them	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Tasty Dish Karna Hai Finish	Code Mixing
Amul 2010	100% Original	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2010	Of The People	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Fully Natural	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified

		Comparatives
Amul 2010	For Lawa Abiding Citizens	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2010	Lips Cant Resist It	Role Borrowing
Amul 2010	The Makhanical Wonder	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	Head Of Taste	Role Borrowing
Amul 2010	Slips Right Through	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Swarnim Makhan	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	The Cool Butter	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Uncommonly Good	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2010	Symbol For Butter	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Menu Pasand Hai	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Indo Pack	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	Respected Everywhere	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Taste Of Victory	Role Borrowing
Amul 2010	Sabka Common Strength	Code Mixing
Amul 2010	In Dabunn	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	Prepare Anything	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Item No-1	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Lots Of Scoops	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	For All Genders	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Demolish It	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Predictable The Best	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2010	Don't Spill It	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Equal Protions For All	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Indian Butter League	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	Robutter	Anomalous Lexical Collocation

Amul 2010	In Leak -Proofs Packs	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Cover Bread , Not Your Face	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Governs Every Breakfast Table	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2010	Dishquiya	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	First Class	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Apply Daily	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Lo Lo	Neologism
Amul 2010	Better Halved	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Fix Breakfasts Not Matches	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Overflowing With Goodness	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2010	Master Piece	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Day And Night	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Hungry For More	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2010	Veer Towards It	Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2010	Breadminton Champ	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	Satisfying Bhook	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2010	Lick IT	Phonological
Amul 2010	2 Gud	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2010	Eaters Prospers Cheaters Don't	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2010	Pack Always Open	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexica
Amul 2010	Franchisees Wanted	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological
Amul 2010	Total Relaince	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2010	Building Block	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Party Favorite	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	Access Easily	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2010	No Tears . Only Taste	Unqualified Comparatives

Amul 2010	Fully Yellow	Disjunctive Grammar, Functional
Amul 2010	Bun Appetit	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	You'll Lava It	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	India's Snaxman	Unqualified Comparatives, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2010	Always The Boss	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Pandas 2 Ur Taste	Unqualified Comparatives, Neologism
Amul 2011	For Marathon Breakfasts	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	No-Telly Butterly Delicious	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2011	2 Gud To Resist	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2011	Lok Priya Makhan	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2011	Divided Daily	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Dutch Treat	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Powering Team Sauber At Formula 1	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Dada Of Butters	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2011	Always Included	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Utterly Baccha-Ly Delicious	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2011	Daily Custom	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Post On Toast	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2011	We Love Amma-Ul	Neologism
Amul 2011	Fab Daily Intake	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2011	Food For Thought	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2011	Raid Everyday	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Followed Passionately	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2011	Daily Hotspot	Disjunctive Grammar

Amul 2011	Chakhovic	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2011	Enhances Performances	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Always Highly Rated	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2011	Break Bread Not Roads	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Amul Most Wanted	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2011	Enjoy Amul	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Unrivelled Taste	Disjunctive Grammar, Phonological
Amul 2011	Fixed Meal	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Eat These Words	Role Borrowing
Amul 2011	For Eves And Adams	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Don't Cower Get Power	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2011	Value For Money	No deviation
Amul 2011	Be A Ghulam To Its Taste	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing
Amul 2011	Royal Snack	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2011	I Store. Ipac, I Had	Disjunctive Grammar, Functional
Amul 2011	Get The Edge	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	No Substitute	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Revitalises Everyone	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2011	Real Gold	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Makes Cents Always	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Yellow. Not Blue	Disjunctive Grammar, Functional
Amul 2011	Easily Found	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Natalie Butterly Delicious	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2011	Brings Families Together	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	One.And Only	Disjunctive Grammar, Functional
Amul 2011	Take Advantage Of It	Disjunctive Grammar

Amul 2011	The Big Bose Of Butter	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2011	King Of Food Times	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Delivered Easily	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	No Opposition	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Unforgettable	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Bengal Loves Trinamul	Role Borrowing, Phonological
Amul 2011	Dig Theinstead	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	For Eaters. Not Meters	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Ungli Chaat Ke	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Serve To House Guest	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Makhan Flick	Neologism, Code Mixing
Amul 2011	Super Butter	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2011	For Lords And Ladies	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2011	Wake Up Now	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Big Daddy Of Butters	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2011	Mit Jaye Gham	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Always Served	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Grand Opening	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Yeddy Steady Go	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2011	One And Only	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Life Of The Party	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Taste Of Freedom	Role Borrowing
Amul 2011	Preity Good	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2011	For Young And Old	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Home Grown Taste	Unqualified Comparatives

Amul 2011	Fast Food	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Age No Bar	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2011	Food For Thought	Role Borrowing
Amul 2011	Slice Butter No Uttar	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2011	Butter Pradesh	Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2011	Foren Khaao	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2011	In Your Budget	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Billions Of Yellow Buttering Particles	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Undercover. Overbread	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2012	Never Replaced	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Apna Hissar Lo	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Makhan To Hai	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Attracts Crowd	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Midnight's Childrens Snack	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Why This. Try. Buy This	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	For Friends Only	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	For Business And Economy	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Maska Served Daily	Disjunctive Grammar, Phonological, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Revolutionary Taste	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Race For It	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Lips Love It	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2012	Most Wanted	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Utterly Bachchan-Lu Delicious	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Evergreen Butter	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified

		Comparatives
Amul 2012	Masses Ka Maska	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	For All Virs	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	For Extra Power	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Member Of All Partied	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Loved By 10/10 Punjabis	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Utterly Bu-Telly Maul	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Adarsh Butter	Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Ab Chain Ki Saans Le Sakte Hain	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Son-Rise Snack	Unqualified Comparatives, Anomalous Lexical Collocation,,,
Amul 2012	Spreads Its Web	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2012	Never Sult-Rated	Disjunctive Grammar, Phonological
Amul 2012	Amul Angle E For It	Disjunctive Grammar, Phonological
Amul 2012	Aapka Naashta Aapke Hath	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Nirbhaya Bano	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	High Flyer	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Great Scor!Its Good	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	For Public Good	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Utterly Punterly Delicious	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Sweet Slice Of Mine	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Irreplaceable	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	For All Big B' Days	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives

Amul 2012	For Booming Breakfasts	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Bread Ke Ooperwala	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Midknight Snack	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Phonological
Amul 2012	Golden Celeberation	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	King Disher	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Unlimited Fun	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Aseem Swad	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Unaimously Amul	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Local Favorite	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	King Of Butter	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Amul-A-Yum Butter	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Iska Pack Lao	Phonological, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Rail-Ly Good	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Don't Sena To It	Disjunctive Grammar, Phonological, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Butter Of Substance	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Don't Char. Just Eat	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Amulympics	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Wonderachiever	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological
Amul 2012	Rave About It	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Midnight Snack	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Cook Dishes It Out	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Comeback For It	Graphological
Amul 2012	For Instant Joy	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Always Safe	Unqualified Comparatives

Amul 2012	Utterchelsea Butterchelsea Delicious	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Always Affordable	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Bowls You Over	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2012	Bread Runner	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2012	Don't Slander , Just Slather	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Spanish Buttermada	Neologism
Amul 2012	T- Time Snack	Disjunctive Grammar, Phonological
Amul 2012	Supersonic Snack	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Unanimous Choice	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Lakhs Of Likes	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2012	Millions Love It	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Tasty, Na?	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	The Stuff Inside	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Yeh Khao Not Gutka	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Imprez Everybody	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2012	An Indian Production	
Amul 2012	Makes Your Day	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Share With Neighbours	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Pitched Just Right	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	For The Parivar	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Proudly Represents India	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Targetted Daily	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Creamed Daily	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	National Obsession	Unqualified Comparatives

Amul 2012	Amul Allied To Bread	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2012	Korbo Lorbo Eatbo	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Dine With Narine	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2012	Cant Be Remade	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Utterly Burfely Delicious	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Enjoy Raw Or Cooked	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Buttter Vutter	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2012	Keh Ke Loonga	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Start With Amul End With Paas	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Super Hit	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Superbly Crafted	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2012	Bonf With Bread	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	India Digs It	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	For Sunrise And Dark Nights	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Dam Good	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2012	Bread Pe Makhan Mar	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Always In Form	Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Love All	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Respected Everywhere	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Santan Bun Khana	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2012	Formula For Butter	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Kicks And Licks	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	Switch To It	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	For All Super Moms	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives

Amul 2012	Wives Love It	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	For Buttter Or Verse	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2012	Always On Track	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2012	See Red. Eat Yellow	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	For French Toasts	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Open Daily	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2012	Daily Lickable Food	Disjunctive Grammar, Phonological
Amul 2012	Power Pak	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Nayi Disha Nayi Dishes	Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	A Kallis Apart	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Mood Hai	Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Chief Maska	Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Chased Everyday	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2013	No One's Immune To It	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Lok- Priya Everywhere!	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Really Fast Food!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Har Party Ka Favorite!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	AAP Ki Khatirdari Ke Liye!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	On Track Always!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	For All Ages!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Misbah Ka Bhi Haq Hai!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Yellow, Not Black!	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives

Amul 2013	Eat Yellow Not Red!	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2013	Tehalka Macha De!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Magnus Opus!	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2013	For Gyan& Dhyan	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Butter Bhi Maska Bhi!	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Butter Ratna !	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Builder Of Strength	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2013	Master Butter!	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Subah Bhi Shami Bhi!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Make Your Move!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Yeh Cheez Badi Hai Mast Mars!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Say Yahoo To It!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Sabko Diya!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Prince Of Butters!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Neologism
Amul 2013	Dig This Gold!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Have Some Groovy -Tea!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Can Be 'Spoonfed'	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2013	Run.Chase.Eat	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Evergreen Everyellow!	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Graphological
Amul 2013	Nine & Dine!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous

		Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Cyrusly Good Taste!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Graphological
Amul 2013	Bhookh Leggie? Makhan Khao!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Open Now!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Our Best Dishes With You!	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Hay! Maska Khao!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Indisputably Good!	Illogical, Neologism
Amul 2013	Captive Audience!	Disjunctive Grammar, Functional
Amul 2013	Never Out Of Commission!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Mo'hawk More Butter!	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Always Affordable	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Odds-On Favorite!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Dabba-Ly Delicious!	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	For Birthday Dishes!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Indian At Heart	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2013	Morning Advanitage!	Disjunctive Grammar, Functional, Neologism
Amul 2013	Breakfast Fixer!	Disjunctive Grammar, Functional Conversion
Amul 2013	Festive Spirit!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Every Indian's Right!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Paesa Vasool!	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological
Amul 2013	For Fiscal Fistness!	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing

Amul 2013	Maestro Of Maskas!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Graphological, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Try This Filling!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	For Patriots Only!	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2013	Syriasly Dellicious!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Graphological
Amul 2013	Well-Bread!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Utte₹Ly Butterly Deliciou$	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Graphological
Amul 2013	Utterly Bolt-Erly Delicious!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	The 'Peel' Good Butter!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Our Navy Deserves Butter!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Wholly Indian!	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2013	For Express Breakfast!	Disjunctive Grammar, Functional Conversion
Amul 2013	Have With Morn Tea!	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2013	Never In Poor Taste!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Khaavo Mari Sathe!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Stands Its Gounds!	Disjunctive Grammar, Functional Conversion
Amul 2013	Feeds Millions!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Unifies India!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Maska-Le!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Always Economical!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	The Perfect Mid-Day Meal!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Bid En Butter!	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2013	Khansama Ka Favorite!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Code

		Mixing
Amul 2013	Drool Over It!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Tasty In Any Language!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Saalan Khana In Telangana	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Eat Bar Bar!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Easy Decision!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Unlock The Taste!	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2013	Laden With Taste!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Makes Life Roshan!	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Makes Everyone Smile!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Jolly Good Show!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Bhaag For It!	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Classified As Tasty!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	The Tastiest O-Disha!	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Graphological
Amul 2013	Smooth Slick Cool	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2013	For Jawani & Deewani!	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Always Top Feeded!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Brit & Butter	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Never Renamed!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Scares Others Butters Away!	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing, Neologism
Amul 2013	In Good Hands!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Prized Possession!	Disjunctive Grammar, Functional Conversion
Amul 2013	For Consenting Adults!	Disjunctive Grammar

Amul 2013	Kids Love It!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Reigning Favorite!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Part Of India's DNA	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2013	For Youth Power!	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2013	Ut-Taar-Ly Butterly Delicious!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Women Love It!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Nadal Kha Dal!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Bet On It!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	No Conflict Of Interst!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Don't Say Neigh!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	High Tea For IT!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Phonological
Amul 2013	Code Name For Butter!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Always In Store!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Opens M :)Uths!	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological
Amul 2013	Loved And Trusted!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Duniya Ko Khila Denge!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Classic Dish!	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2013	Integral Part Of India!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Never Obstructed!	Ellipses, Illogical
Amul 2013	Fix Meals Not Matches!	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2013	Bite It!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Shar-If You Want	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological
Amul 2013	Utterly Debut-Erly Delicious	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Reds Love Yellow!	Disjunctive Grammar, Role

		Borrowing
Amul 2013	Judged As Supreme!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Lunch Breakfast Tea!	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological
Amul 2013	4 Dishes 1 Maska!	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Mamu-L Try Amul!	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Butter Fingers!	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2013	Extra Helping!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Always Cheered, Never Jeered!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Have Over Chit-Chat!	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Amul 2013	Protect Your Share!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	No Challenger!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Say Han Han To It!	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Happy Butterday Sachin!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Always In Never Out!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Pride Of Gujrat!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Makes Sree Shaanth!	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological
Amul 2013	Jadeja, Khaate Ja!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Sher's Khaana	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Smoothes Things Over!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Built To Last!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Original Tastes Best!	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Amul 2013	Creates A Buzz!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Best Is Yacht To Come!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Sirf Dekhne Ka Nahi Khaane Ka!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation

Amul 2013	Yelo!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Not Korean, Indian!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Legendary Taste!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Neologism
Amul 2013	For Butter Relations!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Favorite Yellow!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Mete Out Equally!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Never Loses Support!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Craze In India!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Rome Delivered!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Shikhar, Lick Kar!	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Hand Of Food!	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2013	The Aurthur Side Of Bread!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Cream Works!	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Hooked To It!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Bests Every Test!	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Never Rejected!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Bowls You Over!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Tabled Daily!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical Functional Conversion
Amul 2013	Spin On Bread!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Butter For Life!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Makes Daniel's Day	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation

Amul 2013	Utterly Tata-Ly Delicious	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Maskemeron!	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological
Amul 2013	Asli Power ISS Me Hoti Hai!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Not Just For VVIPS!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Oui-Tterly Butterly Delicious!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Amul 2013	Select Fairly!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Wins Every Bout!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Rome With It!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	In Harbhojan!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Match Fixed For Bread!	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2013	All Girls Love It!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	No Bans. Only Buns!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Foodies Butter Intake!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Isse H-Azam Karo!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Har Balak Ke Liye!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Kamal Ka Butter!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Serb It!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Disappears Fast!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Arresting Taste!	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Amul 2013	Amulstrong & Addictive!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological

Amul 2013	Utterly Beta-Ly Delicious!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological
Amul 2013	Not For Khar-Ab Neighnours!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Millions Of Devotees!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Utterly Bijlee Delicious!	Disjunctive Grammar, Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Graphological, Code Mixing
Amul 2013	Not For Trespassers!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	No Hate. Only Love!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Followed Faithfully	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Amul 2013	Cool Down!	Disjunctive Grammar
Amul 2013	Heat 'N' Eat!	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological
Amul 2013	Not For Mcps!	Disjunctive Grammar, Graphological
Amul 2013	Respected Everywhere!	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing

3.8.2 Beverages

Product	Taglines	Deviations
LMN	LMN LMN LMN	Disjunctive Grammar
7UP	Dil Bole I Feel Up!	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
7 Up	Dil Bole I Feel Up	Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Appy Fizz	Cool Drink To Hang Out With	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Boost	Boost Is The Secret Of Our Energy	Disjunctive Grammar
Bisleri	The Sweet Taste Of Purity	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Coke	Open Happiness	Role Borrowing
Coke	Bewajah Khushiyan Lutaao, Coke Pilaao!	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Coke	Thanda Matlab Coca Cola	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives

Fanta	Zyada Fanta Zyada Masti	Unqualified Comparatives
Frooti	Why Grow Up	Disjunctive Grammar
Frooti	The Fresh 'N' Juicy Mango Experience	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Frooti	Mango Frooti Fresh N Juicy	Disjunctive Grammar
Gatorade	World's No 1 Sports Drink	Unqualified Comparatives
Jumpin	Peeke Sab Bole Mmmm	Role Borrowing
Jumpin	Sip Sip Me Boing Boing	Neologism, Code Mixing
Kissan Juice	Josh Bachpan Ka	Disjunctive Grammar
Kraft Tang	Tang Acchai Ko Rakhe Taaza	Unqualified Comparatives
Kraft Tang	Aaja Rang De	Disjunctive Grammar
Limca	Pyaas Badhao	Disjunctive Grammar
Limca	Doobo Taazagi Me	Role Borrowing
Limca	Lime N Lemoni	Neologism
Maountain Dew	Darr Ke Aage Jeet Hai	Unqualified Comparatives
Minute Maid	Made With Nature	Disjunctive Grammar
Minute Maid Pulpy Orange	Its Surprisingly Pulpy	Unqualified Comparatives, Neologism
Mirinda	Pagalpanti In 3 Flavors	Neologism, Code Mixing
Mirinda	Pagalpanti Bhi Zaruri Hai	Neologism
Nibooz	Ek Sum Asli Indian	Unqualified Comparatives
Pepsi	Change The Game	Disjunctive Grammar
Pepsi	Oh! Yes Abhi!	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Pepsi	Yehdil Mange More	Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Real Fruit Juice Dabur	Real Is Happy	Role Borrowing, Functional
Redbull	Give You Wings	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing,
Slice	Ab Ras Barsega	Unqualified Comparatives
Slice	Amaasutra	Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Sprite	Clear Hai	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing

