# Children's Influence on the Family Decision-Making Process in Food Buying and Consumption 

An Empirical Study of Children's Influence<br>in Jakarta-Indonesia

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Am Fachbereich Agrarwissenschaften, Ökotrophologie und Umweltmanagement
Institut für Ernährungswissenschaft der Justus-Liebig-Universität Gießen

Eingereicht von: M.Sc. Hanny Suwandinata
Erstgutachter: Prof. Dr. Ingrid-Ute Leonhäuser
Zweitgutachter: Prof. Dr. Hermann Boland

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ..... 1
TABLE OF CONTENTS ..... 2
ABBREVIATION INDEX ..... 6
LIST OF TABLES ..... 7
LIST OF FIGURES ..... 11
I INTRODUCTION
Problem Statement and Specific Issues ..... 13
Organization of the Thesis ..... 16
II THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
1 Conceptual Framework for Family Decision Making
1.1. Introduction ..... 18
1.2. Children in Family Decision Research (State of the Art) ..... 18
1.3. Model of Family Decision Making ..... 23
1.4. Conflicts in the Family Decision-Making Process ..... 25
2 Conceptual Framework about Children and their Influence
2.1. Children in the Consumer Socialization ..... 25
2.2. Understanding the Theory about "Children's Influence" ..... 28
2.3. Changing Childhood in Society ..... 31
The Beginning of Market Interest in Children ..... 31
The Disappearance of Authority from Parents ..... 32
From Parents' Authority to Kids’ Influence ..... 33
Mother as "Gate Keeper" ..... 33
The "Grown-Up" Influence ..... 33
2.4 Children as Potential Consumers ..... 34
Children as the Current Target Market ..... 34
Children as the Future Target Market ..... 34
Children's Influence in the Parents' Decision-Making Process ..... 35
Children's Influence by Product Category ..... 35
3 Summary ..... 36

## III EMPIRICAL FRAMEWORK

1 Research Study about Children's Influence in Jakarta, Indonesia
1.1. Purpose of Study ..... 38
1.2. Background to the Problem ..... 38
1.3. Research Approach ..... 39
1.4. Research Design ..... 40
1.5. Research Hypothesis ..... 42
1.6. Research Framework ..... 43
1.6.1. Buyer Decision Process ..... 43
1.6.2. Consumption Decision Process ..... 45
1.6.3. Family Characteristics ..... 45
1.7. Selection of the Research Area ..... 47
1.8. Selection of Participants ..... 48
1.9. Data Collection ..... 48
1.10.Statistical Test ..... 49
1.10.1. Qualitative ..... 51
1.10.2. Quantitative ..... 52
2 Questionnaires
2.1 Questionnaires as the Quantitative Method of Collecting Data ..... 53
2.2 The Concept of the Questionnaire ..... 53
2.2.1. Questionnaire for Children ..... 55
2.2.2. Questionnaire for Parents ..... 59
2.3. The Process of the Survey ..... 61
2.4 The Statistical Analysis of the Questionnaire ..... 62
2.4.1. Analyzing the Data ..... 62
2.4.2. Influence Score ..... 64
2.4.2.1. Influence Score for Children's Questionnaire ..... 65
2.4.2.2. Influence Score for Parents' Questionnaire ..... 68
3 Ethnographic Study
3.1. Ethnographic Study as a Qualitative Method of Collecting Data ..... 73
3.2. The Concept of the Ethnographic Study ..... 73
3.3. The Observation and Interview Performance ..... 74
3.3.1. The Observation ..... 74
3.3.1.1. Observation Protocol during Food Purchase Planning and Grocery Shopping ..... 75
3.3.1.2. Observation Protocol during Food Consumption ..... 76
3.3.2. The Interview ..... 77
4 Summary ..... 80

## IV RESULTS

1 Quantitative Results ..... 81
1.1. Descriptive ..... 81
1.1.1.Personal Information ..... 83
1.1.1.1. Parents ..... 83
1.1.1.2. Children ..... 85
1.1.2 Food Purchase Planning and Grocery Shopping ..... 86
1.1.2.1. Source of Information ..... 86
1.1.2.2. Most Important Factors in Choosing the Food Products ..... 88
1.1.2.3. Enjoyment for Shopping. ..... 89
1.1.2.4. Helping Parents during Grocery Shopping ..... 90
1.1.2.5. Food Mostly Recommended by Children. ..... 91
1.1.3 Consumption Process ..... 92
1.1.3.1. Breakfast ..... 93
1.1.3.2. Lunch ..... 96
1.1.3.3. Dinner ..... 101
1.1.4. Parents' and Children's Perception ..... 105
1.1.5. Influence Score Results from Participating Families ..... 106
1.2. Explanatory ..... 108
1.2.1. Socio-Economic Status ..... 108
1.2.2. Socio-Demographic Status ..... 115
1.3. Evaluation of the Quantitative Results ..... 125
2 Qualitative Results ..... 130
2.1.Case Studies (Participants' Families)
2.1.1. Family A. ..... 131
2.1.2. Family B ..... 134
2.1.3. Family C ..... 136
2.1.4. Family D ..... 138
2.1.5. Family E ..... 140
2.1.6. Family F ..... 142
2.1.7. Family G ..... 144
2.1.8. Family H ..... 146
2.1.9. Family I ..... 148
2.1.10. Family J ..... 150
2.1.11. Family K ..... 152
2.1.12. Family L ..... 154
2.1.13. Family M ..... 156
2.1.14. Family N ..... 158
2.1.15. Family O ..... 160
2.1.16. Family P ..... 162
2.1.17. Family Q ..... 164
2.2. Evaluation of the Qualitative Result (Ethnographic Research) ..... 166
3 Comparison between Quantitative and Qualitative Results ..... 168
4 Summary ..... 172
V DISCUSSION
1 Methodological Approach by Data Collection ..... 173
1.1. Participants in the Study ..... 174
1.2. Discussion of the Children's Questionnaire ..... 175
1.3. Discussion of the Parents' Questionnaire ..... 175
1.4. Discussion of the Ethnographic Study ..... 176
2. Discussion of the Results ..... 177
2.1. Discussion of the Socioeconomic Status ..... 177
2.2. Discussion of the Socio-Demographic Status ..... 179
2.3. Discussion of Food Buying and the Consumption Process ..... 182
2.4. Discussion of Quantitative and Qualitative Results ..... 188
2.5. Discussion of Results Compared to Previous Studies ..... 192
3. Summary of the Discussion ..... 197
VI SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION
Summary of the Research Problems and Approach ..... 202
Summary of the Results ..... 203
Research Limitations ..... 207
Research Implications and Recommendations ..... 207
Conclusion ..... 208
Further Research ..... 209
Summary ..... 210
Zusammenfassung ..... 213
Bibliography ..... 216
Abstract
Eidesstattliche Erklärung
Declaration

## Abbreviation Index

| BPS | : Badan Pusat Statistic (Statistic Bureau / BPS-Statistics Indonesia) |
| :--- | :--- |
| CEO | : Chief Executive Officer |
| IDR | : Indonesian Rupiah |
| PASW | : Predictive Analysis Software |
| Rp. | : Rupiah |
| SD | : Sekolah Dasar (Elementary School) |
| SDK | : Sekolah Dasar Kristen (Christian Elementary School) |
| SDS | : Socio Demographic Status |
| SES | $:$ Socio Economic Status |
| SPSS | : Statistical Package for the Social Sciences |
| SRO | $:$ Sex Role Orientation |

## List of Tables

Page
Table 1 Previous studies on children's influence in family decision making ..... 21
Table 2 Qualitative vs. quantitative methods ..... 50
Table 3 The differences between children's and parents' questionnaire ..... 54
Table 4 Influence score - measuring the role of children ..... 65
Table 5 Influence score - indicating the responses of the parents ..... 66
Table 6 Influence score - indicating the responses from children ..... 66
Table 7 Influence score - measuring the frequency of children participating in grocery shopping ..... 67
Table 8 Influence score - indicating the children's attitude during grocery shopping ..... 67
Table 9 Influence score - identifying the type of help from children and calculating the degree of children's assistance during grocery shopping ..... 68
Table 10 Influence score - identifying the children's opinion towards their role in the family ..... 68
Table 11 Influence score - identifying the parents' opinion on whether the children have an influence in food buying or not ..... 69
Table 12 Influence score - identifying the parents' response towards children's request ..... 69
Table 13 Influence score - indicating whether the parents think that children's opinion with regards to the product is important or not ..... 70
Table 14 Influence score - indicating that parents care about their children's opinion when choosing the food for the children ..... 71
Table 15 Influence score - indicating whether or not parents think that their children can have an influence on what the family eats and buys ..... 71
Table 16 Quantitative results - personal information from parents ..... 82
Table 17 Quantitative results - personal information from children. ..... 85
Table 18 Quantitative results - sources of information ..... 87
Table 19 Quantitative results - important product criteria ..... 88
Table 20 Quantitative results - enjoyment for shopping ..... 89
Table 21 Quantitative results - helping parents during grocery shopping ..... 90
Table 22 Quantitative results - food mostly recommended by children ..... 91
Table 23 Quantitative results - consumption process: breakfast preparation. ..... 93
Table 24 Quantitative results - consumption process: cooking breakfast ..... 94
Table 25 Quantitative results - consumption process: helping parents during cooking / preparing of breakfast ..... 95
Table 26 Quantitative results - consumption process: children are able to decide for breakfast ..... 96
Table 27 Quantitative results - consumption process: lunch preparation ..... 97
Table 28 Quantitative results - consumption process: cooking lunch ..... 98
Table 29 Quantitative results - consumption process: helping parents during cooking / preparing of lunch ..... 99
Table 30 Quantitative results - consumption process: children are able to decide for lunch. ..... 100
Table 31 Quantitative results - consumption process: dinner preparation ..... 101
Table 32 Quantitative results - consumption process: cooking dinner ..... 102
Table 33 Quantitative results - consumption process: helping parents during cooking / preparing of dinner ..... 103
Table 34 Quantitative results - consumption process: children are able to decide for dinner ..... 104
Table 35 Quantitative results -can children influence their parents? ..... 105
Table 36 Quantitative results -children's opinion towards their role in the family ..... 106
Table 37 Quantitative results -parents' opinion towards children role in the family ..... 107
Table 38 Statistical results - income ..... 110
Table 39 Statistical results - occupation ..... 112
Table 40 Statistical results - education ..... 114
Table 41 Statistical results - parenthood ..... 116
Table 42 Statistical results - age ..... 118
Table 43 Statistical results - gender ..... 120
Table 44 Statistical results - ethnic / language Ability ..... 122
Table 45 Statistical results - family size (siblings) ..... 124
Table 46 Qualitative results - Family A ..... 133
Table 47 Qualitative results - Family B ..... 135
Table 48 Qualitative results - Family C ..... 137
Table 49 Qualitative results - Family D ..... 139
Table $50 \quad$ Qualitative results - Family E ..... 141
Table 51 Qualitative results - Family F ..... 143
Table 52 Qualitative results - Family G ..... 145
Table 53 Qualitative results - Family H ..... 147
Table $54 \quad$ Qualitative results - Family I ..... 149
Table 55 Qualitative results - Family J ..... 151
Table 56 Qualitative results - Family K ..... 153
Table 57 Qualitative results - Family L ..... 155
Table 58 Qualitative results - Family M ..... 157
Table 59 Qualitative results - Family N ..... 159
Table 60 Qualitative results - Family O ..... 161
Table 61 Qualitative results - Family P ..... 163
Table 62 Qualitative results - Family Q ..... 165

## List of Figures

Page
Figure 1 Organization / structure of the thesis ..... 17
Figure 2 A model of family decision-making ..... 23
Figure 3 The family food model. ..... 30
Figure 4 Children's influence model ..... 30
Figure 5 Research design ..... 40
Figure 6 The family decision-making process - in food buying and consumption ..... 43
Figure 7 Buyer decision process from Kotler ..... 44
Figure 8 Cover design of the children's questionnaire ..... 58
Figure 9 The role of children in the family ..... 72
Figure 10 Source of information ..... 87
Figure 11 Important product criteria ..... 88
Figure 12 Children's enjoyment for shopping ..... 89
Figure 13 Parents' enjoyment for shopping ..... 89
Figure 14 Helping parents during grocery shopping ..... 90
Figure 15 Food mostly recommended by children ..... 92
Figure 16 Breakfast preparation ..... 93
Figure 17 Cooking breakfast ..... 94
Figure 18 Helping parents during cooking / preparing of breakfast ..... 95
Figure 19 Children are able to decide for breakfast ..... 96
Figure 20 Lunch preparation ..... 97
Figure 21 Cooking lunch ..... 98
Figure 22 Helping parents during cooking / preparing of lunch ..... 99
Figure 23 Children are able to decide for lunch ..... 100
Figure 24 Dinner preparation ..... 101
Figure 25 Cooking dinner ..... 102
Figure 26 Helping parents during cooking / preparing of dinner ..... 103
Figure 27 Children are able to decide for dinner ..... 104
Figure 28 Can children influence their parents? ..... 105
Figure 29 The role of children in the family (according to children) ..... 106
Figure 30 The role of children in the family (according to parents) ..... 107

## I INTRODUCTION

Children represent an important target market segment and gain respective attention from the marketing point of view. "Kids today are customers, buyers, spenders, shoppers, consumers" (MCNEAL 1992). Children play an important role in the consumer market by influencing their parents' purchases either for the product used in the household or for the children themselves (Belch et al. 1985, Foxman et al. 1989). "Mother and child is a buying team" as quoted in CoOK 2003. The marketers and advertisers have observed and analyzed the mother-child bond as a primary market relationship (Cook 2003). Children today are spoiled, have more power to decide on what they want, especially what comes on the table (HEYER 1997; Leonhäuser 1999; Spiegel Special 2005; Ernährungs-umschau 2009). The purchasing power of a child has increased beyond what he or she can earn when their "purchase influence" is considered (Kraak 1998).

It is believed that the norm tradition and rules of parents deciding in the family have begun to disappear. Communication in the family becomes more open and democratic. Consequently, children achieve more influence on family decision making (MIKKELSEN 2006). Children have more freedom to choose instead of things being chosen by the parents on what they eat, wear, or buy. The freedom of a child's will and desire has brought benefit to the food market and other children's industries. Based upon a review of previous studies, children's influence in family purchases and consumer decision making varied by products and decision-related factors, as well as the socio-economic and demographic factors of the family.

## Problem Statement and Specific Issues

It has taken a long time for consumer decision-making research to acknowledge children as important actors in the family's decision-making process. The focus of previous studies was centered on the role of husbands and wives, who have been considered the relevant decisionmaking unit in the family; whereas the children's role in the family was ignored, overlooked, and neglected (Jenkins 1979; Mangleburg 1990; Lee 1994). The influence of spouses on the family decision-making process, who influenced whom, what conflicts appeared between spouses during the decision process, and also how the spouses perceive the products and how they value others' judgments were the focus of attention from researchers. However, later on researchers discovered that a greater importance in the family decision-making process is now being placed on children. There is an increasing recognition of the child's importance in the family purchase decisions. Not only are children important players in the family decisionmaking process, but they are also the significant influencers in situations where influence is exercised indirectly through the structure of agreement within the family members (LEE 1994).

As the children's role in the family decision-making process is increased, researches and studies that include children in family influence relationships have been further developed. Of the few studies that have included children, the majority of the studies have simply obtained data on parents' perceptions of the amount or type of influence that children exercised (Mehrotra 1977; Roberts 1981; Szybillo 1977; Ward 1972).

There are several reasons why there is a need to investigate the research with regard to children's influence in family decision making:

- Children's influence in family purchase decisions has generally been evaluated in a limited context, focusing only on certain children's products (e.g. toys or cereals).
- There is a lack of theoretical explanation with regard to the conceptual justification for the observed patterns of influence or why children's influence varies with a number of factors.
- Some studies failed to define 'influence' adequately in active and passive dimensions.
- Most studies were conducted in developed countries, such as in the USA and Europe, and very few in other countries, such as Indonesia. Varying with different cultures, norms, and religions, the previous studies might not be applicable worldwide, and there is a need for further research in other countries in order to define the problems and compare the results respectively.
- Moreover, in many studies, measuring the influence did not clearly identify where the statements from the study could be biased and subjective.

Given the inadequacy of or problems from previous studies and the present changes in family buying decisions, there is a need to investigate the research regarding children's influence during the family decision-making process further. The study of children's influence in Jakarta will present the role and involvement of children in the family decision-making process in terms of food buying and consumption. The socio-economic and demographic background of the family will also be examined, since they play an important role in analyzing the influence of children in the family. The influence measurement will also be defined in order to have a clear picture of the degree of children's influence and their role in the family. The theories with regard to children's influence together with the empirical approach are applied in order to define and analyze the children's influence in the family decision-making process. Children have influences on the family buying process, especially on purchasing the food items that relate to children's preference. This study will investigate the category of food products since food and children are attached closely to one another. Based on previous studies, children have more influence on food products compared to other product categories.

Moreover, socio-economic status (SES) in terms of income, occupation, and education are the important factors that researchers cannot ignore when analyzing the children's influence in the family. Research showed that SES is associated with a wide array of health, cognitive, and socio-emotional outcomes in children (Bradley 2002). Household income has a strong direct influence on the family's well being, especially on children's health (Nelson 2004, BRADLEY 2002). Previous studies also showed that children whose parents have high income are most likely to have a high influence on the process of family's decision making, because the parents can afford to accommodate the children's preference. Second is the issue of occupation. When discussing the occupation in regard to children's influence, the first thing that comes in mind is the career mother. The employed mother decides how the family meal will be arranged (HEYER 1997). Education backgrounds from the parents might also play a significant role in the children's influence. The study from Slama and Taschian (1985) shows that education is positively related to purchase involvement of children.

Another related issue is the socio-demographic status (SDS) of the family. In terms of parenthood, TINSON (2008) stated that single parent households are typically, but not exclusively, headed by females. CHEAL (2002) also reported that single parent families are more likely to be reflected in lower-socio economic groups. Another SDS factor is the age, where a child's age is an important factor with regard to the child's influence on family decision making. The influence of children increases with age (ATKIN 1978). Concerning gender, ATKIN stated that female children have stronger influence in family purchase decisions and use influence strategies such as reasoning, asking, and persuading more frequently than boys. Last but not least is the issue of family size. Children who come from a big family (family with more than 5 people in the household) have less right to decide. The more children in the family, the less influence every child is able to have (HEYER 1997). All of these issues will be defined and described gradually in this thesis.

## Organization of the Thesis

The thesis contains six parts outlined in Figure 1.

## Part 1 Introduction

In the first part of the thesis, the problem statement of the research will be introduced, describing the current situation related to the topic. Specific issues as a background of the study will also be discussed, since they are the possible factors that could have impacts on the topic.

## Part 2 Theoretical Framework

In the second part, the theoretical background of the study, e.g. the literature review, presents the family characteristics, socio-economic and demographic statuses of the family, and also conflicts that may appear during the process of family decision making are explained. Before going to the research process in Jakarta, understanding about children's influence and the changing role of children in the society will be described in this second part of the thesis.

## Part 3 Empirical Framework

In the third part, the empirical work in Jakarta will be discussed. Starting with the process before conducting the research, such as selecting the research area, selecting the participants, what methods of the study are used, and the process in collecting the data. The purpose of the study, hypothesis, and how the research is conducted, and also how the thesis is structured, the process during the survey, and the observation study will also be described in the third part of the thesis.

## Part 4 Results

In the fourth part, which is also the main part of the thesis, the final results from descriptive and statistical analysis will be defined using qualitative and quantitative research methods. In this part, the hypotheses of the study are tested whether the correlations between SES, SDS, and food buying as well as the food consumption process are significant or not. Moreover, the results from the observation and interview will be described.

## Part 5 Discussion

In the fifth part, the methodological approach and the discussion of the results will be explained. The previous and current studies with regard to children's influence in the family will be defined and compared to the results from this study.

## Part 6 Summary, Recommendations, and Conclusion

The last part will summarize the problems, approach, and results of the thesis. The limitations of the research, the implications, and the recommendations will conclude the thesis (Figure 1).


Figure 1. Organization / structure of the thesis (source: author's own model)

## II THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

## 1. Conceptual Framework for Family Decision Making

### 1.1 Introduction

Current changes in social and demographic structures are increasing children's influence on their parents' decisions and their general involvement in family decision making. Higher family income and more women in the workplace have been debated as some of the factors that cause the greater influence of children in the family. As the children's role in family decisions increases, the research and studies concerning this matter have also become more remarkable and more interesting, especially for marketers and food industries. The previous and recent studies have discussed both perceptions from parents and children; most have merely obtained the data on the amount or type of influence that children applied. Children's influence in family buying decisions has also generally been investigated in a more specific context, focusing mainly on the products that are primarily used by children.

### 1.2 Children in Family Decision Research (State of the Art)

There are some empirical family decision-making studies involving children. The majority of recent family research involving children has focused on the consumer socialization process, investigating how children's influence is affected by their family or environments through consumer learning (McNeal 1987; Moschis 1978; Szybillo 1977). Fewer studies are concerned about the type and extent of influence of children on family decisions (ATKIN 1978; Belch 1985; Darley 1986; Moschis 1986; Roberts 1981). Twenty-two studies related specifically to children's influence in family purchase decisions are summarized in Table 1.

Six studies in Table 1 are based on the perception from one of the parents, mostly are the mothers together with the children in the household (CONVERSE AND CRAWFORD 1949; Ward and Wackman 1972; AtKin 1978; Foxman and Tansuhaj 1988; Flurry and Burns 2003; TINSON ET AL. 2008). Six studies involve only single-respondent data (e.g. mothers' perceptions) and thus do not allow the comparison of family members' perceptions on decision-related matters (Perreault and Russ 1971; Mehrotra and Torges 1977; Szybillo, Sosanie, and Tenenbein 1977; Nelson 1979; Roberts, Wortzel, and Berkeley 1981; Darley and Lim 1986).

One study includes teachers as the respondents together with the mothers and the children (Berey and Pollay 1968). One study involves only the parents as the respondents (JenKins 1979).

The remaining eight studies (Belch et al. 1980; Belch et al. 1985; Foxman and Tansuhaj 1988; Foxman ET AL. 1989; Lee 1994; Mikkelsen 2006; NøRGAard 2007; Martensen 2008; WUT 2009) include complete nuclear family members of fathers, mothers, and children as the respondents. ROBERTS (1981) supported the research on a child's influence and focused on measuring individual children's influence.

Research on children's influence has analyzed many different age groups. Five studies (Darley 1986; Jenkins 1979; Mehrotra 1977; Nelson 1979; Roberts 1981) investigate the influence of all children living at home, not focusing on specific age groups. Two studies surveyed college-aged children (Converse 1949; Perreault 1971). Seven studies focused specifically on adolescents: (BELCH $E T$ AL. 1980 and BELCH $E T$ AL. 1985) involved children ages 13 and older (with a mean of 17 years old); Foxman (1988) and Foxman (1989) included 11 to 19-year-old respondents (with a mean of 15 years old); LEE (1994) involved high school children; TINSON (2008) included children age 10 to 16 years old, and WUT (2009) included children with a maximum age of 29 years old. Seven studies focused on young children and the parental yielding aspect of child influence: BEREY (1968) involving children from age 8 to 11; ATKIN (1978) observed mothers and their 3 to 12-year-old children; Ward (1972) focused on children from age 5 to 12; FLURRY AND BURNS (2003) analyzed children from age 8 to 11 years old; Mikkelsen (2006) and NøRgatard (2007) analyzed children age 10 to 13 years old; and MARTENSEN (2008) focused on children age 5 to 13 years old.

In the study from ATKIN (1978), children age 3 to 12 were found to play a dominant influence in the family on the cereal selection in the supermarket. ATKIN pointed out that children tend to rely on pre-established preferences based more often on premium incentives offered on a purchase than the nutritional features of a cereal at the time of influencing cereal purchases. A study from BEREY (1968) conferred that the relationship between mother and child determines the child's influence on cereal purchases. WARD (1972) showed that age plays a big role in affecting children's influence in the family. According to him, children's purchase influence decreases with age, and it depends on the product categories.

BELCH ET AL. (1985) investigate family members' influence as a function of product category and stages of the decision-making process by questioning husbands, wives, and children. The products selected for the study are car, television, household appliances, furniture, family vacation, and breakfast cereal. The influence of the child varies by product class and decision stage. The child shows the greatest influence for decisions regarding cereal and less for other products. The child has greatest influence in the initial stage and less on the final stage of decision making. The child's influence also increases for the color style and brand of products, and the child has the least influence on how much money to spend. Flurry and

BURNS (2003) analyzed mothers' and children's perception, and the study showed that children were capable of critically evaluating their social power with appropriate influence.

Mikkelsen (2006) and NØRGAARD (2007) analyzed children age 10 to 13 years old; they found that the family food decision is a joint activity; children's participation determines the influence that they gain. Children participate and gain influence on several decision stages and area on family food decisions. MARTENSEN (2008) stated that children exercise quite an influence on the family decision making processes, particularly on the products that are mostly related to them, such as juice and cereals.

The study from MikKelsen (2006) presented the preeminent applicable method for the study of children in Jakarta. In his study, MIKKELSEN applied the quantitative as well as qualitative method, using the ethnographic study from 20 families. The difference from his study is that the ethnographic study was carried out first before the survey was conducted. The study of children's influence in Jakarta conducts the survey first and then applies the ethnographic study from 17 families. The influence score from MikKelsen study is used as the guidelines for the study of children in Jakarta because it gives a suitable measurement and brings a clear result afterwards concerning the degree of children's influence. The results from MikKeLSEN study are also applied as a comparison with the study of children's influence in Jakarta. Since the norms, traditions, and culture from Denmark are different from Indonesia, especially with regard to buying and consumption factors, it will be interesting to compare the results later on.

Each study and research mentioned above has its own objective and measurement, and the results from these studies can be compared with the result study of children's influence in Jakarta.

Table 1. Previous studies on children's influence in family decision making
(Source: Foxman 1989 and Author's own findings (with *))

| Author (date) | Respondent(s) | Country | Design topics and Results |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CONVERSE AND CRAWFORD (1949) | College Students and One Parent | NG <br> (Not given) | Family members' involvement in 19 expenditure categories; no direct comparisons, but possible respondent disagreement regarding children's use of money. |
| BEREY AND Pollay (1968) | Mothers, children (8-11 years), and teachers | NG | Mothers' child-centeredness explains child's influence on cereal purchases. |
| Perreault and Russ (1971) | College students | NG | Child has significant influence on TV and automobile purchases. |
| Ward and Wackman (1972) | Mothers and children age 5 to 12 | Boston, USA | Child's purchase influence decreases with age, depending on product categories. |
| Mehrotra and Torges (1977) | Mothers | NG | No unique determinants of mother's yielding to children's influence attempts were found; yielding is product specific. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { SzyBillo, Sosanie, AND } \\ & \text { TENENBEIN (1977) } \end{aligned}$ | Wives | New York City, USA | 80\% of families reported that their children helped to decide in eating out. |
| ATKIN (1978) | Mothers and children age 3 to 12 years old | Detroit and Lansing, USA | Children were found to play a dominant role in family cereal selection in the supermarket. |
| NELSON (1979) | Shoppers (18+ years) | Montana, USA | Children have significant involvement in family decision to eat out throughout the decision process; parents appear to have the final decision and determine the cost. |
| Jenkins (1979) | Husbands and wives (focus groups) | NG | Children were perceived to exert minimal influence in major purchase decisions, except for vacations. Husbands more than wives perceived their children to have influence in family decision. |
| Belch GE, BELCH MA, ScIGLIMPAGLIA (1980) Sciglimpaglia (1980) | Fathers, mothers, children (13 years and older) | West Coast, USA | Low conflict levels reported among family members. There is little difference in the amount of perceived conflict in purchase decisions or how conflicts are perceived to be resolved. |
| Roberts, Wortzel, and Berkeley (1981) | Mothers (Mail panel) | USA | Mothers' perceptions of child influence are inversely related to attitudes toward financial matters, nutrition and traditionalism. |
| Belch GE, Belch MA, AND Ceresino (1985) | Fathers, mothers, children (13 years and older) | In major metropolitan area in USA | Fathers and mothers clearly dominate the decision making process. Children have relatively more influence in the initial stage. They attribute more influence to themselves than does either parent, and attribute more influence to the father than do the father or mother themselves. |


| DARLEY AND LIM (1986) | Fathers or mothers | $\begin{gathered} \text { Washington DC, } \\ \text { USA } \end{gathered}$ | Children influence leisure activity choices. Focus on control, child age, and parental type (single or dual) are found to have differing impacts on the decision-making process. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Foxman and Tansuhaj (1988) | Mothers and children (11 to 19 years old) | Northwestern Towns, USA | Children have some influences in a broad variety of purchase decisions; influence varies by products, users, and perceived importance. |
| Foxman ET AL. (1989)* | Fathers, mothers, and children (11 to 19 years old) | Northwestern Towns, USA | Mothers' and fathers' perceptions, although not in perfect agreement, were much closer to each other than parents' and children's perception of children's role in the family decision making. |
| Lee CK (1994)* | Fathers, mothers, elder children (high school) | Auckland, New Zealand | Mothers and elder sons, fathers and elder daughters work together to gain influence in the family decisions. |
| Flurry and Burns (2003)* | Mothers and children (8 to 11 years old) | Southern State, USA | Children were capable of critically evaluating their social power with appropriate influence. |
| MikKelsen and NøRGAARD (2006)* | Fathers, mothers, children (10 to 13 years old) | Denmark | Children participate and gain influence on several decision stages and area on family food decisions. |
| NøRGAARD ET AL. (2007)* | Fathers, mothers, children (10-13 years old) | Denmark | Family food decision is a joint activity; children's participation determines the influence that they gain. |
| Martensen and Grønholdt (2008)* | Fathers, mothers, children (5-13 years old) | Denmark | Children exercise quite an influence on the family decision-making processes, particularly on the products that are mostly related to them. |
| TINSON ET AL. (2008)* | Mothers and children (10-16 years old) | UK | In single parent homes, children exert more influence than children in blended homes (where there are step-parents and step-children present). |
| Wut TM, Chou TJ (2009)* | Fathers, mothers, and children (the eldest child in the family does not exceeds 29 years old) | Hong Kong | Children are found to have more influence in the choice-making stage of decision making and parents still control the final decision. |

### 1.3 Model of Family Decision Making

Family decision making is different from individual decision making, since it involves more individuals and is more complex because of the chance of joint decisions between family members and the different role specifications for the members in the process of decisions (ASSAEL 1992). The following is a model of the family decision-making process (Figure 2):


Figure 2. A Model of Family Decision Making (Source: EkASASI 2005)
Joint decision making is more likely to occur in the following situations (SHETH 1974):

1) When the level of perceived risk in buying is high. A wrong decision could affect the whole family; therefore the joint decision is made to prevent risk and uncertainty. Buying a house is a good example in this case, since it involves the financial risks, social risks in terms of interaction with the neighbors, as well as psychological risks.
2) When the purchasing decision is more important to the family. This second point is closely related to the first one, "importance is associated with risk." In a decision to buy a car, either to buy a family car or an individual car: which importance comes first?
3) When there are few or no time pressures. More time available creates more possibilities for joint decision making. On the other hand when there is time pressure, one of the family members will forced to make the purchase decision. Time pressures are less when there is only one employed parent in the family.
4) Applicable to certain demographic groups, such as younger families (those under age 24), families with no children, and those with only one parent who works. In families with no children, joint decision making between husband and wife is more common (Filiatrault and Ritchie 1980). As a family grows and children are added, the roles become more identified and parents are more willing to delegate authority to each other, hence reducing the need for joint decision making. The nature of joint decisions in couples' decision making and family decision making is different, where in families decision making is seen to change with the presence of children (KaUR 2006). Furthermore, Filiatrault and Ritchie (1980) stated that joint decision making decreases as the family grows, because time prohibits long discussion and it becomes unnecessary, as the family knows each other better.

There are five roles that could be played by members of the family, and each member may take more than one role or no role at all. Five roles are: (SHETH 1974)

1) The information gatherer (gate keeper), influences the family's processing of information by controlling the level and type of stimuli the family is exposed to. The information gatherer has the most expertise in obtaining and evaluating information from diverse sources and is mainly aware of alternative sources of information.
2) The influencer establishes the decision criteria by which products are compared (price, quality, etc.) and influences other family members' evaluation of products. The influencer might or might not be the same person as the information gatherer.
3) The decision maker decides which brand or product to purchase, since this person has the power to approve the final decision.
4) The purchasing agent carries out the decision by purchasing the product for the family. The purchasing agent might or might not be the same person as the decision maker. The decision maker might delegate the purchasing agent to buy the products for the family.
5) The (end) consumer, who uses the product and evaluates it, giving some feedback to other family members regarding the satisfaction with the chosen brand and desirability to purchase the same brand or product again.

In this study, children will be observed and analyzed as the influencer without neglecting other roles that might be played by the children during the family decision-making process. Children might act as the decision maker where both parents have no time to manage the household and therefore delegate all the decision to children themselves.

### 1.4 Conflicts in the Family Decision-Making Process

Whenever there are two or more people involved in decision making, some conflicts might occur. Refusal to comply with the preference from other family members would mostly lead to conflicts. Even though serious conflict in the family decision making process is considered infrequent, some types of family conflict are highly possible because of the differences in the preferences and choices from each family member (Lee and Collins 1999). Sheth (1974) stated that the conflict between family members is because of the existence of different cognitive structures, which may include different purchase motives (reasons for buying a product) and evaluative beliefs (perceptions about alternatives). When several alternatives are being considered, each family member would endeavor to influence the other towards his or her preferred decision. Moreover, the differences in the interest of a purchase outcome would probably lead to disagreement or conflict. In the study of BELCH ET AL. (1980), they found that the amount of disagreement is relatively low for decisions such as where to buy and when to buy, but it is higher when it comes to how much money to spend. Buss and Schaninger (1987) stated that conflict can be managed in two ways: by either using avoidance tactics or resolution tactics. Since children influence more on the product types, the nature of the product can also be significant in determining the choice of conflict resolution strategy, such as through bargaining. Bargaining involves some give and take. On the other hand, conflict avoidance was most commonly utilized for family products. DAVIS (1976) states that families quite often bargain, compromise, and coerce rather than problem-solve in arriving at decisions. DAVIS used two models of decision strategies in dealing with the conflicts: persuasion and bargaining. Persuasion is an act of demanding the others do something by using emotional techniques such as crying in order for the others to follow what he or she wants. When family members have different buying motives, they might approach the bargaining strategy. Bargaining influence tactics comprise waiting for the next purchase, impulse purchasing, and procrastination. Family members recognize that there is a conflict between them and they try to solve it in fairness and equity.

## 2. Conceptual Framework about Children and their Influence

In this part, the conceptual framework with regard to children in their development process to the consumer world and the theories that present the background of children's influence will be explicitly defined.