Sprite	Seedhi Baat No Bakwaas	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Tripicana	Now Breakfast Shall Win	Role Borrowing
Tzinga	Wake Up	Disjunctive Grammar
Yakult	The Kiss Of Good Health	Role Borrowing
Bournvita	Taiyaari Jeet Ki	Disjunctive Grammar
Bournvita	Do You Have Borunvita Confidence	Neologism
Bournvita	Tan Ki Sakti Mann Ki Sakti	Role Borrowing
Bru	Bru Se Hoti Hain Khushiyaan Shuru	Role Borrowing
Go Cheese	100% Cows Milk	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Horlicks Drink	Horlicks Milao Doodh Ki Shakti Badhaao	Role Borrowing, Code Mixing
Complan	Taller Stronger Sharper	Unqualified Comparatives
Complan	I Am Complan Boy	Role Borrowing

3.8.3 Chocolates and Candies

Product	Taglines	Deviations
Alpenleibe Mango Filz	Mango Ka Tingu	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism, Code Mixing
Alpenleibe Stick Pack	Masti Ka Rocket	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Alpenliebe	Lalach Aaha Lap Lap	Neologism
Alpenliebe	Jee Lalchaye Raha Na Jaaye	Unqualified Comparatives
Alpenliebe Éclair	Chocolaty Laila	Neologism, Code Mixing
Alpenliebe Jelly	Just Jelly	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Babalooo	Face Gym	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Babalooo	Decision Gum	Disjunctive Grammar, Role Borrowing
Big Babool	Bade Kaam Ki Cheez	Disjunctive Grammar, Phonological
Big Babool Triply	Its Different In The Middle	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified

		Comparatives
Boomer	Big Big Boomer	Unqualified Comparatives
Bourneville	You Earn It	Disjunctive Grammar
Bourneville	You Don't Buy Baournville, You Earn It	Unqualified Comparatives
Cadbury Gems	Raho Umarless	Unqualified Comparatives, Neologism, Code Mixing
Cadbury Gems	Rangeen Panda Ki Rangeen Pasand	Unqualified Comparatives
Candyman	Kuch Bhi Karega For Candyman	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism, Code Mixing
Center Shock	The Electric Gum	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Centerfresh	Zubaan Pe Rakhe Lagaam	Unqualified Comparatives
Centerfresh Active	Active Rahooo	Phonological, Code Mixing
Centerfresh Oceon	Ocean With Cooling Crystals	Unqualified Comparatives
Centerfruit	Kaise Jheebh Laplaplapai	Disjunctive Grammar, Neologism
Centerfruit Mingle	The Mila-Jula Gum	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Chocoleibe Eclairs Plus	Kara De Taa Tha Thaiya	Disjunctive Grammar
Cloremint	Dobara Mat Poochna	Disjunctive Grammar
Cloremint	Chaba Daba Ke	Disjunctive Grammar
Coffee Bite	Cofee Or Toffee	Disjunctive Grammar
Coffee Bite	Bachchon Ki Coffee, Badon Ki Toffee	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Cremfills Alpenleibe	What A Surprise	Disjunctive Grammar
Dairy Mil Silk	Have You Felt Silk Lately	Role Borrowing
Dairy Milk	Shubharrambh	Disjunctive Grammar
Dairy Milk	Meethe Me Kuch Meetha Ho Jaaye	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Dairy Milk	Kuch Meetha Ho Jaaye	Disjunctive Grammar
Eclairs	Get Lost	Unqualified Comparatives

Eclairs	Chocolate Ka Meetha Bomb	Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing
Five Star	Jo Khaaye Kho Jaaye	Unqualified Comparatives
Gaolgappa	Goli Mein Golgappa	Unqualified Comparatives
Halls	Thandi Saans Ka Blast	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing
Hazmola	Hazmola Audio Candy	Unqualified Comparatives, Code Mixing
Hazmola	Kare Har Khana Complete	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Hazmola Mintmast	Mint Ke Andar Twist	Code Mixing
Kitkat	Kit Kat Break Banta H	Code Mixing
Kitkat	Have A Break Have A Kitkat	Disjunctive Grammar
Lotte Caramilk	Rich Taste Of Real Milk"	Unqualified Comparatives
Lotte Choco Pie	Cream Filled Biscuits Dipped In Delicious Choco.	Unqualified Comparatives
Lacto King Lotte	So Tasty, You Just Can't Stop Eating It	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Lotte Eclairs	Soft Smooth Éclair	Disjunctive Grammar
Mango Bite	Goli Mast Boli	Role Borrowing
Melody Parle	Melody Itni Chocolaty Kyon Hai?	Neologism, Code Mixing
Mentos	Dimag Ki Batti Jala De	Role Borrowing
Mentos	Mentos Khao Dimag Ki Baati Jalaao	Unqualified Comparatives
Mentos	Think Hatke	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Minto Fresh	Bole To Ekdum Fresh	Disjunctive Grammar, Code Mixing
Minto Fresh	Unsually Cool	Disjunctive Grammar, Unqualified Comparatives
Munch	Crunch Machao	Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Munch	Mera Crunch Mahan	Unqualified Comparatives, Anomalous Lexical Collocation
Nestle Bar One	Kafi Hai	Disjunctive Grammar

Parle Xhale Candy	Simply Chillicious	Anomalous Lexical Collocation, Code Mixing
Polo	Mint With A Hole	Disjunctive Grammar, Illogical
Snicker	Don't Stop	Disjunctive Grammar

3.9 References

1. Ardilla, A. (2005). Spanglish: an anglicized Spanish dialect. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 27(1), 60-81.

2. Arens, W. F. (2004). Contemporary advertising.

3. Arens, W. F., & Boyee, C. L. (1994). Contemporary Advertising.

4. Barthes, R. (1985). The Responsibility of Forms Critical Essays on Music, Art, and Representation.

5. Berlyne, D. E. (1971). Aesthetics and psychobiology. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts

6. Cerdeño, T.G. (2010). The use of foreign words as a persuasive tool in marketing discourse: the cultural stereotype of global English in Spanish print advertising. Retrieved from http://eprints.ucm.es/12622/1/G%C3%B3mez_Cerde%C3%B1 o.pdf

7. Cook, G. (1997). Language play, language learning. ELT journal, 51(3), 224-231.

8. Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. Canadian Modern Language Review, 57(3), 402-423.

9. Coulmas, F. (2005). Changing language regimes in globalizing environments. International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 2005(175-176), 3-15.

10. Creedon, P. J., & Cramer, J. (2007). Our conclusion: Gender values remain, inequity resurges, and globalization brings new challenges. Women in mass communication, 275-282.

11. Crystal, D. (1990). Linguistic strangeness. Margaret Brigdes (éd.): On Strangeness, Swiss Papers in English Language and Literature, 5, 13-24.

12. Dyer, G. (1982). Advertising and communication. London: Fontana

13. Featherstone, S. (2001). Everyday rhetorics. In Speaking Your Mind: Oral Presentation and Seminar Skills. Pearson Education.

14. Goddard, A. (2002). The language of advertising: written texts. Psychology Press.

15. Goddard, C. (2011). Semantic Analysis: A Practical Introduction. Oxford University Press

16. Graneheim, U. H., & Lundman, B. (2004). Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness. Nurse education today, 24(2), 105-112.

17. Greenwald, A. G., & Leavitt, C. (1984). Audience involvement in advertising: Four levels. Journal of Consumer research, 581-592.

18. Guangyi, F. (1992). Variation Rhetoric [M]. Wuhan: Hubei Education Press

19. Gumperz, J. J. (1982). Discourse strategies (Vol. 1). Cambridge University Press.

20. Hughes, G. (1987). Words in time. Blackwell

21. Kassarjian, H. H. (1977). Content analysis in consumer research. Journal of consumer research, 8-18.

22. Krippendorff, K. (2004). Reliability in content analysis. Human Communication Research, 30(3), 411-433.

23. Kvetko, P. (2001). Essentials of modern English lexicology. Retaas.

24. Lanz Vallejo, L. (2011). The change in Spanish-English code as creativity language and presentation of the image in tweets written by Tijuana. Retrieved from http://www.cucsh.uan.edu.mx/jornadas/modulos/memoria/lanz_ca mbio_codigo.pdf

25. Leech, G. (1969). A linguistic guide to English poetry. London: Longman

26. Leech, G. N. (1972). English in Avertising: A Linguistic Study of Advertising in Great Britain (English Language Series). London: Longman.

27. Leech. (1966). English in advertising, by geoffrey leech. London: Longman.

28. McCracken, E. (1993). Decoding women's magazines: From Mademoiselle to Ms. Macmillan.

29. Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook. Sage.

30. Myers, G. (1997). Words in Ads. Hodder Education.

31. Ogilvy, D. (1985). Ogilvy on Advertising.

32. Pandya, I. H. (1977). English Language in Advertising: A Linguistic Study of Indian Press Advertising. Delhi: Ajanta Publications (India): distributors, Ajanta Books International.

33. Pfaff, C. W. (1979). Constraints on language mixing: intrasentential code-switching and borrowing in Spanish/English. Language, 291-318.

34. Pollio, H. R., Smith, M. K., & Pollio, M. R. (1990). Figurative language and cognitive psychology. Language and Cognitive Processes, 5(2), 141-167.

35. Rees, N. (1982). Slogans. George Allen & Unwin.

36. Ren, C. H. I., & Yu, H. A. O. (2013). Language deviation in English advertising. Studies in Literature and Language, 7(2), 85-89.

37. Sally, W., & Ashby, M. (2001). Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.

38. Sharma, S., & Singh, R. (2006). *Advertising: Planning and Implementation*. PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd..

39. Schreier, M. (2012). Qualitative content analysis in practice. Sage Publications.

40. Shie, J. S. (2005). Master Tropes in English Magazine Advertisements: A Semiotic Topic-Vehicle Approach. Taiwan Journal of Linguistics, 3(1), 33-64.

41. Tesch, R. (2013). Qualitative Types: Analysis Typ. Routledge.

42. Todorov, T. (1982). Theories of the Symbol, trans. C. Porter (Ithaca: Cornell UP, 1982), 36-59.

43. Vasiloaia, M. (2009). Linguistic Features of the Language of Advertising. Economy Transdisciplinarity Cognition, (1), 294.

44. Vestergaard, T., & Schrøder, K. (1985). The language of advertising. Oxford: Blackwell

45. Wales, K. (2001). A Dictionary of Stylistics. Harlow: Pearson Education.

46. Widdowson, H. G. (2000). On the limitations of linguistics applied. Applied linguistics, 21(1), 3-25.

47. Williamson, J. (1978). Decoding advertisements (Vol. 4). London: Marion Boyars.

48. Xiangjin, T. (2002). English Word-spelling Deviations and Their Semantic Meaning [J]. Foreign Language Education, 6, 008.

CHAPTER 4

IMPACT OF ADVERTISING SLOGANS ON CHILDREN

"A point of view can be a dangerous luxury when substituted for insight and understanding" - Marshal McLuhan

4.1 Introduction

Language may not be a determinant of our thought process but it certainly is a catalyst of our perceptions and memory that strongly affects the ease with which we perform our mental tasks. If anything corresponds to the words available in our minds it definitely makes it easier to make conceptual distinctions. Several researches have also established the fact that people recall things more easily if the things correspond to easily available words and phrases (David Crystal, 1987).

Children as consumers are a predominant section of consumer segment. Advertisers are always in dire need to promote their products to them. Children as impressionable individuals not only have a potential to pester the purchase decisions but they also have capacity to become very loyal consumers in long run. Research has highlighted the usage of different mechanisms that advertiser use to capture the young minds at a very early stage such as fun action emotional, product appearance and highlighting the product features (Barcus, 1980; Krunkal, 1992). To catch them young, copywriters play with words to lure them with innovative disruptions that not only boggle their minds but also have indelible impact. This long lasting impression is created by devising catchy slogans that captures the attention effortlessly and have longer retention.

Slogans are one of the key three elements of brand identity along with brand name and logo. Since the name and logo are not that very explanatory in terms of communicating brand in literal sense, slogans play a very important role in conveying to the consumers the real essence of brand and hence providing a distinct and important identity to the brand. Slogans are so important in advertising that majority of ads do have them as an integral part. Slogans have now become a prime vehicle for advertisers to convey all the key characteristics of a brand. This consequently helps to enhance, brand image and awareness through recognition, recall and favorable associations. As highlighted by Dahlen and Rosengren (2005) & Keller (1998), slogans can serve as hooks or handles in capturing the meaning of a brand and in relaying what makes the brand special. Keller (1993) also highlighted in his study that "slogans are designed to attract consumer attention, crystallize brand positioning, increase advertising memorability, and improve brand affinity". The importance of slogans is certainly realized by the advertisers and manufacturers, thus it will not be an exaggeration to find firms spending millions of money for the development of effective slogans and their promotion (Edwards, 2011). Mathur and Mathur (1995) in their research found out that effective slogans add panache to the firm value. This added value provides an edge to the advertising campaign, product cycle and also business cycle (Kohli, Leuthesser and Suri, 2007)

With the increasing popularity of slogan, increases the need to link them fittingly with brands (Lamons, 1997), this can be seen as an inherent weakness in the advertising industry and require immediate attention to overcome. Traditionally slogans have been presented in the form of jingles basis on the belief that jingles help create the memory and recall of brands better. However an experimental study by (Yalch, 1991) has proved

that jingles help no better than simple slogans. Corder (1986) reviewed several recall studies and commented that exposure plays an important role in identification of slogans and also found that shorter and simpler slogans were learned more quickly than complex ones. Bradley and Meeds (2002) on the similar lines conducted experimental study by manipulating syntactic complexity of the slogans while retaining their meaning and found that these manipulations does not affect the understanding of the slogans. They have found that recognition was better for simpler slogans but recall was better for complex ones, indicating that the complexity of slogans might have initiated deeper processing and thus leading to enhanced memory. These findings are in sync with the elaboration likelihood model (Petty, Cacciopo, & Schuman, 1983), signifying that keeping slogans simple does not necessarily enhance their memorability. McQuarrie& Mick (1999) and Lagerwerf (2002) advised that slogans may get appreciated better if their complexity is increased through figurative device or introducing deliberate ambiguity. Going through all these studies on importance and effectiveness of slogans, it is seen that there still don't exist any guideline or methodology to construct effective slogans. There is a scope for experimentation for finding out possible effects of linguistic deviations on recognition and recall, which in turn would be helpful in shaping up effective slogans.

Moving back to research subject children as consumers, it is noticed that this segment packs a significant power in terms of money for the sellers. Simmons Market Research Bureau realized this existence of monetary power in children`s segment and went on to start 'The Kids Study' in 1990. Baxter (1991) notices that this study has been initiated to make available consumption and media behavior of children`s segment akin to their adult counterpart. Piaget`s theory of cognitive development (1952) has been the theoretical

foundation for majority of the research studies focused on examining effects of advertising on children. These studies have used the Piaget`s theory as a basis for the purpose of comprehension and forecasting of children′s responses. All of these studies have largely focused on two pathways: cognitive considerations and impact of advertising on consumer socialization (Raju & Lonial, 1990). Although some marketing studies involving children include some form of attitude measurement, they are usually in combination with or are secondary to a cognitive-related query (e.g., Brucks, Goldberg & Armstrong, 1988; Hoy, Young, & Mowen, 1986) or focus on methodological considerations in measuring children′s attitudes (e.g., Macklin, 1988). Development or interrelationship of children′s attitudes toward the advertisement (Aad), the advertised brand (Ab) and likability of slogans has received a very limited attention in the advertising literature with just few good studies like Roedder, Sternthal, and Calder (1983), who investigated the consistency between attitude toward the brand and choice behavior among 8 to 13 year-olds. Looking at the research conducted for adults as the subjects, which indicates that Aad is one of the factors that influences brand attitude and purchase intention (Cox & Locander, 1987; Gresham & Shimp, 1985; Moore & Hutchinson, 1985; Thorson & Page, 1989), it seems important and highly relevant to focus the study on effects of Aad for children as subjects as well. According to Gardner (1981), understanding the role of Aad in the formation of brand attitudes has important implications for the attitude formation process. Given the explosion of research in the past decade dealing with adults and the attitude for advertisement-attitude towards brand-Purchase Intention relationship, one would expect to see an almost parallel stream of research dealing with children.

4.2 Theoretical Background

In today`s modern times the prime focus of advertising literature is on the advertising creativity. In spite of all the research focus, only a small number of empirical researches have been completed and looking at the research environment all together it is noticeable that the complete understanding of the advertising creativity and its effect on the effectiveness of advertisements is still missing (Till and Baack, 2005). As stated by Stone, Besser and Lewis (2000) "in all, advertising creativity research is limited, abstract, and fairly recent in suggesting that this advertising dimension deserves additional investigation". In another dimension of research on the effectiveness of advertising, in terms of its ability to induce awareness of the brand, it has been perceived that the creativity in advertising plays an important role in the creation of memory nodes in the cognitive structure of the consumers that deals with the awareness of brand. Creative ads provide measurable values to the brand and it does result in better brand awareness, recall and positive purchase intentions (Brian D till and Daniel W Back, 2005). Awareness of an advertisement or a brand can be further broken into two sub parts, Brand Recognition and Brand Recall. Both recognition and recall are techniques that explore memory for awareness. Recognition is a direct technique whereas recall is an indirect technique. Recognition can be seen as an addressal of the memory node that deals with recollection of being exposed to a particular advertisement before, without any emphasis on knowhow about the details of the advertisement. However, recall focuses on the memory node that enables one to recognize the brand name, without being told, on exposure to the advertisements of the brand.

The recall and recognition of any brand are also linked with the strength and value a brand possess in the minds of the consumers. However, brand strength and brand value predominantly vary across segments of consumers (Haugtvedt, Leavitt, and Schneier, 1993; Farquhar, Han & Ijiri, 1992; Keller, 1993b; Lokenand John, 1993). A lot of researchers have established brand preferences and loyalty as a benchmark for the strength and value a brand holds. In this regard, the prerequisite for creating brand preference and loyalty is to generate brand awareness. The ability to generate recall is, undoubtedly, one of the main factors related to the strength of a brand (Haugtvedt, Leavitt, and Schneier, 1993). Throughout the day consumers are exposed to several brands and this brand information is perceived by adopting different approaches depending upon the opportunity to have different associations.

Ali Shamsollahi, Mirahmad Amirshahi & Farhad Ghaffari (2014) have identified the effects of level of involvement with the product category, as the central variable in understanding consumer behavior, and level of processing of information provided in an advertisement on consumers' brand recall. Thus, it is propounded that brand recall is a very strong determinant of advertising effectiveness because it (1) determines the importance of decision-making (Hollebeek, Jaeger, Brodie, and Balemi, 2007; Russell-Bennett, McColl-Kennedy, and Coote, 2007), (2) increases consumer connection with a brand (Kressmann et al. 2006), and (3) affects attitude toward purchase (Fill, 1998; Wilkie, 1994) that eventually influences memory for a brand (Radder and Huang, 2008).

Thus, to communicate a brands' premise, to draw attention and to enhance consumer memory for the brand it is very crucial for a firm to design its marketing activities carefully. One among such activities is use of taglines and slogans. To make the taglines

catchy and memorable copywriters use one predominant technique i.e. incongruity. This is used to draw customers' attention where they are under no compulsion to pay attention to the taglines. This incongruity is achieved by use to various rhetoric and deviations. Ample amount of literature supports the fact that moderate incongruity i.e. schema incongruity can result in an increase in attention to a stimulus leads to a need to resolve the inconsistency (Hastie, 1980, 1981, 1984; Mandler, 1982; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). Use of deviations allow consumers to pay attention to the taglines subconsciously. Once the attention is caught then consumers themselves feel a need to know the entire intended message of the advertisement. Schema incongruity should not be completely congruent or incongruent so as to create the need because extreme congruity does not attract attention and extreme incongruity creates frustration (Berlyne, 1960, 1967). Copywriters coin new creative ways to craft messages that are neither completely unrelated to the consumers' schema, not do they use the clichéd, very obvious messages. This mid-way enhances the memorability, thus leading to more brand recall and awareness.

The relevance of increased or better brand recall and memorability has been realized by lot of researchers undoubtedly, however this increased recall also varies across various segments of consumers. Marketers as well as researchers are today interested in knowledge, opinions, attitudes and behaviors of today's young consumers (Baxter, 2011). Children not only are full fledge consumers in themselves but they are also the key drivers of disguised consumption. Their role in consumer environment as a predominant member has been long back established as well as perused by the researchers, marketers and manufacturers. In the same regard, society in large is also becoming greatly

concerned with issues pertaining to children. This concern has made children more vocal in sharing their opinions and researchers too are focusing on collecting responses from children directly about their opinions, attitudes and behavior (Scott, 1997). Various official government agencies across the globe, now acknowledge children as respondents and have developed and implemented special surveys for them. Researchers need to consider the cognitive, communicative and social skills that are still developing and this affects different stages of the question answer process (Borgers, Leeuw, Hox, 2000).

The extent to which children are indeed vulnerable to advertising is an empirical question that is best answered through empirical research. Therefore, researchers while dealing with children also ascribe to the research on children's cognitive development. Most of such research has taken into consideration the children's understanding of television advertising because this is the most frequent medium through which children are exposed to advertising (Roberts, Foehr, and Rideout, 2005).

4.2.1 Development stages and its relevance for understanding children as respondents

Children develop and learn in stages, therefore finding a single way to understand children is highly improbable. In this regard a global classification of the developmental stages would be apt and researchers have highly relied on Piaget's (1929) cognitive development. This theory focuses on fundamentals stages through which a child progresses on his/her way to cognitive maturity. Piaget (1981) propounds that along with this cognitive maturity children also grow emotionally. This emotional maturity or affectivity includes emotions and feelings as well as high- order drives such as "the will".

Piaget (1981) has glaringly pointed the "indissociability" of the cognitive and affective components of an individual's behavior.

Children's intellectual development evolves in a fixed sequence of stages. These are: (a) sensory- motor intelligence, from 4 till 7-8 years, (b) preconception thought, from 2 till 4 years, (c) institutive thoughts, from 4 till 7-8years (d) concrete operations, from 8-11 years and (e) formal operations that develops from 11- until 15-16 years of age. The following tabular representation is an overview of affective and development occurring from birth to 16 years.

Table 1: Piaget's (1981) Perspective on the Interrelationship between Cognitive and Affective Development.

Cognitive Stage	Cognitive Development	Affective Stage	Affective Development
Sensorimotor		Hereditary organizations	Instinctive drives and inborn affective reactions such as affection, anger, fear, selfishness, and curiosity
Substages 1-111 Ages birth-6 mo	Reflexes and instincts present at birth	First acquired feelings	Joy, contentment, sadness, disappointment
Substages 1-111 Ages 6-9 mo	Coordination of effort toward some desired goal.		
Substages IV-VI (Ages 9-24 mo.)	Object permanence Objectification and spatialization of causality People acquire the same characteristics as objects Imitation of others Consciousness of self and own activity	Affects regulating intentional behavior	Affective decentration
Preoperational (Ages 2 - 7 years)	Language development Symbolic play Development of object schemes, classification, and generalizations	Intuitive affects and the beginning of interpersonal feelings	Beginning of affective stability and duration Development of interpersonal schemes "Seminormative" feelings
Concrete Operations (Ages 7-12 years)	Conservation (of objects/matter) Transitivity	Normative affects	Conservation of values and feelings Autonomous moral evaluations Acts of "will" emerge Moral reciprocity
Formal Operations (Ages 12-16 years)	Hypotheticodeductive reasoning appears Reflection/metacognition	Idealistic feelings and formation of personality	Juridical feelings Idealistic feelings

Question answer process is crux of every research that is centered on gathering attitudes, opinions and preferences. Cognitive growth of children has undoubtedly influence over

this question answer process. The various cognitive developmental stages certainly effect their ability to answer the questions. Till the age of 4(developmental stages 1 &2), language and thought process is not adequately developed, therefore it is highly inept to interview children of this age group. Observational method is best suited to understand and study this age group. From 4 years onwards children can be interviewed. Use of qualitative and short structured interviews is recommended to study this age group. Children from 4 to 7-8 age groups can be studied with the help of very simple questions. As children in this age span are formulating basic required skills of verbal comprehensibility, wording becomes extremely important. Also children at this stage are highly incapable of answering depersonalized and indirect questions (Scott, Brynin & Smith, 1995)

During the concrete operational stage i.e. from 8-11 years, language develops and reading skills are acquired. Classification and temporal relations (self vs. others) also become the integral part of their realms of understanding. From 8 years onwards children can be surveyed and structured interviews can be used as a tool to gauge their responses. However for questionnaire design researchers need to take utmost care in terms of using only simple ambiguity free language (de leeuw and otter, 1995). The developmental stage from 11 to 15 is crucial in the development of the formal thoughts. Not only cognitive functioning (formal thinking, negations, and logic) is well developed, children also acquire social skills. One can use standardized questionnaires similar to those for adults.

The understanding of cognitive development, undoubtedly helps researcher in understanding and designing the study accordingly. However, children and their attitude towards a brand and their behavior as consumers can be gauged in a more polished

manner with the additional considerations of Fishbeins (1967) behavior intention model that explicitly explains relation between attitude and behavior. This theory states that attitudes can be conceptualized in three form of expressions: cognitive (beliefs), affective (feelings), and conative (behavior) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The most prevalent means of measuring children's attitudes appears to be an affective measure, either in terms of "preferences" (e.g., Gorn & Florsheim, 1985; Roedder- John & Lakshmi-Ratan, 1992) or "liking" (e.g., Clarke, 1984; Hoy et al., 1986; Neelankavil et al., 1985; Roedder et al., 1983; Roedder- John & Lakshmi-Ratan, 1992).

On the basis of Piaget's cognitive development theory and Fishbein's model the following methodology was adopted for the study.

4.3 Methodology

The study takes children as consumers as the study subject and aims at studying and explaining the impact of advertising slogans on children's ad recall, brand recall or product identification. Likability of taglines by children and their understanding of slogan as an integral part of advertisement is also tested to further validate the findings. The study further examines the effect of age and gender on ad recall and product identification. To carry out the mentioned study the quasi-experimental design has been used. The experiment was carried out in non-equivalent controlled group setting. The study subjects has been selected keeping special care for their age and verbal ability and this was kept in mind while operationalizing the concepts. Both gender and year of education surely influence the item nonresponse and internal consistency on a large number of different scales

When working with children as subjects there is always a chance that the measurement techniques used creates a bias in the results obtained (Macklin, 1983; Roedder-John, 1986), therefore the measurement techniques that has been proved successful with adult subjects, as used in the earlier Aad studies, may not work with the children subjects. This means that the measurement techniques cannot be adopted directly but require appropriate modification in order to suite the subjects. Moreover since the subjects are further divided into two sub groups, 8-12 years of age and 13-16 years of age, the adopted techniques have to be made suitable for both the sub groups distinctly.

Past researches on advertising slogans have involved only a limited number of slogans in laboratory settings with students as respondents. To increase the external validity of research, this study uses actual slogans rather than fictitious ones and these slogans are randomly selected out of extensive list of slogans studied. This study also aims at measuring the likability of slogans on real world respondents rather than student subjects in laboratory. Any study on these lines have not been done in past and due to this constraint a unique design is adopted and data is collected in two phases.

4.3.1 Phase I

In phase I, the actual list of brand slogans of confectionery and beverages was created that was used in phase II for testing the variables in phase II. Only confectionery and beverage ads were selected to eliminate the effect of extraneous variable such as purchase intentions and purchase power. As likability depends on familiarity and positive brand associations, and also the predominant source of ad exposure in India is television, therefore television ads from year 2009 -2013 were selected. Creativity was one major characteristic that was considered in content analysis, and also it enhances the odds of

other characteristics such as improved recall, improved comprehensibility and product appropriateness. It has been already established in the content analysis chapter that copywriters use various deviations as a tool for creativity. Therefore, content analysis was done measuring the frequency of various linguistic deviations such as phonological, graphological, lexical, semantic, grammatical and code mixing. To randomly select the treatments for control and experiment group for phase II, the brands with multiple slogans during these four years of span were identified. Following which a step was taken to eliminate the treatment biases, and impact of another extraneous variable i.e. exposure of slogans. To do so, top 5 confectionery and beverages companies that spent most of their budget on advertising in India, were identified (Cadbury India Ltd, Nestle India Ltd, Lotto India Corporation Ltd, Candico India Ltd, Coca-Cola India, PepsiCo India) (source- Euro monitor India). Out of 44 products by these companies, the slogans for these products were tabulated year wise and out of which eleven slogans were selected on the basis of ratio of linguistic deviations found (as already mentioned in previous chapter). Slogans that were advertised during 2009-12 were considered as treatment for experimental group and the slogans that were advertised during 2012-13 were considered for control group. The control group was exposed to the new ads.

4.3.2 Phase II

The objective of phase two was to measure the impact of linguistic deviation of slogans on children's brand recall and product identification. The Slogans selected through quota sampling in phase I were used as treatment for experimental group. The process followed in phase I reduced the respondent fatigue so as to test the impact of slogans. In first visit respondents were given detailed instruction about the experiment. They were ensured of

confidentiality and help was provided in case they seek clarification. For the control group new slogans were shown to respondents in classroom setting followed by questions dealing with ad identification, brand recall, likability of slogans, and relevance of taglines in ads, views about persuasive nature of advertising. No other component of the advertisement was shown. After completing the phase one with new slogans, same set of children participated in experimental group. For the experimental group old slogans were shown on the screen one by one and similar questions were asked to the respondents. The entire session took 14 minutes for younger group of children and 11 minutes for elder group of children. It was also monitored by the researcher that respondents should not consult each other for the responses.

4.3.3 Phase III

Objective of phase III is to validate the findings for the population as a whole so that all the findings can be generalized for the Indian market as a whole. India as a market, of children as consumers is very huge and geographically diversified. To conduct an experimental study on the whole population of children in Indian market is practically infeasible. Further it proves to be very resource and time consuming, to go for sampling from across the Indian market in order to reach conclusive results that can be generalized for the entire population under study i.e. Indian market. So far for the study it has been assumed that taking random samples from CBSE schools of Pilani boarding schools, which has students coming from different regions of India, the representativeness of the sampling is being taken care of. However generalizing the findings from a small sample of 100 students as discussed above, and assuming these as valid for the entire Indian market doesn't seem very convincing. Since it was not possible to go for collection of

larger samples from every region of India, Monte Carlo Simulation technique provides a rather feasible solution to this generalization problem. On the basis of collected data for a sample of 100 children the simulation exercise has been done at the end of each of the analysis, based on Monte Carlo Bootstrap methodology to generate 1000 such samples covering a total of 100,000 respondents. Since the original sample was considered as representative of the diversity inherent in Indian market it can be said with some certainty that the simulated data is also representative of the diversity as well as the size of Indian market. Therefore all the previous tests that were performed on the collected sample, were performed once again for the generated sample data. This time results were obtained for all the 1000 samples combined with the bias correction and standard errors. This provides us with the findings as to how conclusive our results are for the entire population. This in turn reinforces our generalized findings for the Indian market, making the study rather more convincing and helpful for practical purposes.

4.4 Sampling Technique

For the purpose of above mentioned study random sampling technique was employed. The students as subjects were selected at random from 6 C.B.S.E schools of Pilani. The selected sample of students was a representative sample for all the children as consumers in Indian marketplace. The representativeness of the sample was ascertained by going through the background of all the subjects and selecting the schools only from Pilani region. Pilani is selected mainly because it is a hub for families from different regions of India due to availability of academic job opportunities and majority of the C.B.S.E schools in Pilani are boarding schools the children come from all over India to study. The prime reason for selecting only C.B.S.E schools was to eliminate the impact of external

variable i.e. economic condition of parents, which can act as a determinant of the purchasing power of their children and ensures the affordability of television sets at their homes. This is because C.B.S.E schools are deemed to be affordable to the parents which are above a certain financial standard. Checking for this financial condition of the family is very important for the purpose of our study since this has direct impact over the buying behavior of the children as consumers and also indicates the purchasing power of children for confectionary and beverages segments. Out of 6 schools of Pilani, the sample was further shortened by randomly selecting two schools through a chit system and after the consent of the administrator students were contacted in classroom settings.

4.4.1 Respondents` characteristics

Total of 100 respondents were taken at random for both the genders. Out of these 100, gender-wise 55 were boys and 42 were girls and age-wise 47 were from age group of 7-12 years and 53 were from 13-16 years of age. The criteria for selecting these two age groups is based on the foundation of Piaget's cognitive and affective stage theory.

4.5 Hypothesis Development

The study here is experimental in nature and objective is to conduct a survey through which quantifiable responses can be collected from the research subjects i.e. children as consumers. The purpose behind collecting quantitative data is to observe and test the impact of different variables and factors in order to reach the findings that can help in validating the aforementioned impact and importance of linguistic deviations for the purpose of branding. Following that simulation has been performed to generalize the aforementioned findings for the Indian market as a whole. Keeping these aim in mind following 20 hypothesis have been developed.

4.5.1 Product Identification

As per Piaget's theory, children develop their classification abilities by the age of 7. Children's ability to identify a product through an ad has already been tested by researchers. However, product identification without any other aid and repetitive exposure has not been measured yet therefore, to observe the impact of unfamiliar and familiar slogans on their product identification and also to test the effect of two factors age and gender we developed the following four hypothesis in relation to product identification:

H1: Age of respondents and level of product identification for old advertising slogans with deviation are significantly associated.

H2: Age of the respondents and level of product identification are not associated after replacing old advertising slogans with new ones.

H3: Gender of the respondents and level of product identification for old advertising slogans with deviation are significantly associated

H4: Gender of the respondents and level of product identification are not associated after replacing old advertising slogans with new ones

4.5.2 Brand Recall

There are two types of recall, aided and unaided recall. To observe the effect of both familiar and unfamiliar slogans on brand recall of children and also to test the impact of age and gender on these dependent variables we have developed the following four hypothesis in relation to brand recall:

H5: Age of respondents and level of brand recall for old advertising slogans with deviation are significantly associated.

H6: Age of the respondents and level of brand recall are not associated after replacing old advertising slogans with new ones.

H7: Gender of respondents and level of brand recall for old advertising slogans with deviation are significantly associated.

H8: Gender of the respondents and level of brand recall are not associated after replacing old advertising slogans with new ones.

4.5.3 Likability of Slogans

To test the overall comprehensibility, the most commonly techniques involve recall and playback of advertised message, their liking for the slogans was tested. Another reason behind considering the likability as one of the variables is to seek the relevance of creativity in the increase of likability towards slogans. (Kover, Goldberg and James, 1995) investigated the link between purchase intent, commercial liking and creativity. The role of creativity and advertising messages has been already established in the previous section of the study, however, to eliminate the treatment bias and to further reinforce the importance of incongruity in advertising messages the following hypothesis was formulated. Among the most basic tenets of this research is that younger and older children differ in their understanding of advertising's essential purpose, as well as how they draw upon this knowledge in responding to specific advertisements.

H9: All the eleven old slogans were equally considered creative by the respondents.

H10: All the eleven new slogans were equally considered creative by the respondents.

4.5.4 Relevance of Slogans

It is however already established that children gain preliminary understanding of ad intentions by the time they reach 8 years of age (Donohue, Henke, and Donohue, 1980; Macklin, 1987). Studies have suggested that once children understand the persuasive purpose of advertising they become more skeptical and are then capable of resisting its appeal (Federal Trade Commission, 1978; Rossiter and Robertson, 1974). Therefore, to test whether respondents possess basic understanding of the advertisements and its various components, relevance of slogans in an ad was inquired. Among the most basic tenets of this research is that younger and older children differ in their understanding of advertising's essential purpose, as well as how they draw upon this knowledge in responding to specific advertisements. Therefore, to establish the understanding of respondents understanding of advertisements the following hypothesis were formulated.

H11: All the old slogans used for the experiment were perceived as important part of the respective advertisements

H12: All the new slogans used for the experiment were perceived as important part of the respective advertisements

4.5.5 Simulation of Sample data

The purpose of this study is to validate the test statistics of original sample for the entire population through bootstrapping simulation technique. Therefore the following hypothesis have been constructed for the purpose of performing validity tests:

H1: Significant association between age of respondents and level of product identification for old advertising slogans stays valid for the entire population.

H2: Insignificant association between age of the respondents and level of product identification after replacing old advertising slogans with new ones stays valid for the entire population

H3: Significant association between gender of the respondents and level of product identification for old advertising slogans with deviation stays valid for the entire population.

H4: Insignificant association between gender of the respondents and level of product identification after replacing old advertising slogans with new ones stays valid for the entire population

H5: Insignificant association between age of respondents and level of brand recall for old advertising slogans with deviation stays valid for the entire population.