### 2.1 Children in Consumer Socialization

According to the author, Scott Ward, consumer socialization is a process by which young people acquire skills, knowledge, and attitudes related to their performance as consumers in the marketplace (WARD 1974). These include attitudes towards television commercials or knowledge of brand and products, and skills such as how to compare different brands and
different products (WARD 1978). This definition presents a focal point for new research in the study with regards to children as consumers. The period from birth to adolescence contains remarkable developments in cognitive functioning and social development. The older they are, the better they could think abstractly about the environment they live in, and the more easily they could obtain information-processing skills in order to develop a deeper understanding of interpersonal situations, which let them to see the world in many different perspectives. Consumer socialization occurs in the perspective of significant cognitive changes and social developments, which take place in a progression of stages as children become socialized into their role as consumers. These changes take place as children move through three stages of consumer socialization, which are introduced from the perceptual stage (age 3-7) to the analytical stage (age 7-11), then to the reflective stage (age 11-16). Children in the perceptual stage have limited awareness of information sources, whereas children in the analytical stage have an increased awareness of personal and mass media sources. Children in the reflective stage have contingent use of different information sources depending on the product or situation. As children grow older, they develop a better knowledge and understanding of different information sources and organize these sources in a more flexible way. They also develop preferences for specific information sources. The consumer socialization theory helps researchers realize that the age stages of a child are an important factor with regard to the child's influence on family decision making.

## 1. Perceptual Stage (3-7 Years)

The perceptual stage emphasizes that children's perception is concrete and disparate from abstract or symbolic thought. The perceptual stage is distinguished by a self-orientation upon the immediate and readily observable perceptual features or type of the marketplace. This stage is connected with Piaget's theory of "perceptual boundness" or his idea of "centration" on single dimensions of objects and events. Children's consumer knowledge is characterized by perceptual features and differences, often based on a single dimension and represented in concrete details from their own observations. These children reveal familiarity with concepts in the marketplace, such as brands or retail stores, but they understand little about these concepts. Children in the perceptual stage are still oriented toward themselves, they concentrate only to a single dimension, and they perceive the objects in their environment based on their own perspective; in terms of making the decision or influencing strategies, children during this stage have limited information in helping them make a decision or influencing others with regards to their own perception. The orientations in this stage are simple, practical, and self-centred. Decisions are often made on the basis of very limited information, usually a single perceptual dimension. For example, children during this stage can be expected to make their food choice based on a single attribute or dimension, such as the size (small or big). Children use their egocentric perspective in establishing their influence strategies; they are unable to consider or involve another person's perspectives in
modifying their influence strategies or when it comes to negotiating for the desired items. Even though they realize that their parents or friends have other thoughts or perceptions, children during this stage have difficulty thinking about their own perspective and at the same time thinking about other people's perspectives.

## 2. Analytical Stage (7-11 Years)

At this stage, immense changes occur, both cognitively and socially. This period restrains some of the significant developments in terms of consumer knowledge and skills. The change from perceptual thoughts to more symbolic thoughts described by Jean Piaget, along with tremendous increases in information processing abilities, results in a more sophisticated understanding of the marketplace, a more complex set of knowledge about different concepts such as assortment of products and brands, and a new perspective that goes beyond their feelings and motives. Concepts such as products and prices are analysed and differentiated on the basis of more than one dimension, and generalizations are drawn from one's experience. Reasoning proceeds at a more abstract level, for example children during this stage are able to recognize the motive of the advertiser in trying to sell the products and that sometimes the advertiser does not tell the truth about the product information. There are great changes in analyzing the stimuli on multiple dimensions and the acknowledgement of possibilities in children's consumer decision-making skills and developing strategies. Children in the analytical stage demonstrate more thoughtfulness in their choices, considering more than just their own perception, and they are able to utilize a decision strategy that seems to make sense in their environment. Consequently, children are more flexible in the approach they take in making the decisions, allowing them to be more adaptive, open, and responsive toward their environment's perceptions and thoughts.

## 3. Reflective Stage (11-16 Years)

The reflective stage is characterized by further progress in several dimensions or aspects of cognitive and social development. Knowledge and familiarity about marketplace concepts such as product assortments, price level, or variety of brands become even more complex as children increase to more sophisticated information processing and social skills. Children or adolescents during this stage are able to think in a more reasoning and reflective way. They are able to focus more on the social meanings and underpinnings of the consumer marketplace. An increase of awareness towards other people's perception, together with a need to shape their own identity and conform to group expectations, results in more attention to the social aspects of being a consumer, making choices, and consuming brands. The buying or consuming decisions are made in a more adaptive manner and depend on the situation, condition, and task. The influence strategies are considered and planned by adjusting to other people's perspectives, which they think will be better accepted than just a simple approach.

The stages in consumer socialization are related with Jean Piaget theory of cognitive development. The Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget defines three phases (Wadsworth 1971). Children from 3 to 7 are in preoperational stage when cognitive structure is inadequately organized and language skills are developing. In this stage, parents may allow some limited purchase choices - for example concerning the flavours of ice cream or beverages. From 8 to 11 years of age, children are in a concrete operational stage in which they are developing more complex abilities to practice their logical thought to real problems. In this stage, children are starting to develop the persuasive techniques learned from their peers or media to influence their parents to buy what they want. The third phase is when children approach their formal operational stage, from 12 to 15 years old. Children have greater financial resources and cognitive capabilities to make decisions on a broader range of products category. Children are able to buy what they want with their own money (children during these ages obtain more pocket money from their parents rather than younger children) (WADSWORTH 1971).

The consumer socialization stages together with the Piaget cognitive development phases capture the important changes in how children think, how they perceive other's perception, and how they articulate themselves as consumers in the marketplace. This study focuses on children during their analytical stage (second stage of consumer socialization). Children during their analytical stage begin to develop their consumer skills and knowledge; therefore it is interesting to analyze how they practice and demonstrate these abilities in their environment.

### 2.2 Understanding the Theory about "Children's Influence"

The theory about children's influence is very important because it helps explain the role of the children in family decision making. One important theory that explores children's role in the family is 'Resources Theory.' Resources are the main source of power. A resource is defined as anything that one partner may make available to another, helping the latter satisfy his needs or attain his goals (BLOOD AND WOLFE 1960). TASHAKKORI ET AL. (1989) suggest that resources determine the parental power, based on different sources, including education level, age and family communication. MCDONALD (1980) proposes five types of resources that serve as bases from which family members may derive power. They are normative, economic, affective, personal, and cognitive resources. Normative resources include a family's values and norms. Economic resources refer to the monetary control exerted by the income earner. Affective resources cover interpersonal relationships and belongingness. Personal resources encompass physical appearance and role competence. Cognitive resources include the intelligence of family members. Parents might exercise the normative and economic resources, whereas the child is using the affective and cognitive resources in family decision
making. Resource theory provides a basis in family decision making and group decision making research.

Power, which is closely connected with the resource, is defined as a capacity or an ability to influence others (ROGERS 1974). Power is linked to the family and individual's specific role in the family. Power in this study specifically refers to any kind of influence between family members. Influence occurs when family members use their power to try to change others' behaviors, attitudes, or beliefs in an intended direction (Corfman and Lehmann 1987, Rogers 1974).

The definition of 'influence' varies from one person to another, where some people perceive influence only as the active dimension and others perceive it as both passive and active. CARTWRIGHT (1999) defines influence as "a conjecture when one person acts in such a way as to change the behavior of another in some intended manner." FLURRY (2005) stated that, " $a$ child's influence attempts are intended to achieve control over the decision outcome." Moreover MIKKELSEN (2006) defines influence as "Children's active and passive attempts to achieve parents' permission to participate in family decision-making thereby achieving specific results" (MikKelsen 2006).

Active influence is also called direct influence, where children exert direct influence over parental spending when they request specific products and brands. Direct influence also refers to joint decision making, actively participating with family members to make a purchase or suggesting that other family members select or choose a product or certain brands of the products (BLACKWELL 2006; MCNEAL 1992). A child's influence may also be passive, where there is no evidence of speech or overt actions on the part of a child (FLURRY 2005).

Passive influence is also called indirect influence, where parents are aware of what the child wants and try to comply without direct interaction with the child (MikKelsen 2006), and it occurs when parents buy products and brands that they know their children prefer, without being asked or told to make that specific purchase (BLACKWELL 2006). The prior knowledge that the parents have about the taste and preferences of the children creates the passive buying patterns of the children. According to Cartwright, an influence in a family does not necessarily have expertise, and he/she can influence one or more of the decision-making stages in varying roles and with varying impacts.

Influences are distributed in 2 types: 1) based on decision stages (idea generation, choice of alternatives, etc.) and 2) based on decision areas (type, brand, price, and shop) (MikKelsen 2006, quoted from Belch ET AL. 1985). Figure 3 defines the family food model from MiKKeLSen. In his model, he divides the family decision making-process into two parts, which are the buying process and consumption process. According to his study, children often exert significant influence at the initial stage of the decision process and will reduce
progressively as the decision narrows to a choice decision, for example when it comes to how much to spend on the product wanted, then the influence from children becomes less. This statement is also supported by other studies from Jenkins 1979; Moschis and Mitchell 1986; and Syzbillo and Sosanie 1976. In his model, MikKelsen use everyday routines as the conceptual framework or context in analyzing the decision-making process in the family. This family food model takes the perspective of children's direct participation and influence based on the family food model from JENSEN (1990). (Figure 3)


Figure 3. The family food model - in relation to children's direct participation and influence (SOURCE: MIKKELSEN 2006)

In the study from KaUR and SINGH 2006, children contribute three different markets: the primary, the influencer, and the future market (Figure 4).


Figure 4. Children's influence model
(Source: KaUR AND Singh 2006)

Certain products are simply children's products for which they are the primary users or buyers, such as cereal. Other products used by the other family members could be influenced by children. Children are trained to be the future loyal customer. A lot of companies, especially food companies obtain a long term strategy of enlightening children's loyalties, by introducing their company's brand and product awareness since the early age of the child, with the expectation that children will be familiar with their products by the time they get older (Solomon 1996). It is the goal of the advertisers to make the children not only aware of the product, but also to make the brand stay and grow with them (Rosenstiel 1982). As it was mentioned before from the study of MiKKELSEN 2006, that children can influence family actively and passively, where actively means that children have the independence to make a choice and purchase, also parental yielding means that, parents surrender on the children's request (Solomon 1996).

### 2.3 Changing Childhood in Society

Childhood in the social study of children is defined as the living phase of an individual for his physically and mentally development. Meaning that during this phase, the individual or the child depends fully on the adults for all of his decisions (Hehlmann 1974, Oerter 1987). According to NeStLE (2010), childhood is an important phase of life, where their preference for a healthy lifestyle is trained and their life proficiency is cultured. Until the $18^{\text {th }}$ century, the child was considered a small, immature adult who almost had no necessities in his life. The child's life was decided by the family and society where he was born. In the beginning of the $19^{\text {th }}$ century, the doctors, pedagogues, and philosophers published the first moral educational advice on children's welfare. Through improvements in education and care for the children, there is a rising influence of children in society. Up until the beginning of $20^{\text {th }}$ century, the single parent household created a new household way, where a parent had less time for the children because of the career and led to the children becoming more involved in the daily household (HEYER 1997). Interfamilial decision-making, the communication in the family has become more modern, open and democratic, the changing structure of the family, the working women have had a reflective influence on the growing economic power, control, and independence of children, with the result that they are now taking charge and influencing their family's decision-making process more than they did in the previous generation (KraAK 1998, KAUR 2006, NøRGAARD 2007).

## The Beginning of Market Interest in Children

In 1965, Life magazine published pictures of in utero fetuses photographed by Lennart Nilsson. The image of a fetus unobstructured by placental matter and disengaged from the mother's womb as if the fetus is floating in space. The aim of describing the picture of the fetus is to show that the child is an individual who is independent from his mother and has a
certain need and desire in his life. Here, the diagnostic and physical segregation of the child from the mother thought necessary in order to tap into the child's individuated expression of product preferences and perceptions in many ways is reflected by the image of the fetus. After publishing this picture, the research market about children began to rise, where researchers began to view the child-consumer as a singular individual whose knowledge of and desire for goods could be best fulfilled by the child alone (COOK 2003). Research into children's purchase influences was recognized as one of the greatest needs afterwards.

## The Disappearance of Authority from Parents

The woman's role as "the mother" in the family has not really disappeared, of course, but it has been condensed by the changing situation in the family. The changing structure in the family and households, such as single parents, parents working away from home, the increasing number of working mothers, dual income households, and the changing lifestyle of children could affect the disappearance of parents' power in the family (HEYER 1997; BUSS and Schaninger 1983; Moore-Shay and Wilkies 1988; Sherman and Delener 1987). Children's lifestyle has changed a lot in comparison to children in the previous generation. Children today are fed by video games, TV, and other media, which cause children to have an isolated world of their own fantasy. Children are forced to enter the grown-up world earlier than they should (HEyER 1997). This situation leads children to have their own wants and needs, all of it decided by them. Children prefer to "think for themselves" than to obey their parents' rules.

On the other hand, a mothers' presence in the workplace also supports the practice and legitimates the children as consumers. A previous study indicated that increases in maternal employment cause changes in desired qualities of children. Children have more responsibilities when their mothers are employed (ASSAEL 1995). This could lead to children's increased maturity and sense of self-reliance. "Latch-key kids" is the name given to children who are involved in greater household responsibilities when both parents are working (COOK 2003). Research shows that two-thirds of 6 to 14 year-old children cook for themselves one to five times a week and forty-nine percent stated to have either bought food for the family or participated in family grocery shopping. Employed mothers' today's report that they do not have the time or the energy to monitor their children's consumption and media practices, and consequently "surrender" on their children's requests. It's a way for children to exert the influence by expressing their wants and needs from a position of relative powerlessness of their parents. The rising absence or the growing numbers of working mothers have generated young children who are becoming potentially autonomous consumers at the earliest possible age (COOK 2003).

## From Parents' Authority to Kids' Influence

In the older generation, children were educated under strict and hard autonomous rules of the parents. Children had no words to say, just obeyed what was being said, wore what was given, and ate what was cooked. Children had to sit on their chairs until they finished their food and could not be involved in parents' conversation during eating (BARLÖSIUS 2009). The changing interaction between parents and children had an effect of increasing children's power to decide in terms of what to buy and what to consume. Children today in comparison to children in earlier generations have a bigger influence and more roles in their families. Influence in this case is direct influence, where children act as an active interaction partner for the parents in the decision-making process (HEYER 1997).

## Mother as "Gate-Keeper"

In the early twentieth century, children's goods and services were granted primarily by mothers, who were acted as the purchasing agents of the household. Mothers' authority toward the necessities and needed of their children was considered the gate keeper by the food and other industries. The mothers had the control over what their children could eat, use, and wear. Mothers were the authority figures who generally retained the structural position that afforded veto power over their children's consumption. So, in the case of disagreements with the child over brand decisions, the mother tried to overlay her preferences over the child (KAUR 2006). During this time, the mothers' role as the purchasing agent for the family transformed them into the figure of mother-consumer. So, every household advertisement was focused on the mother as their main purchaser for buying the necessities of the family. The mother's preferences and perspectives became the commodity, an exchangeable assessment that provoked the selling of children's products. A mother's presence and actions created the expansion of children's goods in the market. The last word of whether the goods are good or bad for a child (especially young infants or young children) were determined by the mother, whose approval became the material fact of making the purchase of goods. "Good mothers buy only the best for their families, especially for their children" (СООК 2003).

## The "Grown-Up" Influence

During the early 1910s in USA, marketers, manufacturers, advertisers, and merchants began to recognize children as knowing independent consumers who had a great influence in the market. They realized that children did not like to be treated as "children." Children liked to be treated as "young adults" or "grown-ups" and they liked having an equal treatment as their mother. Their opinions had to be heard and their wishes should be taken seriously and sincerely without separating them from the mothers' companionship. Beginning in the 1920s until the 1930s, the perspective of "a child" became the root for commercial knowledge and action. During the transition, children obtained the status of "persons" in the social
mechanism of the exchanging market. Children had self-determining rights and they knew better than their parents what they needed to accomplish at each stage of life. The world of goods gave the child the agentive and autonomous cultural traction for the family (COOK 2003).

### 2.4 Children as Potential Consumers

Children have become an important customer for the food industries and food retailers. Children remain a significant consumer group that food manufacturers cannot neglect to overlook. They are a market force that should be recognized and ideally satisfied (MCNEAL 1992). They have specific demands when it comes to food and drink that require a unique approach to marketing and product development. Each year in America, the purchase influence of children increases with age. The older the children the more spending they take on and the greater their responsibility is in the families (MCNEAL 1992). Because the current generation of young consumers makes more decisions than children in previous generations, they influence more family decisions, especially in terms of food buying. The role that children play in influencing the family's decisions has enticed researchers to analyze them respectively. The total influence exerted by children varies by product category and stage of the decision making process. For some products, children are the active initiators, information seekers and buyers; whereas for other product categories, they merely influence the parents' purchase. Other studies indicate that almost 50 percent of parents believe that meal, grocery choices, and restaurant selection are influenced by their children (KRAAK 1998). Therefore, the children's market needs special kinds of marketing techniques to be utilized in order to explore the thought process of children and understand them better. "Marketing to kids is no longer kid stuff," as stated in HALAN 2002. Children constitute three different markets: The current target market, the future target market, and the influential.

## Children as the Current Target Market

A child is perceived as the individual who has a need, willingness, and money to spend on things that will serve his or her needs. The market for children's products and food is enormous. For this reason, the food industries are competing and trying their best to create the needs and desires of their products in children's minds, because they know that these needs will lead children to the willingness to spend their money on those products (MCNEAL, JOURNALS 1990).

## Children as the Future Target Market

Children are trained to be the future loyal customers, and hence brand loyalty at a young age helps in the quest of continued sales later. Numerous companies, especially food companies embark on a long-term strategy of gaining children's loyalties by introducing their company's
brand and product awareness at an early age to the child, with the expectation that they will be familiar with their products by the time they grow up (Solomon 1996). It is the goal of the advertisers to make the children not only aware of the product, but also to make the brand stay and grow with them (Rosenstiel 1982). A soft drink brand, 7-Up, who considers children to be the future customer, has to nurture them until they become teenagers, and by that time, 7Up will be their brand choice for soft drinks. Food companies such as McDonald's cultivate children as their primary source of new customers. It is proven that children tend to become loyal to McDonald's, often for a lifetime (MCNEAL 1992).

## Children's Influence in the Parents' Decision-Making Process

Children play an important role in the consumer market by influencing their parents' purchases either for the product used in the household or for themselves. More than $50 \%$ of parents in some Asian countries (India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan, Philippines, and South Korea) declared that their children are the important factor when it comes to purchase decisions. They even mentioned that "a child's demand" is the primary reason for buying the products (RAChAGAN 2004). There are several reasons of why children are becoming so important in parents' purchase decisions. First, nowadays parents are having fewer children, and for this reason, they tend to give each child more possessions and more allowances in buying things. Second, there are an increasing number of one-parent households in which the child is expected to be more involved in the household decision making. Third, having children is often postponed until later in life when parents' careers are well established. With this condition, children could participate more in planning the purchases. Finally, in almost 70 percent of the households where both of the parents are working, children are empowered to contribute more to purchase decisions (McNeal 1992, PG. 64-65; Kroeber-Riel 1996). Determining what is needed in the household becomes the children's responsibility. Therefore, the real customer for the marketers nowadays is almost never the parent anymore. Children are the buyer, spender, and decision maker, not only for children's products but also for the household and their parents' other necessities (Kroeber-Riel 1996; Solomon 2001). Children tend to have more "say" in the products that are less expensive and for their own use (Foxman ET AL. 1989).

## Children's Influence by Product Category

Children influence a variety of products, from household appliances to children's products. In previous studies, children have been reported to wield a lot of influence in purchase decisions for children's products such as snacks (AhUJa and Stinson 1993), toys (Burns and Harrison 1985; Jensen 1995; Williams and Veeck 1998), children's wear (Converse and Crawford 1949; Foxman and Tansuhaj 1988; Holdert and Antonides 1997; Van Syckle 1951), and cereals (Belch et al. 1985; Berey and Pollay 1968). Children have also
been observed influencing decisions for family products such as holidays or vacations (AHUJA and Stinson 1993; Belch et al. 1985; Dunne 1999; Holdert and Antonides 1997; Jenkins 1979), movies (DARLEY and Lim 1986), and eating at particular restaurants or even making decisions for the family to eat out (Filiatrault and Ritchie 1980; Williams and VEECK 1998). Some researchers investigated the role children play in purchasing children and family products together (Foxman and Tansuhaj 1988; Geuens et al. 2002; Hall et al. 1995; Mangleburg et al. 1999; McNeal and Yeh 1997). Jensen (1995) studied three categories of products - those that are primarily for children (e.g., toys, candy), products for family consumption (food, shampoo, toothpaste), and parents' products (gasoline, coffee, rice). Similarly, JOHNSON (1995) selected products as categorized by SHETH (1974) products for individual use, those for family use, and finally products for the household. This study focuses on food products considered to be for daily food consumption in Indonesian households (rice, vegetables, meat, noodles, dairy products, breakfast cereals, soft drinks, etc).

## 3 Summary

The family is the fundamental unit where children learn about products and product categories, offers the opportunity for product exposure and repetition, and is the consumption unit of family members from early childhood. Children are introduced to the supermarket and trained to be independent shoppers by their family. Family decision making is different from individual decision making since it involves more individuals and is more complex because of the chance of joint decisions between family members and the different role specifications for the members in the decision process (ASSAEL 1992). Joint decision making between family members is more likely to occur when the level of perceived risk in buying is high, when the purchasing decision is more important to the family, when there is little to no time pressure, and it is applicable to certain demographic groups. Refusal to comply with the preference from other family members would mostly lead to conflicts. Conflict between family members is because of the existence of different cognitive structures that may include different purchase motives (goals) and evaluative beliefs (perceptions about alternatives) (LEE AND Collins 1999). Studies found that conflict can be managed in two ways: by either using avoidance tactics or resolution tactics. Since children influence more on the product types, the nature of the product can also be significant in determining the choice of conflict resolution strategy, such as through bargaining. On the other hand, conflict avoidance was most commonly utilized for family products (BuSS and SCHANINGER 1987).

The theory about children's influence is very important because it helps to explain the role of children in family decision making. Children at different ages have different perceptions and behavior towards their environment. The older they are, the more capable they are of thinking abstractly about the environment in which they live, and the more capable they are of
obtaining information-processing skills in order for them to develop a deeper understanding of interpersonal situations that let them to see the world in many different perspectives. Consumer socialization occurs in the perspective of significant cognitive changes and social developments, which take place in a progression of stages as children become socialized into their role as consumers (WARD 1978). Resources, power, and influence are attached to another when explaining the children's role in the family decision-making process. Resources are the main source of power. A resource is defined as anything that one partner may make available to another, helping the latter satisfy his or her needs or attain his or her goals (BLOOD AND WOLFE 1960). Resource theory provides a basis in family decision-making and group decision-making research. Power, which is closely connected to the resource, is defined as a capacity or an ability to influence others (ROGERS 1974). Power is linked to the family and specific individual's role in the family. The definition of "influence" varies from one person to another, where some people perceive influence only in the active aspect and others perceive it in both passive and active aspects. Influence occurs when family members use their power to try to change others' behaviors, attitudes, or beliefs in an intended direction (Corfman and Lehmann 1987, Rogers 1974).

Children constitute three different markets (Kaur and Singh 2006): The current target market, the future target market, and the influential. As the current target market, a child is perceived as the individual who has a need, willingness, and money to spend on things that will serve his needs. Children as the future target market means that they are trained to be the future loyal customer. In addition to these target markets, children play an important role in the consumer market by influencing their parents' purchases either for the product used in the household or for themselves. This study focuses on the children's influence, where children play an important role in the consumer market by influencing their parents' purchases either for the product used in the household or for themselves.

## III. EMPIRICAL FRAMEWORK

## 1 Research Study about Children's Influence in Jakarta, Indonesia

In the empirical framework part, the research process of the children's influence in family decision making in Jakarta, Indonesia, will be defined and described consecutively. Beginning with 1) research preparation, in terms of the purpose of the study, background of the problem, the design and approach of the research, research hypothesis, research framework, selecting the sample and area of the research, designing the questionnaires; 2) process of the survey, concerning conducting the survey, collecting and analyzing the data; 3) ethnographic studies, which involve observation and interview with the participants' families during the food buying and consumption process.

### 1.1 Purpose of study

The main aim of the study is to examine the behavior of children in Jakarta, Indonesia from different socioeconomic statuses (SES) and socio-demographic statuses (SDS) in terms of their participation and influence in family decision-making during food buying and consumption. Also by conducting this study, the perception and behavior of the parents and children will be compared in order to see whether or not children overestimate their influence on the one hand, and on the other hand, whether or not parents underestimate their children's influence on the family decision-making process. In order to be able to execute the study in a more detailed way and in accordance with the aforementioned principal aim, this study has been identified with the following working objectives:
a. To define the relationship, including the conflict between parents and children during food planning, buying, cooking, and eating process.
b. To identify the children product preferences during food buying or grocery shopping.
c. To examine the behavior and attitude of children during food buying and food preparation, cooking, and eating.
d. To evaluate in which stage of the buying and consumption decision process that children have the most influence.
e. To compare and analyze the perception and behavior of the parents and children in the family decision-making process.

### 1.2 Background to the Problem

Even though a great number of studies and research projects in the family decision making area have been conducted, nonetheless there are several reasons why there is a need to revise and update the previous and current studies in this area.

First, the previous and current studies on the family decision-making process were conducted mostly in developed countries such as the USA and those in Europe. Although many phases could be generalized in other countries, it might be not applicable and suitable to families from other countries such as Indonesia where the culture, norms, and characteristics of the family are different than those in Western countries.

Second, there are many studies concerning children's influence in family decision making on buying luxury goods or where to go for vacation. However, few studies refer to children's influence in food buying and consumption. Especially the topics of what kind of foods are most influenced by children and how the influence occurs during the food decision-making process.

Finally, the previous and current empirical works have stated that children have an influence in the family, however few mention the measurement of influence and the role of children in the family (either as the primary, co-decision maker, influencer, or having no influence at all).

Based on the matters mentioned above that there is a need for further research about children's influence in other countries in specific areas such as food buying and food consumption where children have the most influence and in specific measurements in order to determine the children's influence. Therefore, through this study of children's influence in Jakarta, Indonesia, the topic can be better clarified.

### 1.3 Research Approach

Understanding children's purchasing influence has been identified as an area in great need of research. Many discussions worldwide on how children influence their families in deciding what to eat and buy have led to many studies and research projects. Calls for research note that while many studies focus on the influence of the adolescents (ages 12-16) in family decision making, little research has been made on children in the analytical stage of development (7-11 years old). According to AsSAEL (1995), researchers found few barriers when conducting the research with older children or adolescents, since they can answer and understand the questions that are given to them better than younger children.

Children during their analytical stage are adaptive decision-makers, able to make independent decisions and self-evaluations, and utilize an influential approach to negotiate for desired outcomes (MCNEAL 1992). Through this study, children age 6 to 9 in Jakarta, Indonesia, will be analyzed, and whether children with their socio-economic and demographic background differences have more power to decide, or whether parents have more say in the family, will be determined.

Two methods, quantitative and qualitative, were utilized in order for the researchers to get a better result on the study. The purpose of using both methods in the triangulation scheme is to
link the different perspectives from the parents and the children; at the same time the different aspects within the family decision-making process can be evaluated. The qualitative method, either interviews or ethnographic observations, may have a role in testing out the underlying conditions and motivations that explain the differences that have been surveyed between family members. Participants often misreport their data background during the surveys; therefore through qualitative study, the actual situations of the family can be analyzed transparently.

### 1.4 Research Design

The child market is unique and special. The uniqueness of children suggests that special kinds of marketing research procedures and techniques must be utilized in order to explore the thought process of children and understand them better. This study is based on primary and secondary data (Figure 5).


Figure 5. Research Design (Source: Author's own creation)

In the primary data part, a mixed method of empirical design combines quantitative and qualitative approaches. The purpose of using this mixed method approach is to define clearly the similarities and differences in perspectives from both parents and children with regard to the decision-making process in terms of food buying and food consumption in the family. The The quantitative and qualitative research is implemented sequentially (in phases). The quantitative research is conducted first, and then the qualitative research is accomplished afterwards.

The quantitative part is based on standardized questionnaires, and the qualitative part utilizes ethnographic studies in terms of direct observation and semi-structured interviewing. Each method was designed and undertaken based on previous findings. The ethnographic study uses a literature review to define the topics to be included in direct observation and semistructured interviewing. Direct observation involved visiting the participants' families directly and conducting the interview during the food consumption and food buying process. The quantitative method involved 300 participants consisting of 150 children and 150 parents; whereas the qualitative methods involved 17 families. The standardized questionnaires captured the personal information as well as the socio-economic and demographic status of the participants' families.

Questionnaires for both parents and children consisted of equivalent topics but in a different way of asking. Questionnaires for children covered personal data such as age, language ability, number of siblings, and gender. Questionnaires for parents included personal data in terms of gender, age, education background, occupation, family structure, income, and number of children in the family. The main topic with regard to the role and influence of children in the family is defined in the questions of who plans, decides, and is responsible for buying food and the consumption process; what the family buys; how they respond, where to buy and get product information; when they buy, and how often (frequency) they shop, and finally what do they think about their children's role and influence in the family. The qualitative method was used to further analyze the questionnaires that were used and to test the validity and reliability from the quantitative study through observing the family directly during their daily activities, such as grocery shopping, food preparation, and consumption from breakfast until dinner. Secondary data consist of the information needed in order to complete this research project. The secondary data include sources from academic text books, published dissertations, books, and academic journals. The secondary data is used to gain the initial insight into the research, provide a useful background of the study, and identify the key questions and issues that will be addressed by the primary research. Secondary data is also used to overcome some difficulties when gathering the primary data (Cowton 1998). In this study, primary and secondary data were not gathered independently but were integrated with each other. The primary data used the literature review (secondary data) to define its topic and the factors needed to be included in the observation and interviews. Likewise, the literature review provided the basis for the design and focus of the survey. Each of the data collection methods (primary and secondary) offers advantages and disadvantages for the researcher. Secondary data is available 'effortlessly,' rapidly, and inexpensively, but the data could be biased; whereas the primary data matches the issue specifically to the situation, allows for greater control, but is more expensive and takes longer to collect (GLASS 1976). Nevertheless, both of them are used to support the information and guidelines needed for the research.

### 1.5 Research Hypothesis

Based on previous and current studies on the topic of children's influence on the family decision-making process and also on the purpose of this study, the hypotheses are described as follows:

## Hypothesis for Socio-Economic Status

1. Children from high income families have more influence on their families' decisionmaking. (Income)
2. Children from employed mothers have more influence on their families' decisionmaking. (Occupation)
3. Children from more highly educated parents have more influence on their families' decision-making. (Education)

## Hypothesis for Socio-Demographic Status

4. Children from single-parent families have more influence on their families' decisionmaking than children from dual-parent families. (Parenthood)
5. The older the children, the greater the influence they have on their families' decisionmaking. (Age)
6. Girls have more influence than boys in the families' decision-making. (Gender)
7. The ethnic background of the family has an influence in deciding whether the children can or cannot influence their families' decision-making. (Ethnic)
8. The fewer children in the household, the more influence they have in their families' decision-making. (Family size)

### 1.6 Research Framework (Figure 6)

The research framework contains seven decision stages; the aim is to find out in which stage children's participation achieves the most influence and which stage children contribute less influence in the family decision-making process.


Figure 6. The Family Decision Making Process - in Food Buying and Consumption (Source: author's own creation - modification from family food model from MIKKELSEN 2006 (FIGURE 3) AND buyer decision process from KOTLER 2001(FIGURE 7))

The A and B box are the determinant factors of the children's influence during the buying decision and consumption decision process. There are four stages in the buying decision process which start from 1) awareness of need, 2) information search, 3) evaluation of alternatives, and 4) purchase act. On the consumption decision process there are three decision stages, which are 1) preparing, 2) cooking, and 3) eating.

All stages will be defined and explained as follows.

### 1.6.1 Buyer Decision Process

There are five stages in the buyer decision process according to KOTLER (2001); however due to disparate points in the focus of this study, we will only emphasize the four main stages of the buying process, with the addition of three stages from the consumption decision process (Figure 7).


Figure 7. Buyer decision process from Kotler (Source: Kotler 2001)

## Awareness of the Need (Need Recognition)

This is the difference between the desired state and the actual condition. The mother is aware that she needs to buy cereal for breakfast. In this stage many factors could stimulate the mother's awareness. The TV advertisements could stimulate the mother's mind that she needs to buy cereal for breakfast instead of bread. Children could also awaken the mother's awareness that they want cereal for their breakfast because bread does not taste good and they prefer to eat cereal. So, she plans to buy cereal and starts to search for information.

## Information Search

The information search can be divided into two parts, the internal search and external search. The internal search is based on information available in the memory of a person. The mother remembers that she had watched the cereal advertisement before and tries to recall the memory of that advertisement. An external search occurs if the mother searches for the product information from supermarket brochures or by asking her children. After she finds the information, she decides to buy cereal by considering certain criteria.

## Evaluation of Alternatives

There is a need to establish criteria for the evaluation, features the buyer wants or does not want. For the mother, price and taste might play a major role in deciding on the food that she wants to buy. However, since she loves her children so much and knows that they are the ones who will eat the cereal, she decides to buy it based on what the children like.

## Purchase Decision (Act)

The mother chooses to go and buy the cereal that her children like from the supermarket, since she knows that the supermarket provides a variety of products and that the children like to go to the supermarket. The child is very excited and helps the mother by pushing the shopping cart, taking the cereal off the shelf, and putting it on the checkout counter.

### 1.6.2 Consumption Decision Process

The consumption process involves three stages: preparing, cooking and eating. In this part, children are evaluated as to whether they help the parents during the consumption process or do not help. By using the surveys, interviews, and observation, children's behavior during the consumption process is analyzed.

## Preparing

On the questionnaire, children and parents are asked who usually prepares the meal for the family. The participants were given the following options: the parents, other adults in the household, children together with parents, or do not know the answer. Children or parents might answer that the children help the parents by setting up the table or preparing the plates and eating utensils, for example.

## Cooking

Similar to food preparation, children were asked who usually cooks the meal for the family. In this stage, children's attitude and behavior during food cooking are examined. Children might help the parents by selecting the ingredients or pouring the spices into the soup for example. On the other hand, children might be busy with their toys or doing their homework during the food cooking. The behavior from the parents will also be analyzed, whether they involve the children during cooking or do not allow the children to help them.

## Eating

During eating, children's attitude are analyzed whether they can decide when, where, and what to eat. For example, children might prefer to eat on the sofa while watching TV. The attitudes of the parents are also evaluated, whether they allow the children to eat on the sofa or tell the children to eat with them at the dining table.

### 1.6.3 Family Characteristics

Family characteristics play an important role in terms of influencing the nature of the purchasing decision. This is likely the most reported research that has been conducted. The size of the family, the ages of children, and household income are all highlighted in the sociodemographic and economic status of the family. The following factors are described in relation to the influence of children in the family.

## A. Socio-Economic Status (SES)

Moschis and Moore (1979) stated that children from upper socio-economic backgrounds have greater awareness and preferences in the consumer environment. Previous studies have shown that socio-economic factors help explain the extent to which children influence family
purchase decision making. Specifically, the social status shows some insights into how obviously and actively the children attempt to participate in family decision making.