H6: Significant association between age of the respondents and level of brand recall after replacing old advertising slogans with new ones stays valid for the entire population.

H7: Insignificant association between gender of respondents and level of brand recall for old advertising slogans with deviation stays valid for the entire population.

H8: Insignificant association between gender of the respondents and level of brand recall after replacing old advertising slogans with new ones stays valid for the entire population.

4.6 Data Collection

The data for the study was collected through questionnaire. This questionnaire was developed based on the design that was adopted from the American Kids study survey (*http://www.gfkmri.com/Products/AmericanKidsStudy.aspx*). Questions concerning product identification were kept simple and the responses were taken in simple yes/no only. To collect brand recall responses children were given four choices and they had to select one, this design was adopted so as to ensure that the responses were not by chance. The responses were further tabulated as 'correct' for correct brand recall and 'incorrect' for different other brand recall. The questions asked for likability and relevance of taglines were rating based and the responses were measured on a 5 point Likert scale. The survey was designed to ensure the comprehensibility of questions for the kids as all the questions were designed using nominal and ordinal scales. Children tend to use satisficing technique (response sets) when they find questionnaire uninteresting or beyond comprehension (Holaday & Turner-Henson, 1989). In order to maintain the interest level of respondents in answering the questions, it was ensured that it included catchy font size and interactive manner, also special attention was paid to the language of the questionnaire and the surveyor in order to avoid any bias in the responses because of communication gap.

4.7 Analysis

The variables in the study are specific to the study only and hence there is very less knowledge about the parameters of these variables. Furthermore, the sample size is low, sample distribution is unknown and the quality of the data is also unknown. Therefore, to test the statistical significance of the hypothesis developed, nonparametric methods or tests have been utilized throughout the study. Nonparametric methods do not rely on the estimation of parameters (such as the mean or the standard deviation) describing the distribution of the variable of interest in the population. Thus utilization of these methods for significance testing makes the testing process free from assumption biases (Hal R Varian, 1983).

There are many nonparametric tests available in the literature however the ones that suited our study best were Chi Square Test, Phi- Coefficient Test, and Contingency Coefficient Test, Sign Test, Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test and Friedman Test.

4.7.1 Chi Square Test

Chi-square is a statistical test commonly used to compare observed data with the data we would expect to obtain according to a specific hypothesis. Test tells us does the number of individuals or objects that fall in each category differ significantly from the number expected and is this difference between the expected and observed due to sampling variation, or is it a real difference. The chi-square test is always testing, what scientists call the null hypothesis, which states that there is no significant difference between the expected and observed result. An important form of chi square test that is useful for the study is Pearson`s chi squared test. This test largely gives us the information about the goodness of fit between the observed and expected data and also assesses whether paired

observations on two variables, expressed in a contingency table, are independent of each other.

4.7.2 Phi Coefficient Test:

It is performed as a measure of correlation when both the variables are naturally dichotomous as is the case for few of the variables in our study. Phi coefficient can be seen as a particular case of product moment correlation. If we proceed by assigning values 1 and 0 to the two categories in our data then the product moment correlation is phi coefficient. After calculation of phi coefficient, it is tested for the statistical significance and from the significance test results, strength of association between the two categorical variables in study can be determined.

4.7.3 Contingency Coefficient Test:

This test is performed to determine the magnitude of association between two categorical variables in the study. It is also called Pearson contingency coefficient. For computation of this test statistic between two variables, both has to be nominal and categorized.

4.7.4 Friedman Test:

It is used to detect differences in treatments across multiple test attempts. The procedure involves ranking each row (or block) together, then considering the values of ranks by columns. Following which the test statistic is observed to see if any of the parameter is consistently ranked higher or lower or are the rankings across all the parameters consistent.

4.7.5 Sign Test:

This test is used to study the effectiveness of any program or treatment implemented on the same group of subjects. In this study the test is performed to check for the effectiveness of the treatment of different slogans on the product identification and brand recall for the same set of subjects. In this test the before and after treatment scores have been obtained for all the slogans and then the test statistic is observed to accept or reject the null hypothesis.

4.7.6 Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test:

Wilcoxon signed rank test is similar to the sign test explained above. This test is also performed to compare two related samples to check for any differences.

To analyze the relationship between product identification and slogans and also to see the impact of factors such as age and gender, chi square test was performed individually for eleven treatments. To get a cumulative response, the responses for all the eleven treatments were aggregated. To perform this aggregation 70percent was considered as a benchmark to accept the response as positive. All responses below this benchmark were taken as negative.

For the purpose of testing the impact of slogans on children's brand recall and also to see influence of factors i.e. age and gender, a separate as well as same aggregation method was used and data was tabulated. These aggregated responses were analyzed further by performing non-parametric tests such as chi-square test, phi- coefficient test, and contingency coefficient test of significance.

To measure children's likability for the slogans and their understanding in terms of relevance of slogans, responses for all the treatments were analyzed separately by using Friedman test (Two way Annova) for both the groups.

To test the before and after effect of slogans on ad identification and brand recall, sign test and Wilcoxon signed rank test was performed on the above mentioned aggregated data.

For the purpose of testing the results for the population as a whole Monte Carlo simulation technique has been used. Since the collected data is non-parametric and nothing can be said about the distribution of the collected data, the bootstrapping method has been used for generating large sample data of 100,000 respondents.

4.7.7 Monte Carlo Simulation:

The Monte Carlo method of simulation is based on the generation of multiple trials to determine the expected value of a random variable. One important assumption that we make here is that each of the variables (subjects) are independent of each other i.e. the value (response) of one does not have any effect on another.

The general scheme of Monte Carlo simulation is as follows:

- Random values for responses of each of the subject are generated.
- The expected response is the average of the series of generated random values for each subject.
- Similar process is followed to get responses for as many subjects as intended.

Given the above process of simulation the biggest question that comes to the mind is how to generate random values. In simulation literature there are number of ways given for

generation of random values depending upon the level of information available regarding the parameters of the existing data. In our case there is no knowledge regarding the distribution and mean of the collected data and therefore the best suitable technique for the generation of random values or in layman best suitable simulation technique is Bootstrapping.

4.7.8 Bootstrap Methodology:

The bootstrap statistic (Efron 1981, 1982; Mooney and Duval 1993) is a nonparametric resampling technique which makes no distributional assumptions and may be used for estimation and hypothesis testing. Bootstrapping is an efficient way to ensure that analytical models are reliable and will produce accurate results. It can be used to test the stability of analytical models and procedures found throughout the statistical techniques including descriptive, means, crosstabs, correlations, regression and many others.

Efron (1979) introduced Bootstrap approach as a generalized version of Jackknife method, i.e. it correctly estimate the bias and variance even in those cases where Jackknife fails. Bootstrap is an apt approach of estimation when random sampling is done from an unknown probability distribution. In bootstrap approach, the available sample is treated as the population and a Monte Carlo-style technique is used for random sampling from it. This is done by randomly drawing a large number of resamples of size n from this original sample of size n with replacement. So, although the generated sample or resample has all the data points from the original sample, it may contain few of the data points more than once and not contain some data points at all. Therefore, each of these resamples is unique and differ randomly from the original. Also because each of resamples have slightly different combination of data points the test statistic somewhat

differs for each of them. The basic claim of bootstrap method is that the relative frequency distribution of the obtained test statistics is an estimate of the sampling distribution of original test statistic.

How to perform bootstrapping: In this case since the probability distribution of the sample or generally called the sampling distribution is not known, thus the type of bootstrap technique we use is termed as non-parametric bootstrapping. Efron and Tibshirani (1993) provides the below step by step procedure to follow for performing non-parametric bootstrapping:

- Construct an empirical probability distribution, Fn, from the sample by placing a probability of 1/n at each point, x1, x2, $\cdots$, xn of the sample. This is the empirical distribution function of the sample, which is the nonparametric maximum likelihood estimate of the population distribution, F.

- From the empirical distribution function, Fn, draw a random sample of size n with replacement. This is a resample.

- Calculate the statistic of interest, Tn, for this resample, yielding Tn*

- Repeat steps 2 and 3 B times, where B is a large number, in order to create B resamples. The practical size of B depends on the tests to be run on the data. Typically, B is at least equal to 1000 when an estimate of confidence interval around Tn is required.

- Construct the relative frequency histogram from the B number of Tn*'s by placing a probability of 1/B at each point, Tn^{*1}, Tn^{*2}, . . . ,Tn^{*B} . The distribution obtained is the bootstrapped estimate of the sampling distribution of Tn. This distribution can

now be used to make inferences about the parameter Ө, which is to be estimated by Tn.

Bootstrapping advantages:

- Quickly and easily estimate the sampling distribution of an estimator by re-sampling with replacement from the original sample.

- Create thousands of alternate versions of a data set for a more accurate view of what is likely to exist in the population.

- Reduce the impact of outliers and anomalies, helping to ensure the stability and reliability of your models.

- Estimate the standard errors and confidence intervals of a population parameter such as the mean, median, proportion, odds ratio, correlation coefficient, regression coefficient and more.

4.8 Results and Discussion

4.8.1 Analysis of relationship between slogans and Ad identification

To examine this relationship under the influence of age, hypothesis 1 and 2 were tested. The summary of analysis of the above relationships testing hypothesis 1 and 2 is as follows

Table 2: Age Wise Analysis

Old Advertising Slogans	Pearson Chi-Square Coefficient	6.297
	Phi Coefficient	0.251
	Contingency Coefficient	0.243
New Advertising Slogans	Pearson Chi-Square Coefficient	2.532
	Phi Coefficient	0.159
	Contingency Coefficient	0.157

Sample size = 100, degrees of freedom = 1 and 5% level of significance

The above findings suggest that that there is significant relationship between age of respondents and level of ad identification when old advertising slogans were used, however, when the new advertising slogans were shown to the respondents it was found that there exist no significant relationship between age of respondents and level of ad identification for new advertising slogans. This suggests that children who are currently in concrete operational stage (8-12Yrs), when shown the advertising slogans from their operational stage (2-7Yrs) are not able to identify the slogans as comparable to their elder counter parts. This correlates with Piaget theory of Cognitive development that a child's Conservation and transitivity in the affective realm allow the child to form and hold stable and consistent attitudes at a level previously unattainable.

To examine this relationship under the influence of gender, hypothesis 3 and 4 were tested. The summary of analysis of the above relationships testing hypothesis 3 and 4 is as follows

Table 3: Gender Wise Analysis

Old Advertising Slogans	Pearson Chi-Square Coefficient	3.887
	Phi Coefficient	0.197
	Contingency Coefficient	0.193
New Advertising Slogans	Pearson Chi-Square Coefficient	0.026
	Phi Coefficient	0.016
	Contingency Coefficient	0.016

Sample size = 100, degrees of freedom = 1 and 5% level of significance

The above findings suggest that there exists a significant association between gender and level of ad identification when old advertising slogans were used, however, when the new advertising slogans were shown to the respondents it was found that there exists no significant relationship between gender of respondents and level of ad identification when new advertising slogans were shown. This coincides with the recent research that suggests that men and women process information differently (Hill & Motes, 1995). Women require more information in comparison to men for processing information (Laroche, Saad, Cleveland & Brown, 2000). Copywriters device slogans that are very catchy and compact in order to aid in the recognition and recall process, however even then these slogans are not adequate enough to provide the information required by girls to process the message in its entirety as intended by the advertisement. Studies suggest strong correlation between gender and consumer judgment (Dube & Morgan, 1996) and this leads to lower level of satisfaction among women than men. This analogy is evident to say that men like slogans more than their counterpart that is strongly augmented by the level of significance found in this study.

4.8.2 Analysis of relationship between slogans and Brand Recall

To examine this relationship under the influence of age hypothesis 5 and 6 were tested. The summary of analysis of the above relationships testing hypothesis 5 and 6 is as follows

Table 4: Age Wise Analysis

Old Advertising Slogans	Pearson Chi-Square Coefficient	1.760
	Phi Coefficient	0.133
	Contingency Coefficient	0.131
New Advertising Slogans	Pearson Chi-Square Coefficient	13.232
	Phi Coefficient	0.364
	Contingency Coefficient	0.342

Sample size = 100, degrees of freedom = 1 and 5% level of significance

The above findings suggest that there is no significant relationship between age of respondents and level of brand recall when old advertising slogans were used, however when the new advertising slogans were shown to the respondents it was found that there exist significant relationship between age of respondents and level of brand recall for new advertising slogans. This suggests that brand recall is dependent on other associative stages, such as purchase intentions, purchase power and satisfaction, apart from just the age of respondents. Therefore, for old slogans neither of the two age groups had these other associations that lead to incorrect brand recall. However, when new slogans are shown, the elder group having stronger association for the above mentioned stages are able to recall the products name correctly.

To examine this relationship under the influence of gender, hypothesis 7 and 8 were tested. The summary of analysis of the above relationships testing hypothesis 7 and 8 is as follows

Table 5: Gender Wise Analysis

Old Advertising Slogans	Pearson Chi-Square Coefficient	0.008
	Phi Coefficient	0.009
	Contingency Coefficient	0.009
New Advertising Slogans	Pearson Chi-Square Coefficient	3.259
	Phi Coefficient	-0.181
	Contingency Coefficient	0.178

Sample size = 100, degrees of freedom = 1 and 5% level of significance

The above findings suggest that there is no significant association between gender and level of brand recall when old advertising slogans were used, as well as when the new advertising slogans were shown to the respondents it was found that there exist no significant relationship between gender of respondents, and level of brand recall. This suggests that though boys exhibit more liking towards slogans and were able to identify ads more, the other associations which play important role in brand recall are not dependent on gender. Though the findings are not in sync with the above findings of identification of ads, since per above referred studies boys have higher processing ability and are able to identify ads more than girls. These suggest that when it comes to the recall of brand shown in the advertisements, boys are no better than girls even though having higher processing ability for the shown ads. This can be associated to a cognitive study that suggests that brand recall happens from the left hemisphere of the brain which

though prominent in boys as compared to the right one, is utilized equally by the women reason being their ability to use both the hemispheres of the brain efficiently. Therefore, there exists no significant relationship between gender and brand recall for old as well as new advertising slogans.

4.8.3 Analysis of likability of slogans

To test the likability of all eleven slogans used in the experiment as well as control group, as framed in hypothesis 9 and 10, Friedman test was performed. The summary of analysis of the above likeability by testing hypothesis 9 and 10 is as follows

Table 6: Likability Friedman Test

Old Advertising Slogans	Chi-Square Coefficient	91.804
New Advertising Slogans	Chi-Square Coefficient	95.053

Sample size = 100, degrees of freedom = 10 and 5% level of significance

The above findings reveal parity among all the respondents for likability of all the eleven old as well as new advertising slogans. This augments that the characteristics responsible for liking of taglines such as creativity and message clarity are not affected by age or gender. The previous analysis have shown significant associations between age and brand recall and ad identification; gender and brand recall and ad identification, however, the likability of tagline is not affected by the respondents age or gender for neither the old slogans nor for the new slogans. This clearly suggests that slogans can be perceived in isolation without the underpinnings of products' associations, due to the creative aspects and easy comprehensibility. This test also suggests that the likability or quality of the slogans used in the experiment was in no way responsible for above findings. Also the

selection of slogans used as treatments was free from selection bias, thus eliminating the chances of finding the above mentioned results because of skewed likability towards few slogans used.

4.8.4 Analysis of relevance of slogans

To test the a slogans' relevance in ad identification and brand recall of all eleven slogans used in the experiment as well as control group Friedman test was performed.

Table 7: Relevance Friedman Test

Old Advertising Slogans	Chi-Square Coefficient	45.698
New Advertising Slogans	Chi-Square Coefficient	55.636

Sample size = 100, degrees of freedom = 10 and 5% level of significance

The above findings reveal parity among all the respondents for relevance of all the eleven old as well as new advertising slogans. These findings strongly support the independence of slogans in an ad. The brand associations formed during the ad exposure and after the consumption are not affected by children's understating of different components of advertisements. They find taglines as an integral and relevant part of advertisements. The reason lies in the theoretical framework adopted for this study. As Piaget's Affective development theory suggests that the development of language, symbolic play, and classification schemes that starts in preoperational age (2-7Yrs) allows kids to identify and develop understanding of various classifications. By the time a child is in fourth stage s/he also develops completely intuitive affects and object/person permanence that allows their feelings to last beyond the object's presence. This indicates that ad identification and brand recall are influenced by age and gender that is indicative of other

factors such as purchase intention, power and satisfaction, but children's understanding of advertisement and its components develops even before concrete operational stage.

These findings, when combined with the study of importance of different components of ads on the basis of gender and age, reveal that though gender does not significantly affect the importance of slogans, age does affect the importance of slogans significantly. This can be seen by below section wise percentages obtained for each component of ads.

Table 7: Gender Wise Ad Components Analysis

| | | | what part of ad you like most | | | | | |
			tagline	jingle	story	character	music	Total
gender	male	Count	22	7	15	7	7	58
		% within gender	37.9%	12.1%	25.9%	12.1%	12.1%	100.0%
		% within what part of ad you like most	61.1%	77.8%	75.0%	38.9%	41.2%	58.0%
		% of Total	22.0%	7.0%	15.0%	7.0%	7.0%	58.0%
	female	Count	14	2	5	11	10	42
		% within gender	33.3%	4.8%	11.9%	26.2%	23.8%	100.0%
		% within what part of ad you like most	38.9%	22.2%	25.0%	61.1%	58.8%	42.0%
		% of Total	14.0%	2.0%	5.0%	11.0%	10.0%	42.0%
Total		Count	36	9	20	18	17	100
		% within gender	36.0%	9.0%	20.0%	18.0%	17.0%	100.0%
		% within what part of ad you like most	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	36.0%	9.0%	20.0%	18.0%	17.0%	100.0%

As seen in table:7 , girls , in comparison to boys are slightly less inclined in their likings of taglines. However, girls have shown more liking for character and music in comparison to boys, which also supports previous gender specific findings that girls need more additional information to process.

Table 8: Age Wise Ad Components Analysis

			what part of ad you like most					
			tagline	jingle	story	character	music	Total
age	8-11 yrs	Count	20	9	13	12	4	58
		% within age	34.5%	15.5%	22.4%	20.7%	6.9%	100.0%
		% within what part of ad you like most	55.6%	100.0%	65.0%	66.7%	23.5%	58.0%
		% of Total	20.0%	9.0%	13.0%	12.0%	4.0%	58.0%
	13-16 yrs	Count	16	0	7	6	13	42
		% within age	38.1%	0.0%	16.7%	14.3%	31.0%	100.0%
		% within what part of ad you like most	44.4%	0.0%	35.0%	33.3%	76.5%	42.0%
		% of Total	16.0%	0.0%	7.0%	6.0%	13.0%	42.0%
Total		Count	36	9	20	18	17	100
		% within age	36.0%	9.0%	20.0%	18.0%	17.0%	100.0%
		% within what part of ad you like most	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	36.0%	9.0%	20.0%	18.0%	17.0%	100.0%

From the above table:8, it can be observed that even though tagline are the most popular component of advertisement, among younger age group , jingle, story and character also play an important role. Whereas, these components tend to lose their importance for the elder age group respondents. This section wise data of various components of an ad is in congruence with the above findings.

4.8.5 Validity of relationship between product identification with old advertising slogans and age of respondents

To test the validity of the significant relationship between product identification with old advertising slogans and age of respondents as it was found in the original sample of 100 respondents, we tested the simulated data. The following table summarizes the findings of the above mentioned relationship.

		Value	Bootstrap[a]			
			Bias	Std. Error	BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.251	-.006	.047	.165	.322
	Cramer's V	.251	-.006	.047	.165	.322
	Contingency Coefficient	.243	-.006	.043	.163	.306
N of Valid Cases		100	0	0	.	.

a. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap samples

From the above findings it can be inferred that the test statistics fall in between the obtained bias corrected confidence intervals. This shows that the test statistics obtained for the simulated dataset remains valid and therefore the relationship between product identification with old advertising slogans and age of respondents is significant for the entire population.

4.8.6 Validity of relationship between product identification with new advertising slogans and age of respondents

To test the validity of the insignificant relationship between product identification with new advertising slogans and age of respondents as it was found in the original sample of 100 respondents, we tested the simulated data. The following table summarizes the findings of the above mentioned relationship.

		Value	Bootstrap[a]			
			Bias	Std. Error	BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.159	-.003	.077	-.024	.290
	Cramer's V	.159	.000	.071	.013	.290
	Contingency Coefficient	.157	-.001	.068	.014	.279
N of Valid Cases		100	0	0	.	.

a. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap samples

From the above findings it can be inferred that the test statistics fall in between the obtained bias corrected confidence intervals. This shows that the test statistics obtained for the simulated dataset remains valid and therefore the relationship between product identification with new advertising slogans and age of respondents is insignificant for the entire population.

4.8.7 Validity of relationship between product identification with old advertising slogans and gender of respondents

To test the validity of the significant relationship between product identification with old advertising slogans and gender of respondents as it was found in the original sample of 100 respondents, we tested the simulated data. The following table summarizes the findings of the above mentioned relationship.

		Value	Bootstrap[a]			
			Bias	Std. Error	BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.197	.001	.097	-.367	-.004
	Cramer's V	.197	.002	.093	.019	.380
	Contingency Coefficient	.193	-.001	.087	.020	.354
N of Valid Cases		100	0	0	.	.

a. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap samples

From the above findings it can be inferred that the test statistics fall in between the obtained bias corrected confidence intervals. This shows that the test statistics obtained for the simulated dataset remains valid and therefore the relationship between product identification with old advertising slogans and gender of respondents is significant for the entire population.

4.8.8 Validity of relationship between product identification with new advertising slogans and gender of respondents

To test the validity of the significant relationship between product identification with new advertising slogans and gender of respondents as it was found in the original sample of 100 respondents, we tested the simulated data. The following table summarizes the findings of the above mentioned relationship.

		Value	Bootstrap[a]			
			Bias	Std. Error	BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.016	.000[b]	.107[b]	-.254[b]	.161[b]
	Cramer's V	.016	.071[b]	.064[b]	.[b]	.[b]
	Contingency Coefficient	.016	.070[b]	.062[b]	.[b]	.[b]
N of Valid Cases		100	0	0	.	.

a. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap samples

From the above findings it can be inferred that the test statistics fall in between the obtained bias corrected confidence intervals. This shows that the test statistics obtained for the simulated dataset remains valid and therefore the relationship between product identification with new advertising slogans and gender of respondents is significant for the entire population.

4.8.9 Validity of relationship between brand recall with old advertising slogans and age of respondents

To test the validity of the insignificant relationship between brand recall with old advertising slogans and age of respondents as it was found in the original sample of 100 respondents, we tested the simulated data. The following table summarizes the findings of the above mentioned relationship.

	Value	Bootstrap[a]			
		Bias	Std. Error	BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Phi	.133	.003	.098	-.062	.330
Nominal by Nominal Cramer's V	.133	.011	.087	.005	.335
Contingency Coefficient	.131	.009	.083	.005	.317
N of Valid Cases	100	0	0	.	.

a. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap samples

From the above findings it can be inferred that the test statistics fall in between the obtained bias corrected confidence intervals. This shows that the test statistics obtained for the simulated dataset remains valid and therefore the relationship between brand recall with old advertising slogans and age of respondents is insignificant for the entire population.

4.8.10 Validity of relationship between brand recall with new advertising slogans and age of respondents

To test the validity of the significant relationship between brand recall with new advertising slogans and age of respondents as it was found in the original sample of 100 respondents, we tested the simulated data. The following table summarizes the findings of the above mentioned relationship.

		Value	Bootstrap[a]			
			Bias	Std. Error	BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.364	-.003	.075	.214	.507
	Cramer's V	.364	-.003	.075	.214	.507
	Contingency Coefficient	.342	-.005	.063	.213	.451
N of Valid Cases		100	0	0	.	.

a. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap samples

From the above findings it can be inferred that the test statistics fall in between the obtained bias corrected confidence intervals. This shows that the test statistics obtained for the simulated dataset remains valid and therefore the relationship between brand recall with new advertising slogans and age of respondents is significant for the entire population.

4.8.11 Validity of relationship between brand recall with old advertising slogans and gender of respondents

To test the validity of the insignificant relationship between brand recall with old advertising slogans and gender of respondents as it was found in the original sample of 100 respondents, we tested the simulated data. The following table summarizes the findings of the above mentioned relationship.

		Value	Bootstrap[a]			
			Bias	Std. Error	BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.009	.002	.102	-.200	.207
	Cramer's V	.009	.073	.061	.	.
	Contingency Coefficient	.009	.072	.060	.	.
N of Valid Cases		100	0	0	.	.

a. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap samples

From the above findings it can be inferred that the test statistics fall in between the obtained bias corrected confidence intervals. This shows that the test statistics obtained for the simulated dataset remains valid and therefore the relationship between brand recall with old advertising slogans and gender of respondents is insignificant for the entire population.

4.8.12 Validity of relationship between brand recall with new advertising slogans and gender of respondents

To test the validity of the insignificant relationship between brand recall with new advertising slogans and gender of respondents as it was found in the original sample of 100 respondents, we tested the simulated data. The following table summarizes the findings of the above mentioned relationship.

		Value	Bootstrap[a]			
			Bias	Std. Error	BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.181	.001	.108	-.388	.025
	Cramer's V	.181	.004	.101	.010	.400
	Contingency Coefficient	.178	.001	.094	.010	.371
N of Valid Cases		100	0	0	.	.

a. Bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap samples

From the above findings it can be inferred that the test statistics fall in between the obtained bias corrected confidence intervals. This shows that the test statistics obtained for the simulated dataset remains valid and therefore the relationship between brand recall with new advertising slogans and gender of respondents is insignificant for the entire population.

4.9 Conclusion

The results from the experiment are insightful regarding the impact of deviations used in advertising messages of chocolates and beverages on children's brand recall and ad identification. The study has provided compelling evidences that age and gender does effect the brand recall and ad identification. The stages in which a child progresses towards cognitive maturity, it certainly does have impact on the information processing and thus this impact is reflected in their attitude towards a brand. The findings of the study strongly correlates with Piaget's cognitive development model, which is indicative

of variations in children's understanding of various components of an advertisement. As a child progresses through advance stages of cognitive development, his or her understanding of advertisements grows. Boys and girls process information differently and this difference was reflected in the identification part of the study, however, the recall is dependent on other factors which are beyond gender differences. The creativity and importance of taglines is undoubtedly augmentative in promoting the identification and recall, thus creating awareness of the product in children and our study acts as a compelling evidence to support these theoretical grounds for designing a tagline.

Through the simulation technique of bootstrapping an attempt has been made to address the issue of generalization of the results of the study undertaken in the thesis. Through bootstrapping 1000 different samples are constructed and non-parametric tests for the dichotomous data are performed on each of these samples. The test statistics thus obtained for each sample has been plotted to get the probability distribution of these statistics. Through the distribution bias corrected confidence intervals have been constructed for 95% confidence level and the test statistics obtained previously were observed to fit in these confidence intervals. All the statistics that were obtained for the original sample fall in between these constructed confidence intervals. This shows that the results obtained for the original small sample are proven valid for the entire population and therefore the inferences that have been made originally can be generalized for all the children as consumers in entire Indian market for confectionary and beverages.

4.10 References

1. Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). Understanding attitudes and predicting social behaviour.

2. Barcus, F. E. (1980). The nature of television advertising to children. Children and the faces of television, 273-285.

3. Baxter, S. (2011). It's not kids' play! Reflecting on the child-orientated research experience. International Journal of Market Research, 53(1), 63-74.

4. Berlyne, D. E. (1960). Conflict, arousal, and curiosity.

5. Berlyne, D. E. (1967). Arousal and reinforcement. In Nebraska symposium on motivation. University of Nebraska Press.

6. Borgers, N., De Leeuw, E., & Hox, J. (2000). Children as respondents in survey research: Cognitive development and response quality 1. Bulletin de methodologie Sociologique, 66(1), 60-75.

7. Bradley, S. D., & Meeds, R. (2002). Surface-structure transformations and advertising slogans: The case for moderate syntactic complexity. Psychology & Marketing, 19(7-8), 595-619.

8. Brucks, M., Armstrong, G. M., & Goldberg, M. E. (1988). Children's use of cognitive defenses against television advertising: A cognitive response approach. Journal of consumer research, 471-482.

9. Corder, C. (1986). Adimpact—a multi-media advertising effectiveness-measurement method. Managerial and Decision Economics, 7(4), 243-247.

10. Cox, D. S., & Locander, W. B. (1987). Product novelty: does it moderate the relationship between ad attitudes and brand attitudes? Journal of Advertising, 16(3), 39-44.

11. Crystal, D. (1987). Towards a bucket theory of language disability: taking account of interaction between linguistic levels. Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics, 1(1), 7-22.

12. Dahlén, M., & Rosengren, S. (2005). Brands affect slogans affect brands? Competitive interference, brand equity and the brand-slogan link. The Journal of Brand Management, 12(3), 151-164.

13. De Leeuw, E. D., & Otter, M. E. (1995). The reliability of children's responses to questionnaire items; question effects in children's questionnaire data.

14. Donohue, T. R., Henke, L. L., & Donohue, W. A. (1980). Do kids know what TV commercials intend. Journal of Advertising Research, 20(5), 51-57.

15. Dube, L., & Morgan, M. S. (1996). Trend effects and gender differences in retrospective judgments of consumption emotions. Journal of Consumer Research, 156-162.

16. Efron, B. (1981). Nonparametric estimates of standard error: the jackknife, the bootstrap and other methods. *Biometrika*, *68*(3), 589-599.

17. Efron, B., & Efron, B. (1982). *The jackknife, the bootstrap and other resampling plans* (Vol. 38). Philadelphia: Society for industrial and applied mathematics.

18. Efron, B. (1979). Bootstrap methods: another look at the jackknife. *The annals of Statistics*, 1-26.

19. Efron, B., & Tibshirani, R. J. (1993). An introduction to the bootstrap. *Monographs on statistics and applied probability*, *57*.

20. Farquhar, P. H., Han, J. Y., & Ijiri, Y. (1992). Measuring brand momentum. Marketing management, 1(2), 24-31.

21. Federal Trade Commission. (1978). FTC staff report on television advertising to children. ERIC Clearinghouse.

22. Foehr, U. G., Rideout, V., & Roberts, D. F. (2005). Generation M: Media in the lives of 8-18 year-olds. The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation.

23. Gardner, M. P. (1985). Does attitude toward the ad affect brand attitude under a brand evaluation set? Journal of Marketing Research, 192-198.

24. Gorn, G. J., & Florsheim, R. (1985). The effects of commercials for adult products on children. Journal of Consumer Research, 962-967.

25. Gresham, L. G., & Shimp, T. A. (1985). Attitude toward the advertisement and brand attitudes: A classical conditioning perspective. Journal of Advertising, 14(1), 10-49.

26. Hastie, R. (1980). Memory for behavioral information that confirms or contradicts a personality impression. Hastie, R.; Ostrom, TM; Ebbesen, EB, 155-178.

27. Hastie, R. (1981). Schematic principles in human memory. In Social Cognition: The Ontario Symposium (Vol. 1, pp. 39-88). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

28. Hastie, R. (1984). Causes and effects of causal attribution. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46(1), 44.

29. Haugtvedt, Curtis P., Clark Leavitt and Wendy L. Schneier (1993), "Cognitive Strength of Established Brands: Memory, Attitudinal, and Structural Approaches," in Brand Equity and Advertising: The Role of Advertising in Creating Brand Equity, David A Aaker and Alexander L. Biel, eds Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 247-61

30. Holaday, B., & Turner-Henson, A. (1989). Response effects in surveys with school-age children. Nursing Research, 38(4), 248-250.

31. Hollebeek, L. D., Jaeger, S. R., Brodie, R. J., & Balemi, A. (2007). The influence of involvement on purchase intention for new world wine. Food Quality and Preference, 18(8), 1033-1049.

32. Hoy, M. G., Young, C. E., & Mowen, J. C. (1986). Animated host-selling advertisements: Their impact on young children's recognition, attitudes, and behaviour. Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 171-184.

33. Jeanne Hill, C., & Motes, W. H. (1995). Professional versus generic retail services: new insights. Journal of services marketing, 9(2), 22-35.

34. John, D. R., & Cole, C. A. (1986). Age differences in information processing: Understanding deficits in young and elderly consumers. Journal of Consumer Research, 297-315.

35. John, D. R., & Lakshmi-Ratan, R. (1992). Age differences in children's choice behavior: The impact of available alternatives. Journal of Marketing Research.

36. Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. The Journal of Marketing, 1-22.

37. Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. The Journal of Marketing, 1-22.

38. Keller, K. L. (1998), Strategic Brand Management. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall

39. Kohli, C., Leuthesser, L., & Suri, R. (2007). Got slogan? Guidelines for creating effective slogans. Business Horizons, 50(5), 415-422.

40. Kover, A. J., Goldberg, S. M., & James, W. L. (1995). Creativity vs. effectiveness? An integrating classification for advertising. Journal of Advertising Research, 35, 29-40.

41. Kressmann, F., Sirgy, M. J., Herrmann, A., Huber, F., Huber, S., & Lee, D. J. (2006). Direct and indirect effects of self-image congruence on brand loyalty. Journal of Business Research, 59(9), 955-964.

42. Lagerwerf, L. (2002). Deliberate ambiguity in slogans: recognition and appreciation. Document Design, 3(3), 244-260.

43. Lamons, B. (1997). A slogan for almost every ad, but only a few worth reading. Marketing News, 31(9), 4.

44. Laroche, M., Saad, G., Cleveland, M., & Browne, E. (2000). Gender differences in information search strategies for a Christmas gift. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 17(6), 500-522.

45. Loken, B., & John, D. R. (1993). Diluting brand beliefs: when do brand extensions have a negative impact?. The Journal of Marketing, 71-84.

46. Macklin, M. C. (1983). Do children understand TV ads? Journal of Advertising Research.

47. Macklin, M. C. (1987). Preschoolers' understanding of the informational function of television advertising. Journal of Consumer research, 229-239.

48. Macklin, M. C. (1988). The relationship between music in advertising and children's responses: An experimental investigation. Nonverbal communication in advertising, 225-252.

49. Mandler, G. (1982). The structure of value: Accounting for taste. In Affect and cognition: The seventeenth annual Carnegie Symposium on Cognition.

50. Mathur, L. K., & Mathur, I. (1995). The effect of advertising slogan changes on the market values of firms. Journal of Advertising Research.

51. McQuarrie, E. F., & Mick, D. G. (1999). Visual rhetoric in advertising: Text-interpretive, experimental, and reader-response analysis. Journal of consumer research, 26(1), 37-54.

52. Meyers-Levy, J., & Tybout, A. M. (1989). Schema congruity as a basis for product evaluation. Journal of consumer research, 39-54.

53. Mooney, C. Z., & Duval, R. D. (1993). *Bootstrapping: A nonparametric approach to statistical inference* Newbury Park, CA: Sage

54. Moore, D. L., & Hutchinson, J. W. (1985). The influence of affective reactions to advertising: Direct and indirect mechanisms of attitude change. Psychological processes and advertising effects, 65-87.

55. Neelankavil, J. P., OBRIEN, J. V., & Tashjian, R. (1985). Techniques to obtain market-related information from very young-children. Journal of Advertising Research, 25(3), 41-47.

56. Petty, R. E., Cacioppo, J. T., & Schumann, D. (1983). Central and peripheral routes to advertising effectiveness: The moderating role of involvement. Journal of consumer research, 135-146.

57. Piaget, J. (1929). The child's conception of the world (No. 213). Rowman& Littlefield.

58. Piaget, J. (1952). The origins of intelligence in children (Vol. 8, No. 5, p. 18). New York: International Universities Press.

59. Piaget, J. (1981). Intelligence and affectivity: Their relationship during child development. (Trans & Ed TA Brown & CE Kaegi). Annual reviews.

60. Radder, L., & Huang, W. (2008). High-involvement and low-involvement products: A comparison of brand awareness among students at a South African university. Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal, 12(2), 232-243.

61. Raju, P. S., & Lonial, S. C. (1990). Advertising to children: Findings and implications. Current issues and research in advertising, 12(1-2), 231-274.

62. Robertson, T. S., & Rossiter, J. R. (1974). Children and commercial persuasion: An attribution theory analysis. Journal of Consumer research, 13-20.

63. Roedder, D. L., Sternthal, B., & Calder, B. J. (1983). Attitude-behaviour consistency in children's responses to television advertising. Journal of Marketing Research, 337-349.