## Income

Children whose parents have high income are most likely to have a high influence on the process of family decision making, because the parents can afford to accommodate the children's preferences. It seems that perceptive children will have more influence in higher income families, given that such families are likely to make more purchases than lower class families.

## Occupation

Besides the number of children in the family and the age of children, the occupation of the mother has a meaningful aspect in determining the influence of children in the family. Previous studies found that increasing participation of women in the workplace has prompted an increase in the amount of children's influence in the family decision making process; not only as the influencer, but also as the buyer for the entire family (KAUR 2006).

## Education

The study from Slama and TASChiAn (1985) shows that education is positively related to purchase involvement of children. This study leads to further acceptance of the hypothesis that children who come from more highly educated parents are more involved in the family decision-making process than children from less educated parents.

## B. Socio-Demographic Status (SDS)

The age, gender, and family size form the basis of many studies in analyzing the children's influence in the family decision-making process (Ward and Wackman 1972; Darley and Lim 1986; Fillatrault and Ritchie 1980).

## Parenthood

A single-parent household or single-parent family means that either the mother or the father has the responsibility of managing the household alone, including raising the children and purchasing food. On the other hand, a dual-parent household is described as a full role scheme where both parents share the burden and responsibilities in raising the children and managing the household together (SANIK 1986).

## Age

A child's age is an important factor with regard to the child's influence on family decision making. According to previous studies, the older the children, the more influence they have in the family in terms of food consumption. This study focuses on the children between 6 and 9 years of age, where the child has entered the "concrete operational stage" as defined by Piaget in his theory. In his view, a child at this age is able to expand his or her conceptual
skills simultaneously and is able to reflect on his or her surroundings in a more thoughtful way. The Piaget theory is used by experts and researchers as fundamental knowledge for interpreting the children's age development in helping them to identify and predict the changes in children's consumer processing, such as how children perceive, select, and evaluate the information before they buy the product (HAStings 2003, WARD 1978).

## Gender

ATKIN (1978) stated that female children have a stronger influence in family purchase decisions and use influence strategies such as reasoning, asking, and persuading more frequently than boys. Girls have a slightly higher success rate than boys in persuading their parents into purchase decisions. Gender roles for parents relates to the extent to which a family member follows traditional normative outsets of how the husband and wife should behave.

## Family Size

The size of the family may have an effect on the degree of children's influence in the family decision-making process. A previous study by Heyer shows that the size of the family decides on how big the children's involvement in the family is. Children who come from a big family (with more than 5 people in the household) have fewer rights to decide (HEYER 1997).

### 1.7 Selection of the Research Area

Jakarta is the capital and largest city of Indonesia, where almost ten million people from different social background reside. Jakarta is located on the northwest coast of the island of Java, covering 661 sq . km or $0.03 \%$ of the total area of Indonesia. Jakarta is the home to a mixture of Western style, modern urban lifestyle, and traditional Indonesian culture. The population in Jakarta is steadily rising, not because of a high birth rate but as a result of urbanization. Overall, the food supply in Jakarta is always secured. According to BPS 2011, people spent $51 \%$ for food (average per capita) and $49 \%$ for non-food items. The amount for food expenditure has decreased from $63 \%$ in 1999 to $51 \%$ in 2009 (BPS 2011). Food expenditures depend on the total household income. The higher the income, the higher the expenditure for food will be. Families with medium or high income expend much more on food than low-income families. Children consume more milk than adults. Furthermore, rice, fruits, and vegetables are the favorite foods for daily consumption for both parents and children, since rice is the main food item for the Indonesian family. Concerning the influence from the Westernized lifestyle, fat consumption is increasing in Jakarta (PUSPA 2005). The food tendency among children in Jakarta is to consume Western style food, such as chicken nuggets, french fries, burgers, or sausages. The gap in social and economic statuses of the population can obviously be seen by the lifestyle of the people. Therefore, Jakarta is the ideal place to conduct the research, because people from different social classes live there. The
selection area for the research was planned to cover three different social income statuses; low, middle, and high in an equal number of participants. However during the research, various difficulties arose, and at the end the low income families dominated the number of participants with only a few participants from middle and high income families.

### 1.8 Selection of Participants

In selecting the participants, the first issue was "who should be asked in the family regarding the topic of food buying and consumption?" Since the study focuses on the responsible person in organizing the food buying process and consumption, the father or the mother as well as other adults in the household can participate in this study.

For the survey and ethnographic study, families in Jakarta were recruited randomly based on the following criteria:

1) The family has at least one child aged 6 to 9 years old. If the family has two children between these ages, then only one child can participate in the study. Previous studies have analyzed children at least 7 years old, concerning their cognitive ability in answering the questionnaires. This study focus on children starting at age 6 with the aim of comparing the perception, attitude and behaviour of younger children (age 6 to 7 years) and older children (age 8 above).
2) The participant's parents or other adults in the household are responsible for the food buying and consumption process in the family, so it can be the mothers, fathers, or other adults in the household.
3) All participants' children are enrolled in the second to fourth grade in elementary schools located in the housing district in Jakarta, whose parents come from low to high-income social level status.

### 1.9 Data Collection

The data collection period lasted four months from November 2008 until February 2009. This appears to have been the most efficient method of data collection, given the limited amount of time allocated to the research.

## Procedures

Before the field study was conducted, it was very important to prepare the documents or letters needed. Participation information letters for schools and parents were typed under the university letterhead and delivered directly to schools (please refer to Appendix 1-4). The letters included the introduction for the researchers, explanation about the purpose of the study, and the process of data collection, which would not be used for other purposes except for this study only. The letters were translated in Bahasa Indonesia so that the parents could
have a better understanding of the study and also avoid misunderstandings afterwards. Questionnaires and the research plan were presented to the school principals and also to the school committees. After they agreed, they issued letters of agreement and signed the letters sent to parents. Before the field study began, the schools informed the parents that there would be a study involving both parents and children and that the study would be used for academic purposes and would not be used for any commercial or other business purposes. The date and time were scheduled, and children were asked to be present at the scheduled date.

## The Survey (Appendix 14)

The surveys were conducted in three elementary schools in Jakarta: SDK Samaria, SD Budi Mulia and Singapore International School (SIS). The following is some information on the schools:

## SDK Samaria

SDK Samaria located in the west of Jakarta surrounded with housing, shopping, and business district areas. The children come mostly from low to medium income family. The school has an average of 30 children or less in each grade level. Although the study focuses to children age six to nine years old, one or two children were found to be older than the age required.

## SD Budi Mulia

SD Budi Mulia is located in the housing and traditional shopping area in the central of Jakarta. The students come from low to high income families. Compared to SDK Samaria, SD Budi Mulia has more students in each class for every level, with a total of 40 to 50 students in each class. As with SDK Samaria, during the survey, one or two children were found older than the age required.

## Singapore International School (SIS)

Singapore international school is an affiliated school from Singapore whose students come mostly from high income families. The children are mostly bilingual or multilingual, the majorities are Indonesian, and some are foreigners. Different from other national schools mentioned previously, the parents from this school were more hesitant to participate in any kind of research. After a long and intricate effort, there were few families who were willing to participate in this study and whose answers were considered valid and fulfilled the requirements.

### 1.10 Statistical Test

For the research statistical test, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods (mixedmethods) was applied in order to gain a comprehensive knowledge of the result. The definition of qualitative and quantitative implies a search for "meaning" and "measurement,"
respectively. Qualitative approaches deal with how people understand their experiences, attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, and interactions; whereas quantitative approaches aim to test hypotheses and are usually used to identify the numerical differences between groups. In order to have a better understanding on the differences between these two, Table 2 below will show the function of both methods.

Table 2. Qualitative vs. quantitative methods
(Source: Cozby 2007; Creswell 2003; BRyman 1988)

|  | Qualitative Research | Quantitative Research |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Objective / <br> Purpose | - To gain an understanding of underlying reasons and motivations <br> - To provide insights into the setting of a problem, generating ideas and/or hypotheses for later quantitative research <br> - To uncover prevalent trends in thought and opinion | - To quantify data and generalize results from a sample to the population of interest <br> - To measure the incidence of various views and opinions in a chosen sample <br> - Sometimes followed by qualitative research, which is used to explore some findings further |
| Methods | Open-ended questions, emerging approaches, text or image data. | Closed-ended questions, predetermined approaches, numeric data |
| Sample | Usually a small number of nonrepresentative cases. Respondents selected to fulfill a given quota. | Usually a large number of cases representing the population of interest. Randomly selected respondents. |
| Data <br> Collection | Unstructured or semi-structured techniques, such as individual depth interviews or group discussions. | Structured techniques such as questionnaires. |
| Data Analysis | Non-statistical. | Statistical data is usually in the form of tabulations (tabs). |
| Outcome | Exploratory and/or investigative. Findings are not conclusive and cannot be used to make generalizations about the population of interest. Develop an initial understanding and sound base for further decision making. | Used to recommend a final course of action. |
| Conclusion | Based on interpretations drawn by the investigators. | Based upon statistical analysis of data. |
| Philosophical Assumptions | Constructivist/advocacy/participatory knowledge claims. | Post-positivist knowledge claims. |
| Employ the Strategy of Inquiry | Phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case studies and narrative. | Survey and experiments. |

### 1.10.1 Qualitative

The qualitative method is a method that the researchers use in order to gain a better understanding of the human behavior and the reasons that cause it. It focuses on people behaving in natural settings and defines the world in their own words (Cozby 2007). The qualitative method examines the why and how of decision making, and not just what, where, or when. A qualitative approach is one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives (e.g. the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings socially and historically constructed, with an intent of developing a theory or pattern). It also uses strategies of inquiry such as narratives (the researcher studies the lives of individuals and asks one or more individuals to provide stories about their lives), phenomenological research (the researcher identifies the "essence" of human experiences concerning a phenomenon as described by participants in a study), ethnographies (the researcher studies an intact cultural group in a natural setting over a prolonged period of time by collecting, primarily, observational data), grounded theory studies (in which the researcher attempts to derive a general, abstract theory of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the views of participants in a study), or case studies (in which the researcher explores in depth an activity, a process, or one or more individuals) (BRYMAN 1988, Creswell 2003). The researcher collects open-ended, emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from the data. This study utilizes the qualitative method in order to achieve a better understanding of how children participate and influence their families in the family decision-making process. By conducting a qualitative method in this research, the real situation of the participant families can also be observed, analyzed, and compared to the results from quantitative study. There are two qualitative methods used in this study, which are direct observation and semi-structured interviewing. The combination of these methods made it possible to investigate in detail everyday decision-making about children's influence from the perspective of both children and parents (NøRGAARD 2007, Trochim 2006):

## Direct Observation

Direct observation is different from participant observation in a number of ways. First, a direct observer is not usually involved as a participant in the context. However, the direct observer tries to be as inconspicuous as possible in order to avoid the perception of bias in the observation. Second, direct observation implies a more separate point of view, where the researcher is watching rather than getting involved in the observed situation. Finally, the direct observation tends not to take longer than participant observation (Trochim 2006). In this study, the researcher uses direct observation during the food consumption process and grocery shopping. The researcher did not try to get involved during the observation and watched from the corner of the house. The purpose of utilizing direct observation was to have a real situation for the family in how the family decision-making process is made. Therefore it can be verified whether the answers from the quantitative study were based on truth or not.

## Structured and Unstructured Interviewing (Semi-structured)

Unstructured interviewing is different from structured, because the interviewer is free to move the conversation (Trochim 2006). This study combined both structured and unstructured interviewing methods, where the researcher used guidelines or protocol and at the same time, when other related topics came up, the interviewer would ask the participants about them as well. The unstructured interviewing method is useful for exploring a topic broadly and also for making the situation during the interview more relaxed and informal (TROCHIM 2006). The idea of using the combination of structured and unstructured interviewing is to explore the information given by the parents from the guidelines and at the same time to discover new information which later can contribute to the complete information of the family. As it was mentioned before, unstructured interviewing can also create a more pleasant atmosphere for the parents, especially with children, since it gives a more relaxed, open, and pleasant situation.

### 1.10.2 Quantitative

The quantitative research method refers to the systematic empirical analysis of the phenomena and their relationships. This method is used to verify and test the hypotheses of the research. This study uses the nonparametric measures of correlation and statistical tests which determine the probability associated with the occurrence of a correlation as large as the one observed in the sample under the null hypothesis that the variables are independent (SIEGEL 1988). According to BRYMAN (1988), quantitative research uses a special language which appears to reveal some similarity to the ways in which scientists talk about how they investigate the natural order - variables, control, measurement, experiment. A quantitative approach is one in which the investigator primarily uses post-positivist claims (refers to the thinking after positivism, challenging the traditional notion of the absolute truth of knowledge) (PhilliPs 2000) for developing knowledge (e.g., cause and effect thinking; reduction to specific variables, hypotheses, and questions; use of measurements and observation; and the test of theories), employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data (Creswell 2003). Under quantitative research, two methods are used in testing the hypothesis: using the crosstabs of Cramer's V and Bivariate, and using the Kendall's tau-b. An explanation of these methods will be discussed in part 2.4.1 Analyzing the Data.
The aim of performing a quantitative method in this study is to:

- quantify data and generalize results from the parents and children with regard to children's influence on the family-decision making process;
- measure the degree of children's influence in the family and congregate the opinions from parents and children;
- recommend a final course of action.


## 2 Questionnaires

### 2.1 Questionnaires as the Quantitative Method of Collecting Data

Currently, there are many ways and methods of collecting consumer and buying behavior data, but few methods are applicable in analyzing the children's influence in the family. Every method has its own strengths and weaknesses in terms of time (whether it is timeconsuming or not), cost (expensive or inexpensive), practicality, and flexibility; and all of these factors will be considered in the method selection of the research (Creswell 2003). The method selections involve the size of the sample, budget for the research, time availability, and the function of the method in the research in order to proof the validity and reliability of the data. It is important to have a method that is precise, accurate, objective, valid, easy to manage, time-efficient, and applicable for conducting a large sample of research (Creswell 2003). Analyzing the influence of the children in the family decision-making process is both interesting and complex. There is no exact or golden method to define, measure, and collect the data on children's influence in the family (McNeal 1992). However, a questionnaire is a helpful method in gathering the information of the family and as a result can be used in determining the influence of children in the family. A questionnaire is a powerful evaluation tool and is considered to be one of the suitable methods in collecting data; also it is an inexpensive way to collect data from a potentially large number of respondents. Often it is the only practical way to achieve a number of reviewers large enough to allow statistical analysis of the result (BENJAFIELD 1994). Questionnaires are resourceful and present the collection of both subjective and objective data. In structuring the questionnaires, it should be noted that they are equivalent with the purpose of the study. The layout from the questionnaires, for example the cover page, should be able to encourage the respondents' willingness to cooperate (JANSEN 2010).

### 2.2 The Concept of the Questionnaire

(Appendix 5 and 7: Questionnaire for Parents and Children)
The study utilized the standardized questionnaire approach in socio-economic and demographic status, behavioral patterns and characteristics of the family. A questionnaire is said to be standardized when each respondent is to be exposed to the equivalent questions and the same system of coding responses. The aim here is to try to ensure that differences in responses to questions can be interpreted as reflecting differences among respondents, rather than differences in the processes that produced the answers. The main way of collecting the information is by asking people questions - either through oral interviews (face to face or telephone), or by self-administered questionnaires, or by using some combination of these two methods (Siniscalco 2005). The questionnaires apply the closed-ended questions, in which the respondents choose among the possible set of answer (multiple choice). The respondents
are asked to tick or cross the chosen answer that most nearly reflects their opinion. The main advantage of closed questions are: 1) the respondent is restricted to a finite (and therefore more manageable) set of responses; 2) they are easy and quick to answer; 3) they have response categories that are easy to code; and 4) they permit the inclusion of more variables in a research study because the format enables the respondent to answer more questions in the same time required to answer fewer open-ended questions.

Each respondent either the parent or the child is exposed to the identical questions only in different technique of asking. Previous studies showed that in children starting at age twelve, their way of thinking can be compared equally to that of an adult (HEYER 1997). In this study children are between six and ten years of age, so the method of asking must be different in order for them to have a better understanding of the questionnaires. The differences in the method of asking from the parents' and children's questionnaires are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. The differences between children's and parents' questionnaire
(Source: author's own conception)

|  | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| • Cover | - Colorful picture of cartoon <br> characters with varieties of <br> fruits | - Introduction letter from the <br> university, simple cover <br> design |
| - Font | - Comic sans MS | • Arial |

### 2.2.1 Questionnaire for Children (Appendix 5)

Questionnaire for children applies the standardized questionnaire. Each child is to be exposed to the same questions and the same system of coding responses. The main purpose of the children's questionnaire is to determine the children's role in and influence on the family's decision-making process with regard to food buying and consumption from the children's perspective. The example of questionnaires from previous and current studies were used as a guideline for developing the children's questionnaire (WALTER 2011, MikKelsen 2006)

First personal information on the children is gathered (Appendix 5, Question no. 1-4). The SDS information of the children is needed in order to test the hypotheses whether the SDS correlate significantly or not with the children's role in the family.

- Gender: Girls have more influence than boys in the families' decision-making.
- Age: The older the children, the bigger the influence they have on their families' decision-making.
- The amount of siblings of the child: The fewer children in the household, the more influence the child has in family's decision-making.
- Language used at home between parents and children: The ethnic background of the family has an influence in deciding whether the children can or cannot influence their families' decision-making.

In order to gather enough information needed concerning the children's role and influence in the family decision making, children were asked to give their opinion concerning_(Appendix 5, Question no. 5-31):

- The person who is in charge of food buying planning
- The person who decides what food to buy
- The person who should be responsible for buying the food
- The allowance from the parents
- The information sources
- The criteria when buying the foodstuffs
- The frequency of the family's grocery shopping
- The enjoyment of grocery shopping
- Their assistance to their parents during grocery shopping
- The parents' behavior when buying food for the children
- Their behavior during grocery shopping
- The type of food that they told their parents to buy
- The person who is in charge of preparing and cooking the meal (breakfast, lunch, and dinner)
- Their assistance during food preparation and cooking
- Their ability to decide what they want to eat
- Opinion on their influence in the family


Children's
Perception

The questions will be linked to the SES and SDS of the family in order to see whether or not there is a correlation between them. The questionnaire is standardized to all participants' children from age 6 to 9 years old. Children during these ages are in the analytical stage; although 6 to 7 years old is still the beginning of the analytical stage and the end of the perceptual stage (refer to "children in the consumer socialization" in Chapter 2, Theoretical Framework). The reason for selecting this age group is to compare the perception and way of thinking from younger ( 6 to 7 years old) and older children ( 8 to 9 years old). Younger children are still oriented toward themselves; they concentrate only on a single dimension, and they perceive the objects in their environment based on their own perspective. In terms of making a decision or influencing strategies, children during this stage have limited information in helping them make a decision or influence others with regards to their own perception. Older children have a more sophisticated understanding of the marketplace, a more complex set of knowledge about different concepts such as assortment of products and brands, and a new perspective that goes beyond their feelings and motives (WARD 1978).

The study concentrates not only on the age of the children, but also the area of the research study is thoughtfully selected. Jakarta is the capital city of Indonesia, and people from different social and demographic backgrounds live there. The influence from Western culture shapes the perception and lifestyle of the people there. Schools and families are selected randomly without disregarding the requirements of the study (family has at least one child age 6 to 9 years old; the children attend school from the second to fourth grade; the family lives in Jakarta; the participant's parents or other adults in the household are responsible for food buying and consumption processes in the family, be it the mothers, fathers, or other adults in the household). The language or the way of asking in the children's questionnaire is carefully developed in order for the children to have simple, prompt, and understandable questions. As suggested by FUCHS (2004), the children's questionnaire has to be fast and easy to fill in, in order to avoid monotony or boredom in the children and to support the children's motivation to fill in the questionnaire. There are two types of closed-ended questions: children can only cross one answer and children can cross more than one option with a maximum of three options. To describe it more clearly, the following example will illustrate the type of the questions:

## Only 1 answer:

Who usually plans or organizes buying the food? Please cross only 1 box (Appendix 5, Question no. 5):
$\square$ Mommy
$\square$ Daddy
$\square$ Me alone
$\square$ Mommy and Daddy
$\square$ Me together with Mommy
$\square$ Me together with Daddy
$\square$ Other:
$\square$ Don't know

In some of the questions, children are given the options to describe the reason of the chosen answer. The reasons described by the children are needed to support the answer and to have a clearer picture of the children's influence during the family decision-making process.

Can you decide what kind of food you want to eat for dinner? Please cross only 1 box.
(Appendix 5, Question no. 30):
$\square$ Always
(I can always decide what kind of food I want to eat for dinner)Often
(From 4 out of 5 times)Sometimes
(From 3 out of 5 times)Seldom
(From 1 or 2 out of 5 times)
Never
(No, I cannot decide what kind of food I want to eat for dinner)
Please give the reason why
Don't know

## More than 1 answer:

What is important for you when you buy or choose the foodstuffs? (For this question, you may cross more than 1 box, but no more than 3 boxes)
(Appendix 5, Question no. 11):


Price (cheap, expensive, on sale)


Pictures, colors, and form of the package


Pictures, colors, and form of the food


Taste (variety of taste)Toys (premiums)New in the marketI saw it on advertisement
$\square$ Near cashier desk
$\square$ Because other family members like it (mommy, daddy, or sisters/brothers)
$\square$ Other: $\qquad$

In this question, it can be evaluated what factors influence their buying behavior. The child might also choose only one or two options, if for them the other answers are not related to or not important for them. Furthermore, by answering more than 1 answer, the degree of children's influence in the family can be evaluated, for example the questions below:

How do you help your mother/father during grocery shopping? (For this question, you may cross more than 1 box, but no more than 3 boxes)
(Appendix 5, Question no. 15):
$\square$ Writing items on the shopping list
$\square$ Browsing through circulars
$\square$ Taking the goods from the shelves
$\square$ Pushing the shopping cart
$\square$ Taking out the goods and put them on the check-out counter
$\square$ Comparing the price between the products
$\square$ I don't help them
$\square$ Others:

In this question, the more answers the children choose, the higher the influence and responsibility of the children in the family. Not only is the content of the questionnaires important, but also the design of the cover together with the font of the letters are essential when developing a children's questionnaire.

On the cover of the children's questionnaires, some color pictures with a big size of font letters for the questions are used to stimulate the children's motivation and concentration (Figure 8).


Colorful pictures help motivate children in answering the questionnaire. The questionnaire for the children is designed simply and is easy to understand, considers their cognitive competences (in terms of their memory and concentration), and takes into account their language competences. Only topics and words that are familiar to children were asked, for example the question of "How much influence do you...?" is modified to "who decides...?"

The words are minimized to be as short, simple, precise, direct, and relevant as possible. The structure of topics and questions in the questionnaire is chronological and sequential from food buying to food consuming. This is important for children because they think in a simple logical way. The questions for the children were asked in the classroom. Teachers from each class read the questions to the children and gave a duration time for each question for the children to answer the questions. Teachers from second and third grade read the questions more slowly and repeated the questions more frequently ( $2-3$ times) compared to teachers from the fourth grade. The duration time for the lower grade levels took two to three times longer than the fourth grade, 30 to 45 minutes for fourth grade, and 60 to 90 minutes for second and third grades.

### 2.2.2 Questionnaire for Parents (Appendix 7)

According to Schnell ET AL. (2005), the first part of the question should capture the important part with the topic of the study and it should encourage the respondents to answer the questionnaire. Therefore the socio-demographic backgrounds of the family were asked in the first part of the questionnaire, because this information is important when evaluating the study. The socio-economic and demographic backgrounds of the parents present an important aspect in determining and evaluating the children's role and influence in the family. Furthermore, the hypothesis of the study can be tested and proofed as to whether these socioeconomic and demographic backgrounds of the family correlate significantly or not with the children's role. The answers from the parents reflect their perception with regard to children's influence in the family. When analyzing the results, the answers from the parents will be compared to the answers from the children, whether parents underestimate children's role or children's overestimate their influence in the family. The agreement or disagreement from the answers given from parents and children will be evaluated. First the SES and SDS from the respondents' parents were asked in the first part of the questionnaire (Appendix 7 , Question no. 1-8):

- Gender: Mother or Father, to see who is in charge of the household matters.
- Age: Under 20 to more than 50 years old, it might have an influence on the children's role in the family, but will not be investigated here, since the age of the children is the focus of the study and not the age of the parents.
- Educational background: Children from highly educated parents have more influence on their families' decision-making (testing the hypotheses).
- Respondent's occupation
- Respondent's partner occupation

To see whether the children come from dual or single earning families, and if the mother is employed, do children have more influence in
the family?

- Family structure / parenthood: Children from single-parent families have more influence on their families' decision-making than children from dual-parent families (testing the hypotheses).
- Income: Children from high income families have more influence on their families' decision-making (testing the hypotheses).
- Number of children: The fewer children in the household, the more influence each child has in the family's decision-making (testing the hypotheses).

The second part of the questionnaire captures the equivalent topics with the children's questionnaire (Appendix 7, Question no. 9-35):

- The person who is in charge of food purchase planning
- The person who decides what food to buy
- The person who should be responsible for buying the food
- The feeling when given the allowance
- The information sources
- The criteria when buying foodstuffs
- The frequency of the family's grocery shopping
- The enjoyment of grocery shopping
- The children's assistance during grocery shopping
- The parents' behavior when buying food for the children
- Children's behavior during grocery shopping
- The food type that children told their parents to buy
$\left\{\begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \text { Food Buying } \\ \text { Process } \\ \end{array}\right.$
- The person who is in charge of preparing and cooking the meal (Breakfast, Lunch, and Dinner)
- Children's assistance during food preparation and cooking
- Children's ability to decide what they want to eat
- Opinion on children's influence in the family


The results from the parents' questionnaires are compared to the results from the children's questionnaire, their perceptions are evaluated, and the degree of children's influence according to parents is measured.

Questionnaires for parents were designed in a more formal style of asking in comparison to the children's questionnaires. The cover for the parents' questionnaires is attached with the official letter from the Department of Nutritional Science of the Justus Liebig University,

Giessen, in requesting parents to participate in the study (Appendix 3 and 4). Unlike the children's questionnaire, the parents' questionnaires are brought back home by the children to the parents, and the parents filled in the questionnaires at home. The children's questionnaire is filled in at school and not at home in order to avoid biased results (such as getting help from the parents in filling in the questionnaire). Some parents regretted filling it in and some children forgot to bring it back or return it to school. Since the study requires the participation from both sides (parent and child), whenever one of them did not answer or return the questionnaire, the questionnaires were considered invalid. This study presents the data with regard to the socio-demographic background from the parents and the children as well as children's and parents' perception towards the children's influence, role, and responsibility in the family.

### 2.3 The Process of the Survey

The survey involves two respondents from each family. One respondent is the adult (can be father, mother, or other adults in the household such as the grandmother) who is responsible for managing the food buying and consumption process. The other respondent is the child in the family between ages six to nine. If the family has two children between these ages, then only one child can participate in the study. All participants' children were enrolled in the second to fourth grade in private schools located in housing districts in Jakarta.

Before the surveys began, teachers were given instructions on how the surveys were to be conducted. They were also informed that camera and video would be used during the surveys. Questionnaires were attached to packs of rice crackers and other snack variations as thankful gifts for their participation (Appendix 13). After about fifteen minutes of instruction, the teachers entered the classroom and the surveys were conducted continuously from one classroom to another. The teachers made an introduction about what would be conducted in the class and who would conduct the survey. Then the questionnaires were distributed, and the children answered the questions in the classroom with help from the teachers, who had given direction before in how to answer each question.

The surveys took about 30 to 90 minutes of time with reference to the different age and grade level. Younger children in the second grade needed more time ( 60 to 90 minutes) in answering the questionnaires compared to the older children in the fourth grade who had a better understanding and were able to concentrate more on the questionnaire and answer the questions more quickly ( 30 to 45 minutes). It can be assumed that for each question, younger children took about 2 to 3 minutes to answer; whereas older children needed only 1 minute for each question (in total there were 31 questions in the children's questionnaire).

After the data from the children's questionnaires were collected, they were asked to take home the questionnaire for their parents that included an introductory letter outlining the
purpose of the research (Appendix $3 \& 4$ ) where the parents also have to sign a letter and return it together with the questionnaires. Parents were informed that only the person who is in charge of managing the daily household can answer the questionnaire and that the questionnaire was very important with reference to their children's questionnaire and valid only if both questionnaires from parents and children were collected.

After all questionnaires were collected, parents were contacted via telephone and were asked to participate in the ethnographic study. A long process was taken in approaching the families who were willing to participate. Most of them regretted participating because of several reasons, such as "no time" and "privacy concerns." From 150 families who participated in the survey, 17 families were willing to participate in the ethnographic study. The research activities conducted in this study capture the observation and interview with the family inside their houses (house visit) during the food purchase planning and consumption process, as well as observation during grocery shopping.

Overall, the survey involved 150 parents from age twenty to more than fifty who were responsible for managing the household, in terms of food buying and the consumption process; together with one of the children in the household age six to nine years old from three elementary schools.

### 2.4 The Statistical Analysis of the Questionnaire

### 2.4.1 Analyzing the data

The statistical analysis of the questionnaire was conducted by using the Statistic software PASW Statistic (previously known as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows ${ }^{\circledR}$ Version 16. The unprocessed data was measured, revised, tested, refined, and evaluated. The data analysis was based on descriptive statistics using the crosstabs of Cramer's V and Bivariate using the Kendall's tau-b, respectively. Cramer's V is utilized in analyzing correlations where the nominal data involved, such as occupation. Kendall's tau-b is used to define the ordinal data, where rank is needed, such as education. In order to avoid an incorrect decision, the level of significance is determined. A high level of significant value in this study is determined by $\alpha \leq 0.05(5 \%)$. A correlation with a significance level of $\alpha \leq$ 0.05 is considered significant.

The Cramer's V (Siegel 1988).
Cramer's V is a way of calculating correlation in tables that have more than $2 \times 2$ rows and columns. In statistics, Cramer's V (sometimes referred to as Cramer's phi and denoted as $(\mathrm{c})$ is a popular measure of association between two nominal variables, giving a value 0 and +1 . It is used as post-test to determine strengths of association after chi-square has determined significance. Chi-square says that there is a significant relationship between
variables, but it does not say just how significant and important this is. Cramer's V is a posttest to give this additional information.

Cramer's V is computed by:

$$
\begin{gathered}
V=\sqrt{\frac{\chi}{|N|(\min \mathbf{r}-1, \mathrm{c}-1 \mid}} \\
\chi^{2}=\Sigma \frac{(\text { Observed Frequency - Expected Frequency })^{2}}{\text { Expected Frequency }}
\end{gathered}
$$

And (min $\mathrm{r}-1, \mathrm{c}-1$ ) is the minimum value of either the number of rows -1 or the number of columns -1. An example of using the Cramer's V is to find the correlation between occupation and the food decision maker.

## Kendall Rank Correlation Coefficient (Kendall's Tau coefficient)

In statistics, the Kendall rank correlation coefficient is commonly referred to as Kendall's tau coefficient, which is used to measure the association between two measured quantities. A tau test is a non-parametric hypothesis test that uses the coefficient to test for statistical dependence, specifically to measure the rank correlation, such as education. The Kendall rank-order correlation coefficient T is suitable as a measure of correlation with the same sort of data where the ordinal measurement of both X and Y variables has been achieved, so that every subject can be assigned a rank on both X and Y ; then $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{xy}}$ will give a measure of the degree of association or correlation between the two sets of ranks. The sampling distribution of T under the null hypothesis of independence is known, and therefore T may be used in tests of significance. In other words, under a null hypothesis of X and Y being independent, the sampling distribution of T will have an expected value of zero (SIEGEL 1988). The equation for Kendall rank correlation is defined as:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\tau=\underline{\text { (number of concordant pairs) }- \text { (number of discordant pairs) }} \\
1 / 2 n(n-1)
\end{gathered}
$$

The denominator is the total number of pairs, so the coefficient must be in the range $-1 \leq \tau \leq 1$

- If the concurrence between the two rankings is perfect (e.g. The two rankings are the same), then the coefficient has the value of 1
- If the disparity between the two rankings is perfect (e.g. One ranking is the reverse of the other), then the coefficient has value -1
- If X and Y are independent, then the expectation of the coefficient is approximately zero


### 2.4.2 Influence Score

Influence is vague but can be surmised through behavior (DAVIS 1970). In order to analyze how far or how strong the influence from children towards their family's decision-making process is, it is essential to put the score value from each answer option. There are several methods and measurements in determining the children's influence; however, the measurement from MiKKELSEN (2006) was found to be the preeminent and most applicable method for this study. For some questions, the respondents were asked to cross only one answer, and for others the respondents could cross more than one with a maximum of three. Each answer had its own score value, and at the end the scores were added together and showed the influence level of the children in the family decision-making process. The scores relate to the degree of influence and participation of children during the food purchase and food consumption processes. Only questions related to the degree of influence have values, for example, if the children mention that they "always" are able to decide what to eat for breakfast, it means that they earn a score of 4 , which is the highest score in each question. In order to have a better understanding of the influence score, the following part will define how to measure the children's influence together with the example of the questions and the score value. According to MikKelsen (2006), there are two methods to measure the children's influence: general and specific measurements.

## General measurement

The general part measures children's ideas for food buying and parents' responses to these ideas using an interval on a 5-point scale from "always" (4), "often" (3), "sometimes" (2), "seldom / almost never" (1), "never" / "don't know" (0). The general part measurement uses a 5-point scale instead of a 4-point scale in order for the respondents to have the opportunity to choose the middle point between two specific descriptions if they are unsure of the answers given on the questionnaire.

## Example: How often do your children help you in preparing the breakfast (including cutting the vegetables or meat, adding spices or sauces)? Please cross 1 box only.

$\square$ Always (Value: 4)
(They always help me in preparing breakfast)
$\square$ Often (Value: 3)
(From 4 out of 5 times)
$\square$ Sometimes (Value: 2)
(From 3 out of 5 times)
$\square$ Seldom (Value: 1)
(From 1 or 2 out of 5 times)
$\square$ Never (Value: 0)
(No, they never help me in cooking the breakfast)
$\square$ Don't know (Value: $\mathbf{0}$ )

## Specific measurement

The specific part measured children's influence on various decision areas in food buying and food consumption. In this measurement, it can be evaluated whether children participate together with their parents, children participate alone or with other people, or parents themselves accomplish the food buying and food consumption without participation from children. "Mother / Father / Mother and Father / Others / Don’t know" (0), "Mother / Father together with children" (1), "Children" (2). When other persons besides children perform the food buying and food consumption, then the answer from the question will have a zero value; when children and other people including the parents participate together then the value will be one; and when children accomplish it alone, then the score will be two.

Example: Who usually prepare breakfast in your family? Please cross 1 box only.Mother (Value: 0)
Father (Value: 0)
Children (Value: 2)
$\square$ Mother and Father (Value: 0)
$\square$ Mother together with children (Value: 1)
$\square$ Father together with children (Value: 1)
Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Don't know (Value: 0)
Both measurements have a "Don't know" answer, as an alternative for those respondents who do not have an answer or choose a neutral answer.

### 2.4.2.1 Influence Score for Children's Questionnaire (Appendix 9)

Children were asked to answer the questions based on their opinions with regards to the food buying and consumption process in their family. If children state that they prepare, cook, buy, and do other things for which they decide by themselves, then the score will be high. If they do not know or when there is no involvement at all from the children then the score will be low.