64. Russell-Bennett, R., McColl-Kennedy, J. R., & Coote, L. V. (2007). Involvement, satisfaction, and brand loyalty in a small business services setting. Journal of Business Research, 60(12), 1253-1260.

65. Scott, J., Brynin, M., & Smith, R. (1995). Interviewing children in the British household panel study. Advances in family research. Amsterdam: Thesis Publishers, 259-66.

66. Shamsollahi, A., Amirshahi, M., & Ghaffari, F. (2014). Brand name recall: A study of the effects of word types, processing, and involvement levels. Journal of Marketing Communications, (ahead-of-print), 1-20.

67. Stone, G., Besser, D., & Lewis, L. E. (2000). Recall, Liking, and Creativity in TV Commericals: A New Approach. Journal of Advertising Research, 40(3), 7-18.

68. Thorson, E. and Page, T.J. (1990) On the Ubiquity of Aad-->Ab Effects. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Academy of Advertising, Orlando, Florida

69. Till, B. D., & Baack, D. W. (2005). Recall and Persuasion: does creative advertising matter? Journal of Advertising, 34(3), 47-57.

70. Varian, H. R. (1983). Non-parametric tests of consumer behaviour. The review of economic studies, 50(1), 99-110.

71. Wilkie, W.L. (1994), Consumer Behavior, 3rd ed., John Wiley & Sons, New York, NY

72. Yalch, R. F. (1991). Memory in a jingle jungle: Music as a mnemonic device in communicating advertising slogans. Journal of Applied Psychology, 76(2), 268.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

This chapter begins with summarization of the study. Then the results obtained are reviewed and discussed. Later the suggestions are presented with an assessment of the study. Finally the scope for future research is provided.

5.1 Summary of the study

The study was conducted with the primary aim of identifying linguistic deviations used in advertising slogans and its impact measurement on children as consumers. This purpose was achieved in three phases. First phase, consists of a content analysis of 700 advertising slogans to identify and categorize the linguistic deviations present along with their frequencies of appearances. This analysis of deviations acts as a starting point for carrying out the analysis in second phase of the study. Second phase, consists of experimental analysis carried out on children between 8 to 16 years of age. In this, two questionnaires have been employed to seek the responses regarding children`s ability to recognize and recall the brands from old as well as new advertising slogans. The collected data was analyzed statistically to find out the relationship between the said ability and slogans in specification to age as well as gender of the respondents. To further generalize the findings of the experiment on a larger sample size, the phase three of the study was carried out. In this phase, through bootstrap simulation technique 1000 random samples of 100 respondents were simulated. This simulated data was again statistically analyzed as per the techniques used in previous phase. Results of all the three phases are discussed in length below.

5.2 Findings of Content Analysis (Phase I)

The findings on the content analysis showed significant number of linguistic deviations in advertising slogans of confectionary and beverages. Out of all the six deviations, grammatical deviations are predominantly used across all the sections namely: Biscuits and Snacks (76%), Beverages (39%) and Chocolates (49%). From the frequency analysis for each section of product category it was clearly visible that majority of the deviations used by the copywriters were grammatical (present in 78% of the taglines) and semantic (present in 39% of the taglines). Looking at each section separately we see some difference in the frequency of deviations. For biscuits, grammatical deviations were dominantly present (76%) followed by semantic (37%) and lexical (29%). Rest of the three deviations in this section were observed in fewer number of the slogans (less than 10%). For beverages, semantic deviations were observed in highest numbers (59%), present in more than half of the slogans. Following these were grammatical deviations (40%), lexical (17%) and finally codemixing (19%). It was observed that phonological and Graphological deviations were absent in beverages section. For the chocolates section like beverages, phonological and Graphological deviations were found nearly absent with a scant presence in only few of the slogans together (7%). In this section, semantic and grammatical deviations were found to be present in nearly equal number of slogans (50%), only with a slight difference here and there. Codemixing follows these with a presence in lesser number of slogans (29%). On observing these results from all the three sections we can say that grammatical and semantic deviations are most popular for the copywriters irrespective of the product being advertised. Reason being the ample scope of creativity that these provide to copywriters. On the other hand lexical deviations

are used infrequently by copywriters with a little more popularity for biscuits section. This above section wise comparison of deviations suggests that grammatical deviations are more in number in comparison to any other deviation, reason being its ability to provide novelty by disjunctive grammar and at the same time its ability to provide similar grammatical associations, thus making the consumers relate more with the message. Another deviation that provides ample scope for novelty associations is semantic deviation across all the product categories. The fewer occurrences of phonological and graphological deviations provide a new insight about the complexity of associations these create for the young minds. Slogans are meant to capture attention in a very short span of time, out of the clutter of several another ads filled with amalgamation of several components of ads. Due to this constraint copywriters feel restricted in the use of graphological and phonological deviations as it might easily get unnoticed especially by the children. The reliability test obtained also corroborated with the findings of the analysis.

The study can be summarized by stating the fact that copywriters very meticulously use deviations to form catchy and appealing advertising slogans such as listed out in chapter 3. As per the target consumers, copywriters combine the categories of deviations judiciously. The findings across the product categories reinforce the findings of the previous research that establishes children as full fledge consumers. This is very much visible in the formation and the techniques used by copywriters in the messages that are targeted towards children. However, the broad conclusion can be drawn from this study is that no advertising message is free from the usage of deviations. This establishes the

relevance of studying the impact of linguistic deviations on the minds of children as consumers.

5.3 Findings of Experimental Analysis (Phase II)

Findings of experimental analysis gives significant insight into the relationship of slogans and ad identification & brand recall of children that too analyzed age wise as well as gender wise, for old and new slogans. Apart from relationship, findings also provide us an insight into the likeability and relevance of slogans as factors playing a role in assisting identification and recall. In the end findings also provides an analysis of importance of all components of an advertisement namely: tagline, jingle, story, character and music.

The relationship analysis is divided into four sub sections that are 1) relationship between slogans and ad identification gender wise, 2) relationship between slogans and ad identification age wise, 3) relationship between slogans and brand recall gender wise and 4) relationship between slogans and brand recall age wise.

Relationship between slogans and ad identification gender wise: findings suggest that there exists a significant association between gender and level of ad identification for old advertising slogans however, for new advertising slogans there exists no significant relationship. This coincides with the recent research on different information processing capability of men and women, suggesting that women require more information in comparison to men for processing information. Copywriters device slogans that are very catchy and compact in order to aid in the recognition and recall process, however even then these slogans are not adequate enough to provide the information required by girls to process the message in its entirety as intended by the advertisement. Studies suggest

strong correlation between gender and consumer judgement and this leads to lower level of satisfaction among women than men. This analogy is evident to say that men like slogans more than their counterpart that is strongly augmented by the findings in this study.

Relationship between slogans and ad identification age wise: findings suggest that there is significant relationship between age of respondents and level of ad identification for old advertising slogans however, for new advertising slogans there exist no significant relationship. This suggests that children who are currently in concrete operational stage (8-12Yrs), when shown the advertising slogans from their operational stage (2-7Yrs) are not able to identify the slogans as comparable to their elder counter parts. This correlates with Piaget theory of Cognitive development that a child's Conservation and transitivity in the affective realm allow the child to form and hold stable and consistent attitudes at a level previously unattainable.

Relationship between slogans and brand recall gender wise: findings suggest that there is no significant association between gender and level of brand recall for old advertising slogans as well as new advertising slogans. This suggests that though boys exhibit more liking towards slogans and were able to identify ads more, the other associations which play important role in brand recall are not dependent on gender. Though the findings are not in sync with the findings of identification of ads, since per above referred studies boys have higher processing ability and are able to identify ads more than girls. These suggest that when it comes to the recall of brand shown in the advertisements, boys are no better than girls even though having higher processing ability for the shown ads. This can be associated to a cognitive study that suggests that brand

recall happens from the left hemisphere of the brain which though prominent in boys as compared to the right one, is utilized equally by the women reason being their ability to use both the hemispheres of the brain efficiently.

Relationship between slogans and brand recall age wise: findings suggest that there is no significant relationship between age of respondents and level of brand recall for old advertising slogans however for the new advertising slogans there exist significant relationship. This suggests that brand recall is dependent on other associative stages, such as purchase intentions, purchase power and satisfaction, apart from just the age of respondents. Therefore, for old slogans neither of the two age groups had these other associations that lead to incorrect brand recall. However, when new slogans are shown, the elder group having stronger association for the above mentioned stages are able to recall the products name correctly.

Findings on likeability and relevance of slogans suggests that all eleven taglines for the new as well as old advertising slogans were deemed both likeable as well as relevant by the children. This augments that the characteristics responsible for liking of taglines such as creativity and message clarity are not affected by age or gender. This clearly suggests that slogans can be perceived in isolation without the underpinnings of products' associations, due to the creative aspects and easy comprehensibility. The brand associations formed during the ad exposure and after the consumption are not affected by children's understating of different components of advertisements. They find taglines as an integral and relevant part of advertisements. This test also suggests that the likability or relevance of the slogans used in the experiment was in no way responsible for other experimental findings.

From the findings of component wise analysis of ads it can be observed that even though tagline are the most popular component of advertisement, among younger age group , jingle, story and character also play an important role. Whereas, these components tend to lose their importance for the elder age group respondents.

5.4 Findings of Simulation Analysis (Phase III)

Findings of the analysis performed on the simulated data are in congruence with the small sample findings in second phase. This suggests that all these findings can very well be generalized for the entire Indian market and can be used for developing advertising slogans so as to achieve efficient recognition and recall of the brand by children through these advertisements.

5.5 Suggestions

This study produced results that were statistically significant. However, it must be taken into consideration that researchers have tried to eliminate the influence of extraneous factors but there might some factors that cannot be eliminated.

The study suggests that girls need more details along with the language to build associations with the brands, therefore copywriters should, in order to overcome this limitation, focus on other components of the ads. Since, the understanding of the advertising content is developed at a very early age in children, copywriters should devise such slogans that does not require much abilities to comprehend. Other techniques such as jingles can be used to make taglines more memorable and rather than using deviated language, word from their daily usage should be used.

5.6 Scope for Future Research

The language of advertisements is an important component that has capacity to lure the children as consumers. Based on the findings discussed above the researchers recommends the following:

There is a need to see the isolated impact of other components of advertisements such as visuals, music, story etc. Further the comparative study of these impacts would help the marketers in understanding and focusing on the components as per the need. The study was done on children from concrete operational stage, this can be further compared with children from other cognitive development stages. To understand children as consumers and their brand associations fully, other variables such as brand awareness, brand spiraling etc. can also be considered. The fact that children develop understanding and likability for the ads at an early age, can be further used as a basis to dig the various other brand association further. The study of linguistic deviations can be further taken up by including both deviations and rhetoric and their role in creating ad identity and brand recall.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Adib, H., & El-Bassiouny, N. (2012). Materialism in young consumers: An investigation of family communication patterns and parental mediation practices in Egypt. Journal of Islamic Marketing, 3(3).

2. Adler, R. P., & Faber, R. J. (1980). Background: Children's television viewing patterns. The effects of television advertising on children. Lexington Books, Lexington.

3. Ahuja, R.D.B. & Stinson, K. M. (1993). Female-headed single parent families: an exploratory study of children's influence in family decision making. Advances in Consumer research.

4. Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). Understanding attitudes and predicting social behaviour.

5. Anderson, N. H. (1981). Foundations of information integration theory.

6. Ardilla, A. (2005). Spanglish: an anglicized Spanish dialect. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 27(1).

7. Arens, W. F. (2004). Contemporary advertising.

8. Arens, W. F., & Boyee, C. L. (1994). Contemporary Advertising.

9. Banks, S. (1975). Public policy on ads to children. Journal of Advertising Research, 15(4).

10. Bansal, R. (2004). Urban youth. Business World.

11. Barcus, F. E. (1980). The nature of television advertising to children. Children and the faces of television.

12. Barthes, R. (1985). The Responsibility of Forms Critical Essays on Music, Art, and Representation.

13. Bates, E. (1999). Plasticity, localization and language development. The changing nervous system: Neurobehavioral consequences of early brain disorders.

14. Baxter, S. (2011). It's not kids' play! Reflecting on the child-orientated research experience. International Journal of Market Research, 53(1).

15. Belch, G. E., Belch, M. A., & Ceresino, G. (1985). Parental and teenage child influences in family decision making. Journal of business research, 13(2).

16. Berlyne, D. E. (1960). Conflict, arousal, and curiosity.

17. Berlyne, D. E. (1967). Arousal and reinforcement. In Nebraska symposium on motivation. University of Nebraska Press.

18. Berlyne, D. E. (1971). Aesthetics and psychobiology. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts Bibliography

19. Bjorklund, D. F. (2004). Children`s Thinking. (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth

20. Blatt, J., Spencer, L., & Ward, S. (1972). A cognitive development study of children's reactions to television advertising. Television and social behaviour, 4.

21. Blatt, J., Spencer, L., & Ward, S. (1972). A cognitive development study of children's reactions to television advertising. Television and social behaviour, 4.

22. Blosser, B. J. & Roberts, D. F. (1984). Age differences in Children's Perception of Message Intent. Communication Research.

23. Bogart, L., Tolley, B. S., & Orenstein, F. (1970). What one little ad can do.Journal of Advertising research, 10(4).

24. Borgers, N., De Leeuw, E., & Hox, J. (2000). Children as respondents in survey research: Cognitive development and response quality 1. Bulletin de methodologie Sociologique, 66(1).

25. Bradley, S. D., & Meeds, R. (2002). Surface-structure transformations and advertising slogans: The case for moderate syntactic complexity. Psychology & Marketing, 19(7-8).

26. Brucks, M., Armstrong, G. M., & Goldberg, M. E. (1988). Children's use of cognitive defenses against television advertising: A cognitive response approach. Journal of consumer research.

27. Burns, A. C., & Harrison, M. C. (2015). Children's Self-Perceptions of Their Participation in Retail Store Patronage Decisions. In Proceedings of the 1982 Academy of Marketing Science (AMS) Annual Conference . Springer International Publishing.

28. Butter, E. J., Weikel, K. B., Otto, V., Wright, K. P., & Deinzer, G. (1991). TV advertising of OTC medicines and its effects on child viewers. Psychology & Marketing, 8(2).

29. Butter, E. J., Weikel, K. B., Otto, V., Wright, K. P., &Deinzer, G. (1991). TV advertising of OTC medicines and its effects on child viewers. Psychology & Marketing, 8(2).

30. Calder, B. J., Robertson, T. S., &Rossiter, J. R. (1975). Children's consumer information processing. Communication Research.

31. Calvert, S. L., & Scott, M. C. (1989). Sound effects for children's temporal integration of fast-paced television content. Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media.

32. Caron, A., & Ward, S. (1975). Gift decisions by kids and parents. Journal of Advertising Research.

33. Cassim, S. (2005). Advertising to children in South Africa. Young Consumers.

34. Cerdeño, T.G. (2010). The use of foreign words as a persuasive tool in marketing discourse: the cultural stereotype of global English in Spanish print advertising. Retrieved from http://eprints.ucm.es/12622/1/G%C3%B3mez_Cerde%C3%B1 o.pdf

35. Chadha, R. (1995). The emerging consumer: a changing profile of the urban Indian house-wife and its implications. New Age International Publishers.

36. Chomsky, N. (1976). Constraints on rules of grammar.

37. Chomsky, N. (1994). Naturalism and dualism in the study of language and mind: Agnes Cuming Lecture, 1993 (University College Dublin). International journal of philosophical studies.

38. Chomsky, N. (1997). What makes mainstream media mainstream. Z magazine.

39. Churchill Jr, G. A., &Moschis, G. P. (1979). Television and interpersonal influences on adolescent consumer learning. Journal of consumer research.

40. Condry, J. C. (1989). The psychology of television. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

41. Converse, P. D., & Crawford, C. M. (1949). Family Buying: Who Does It? Who Influences It? Current Economic Comment.

42. Cook, G. (1997). Language play, language learning. ELT journal.

43. Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. Canadian Modern Language Review.

44. Corder, C. (1986). Adimpact—a multi-media advertising effectiveness-measurement method. Managerial and Decision Economics.

45. Coulmas, F. (2005). Changing language regimes in globalizing environments. International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 2005.

46. Cox, D. S., & Locander, W. B. (1987). Product novelty: does it moderate the relationship between ad attitudes and brand attitudes? Journal of Advertising.

47. Creedon, P. J., & Cramer, J. (2007). Our conclusion: Gender values remain, inequity resurges, and globalization brings new challenges. Women in mass communication.

48. Crystal, D. (1987). Towards a bucket theory of language disability: taking account of interaction between linguistic levels. Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics.

49. Crystal, D. (1990). Linguistic strangeness. Margaret Brigdes (éd.): On Strangeness, Swiss Papers in English Language and Literature.

50. Dahlén, M., & Rosengren, S. (2005). Brands affect slogans affect brands? Competitive interference, brand equity and the brand-slogan link. The Journal of Brand Management.

51. Darley, W. K., & Lim, J. S. (1986). Family decision making in leisure-time activities: An exploratory investigation of the impact of locus of control, child age influence factor and parental type on perceived child influence. Advances in consumer research.

52. De Leeuw, E. D., & Otter, M. E. (1995). The reliability of children's responses to questionnaire items; question effects in children's questionnaire data.

53. Dhobal, S. (1999). NUFgen marketing or selling to the new urban family. Business Today.

54. Donohue, T. R., Henke, L. L., & Donohue, W. A. (1980). Do kids know what TV commercials intend. Journal of Advertising Research, 20(5), 51-57.

55. Donohue, T. R., Henke, L. L., & Donohue, W. A. (1980). Do kids know what TV commercials intend. Journal of Advertising Research.

56. Donohue, T. R., Meyer, T. P., & Henke, L. L. (1978). Black and white children: Perceptions of TV commercials. The Journal of Marketing.

57. Donthu, N., Cherian, J., & Bhargava, M. (1993). Factors influencing recall of outdoor advertising. Journal of Advertising Research.

58. Dorr, A. (1986). Television and children: A special medium for a special audience. Sage Publications (CA).

59. Dresden, B. & Barnard, J. (2004). Legal and regulatory controls on advertising and marketing to children in the United Kingdom. Young Consumers.

60. Dube, L., & Morgan, M. S. (1996). Trend effects and gender differences in retrospective judgments of consumption emotions. Journal of Consumer Research.

61. Dunne, M. (1999). The role and influence of children in family holiday decision making. International Journal of Advertising and Marketing to Children.

62. Dyer, G. (1982). Advertising and communication. London: Fontana

63. Efron, B. (1979). Bootstrap methods: another look at the jackknife. The annals of Statistics.

64. Efron, B. (1981). Nonparametric estimates of standard error: the jackknife, the bootstrap and other methods. Biometrika.

65. Efron, B., & Efron, B. (1982). The jackknife, the bootstrap and other resampling plans (Vol. 38). Philadelphia: Society for industrial and applied mathematics.

66. Efron, B., & Tibshirani, R. J. (1993). An introduction to the bootstrap. Monographs on statistics and applied probability.

67. Elman, J. L. (2001). Connectionism and language acquisition. Language development: The essential readings.

68. Farquhar, P. H., Han, J. Y., & Ijiri, Y. (1992). Measuring brand momentum. Marketing management.

69. Featherstone, S. (2001). Everyday rhetorics. In Speaking Your Mind: Oral Presentation and Seminar Skills. Pearson Education.

70. Federal Trade Commission. (1978). FTC staff report on television advertising to children. ERIC Clearinghouse.

71. Filiatrault, P., & Ritchie, J. B. (1980). Joint purchasing decisions: A comparison of influence structure in family and couple decision-making units. Journal of Consumer Research.

72. Fishbein, M., &Ajzen, I. (1975). Belief, attitude, intention and behaviour: An introduction to theory and research.

73. Flavell, J. H., Miller, P. H. & Miller, S. A. (2002). Cognitive Development (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall

74. Foehr, U. G., Rideout, V., & Roberts, D. F. (2005). Generation M: Media in the lives of 8-18 year-olds. The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation.

75. Foxman, E. R., & Tansuhaj, P. S. (1988). Adolescents' and mothers' perceptions of relative influence in family purchase decisions: patterns of agreement and disagreement. Advances in consumer research.

76. Gaines, L., & Esserman, J. F. (1981). A quantitative study of young children's comprehension of television programmes and commercials. Television Advertising and Children. New York: Child Research Service.

77. Gardner, M. P. (1985). Does attitude toward the ad affect brand attitude under a brand evaluation set? Journal of Marketing Research.

78. Gelman, R. & Shatz, M. (1978). Appropriate speech adjustments: The operation of conversational constraints on talk to two-year-olds. In M. Lewis & L.A. Rosenblum (Eds.), Interaction, conversation and the development of language .New York: Wiley

79. Gelman, R. (1979). Preschool thought. American Psychologist.

80. Gilbert, E. (1957). Advertising and marketing to young people. Printers' Ink Books.

81. Goddard, A. (2002). The language of advertising: written texts. Psychology Press.

82. Goddard, C. (2011). Semantic Analysis: A Practical Introduction. Oxford University Press

83. Goldstein, J. H. (1994). Children and advertising: policy implications of scholarly research. Advertising Association.

84. Gorn, G. J., & Florsheim, R. (1985). The effects of commercials for adult products on children. Journal of Consumer Research.

85. Graneheim, U. H., & Lundman, B. (2004). Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness. Nurse education today.

86. Gray, O. (2005). Responsible advertising in Europe. Young Consumers.

87. Greenberg, B.S. et. al. (1986) Children`s Views on Advertising. London: Research Department IBA

88. Greenwald, A. G., & Leavitt, C. (1984). Audience involvement in advertising: Four levels. Journal of Consumer research.

89. Gresham, L. G., & Shimp, T. A. (1985). Attitude toward the advertisement and brand attitudes: A classical conditioning perspective. Journal of Advertising.

90. Guangyi, F. (1992). Variation Rhetoric [M]. Wuhan: Hubei Education Press

91. Guidlach, (1931) History: American Advertising in the Twentieth Century, *targetmarket.org/targe_6.html*

92. Gumperz, J. J. (1982). Discourse strategies (Vol. 1). Cambridge University Press.

93. Hastie, R. (1980). Memory for behavioral information that confirms or contradicts a personality impression. Hastie, R.; Ostrom, TM; Ebbesen, EB.

94. Hastie, R. (1981). Schematic principles in human memory. In Social Cognition: The Ontario Symposium (Vol. 1). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

95. Hastie, R. (1984). Causes and effects of causal attribution. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.

96. Haugtvedt, Curtis P., Clark Leavitt and Wendy L. Schneier (1993), "Cognitive Strength of Established Brands: Memory, Attitudinal, and Structural Approaches," in Brand Equity and Advertising: The Role of Advertising in Creating Brand Equity, David A Aaker and Alexander L. Biel, eds Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

97. Holaday, B., & Turner-Henson, A. (1989). Response effects in surveys with school-age children. Nursing Research.

98. Holdert, F., & Antonides, G. (1997). Family Type Effects on Household Members' Decision Making. Advances in Consumer Research.

1. Holdert, F., &Antonides, G. (1997). Family Type Effects on Household Members' Decision Making. Advances in Consumer Research, 24(1).

2. Hollebeek, L. D., Jaeger, S. R., Brodie, R. J., & Balemi, A. (2007). The influence of involvement on purchase intention for new world wine. Food Quality and Preference, 18(8).

3. Hop, L. (2005). Advertising to children in the Netherlands. Young Consumers, 6(4).

4. Hoy, M. G., Young, C. E., & Mowen, J. C. (1986). Animated host-selling advertisements: Their impact on young children's recognition, attitudes, and behaviour. Journal of Public Policy & Marketing.

5. Hughes, G. (1987). Words in time. Blackwell

6. Hundal, B. S. (2001). Consumer Behaviour in Rural Market: A Study of Durables. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar.

7. India demographics profile (2014), *http://www.indexmundi.com/india/demographics_profile.html*

8. Jeanne Hill, C., & Motes, W. H. (1995). Professional versus generic retail services: new insights. Journal of services marketing, 9(2).

9. Jenkins, R. L. (1979). The influence of children in family decision-making: parents' perceptions. Advances in consumer research, 6(1).

10. Jensen, J. M. (1995). Children's purchase requests and parental responses: results from an exploratory study in Denmark. European Advances in Consumer Research, 2(1).

11. John, D. R., & Cole, C. A. (1986). Age differences in information processing: Understanding deficits in young and elderly consumers. Journal of Consumer Research.

12. John, D. R., & Lakshmi-Ratan, R. (1992). Age differences in children's choice behavior: The impact of available alternatives. Journal of Marketing Research.

13. Kapoor, N., & Verma, D. P. S. (2005). Children's understanding of TV advertisements: Influence of age, sex and parents. Vision: The Journal of Business Perspective, 9(1).

14. Kapoor, S. (2001). Family Influence On Purchase Decisions- A Study with Reference to Consumer Durables, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Delhi, Delhi.

15. Kashif, M., Ayyaz, M., & Basharat, S. (2014). TV food advertising aimed at children: qualitative study of Pakistani fathers' views. Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 26(4).

16. Kassarjian, H. H. (1977). Content analysis in consumer research. Journal of consumer research.

17. Kaur, P. (2003). Dynamics of Purchase Decision Making in Families: A Study of Consumer Durables, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar.

18. Kaur, P., & Singh, R. (2004). 'Role-structures in the buying decision process for durables. Paradigm, January-June.

19. Kaur, P., & Singh, R. (2006). Children in family purchase decision making in India and the West: A review. Academy of Marketing Science Review, 2006, 1.

20. Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. The Journal of Marketing.

21. Keller, K. L. (1998), Strategic Brand Management. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall

22. King, K. W., & Tinkham, S. F. (1989). The learning and retention of outdoor advertising. Journal of Advertising Research.

23. Koester, J. V. (2003). Legal briefing: advertising to children in the USA. Young Consumers, 4(1).

24. Kohli, C., Leuthesser, L., & Suri, R. (2007). Got slogan? Guidelines for creating effective slogans. Business Horizons, 50(5).

25. Kover, A. J., Goldberg, S. M., & James, W. L. (1995). Creativity vs. effectiveness? An integrating classification for advertising. Journal of Advertising Research, 35.

26. Kressmann, F., Sirgy, M. J., Herrmann, A., Huber, F., Huber, S., & Lee, D. J. (2006). Direct and indirect effects of self-image congruence on brand loyalty. Journal of Business Research, 59(9).

27. Krippendorff, K. (2004). Reliability in content analysis. Human Communication Research, 30(3).

28. Kunkel, D. (2001). Children and television advertising. Handbook of children and the media.

29. Kunkel, D., & Roberts, D. (1991). Young minds and marketplace values: Issues in children's television advertising. Journal of Social Issues, 47(1).

30. Kvetko, P. (2001). Essentials of modern English lexicology. Retaas.

31. KYPRIANOU, M. COMMISSION REGULATION (EC) No 245/2007.

32. Lagerwerf, L. (2002). Deliberate ambiguity in slogans: recognition and appreciation. Document Design, 3(3).

33. Lamons, B. (1997). A slogan for almost every ad, but only a few worth reading. Marketing News.

34. Lanz Vallejo, L. (2011). The change in Spanish-English code as creativity language and presentation of the image in tweets written by Tijuana. Retrieved from http://www.cucsh.uan.edu.mx/jornadas/modulos/memoria/lanz_ca mbio_codigo.pdf

35. Laroche, M., Saad, G., Cleveland, M., & Browne, E. (2000). Gender differences in information search strategies for a Christmas gift. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 17(6).

36. Leech, G. (1969). A linguistic guide to English poetry. London: Longman

37. Leech, G. N. (1972). English in Avertising: A Linguistic Study of Advertising in Great Britain (English Language Series). London: Longman.

38. Leech. (1966). English in advertising, by geoffrey leech. London: Longman.

39. Loken, B., & John, D. R. (1993). Diluting brand beliefs: when do brand extensions have a negative impact?. The Journal of Marketing.

40. Macklin, M. C. (1983). Do children understand TV ads? Journal of Advertising Research.

41. Macklin, M. C. (1985). Do young children understand the selling intent of commercials? Journal of Consumer Affairs, 19(2).

42. Macklin, M. C. (1987). Preschoolers' understanding of the informational function of television advertising. Journal of Consumer research.

43. MacWhinney, B. (1999). The emergence of language. Taylor & Francis.

44. Mandler, G. (1982). The structure of value: Accounting for taste. In Affect and cognition: The seventeenth annual Carnegie Symposium on Cognition.

45. Mathur, L. K., & Mathur, I. (1995). The effect of advertising slogan changes on the market values of firms. Journal of Advertising Research.

46. McClelland, J. L., & Siegler, R. (Eds.). (2001). Mechanisms of cognitive development: Behavioral and neural perspectives. Psychology Press.

47. McCracken, E. (1993). Decoding women's magazines: From Mademoiselle to Ms. Macmillan.

48. McNeal, J. U. (1969). CHILD CONSUMER-NEW MARKET. Journal of Retailing.

49. McNeal, J. U. (1987). Children as consumers.

50. McQuarrie, E. F., & Mick, D. G. (1999). Visual rhetoric in advertising: Text-interpretive, experimental, and reader-response analysis. Journal of consumer research, 26(1).

51. Meyers-Levy, J., & Tybout, A. M. (1989). Schema congruity as a basis for product evaluation. Journal of consumer research.

52. Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook. Sage.

53. Mooney, C. Z., & Duval, R. D. (1993). *Bootstrapping: A nonparametric approach to statistical inference* Newbury Park, CA: Sage

54. Moore, D. L., & Hutchinson, J. W. (1985). The influence of affective reactions to advertising: Direct and indirect mechanisms of attitude change. Psychological processes and advertising effects.

55. Moschis, G. P., & Churchill Jr, G. A. (1978). Consumer socialization: A theoretical and empirical analysis. Journal of Marketing Research.

56. Moschis, G. P., & Moore, R. L. (1980). Purchasing behaviour of adolescent consumers. In Proceedings of the American Marketing Association (Vol. 45). Chicago: American Marketing Association.

57. Mukherji, J. (2005). Maternal communication patterns, advertising attitudes and mediation behaviours in urban India. Journal of Marketing Communications, 11(4).

58. Murray, J. P., & Kippax, S. (1981). Television's impact on children and adults: International perspectives on theory and research. In Mass communication review yearbook (Vol. 2). Sage Beverly Hills, CA.

59. Myers, G. (1997). Words in Ads. Hodder Education.

60. Nassar, M. A., & Al Zien, A. (2012). Effects of television advertising on children in the Middle East. Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues, 5(4).

61. Neelankavil, J. P., OBRIEN, J. V., & Tashjian, R. (1985). Techniques to obtain market-related information from very young-children. Journal of Advertising Research, 25(3).

62. Noam, C. (1957). Syntactic structures. The Hague: Mouton.

63. Ogilvy, D. (1985). Ogilvy on Advertising.

64. Pai, Jagadish. Protein Foods & Nutrition Development Association of India (PFNDAI), *http://www.in-beverage.org/pfndai.pdf*

65. Palmer, E. L., & MacNeil, M. (1991). Children's comprehension processes: From Piaget to public policy. Responding to the screen: Reception and reaction processes.

66. Palmer, E. L., & McDowell, C. N. (1979). Program/commercial separators in children's television programming. Journal of Communication.

67. Pandya, I. H. (1977). English Language in Advertising: A Linguistic Study of Indian Press Advertising. Delhi: Ajanta Publications (India): distributors, Ajanta Books International.

68. Panwar, J. S., & Agnihotri, M. (2006). Advertising message processing amongst urban children: An Indian experience-with special reference to TV advertising. Asia pacific Journal of Marketing and logistics.

69. Petty, R. E., Cacioppo, J. T., & Schumann, D. (1983). Central and peripheral routes to advertising effectiveness: The moderating role of involvement. Journal of consumer research.

70. Pfaff, C. W. (1979). Constraints on language mixing: intrasentential code-switching and borrowing in Spanish/English. Language.

71. Piaget, J. (1929). The child's conception of the world . Rowman& Littlefield.

72. Piaget, J. (1952). The origins of intelligence in children (Vol. 8, No. 5). New York: International Universities Press.

73. Piaget, J. (1981). Intelligence and affectivity: Their relationship during child development. (Trans & Ed TA Brown & CE Kaegi). Annual reviews.

74. Pollio, H. R., Smith, M. K., & Pollio, M. R. (1990). Figurative language and cognitive psychology. Language and Cognitive Processe.

75. POP, A., & DREDETIANU, M. (2014). Essentials of Advertising Communication. Academica Science Journal-Economica Series.

76. Radder, L., & Huang, W. (2008). High-involvement and low-involvement products: A comparison of brand awareness among students at a South African university. Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal.

77. Raju, P. S., & Lonial, S. C. (1990). Advertising to children: Findings and implications. Current issues and research in advertising.

78. Ratner, N., & Bruner, J. (1978). Games, social exchange and the acquisition of language. Journal of child language.

79. Rees, N. (1982). Slogans. George Allen & Unwin.

80. Ren, C. H. I., & Yu, H. A. O. (2013). Language deviation in English advertising. Studies in Literature and Language.

81. Reynolds, F. D. & Wells, W. D. (1977). Consumer Behaviour. McGraw-Hill

82. Robertson, T. S. (1979). Parental mediation of television advertising effects. Journal of Communication.

83. Robertson, T. S., & Rossiter, J. R. (1974). Children and commercial persuasion: An attribution theory analysis. Journal of Consumer research.

84. Robertson, T. S., &Rossiter, J. R. (1977). Children's responsiveness to commercials. Journal of Communication, 27(1).

85. Roedder, D. L., Sternthal, B., & Calder, B. J. (1983). Attitude-behaviour consistency in children's responses to television advertising. Journal of Marketing Research.

86. Russell-Bennett, R., McColl-Kennedy, J. R., & Coote, L. V. (2007). Involvement, satisfaction, and brand loyalty in a small business services setting. Journal of Business Research.

87. Sally, W., & Ashby, M. (2001). Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.

88. Schotthofer, P. (2002). Legal briefing: advertising to children in Germany. Young Consumers.

89. Schreier, M. (2012). Qualitative content analysis in practice. Sage Publications.

90. Scott, J., Brynin, M., & Smith, R. (1995). Interviewing children in the British household panel study. Advances in family research. Amsterdam: Thesis Publishers.

91. Scott, L. M. (1990). Understanding jingles and needle drop: A rhetorical approach to music in advertising. Journal of Consumer Research.

92. Sen Gupta, S., & Verma, D. P. S. (2000). We, not me who will buy. Indian Management.

93. Seventeen Makes a Sales Call (1980), Madison Avenue, Vol. 22.

94. Shamsollahi, A., Amirshahi, M., & Ghaffari, F. (2014). Brand name recall: A study of the effects of word types, processing, and involvement levels. Journal of Marketing Communications.

95. Sharma, S., & Singh, R. (2006). *Advertising: Planning and Implementation*. PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd..

96. Shie, J. S. (2005). Master Tropes in English Magazine Advertisements: A Semiotic Topic-Vehicle Approach. Taiwan Journal of Linguistics.

97. Singh, D. (1998). Children as consumers. Indian Management.

98. Singh, P. (1992). Family buying behaviour for TV-an empirical investigation. Vanijya.

99. Singh, R., & Soni, P. (2015). Ethics in Food Advertising to Children in India—A Parental Perspective. Journal of Food Products Marketing.

100. Skinner, B. F. (1957). The experimental analysis of behaviour. American scientist.

101. Smith, G., & Sweeney, E. (1984). Children and television advertising: An overview. CRU.

102. Stephens, N., Stutts, M. A., & Burdick, R. (1982). Preschoolers' ability to distinguish between television programming and commercials. Journal of Advertising.

103. Stone, G., Besser, D., & Lewis, L. E. (2000). Recall, Liking, and Creativity in TV Commericals: A New Approach. Journal of Advertising Research.

104. Stutts, M. A., Vance, D., & Hudleson, S. (1981). Program-commercial separators in children's television: Do they help a child tell the difference between Bugs Bunny and the Quick Rabbit? Journal of Advertising.

105. Sundberg, N., Sharma, V., Wodtli, T., & Rohila, P. (1969). Family cohesiveness and autonomy of adolescents in India and the United States. Journal of Marriage and the Family.

106. Synovate. (2004). Global car purchase survey asks: do kids drive their parents? www.synovate.com

107. Tesch, R. (2013). Qualitative Types: Analysis Typ. Routledge.

108. Thorson, E. and Page, T.J. (1990) On the Ubiquity of Aad-->Ab Effects. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Academy of Advertising, Orlando, Florida

109. Till, B. D., & Baack, D. W. (2005). Recall and Persuasion: does creative advertising matter? Journal of Advertising, 34(3).