Table 4. Influence score - measuring the role of children (Source: author's own creation)

| Q | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 5. | Organize the food buying | Mommy | 0 |  |
|  |  | Daddy | 0 |  |
|  |  | Me alone | 2 |  |
|  |  | Mommy and Daddy | 0 |  |
|  |  | Me together with Mommy | 1 |  |
|  |  | Me together with Daddy | 1 |  |
|  |  | Others | 0 |  |
|  |  | Don't know | 0 |  |

In Question 5 (Table 4), children were asked to indicate who in the family organizes the food buying for the family. The highest score is when children answer "Me alone" with a score of two. If they answer "other people" (Mommy, daddy, or others) and if they do not know the answer, then the score is zero. If children cooperate with the parents, then the score is one. The purpose of asking these questions is to see whether children take part in organizing, deciding, and being responsible for buying the food or not. Also, one can examine who manages the food purchase activities in the family (Table 4).

Table 5. Influence score - indicating the responses of the parents (Source: Author's own creation)

| Q | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 8. | Parents allow children to buy | Always | 4 |  |
|  | what they want | Often | 3 |  |
|  |  | Sometimes | 2 |  |
|  |  | Seldom | 0 |  |
|  |  | Never | 0 |  |
|  |  | Don't know | 0 |  |

In Question 8 (Table 5), children were asked to give their opinion on how their parents allow them to buy what they want. The score begins with zero to four, where the lowest score indicates that either the parents do not allow the children to buy what they want at all or if the children do not know the answer to the question. The highest score occurs when the parents always allow their children to buy what they want, meaning children have a high influence here. Here, the degree of children's influence in the family can be evaluated, also to inspect what children think in terms of their freedom in food buying (Table 5).

Table 6. Influence score - indicating the responses from children (Source: author's own creation)

| Q <br> No. | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 9. | Happy feeling if the parents <br> allow children to buy what <br> they want | Yes <br> No <br> Sometimes <br> Don't know | 2 |  |

In Question 9 (Table 6), children were asked to indicate a happy feeling when their parents allow them to buy what they want. If the children answer "yes," then the score will be two, and if the children do not feel happy if they get permission or if they do not know the answer then there will be no score for this question. This question was created in order to evaluate the children's perception when the parents allow them to buy what they want. The answer "no" could also mean that they might be not happy because the parents do not pay enough attention to the children, so the parents just give whatever the children want. The answer "sometimes" might reflect the feeling of the children that they can be happy and can also be not happy towards their parents' allowance (Table 6).

Table 7. Influence score - measuring the frequency of children participating in grocery shopping
(Source: author's own creation)

| Q <br> No. | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 13. | Frequent grocery shopping <br> with parents | Always <br> Sometimes | Never | 2 |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 0 |  |  |

Question 13 (Table 7) is intended to evaluate the frequency of parents taking out their children for grocery shopping. The answer "always" reflects a situation where the children at all times participate; the answer "sometimes" shows that the children occasionally participate; there could be times that children do not come along because they perhaps have other things to do such as school, or the parents do not want them to come. The answer "never" means that the children do not participate or parents do not involve children at all in grocery shopping. Therefore, when the children always participate, the influence score is higher than when they never do so. As a remark, in this question the score goes from zero to two to four, because "often" and "seldom" are not included here (Table 7).

Table 8. Influence score - indicating the children's attitude during grocery shopping
(Source: author's own creation)

| Q <br> No. | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 17. | Telling parents what food to | Always | 4 |  |
|  | buy | Often | 3 |  |
|  |  | Sometimes | 2 |  |
|  |  | Seldom | 0 |  |
|  |  | Never | 0 |  |
|  |  | Don't know | 0 |  |

Question 17 (Table 8) shows the attitude of the children in telling the parents what food to buy. The answer "always" refers to children at all times telling the parents what food to buy. The terms "food" here means food in general, including rice, meat, or vegetables, and not only children's food. The answers "often," "sometimes," and "seldom" show that the children might tell their parents what food to buy, but not all the time. When the children answer "never" or "don't know," it might reflect that they by no means tell the parents what food to buy or that they may also simply not know the answer to the question (Table 8).

Table 9. Influence score - identifying the type of help from children and calculating the degree of children's assistance during grocery shopping (Source: author's own creation)

| Q. <br> No. | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 15. | Helping parents during <br> shopping | Writing items on the shopping list <br> Browsing through circulars <br> Taking the goods from the <br> shelves <br> Pushing the shopping cart <br> Taking out the goods and putting <br> them on the checkout counter <br> Comparing the price between the <br> products <br> Don't help parents <br> Other | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |  |  |

Question 15 (Table 9) is designed to evaluate the type of assistance from the children to their parents and to measure how active they are in helping their parents during grocery shopping. In this question, children can give at most three answers. The more help that children give their parents, the higher the influence score will be. Each type of help has a score of one, and if the children give three answers to this question then the score will be higher. If the children do not help the parents at all, then they will not have a score for this question (Table 9).

Table 10. Influence score - identifying the children's opinion towards their role in the family
(Source: author's own creation)

| Q <br> No. | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 31. | Overall influence towards <br> what to buy and what to eat | Yes <br> No <br> Don't know | 1 |  |

Question 31 (Table 10) indicates that when children choose "yes," it means that they can influence their parents in general on what the family buys and eats, and they get the score of 1. On the other hand, when the children answer " $n o$," it means that they believe that they do not have any influence in the family, and "don't know" means that they do not know the answer to this question and they will not get score in this case (Table 10).

### 2.4.2.1 Influence Score for Parents' Questionnaire (Appendix 10)

From the parents' questionnaire, the value is counted only to the questions that reflect the influence of the children during food buying and food consumption. The personal information from the parents, such as the education background or household income does not have value score in this case.

Table 11. Influence score - identifying the parent's opinion on whether the children have an influence in food buying or not (Source: author's own creation)

| Q <br> No. | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 10. | Who decides what food to buy | Mother | 0 |  |
|  |  | Father | 0 |  |
|  |  | Children | 2 |  |
|  |  | Mother and father | 0 |  |
|  |  | Mother together with children | 1 |  |
|  |  | Father together with children | 1 |  |
|  | Others | 0 | 0 |  |

Question 10 (Table 11) reflects the parent's opinion on the food purchase decision, whether the children able to decide or parents decide for them. When parents answer that they are the decider "mother," "father," or "mother and father," then the score is zero, meaning that the children do not have roles in deciding what food to buy. When the children take part in deciding what food to buy together with the parents, "mother together with children" or "father together with children," then the score is one, meaning that parents involve their children in food purchase decisions and consider their children to be co-partners. If the parents answer "children" only, then the score is two, meaning that the parents do not decide on what to buy and they trust their children's decisions. When the parents answer "others," it means that they might not have time because they are working so they hand over the decision to others, for example a maid, or because they live with others who have more power to decide in the household such as the mother-in-law. When the parents answer "don't know," it means that either they do not know exactly who makes decisions about food purchases or they might not want to answer the question. For the answers "others" or "don't know," the score is zero (Table 11).

Table 12. Influence score - identifying the parent's response towards children's requests

| Q | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| No. |  |  | 4 |  |
| 12. | Parents allow children to buy | Always | 3 |  |
|  | what they want | Often | 2 |  |
|  |  | Sometimes | 1 |  |
|  |  | Seldom | 0 |  |
|  |  | Never | 0 |  |

From Question 12 (Table 12), parents' responses toward their children's requests can be evaluated. When parents answer "always," it means that their children at all times get what
they want; parents do not control what their children buy and therefore the influence score is high. Also when the answer is "often" or "sometimes," it means that the children could get what they want but still parents have the authority either to allow it or not. The answers "seldom" or "never," means that the parents have more power to decide and for them the children do not get the privilege of buying what they want, only when the parents are willing to buy for them. The answer "don't know" shows that the parents either do not know the answer or they are not sure how frequent they allow it (Table 12).

Table 13. Influence score - indicating whether parents think their children's opinion regarding the product is important or not (Source: author's own creation)

| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{Q} \\ & \text { No. } \end{aligned}$ | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 14. | Info about the food products | My children <br> Friends <br> School from my children <br> Supermarket <br> TV ads <br> TV program <br> Newspaper <br> Magazines <br> Radio <br> Ads on the street (billboard) <br> Internet <br> Others | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array}$ |  |

Question 14 (Table 13) indicates whether parents consider their children's opinion to be important or not when searching for product information. In this question, parents can answer more than one option with a maximum of three answers. When the parents answer " $m y$ children," then the score is two, meaning that parents consider and trust their children can give them helpful information when they search for products. What might be interesting here is the option answer of "the school from my children," which gives a score of one, meaning that the parents think that the school can provide them valuable information and for their children as well with regards to (food) products (Table 13).

Table 14. Influence score - indicating that parents care about their children's opinion when choosing food for them (Source: author's own creation)

| Q <br> No. | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 20. | Asking children first before | Always | 4 |  |
|  | parents buy the food for | Often | 3 |  |
|  | them | Sometimes | 2 |  |
|  |  | Seldom | 0 |  |
|  |  | Never | 0 |  |

Question 20 (Table 14) indicates the parents' attitudes towards children's opinion. When the parents answer "always" or "often," it means that parents think the children's opinion is important and that children have the right to evaluate the product first before the parents buy for them, therefore the influence score is high. The answers "sometimes" or "seldom" show that parents might ask their children first before they buy the food for them. However it is not necessary for the parents to ask their children; either they know already that the children want the food or they think that children cannot decide on the food that they buy; the children will eat it anyhow. The answers "never" or "don't know" mean that parents do not consider the children's opinion or they do not know the answer to this question (Table 14).

Table 15. Influence score - indicating whether or not parents think that their children can have influence on what the family eats and buys (Source: Author's own creation)

| Q <br> No. | Question Matter | Answers | Value | Additional <br> Information |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 35. | Overall influence towards <br> what to buy and what to eat | Yes <br> No <br> Don't know | 1 |  |

Question 35 (Table 15) points out the overall thoughts of the parents regarding the children's influence in the family decision-making process. If the answer is "yes," it means that they believe and recognize that children have an influence in deciding what to buy and eat in the family. If the answer is "no," it means that they do not think that children can or have influence in food buying and consumption decisions. The answer "don't know" reflects that parents might realize the influence from children, but they are not sure. If there were an option of "maybe," they might choose this option (Table 15).

By using the influence score, it can be analyzed whether children carry out a role as (Figure 9):
$\checkmark$ The Primary Decision Maker at the given decision stage (children always or often decide) with a score between 55-70.
$\checkmark$ The Co-decision Maker (children sometimes decide), with a score between 34-54.
$\checkmark$ Only as the Influencer (parents often decide), with a score between 13-33.
$\checkmark$ No Influence (parents always decide, and children have no influence on the family decision-making process) or do not want to answer the question (is considered to be invalid data for the study), with a score between 0-12


Figure 9. The role of children in the family
(Source: Author's own creation)

## 3 ETHNOGRAPHIC STUDY

### 3.1 Ethnographic Study as a Qualitative Method of Collecting Data

Qualitative ethnographic methods typically intend to obtain meaning and understanding from situations and actions through interpretation and explanation of behavior. There is no exact definition of ethnography. In its broadest sense, ethnography (Greek: ethnos $=$ people or race; grafia $=$ writing, description) is defined as a methodical process through which forms of culture are observed, described, acknowledged, and analyzed. It is generally viewed as a research method based on fieldwork with observations and interviews (Juntunen 2001).

The ethnographic study involves direct observation as well as interviews. Direct observation entails the observer act as a passive audience who examines the daily activities of the family during food buying and the food consumption process, while the interviews require direct or face-to-face conversation between the interviewer and the participants' parents and children. The interviews are conducted as semi-structured interviewing, means that the interviewer uses the protocol and at the same time when other related topics come up, the interviewer asks the participants as well. An unstructured interviewing method is useful for exploring a topic broadly and also to make the situation during the interview more relaxed and informal.

### 3.2 The Concept of the Ethnographic Study

This is practically a small exploratory study using the qualitative research methods, such as using the direct, first-hand observation of daily behavior (e.g. observation of parent-child interaction in supermarket decision making). The study involves conversations with a different level of formality, involving small talk to long interviews with both parents and children. Through this observational study, it is hoped that the subjectivity biases could be reduced and other additional insights into how the family actually makes decisions could be presented. Having a one-to-one conversation with the mother and later with the child during this ethnographic study is very important for evaluating the family.

The visual cues and paralinguistics of the interviewee deliver hidden messages that orally might not being said. The unseen non-verbal behavior includes nodding the head, smiles, eyebrow raises, or postures of leaning forward or away from the interviewer. On the paralinguistic side, verbal behaviors such as the speed of talking, voice quality, pitch, or loudness when answering the questions or when talking with other family members during the observation (HULbert and CAPON 1972, Knapp 1978). Therefore, by conducting the observation, hidden messages and the unseen non-verbal behavior can be better illustrated, and by having the personal interview with the respondents, the indistinct behavior from the respondents can be better explained.

The sample was selected to cover a range of factors that were presumed to be important for children's influence on family decision making with regards to food buying and the food consumption process in the family. These include the socioeconomic and demographic factors of the family.

### 3.3 The Observation and Interview Performance (Appendix 12)

The ethnographic study involved 17 families who agreed to participate further in this study. The activities conducted were house visits, school visits, and grocery shopping with the family during food buying. Before the study was conducted, appointment and agreement with the parents were settled as to when and where to meet the parents. Most of the respondents did not work, so the schedule was mostly flexible, but they asked for weekend appointments for the observation during grocery shopping. The study was carried out over a period of 6 months. The preparation for conducting this study started by contacting the survey respondents and lasted until the observation and interview were conducted. The combination of observation and interview made it possible to investigate in detail everyday decision making about food buying and the consumption process from the parents' and children's perspectives. The guidelines from previous studies and research with regard to family and child interviews, as well as family observation were applied and performed during the ethnographic study (TALLY 2002, WALTER 2011, HEYER 1997, MiKKELSEN 2006).

### 3.3.1 The Observation

The observation used guidelines or protocols in order to have a chronological and structural observation (please refer to Appendix 10). First the introduction of the study was explained to the participants in order for them to understand the purpose of the study and what would be observed during the house visits. Then the observer asked for any clarification questions before the observation and the interviews began. The demographic information of the family, such as the number of persons living in the household, including their age, gender, and education, were given by the family. Later on, the house's location and condition were observed and analyzed, i.e. location of the house, the distance from the supermarket or traditional market, outlook and design of the house, and number of personal and amount of electronic equipment. The observer took notes on what could be asked concerning the action from children and parents during the observation or when there were other questions coming up during the observation. After the observation, the interviewer continued to ask questions to the family. The observation took a longer time than the interviews, since the observation related to the three processes of food planning, buying, and consumption. Also some observations could take more than one day, for example when food buying was performed during the weekend, while food purchase planning and consumption were performed during weekdays.

### 3.3.1.1 Observation Protocol during Food Purchase Planning and Grocery Shopping

Parents and children were observed during food purchase planning. During the observation, the observer analyzed the attitude and behavior of the children and parents in terms of what the children were doing during the food purchase planning. The factors that needed to be investigated were:

- Do parents ask their children to participate in the family food purchase planning?
- What kind of information tools they use (do they use supermarket advertisements)?
- How do the parents and children react when there are product advertisements on TV or newspaper?
- How long does the family need for food purchase planning?
- Do children try to influence their parents?
- What kind of food do they usually plan to buy?
- What are the criteria for selecting the food? Is the price an important matter for the family?
- Before the family went to the grocery store, what kind of preparation did they do (such as bringing product ads from the newspaper), and who come along (mostly parents or with children and another person)?

During grocery shopping, the observer focused on the attitude of the children towards the products and the situation in the grocery store:

- When they reach the supermarket, how do the children behave?
- Do they help their parents in pushing the shopping cart or they split up from the parents?
- How do the children react to product demos, new products, products on sale, and products with gifts?
- How do the children evaluate the products?
- How do the children behave during grocery shopping: are they nagging their parents to buy what they want? Do they open the food or drinks before the parents pay? Are they busy with themselves, or do they try to help their parents?

In observing the parents:

- Do the parents buy based on their notes/plan or do they often grab goods that are not listed in their grocery list?
- How do the parents evaluate the products?
- When there are products on sales do they buy a large amount of goods or they are not attracted to buy?


## Observation Results:

Grocery shopping for most families is mostly done during the weekend, since the fathers can drive the family with the car, and the low income families can take the bus or taxi together. Most of the families prefer to buy their groceries in big supermarkets with the thought that the prices in big supermarkets are much cheaper than in small ones. For low income families, prices are the most important for them, as explained by them during the observation. They consider the daily household necessities first, such as rice, detergents, or vegetables. For some middle income families, price was categorized in their first three most important things when they buy the products. The high income families prefer what the families, especially what their children want or like to eat. Before entering the supermarkets, some families took the supermarket brochures to see what products were discounted or special promotions for special products. The parenting style plays a big role in deciding the behavior of the children inside the supermarket. Children from authoritative parents were more afraid to take the food that they wanted, on the other hand the neglecting parents did not mind if the children took food from the shelves or if they could not afford it. The parents simply put out the food on the check-out counter. The majority of the children took snacks and asked their parents' permission. If they were allowed, then they could put the snacks in the shopping cart, if not then they returned it back to the shelves. Most children took food that related to them or would be eaten by them such as cereal. Other household necessities such as detergent or rice were not mentioned or asked for by them. Except for instant noodles, which the children enjoy eating, consuming it almost daily, the parents asked for the children's preferences in terms of brand and flavors. Overall during the grocery shopping, most children behaved nicely and did not hassle their parents.

### 3.3.1.2 Observation Protocol during Food Consumption

The food consumption process was observed either at home, school, or in public places such as restaurants. During the observation at home, factors such how the food was prepared, cooked, and served were examined. Involvement from the children during food preparation process was also observed. What the children did during the process - were they trying to help the parents or were they watching TV - was noted.

Who prepared and cooked the food for the family, and did the parents get help from the children or other people in the household? Did parents decide what, when, and where to eat, or did children have the freedom to set their own eating schedule? When the children helped or tried to help, how was the reaction from the parents; did they allow the children to help, were they trying to educate the children in terms of vitamins or healthy eating patterns, could children influence their parents during the food consumption process? If yes, how did they influence and what kind of tactics did the children use to get what they want? If the families ate in restaurants, factors such as what kind of food they bought and the reason for buying it
outside the home, whether the children tried to help the parents such as by looking for an available table or carrying the food tray, were observed. When eating at school, usually after school was finished, what kind of food did children buy, did parents try to control what their children ate, and how much did they spend for the food?

## Observation Results

The observations of food consumption were mostly conducted during lunch time. Before the observation and interview in the house began, the interviewer met the parents and children in the school in order to determine the location of the houses, which were frequently difficult to find, and at the same time the observation could be started from the school. After school finished, most children spent their money to buy snacks or toys outside their schoolyard, and therefore the buying behavior of the children and simultaneously the parents' attitude in allowing the children to buy or what conflicts might appear during the buying process, can be observed. The majority of children spent their money to buy snacks since they were hungry after school finished. When they arrived home, they changed clothes, wash their hands, and ate their lunch. The mothers prepared food for their children.

While waiting for the food preparation, most children, usually boys, sat on the couch and watched TV or played games on TV. Some girls on the other hand helped the mothers by setting up the table, and some of them sat quietly on the dining chairs waiting for the food to come. During lunch, some children discussed what they did in school and focused on eating their food; but some were either busy playing with their toys or watching TV. Children who focused on their food, ate their food faster (approx. 15 to 30 minutes) than children who watched TV or played with toys ( 60 to 120 minutes).

For the children who played or watched TV, the parents responded in two ways, either neglecting the children because they were busy with other things or advising the children to stay focused on eating their food. Some strict parents turned off the TV when the children would not listen after two to three times being told. After the children finish eating their food, some of them watched TV or continued playing and some helped the mother by bringing the plates to the kitchen. Some households were assisted by servants who helped in preparing, cooking, and cleaning the house. For these households, the children contribute none or little help to the family.

### 3.3.2 The Interview (Appendix 15)

The interview with the family was conducted in two different settings. One type of interview took place at home, usually during the food preparation and cooking; through this interview, children's influence and participation during the process could be analyzed, and certain topics such as how family members distribute tasks among them, how the decisions are made, and under what conditions children mostly participate could be discussed.

The second interview was conducted during grocery shopping. The main idea of this interview was to focus on children's behavior and their interaction with the situation during grocery shopping. Interviewing the children and parents needed different approaches and methods of asking. In that context, the process of the interview with the parents and children is described.

Interviewing the children needed a more personal approach and more informal ways of asking. It is challenging; it can be difficult where some children do not like to be asked by someone new or do not understand the questions that are being asked, but it could also be uncomplicated, because they give their answers in a simple, logical way. It starts with small talk, asking about what they are doing (during the interview children are usually playing with their toys) and trying to blend in with what they do (playing together with them and at the same time asking the questions).

Some parents during the interview with the children were sitting besides the children, especially the young children (age 5 to 6 ). Older children preferred not to be accompanied by the parents, because some parents answered the questions for the children and some children did not like to be answered by their parents. During the interviews, most children sat quietly and answered the questions shortly. Older children liked to describe their answers in more detail during the interview, such as telling a story about when they go out shopping with their parents and what they usually buy. On the other hand, younger children answered the questions briefly, and the questions were repeated two to three times by the interviewer.

Interviewing the parents could be done formally or informally. Some parents preferred to be asked formally, where the language and the way of asking needed to be addressed to them in a polite way, especially for the higher income parents. Parents from lower income families tended to be friendlier and treated the interviewer as their guest or friend.

Before the interviews and observations began, the interviewer explained the purpose of the study, reasons why they needed to visit the house and families directly, and what would be conducted and how long the observation and the interview would take. The observer also asked for the permission to take pictures during the observation and interview. The interviews took about one to two hours, depending on the house situation and condition.

During the interview, several distractions such as telephone calls caused the respondents (mostly the mothers) to stop the interview until they were finished talking (some conversations took more than 10 minutes). Other distractions occurred when the child asked the parents to do something for them, and the interview had to be stopped as well. Most of the interviewee parents were the mothers, since they were responsible for managing the household, and only few interviewees were the fathers.

After the interviews were conducted, the observations continued. Usually the appointment for the interviews were scheduled during lunch time or after the children came back from school. Therefore, it was a suitable time for observing the family during food consumption. For some families, they preferred the ethnographic study be conducted during the weekend when all family members could be involved in the observation, and it was also a suitable time for observing them doing the grocery shopping.

For documenting the research with both qualitative and quantitative methods, digital cameras and video cameras were utilized. The documentation supported the research in recording the event or interactions between the family members during the food decision-making process, and it was also helpful for the observer when examining the overall situation after the fact, for there might have been some factors that were unnoticed or overlooked during the observation in the family. These unnoticed factors were not written in the protocol, but they were important when interpreting the data.

Before the documentation was recorded, the observer asked for permission from the family. The family was informed that these pictures would only be used for the research intention and would not be distributed or passed on for any commercial or other purposes.

The documentation was also utilized during the survey with children at school. The behavior and attitude of the children during the survey were documented using the video camera and digital camera. The expression of the children during the survey could also be analyzed as to whether they were bored or excited when answering the questionnaires; also whether the children tried to answer by themselves or they were trying to copy their friends' answers could be seen. The situation during the survey could also be evaluated as to whether it was a tense or relaxed situation. All of these unnoticed and overlooked factors presented additional information when evaluating and interpreting the data.

## 4 Summary

The main purpose of the study is to examine the behavior of children in Jakarta, Indonesia, from different socioeconomic statuses (SES) and socio-demographic statuses (SDS) in terms of their participation and influence in family decision-making during food buying and consumption. In order to be able to evaluate the behavior, two methods of study were applied using a combination of quantitative and qualitative data.

The quantitative was based on questionnaires or survey techniques, whereas the qualitative method utilized an ethnographic study in terms of direct observation and semi-structured interviewing. The quantitative research involved 300 participants consisting of 150 children and 150 parents; whereas the qualitative research involved 17 families.

There were four stages out of six in the buying decision process applied in this study, and the children's influence was examined in each stage of the process. Not only in the buying decision process, but also in the consumption decision process, starting from preparing, cooking, and eating the meal, children's attitude and behavior were analyzed.

Socioeconomics and demographics as well as parenting style are believed to have role in determining the amount of influence that children have in a family. The research was conducted in the capital city of Indonesia, Jakarta. The criteria of the study participants were families with children age six to nine years old. If the family had two children between these ages, only one child could participate in the study. All participants' children were enrolled in the second to fourth grade in elementary schools located in the housing district in Jakarta, and their parents came from low to high income social backgrounds.

The surveys for the children were conducted in three elementary schools, whereas the parents' questionnaires were brought back by the children and filled out by the parents at home. After the survey from children and parents were collected, they were then contacted and asked by the author to participate further in the ethnographic study. The ethnographic study included direct observation and semi-structured interviewing.

The SPSS program was used to analyze the correlation between the variables, where the children's influence is measured using the influence score. The results from SPSS indicated whether the hypothesis was accepted or rejected, whereas the influence score determined the degree of the children's role in the family.

The surveys, the interviews, and the observations were documented using cameras and video cameras. However, due to certain rules and regulations from the grocery stores or supermarkets, documentation using the camera and video camera could not be conducted there. Therefore camera documentation was only used in the schools and houses of the families.

## IV RESULTS

In the following chapter, the results of the study of children's influence in Jakarta with regard to the family decision-making process in the food-buying and consumption processes are presented correspondingly. First, the quantitative results from the questionnaire are explained, and then the qualitative results will be defined afterwards. In the end of this chapter, the results from both quantitative and qualitative method are compared and evaluated respectively.

## 1 Quantitative Results

In the following part, only the results from the questionnaires will be discussed. First the personal information from the respondents and the frequency of occurrence concerning food purchase planning and the consumption process will be descriptively explained. Then the quantitative results will be analyzed statistically in order to define the correlation between the SES and SDS from the respondents with the children's influence in food buying and consumption process of the family. Through this statistical analysis, it can be confirmed whether the research hypothesis should be accepted or rejected, and also the influence degree of children in the family decision making during the food buying and consumption processes can be investigated.

### 1.1 Descriptive

This part presents a descriptive analysis of the sample. The analysis aims to provide an overview of the respondents and an insight into the children's role and influence in family decision making. The first section of this part begins with the information concerning the socio-demographic status of the family (age, gender, household income, occupation, education background, ethnic or language ability, family structure, and family size). This is followed by the frequency of occurrence with regard to food purchase planning and consumption process of the family.

Table 16. Quantitative results - personal information from parents (Source: author's own creation)


[^0]
### 1.1.1 Personal Information

Personal information describes the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants' families.

### 1.1.1.1 Parents

From 150 participants' parents, 117 parents are mothers ( $78 \%$ ) and 33 parents are fathers ( $22 \%$ ) from three elementary schools. Most of the participants' parents are mothers, since they are the ones responsible for food buying, preparing, and cooking the food for the family members (Table 16).

The age range from the participants' parents starts at 20 and goes to more than 50 years old. Most parents are between 31 and 50 years old, and only few from them are between 20 and 30 or more than 50 years old. Parents who are between 31 and 40 years old hold the first position in the row with 76 parents in total or $50,67 \%$ of the total participants' parents. The second position is held by 62 parents who are in between 41 and 50 years old with a percentage of $41.33 \%$. Young parents between 20 and 30 years old comprised a total of 7 parents ( $4.67 \%$ ), and older parents who are more than 50 years old comprised a total of 5 parents $(3.33 \%)$ out of the total parents. None of the parents were younger than 20 (Table 16).

Most of the participants' parents are mothers who are housewives; therefore most of them are not in a working position. Only few of them hold upper-level positions such as chief executive officer (CEO) or president director. Out of 150 parents, 62 parents ( $41.33 \%$ ) do not work (housewives / housemen); 35 parents ( $23.33 \%$ ) work at the junior executive level; 16 parents $(10.67 \%)$ work in other job fields such as teachers, preachers, or doctors; 14 parents $(9.33 \%)$ are assistant managers; 12 parents ( $8 \%$ ) are owners of companies or stores; 6 parents $(4 \%)$ are managers; 2 parents ( $1.33 \%$ ) work as vice president of a company; 2 parents ( $1.33 \%$ ) work as a driver or a waitress; and only 1 parent ( $0.67 \%$ ) is the CEO or president director of a company. Some parents admitted during the interview that they do not work outside, but since their husbands own the company, they positioned themselves either as the owner or assistant director of the company (Table 16).

In terms of the partner's occupation (the wives or the husbands from the respondents' parents), most of them worked in other professional fields not mentioned in the questionnaire, such as in the army or as a teacher, with the total of 39 parents ( $26 \%$ ) out of the total participants. The second position is similar to the respondent's job position, junior executive, with total of 28 parents (18.67\%); 23 parents ( $15.33 \%$ ) are owners of companies or stores; 23 parents ( $15.33 \%$ ) do not work; 15 parents ( $10 \%$ ) are managers; 9 parents ( $6 \%$ ) work either as drivers, waitresses, or labor workers in the factory for example; 8 parents (5.33\%) are assistant managers, 3 parents (2\%) are CEOs or president directors, and 2 parents (1.33\%) are vice president director or senior manager of a company. Interestingly, the parents from

Singapore International School (SIS) are those with mostly high-level incomes; they do not work in the low-level positions but rather in high-level positions either as CEO, Vice president, or a manager. On the other hand, parents from the other two elementary schools hold mostly low-level positions such as not working, junior executive, or other position such as teacher (Table 16).

Most parents finished their senior high school, though many of the participants had attained a bachelor or college degree. 58 parents ( $38.67 \%$ ) graduated from senior high school, 44 parents (29.33\%) had a bachelor's degree, 35 parents ( $23.33 \%$ ) attained a college degree, 5 parents (3.33\%) finished only junior high school, 4 parents (2.67\%) attained a master's degree, and 4 parents $(2.67 \%)$ have other education backgrounds such as army training or seminary, and none of the parents had attained either a $P h D$ or had only gone to the primary school level (Table 16).

Information regarding the level of income or wages in Indonesia was recurrently difficult to interpret because of imprecise definitions of job categories and different measures of labor (Frederick 1993). Since there is no exact data from the statistic bureau of Indonesia regarding income level distribution, therefore the data is based on accurate statistic results from the "Indonesia salary guide 2007," presented by statistic expert in Jakarta (Kelly 2007). The distribution of income levels in Indonesia is based on job categories and is divided on three levels: low income with a salary range from less than 2 Mil. Rupiah to 7 Mil. Rupiah; middle income with a range from $\mathbf{7}$ Mil. Rupiah to $\mathbf{1 5}$ Mil. Rupiah; and high income with a range from $\mathbf{1 5}$ Mil. Rupiah to more than $\mathbf{2 5}$ Mil. Rupiah. Most of the parents are in the low-income level with the total of 116 ( $77.33 \%$ ) from 150 participants' parents. This amount exceeds far more than half of the participants. 23 parents $(15.33 \%)$ are in the middle-income level who earn between 7 Mil. Rupiah and 15 Mil. Rupiah, and only 11 parents ( $7.33 \%$ ) earn a high income. The distribution of the income level of the parents is unfortunately unequal, where the low income parents dominate more than half of the participants and therefore the result of the study might be affected, especially when correlating the income with the influence degree of the children in the family decision-making process (Table 16).

Out of 150 participants' parents, 127 parents ( $84.67 \%$ ) dual parents (husband and wife), only 19 parents ( $12.67 \%$ ) are single parents, and 4 parents ( $2.67 \%$ ) did not answer the questions concerning family structure (Table 16). The family structure data is needed when interpreting the results from the qualitative and quantitative study as to whether there is a correlation between family structure and children's influence in the family decision-making process.

Table 17. Quantitative results - personal information from children
(Source: author's own creation)

| Gender | $\mathbf{N}=\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0} \mathbf{\%}$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Boys | 70 | 46.67 |
| Girls | 80 | 53.37 |
| Age |  |  |
| $\mathbf{6}$ | 3 | 2 |
| $\mathbf{7}$ | 46 | 30.67 |
| $\mathbf{8}$ | 58 | 38.67 |
| $\mathbf{9}$ | 40 | 26.67 |
| $\mathbf{1 0}$ | 3 | 2 |
| Number of Siblings | 23 |  |
| $\mathbf{0}$ | 80 | 15.33 |
| $\mathbf{1}$ | 33 | 53.37 |
| $\mathbf{2}$ | 5 | 22 |
| $\mathbf{3}$ | 7.33 |  |
| $\mathbf{4}$ | 7 | 4.67 |
| $\mathbf{5}$ | 2 | 1.33 |
| Children's Language Ability (Children can choose more than $\mathbf{1 a n s w e r )}$ |  |  |
| Bahasa Indonesia (Mother's tongue) | 141 | 94 |
| English | 17 | 11.33 |
| Chinese / Mandarin | 15 | 10 |
| Others | 3 | 2 |

### 1.1.1.2 Children

From 150 participant's children: 80 children are girls ( $53.37 \%$ ) and 70 children are boys ( $46.67 \%$ ). Compared to boys, more girls participated in the study (Table 17).

From 150 participants' children, 58 ( $38.67 \%$ ) of them are 8 years old, 46 children ( $30.67 \%$ ) are 7 years old, 40 children ( $26.67 \%$ ) are 9 years old, 3 children ( $2 \%$ ) are 6 years old and 3 children (2\%) are 10 years old. Most children are between seven and nine years old (Table 17). During these ages, children are able to perceive, select and evaluate information before they buy the product (WARD 1978).

During the questionnaires, children were asked to define the amount of siblings that they have. From 150 participants' children, 80 children ( $53.37 \%$ ) have one sibling, 33 children ( $22 \%$ ) have two siblings, 23 children ( $15.33 \%$ ) have no siblings which meant that they are the only child in the family, 5 children ( $3.33 \%$ ) have three siblings, 7 children ( $4.67 \%$ ) have four siblings, and 2 children ( $1.33 \%$ ) have more than five siblings in their family (Table 17). Usually parents in Jakarta prefer to have one to three children in the family, however some families still believe the old myth that "the more children, the more luck they have for the family." Therefore, some of the parents have more than three children.

Some children are bilingual or trilingual, which means they can speak not only their mother tongue, but also other languages such as English, Mandarin, or some local dialects. Here, the
children's language ability represents the ethnic background of the family. So for example, children who speak Javanese have the Javanese ethnicity and children who speak Mandarin have Chinese or Tionghoa ethnicity. In this question, children can mention more than one language that they are able to speak; also during the survey, children were informed that the other languages meant the languages that they speak daily with other family members. Therefore, children can write in the main language and in other languages as a common language in communicating with the other members of family. Bahasa Indonesia is spoken by 141 children ( $94 \%$ ), English is spoken by 17 children (11.33\%), Mandarin or Chinese is spoken by 15 children ( $10 \%$ ), other languages such as local dialect Javanese or Bataknese is spoken by 3 children or $2 \%$ of the participants' children (Table 17).

After describing the results regarding personal information and socio-demographic data from the participants' parents and children, the following are the results concerning the food purchase planning and consumption process distribution in the family.

### 1.1.2 Food Purchase Planning and Grocery Shopping

In this context, the frequency of occurrence with regard to food purchase planning and grocery shopping is presented as follows.

### 1.1.2 . Source of Information (Table 18 and Figure 10).

(Question 10 children's questionnaire in Appendix 5, Question 14 parent's questionnaire in Appendix 7)
In this question, children and parents can select more than one answer (cross more than one box). Therefore from the figure, the total is more than 150 for both the children's and parents' questionnaire. For example, parent A can select newspaper, TV ads and supermarket as his or her source of information. According to the survey, 92 parents and 77 children agree that TV advertisements have become their main source of information about foodstuffs. Although 73 children think that family members are also the most important source for them, parents think that their friends give them more information about food products than their children. Since the answers can be more than one option, most parents and children gave three answers here. Overall the statistic results show that: 77 children compared to 92 parents think that $\boldsymbol{T V}$ ads are the most important source of product information, 73 children compared to only 33 parents think that family members are important sources for them, 48 children compared to 71 parents opt for the supermarket, 33 children compared to 30 parents for magazines, 29 children compared to 42 parents for the newspaper, 23 children compared to 6 parents for radio, 21 children compared to 59 parents for friends, 15 children compared to 25 parents for TV programs, 23 children compared to 5 parents for the internet, 7 children compared to 16 parents for others (e.g. brochures), 9 children compared to 3 parents for the school of their children, and finally 2 children and 2 parents think that billboards give them information about food products (Figure 10). Interestingly, parents and children agree that TV ads give lots of food product information, and TV ads are the most important source
compared to other information sources. It is concerning that TV ads present a variety of unhealthy food products and encourage children to purchase and consume these types of food.

Table 18. Quantitative results - sources of information
(Source: author's own creation)

| Source of Information <br> (Respondents can choose more than 1 answer with a maximum of 3) | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Family members (Father, Mother, Brother, Sister) / Children | 73 | 33 |
| Friends | 21 | 59 |
| Schools | 9 | 3 |
| Supermarket | 48 | 71 |
| TV Ads | 77 | $\mathbf{9 2}$ |
| TV Programs | 15 | 25 |
| Newspaper | 29 | 42 |
| Magazines | 33 | 30 |
| Radio | 23 | 6 |
| Advertisement on the Street (Billboard) | 2 | 2 |
| Internet | 23 | 5 |
| Others | 7 | 16 |



Figure 10. Sources of information (Source: Author's own creation)

### 1.1.2.2 Most important factors in choosing the food products (Table 19 and Figure 11)

In this question, parents and children can select more than one answer with a maximum of three. Price and taste seem to be the most important criteria for children when choosing the food products, followed by premium / gifts. For parents, what their children like appears to be the most important factor when they want to buy food. It shows that children have a strong influence on parents' decision-making process. Figure 11 shows that: $\mathbf{9 4}$ children compared to $\mathbf{6 0}$ parents stated that price is important for them in choosing the food products, 21 children compared to 9 parents for the packaging pictures, 24 children compared to 8 parents for pictures of the food, 91 children compared to 78 parents for taste, 47 children compared to 4 parents for premiums/gifts, 31 children compared to 5 parents for new in the market, 31 children compared to 18 parents for $T V$ ads, 4 children compared to 3 parents for near the cashier, $\mathbf{1 2}$ children compared to $\mathbf{1 0 8}$ parents for family or my children like it, 3 children for others (such as the expired date) compared to 35 parents for others (e.g. healthy). Besides taste and price, parents also were concerned about health, whereas children believed what comes in the food (gifts) could attract them to buy the products.

Table 19. Quantitative results - important product criteria (Source: author's own creation)

| Important product criteria <br> (Respondents can choose more than 1 answer with a maximum of 3) | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Price (cheap, expensive, on sale) | $\mathbf{9 4}$ | 60 |
| Pictures, colors, and form of the package | 21 | 9 |
| Pictures, colors, and form of the food | 24 | 8 |
| Taste (variety of taste) | 91 | 78 |
| Toys (premiums) | 47 | 4 |
| New in the market | 31 | 5 |
| I saw it on an advertisement | 31 | 18 |
| Near the cashier | 4 | 3 |
| Because children / other family members like it | 12 | $\mathbf{1 0 8}$ |
| Other: | 3 | 35 |



Figure 11. Important product criteria (Source: author's own creation)

### 1.1.2.3 Enjoyment for shopping (Table 20, Figures 12 and 13)

Both parents and children enjoy shopping, although some parents admitted that they sometimes do not enjoy it because for them it wastes their money or they are too tired to wait on the cashier line. However, shopping for children is a type of recreation or outing with the family members, and they can explore or discover new products during it. The results show that: 137 children ( $91 \%$ ) compared to 109 parents ( $73 \%$ ) consider shopping enjoyable for them, 7 children (5\%) compared to 26 parents (17\%) could sometimes enjoy shopping, 6 children ( $4 \%$ ) compared to 8 parents ( $5 \%$ ) do not like shopping, and 7 parents ( $5 \%$ ) compared to none of the children do not know the answer (Figures 12 and 13).

Table 20. Quantitative results - enjoyment for shopping
(Source: author's own creation)

| Enjoyment for shopping | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | $\mathbf{1 3 7}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 9}$ |
| No | 6 | 8 |
| Sometimes | 7 | 26 |
| I Don't Know | 0 | 7 |



Figure 12. Children's enjoyment for shopping
(Source: author's own creation)

Figure 13. Parent's enjoyment for shopping
(Source: author's own creation)

### 1.1.2.4 Helping parents during grocery shopping (Table 21 and Figure 14)

Both parents and children agree that children help their parents during grocery shopping mostly by pushing the shopping cart. Some children also mentioned that they also help by looking at the expiration (best before) date of the food products or by taking care of their little brother or sister outside the supermarket while the parents shop. In this question, parents and children can answer more than one option with a maximum of three answers.

The results show that: $\mathbf{9 9}$ children compared to $\mathbf{1 1 2}$ parents think that during the grocery shopping children help parents by pushing the shopping cart, 61 children compared to 48 parents for taking out the goods from the cart and putting them on the check-out counter, 56 children compared to 93 parents for taking the goods from the shelves, 51 children compared to 61 parents for writing the shopping list, 29 children compared to 50 parents for browsing the circulars, 16 children compared to 13 parents for helping parents in comparing the price of the goods, 7 children and none of the parents think that the children can help doing other things not mentioned in the list (e.g. taking care their younger siblings), and neither the children nor the parents believe that the children do not help parents during grocery shopping (Table 21 and Figure 14).

Table 21. Quantitative results - helping parents during grocery shopping
(Source: author's own creation)

| Helping parents during grocery shopping <br> (Respondents can choose more than 1 answer with a maximum of 3) | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Listing items on the shopping list | 51 | 61 |
| Browsing through circulars | 29 | 50 |
| Taking the goods from the shelves | 56 | 93 |
| Pushing the shopping cart | $\mathbf{9 9}$ | $\mathbf{1 1 2}$ |
| Taking out the goods and put them on the check-out counter | 61 | 48 |
| Comparing the price between the products | 16 | 13 |
| I don't help them | 0 | 0 |
| Other | 7 | 0 |



Figure 14. Helping parents during grocery shopping (Source: author's own creation)

### 1.1.2.5 Food mostly recommended by children (Table 22 and Figure 15)

Both parents and children agree that milk and fruits are the food types mostly recommended by children. Snacks and cereal are also recommended highly by children. In this question, children can select more than one answer with a maximum of three. Figure 15 shows that $\mathbf{5 6}$ children compared to $\mathbf{7 6}$ parents think that milk is the most recommended food or drink chosen by children. Other food categories are: 54 children compared to 66 parents for fruits, 28 children compared to 20 parents for vegetables, 42 children compared to 39 parents for cereal, 36 children compared to 39 parents for bread, 2 children compared to 1 parent for jams, 15 children compared to 12 parents for juice, 24 children compared to 16 parents for meat or fish, 7 children compared to 5 parents for eggs, 35 children compared to 24 parents for noodles, 7 children compared to 4 parents for rice, 48 children compared to 65 parents for snacks, 17 children compared to 7 parents for soft drinks, 36 children compared to 38 parents for ice cream, 1 child and 3 parents for other product categories not mentioned on the list. From this result, children influence most of the food related to what they eat or prefer daily, such as milk, fruit, cereal, and snacks (Table 22 and Figure 15).

Table 22. Quantitative results - food mostly recommended by children
(Source: author's own creation)

| Food mostly recommended by children <br> (Respondents can choose more than 1 answer with a maximum of 3) | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Fruits | 54 | 66 |
| Vegetables | 28 | 20 |
| Cereals | 42 | 39 |
| Breads | 36 | 39 |
| Jams | 2 | 1 |
| Milk | $\mathbf{5 6}$ | $\mathbf{7 6}$ |
| Juice | 15 | 12 |
| Meat or Fish | 24 | 16 |
| Egg | 7 | 5 |
| Noodles | 35 | 24 |
| Rice | 7 | 4 |
| Snacks (Chips, Chocolates, Candies) | 48 | 65 |
| Cola / Soft Drinks | 17 | 7 |
| Ice Cream | 36 | 38 |
| Others | 1 | 3 |



Figure 15. Food mostly recommended by children (Source: author's own creation)

### 1.1.3 Consumption process

In the following part, the consumption process starting from preparation, cooking, and the ability of children to decide on the meal from breakfast to dinner is described. The results are based on the quantitative research through the survey in the school (for children) and at home (for parents). The breakfast custom in Indonesia nowadays is not different from breakfast customs in Western or European countries. In previous generations, Indonesian breakfast was served with special traditional food and served with rice; hence the influence from Western countries has changed the eating lifestyle of the families, especially the children. Nowadays, Indonesian children as well as their family eat cereal, bread, omelets, ham, sausage, and cheese for their breakfast. This situation might be influenced from the media (TV ads), as well as peer groups (based on observation and survey results of this study). However, the eating custom for lunch and dinner is a combination of Western and traditional Indonesian food. Most parents realized that their children tend to eat Western food, such as chicken nuggets, sausage, or French fries compared to vegetables or rice; therefore, some families keep this type of frozen food in their refrigerators and fry it before their children eat lunch or dinner. Some families order the meal for lunch or dinner from catering services, some families eat their lunch or dinner outside their home such as in restaurants, but most of them cook (considering the food hygiene and limited household budget). Since during lunch preparation and cooking the children are still at school, they mostly are not involved in the consumption process. The food cooked for lunch is usually eaten at dinner as well, consequently there is less preparation for dinner and more time for family conversation before and after dinner.

### 1.1.3.1 Breakfast

Breakfast preparation (Table 23 and Figure 16)
Breakfast for children is a regular meal that they need to consume before they start their days. For younger children, breakfast is mostly prepared by the mother or other adults in the household (such as a maid). Breakfast is mostly prepared by the mother, since most of them are housewives, and preparing the food for the family is one of their main daily activities. Others such as a maid or grandmother prepare breakfast for the children who come either from two working parents or single parents. Help from the father's side in preparing the breakfast is relatively rare, since most of them work. Overall the results indicate that 97 children and 110 parents state that the mother is the person who prepares breakfast for the family; 17 children and 3 parents for mother and children; 17 children and 26 parents said others such as a maid; 12 children and 1 parent think that children prepare breakfast by themselves; 4 children and 7 parents answered mother and father; 1 child and no parents answered father and children; 1 child and 3 parents answered father; 1 child and no parents answered don't know (Table 23 and Figure 16).

Table 23. Quantitative results - consumption process: breakfast preparation
(Source: author's own creation)

| Breakfast preparation | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Mother | $\mathbf{9 7}$ | $\mathbf{1 1 0}$ |
| Mother and children | 17 | 3 |
| Others | 17 | 26 |
| Children | 12 | 1 |
| Mother and father | 4 | 7 |
| Father and children | 1 | 0 |
| Father | 1 | 3 |
| Don't know | 1 | 0 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 16. Breakfast preparation (Source: author's own creation)

## Cooking breakfast (Table 24 and Figure 17)

Similar to the results about the person who prepares breakfast, most children and parents think that the mother is the person who cooks breakfast for the family. 106 children and 111 parents mention that their mother is the one who cooks breakfast for the family. Others such as a maid or grandmother hold the second position after the mother. In some families where both parents have to work, the household responsibilities are taken care of by the maid. The maid is responsible for buying, cooking, preparing the food, and taking care of the children. 20 children and 29 parents said others; 9 children and 4 parents chose mother and father; 7 children and 3 parents said mother and children; 3 children and none of the parents answered father and children; 2 children and 3 parents answered father; 2 children and no parents answered children themselves; 1 child and no parents responded don't know (Figure 17).

Table 24. Quantitative results - consumption process: cooking breakfast
(Source: author's own creation)

| Cooking breakfast | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Mother | $\mathbf{1 0 6}$ | $\mathbf{1 1 1}$ |
| Others | 20 | 29 |
| Mother and father | 9 | 4 |
| Mother and children | 7 | 3 |
| Father and children | 3 | 0 |
| Father | 2 | 3 |
| Children | 2 | 0 |
| Don't know | 1 | 0 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 17. Cooking breakfast (Source: author's own creation)

Helping parents during cooking / preparing of breakfast (Table 25 and Figure 18)
From 150 children and 150 parents, 53 children and 48 parents mentioned that the children sometimes help their parents in cooking or preparing breakfast in terms of setting the table or taking out the jams or bread from the refrigerator. 40 children compared to only 1 parent answered that children always helping parents; 21 children compared to 9 parents answered often; 12 children compared to 44 parents think that children seldom help the parents; 24 children compared to 48 parents think that the children never help the parents in preparing and cooking the breakfast; and none of the parents or children answered don't know. Most of the parents stated that the children either help them sometimes or never, whereas most of the children believed that they sometimes or always helped their parents in cooking or preparing breakfast for the family (Table 25 and Figure 18).

Table 25. Quantitative results - consumption process:
Helping parents during cooking / preparing of breakfast
(Source: author's own creation)

| Helping parents during cooking / preparing of breakfast | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Always | 40 | 1 |
| Often | 21 | 9 |
| Sometimes | $\mathbf{5 3}$ | $\mathbf{4 8}$ |
| Seldom | 12 | 44 |
| Never | 24 | $\mathbf{4 8}$ |
| Don't know | 0 | 0 |
|  | $\mathbf{T o t a l}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |
| $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |  |  |



Figure 18. Helping parents during cooking / preparing of breakfast (Source: author's own creation)

Children are able to decide for breakfast (Table 26 and Figure 19)
Most children and parents believe that the children can either always or sometimes decide what they want for breakfast. 53 children compared to 68 parents said that the children can sometimes decide; 52 children compared to 33 parents answered that children can always decide; 31 children compared to 31 parents answered often; 4 children compared to 12 parents answered seldom; 8 children compared to 6 parents answered that children can never decide; 2 children compared to no parents mentioned that they don't know the answer (Figure 19).

Table 26. Quantitative results - consumption process: children are able to decide for breakfast (Source: author's own creation)

| Children are able to decide for breakfast | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Always | 52 | 33 |
| Often | 31 | 31 |
| Sometimes | $\mathbf{5 3}$ | $\mathbf{6 8}$ |
| Seldom | 4 | 12 |
| Never | 8 | 6 |
| Don't know | 2 | 0 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 19. Children are able to decide for breakfast (Source: author's own creation)

### 1.1.3.2 Lunch

Lunch preparation (Table 27 and Figure 20)
Similar to breakfast, the mother is responsible for preparing this meal for the family. Overall the results indicates that $\mathbf{7 3}$ children and $\mathbf{8 6}$ parents stated that the mother is the person who prepares lunch for the family; 18 children and 6 parents for mother and children; 30 children and 49 parents said others such as a maid; 17 children and no parents think that children prepare lunch by themselves; 6 children and 4 parents answered mother and father; 2
children and 1 parent answered father and children; 2 children and 4 parents answered father; 2 children and no parents answered don't know. Here it can be evaluated that compared to breakfast preparation, fewer mothers prepare lunch for the family: 97 children (breakfast) compared to 73 children (lunch) for "mother prepares" and 110 parents (breakfast) compared to 86 parents (lunch) stated that the mother is the person who prepares the meals for the family. On the other hand, during lunch time other adults in the household help the family by the meal preparation more than breakfast: 17 children and 26 parents said that others prepare breakfast, whereas 30 children and 49 parents mentioned others prepare lunch. This might indicate that either parents work during lunch time and therefore another person in the household helps with food preparation, or they order from catering service or restaurants (Figure 20).

Table 27. Quantitative results - consumption process: lunch preparation
(Source: author's own creation)

| Lunch preparation | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Mother | $\mathbf{7 3}$ | $\mathbf{8 6}$ |
| Mother and children | 18 | 6 |
| Others | 30 | 49 |
| Children | 17 | 0 |
| Mother and father | 6 | 4 |
| Father and children | 2 | 1 |
| Father | 2 | 4 |
| Don't know | 2 | 0 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 20. Lunch preparation (Source: author's own creation)

## Cooking lunch (Table 28 and Figure 21)

Similar to the results about the person who prepares the lunch, most children and parents think that the mother is the person who cooks this meal for the family. 94 children and 91 parents mentioned that the mother is the one who cooks lunch for the family. 28 children and 48 parents stated that others such as a maid or grandmother cook lunch for the family. In some families where both parents have to work, the household responsibilities are taken care of by a maid. The maid is responsible for buying, cooking, preparing the food, and taking care of the children. Furthermore, 2 children and 6 parents chose mother and father; 14 children and no parents said mother and children; 3 children and no parents answered father and children; 1 child and 5 parents answered father; 5 children and no parents answered children themselves; 3 children and no parents responded don't know concerning the question "who cook lunch? "(Table 28 and Figure 21).

Table 28. Quantitative results - consumption process: cooking lunch
(Source: author's own creation)

| Cooking lunch | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Mother | $\mathbf{9 4}$ | $\mathbf{9 1}$ |
| Others | 28 | 48 |
| Mother and Father | 2 | 6 |
| Mother and Children | 14 | 0 |
| Father and Children | 3 | 0 |
| Father | 1 | 5 |
| Children | 5 | 0 |
| Don't Know | 3 | 0 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 21. Cooking lunch (Source: author's own creation)

Helping parents during cooking / preparing of lunch (Table 29 and Figure 22)
From 150 children and 150 parents, 73 children and 56 parents mentioned that the children sometimes help their parents in cooking or preparing lunch in terms of setting the table or taking out the plates, forks, and spoons from the shelves. 26 children compared to only 2 parents answered that children always help the parents; 16 children compared to 8 parents answered often; 6 children compared to 29 parents think that children seldom help the parents; 28 children compared to 53 parents think that the children never help the parents in preparing and cooking lunch; no children and 2 parents answered don't know. Most of the parents stated that the children either sometimes or never help their parents in cooking or preparing lunch for the family (Table 29 and Figure 22).

Table 29. Quantitative results - consumption process:
Helping parents during cooking / preparing of lunch (Source: author's own creation)

| Helping parents during cooking / preparing of lunch | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Always | 26 | 2 |
| Often | 16 | 8 |
| Sometimes | $\mathbf{7 3}$ | $\mathbf{5 6}$ |
| Seldom | 6 | 29 |
| Never | 28 | 53 |
| Don't know | 0 | 2 |
|  | $\mathbf{T o t a l}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 22. Helping parents during cooking / preparing of lunch
(Source: author's own creation)

Children are able to decide for lunch (Table 30 and Figure 23)
Most of the children believe that they can either always or sometimes decide what they want for lunch. 47 children compared to 81 parents said that the children can sometimes decide; 46 children compared to 25 parents answered that children can always decide; 39 children compared to 29 parents answer often; 8 children compared to 10 parents answered seldom; 10 children compared to 4 parents answered that children can never decide; none of the children compared to 1 parent mentioned that they don't know the answer (Table 30 and Figure 23).

Table 30. Quantitative results - consumption process: children are able to decide for lunch (Source: author's own creation)

| Children are able to decide for lunch | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Always | 46 | 25 |
| Often | 39 | 29 |
| Sometimes | $\mathbf{4 7}$ | $\mathbf{8 1}$ |
| Seldom | 8 | 10 |
| Never | 10 | 4 |
| Don't know | 0 | 1 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 23. Children are able to decide for lunch (Source: author's own creation)

### 1.1.3.3 Dinner

Dinner preparation (Table 31 and Figure 24)
Similar to breakfast and lunch, the mother is responsible for preparing this meal (dinner) for the family. Overall the result indicates that $\mathbf{9 1}$ children and $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ parents stated that the mother is the person who prepares dinner for the family; 17 children and 2 parents for mother and children; 16 children and 29 parents chose others such as a maid; 14 children and no parents think that children prepare dinner by themselves; 7 children and 15 parents answered mother and father; 1 child and 3 parents answered father and children; 4 children and 1 parent answered father; neither parents nor children answer don't know (Table 31 and Figure 24).

Table 31. Quantitative results - consumption process: dinner preparation
(Source: author's own creation)

| Dinner preparation | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Mother | $\mathbf{9 1}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |
| Mother and children | 17 | 2 |
| Others | 16 | 29 |
| Children | 14 | 0 |
| Mother and father | 7 | 15 |
| Father and children | 1 | 3 |
| Father | 4 | 1 |
| Don't know | 0 | 0 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 24. Dinner preparation (Source: author's own creation)

Cooking dinner (Table 32 and Figure 25)
Similar to the results from breakfast and lunch, most children and parents think that the mother cooks this meal for the family. 83 children and 102 parents mentioned that the mother is the one who cooks dinner for the family. 26 children and 31 parents stated that others such as a maid or grandmother cook dinner for the family. Furthermore, 6 children and 11 parents said mother and father; 24 children and 2 parents chose mother and children; 3 children and 2 parents answered father and children; 4 children and 2 parents answered father; 2 children and no parents answer children themselves; 2 children and no parents responded don't know (Table 32 and Figure 25).

Table 32. Quantitative results - consumption process: cooking dinner
(Source: author's own creation)

| Cooking dinner | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Mother | $\mathbf{8 3}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 2}$ |
| Others | 26 | 31 |
| Mother and father | 6 | 11 |
| Mother and children | 24 | 2 |
| Father and children | 3 | 2 |
| Father | 4 | 2 |
| Children | 2 | 0 |
| Don't know | 2 | 0 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 25. Cooking dinner (Source: author's own creation)

Helping parents during cooking / preparing of dinner (Table 33 and Figure 26)
56 children and 64 parents mentioned that the children sometimes help their parents in cooking or preparing dinner in terms of setting the table or cleaning the table before they put the plates down. 29 children compared to only 3 parents answer that children always help parents; 37 children compared to 7 parents answered often; 6 children compared to 29 parents think that children seldom help parents; 22 children compared to 46 parents think that the children never help the parents in preparing and cooking the dinner; no children and 1 parent answered don't know. Similar to breakfast and lunch, most of the parents stated that the children either sometimes or never helped the parents in cooking or preparing dinner for the family (Table 33 and Figure 26).

Table 33. Quantitative results - consumption process: helping parents during cooking / preparing of dinner (Source: author's own creation)

| Helping parents during cooking / preparing of dinner | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Always | 29 | 3 |
| Often | 37 | 7 |
| Sometimes | $\mathbf{5 6}$ | $\mathbf{6 4}$ |
| Seldom | 6 | 29 |
| Never | 22 | 46 |
| Don't know | 0 | 1 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 26. Helping parents during cooking / preparing of dinner
(Source: author's own creation)

Children are able to decide for dinner (Table 34 and Figure 27)
Most children believe that they can either always or sometimes decide what they want to eat for dinner. 53 children compared to 22 parents answered that children can always decide; 28 children compared to 27 parents answered often; 49 children compared to 83 parents said that the children can sometimes decide; 5 children compared to 10 parents answered seldom; 12 children compared to 6 parents answered that children can never decide; 3 children compared to 2 parents mentioned that they don't know the answer (Table 34 and Figure 27).

Table 34. Quantitative results - consumption process: children are able to decide for dinner (Source: author's own creation)

| Children are able to decide for dinner | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Always | $\mathbf{5 3}$ | 22 |
| Often | 28 | 27 |
| Sometimes | $\mathbf{4 9}$ | $\mathbf{8 3}$ |
| Seldom | 5 | 10 |
| Never | 12 | 6 |
| Don't know | 3 | 2 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 27. Children are able to decide for dinner (Source: author's own creation)
In all situations from breakfast to dinner, according to parents' and children's perception, the mother is the main responsible person for preparing and cooking the food for the family. In dual-parent families, the father makes little to no contribution in preparing or cooking the meals. The father who prepares or cooks the meal is usually a single parent, or his wife works for the family.

### 1.1.4 Parents' and Children's Perception

Not only children but the majority of parents also thinks that children can influence their parents in deciding what to buy and what to eat. Even though during the interview and based on the parents' answers in the questionnaire, most parents refused or denied their children's role during the decision-making process, at the end the parents declared that overall children can influence their decision (Table 35).

Table 35. Quantitative results -can children influence their parents? (Source: author's own creation)

| Can children influence their parents? | Children | Parents |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | $\mathbf{1 0 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 9}$ |
| No | 35 | 36 |
| Don't know | 13 | 5 |
|  | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 28. Can children influence their parents? (Source: author's own creation)
Both parents and children agree that children can influence their family in the decisionmaking process. Interestingly, more parents believe than children - 109 parents compared to 102 children - believe that children have an influence in the family. About 35 children and 36 parents (the amount is almost the same) think that children cannot or do not have an influence in the family decision-making process. Several children, 13 out of 150 and a few parents, 5 out of 150 , did not know or were not sure whether to answer yes or no. During the interview some parents stated that it depends on the situation and the product, or parents still think that children are too small to decide or influence the family; all the authority and decisions are still held by the parents (Table 35 and Figure 28).

### 1.1.5 Influence score results from participating families (Appendix 11)

Table 36. Quantitative results - children's opinion towards their role in the family
(Source: author's own creation)

|  | Boys | Girls | Total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Primary decision maker | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Co-decision maker | $\mathbf{4 1}$ | $\mathbf{4 7}$ | $\mathbf{8 8}$ |
| The influencer | 29 | 33 | 62 |
| No influence | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | $\mathbf{7 0}$ | $\mathbf{8 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 29. The role of children in the family (according to children)
(Source: author's own creation)

88 out of 150 participants' children believe that they are the co-decision maker (the decision in the family is decided $\mathbf{5 0 \%}$ by children and $\mathbf{5 0 \%}$ by parents), whereas 62 children think that they can only act as the influencer, and none of them believe that either they are the primary decision maker or have no influence at all in the family decision-making process (Table 36). This table shows that either boys or girls, both genders believe that they are the co-decision maker rather than the influencer in the family. 41 boys and 47 girls think that they are the co-decision maker, while 29 boys and 33 girls think that they are the influencer. More than $50 \%$ of the boys as well as girls tend to think that they are the codecision maker rather than the influencer (Figure 29).

Table 37. Quantitative results - parent's opinion towards children's role in the family (Source: author's own creation)

|  | Fathers | Mothers | Total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Primary decision maker | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Co-decision maker | 3 | 17 | 20 |
| The influencer | $\mathbf{3 0}$ | $\mathbf{9 9}$ | $\mathbf{1 2 9}$ |
| No influence | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Total | $\mathbf{3 3}$ | $\mathbf{1 1 7}$ | $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ |



Figure 30. The role of children in the family (according to parents)
(Source: author's own creation)

Different from the children's opinion, Table 28 and Figure 30 show that most parents think their children are influencers in the family. $\mathbf{3 0}$ fathers ( $\pm \mathbf{9 1 \%}$ of the participants' fathers) and 99 mothers ( $\pm \mathbf{8 5 \%}$ of the participants' mothers) believe that children are the influencers in the family, means that parents have more say or often decide for the children on what to buy and eat; only 3 fathers and 17 mothers think that children are codecision makers. Moreover, only 1 mother said that her child had no influence at all, and none of the parents declared that their children were the primary decision maker in the family (Appendix 10).

Parents think that their children can influence them, but they think that children only perform as the influencer in the family. On the other hand, children think they are the co-decision maker or partner to their parents, which means that they have an equal right with the parents in deciding what to buy and what to eat. When parents think that children are their co-
decision makers, it means that what children think or the opinion from the children is considered important and is needed as input for the family.

Furthermore, no children positioned themselves as the primary decision maker, and none of them believed that they had no influence in their family decision-making process. Based on the results, parents seem to underestimate their children's influence and children seem to overestimate their influence.

As stated before, this study will analyze whether children and parents underestimate or overestimate their children's role and influence in the family. Generally, both children and parents think that the children could or have influence in the family, since the results show that a clear majority of children either act as the influencer or co-decision maker in the family. Neither parents nor children think that the children are the primary decision-maker in the family, meaning that the parents still hold the authority and control on what the family buys and consumes; children may have suggestions, but the end decisions are controlled and decided by the parents.

### 1.2 Explanatory

The statistical analysis of the data collection applied the statistic software PASW (Predictive Analysis Software), which was previously called SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). The unprocessed data were determined and revised, and the completeness and plausibility of the data were analyzed, refined, and finally interpreted. Hypotheses about children's influence in the family's decision making regarding food buying and the consumption process were tested and discussed in this chapter. Correlation coefficients are significant when p is less than 0.5 . This suggests a good reliability of instrument design.

### 1.2.1 Socio-Economic Status

The family decision-making process is divided into two parts in terms of food buying and food consumption. Food buying relates to who plans, decides, and is responsible for purchasing food. Food consumption relates to the consumption process concerning meal preparation and cooking during breakfast, lunch, and dinner. Below is the statistical analysis using the Cramer's V and Kendall tau-b methods, which analyze the correlation between socioeconomic and demographic statuses of the family.

## Income

"Children from high-income families have more influence on their families' decision making."
Income is divided into 3 categories (low income from less than 2 million Rupiah to 7 million Rupiah, medium income from 7 million Rupiah to 15 million Rupiah, and high income when the parents earn between 15 and 25 million Rupiah per month). From 150 participants'
families, 116 ( $\mathbf{7 7 . 3 3 \%}$ ) of them have low incomes, 23 ( $\mathbf{1 5 . 3 3 \%}$ ) are in the medium income range, and the other 11 families ( $\mathbf{7 . 3 3 \%}$ ) have high incomes. By using the Kendall's tau-b method, the statistic results show that income plays a role in the family decision-making process. In the stage of initiation or awareness of need, children from high-income families have more influence on planning the food for the family than children from low or middleincome families. Furthermore, in the second stage of the consumption decision process, children from high-income families show more responsibility in helping their parents in terms of cooking or preparing lunch for the family than children from low or middle-income families. However, there are no influence or responsibility differences between children either from high, medium, or low-income levels, when it comes to (Table 38):

- Deciding what food to buy and eat.
- Being responsible for buying the food.
- Preparing and cooking the meal.
- Helping the parents cook breakfast and dinner.

The results indicate that even if income plays a role in the family's decision-making process, the correlation between income levels and the degree of influence or responsibility from the children is considered relatively modest. One possible reason is that the income level of the participants' parents is not equally distributed, where low-income parents comprise more than half the number of participants, and therefore the results of this study are affected. Another possible reason is that the influence or responsibility of the children in the family might not be decided by how much the family earns.

During the observation of the families, it could be observed that the high-income families have several household helpers who buy, prepare, and cook the meal for the family, so children do not have to participate in the buying and consumption processes. Based on the information from higher income parents, they tend to be more selective in choosing food for their children in terms of food content and ingredients, which is why their children have less influence in deciding what food to buy and eat. On the other hand, low income families do not involve their children in the buying process because their budget is limited; therefore the mothers select the food based on how much money they have. They think that when their children are involved then the shopping budget will exceed their means. Even low-income families who do not have household helpers tend not to involve their children in the consumption process, because for them children can only disturb and not help the mothers.

Table 38. Statistic results - income (Source: author's own creation)

| INCOME | Family decision-making process (children's perception) | P Value | $\mathrm{P}<0,05$ | Results |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Children from high income families | Food planner | 0.006 | Significant | "Children from high income families have more influence on planning the food for the family." |
|  | Food decision maker | 0.527 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from all income levels." |
| have more influence on their | Responsible for buying the food | 0.163 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all income levels." |
|  | Responsible for preparing the breakfast | 0,493 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all income levels." |
| families' decision making. | Responsible for cooking breakfast | 0,437 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all income levels." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare breakfast | 0,052 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all income levels." |
| making. | Decide for breakfast | 0,680 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from all income levels." |
|  | Responsible for preparing lunch | 0,664 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all income levels." |
|  | Responsible for cooking lunch | 0,052 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all income levels." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare lunch | 0,006 | Significant | "Children from high income families have more responsibility in helping parents cook or prepare lunch for the family." |
|  | Decide for lunch | 0,510 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from all income levels." |
|  | Responsible for preparing dinner | 0,326 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all income levels." |
|  | Responsible for cooking dinner | 0,294 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all income levels." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare dinner | 0,480 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all income levels." |
|  | Decide for dinner | 0,522 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from all income levels." |

## Occupation

## "Children from working mothers have more influence on their families' decision making."

From 150 participants' parents, 59 mothers were unemployed or housewives and the other 91 mothers worked either part time or full time. Whether the mothers were employed or not, the dominant role of the food planner was still held by them. By using the Cramer's V method, the test statistic results showed that the hypothesis should be rejected, since children either from employed or unemployed mothers have an equal influence and responsibility in the family decision-making process (Table 39). Although previous studies declared that occupation from the mothers plays a role in children's influence on family decision making, this study presents different results. Even though mothers are employed, there are other people in the household (such as the grandmother or the maid) who take care of the children and manage the daily household necessities. This situation also applies to children from single parents, where the children and the household are being managed by other adults in the household.

Differing from results from previous studies, which were mostly conducted in the USA and Europe, the employed mothers have dual responsibilities in terms of managing the household and at the same time working full or part time. Therefore, children are obliged to take care of themselves as well as household matters. Children are taught to be more independent in taking care of themselves in terms of preparing their own meals, for example. A Study from Lee \& Beatty (2002) declared that children will achieve more influence if their mother works away from home. KAUR AND SINGH (2006) also added that children from dual career families, meaning both parents are working, are effectively thrust into the consumer role due to time pressures and income effects. Studies show that an increasing proportion of women in the workplace makes it more likely for children to be left alone at home after school and be given more household responsibilities (Assael 1992; Engel et al. 1986). Working mothers also decide how the family meal will be arranged (HEYER 1997). Based on the study from HEYER (1997), mothers who are working usually let their children arrange the meal by themselves (the children cook and buy the meal for themselves) or hire somebody (household helpers) to cook for them. Employed mothers today report that they do not have the time or the energy to monitor their children's consumption and media practices and consequently "surrender" to their children's requests. Previous research showed that two thirds of 6 to 14-year-old children cook for themselves one to five times a week, and $49 \%$ stated they have either bought food for the family or participated in family grocery shopping (COOK 2003). The guilty feeling of the mother because of their career is usually followed by purchasing goods for the children. For marketers, working mothers' limited time and their wish to keep the peace in the household open opportunities to sell for the marketers (COOK 2003).