110. Todorov, T. (1982). Theories of the Symbol, trans. C. Porter (Ithaca: Cornell UP, 1982).

111. Van der Voort, T. H., Nikken, P., & Van Lil, J. E. (1992). Replication: Determinants of parental guidance of children's television viewing: A Dutch replication study. Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media.

112. Van Syckle, C. (1951). Practices Followed by Consumers in Buying 'Large Expenditure' Items of Clothing, Furniture and Equipment. Quoted in R. Ferber, Marketing Research.

113. Varian, H. R. (1983). Non-parametric tests of consumer behaviour. The review of economic studies.

114. Vasiloaia, M. (2009). Linguistic Features of the Language of Advertising. Economy Transdisciplinarity Cognition.

115. Verma, K. P. (1982). 'Marketing strategies for consumer durables: the case of a domestic refrigerator. The Indian Journal of Commerce.

116. Vestergaard, T., & Schrøder, K. (1985). The language of advertising. Oxford: Blackwell

117. Vygotsky, L. (1978). Interaction between learning and development. Readings on the development of children.

118. Wackman, D. B., Wartella, E., & Ward, S. (1977). Learning to be consumers: The role of the family. Journal of Communication.

119. Wales, K. (2001). A Dictionary of Stylistics. Harlow: Pearson Education.

120. Ward, S., & Wackman, D. B. (1972). Children's purchase influence attempts and parental yielding. Journal of Marketing Research.

121. Wartella, E. (1980). Individual differences in children's responses to television advertising. Children and the faces of television: Teaching, violence, selling.

122. Whitehead, R. J. (2015), *http://www.foodnavigator-asia.com/Markets/Analysts-predict-lightning-growth-for-Indian-confectionery-market?utm_source=copyright&utm_medium=OnSite&utm_campaign=copyright*

123. Widdowson, H. G. (2000). On the limitations of linguistics applied. Applied linguistics.

124. Wilkie, W.L. (1994), Consumer Behavior, 3rd ed., John Wiley & Sons, New York, NY

125. Williams, L. A., & Veeck, A. (1998). An exploratory study of children's purchase influence in urban China. Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research.

126. Williamson, J. (1978). Decoding advertisements (Vol. 4). London: Marion Boyars.

127. Witterbroodt, I. (1990). De Invloed van Televisiereclame op kinderen. Literatuurstudieen Onderzoekbij Schoolgaande Kinderen. Leuven: M.A. dissertation, Catholic University of Leuven.

99. World Health Statistics. World Health Organization. (2014).

128. World Population Prospects: 2012 revision, United Nations, *http://www.worldometers.info/world-population/india-population/*

129. Xiangjin, T. (2002). English Word-spelling Deviations and Their Semantic Meaning [J]. Foreign Language Education.

130. Yalch, R. F. (1991). Memory in a jingle jungle: Music as a mnemonic device in communicating advertising slogans. Journal of Applied Psychology.

131. Young, B. M. (1990). Television advertising and children. Oxford University Press, USA.

132. Zuckerman, P., Ziegler, M., & Stevenson, H. W. (1978). Children's viewing of television and recognition memory of commercials. Child Development.

Appendix

Questionnaire with New slogans

- NAME -

- SCHOOL -

- CLASS -

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  a) Kachcha mango bite
  b) Cadbury Éclairs
  c) alpenliebe creamfills
  d) Chlor mint

- Please rate the quality of this tagline.
  a) Excellent   b) Above average
  c) Average   d) Below average
  e)Poor

- How attractive do you think this Tagline is ?
  a) Very attractive   b) Somewhat attractive   c) Neither attractive nor unattractive
  d) Unattractive   e) Very unattractive

- Have you ever heard/read this tagline other than this advertisement, if yes where/when ?
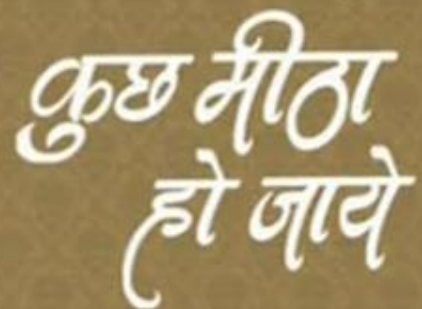 a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

KUCH ALAG ACHANAK

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  - a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  - a) Thumps-up   b) Pepsi
  - c) Coca cola   d) Sprite

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this advertisement.
  - a) Considerable interest   b) Moderate interest
  - c) Some interest   d) little interest
  - e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is relevant for the product ?
  - a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent   c) To Some extent
  - d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most ?
  - a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
  - d) Character   e) Tag line

JASHN MANA LE

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  - a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  - a) Munch   b) Kit kat
  - c) 5-star   d) Dairy milk

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this advertisement.
  - a) Considerable interest   b) Moderate interest
  - c) Some interest   d) little interest
  - e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is relevant for the product ?
  - a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent
  - c) To Some extent   d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most ?
  - a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
  - d) Character   e) Tag line

कुछ मीठा हो जाये

- Do you identify this advertisement?
    a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product? (it's a chocolate product)
    a) Center fresh   b) Melody
    c) Maha lacto   d) Eclairs

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this advertisement.
    a) Considerable interest   b) Moderate interest   c) Some interest
    d) little interest   e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is relevant for the product?
    a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent   c) To Some extent
    d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most?
    a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
    d) Character   e) Tag line

- Do you identify this advertisement?
    a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
    a) Cadbury shots   b) Marble
    c) Poppins   d) Gems

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this advertisement.
    a) Considerable interest   b) Moderate interest
    c) Some interest   d) little interest
    e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is relevant for the product?
    a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent   c) To Some extent
    d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most?
    a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
    d) Character   e) Tag line

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
    a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
    a) Limca   b) Nimbooz
    c) 7-up   d) Sprite

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this advertisement.
    a) Considerable interest
    b) Moderate interest
    c) Some interest
    d) little interest
    e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is relevant for the product ?
    a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent   c) To Some extent
    d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most ?
    a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
    d) Character   e) Tag line

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
    a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
    a) lays   b) Taka tak
    c) Uncle chips   d) kurkure

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this advertisement.
    a) Considerable interest   b) Moderate interest   c) Some interest d) little interest
    e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is relevant for the product ?
    a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent   c) To Some extent
    d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most ?
    a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
    d) Character   e) Tag line

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  - a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  - a) Mango bite   b) Mentos
  - c) Alpenliebe   d) Center fruit

- Please rate the quality of this tagline.
  - a) Excellent   b) Above average
  - c) Average   d) Below average
  - f) Poor

- How attractive do you think this Tagline is ?
  - a) Very attractive   b) Somewhat attractive   c) Neither attractive nor unattractive
  - d) Unattractive   e) Very unattractive

- Have you ever heard/read this tagline other than this advertisement, if yes where/when ?
  - a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  - a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  - a) Mirinda   b) Frooti
  - c) Slice   d) Maaza

- Please rate the quality of this tagline.
  - a) Excellent
  - b) Above average
  - c) Average
  - d) Below average
  - f) Poor

- How attractive do you think this Tagline is ?
  - a) Very attractive
  - b) Somewhat attractive
  - c) Neither attractive nor unattractive
  - d) Unattractive
  - e) Very unattractive

- Have you ever heard/read this tagline other than this advertisement, if yes where/when ?
  - a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
    a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
    a) Thumps-up   b) Coca cola   c) Pepsi   d) Sprite

- Please rate the quality of this tagline.
    a) Excellent
    b) Above average
    c) Average
    d) Below average
    f)Poor

- How attractive do you think this Tagline is ?
    a) Very attractive
    b) Somewhat attractive
    c) Neither attractive nor unattractive
    d) Unattractive
    e) Very unattractive

- Have you ever heard/read this tagline other than this advertisement, if yes where/when ?
    a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
    a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
    a)Mirinda   b) Frooti
    c) Slice   d) Maaza

- Please rate the quality of this tagline.
    a) Excellent   b) Above average
    c) Average   d) Below average
    f)Poor

- How attractive do you think this Tagline is ?
    a) Very attractive   b) Somewhat attractive   c) Neither attractive nor unattractive
    d) Unattractive   e) Very unattractive

- Have you ever heard/read this tagline other than this advertisement, if yes where/when ?
    a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

Questionnaire with old advertising slogans

▶ NAME –

▶ SCHOOL –

▶ CLASS -

Thanda मतलब ...

- Can you identify this advertisement ?
  - a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product ?
  - a) Thumps-up   b) Pepsi
  - c) Coca cola   d) Sprite

- Please rate the quality of this tagline.
  - a) Excellent   b) Above average
  - c) Average   d) Below average
  - f) Poor

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this ad.
  - a) Considerable interest   b) Moderate interest
  - c) Some interest   d) little interest
  - e) No interest

- Have you ever heard/read this tagline other than this ad, if yes where/when ?
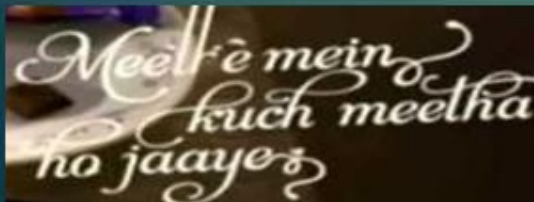 - a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  - a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product ?
  - a) Munch   b) Kit kat
  - c) 5-star   d) Dairy milk

- Please rate the quality of this tagline.
  - a) Excellent   b) Above average
  - c) Average   d) Below average
  - f)Poor

- How attractive do you think this Tagline is ?
  - a) Very attractive   b) Somewhat attractive
  - c) Neither attractive nor unattractive
  - d) Unattractive   e) Very unattractive

- Have you ever heard/read this tagline other than this advertisement, if yes where/when ?
  - a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  - a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product ?
  - a) Kachcha mango bite
  - b) Eclairs
  - c) alpenliebe
  - d) Chlor mint

- Please rate the quality of this tagline.
  - a) Excellent   b) Above average
  - c) Average   d) Below average
  - f)Poor

- How attractive do you think this Tagline is ?
  - a) Very attractive   b) Somewhat attractive   c) Neither attractive nor unattractive
  - d) Unattractive   e) Very unattractive

- Have you ever heard/read this tagline other than this advertisement, if yes where/when ?
  - a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  a) Center fresh   b) Cadbury eclairs
  c) Maha lacto   d) Melody

  - Please rate the quality of this tagline.
    a) Excellent   b) Above average
    c) Average   d) Below average
    f) Poor

  - How attractive do you think this Tagline is ?
    a) Very attractive   b) Somewhat attractive
    c) Neither attractive nor unattractive
    d) Unattractive   e) Very unattractive

    Have you ever heard/read this tagline other than
    this advertisement, if yes where/when ?
    a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  a) Gems   b) Marble
  c) Poppins   d) Cadbury shots

- Please rate the quality of this tagline.
  a) Excellent   b) Above average
  c) Average   d) Below average
  f) Poor

- How attractive do you think this Tagline is ?
  a) Very attractive   b) Somewhat attractive
  c) Neither attractive nor unattractive
  d) Unattractive   e) Very unattractive

- Have you ever heard/read this tagline other than this advertisement, if yes where/when ?
  a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
    a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
    a) Kurkure   b) Taka tak
    c) Uncle chips   d) Lays

- Please rate the quality of this tagline.
    a) Excellent   b) Above average
    c) Average   d) Below average
    f)Poor

- How attractive do you think this Tagline is ?
    a) Very attractive   b) Somewhat attractive
    c) Neither attractive nor unattractive
    d) Unattractive   e) Very unattractive

- Have you ever heard/read this tagline other
  than this advertisement, if yes where/when ?
    a) yes   b) not sure   c) no

- Do you identify these advertisement?
    a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
    a) Fanta   b) Limca
    c) 7-up   d) Sprite

- Please indicate your degree of interest in
  the tagline of this advertisement.
    a) Considerable interest   b) Moderate interest
    c) Some interest   d) little interest
    e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is
  relevant for the product ?
    a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent   c) To Some extent
    d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most ?
    a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
    d) Character   e) Tag line

Khao

Dimag Ki Batti Jalao

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  a) Mango bite   b) Center fruit
  c) Alpenliebe   d)   Mentos

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this advertisement.
  a) Considerable interest b) Moderate interest
  c) Some interest   d) little interest
  e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is relevant for the product ?
  a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent   c) To Some extent
  d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most ?
  a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
  d) Character   e) Tag line

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  a) Mirinda   b) Frooti
  c) Slice   d) Maaza

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this advertisement.
  a) Considerable interest b) Moderate interest
  c) Some interest   d) little interest
  e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is relevant for the product ?
  a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent
  c) To Some extent
  d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most ?
  a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
  d) Character   e) Tag line

**ek ...
ki DOORi Hai**

**PagaLPanTi
BHI
ZAROORI
HAi**

Slide 1

Yeh dil maange more!!

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  - a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  - a) Thumps-up   b) Pepsi
  - c) Coca cola   d) Sprite

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this advertisement.
  - a) Considerable interest   b) Moderate interest
  - c) Some interest   d) little interest
  - e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is relevant for the product ?
  - a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent   c) To Some extent
  - d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most ?
  - a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
  - d) Character   e) Tag line

Slide 2

aamsutra
pure mango pleasure

- Do you identify this advertisement ?
  - a) yes   b) no

- Can you name the product?
  - a) Mirinda   b) Frooti
  - c) Slice   d) Maaza

- Please indicate your degree of interest in the tagline of this advertisement.
  - a) Considerable interest   b) Moderate interest
  - c) Some interest   d) little interest
  - e) No interest

- To what extent do you think this tagline is relevant for the product ?
  - a) To a large extent   b) To a moderate extent
  - c) To Some extent
  - d) To little extent   e) Not at all

- What part of this ad you like the most ?
  - a) Music   b) Jingle   c) Story
  - d) Character   e) Tag line

- Do you buy products because of advertising? (Yes/ No/ May be/ Can't say)

- Do you find advertising persuasive?(Yes/ No/ May be/ Can't say)

- Should advertisers be allowed to advertise to children?(Yes/ No/ May be/ Can't say)

- What things do you really like to see or hear in advertising?(Tagline/ Logo/ Story/ Music/ Character)

- Do you think tagline is necessary to advertise product?(Yes/ No/ May be/ Can't say)

- Do you think there are too many ads in television?(Yes/ No/ May be/ Can't say)

- How many hours do you watch TV per day? (0-2hr/ 3-5hr/ 6-8hr/ more than 8hr)

- Advertisements influence the choices you make when you or your parents buy food.   i)Strongly Agree   ii) Agree   iii) Disagree   iv) Strongly Disagree   v) Don't Know

- Now can you write the taglines you just saw?

- Among these four pictures which one comes to your mind first?

WORK DONE:

CONFERENCES/ WORKSHOPS

1. "**Gender Jive- communication between Mars and Venus**", presented in International Conference on soft Skills Development in Academia and corporate perspective. Organized by Languages Group, BITS Pilani. 20 Sept 2008.

2. **"Ad Mania: Pester Power effect of Advertisements"**. Presented in Seventh International Conference on Management, organized at IIM Bangalore by AIMS International Journal. 20-23 December 2009.

3. **Attended** Conference On **Threads of excellence** organized by ASAP Solution Chennai held at Hotel Accord Metropolitan, Chennai.

4. "**Advertising: an effective tool for CSR**" presented in International Conference on Corporate Social Responsibility: precept and Practice, organized by Desh Bhagat Institutes, Mandi Gobindgarh. 5-6 October 2009.

5. **Attended** 22nd AIMS Annual Management Education Convention 2010 "**India 2020: Challenges in Management Education**", organized by Shiva Institute of Management Studies, Ghaziabad held at India Habitat Center, New Delhi. 26-28 August 2010

6. "**Portrayal of Women in Advertisements: Is It Really Offensive?**" presented in Eighth International Conference on Management, Organized at IIM Ahmadabad by AIMS International journal. 1-4 January 2011.

7. "**Promoting Youth Acuity for Entrepreneurship in India: Role of Education**" presented in Eighth International Conference on Management, Organized at IIM Ahmedabad by AIMS International journal. 1-4 January 2011.

8. **Attended** workshop on '**Statistical tool and simulations'** organized my BITS Pilani, . 29 sept-1 Oct 2011.

9. **" Use of advertising Messages to teach Entrepreneurship",** presented in ninth AIMS International Conference on Management, Organized at FLAME, Pune, 1-4 Jan, 2012

10. "**Teaching through innovative pedagogy**" by- Ruchika Sharma, presented on National Symposium on Interrogating new Worlds Of English Language Teaching, organized at Maharaja Ganga Singh University, Bikaner and ELTI, IASE, Bikaner on 24-25th February 2012.

11. **"Product Placement in Bollywood Movies"** Sharma, Ruchika and Charudutt Choudhry, presented in Tenth AIMS International Conference on Management, Organized at IIM Bangalore- 6-9, 2013.

12. **"Impact of Advertising Messages on Children's Brand Recall and Recognition: An Experiment Study** " by Ruchika Sharma, presented in "10th world business research conference" held in Bangkok from 6-7 October 2014

Publications-

1. Sharma Ruchika. **Gender jive –Communication between Mars and Venus.** Soft skills: cornerstone of Professional Success. 2009. New Delhi, Jain Brothers.

2. Sharma Sangeeta, Ruchika Sharma. **Advertising: an effective tool for CSR. Corporate Social Responsibility: Precept and Practice**. 2009. Mandi Gbindgarh, Desh Bhagat Institues.

3. Sharma Ruchika, Sangeeta Sharma. **Pester Power- Nag Factor. Pester Power Effect Of Advertising on Children**. 2009. Eds. Sangeeta Sharma& Raghuvir Singh. Jaipur, Vanshikha enterprises.

4. Sharma Ruchika, Reena Jain. **Psycholinguistics aspects of Brand Familiarity and Recognition: A Study of Indian Brand Names**. 2015. Glacier Journal of Scientific Research, April 2015 Issue I volume I.

5. Sharma Ruchika, Sangeeta Sharma. **Study of Linguistic Deviations used in Advertising Slogans of Confectionery and Beverages in India.** International Journal of Marketing and Technology (ISSN 2249-1058), January 2016 Issue 1 Volume 6.