## The Results IV

Table 39. Statistic results - occupation (Source: author's own creation)

| OCCUPATION | Family decision-making process (children perception) | P Value | $\mathrm{P}<0,05$ | Result |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Children from working mothers | Food planner | 0.452 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Food decision maker | 0.552 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
| have more influenceon their families, | Responsible in buying the food | 0.614 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Responsible for preparing breakfast | 0,235 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
| decision making | Responsible for cooking breakfast | 0,417 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare breakfast | 0,646 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Decide for breakfast | 0,130 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Responsible for preparing lunch | 0,908 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Responsible for cooking lunch | 0,424 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare lunch | 0,738 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Decide for lunch | 0,165 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Responsible for preparing the dinner | 0,691 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Responsible for cooking dinner | 0,923 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare dinner | 0,391 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |
|  | Decide for dinner | 0,876 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from working and non-working mothers." |

## Education

## "Children from highly educated parents have more influence on their families' decision-making."

Most of the parents attended school until senior high, some graduated from college or university, and a few finished only junior high school. By using the Kendall's tau-b method, the test statistic results showed that children from highly educated parents have more responsibility for cooking breakfast for the family. Overall the statistics showed a weak result supporting the hypothesis that children from highly educated parents have more influence on their families' decision-making process. Children from parents with a low or high education have an equal influence and responsibility in the family decision-making process. Parents from high and low degrees of education are still the ones who plan, decide, and buy food for the families (Table 40).

Parents who have a higher education might be more selective in choosing the food for the family, especially for their children, and more careful in allowing them to decide what food they want to buy and eat or prepare their own meal. Since the parents have a higher education, they are more knowledgeable about giving healthy and nutritious food to their children. Hence based on the statistic results, children of parents from either low or high education backgrounds have an equivalent influence and responsibility in the family decision-making process. Furthermore, based on the observations and interviews, children from both education backgrounds believe that parents should be responsible for planning, buying, deciding, cooking, and preparing food for the family, and only few of them think that children should be responsible for buying food for the families.

The study from Slama and Taschian (1985) showed that education of the parents is positively related to purchase involvement of children; however, their study could not support the study of children in Jakarta, because the education background of the parents was not positively correlated to the involvement of the children in the family decision-making process.

## The Results IV

Table 40. Statistic results - education (Source: author's own creation)

| EDUCATION | Family decision-making process (children perception) | P Value | $\mathrm{P}<0,05$ | Results |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Children from highly | Food planner | 0.972 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
| educated pare | Food decision maker | 0.981 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
| have more influence on their families' | Responsible for buying food | 0.316 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
|  | Responsible for preparing breakfast | 0,085 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
| decision making | Responsible for cooking breakfast | 0,034 | Significant | "Children from highly educated parents are more responsible for cooking breakfast for the family." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare breakfast | 0,372 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
|  | Decide for breakfast | 0,052 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
|  | Responsible for preparing lunch | 0,467 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
|  | Responsible for cooking lunch | 0,984 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare lunch | 0,255 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
|  | Decide for lunch | 0,243 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
|  | Responsible for preparing dinner | 0,772 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
|  | Responsible for cooking dinner | 0,681 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare dinner | 0,425 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |
|  | Decide for dinner | 0,207 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from all education levels of the parents." |

### 1.2.2 Socio-Demographic Status

## Parenthood

## "Children from single-parent families have more influence on their families’ decision making."

Out of 150 participating parents, 127 were in dual-parent families and only 19 were single parents; the other 4 parents did not give their answers in the family structure question. Children either come from dual or single parents; most of them think that parents should be responsible for food buying and the food consumption process in the families. By using the Cramer's V method, the test statistic results showed that there are no influence or responsibility differences between children from single or dual-parent families; only one part of the statistic results showed a significant level that children from single-parent families have more responsibility in helping parents in terms of cooking or preparing dinner for the family. Overall, children from both parenthoods have equivalent influence or responsibility in (Table 41):

- Planning the food
- Deciding what food to buy
- Deciding what food to eat
- Buying the food
- Preparing the meal
- Cooking the meal
- Helping the parents cook or prepare breakfast and lunch

Based on the observations, the single-parent families cook the meal without help from the children. In the single-parent household, the maid or the grandmother prepares and cooks the meal for the family as well as takes care of the children. In dual-parent families, the mothers take care of children and manage the household. Children from both parenthoods show little or no involvement during the food buying and consumption processes. They prefer to play while waiting for the meal to be prepared and continue playing while eating their meals, even though according to the survey, children declared that they always or sometimes help their mother prepare or cook the meal (compare Figure 21, 25, and 29: helping parents during cooking or meal preparation).

## The Results IV

Table 41. Statistic results - parenthood (Source: author's own creation)

| PARENTHOOD | Family decision-making process (children perception) | P Value | $\mathrm{P}<0,05$ | Results |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Children from single-parent families have more | Food planner | 0.648 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Food decision maker | 0.341 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Responsible for buying food | 0.246 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
| influence on their <br> families' decision making | Responsible for preparing breakfast | 0,196 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Responsible for cooking breakfast | 0,567 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare breakfast | 0,693 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Decide for breakfast | 0,420 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Responsible for preparing lunch | 0,316 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Responsible for cooking lunch | 0,580 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare lunch | 0,138 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Decide for lunch | 0,119 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Responsible for preparing dinner | 0,308 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Responsible for cook dinner | 0,593 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare dinner | 0,032 | Significant | "Children from single-parent families are more responsible for helping the parents cook or prepare dinner for the family." |
|  | Decide for dinner | 0,752 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from single and dual-parent families." |

## Age <br> "The older the children, the bigger the influence they have on their families' decision making."

The age of children plays a role in determining their influence in the family decision-making process. According to WARD (1978), children from seven to nine years old are able to perceive, select, and evaluate the information before they buy a product (Ward 1978). The influence of children increases with age (ATKIN 1978). Older children can already decide and be responsible for their own nutrition (HEYER 1997). As children become older, they are able to make decisions independently because they get more money from the parents (Assael 1995). They have a greater cognitive ability to perceive several perspectives and understand perspectives other than their own. They are more capable of adapting their argumentation, persuasion, and negotiation with adults than younger children. Older children also have greater knowledge of products, are able to develop the consumer skills which relate to information processing, and are more likely to model their consumer behavior after adults (JOHN 1999, MARTENSEN 2008). According to this study, older children have more influence on / responsibility in (Table 42):

- Planning the food
- Preparing the meal
- Helping the parents cook or prepare lunch
- Deciding what to eat for lunch and dinner
- Cooking dinner

However, age does not indicate influence or responsibility differences between children in terms of:

- Deciding what food to buy
- Buying food
- Cooking breakfast and lunch
- Helping the parents cook or prepare breakfast and dinner
- Deciding what to eat for breakfast

Compared to other factors such as education backgrounds of the parents or parenthood, age play an important role in food decision making of the family. Older children can help the parents plan what food should be bought for the family or help the parents prepare the meal. In terms of buying the food, parents believe that it is the task of the parents to buy and decide what food to buy for the family. Besides, buying food or grocery shopping is considered a family weekend activity for most of the participants' families.

## The Results IV

Table 42. Statistic results - age (Source: author's own creation)

| AGE | Family decision-making process (children perception) | P Value | $\mathrm{P}<0,05$ | Results |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| The older the children, the more influence they have on their families' decision making | Food planner | 0.004 | Significant | "Older children have more influence on planning the food for the family." |
|  | Food decision maker | 0.231 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between older and younger children." |
|  | Responsible for buying food | 0.875 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between older and younger children." |
|  | Responsible in Preparing the Breakfast | 0,000 | Significant | "Older children are more responsible for preparing breakfast for the family." |
|  | Responsible in Cooking the Breakfast | 0,068 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between older and younger children." |
|  | Helping Parents in Cooking/Preparing the breakfast | 0,188 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between older and younger children." |
|  | Decide for breakfast | 0,360 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between older and younger children." |
|  | Responsible in Preparing the Lunch | 0,006 | Significant | "Older children are more responsible for preparing lunch for the family." |
|  | Responsible in Cooking the Lunch | 0,350 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between older and younger children." |
|  | Helping Parents in Cooking/Preparing the Lunch | 0,038 | Significant | "Older children are more responsible for helping the parents cook or prepare lunch for the family." |
|  | Decide for Lunch | 0,030 | Significant | "Older children have more influence on deciding what to eat for lunch." |
|  | Responsible in Preparing the Dinner | 0,002 | Significant | "Older children are more responsible for preparing dinner for the family." |
|  | Responsible in Cooking the Dinner | 0,003 | Significant | "Older children are more responsible for cooking dinner for the family." |
|  | Helping Parents in Cooking /Preparing the Dinner | 0,054 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between older and younger children." |
|  | Decide for Dinner | 0,008 | Significant | "Older children have more influence on deciding what to eat for dinner." |

## Gender

"Girls have more influence than boys in the families' decision making."
From 150 participating children, 80 were girls and 70 were boys. Most of the children agree that parents or others (such as the maid) should plan the food buying without children's contribution. By using the Cramer's V method, the test statistic results showed that (Table 43):

Girls have more influence or responsibility in:

- Buying food
- Preparing breakfast and lunch
- Helping parents cook or prepare breakfast
- Cooking lunch and dinner

These results are supported by the study from KaUR AND Singh (2006) who found that daughters commonly had more influence than sons. Supported by a previous study by ATKIN (1978), the statistic results showed that girls have more influence on the family decisionmaking process in terms of buying food and preparing meals. Girls seem to be more independent in preparing and cooking the meal on their own; also they are more responsible for buying food for the family. However, there are no influence or responsibility differences between genders of the children in terms of:

- Planning the food
- Deciding what food to buy
- Cooking breakfast
- Deciding what to eat
- Helping parents cook or prepare lunch and dinner
- Preparing dinner

Based on the survey (Figures 19-20, 23-24, 27-28) most children, either boys or girls, said that the mothers should prepare and cook the food for the family, whereas children can always or sometimes decide what food they want to eat (Figures 22, 26, 30). Girls might have more influence and responsibilities than boys in several factors mentioned above according to the survey; however, during observation, both genders preferred watching TV or playing with their toys rather than helping their parents prepare or cook the meal. According to the parents, children were not involved in the household chores including cooking since they were too small, did not understand about cooking, and might have only distracted the mothers. Therefore, children were excluded in the household chores.

Table 43. Statistic results - gender (Source: author's own creation)

| GENDER | Family decision-making process (children perception) | P Value | $\mathrm{P}<0,05$ | Results |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Girls have more influence than boys in the families' decision making | Food planner | 0.242 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between genders." |
|  | Food decision maker | 0.126 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between genders." |
|  | Responsible for buying food | 0.016 | Significant | "Girls are more responsible for buying food for the family." |
|  | Responsible for preparing breakfast | 0,005 | Significant | "Girls are more responsible for preparing breakfast for the family." |
|  | Responsible for cooking breakfast | 0,906 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between genders." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare breakfast | 0,033 | Significant | "Girls are more responsible for helping the parents cook or prepare breakfast for the family." |
|  | Decide for breakfast | 0,603 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between genders." |
|  | Responsible preparing lunch | 0,021 | Significant | "Girls are more responsible for preparing lunch for the family." |
|  | Responsible for cooking lunch | 0,002 | Significant | "Girls are more responsible for cooking lunch for the family." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare lunch | 0,417 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between genders." |
|  | Decide for lunch | 0,636 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between genders." |
|  | Responsible for preparing dinner | 0,590 | Insignificant | "There is no responsible difference between genders." |
|  | Responsible for cooking dinner | 0,022 | Significant | "Girls are more responsible for cooking dinner for the family." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare dinner | 0,434 | Insignificant | ""'There is no responsible difference between genders." |
|  | Decide for dinner | 0,133 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between genders." |

## Ethnic / language ability <br> "Children who speak more than one language have more influence in their families’ decision-making process."

Children in Jakarta come from different provinces in Indonesia; therefore in order to analyze the ethnic background of the children, this study utilized the language ability or daily language spoken between children and their family members as the decider for the ethnic background of the children, for example Mandarin is spoken by the Chinese or Javanese is spoken by the Javanese families. The majority of children speak only 1 language, Bahasa Indonesia, some of them are bilingual in either English, Mandarin, or other local dialects, and only few from them are multilingual or speak more than 2 languages.

Most of the children think that parents should plan for the food buying and some of the children believe that they can plan the food buying together with the parents. By using the Cramer's V method, the test statistic results showed that the language ability of the children did not correlate directly with their influence or degree of responsibility in the family. Most of the results showed an insignificant level between both factors, and in only one part in terms of food planner was the value significant. Overall, there are no influence or responsibility differences in terms of (Table 44):

- Deciding what food to buy
- Buying food
- Preparing the meal
- Cooking the meal
- Helping parents cook or prepare the meal
- Deciding what food to eat

The correlation between language ability and children's influence in the family is too weak, and it seems that language ability might not be a suitable factor that affects the children's influence in the family. Language ability might affect the perception of the children towards the food products, for instance children who are bilingual tend to consume imported food items, since they have the ability to understand the information on the package of the food product. Based on the surveys and observations, children who come from the international school are capable of speaking more than two languages, and they also consume more imported food products than local food items.

## The Results IV

Table 44. Statistic results - ethnic / language ability (Source: author's own creation)

| ETHNIC / LANGUAGE ABILITY | Family decision-making process (children perception) | P Value | $\mathrm{P}<0,05$ | Results |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Children who speak more than one language have more influence in their families' decision-making process | Food planner | 0,023 | Significant | "Children who speak more than one language have more influence on planning the food for the family." |
|  | Food decision maker | 0,197 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Responsible for buying food | 0,361 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Responsible for preparing breakfast | 0,177 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Responsible for cooking breakfast | 0,608 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare breakfast | 0,199 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Decide for breakfast | 0,650 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Responsible for preparing lunch | 0,608 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Responsible for cooking lunch | 0,739 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare lunch | 0,134 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Decide for lunch | 0,832 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Responsible for preparing dinner | 0,484 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Responsible for cooking dinner | 0,640 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare dinner | 0,964 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children who speak one or more languages." |
|  | Decide for dinner | 0,649 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children who speak one or more languages." |

## Family size / siblings

## "The fewer children in the household, the more influence the child has in family decision making."

Most of the participating children have either 1 or 2 siblings, and only few have more than 3 siblings in the family. By using the Kendall's tau-b method, the test statistic results showed that there is almost no correlation between the number of children in the family and their influence or degree of responsibility in the household. Only in the food decision maker part was the significance value high, where few children in the household indicates more influence in deciding what food to buy for the family. Overall, the results signify that whether children come from big or small families, they have the same influence or responsibility in (Table 45):

- Planning the food
- Buying the food
- Preparing the meal
- Cooking the meal
- Helping the parents cook or prepare the meal
- Deciding what food to eat

When it comes to deciding what food to buy for the families, parents and others still dominate the role as the decision maker. According to previous studies: "The more children in the family, the less chance that each of them are able to decide" (Heyer 1997). Williams and VEECK (1998) reported that in China, where most families have only one child, the child exerted significant influence during all decision-making process stages while buying products for family use. KaUR and $\operatorname{Singh}$ (2006) also stated that a decreased size in families will lead to children's preferences being accorded greater importance by the parents. However, Ward and Wackman (1972) found no correlation between the number of children and their influence. The study from Ward and Wackman supports the study results from children in Jakarta: that there is no correlation between the number of the children in the family and the influence or responsibility degree of the children in the household. The fact is that families with fewer children tend to spoil them more than families with more children; whereas more children in the family lead to housework distribution from the parents to their children. Children who are spoiled have the right to decide what food they want to buy, and they do not have to participate in buying, preparing, or cooking the meal for the family. In his study, Mikkelsen (2006) found that some children said that they do not engage in food activities because they felt their parents provided well enough for them (Mikkelsen 2006). On the other hand, families with more children might treat them equally, where each child receives his or her own chore as distributed by the parents.

Table 45. Statistic results - family size (siblings) (Source: Author's own creation)

| FAMILY SIZE ( SIBLINGS) | Family decision-making process (children perception) | P Value | $\mathrm{P}<0,05$ | Results |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| The fewer children | Food planner | 0.986 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from big or small families." |
| in the household, the | Food decision maker | 0.000 | Significant | "The fewer children in the household, the more influence they have in deciding what food to buy for the family." |
| more influence they <br> have in their family's <br> decision making | Responsible for buying food | 0.078 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Responsible for preparing breakfast | 0,596 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Responsible for cooking breakfast | 0,557 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare breakfast | 0,948 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Decide for breakfast | 0,417 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Responsible for preparing the lunch | 0,893 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Responsible for cooking lunch | 0,913 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare lunch | 0,563 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Decide for lunch | 0,327 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Responsible for preparing dinner | 0,395 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Responsible for cooking dinner | 0,174 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Helping parents cook/prepare dinner | 0,055 | Insignificant | "There is no responsibility difference between children from big or small families." |
|  | Decide for dinner | 0,237 | Insignificant | "There is no influence difference between children from big or small families." |

### 1.3 Evaluation of the Quantitative Results

The aim of performing a quantitative method in this study was as follows.

## 1. Quantify data and generalize results from the parents and children with regard to children's influence on the family decision-making process.

The quantitative research involved 150 parents with an age range from 20 years to more than 50 years old and 150 children age 6 to 9 . A standardized questionnaire was used in this quantitative research. The quantitative research gathered personal information from the respondents and the frequency of occurrence concerning food purchase planning and the consumption process. The statistical analysis defined the correlation between the SES and SDS from the respondents with the children's influence in food buying and the consumption process of the family. Through this statistical analysis, it can be confirmed whether the research hypotheses should be accepted or rejected, also one can investigate the influence degree of the children in the family's decision making during the food buying and consumption process.

Based on the results from the quantitative approach:

- Most of the participants' parents were mothers, since they are the ones who are responsible for buying, preparing, and cooking the food for the family members. From 150 participants' parents, 117 parents were mothers (78\%) and 33 parents were fathers (22\%).
- The age range of the participants' parents started from 20 to more than 50 years old; most of them were between 31 and 40 years of age; 76 out of 150 parents ( $50.67 \%$ ).
- A plurality of the participants' parents were housewives ( 62 out of 150 parents, $41.33 \%$ ), and most respondents' partners worked in the other professional fields such as in the army or as teachers ( 39 parents ( $26 \%$ ) out of the total participants).
- Some respondents' parents hold a high school degree (58 parents, 38.67\%).
- Most of the families were in the low-income bracket with a total of 116 ( $77.33 \%$ ) out of 150 participants' parents. It means that 116 out of 150 children lived in a lowincome household.
- The majority of respondents' families were dual parents (127 parents, 84.67\%).
- Most participants' children were girls with a total of 80 children ( $53.37 \%$ ), and the other 70 children ( $46.67 \%$ ) were boys.
- The plurality of children was 8 years old ( 58 children ( $38.67 \%$ ). Children during this age are able to perceive, select, and evaluate the information before they buy the product (WARD 1978).
- Out of $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ participants' children, $\mathbf{8 0}$ children (53.37\%) had one sibling.
- Most children used Bahasa Indonesia as their daily communication language with the other family members ( 141 children, $94 \%$ ).
- TV ads were the most important information source for products according to the majority of parents and children ( 77 children and 92 parents).
- Price and taste were the most important product criteria according to parents and children. Parents considered 'what my family or children like' as the most important criterion (108 parents) when buying the food product, whereas price was the most important product criterion for children ( 94 children).
- Both parents and children enjoyed shopping (137 children, 91\%, and 109 parents, $73 \%$ ).
- Children helped the parents during grocery shopping mostly by pushing the shopping cart according to 112 parents and 99 children.
- 56 children and 76 parents thought that milk is the most recommended food or drink chosen by children.
- The mother was the person who prepared (97 children and 110 parents) and cooked (106 children and 111 parents) breakfast for the family.
- Children and parents ( 53 children and 48 parents) mentioned that the children 'sometimes' help their parents cook or prepare breakfast in terms of setting the table or taking out the jams or bread from the refrigerator. A similar number of parents (48 parents) said that children 'never' help them cook or prepare breakfast.
- Most children and parents ( 53 children and 68 parents) mentioned that the children can 'sometimes' decide for their breakfast.
- The mother was the person who prepares ( 73 children and 86 parents) and cooks ( 94 children and 91 parents) lunch for the family.
- Most children and parents ( 73 children and 56 parents) mentioned that the children 'sometimes' help their parents cook or prepare lunch.
- Most children and parents ( 47 children and 81 parents) mentioned that the children can 'sometimes' decide for their lunch.
- The mother was the person who prepares ( 91 children and 100 parents) and cooks ( 83 children and 102 parents) dinner for the family.
- Most children and parents ( 56 children and 64 parents) mentioned that the children 'sometimes' help their parents cook or prepare dinner.
- Different than breakfast and lunch, according to most children ( 53 children) they could always decide what they wanted to eat for dinner, whereas according to most parents (83 parents) children could sometimes decide.
From the background of the parents, it can be seen that the majority of the children (116 out of 150) come from families with a low socioeconomic status (low income, low education background, low job position).

Consequently this result affects the results from the frequency of occurrence concerning food purchase planning and the consumption process in the family. Since most children come from low-income families, this means that the results from the frequency of occurrence imply the decision-making situation occurs mostly in low-income families. By using the statistical analysis approach, the study results confirmed the following hypotheses.

Age and gender of the children affect the degree of children's influence on family decision making in food buying and the consumption process.

- The older the children, the bigger the influence they have on their families' decisionmaking. (Hypothesis is accepted).
- Girls have more influence than boys in the families' decision-making. (Hypothesis is accepted).

Household income has a modest effect on children's influence in the family decisionmaking process.

- Children from high-income families have more influence on planning the food for the family than children from low or middle-income families.
- Children from high-income families show more responsibility in helping the parents in terms of cooking or preparing lunch for the family rather than children from low or middle-income families.

Hence, there are no influence or responsibility differences between children either from high, medium, or low-income levels when it comes to deciding what food to buy and eat, who is responsible for buying the food, preparing and cooking the meal, or helping the parents cook breakfast and dinner. The results indicate that even if income plays a role in the family decision-making process, the correlation between income levels and the degree of influence or responsibility from the children is considered relatively modest. The possible reason is that the income level of the participants' parents is not equally distributed, where the low income parents dominate more than half from the number of the participants and therefore the result of this study is affected.

Occupation of the mother, education of the parents, parenthood, ethnicity, and family size do not affect the degree of children's influence on family decision making in food buying and the consumption process.

- Children from employed mothers have more influence on their families' decisionmaking (the results reject the hypothesis).
It was expected that children from working mothers would have more influence on their families' decision-making, however the results indicate that children either from employed or unemployed mothers have the same influence and role in the family decision-making process. When the mothers are employed, other adults in the
household, such as the grandmother or the maid, contribute to the daily household activities. Therefore, children do not participate or get involved in organizing, planning, preparing, and cooking meals for the family.
- Children from high education parents have more influence on their families' decision-making (the results reject the hypothesis).
This statistic shows a weak result to support the hypothesis that children from high education parents have more influence on their families' decision-making process. Children from low or high education parents have the same influence and responsibility in the family decision-making process. Parents from high and low degrees of education are still the people who plan, decide, and buy the food for the families.
- Children from single-parent families have more influence on their families' decision-making than children from dual-parent families (the results reject the hypothesis).
The study shows that there are no influence or responsibility differences between children from single or dual-parent families; only one part from the statistical results shows a significant level of increased responsibility for children from single-parent families in helping the parents cook or prepare dinner for the family. The correlation between the parenthood and children's influence is considered too weak and far from the expectation. Children who come from single-parent families are usually being taken care of by other adults in the household, such as the grandmother. Therefore, children do not have to participate in the buying and consumption processes of the family.
- The ethnic background of the family has an influence in deciding whether the children can or cannot influence their families' decision-making. (the results reject the hypothesis).
The correlation between language ability and children's influence in the family is too weak, and it seems that language ability might not a suitable factor that affects the children's influence in the family.
- The fewer children in the household, the more influence the child has in family's decision-making (the results reject the hypothesis).
There is almost no correlation between the number of the children in the family and the influence or responsibility degree of the children in the household. Only in the food decision maker part was the significant value high, where fewer children in the household indicated having more influence in deciding what food to buy for the family. Overall, the results signify that whether children come from big or small
families, they have the same influence or responsibility in planning, buying, preparing, cooking, and helping the parents cook or prepare meals for the family.

From the research framework perspective: Children can influence their families on the first and third stage of buying decision process. On the first stage of buyer decision process "awareness of need," children create an awareness in the parents of the product that the children want. On the question of "do you tell your parents / do parents ask their children first if they want to buy the food for the children?" most parents and children admitted either sometimes or always, passively or actively, children influence their parents when they need or want food items. On the third stage, children exert the most influence in the "evaluation of alternatives" stage, where the majority of parents admit that what their children want or like is the most important criterion for them when they want to buy food. In this case, the children influence their parents passively, meaning that the parents buy the food according to what children want or like without asking their children first, because they know what they buy for their children will be consumed by them. From the consumption decision process, children exert less influence in preparing and cooking the meal either for themselves or for the family. Children have influence, mostly in deciding what they want to eat ("sometimes" and "always"), according to children and parents.
2. Measure the degree of children's influence in the family and collect the opinions from parents and children.

- The majority of parents (109) and children (102) think that children can influence their parents in deciding what to buy and what to eat.
- Most children (88) think that they are the 'co-decision maker' in the family, meaning that the decision in the family is decided $50 \%$ by children and $50 \%$ by parents, whereas most parents (129) think that children are the 'influencer' in the family, meaning that parents have more to say or parents often decide for the children in deciding what to buy and to eat.


## 3. Recommend a final course of action.

Based on the results, both parents and children use TV advertisements as their main source of product information, and both of them think that children have an influence on family decision making in food buying and the consumption process. Since children have limited (food) product knowledge and skills as consumers in the market place, this can lead to misconceptions on which food should be bought and eaten by the family. Therefore the government should control the advertisements shown on TV, especially those targeting on children; develop an education TV program that teaches children as
well as families about purchase knowledge and skills; and create advertisements about healthy eating and good nutrition for the family.

The results from the quantitative approach were integrated with the results from qualitative research. The general results from the quantitative approach were tested in the observation and direct interview from the qualitative research. The qualitative research will confirm quantitative results, whether the results are reliable or undependable regarding the actual family situation.

## 2 Qualitative Results

The qualitative research through ethnographic study involved 17 families who agreed to participate further in this study. The activities conducted were house visits, school visits, and grocery shopping with the family during food buying. Before the study was conducted, appointment and agreement with the parents were settled regarding when and where to meet them. Most of the respondents did not work, so the schedule was mostly flexible, but they asked for weekend appointments for observation during grocery shopping. The study was carried out over a period of 6 months. Preparation for conducting this study started from contacting the survey respondents until the accomplishment of the observation and interview. The combination of observation and interview made it possible to investigate in detail everyday decision made about food buying and the consumption process from the parents' and children's perspectives. The guidelines from previous studies and research with regard to family and child interviews as well as family observation were applied and performed during the ethnographic study (Tally 2002, Walter 2011, Heyer 1997, Mikkelsen 2006).

The observation used guidelines or protocols in order to have a chronological and structural observation (please refer to Appendix 10). First the introduction of the study was explained to the participants in order for them to understand the purpose of the study and what will be observed during the house visits. The demographic information of the family, such as the number of persons living in the household, their age, gender, and education were asked of the family. Later on, the house location and conditions were observed and analyzed, such as location of the house, distance from the supermarket or traditional market, outlook and design of the house, and the number of persons and amount of electronic equipment. The observer took note of what could be asked concerning actions from children and parents during the observation or when there were other questions appearing during the observation. After the observation, the interviewer continued to ask the questions of the family. The qualitative research was applied in order to observe the real situation of the families and to test the results from the quantitative study, whether the quantitative results were consistent or inconsistent with the qualitative results. Furthermore, there were some information which were not explained in the survey, since it involved only close-ended questions; therefore, through the
qualitative approach, the hidden message and unclear information could be better explained. In the following case studies, the results from the qualitative (observation and interview) and quantitative (survey) are compared in one table from each participant's family. First, the observation and interview with the family are described, and then the results from the qualitative and quantitative research are compared in order to see which information from the survey is reliable regarding the actual situation in the family. Whether the answers from the parents are more trustworthy than the answers from the children (Who is telling the truth?) can also be evaluated.

### 2.1 Case Studies (Participants' Families) (Appendix 15)

In the following context, the case study from 17 participants' families will be described and discussed. The names of the family members (both parent and child) are restricted and anonymous, and each family will be identified alphabetically. The alphabet was randomly selected and did not represent which family had the observation first. The personal data information acquired from the project activities (interviews, observations, and questionnaires) are restricted and anonymous, are securely saved, and were only used for the purposes of the Department of Nutritional Education and Consumer Behavior of the Justus Liebig University, Giessen. The participation or involvement in this research project was optional and voluntary. The parents or the authorized person, together with the children had the right to refuse involvement or cancel the participation afterwards.

### 2.1.1 Family A (Table 46)

The mother is a single parent who lives with her 7-year-old daughter, together with her father, younger brother, and sister-in-law; they live in a middle-income household. She works daily in her father's company. In the afternoon she picks up her daughter and brings her to the company. Every day the daughter spends her lunch and dinner there. The mother cooks only once in a while, most of the time she buys food in restaurants because of the little time she has. The mother as a single parent does not ask her child to participate in food purchase planning, and the child does not participate; she asks her mother what she wants to buy on the way to the supermarket. The mother tries to make a win-win solution or 50-50, meaning that what her child likes is combined with what she allows her child to buy. The main food buying, which usually done every Saturday, is usually planned, but some additional food buying is done spontaneously (for example after bringing her daughter to school). Compared to the child, the mother has more to say or more power to decide what to buy. The foods they usually plan to buy are daily foods, such as milk, vegetables, fruits, bread, and meats. The three most important criteria for buying the foods are: (1) the price (does not mean always cheap, but price value and usually on sale), (2) fresh for meats, vegetables, and fruits, (3) for dry food such as cereal and snacks, they should be what my child likes. The mother
usually buys all of what she has planned on the list, but if there are goods that are on sale or at a special price, she will buy them even if she still has them at home (e.g. detergent or milk). As with food purchase planning, during grocery shopping the mother and child try to reach a win-win solution when it comes to the child's request, for example buying the brand of milk that the child likes, but the taste (less sugar) is decided by the mother. Both mother and daughter enjoy grocery shopping. When the mother buys food for the family in general, she does not ask the child first, but when the foods are for the child, the mother will ask the child first about which one they want to buy (but allowance with control). When allowing, she teaches her child how to choose the goods and compare prices. During the grocery shopping, the child comes along and participates. The child behaves well during shopping, does not take or ask for snacks, does not open before paying, and does not take candy or other items near the cashier desk. The child helps her mother by pushing the shopping cart, reading the item list, choosing the items (eggs, fruits, cereal, and milk), looking for a plastic bag for the fruits, and weighting the vegetables and fruits. She enjoys grocery shopping. The child evaluates the foods based on the price or if it is on sale, taste, and the toys inside the package (cereal). The child tells the mother what foods to buy only if the foods are bought for the child, such as cereal, milk, and fruits. Breakfast is usually with bread and cereal; they seldom cook breakfast. The mother decides most all the time, what, when, and where to eat. For breakfast, the maid prepares and cooks for the family with instructions from the mother. The child seldom helps during the food preparation or setting up the table. The child helps the mother according to her freewill. Unlike breakfast, where the child can influence the mother to change other types or brand of cereal, for lunch or dinner the child has less influence over what is being eaten and served. The qualitative and quantitative results present slightly similar performance, and the influence score is almost equal, with only four score differences. Both mother and child consider price to be the most important factor when buying the food; this result is confirmed by the observation study. The differences between the results from the mother and child are that the child thinks that she is seldom asked by the mother, seldom tells the mother what food to buy, and seldom is allowed to choose by the mother; whereas the mother thinks that she is always ask her child, the child often tells the mother what to buy, and she allows the child to choose sometimes. Consequently, the mother believes that the child has more of a role and influence in the family rather than child herself. According to the observation study, the mother often asks her child when she wants to buy (food) products for the child, the child seldom tells the mother what food to buy, and the mother sometimes allows the child to choose. The mother's score for children's influence is 34 , meaning that the child for her is a co-decision maker whereas the child's score is 30, meaning that she is an influencer for her mother (Table 46).

Table 46. Qualitative results - Family A (Source: author's own creation)

| Family A | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: Organize Decide Responsible Allowed by the parents Info about food products | - Maid <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Magazine, radio, internet | - Mother and Children <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Children <br> - Sometimes <br> - School and Supermarkets | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket ads, newspaper |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Price, taste, new in the market <br> - Always <br> - List items, push-cart, checkout counter <br> - Seldom <br> - Seldom | - Price, my children like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Taking the goods from the shelves, push the shop cart, checkout counter <br> - Always <br> - Often | - Price, my children like it, fresh <br> - Often <br> - Looking for the goods (browsing), push the shop cart, listing items <br> - Often <br> - Seldom |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Often <br> - Sometimes <br> - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Often <br> - Sometimes <br> - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Often <br> - Sometimes | - Maid <br> - Mother and Children <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes <br> - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Sometimes <br> - Often <br> - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Catering Service <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Catering Service <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 30 (The Influencer) | 34 (Co-decision maker) |  |

### 2.1.2 Family B (Table 47)

Similar to Family A, the father is a single parent who lives in his parents' house together with his mother, brother, and two sons (one is a participant, and the younger one is not). The daily household is usually planned by the grandmother. The father and his sons have only little participation in the household. The sons are being taken care of by the grandmother. The grandmother plans the food buying by herself. She does not actually plan the food buying, she just buys the food spontaneously. The grandmother has a big role in the household since everything is managed and controlled by her alone. For her, the three most important things when buying foods are: (1) the price (including what is on sale), (2) taste, (3) new in the market. Since the father does not often spend time with his sons, everything that the sons ask for (food) is allowed by the father, but in the end it is controlled by the grandmother. Usually during grocery shopping, the participant's child (only when he came along) helps the grandmother by taking goods from the shelves. For breakfast, the child likes to eat bread and jams or sometimes cereal. During food preparation and cooking of lunch and dinner, the child watches TV and plays with his toys instead of helping his grandmother. The father comes home late from work usually, so the son seldom eats with his father. The child is very selective in choosing the food he wants to eat and therefore that which is served daily for lunch and dinner are mostly similar, for example carrots and broccoli. On the questionnaire, the grandmother answered that the parents or she always allow the child to buy what he wants, but during observation, the child seldom was allowed to buy what he wanted. During grocery shopping, the grandmother likes to try new products in the supermarket. She usually shops alone when buying groceries in the traditional market; only when she goes to the supermarket do the father and his sons come along. The child knows that when he wants to buy something, he approaches his father to buy the food for him, because he will not be allowed from the grandmother. Since the father has to work daily, the child is taken care of by the grandmother, and she controls what the grandson eats and buys. On the child's answer, he mentioned that the mother organizes the food purchase planning for the family, but the parents were divorced already. Also in his answers, he mentioned that he organizes, decides, and is responsible for food purchase planning; although observations proved that the grandmother was responsible for this. The observations and the survey answered by the grandmother presented slightly similar results, in terms of who in the family organizes, decides, and is responsible for food purchase planning and preparing dinner for the family. The answers from the grandmother and child are equal regarding allowance from the parents ("always"), TV ads as their main information source, frequent shopping, parents asking the child first, the child always telling the parents what to buy, and frequently helping parents. However, the scores from the grandmother and grandson are very similar, and both of them agree that the grandson only acts as an influencer in the family (Table 47).

Table 47. Qualitative results - Family B (Source: author's own creation)

| Family B | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results <br> (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: Organize Decide Responsible Allowed by the parents Info about food products | - Mother <br> - Myself <br> - Myself <br> - Always <br> - Friends, TV ads, TV programs | - Grandmother <br> - Grandmother <br> - Grandmother <br> - Always <br> - TV ads, Supermarkets | - Grandmother <br> - Grandmother <br> - Grandmother <br> - Seldom <br> - TV ads, Supermarkets |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Price, taste, gifts <br> - Sometimes <br> - Browsing, Taking out the goods, checkout counter <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Children / family like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Pushing the shopping cart <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Price, taste, new in market <br> - Seldom <br> - Taking goods from shelves <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Others <br> - Others <br> - Never <br> - Never <br> - Others <br> - Others <br> - Never <br> - Seldom <br> - Others <br> - Others <br> - Never <br> - Never | - Grandmother <br> - Maid <br> - Never <br> - Always <br> - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Grandmother <br> - Grandmother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes | - Grandmother <br> - Grandmother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Grandmother <br> - Grandmother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Grandmother <br> - Grandmother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 27 (The Influencer) | 26 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.3 Family C (Table 48)

This family lives in small house located in a poor area near the traditional market. For the mother, the child's opinion is very important in selecting food for the family; however, the child seldom participates in food planning. The mother searches for food product information usually from TV advertisements and supermarket brochures. The grocery shopping is only done once a month for rice and detergents, but fresh food such as vegetables are bought daily by the mother. She really limits the expenses for the grocery shopping; however, when the child asks for what he wants during grocery shopping, the mother will allow it. For the mother, the three most important criteria are: (1) what my child likes, (2) price, (3) brand. During the food planning (only when the child wants to participate), the child usually gives suggestions, influence, and sometimes insists on the brands of food that are his favorite. For the child the taste of the food and the gifts inside the package are very important. According to the child, going to the supermarket is enjoyable, and it is one of the family outings for him. During grocery shopping, the child helps the mother check the grocery list, and when he sees food from TV advertisements, he points it out and shows it to his mother. For breakfast, the mother prepares and cooks the food for the family, and for lunch and dinner, she orders it from a catering service. During breakfast preparation, the mother shows the child how to prepare the food, and the child only observes the mother without participating in it. The child likes to eat sausage, nuggets, and vegetables. When the mother sometimes cooks for dinner, the child usually tries to annoy or disturb the mother by asking her to do things for him, or he sometimes watches TV while waiting.

Both qualitative and quantitative results present some equivalent data. The mother organizes, decides, and is responsible for food purchase planning; TV ads are the main source for food product information; the child assists the parents in browsing the products from circulars; the parents often ask the child first before buying the products for him; the mother prepares and cooks the meal (except for lunch and dinner from a catering service) for the family; and the child never helps the parents in the food preparation and cooking process. Interestingly, the child thinks that he does not have an influence in the family, meaning that he underestimates his role in the family, whereas the mother thinks the opposite, although the child's score is slightly higher (23) than the mother's score (22) (Table 48).

Table 48. Qualitative results - Family C (Source: author's own creation)

| Family C | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: Organize <br> - Decide <br> - Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - School, TV ads, internet | - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - My children, supermarket, TV ads | - Mother and Child <br> - Mother and Child <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Often <br> - Supermarket brochures, TV ads |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Price, taste, new <br> - Always <br> - Browsing, taking the goods from shelves <br> - Often <br> - Always | - Taste and My children/family like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Browsing through circulars, taking the goods from shelves <br> - Often <br> - Sometimes | - My children/family like it, price, brand <br> - Sometimes <br> - Browsing through circulars, taking the goods from shelves <br> - Often <br> - Always |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Preparation <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Never <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Never | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Catering Service <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Catering Service <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | No | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 23 (The Influencer) | 22 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.4 Family D (Table 49)

This family consists of a father, mother, and one son. They live in a small house near the traditional market in the poor area. For the family, they never plan the food buying; they just do it spontaneously. The mother is the person responsible for managing the household, and when it comes to buying the food, (1) taste is the first priority for her and (2) what the child or her husband likes. She sometimes allows the child to buy what he wants, but the mother checks it first. The child helps the mother by pushing the shopping cart and taking the goods from the shelves. He asks his mother to buy food for him only when the food relates to him, such as milk.

During food consumption, the mother is the only person who prepares and cooks the food for the family with no help from other members. The mother explained that her son would only mess up the kitchen, making more work for her to clean up afterwards. During the meal, the child sits everywhere in the house, mostly in front of the TV. The parents do not make him to eat at the dining table.

The questionnaire from the child showed that the child always actively participates in the food decision-making process of the family in terms of food buying and consumption. The child believes that he has high influence in the family and stated that he always helps the mother in the food consumption process and he is always able to decide what he wants to eat. Furthermore, he believes that the parents always ask him first before they buy food for him. On the other hand, the mother believes that the child has little participation in the family and seldom helps the parents prepare or cook the food for them.

The mother thinks that the child can sometimes decide what he wants to eat but only when she checks it first. Furthermore, the observations showed that the parents seldom ask the child when they want to buy him food. Most of the answers from the mother were similar to the observation results, which show that the child has little influence in the family. The results of the questionnaire from the child's part show that he is the co-decision maker with his parents with a score of 45 . On the other hand, the mother believes that the child can only act as the influencer in the family with the score of $\mathbf{1 8}$ (Table 49).

Table 49. Qualitative results - Family D (Source: author's own creation)

| Family D | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: Organize Decide Responsible Allowed by the parents Info about food products | - Mother and Me <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Always <br> - Family, supermarket | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Friends, supermarket, TV ads | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Friends, supermarket, TV ads |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Picture, color and form of the food <br> - Never <br> - Browsing circulars <br> - Always <br> - Often | - Price, taste, TV ads <br> - Always <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes | - Price, taste, TV ads <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Always <br> - Always <br> - Father and Me <br> - Mother <br> - Always <br> - Always <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Father and Me <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Seldom |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 45 (Co-decision Maker) | 18 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.5 Family E (Table 50)

There are a total of six members in this household, consisting of five adults and one little girl. The house is located in the poor area, and it was not easy to find its location. The parents never ask their children to participate in the family food purchase planning; only the mother and sometimes the father plan the food buying. The mother never uses notes or a grocery list; she just remembers in her mind what she needs to buy. TV advertisements and supermarket brochures are the main information source for food buying, which sometimes motivate the mother to buy outside her budget. For the mother, the three most important criteria are: (1) price, (2) taste, and (3) what the children or her husband like. Other observations of families with sons who try to influence or ask for food they want from the mothers are different from this family. This family has two daughters, one is an adult already and the other one is eight years old. Neither of them ever nags or tries to influence the parents to buy the food they want (according to observations during grocery shopping and at home). Even though, based on the survey, the mother declared that the children always tell the mother what to buy, the child said that she tells the mother what to buy only occasionally (sometimes). The mother and youngest daughter are usually responsible for grocery shopping. Both of them do not like it, only doing so because they have to buy the goods, but it is not fun for them. The daughter helps the mother by pushing the shopping cart, taking the goods from the shelves, and putting them on the checkout counter. The mother prepares and cooks food for the family with no help from the children. The children wait for the food preparation by watching TV. Parents (especially the mother) decide what to eat most of the time; when and where to eat are decided by the children. Most of the time, the child eats in front of the TV. She thinks that she helps her parents organize what to buy for the family; the answer from the mother shows a similar result. However, during observation, the mother did not ask the children to participate. Instead of the child, the mother asked the father to plan and decide what the family needed to buy. TV plays an important role in the family; mother and children like to watch TV, and whenever there is an advertisement of new products or products on sale, they always are excited to watch it. The child says "look, there is a new brand of biscuit on sale, also we can get a lunch box if we buy five of them." But at the end, the mother says, "Ah, it's not so important for us. If we buy five (the mother tries to calculate it), it would be the same price as three kilos of rice." The children say they like to watch TV ads, but they understand that the mother does not have much money to buy snacks for them, so they do not wish to nag their parents. The mother prepares and cooks food by herself, and she mentions that her child almost never helps her, although the child thinks that she sometimes help the mother. Overall the score influence from the child and the mother shows similar results even though the score from the child is slightly higher; however, both of them think that the child only acts as the influencer in the family (Table 50).

Table 50. Qualitative results - Family E (Source: author's own creation)

| Family E | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: Organize <br> - Decide <br> - Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother and Me <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Family | - Mother and Child <br> - Mother and Child <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Seldom <br> - Friends, Magazines, Radio | - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Seldom <br> - TV ads, Supermarket brochures |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Picture, color, and form of the food <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart, checkout <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Price, taste, my children/family like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - List items, take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Price, brand, my children/family like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart, checkout <br> - Never <br> - Never |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Often <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Often <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Seldom |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 33 (The Influencer) | 26 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.6 Family F (Table 51)

Family $F$ consists of seven family members: two parents, four adult children, and one little child. The house is located in the poor to middle-income area. The mother is the person responsible for managing the household, with no help or participation from the children. For the mother, the three most important things when buying food items are: (1) The price (including what is on sale), (2) taste, (3) and brand. However, during the survey, the mother said that what her child or family likes becomes her priority.

In responding to what the children want, the mother usually gives permission, but she also gives feedback to the children about what she thinks of the food. The food items requested are those that relate mostly to them, such as milk. Most of the grocery goods are bought by the eldest child, who comes once a month to visit. Other daily goods such as vegetables are bought directly from the traditional market. When the family goes to the supermarket, only the father, mother, one of the daughters, and the youngest son shop for the groceries. During food consumption, the mother prepares and cooks the food on her own without the help from the children. The children are free to decide what, when, and where to eat. The youngest son usually eats in front of TV and at the same time plays with his mobile phone. The results show that the child underestimates his role in the family. He believes that he never decides on what he wants to eat; on the other hand, the mother's results show that the child often can decide what he wants to eat. During the observation, the mother indeed often asked the child what he wanted. The qualitative and quantitative results present similarity in terms of the mother organizing, deciding, and being responsible for the food purchase planning. Supermarket and TV ads are the main food product information source. Taste is considered an important factor for both mother and child when they want to buy the food. The child helps the parents by taking out the goods and putting them onto the check-out counter. The mother goes with her child occasionally for grocery shopping. The child tells the parents what food to buy occasionally. The mother prepares and cooks the meals for the family. Overall the scores from the mother and the child indicate a difference but still they have the same perception that the child is the influencer in the family (Table 51)

Table 51. Qualitative results - Family F (Source: author's own creation)

| Family F | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: <br> - Organize <br> - Decide <br> - Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Always <br> - TV ads | - Mother <br> - Mother and children <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Friends, supermarket, TV ads | - Mother \& eldest child <br> - Mother \& eldest child <br> - Mother \& eldest child <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket ads, TV ads, children |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Taste \& gifts <br> - Sometimes <br> - List items, checkout <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Price, taste, my child /family like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, checkout <br> - Always <br> - Sometimes | - Price, taste, brand <br> - Sometimes <br> - List items, checkout <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Never <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Never <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Never | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Often <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Often <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Often | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Often <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Often <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Often |
| Overall Influence Opinion | No | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 16 (The Influencer) | 29 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.7 Family G (Table 52)

This family consists of two parents and two daughters who live in a small house in the poor to middle-income area. During food purchase planning, the mother sometimes asks the daughters to participate, but in the end only the mother plans the food buying. Most of the time, the mother shops for the groceries spontaneously and does not really plan from home.
For the mother, the most important things when buying the foods are (1) fresh (meats and vegetables), (2) taste, and (3) healthy (milk). The mother insists the food for her children must be healthy, so she does not allow her children to buy snacks. The mother is the decider in food buying, even when the children try to influence the mother and the youngest keeps nagging her. In the end the mother has the final say. For the mother, TV advertisements play a big role in informing her about new products or discounted prices, and the family likes to watch the TV ads. For the family, TV ads give them lots of important information on products so that they are more aware on what is new in the market. The mother usually buys the food items from the traditional market three times a week, and other goods for the household are bought from the supermarket. If she goes to the supermarket, all family members come along; if she goes to the traditional market, she goes alone. The mother often asks the children's opinion first when she wants to buy the food for them and sometimes if she wants to buy the food for the family. During grocery shopping, the daughters help the parents by pushing the shopping cart, taking goods from the shelves, and looking for goods. Sometimes when she buys food, she notices the design of the package and different tastes of the food. The child often asks the mother to get food they like such as cereal or milk but the mother controls it. The mother prepares and cooks food alone without help from other family members. Sometimes when the children have a vacation they help the mother. Children can sometimes decide when, where, and what to eat. The children like to eat in front of TV, which is why the family put a TV in the bedroom and living room. The children like to eat inside their bedrooms and on the bed especially. During food preparation, usually the children watch TV or play with their toys. During the observation, the eldest daughter ate at the dining room table while the youngest ate on her bed in front of the TV. The youngest likes to eat inside her bedroom because there is an air conditioner and a big-screen TV there.

The score from the child indicates that she is the co-decision maker of the parents in deciding what to buy and eat. The child believes that she can always decide what she wants to eat. On the other hand the mother often controls what her children eat; the child can sometimes decide but not all the time. The score from the mother indicates that the child is only an influencer in the family and not as the parents' co-decision maker (Table 52).

Table 52. Qualitative results - Family G (Source: author's own creation)

| Family G | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: <br> - $\quad$ Organize <br> - <br> - <br> Recide <br> - <br> - <br> - Infowed bo about food products | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Family, friends, supermarket | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - My children, supermarket, TV ads | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - My children, supermarket, TV ads |
| Grocery Shopping Important product criteria Shopping frequency Children assist Parents ask children Tell parents what to buy | - Price, picture \& color of food, \& package <br> - Sometimes <br> - List items, take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Taste, my children / family like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Often <br> - Sometimes | - Taste, my children / family like it, fresh \& healthy <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Often <br> - Often |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Always <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Always <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Often | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | No | No |  |
| Influence Score | 36 (Co-decision Maker) | 25 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.8 Family H (Table 53)

This family consists of four members: two parents and two daughters. The family lives in a big, old house in the middle to high-income area. The house is filled with high technology electronic equipment such as three big TVs complete with DVD players and sound systems; the kitchen has a high-tech oven and microwave. The family has two servants who helps the family in the household, including preparing and cooking the food. The mother plans the food buying once a month with her household helper and the youngest daughter seldom participates.

According to the observation, the most important things when the mother buys food for the family are (1) quality, (2) price value, and (3) taste. The qualitative and quantitative research presented similar results in terms of how the mother organizes, decides, and is responsible for buying the food; TV ads are the most important information source for both mother and child; the child occasionally goes grocery shopping with the mother; the child helps the mother during grocery shopping by taking out goods from the shelves, pushing the shopping cart, and putting the goods onto the checkout counter; since the child is relatively spoiled by the mother, the mother always asks the child first before she buys goods for her. Both mother and child said that the mother prepares and cooks the meals for the family; however during the observation the household helper or the maid prepared and cooked the meals. During food purchase planning, the youngest daughter often insists that the mother buy what she wants, and the mother often buys it for the child. When going to supermarket, all family members come along, though the eldest daughter seldom participates since she has her own family. Foods that are bought usually have already been planned from home. During grocery shopping, the youngest daughter actively helps the mother by taking the goods from the shelves, pushing the shopping cart, and putting the goods onto the checkout counter. Sometimes, she influences the mother to buy the food that she wants, such as cereal and soft drinks. When they stand in line waiting for the cashier, she usually takes some candies after asking her mother first. During the food consumption, the servants help the mother prepare and cook the meal. Soup with meat is the favorite menu of the family, since vegetables are not preferred by the daughters. Children have the freedom to choose where they want to eat, so it can be in front of TV or outside. Sometimes, the youngest daughter tries to help prepare the food, but most of the time she plays with her toys or watches TV.

The influence score from both mother and child showed similar results from both parent and child, saying the child was the influencer in the family. However, in the question of overall opinion whether the mother thinks that the child can influence the family in food buying and food consumption, the mother states that the child has no influence. Since the age gap between the first and the second daughter is quite large, the mother spoils the youngest daughter by buying her whatever she wants (Table 53).

Table 53. Qualitative results - Family H (Source: author's own creation)

| Family H | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: <br> - Organize <br> - Decide <br> - Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother and Me <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket, TV ads, newspaper | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Often <br> - Friends, TV ads, others | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Maid <br> - Often <br> - Friends, TV ads, supermarket ads |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Price <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shop cart, checkout counter <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Taste, my children / family like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Taking from shelves, push the shop cart, checkout counter <br> - Always <br> - Sometimes | - Taste, quality, price value <br> - Sometimes <br> - Taking from shelves, push the shop cart, checkout counter <br> - Always <br> - Always |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Never <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Sometimes <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Often <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Often <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Often <br> - Sometimes | - Mother and Maid <br> - Mother and Maid <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes <br> - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | No |  |
| Influence Score | 33 (The Influencer) | 31 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.9 Family I (Table 54)

This family consists of a father, mother, and two children who live in a small house. During food purchase planning, the mother sometimes asks the children to participate, for example, asking what kind of food they want her to cook so she can buy the ingredients for the food. The mother does not use other information sources, except for her friends. Sometimes her friends give recommendations or information about the varieties of products, especially food items. Since her friends are considered the important information source, the mother often easily believes what they tell her, for example if they mention an issue about milk, the mother will stop giving the children milk because of it.

Everything she wants to buy is planned and written once a week. Since the budget for groceries is limited, the mother only buys what the family needs and very seldom buys more than they have planned. For the mother, the most important things when buying food are (1) price, (2) food preferred by the children, and (3) health. Children do not try to insist their parents buy certain foods, since they know their parents do not have enough money to buy everything that they want. Sometimes the eldest child tries to influence the mother, but he will not insist on it. However, when the mother wants to buy food for the children, she will ask the children first. The children help the mother by pushing the shopping cart, making the grocery list, and comparing prices. The family members like to come to the supermarket except for the father.

Based on the observations and interview with the mother, she is the responsible person for preparing and cooking food. The father is involved in food purchase decisions. The results from the child's questionnaire showed that the child always helps the mother in preparing and cooking the food but helps the mother only sometimes during breakfast preparation and not for lunch and dinner. The mother does not allow the children to help her cook because of the smoke from cooking. The mother still feeds the youngest child because it would take too long if the child ate alone. The parents kept asking about nutrition issues concerning issues about milk, corn, egg, mayonnaise, etc. The parents do not know or understand about healthy food; the information from the shopping mall is easily believed concerning current and previous nutrition issues. Instead of giving answers about the related questionnaire topics, they kept asking about these issues. Overall, the family participated and cooperated during the observation. The results showed that the mother underestimates the child's influence with a score of 26 (the influencer) whereas the child overestimates her influence in the family as a co-decision maker with her parents in deciding what to buy and eat (Table 54).

Table 54. Qualitative results - Family I (Source: author's own creation)

| Family I | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: <br> - Organize <br> - Decide <br> - Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother and Me <br> - Myself <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Supermarket | - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Never <br> - Friends | - Mother and Child <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Friends |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Price <br> - Sometimes <br> - List items <br> - Always <br> - Always | - My children / family like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - List items, compare the price <br> - Always <br> - Always | - My children / family like it, price, healthy <br> - Sometimes <br> - List items, compare the price, push cart <br> - Often <br> - Seldom |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Always <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Always <br> - Always <br> - Myself <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Sometimes <br> - Always | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Always <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Always <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Always | - Mother \& Children <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Seldom |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | No |  |
| Influence Score | 41 (Co-decision maker) | 26 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.10 Family J (Table 55)

This family consists of parents and two sons. The family lives in a small house, which they have to share with the family on the husband's side. Everything owned by the family is located inside the bedroom, including the TV, refrigerator, table, food, etc. Since the family from mother's side does not live far from them, most household activity are done in the mother's house. Almost every day after coming back from school, the children take a shower, eat, and do their homework there. Since both parents are busy delivering goods to customers, the children either stay in the grandmother's house until the parents pick them up or they go with the parents the whole day. Whenever they come along, they always eat outside and do their homework in the car or in restaurants. The mother seldom cooks or prepares food at home, since they are always mobile from morning until night. Grocery shopping is conducted by all family members, including the father. When they go to the supermarket, they seldom buy uncooked food (such as vegetables, meat, and eggs). Most of the time, they buy ready-to-eat food and drinks (fried rice, fried chicken, grilled sausage, sweet and salty snacks, soft drinks, and ready-to-drink coffee) and other household necessities (bathroom essentials). They very seldom buy rice and cooking oil, since they eat mostly outside the house. For this family, the most important things when buying foods are: (1) price, (2) taste, and (3) picture of the package. The eldest son often tries to influence the father to get what he wants to buy, whereas the youngest son tries to influence the mother. The parents usually get angry when their sons ask them to buy what they want. Since the father likes to eat salty and sweet snacks, most of the time the children's request to buy such snacks are granted. When they enter the supermarket, both children go directly to the snack shelves and look for what they want to buy. The children help the parents by pushing the shopping cart, taking the goods from the shelves, and taking the goods out to put them onto the checkout counter. The children like to consume cereal, salty and sweet snacks, soft drinks, milk, and noodles. Usually before the goods are paid, the children like to open the goods first, for example biscuits or soft drinks. When the mother cooks, she does not want to be assisted by the children, because they like to mess up the kitchen, making more work for her. During food preparation and eating, the children are busy playing games, and neither parent ever tells them to stop playing and focus on eating. The qualitative and quantitative tests had equal results in terms of parents sometimes allowing what the children want to buy; the mother and father are responsible for buying the food for the family; the supermarket and TV ads are the main source of product information; the child helps the parents browse through circulars in search of products; the mother prepares and cooks breakfast and dinner (occasionally). The influence score from both mother and child shows that the child is the influencer in the family, and most of the decisions are made by the mother and father (Table 55).

Table 55. Qualitative results - Family J (Source: author's own creation)

| Family J | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results <br> (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: Organize Decide Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket, TV ads, friends | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket, TV ads, magazines | - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket, TV ads, newspaper |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Gifts, TV ads <br> - Always <br> - Browsing, take from shelves, checkout counter <br> - Always <br> - Sometimes | - Price, picture of package, taste <br> - Sometimes <br> - Browsing, take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Price, picture of package, taste <br> - Sometimes <br> - Browsing, take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Sometimes <br> - Often |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Preparation <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Grandmother <br> - Grandmother <br> - Never <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother/Restaurants <br> - Mother/Restaurants <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | No |  |
| Influence Score | 30 (The Influencer) | 17 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.11 Family K (Table 56)

This family consists of a father, mother, and one son. They live in a small rental house in the poor to middle-income area. The house has limited furniture: only three chairs, one dining table, and no sofa or place to welcome the guest. They do not really plan the food buying; they just do it spontaneously. They use supermarket brochures, TV ads, and newspapers as their sources of information, and they only buy the main food items. For the family, the most important things when buying food are (1) price and (2) taste. Since the mother works, the household is mostly managed by the father, including taking care of the child. Before the mother goes to work, she buys the foods for the family in the traditional market and then drops it off at home. For the family, going to supermarket is like a family recreation; all members enjoy being there. The son likes to ask for milk, cereal, and snacks, and he sometimes opens the snacks before they pay. Before and after she comes back from work, the mother cooks and prepares the meal for the family. At lunch time, the father picks his son from the school, prepares the meal, and they eat together. While eating, they like to talk to each other. The son tells the father about school or a film that he watched. The son seldom helps the parents in the household; most of the time he watches TV and plays with his toys. The father does not insist the son help him with the chores; he thinks that the son is still too young to help him and that he can do his homework instead. In the afternoon, the mother comes home from work and prepares the meal for the family. She thinks that even though she has little time for the family, she tries her best to prepare a good meal for the family instead of buying from outside. She thinks that the food from outside home is more costly and not hygienic. Therefore she always cooks for the family. The qualitative and quantitative results indicate similarity in terms of the supermarket being the important product information source for the family; taste is considered the important criteria when the family buys food; the child can sometimes participate in grocery shopping (usually during the weekend); the child helps the parents during grocery shopping by taking out the goods from the shelves and pushing the shopping cart; the mother and father prepare the breakfast; the mother prepares and cooks the meal for the family. The influence scores from both parent and child indicate that the child is the influencer in the family, and decisions are mainly decided by the parents. The son believes that he is always or often able to decide what he wants to eat. On the other hand, the results from the mother and observation showed that he might decide what he wants to eat but not all the time. Even though throughout the questionnaire, the child stated that he participates much in the family decision-making process, in the end (in the overall influence opinion part), the child indicated that he does not have influence in the family, whereas the parents think that the son has influence on their decisions (Table 56).

Table 56. Qualitative results - Family K (Source: author's own creation)

| Family K | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: Organize Decide Responsible Allowed by the parents Info about food products | - Mother and Father <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Often <br> - Supermarket | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket, TV ads, newspaper | - Father and Mother <br> - Father and Mother <br> - Father and Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket, TV ads, newspaper |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist Parents ask children Tell parents what to buy | - Price, taste, gifts <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart, checkout <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Picture /form of the food, taste, my children like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Price and taste <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Sometimes <br> - Always |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother and Father <br> - Father and Me <br> - Sometimes <br> - Always <br> - Mother <br> - Don’t know <br> - Never <br> - Often <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Always | - Mother and Father <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes <br> - Father <br> - Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Mother and Father <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Father <br> - Father <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | No | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 31 (The Influencer) | 29 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.12 Family L (Table 57)

This family lives in a big, old house together with eight other family members, so in total there are thirteen family members living in the house. The participant family consists of a father, mother, and three children. The food purchase planning involves the mother and the aunt. Sometimes the children were asked to participate, which they enjoy doing so that they can inform their mother about what they want to buy. They seldom plan the food purchases; most of the time they do it spontaneously. Since the family is big, the grocery shopping is not only for the participant family and therefore takes longer than it does for other families. The mother and the aunt like to see the TV advertisements and brochures from the supermarket, in order to know which products are on sale or what goods are new in the market. For the family, the most important things when buying food are (1) taste, (2) picture, form and color of the food, and (3) family members like it. Children like to ask their mother to buy foods that they want, most of the time the mother allows it after checking. During grocery shopping, the children help the mother by pushing the shopping cart and picking up the foods that they like. The aunt prepares and cooks the food for the family. The mother never teaches them about healthy food or healthy way of eating, which is why most of the family members are considered overweight, even though the father is a doctor. During eating, the child watches TV or plays with his toys. The mother never tells the son to sit at the dinner table or eat first without playing with his toys. The mother gives freedom in what the children eats or buys, where, and when to eat. The mother also likes to spend her time on the sofa watching TV and eats in front of it. That is why the son likes to follow the mother's habits. The mother organizes and decides what she wants for the family, as well as her son, but the housework, including food preparation and cooking is done by the aunt.

The qualitative and quantitative research indicates similarity: TV ads are considered an important information source for the mother and child; the child participates in food buying occasionally; the child helps the parents during grocery shopping by taking out the goods from the shelves and pushing the shopping cart. Overall the score indicates the different role of children in the family. Even though the parents, especially the mother makes many allowances for the children, she thinks that the child is only the influencer in the family, and everything is mainly decided by the mother. The score from the children's questionnaire is 34 , meaning that the child thinks that he is a codecision maker in the family decision-making process, whereas the score influence from the mother is 28 , meaning that the child is the influencer and not the co-decision maker in the family (Table 57).

Table 57. Qualitative results - Family L (Source: author's own creation)

| Family L | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: <br> - Organize <br> - Decide <br> - Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother <br> - Myself <br> - Father <br> - Always <br> - Family, TV ads, internet | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Often <br> - My children, TV ads, newspaper | - Mother \& Aunt <br> - Mother \& Aunt <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Often <br> - TV ads, supermarket brochures |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Price, taste, gifts <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Often <br> - Always | - Picture of the food, my children like it, vitamins <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart, <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Picture of the food, my children like it, taste <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Auntie <br> - Auntie <br> - Never <br> - Always <br> - Auntie <br> - Auntie <br> - Never <br> - Always <br> - Myself <br> - Auntie <br> - Never <br> - Always | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Often <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Often | - Auntie <br> - Auntie <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Auntie <br> - Auntie <br> - Never <br> - Often <br> - Auntie <br> - Auntie <br> - Never <br> - Often |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 34 ( Co-decision Maker) | 28 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.13 Family M (Table 58)

This family of four members lives in a small house in the poor area near the traditional market. There are about ten houses under one roof, where all the houses look more like rooms and are only separated by doors from one house to the other. The mother is responsible for managing the household, and she mostly does not ask the children to participate in any food purchase planning. She asks the children what they want to eat occasionally and then writes the ingredients needed for cooking the food. Their daily food, vegetables and meats, are mostly planned and organized by the mother, but the other household needs such as detergent or rice are planned by the father as well. They use the supermarket ads, TV ads, and magazines as their main sources of information when they plan the food buying, especially for the daily basic needs of the family, such as rice or cooking oil. Some households' needs are typically planned, and some are bought spontaneously by the family. For the family, (1) quality of the food (good quality in reasonable prices), (2) my children like it, and (3) taste are the most important reasons when selecting the food. Children often try to influence their mother to buy what they want, if it is healthy food, such as fruits then the mother will allow it. Most of the time, the foods are bought from the traditional market, and only when the father can come along do they all go to the supermarkets. When the family goes there, the children help the mother by pushing the shopping cart, sometimes opening the food before they even pay for it. Most of the times, during the food preparation and cooking, the children play with their toys. The mother is aware of healthy food and often tells the children about the rich vitamins from the vegetables they eat. For the mother the food has to be fresh, homemade and rich in vitamins. The qualitative and quantitative data present similar results: the mother organizes, decides, and is responsible for food purchase planning; TV ads are an important source when looking for food products for the family; taste is for the mother and child the most important product criterion; the child can sometimes participate in grocery shopping; taking the goods from the shelves and pushing the shopping cart are the type of assistance from the children during grocery shopping; the child sometimes tell the parents what food to buy; mother is responsible for food preparation and cooking the meal for the family. Based on the results, the child believes that she is able to influence her family more than the parents think. The child thinks that she always helps the parents in preparing and cooking the meal from breakfast until dinner, whereas the mother thinks that the child seldom does so. The child also thinks that she is often or always is able to decide what she wants to eat. Overall the score indicates that the child overestimates her influence as a co-decision maker in the family with a score of 48 , whereas the mother thinks that the child can influence the family with the score of 28 , but still the decision is made by the mother (Table 58).

Table 58. Qualitative results - Family M (Source: author's own creation)

| Family M | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: <br> - Organize <br> - Decide <br> - Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Often <br> - TV ads, newspaper, internet | - Mother <br> - Mother and Child <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - TV ads, TV program, magazine | - Mother \& Father <br> - Mother and Child <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - TV ads, magazine, supermarket ads |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Taste, new in market, TV ads <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from the shelves, pushing the shopping cart, checkout <br> - Always <br> - Sometimes | - Price, taste, my children like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Browsing, taking from the shelves, pushing the shopping cart <br> - Always <br> - Sometimes | - Quality, taste, my children like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Browsing, taking from the shelves, pushing the shopping cart <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother and Me <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Always <br> - Often <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Always <br> - Always <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 48 (Co-decision Maker) | 28 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.14 Family $\mathbf{N}$ (Table 59)

This family consists of seven members: a father, mother, four children, and a grandmother. They live in a small house in the poor area near the traditional market, where there is no access for cars to come inside. The mother plans the daily household activities including food purchase planning. She sometimes asks the children to participate in the planning, but only once in a while do the children come and participate. For the mother, the most important things when buying food are that the (1) children like and want to eat it, (2) price, and (3) premiums or gifts from the food industries. Like other participants' families, the mother goes alone to the traditional market, and during the weekend all family members come along to the supermarket. The mother usually buys based on the notes that she planned previously at home, and sometimes she gets attracted to supermarket ads, ending up buying more than she has planned. The mother allows the children to have what they want only when it is related to their daily needs, for example cereal and milk. When they go to supermarkets, they usually go together with the neighbor, because the neighbor has a car. When the children are inside the supermarket, they usually look, ask, and sometimes go to different sections from their parents. They also help the parents by pushing the shopping cart. During shopping, the children like to open the food, such as ice cream or soft drinks before paying. In the consumption process, the mother is responsible for preparing and cooking the food for the family. Parents are not aware of healthy eating habits, for them as long as the children like the food, then the parents will buy or cook it for them. What and where are sometimes decided by the mother, but when to eat is decided by the children. Sometimes the children help the mother set up the table for dinner, but often they wait for the food by watching TV or playing with their toys. For lunch, the children are in school, so they do not help the mother in preparing and cooking the meal. While eating, the children and the parents keep talking and watching TV. The qualitative and quantitative research presented similar results: the mother organizes, decides, and is responsible for food purchase planning; TV ads give the family information about food products; price is considered an important product criterion when buying and selecting the food item; the child participates in grocery shopping occasionally; the child assists the mother during grocery shopping by taking the goods from the shelves; the mother prepares and cooks the meal for the family.

Overall, the influence score indicates that both mother and child agree that the child can influence their family decision-making process. Interestingly here, the mother overestimates the child's influence and she thinks that the child is the co-decision maker of the family, whereas the child thinks that he is an influencer in the family, and here he is underestimating his role in the family (Table 59).

Table 59. Qualitative results - Family N (Source: author's own creation)

| Family $\mathbf{N}$ | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results <br> (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: Organize <br> - Decide <br> - Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Mother and Me <br> - Never <br> - TV Ads | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket, TV ads, newspaper | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket, TV ads, newspaper |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Price, gifts, new in the market <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from the shelves <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Price, my child likes it <br> - Sometimes <br> - List items, take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Price, my child likes it, premiums/gifts <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Sometimes <br> - Always |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Children <br> - Mother <br> - Always <br> - Always <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Always <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Never <br> - Always | - Mother \& Children <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Seldom <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother \& Children <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 26 (The Influencer) | 36 (Co-decision Maker) |  |

### 2.1.15 Family O (Table 60)

This family consists of parents and one son who live in a small, old house full of things inside. Most of the time, the food buying is done spontaneously and not written or planned. When the mother plans it, she will ask the child to participate. For the mother, the most important things when buying food are (1) price, (2) taste, and (3) safety, though based on the observation, the brand of the food products is seen as an important factor for the family when buying the products. When the child asks for something, the mother checks what he wants, and if it is healthy, she will allow it.

Daily household necessities such as vegetables and meats are bought in the traditional market almost daily and other necessities are bought in the supermarket. For the mother when they go to supermarket and bring the son, usually they buy outside what they have planned before. In the supermarket, the child helps the mother by pushing the shopping cart and getting the food he wants such as milk and snacks. While the mother is busy reading the supermarket ads, the father waits outside the supermarket.

For the food consumption process, the mother cooks food for the family, and during holidays the father and the son help in food preparation. Since the family does not have a dinner table, the family eats everywhere, such as in the kitchen by standing, bedroom, or on a sofa in front of the TV.

Based on the survey and observation findings, supermarket brochures and TV ads play a big role in informing the family about the food products (They inform the family about new products, discount prices, and special promotions; the child comes along with the family to grocery shop occasionally; the child assists the parents by taking out goods from the shelves and pushing the shopping cart; the father is involved in food purchase planning and the consumption process; the mother and father prepare and cook the dinner; price is very important for the family, so they are very careful to not spend money for unnecessary products.

Overall the scores from the mother and child show different perspectives. The child thinks that he always or often is able to decide what he wants to eat and always helps the mother in preparing the meal. This is why his score is higher than his mother's. The child believes that he is a co-decision maker in his family, whereas the mother thinks that the child is an influencer in the family, meaning the parents still mostly decide in the family decisionmaking process (Table 60).

Table 60. Qualitative results - Family O (Source: author's own creation)

| Family 0 | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: <br> - Organize <br> - Decide <br> - Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother <br> - Father <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Supermarket, TV ads, internet | - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Often <br> - Supermarket, TV ads, TV program | - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Supermarket brochures, TV ads, newspaper |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Picture/form/color of the food, gifts <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from the shelves, push the shopping cart <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Price, taste, safe <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart, checkout <br> - Always <br> - Often | - Price, taste, brands <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart, checkout <br> - Sometimes <br> - Often |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother and Child <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Always <br> - Always <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother <br> - Always <br> - Often <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 42 (Co-decision Maker) | 26 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.16 Family P (Table 61)

This family consists of parents and two daughters. The house is relatively small and located in the poor area. Usually only the mother plans the food buying, but the father sometimes joins in on the food purchase planning. The mother decides what to buy for the family. She thinks that it is her and the father's responsibility to plan the food buying. The children are never asked to participate in the food purchase planning. The food purchase planning is usually written on notes and planned in the living room. For the mother, what her children like, what her friends tell her, and what is presented on TV ads can give important information sources for buying the groceries. Children often ask and try to influence the mother, but in the end the mother decides whether or not to buy what the children want.

For the family, the most important things when buying food are (1) price, (2) what my children / family like, (3) brands. Similar to other participating families, the daily foods are bought in the traditional market by the mother, and the other groceries are bought in the supermarket together with other family members. When the mother wants to buy food for the children, she asks them first, otherwise the children will not eat it. During grocery shopping in the supermarket, the children behave nicely and ask the mother first if they want something. The children help the mother by taking the goods from the shelves, listing the grocery items, and pushing the shopping cart. The children like to buy biscuits, chocolates, and chips. During grocery shopping, the children often tell the parents to buy food for them. Most of the food preparation is done by the mother alone, and only seldom do the children help the mother. The mother decides mostly when, what, and where to eat for the daily meal, except for breakfast. Children can sometimes decide what they want to eat by asking their mother for what they want to eat the next day.

The qualitative and quantitative results present similarities: the mother organizes and decides on the food purchase planning, the father and mother are responsible for it, parents occasionally allow the children to have what they want; family and TV ads are the important information sources for food products; price is a very important criterion for the family; the child assists the parents during grocery shopping by listing the items and pushing the shopping cart; the mother prepares and cooks the meal for the family; and the child can sometimes decide what he wants to eat for lunch and dinner. The influence score presents different results, where the child overestimates her influence as the co-decision maker of the family with a score of 36 . On the other hand, the mother thinks that the child is an influencer in the family with a score of $\mathbf{2 7}$. The mother believes that the child can influence the family decision-making process, but the decision is made mostly by the mother or father (Table 61).

Table 61. Qualitative results - Family P (Source: author's own creation)

| Family P | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: <br> - Organize <br> - Decide <br> - Responsible <br> - Allowed by the parents <br> - Info about food products | - Mother and Me <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Family, supermarket, TV ads | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - My children, friends, TV ads | - Mother and Father <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Father <br> - Sometimes <br> - Family, TV ads |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist <br> - Parents ask children <br> - Tell parents what to buy | - Price, new in the market <br> - Always <br> - List items, browsing, push the shopping cart <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Price, my children like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - List items, pushing the shopping cart <br> - Often <br> - Often | - Price, my family, brands <br> - Sometimes <br> - List items, pushing the shopping cart, take from the shelves <br> - Often <br> - Often |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Always <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Often <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Often <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | No | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 36 (Co-decision Maker) | 27 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.1.17 Family Q (Table 62)

This family consists of four members: the father, mother, and two children. The house of the family is very small and located in the poor area. The house is filled with lots of stuff, and they even put the motorcycle inside the house near the dining table. The mother buys the groceries most of the time together with the maid spontaneously. Most of the time, the mother uses TV ads and supermarket brochures as information sources for buying goods. TV ads and supermarket brochures present current information about food products so that the family is aware of what is new in the market or which product is on sale.

For the family, the most important things when buying food are (1) price (on sale), (2) taste, and (3) friends' recommendations. Both parents work, but the mother works only part time. When she plans to buy the food, usually she plans it from her workplace. Grocery shopping involves all family members except for the youngest, who is still a baby. Most of the food is bought from the traditional market, and two times a week the family buys other household goods come from the supermarkets. During grocery shopping, the son likes to push the shopping cart and take out his favorite foods (milk, snacks, and cereal) from the shelves. He likes to promote his favorite food or products that he saw from TV ads. While the parents wait at the checkout counter line, the son likes to take candies, chocolates, or soft drinks near the counter desk.

In the consumption process, the mother decides mostly what to cook and the maid prepares and cooks the food for the family. The son can sometimes decide what he wants to eat. For breakfast and dinner, the child can choose when and where to eat, but lunch is mostly decided by the mother. During food preparation, the mother likes to ask the son what to put in the food, but the son only looks and does not help the mother. The son does not like to be in the kitchen, which is why he never helps his mother during food preparation. The family likes to serve eggs, chicken nuggets, sausages, or noodles to the son, because the mother knows that the son does not like to eat vegetables. The child likes to eat in the bedroom, since the dining table is full of food items and other things. In the bedroom, the son can enjoy his food while watching his favorite cartoon movies.

The qualitative and quantitative research presents equal results: mother organizes, decides, and is responsible for planning the food buying; price is a very important product criterion when the family buys food products; the child is involved in grocery shopping occasionally. Overall, the results show that the child thinks he is the codecision maker of his family with a score of 42 , whereas the mother thinks the son can only influence the food decision-making process with the score of $\mathbf{2 4}$, and the decision is mostly made by the parents, especially the mother (Table 62).

Table 62. Qualitative results - Family Q (Source: author's own creation)

| Family Q | Quantitative Results (Questionnaire) |  | Qualitative Results <br> (Observation \& Interview) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Child | Parent |  |
| Food Purchase Planning: Organize Decide Responsible Allowed by the parents Info about food products | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Often <br> - Family, newspaper, others | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Sometimes <br> - My children, TV ads, magazines | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Mother and Maid <br> - Sometimes <br> - TV ads, supermarket brochures |
| Grocery Shopping <br> - Important product criteria <br> - Shopping frequency <br> - Children assist Parents ask children Tell parents what to buy | - Price <br> - Sometimes <br> - Checkout counter <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Price, taste, my children like it <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart, promotes food that they like <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes | - Price, taste, friends recommend <br> - Sometimes <br> - Take from shelves, push the shopping cart, promotes food that they like <br> - Sometimes <br> - Sometimes |
| Consumption Process <br> Breakfast <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Lunch <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide <br> Dinner <br> - Prepare <br> - Cook <br> - Frequently help parents <br> - Able to decide | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Always <br> - Always <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Always <br> - Always <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Always <br> - Always | - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes <br> - Maid <br> - Mother <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Mother <br> - Mother <br> - Seldom <br> - Sometimes | - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes <br> - Maid <br> - Maid <br> - Never <br> - Sometimes |
| Overall Influence Opinion | Yes | Yes |  |
| Influence Score | 42 (Co-decision Maker) | 24 (The Influencer) |  |

### 2.2 Evaluation of the Qualitative Results (Ethnographic research)

The aim of conducting ethnographic research is to observe the real situation of the family and to test the results from the quantitative study, whether the quantitative results were consistent or inconsistent with the qualitative result. Through ethnographic research, the 'why' and 'how' of the children's and parents' behavior can be better explained.

The ethnographic research involves 17 families from 150 survey families. Most of the participating children were 8 years old ( $\mathrm{N}=8$ from 17 children); 5 children were 7 years old, 3 children were 9 years old, and 1 child was 10 years old. It shows that most of them were in the analytical stage, where their consumer skills and knowledge are more developed. Children in the analytical stage demonstrate more thoughtfulness in their choices, considering more than just their own perception, and they are able to utilize a decision strategy that seems to make sense in their environment. Consequently, children are more flexible in the approach they take in making the decisions, allowing them to be more adaptive, open and responsive toward their environment's perceptions and thoughts. The majority of participating parents were in the age between $41-50$ years old ( $\mathrm{N}=10$ from 17 parents); 5 parents were between 4150 years old; 1 parent was between $20-30$ years old; and 1 parent was older than 50 . Even though the number of participants in this ethnographic study was lower than expected, the participants' families were pleasantly willing to cooperate in the study. Their responses were better than expected. Throughout the interview, the parents were eager to ask about healthy food and how to improve their children's nutrition. Some parents thought what they gave to their children was good and healthy. After the interviews and observations were conducted, magazines and books about nutrition and healthy living were distributed to the parents.

The main results from the ethnographic research were as follows:

1) Most of the parents, especially the mothers are responsible for buying, preparing, and cooking for the family, and they were the role model for their children, therefore it is very important for them to develop their awareness of healthy food so that they can provide healthy meals for their family, especially for their children. Their understanding of healthy foods was still inadequate; they thought that the meaning of healthy food is when they eat at home. It doesn't matter what the food is as long as it is homemade, then it is healthy. Another fallacy was that healthy living means when the children eat lots of meat so they become strong and healthy. Parents were also informed about the importance of buying, preparing, and cooking together with their children. Children can learn about the content of food while sharing time together with their parents. Therefore, the parents' position as good role models for their children in terms of selecting the right food is to be expected. After the interview, parents admitted that they became better informed and more aware of healthy food; they also become more responsive towards the meaning of children's influence in the family decisionmaking process.
2) Children were found seldom to help their parents during food purchase planning and the consumption process; they helped their parents mostly during grocery shopping (push the shopping cart or by taking out the goods from the shelves).
3) Children influenced their parents directly and indirectly. Children could sometimes decide what they wanted to buy and eat, and parents also knew about their children's preference in terms of what, where, and when to eat. The parents did not have to ask their children first about what they want, because they thought they knew already. The majority of the children were allowed to decide when and where to eat, and they preferred to eat in front of the TV or in the bedroom. Children were mostly able to select what they wanted to eat for breakfast, but less so for lunch or dinner.
4) Children exert influence mainly on meals that are easy to prepare such as cereal for breakfast and less so on lunch or dinner meals. Since meals for lunch and dinner in Indonesia are considered complicated (lots of ingredients and not easy to cook), and children have limited knowledge of food ingredients and various meals usually served at lunch or dinner, these meals are decided upon by the mothers.
5) Price seems to be the most important factor for the families. During grocery shopping and food purchase planning (when they search for product information), price sticks out in their (parents as well as children) minds first.
6) TV advertisements and supermarket brochures are important sources for the mothers and the children. Watching TV ads daily encourages the families to purchase products, especially when the product is new in the market.
7) Mothers and children enjoy grocery shopping as well as watching TV. During the grocery shopping, children enjoy exploring and tasting the new product samples available in the supermarket, whereas the mothers enjoy talking with the sales personnel from several food industries. During observation, the TV is mostly switched on and became a companion for the children while waiting for the meal.

During the house observation, the observer could take pictures and record a video of the family; however, during the grocery shopping, since most of them were conducted in the supermarket, videos or cameras were not allowed inside. For the house observation, the observer took pictures that described the situation of the house in terms of location of food preparation and where the family eats, what kind of food they eat, the behavior of the children during eating and food preparation, and also the process of food preparation. The observer could also take pictures and video during the survey at school. At school, the observer took pictures during the surveys of what material was used for the survey, who participated, how many children were in each class room, and how they behaved during the survey. The
pictures of the houses from the families and schools are also captured in order to support the information background of the family. Overall, the ethnographic study received good and responsive feedback from the schools and participants' families. The combination of interviews and observations made it possible to investigate in detail everyday decision making about food from the perspective of both children and parents.

## 3 Comparison between Quantitative and Qualitative Results

Even though the quantitative and qualitative methods represented different stages in the research process, they were not carried out independently of each other but integrated with each other. Each method was designed and undertaken based on preceding findings. The qualitative method through ethnographic research made use of the quantitative results in comparing and evaluating the perception of the family from the survey and what the actual behavior during the observation with the family. The results from the ethnographic research presented the real situation of the family, which was not defined by the survey; whereas the survey results provided information on which the researcher should focus more during the observations and interviews, and confirmed which research hypotheses were valid and which ones should be rejected. The research findings by combining both methods are as follows:

1) The qualitative method (direct observation and semi-structured interviewing) was applied to test and prove the reliability of information from the results of the quantitative method (survey: standardized questionnaires). By evaluating the results from both qualitative and quantitative method, it can be summarized that the answers from the parents (through the parents' questionnaire) were more similar to the findings from the observation results (ethnographic research) compared to the children's answers. In other words, the parents' answers give a factual picture of the family decision-making process. The answers from the children show hardly any similarities with the observation results (Tables 46-62). It might be the case that the children did not get involved during the decision-making process, therefore their answers would present dissimilarities to the observation results. Compared to parents, children believed that they had more influence, that parents often or always asked the children first prior to buying food for the children and that the children often or always told their parents what food to buy (based on quantitative results). Most children thought that they were the co-decision maker, whereas most parents thought that the children were the influencers in the family. These results indicate that children overestimate their influence, which supports the prediction of the study and supports the research findings from the qualitative method. Based on the qualitative research, children gained some limited influence, indicating that they carried out the role of an influencer rather than being a codecision maker. Children thought that they participated or were involved during the process. Hence the real situation from the observation showed different findings.

## 2) With regard to the research hypothesis, the results show the following:

- Age and gender of the children affect their degree of influence on family decisionmaking in food buying and consumption processes.
- The older the children, the bigger the influence they have on their families' decision making (the results confirmed the hypothesis).
- Girls have more influence than boys in the families' decision making (the results confirmed the hypothesis).

The quantitative research involves 10 boys and 7 girls, most of whom were between 7 and 8 years old. During the observation, be they either boys or girls, younger or older children, they seldom or never helped the mothers prepare or cook the meals. During grocery shopping, both boys and girls helped the parents, for example by pushing the shopping cart. However, boys tended to help their parents for a short period; after seeing things that attracted them (such as food promotion or games) they would separate from the parents. Girls provided more helps than boys, whereas boys were usually busy looking for food for themselves or searching for toys and games rather than staying with their parents. Therefore girls were more involved in the decision-making process during grocery shopping. Older children were more involve in the joint decision-making process, where the parents would ask the older children's opinion when selecting a product. These results supported and confirmed the quantitative results that girls have more influence than boys (mainly in food buying and less in the consumption process), and older children have a bigger influence in family decision making.

- Household income has a modest effect on children's influence in the family decision-making process.
- Children from high-income families have more influence on planning the food for the family rather than children from low or middle-income families.
- Children from high-income families show more responsibility in helping the parents cook or prepare lunch for the family rather than children from low or middle-income families.

However, there are no influence or responsibility differences between children of either high, medium, or low income levels, when it comes to deciding what food to buy and eat, who is responsible for buying the food, preparing and cooking the meal, or helping the parents cook breakfast and dinner. The results indicated that even if income plays a role in the family decision-making process, the correlation between income levels and the degree of influence or responsibility from the children is considered relatively modest. One possible reason is that the income level of the participants' parents is not equally distributed; low-income parents comprised more than half the number of the participants and therefore the results of this study were affected. From the observation and interview with the parents (mostly involving low-
income families), children could not decide what food was bought because the budget for grocery shopping was limited, and therefore parents decided mostly.

- Occupation of the mother, education of the parents, parenthood, ethnicity, and family size do not affect the degree of children's influence on family decision making in food buying and consumption processes.
- Children from employed mothers have more influence on their families' decisionmaking (the results reject the hypothesis). Based on the qualitative research, children from employed mothers are being taken care of by other adults in the household such as the household helpers, and children from unemployed mothers (housewives) do not get involved in the food buying and consumption processes, because their mothers provide well for them.
- Children from high education parents have more influence on their families' decision making (the results reject the hypothesis). Most ethnographic respondents attained a high school degree, and only a few attained a Bachelor's or Master's degree. Based on the qualitative research, whether or not children come from high or low education parents, they seldom participate in family decision making, especially during the consumption process. Mainly parents organize and decide the food purchase planning and consumption processes.
- Children from single-parent families have more influence on their families' decision making than children from dual-parent families (the results reject the hypothesis) The qualitative results show that children from single-parent family are being taken care of by their grandmothers, and children from dual-parent families are being taken care of by the mother; therefore children have no contribution in the food buying and consumption process.
- The ethnic background of the family has an influence in deciding whether the children can or cannot influence their families' decision making (the results reject the hypothesis). The quantitative research applies language ability as an indicator of the ethnic background, however this might not be a suitable indicator, and therefore the significant level between the factors are considered weak. The qualitative research involves children from different ethnic backgrounds (Chinese, Bataknese, and Javanese) and presented a similar result to the quantitative results that ethnic background of the family does not have an effect on the children's influence. Children do not get involved during the food purchase planning and consumption processes, however they participate during food buying (grocery shopping). Hence there is no difference in influence between children from different ethnic backgrounds.
- The fewer children in the household, the more influence the child has in family's decision-making (the results reject the hypothesis). The qualitative research
involved parents with one to five children in the family. The qualitative results supported the quantitative results that the fewer children in the household, the more influence they have in deciding what food they want to buy for the family. The results from both methods show the same results as other factors of food buying and the consumption process: there are no influence or responsibility differences between children from big or small families.


## 3) From the research design perspective (Figure 5):

In the primary data part, a mixed-method empirical design combines quantitative and qualitative approaches. The purpose of using this mixed-method approach is to define clearly the similarities and differences in the perspectives of both parents and children regarding the decision-making process in terms of food buying and food consumption in the family. The major similarity from parents' and children's perspectives is that they agree that the mother is the one who organizes, decides, is responsible for food purchase planning, and prepares and cooks for the dinner. The main difference is that the children overestimate their influence in the family in terms of their ability to decide what they want to eat and their role in the family, whereas the parents underestimate the children's influence in the family. Parents think that the child might influence their decision-making process in food purchase planning and consumption; however, the 'last word' is held by the parents.

The secondary data from previous research concerning children's influence in the family were applied in order to gain initial insight into the research, provide a useful background to the study, and identify the key questions and issues that would be addressed by the primary research. The academic textbooks (Principles of Marketing, from Kotler 2010, and Consumer Behavior, from ASSAEL 1995) gave a constructive theoretical background concerning children's influence in the family, which was needed for developing the questionnaire and observing the families. The publications and journals identified the issues and presented information on the previous and current situations of children's influence in the family.

Both sources of data were not carried out independently but were integrated with each other. The primary data used the literature review (secondary data) in order to define its topic and the factors needed to be included in the observation and interviews. Likewise, the literature review provided the basis for the design and focus of the survey. The ethnographic study, for example, made use of the literature review in order to define the topics to be included in the direct observation and semi-structured interviewing.

## 4 Summary

Two methods, quantitative and qualitative, were utilized in conducting the research about children's influence on the family decision-making process. The purpose of using both methods in the triangulation scheme is to link the different perspectives from the parents and the children; at the same time the different aspects within the family decision-making process can be evaluated. The combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a greater range of insights and perspectives; improves the overall validity of results, and makes the study of greater use to the constituencies to which it was intended to be addressed (MAXWELL 1998). The qualitative method, either interviews or ethnographic observations play a role in testing out the underlying conditions and motivations that explain the differences that have been surveyed between family members. Participants often misreport their data background during the surveys; therefore through qualitative study, the actual situations of the family can be analyzed transparently. The result from ethnographic research present the real situation of the family, which are not defined on the survey; whereas the survey result provides the information that the researcher should be more focus on during the observation and interview, as well as to confirm which research hypothesis is verified and which one should be rejected. The quantitative method draws the empirical conclusions about an entire population based on a sample. The quantitative research was conducted first followed by the qualitative research. The quantitative research involved 300 participants consisting of 150 children and 150 parents; whereas the qualitative research involved 17 families. The results from combining these two research methods are: 1) Children have influence on the family decision-making process both directly and indirectly, mostly during food buying and less during consumption process; 2) Age and gender play a significant role in the degree of children's influence. Older children have a bigger influence than younger children. Parents involved older children in joint decision making. Girls have more influence than boys in the family. Girls tend to offer their help more than boys during grocery shopping; 3) Household income has a modest effect on children's influence on the family decision-making process; 4) Occupation and education from the parents, as well as parenthood, ethnic and family size do not affect the degree of children's influence on the family decision-making process; 5) Children overestimate their influence, whereas parents underestimate the children's influence in the family; 6) Most of the parents, especially the mothers are the responsible person in buying, preparing, and cooking for the family; 7)Price is an important factor for the family in selecting the product they want to purchase; 8) TV advertisements and supermarket brochures are the important information sources for the family. Primary and secondary data support and integrated each other. The primary data uses the secondary data to define its topic and the factors needed to be included in the observation and interviews. The primary data provides the information which is not yet given by the secondary data and presents the answers tailored for the study purposes.

## V DISCUSSION

In the context of this study, the influence and involvement of children in the family during food buying and the consumption decision-making process in relation to the socioeconomic and demographic background of the family are defined and analyzed. The data was taken from three elementary schools located in the housing district in Jakarta, which involved 150 families consisting of 150 children and 150 parents.

In this chapter, the methodological approach through data collection will be discussed. Then, the results based on the socioeconomic and demographic status of the family will be examined, while other results concerning the most selected answers by children and their parents will be explained. Furthermore, the results from other studies will be compared to the results from this study.

## 1 Methodological Approach by Data Collection

The main focus of this study was to examine the behavior and attitude of children from different socioeconomic statuses (SES) and socio-demographic statuses (SDS) in terms of their participation and influence in family decision making during food buying and consumption. The selection area for the research was planned to cover three different social income statuses, low, middle and high, in an equal amount of participants. However during the research, various difficulties were found concerning unwillingness to participate (long process of bureaucracy and indistinct responses) from the schools where the majority of the children came from high-income families. Furthermore, most high-income families tend to be unresponsive (void answers in the questionnaire and a disregarding attitude) toward the study compared to low-income families. Therefore, the low-income families dominated the number of participants with only few being from middle and high-income families.

At present, there are several methods of collecting data with regard to consumer and buying behavior of people in general. However, only few methods are applicable in examining the influence from children in the family. In this study, a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches was applied. The quantitative method was used to verify and test the hypotheses of the research, for example by using the questionnaire. By doing this, information about what, where, and when during the food-buying and consumption process could be attained. The questionnaire for both parents and children contained closed-ended questions, where the respondents' answers were limited to multiple choices. The qualitative method was applied in order to achieve a better understanding of how the children participate and influence their families in the decision-making process. Also, the real situation of the
participant families could be directly observed, analyzed, and compared to the results from the quantitative study. The qualitative method examined the why and how in decision making. It applied direct observation and semi-structured interviewing. In contrast to the questionnaires, the interviews used open-ended questions as a way of encouraging the respondents to explain their answers, giving the interviewer an opportunity to observe their reactions to the questions being asked of them. Through these two methods (quantitative and qualitative), the data for this study could be collected.

### 1.1 Participants in the Study

The participants were recruited randomly based on the following criteria: (1) the family has at least one child aged 6 to 9 years old; (2) the participant's parents are responsible for food buying and the consumption process in the family, so it can be the mothers, the fathers, or other adults in the household. If the family had two children between these ages, then only one child could participate. All participants' children were enrolled in the second to fourth grade in elementary schools located in the housing district in Jakarta, whose parents came from low to high-income social status.

In total there were 150 children and 150 parents (from 150 families) who contributed to this study, and 17 families agreed to participate further in the ethnographic study. Most of the participants' parents were mothers, since they were the ones responsible for food buying, preparing, and cooking in the family. Out of 150 children: 80 were girls ( $53.37 \%$ ) and 70 were boys ( $46.67 \%$ ). Compared to boys, more girls participated in the study, and more participants were mothers than fathers (please refer to Table 20).

The number of participants was precisely as expected; however, the social level distribution of the family was different than what was estimated. Whereas the families with a low-income status cover more than half of the participants ( $77.33 \%$ ), families with medium income consisted of $15.33 \%$, and families with a high-income status comprised only $7.33 \%$ (please refer to Table 20).

The age of the participants' children was required to be from 6 to 9 years old, however some children were found to be either younger or older than the age required, even when they were enrolled in the same grade. Most children were between 7 years ( $30.67 \%$ ) and 8 years old ( $38.67 \%$ ). The age range from the participants' parents started from 20 to more than 50 years old, where more than half $(50.67 \%)$ of them were between 31 and 40 years old. Most of the parents are housewives or housemen (41.33\%), and they attended school mostly until senior high ( $38.67 \%$ ). The majority of the children came from dual-parent families, and a few came from single-parent ones (Table 20).

### 1.2 Discussion of the Children's Questionnaire

The written questionnaires were distributed in the classroom, which can be considered as an ideal data collection method for the school survey (WALTER 2011). There were various advantages to distributing the questionnaires in the classroom: 1) the children were motivated to answer the questionnaires when they saw their friends all around doing it; 2) the teachers could motivate and lead the children into answering the questionnaires; 3) it instilled trust in the parents that the questionnaires were allowed by the schools; 4) it was time-efficient (in 1 hour, 40 questionnaires could be gathered, rather than doing it individually).

When interpreting the data from the questionnaire, it is important to notice that the information concerning self-perception, self-knowledge, and capacity of remembering depends on each individual. Each individual, especially children, cannot be considered to be like everyone else, since each of them has his or her own character and different family background. Inaccuracy from data interpretation from this study might occur, which is defined as "misreporting" or "over or under-reporting" (LIVINGSTONE et al. 2004, BARANOWSKI AND DOMEL 1994).

In analyzing the attitude and behavior of the children, some issues might not be covered in the questionnaires. Therefore, Kroeber-Riel and Weinberg (2003) suggested a combination technique, such as repeating the questionnaires and defining more specifically other possible factors. Based on various difficulties such as time limitations (time given by the participants' families and schools) and the cognitive ability of children, repeating the questionnaires unfortunately had to be rejected.

### 1.3 Discussion of the Parents' Questionnaire

The parents' questionnaires needed to be filled out at home for several reasons. One important factor is that the parents have more time to fill out the questionnaires there and more time to think about the answers. Moreover, the questionnaires are more trustworthy since the school principals or school authorities signed the cover letter of the surveys.

The questionnaires were pre-tested, using some techniques: via telephone and at school while waiting for their children. Parents who were asked per telephone usually became impatient (consider that the questionnaires contain more than 30 questions); could not really concentrate on the questions (they usually had to be repeated 2 to 3 times); a high cost was incurred for telephone payments; and it was time-consuming ( 1 participant parent took about 30 minutes). Similar to these reasons, questionnaires distributed at school while waiting for the children to finish did not work. The parents were usually unwilling to cooperate since the weather was very hot and since most of them have to stand up due to no available chairs. Furthermore,
most of the parents were busy talking with each other and had no time for surveys (as mentioned by most of them).

This was in contrast to the study of WALTER (2011). In her study the questionnaires for the parents were asked via telephone. She claimed that it was time-efficient and gave good data quality. However, the study had being introduced previously at the parent-teacher conference prior to the telephone surveys being conducted. Therefore, the parents were more aware of the study and of the persons who were going to conduct the telephone surveys.

The parents' questionnaires were needed for comparison to the answers from their children and in order to evaluate their perceptions towards their children's influence in the family. However there were some parents who were unwilling to participate in the surveys and therefore the questionnaires from their children were not accepted for the study, since both children's and parents' answers were required in order to evaluate the data.

### 1.4. Discussion of the Ethnographic Study (Case Studies)

The ethnographic study utilized direct observation and semi-structured interviews with the families. Direct observation means that the observer does not get involved in the life of the family. The direct observer tries to be as inconspicuous as possible in order to avoid biasing perceptions in the observation. According to Trochim (2006), it is different from participant observation, since the researcher "watches" only rather than "gets involved" in the observed situation. This is an applicable method in order to avoid a foregone conclusion and get real facts in the observed situations.

The semi-structured interview was considered to be a supportive method for the direct observation and for the survey. It could help the researcher gain more information than was explained in the survey and clarify unclear situations during the observation.

The number of the participants' families who were willing to be involved in the ethnographic study was less than expected; however, in total there were 17 families who were willing to cooperate. Parents, especially mothers, were eager to improve their family's eating habits and were curious about being healthy. Parents realized that they wanted the best for their children in terms of health as well as taste. During the interview, parents as well as children were found to be lacking in knowledge about healthy eating, food information, and children's roles in the family. For most families, as long as they bought at the traditional market and as long as it was home cooked, it could be considered healthy food. Since food information (such as food ingredients or content) are not really required by the right authorities such as the government or schools, their knowledge of food information was limited to the information from TV ads or supermarket brochures. Children's roles in the family were also overlooked or neglected. By involving the children in the food buying and consumption processes,
children could learn to be wise in selecting food and understanding the value of the whole process of food buying and consumption.

## 2 Discussion of the Results

In the following context, the results study of the children's influence in the family decisionmaking process in Jakarta, Indonesia, together with the findings from previous studies, will be discussed. In order to have a better understanding of the overall results of the study, it is essential to present the discussion in chronological order. First, the content of this study will be discussed and then continue to the discussion of methods of the study.

Before the discussion begins, it is important to keep in mind that this study does not represent the whole children's population in Jakarta. The results of this study are based on the children's and parents' characteristics of the concerned schools and families.

### 2.1 Discussion of the Socioeconomic Status (SES)

## Income

The study found that 116 ( $77.33 \%$ ) out of 150 parents were in the low-income bracket. This amount exceeds far more than half of the participants, and only a few parents had a high income level. Statistics found that there is a significant relation between income and food planner (children), with the P value $=0.006$. Children from high-income families have more influence on planning the food for the family. Children from high-income families also believe that they participate in helping prepare lunch. The income level of the household is needed to support the results from the study. Jenkins (1979) stated that the children's influence is greater when the income from the family is higher. Roberts ET AL. (1981) found that the family's financial status affected the degree to which mothers perceived the children as having influenced purchase decisions. Correspondingly, another study by ATKIN (1978) also found that children from the middle class initiated the purchase of cereal more than children from the working class. This lends further acceptance to the hypothesis that middleclass children might be included in the family decision-making process more than children from low-income families. EKSTROM ET AL. (1987) stated that families with higher socioeconomic backgrounds may provide better chances for influence and may be more open to their children's opinions. It appears that children from upper and middle-class families are more likely to behave in a way that involves more active and direct participation in family purchase decision making, and as a result they will gain more advanced consumer skills. Ekstrom et al. (1987) also stated that children from a higher social status are permitted to express their opinions more, and for that reason they exert more influence in the family decision-making process. This study found that children from high income families are able to express their opinions during the food planning. Hence, the correlation between income levels and the degree of influence or responsibility from the children is considered relatively
modest. One possible reason is that the distribution of the income level of the participants' parents is not equal, where the low-income parents dominated the number of participants, and therefore the results of the study were affected.

DIENER (1993) points out that people with more money can afford to hire others to help them. Parents with a higher income level can afford to hire somebody to buy, prepare, and cook for the family. Therefore, the children do not have to be responsible for taking care of household activities. Moreover, higher-income parents might be more selective in choosing the food for their children, which would mean that children have less influence in deciding what food to buy and eat.

## Occupation

The plurality of participants' parents are housewives or housemen ( 62 parents or $41.33 \%$ of the participants' parents), while many of their partners work in other fields not mentioned on the list, for instance doctors, teachers, or soldiers, with a total of 39 parents or $26 \%$. Only a few parents and their partners had higher, senior-level positions such as CEO. Children who were enrolled in the international school came mostly from high-income families where the parents either owned a company or had a senior-level position. On the other hand, children from the other two private national schools came from low to middle-income families, whose parents were either unemployed or worked in low-level positions such as drivers or labor workers. Studies show that the increasing proportion of women in the workplace makes it more likely for children to be left alone at home after school and be given more household responsibilities (ASSAEL 1992; Engel Et AL. 1986). Working mothers also decide how the family meal will be arranged (HEYER 1997). Based on the study from HEYER (1997), mothers who are working usually let their children arrange the meal by themselves (the children cook and buy the meal for themselves) or hire somebody (household helpers) to cook for them. Employed mothers today report that they do not have the time or energy to monitor their children's consumption and media practices and consequently "surrender" to their children's requests. Previous research showed that two-thirds of 6 to 14 -year-old children cook for themselves one to five times a week and $49 \%$ stated they had either bought food for the family or participated in family grocery shopping (COOK 2003). The guilty feeling of the mother because of her career is usually followed by purchasing goods for the children. For marketers, working mothers' limited time and their wish to keep the peace in the household open up selling opportunities (COOK 2003). KAUR AND SINGH (2006) also added that children from dual-career families, meaning both parents work, are effectively put right into the consumer role due to time pressures and income effects. It was expected in the study of children in Jakarta that children from working mothers would have more influence on their families' decision making. However, this study shows that children either from working or not working mothers have the same influence and responsibility in the family decision making process. In other words, even when the mothers are working, the meal preparation is
arranged by other adults in the household such as a grandmother. Furthermore, the children from non-working mothers have their meals prepared and arranged by their mothers. Therefore, children from working and non-working mothers do not contribute to the food buying and consumption processes of the family.

## Education

The largest education background of the respondents' parents was senior high school, with 58 respondents or $38.67 \%$. Though many of the parents completed a bachelor's degree with 44 respondents or $29.33 \%$, very few parents attained a master's, and none of the parents had a PhD . The study from Slama and Taschian (1985) showed that education of the parents is positively related to the purchase involvement of children.

Overall the statistics show weak support for the hypothesis that children from highly educated parents have more influence on their families' decision-making process. Children from low or high education parents have the same influence and responsibility in the family decisionmaking process. Parents from high and low degrees of education are still the ones who plan, decide, and buy food for the families. Parents who have a higher education might be more reluctant to allow their children to decide what food they want to buy and eat or to prepare their own meal. Since the parents have a high education, they might be more knowledgeable of healthy and nutritious food for their children.

Therefore, the study from SLAMA AND TASCHIAN (1985) could not support the study of children in Jakarta, where the education background of the parents is not positively correlated with the involvement of the children in the family decision-making process.

### 2.2 Discussion of the Socio-Demographic Status (SDS)

## Parenthood

Most children came from dual-parent families (127 families or 84.67\%), and a few children came from single-parent ones ( 19 families or $12.67 \%$ ). The majority of children have only one sibling, meaning that there are only two children in the family. The number of children in the family determines how much influence each one has. CHEAL (2002) reported that singleparent families are more likely to be reflected in lower socioeconomic groups, since the parent has the burden of organizing his or her household on his or her own. AhUJA ET AL. (1998) added that single mothers shop more often with their children and that their children shop alone for the entire family more often compared to children in dual-parent families. Tinson (2008) stated that single-parent households are typically, but not exclusively, headed by females. According to the statistic results, there is almost no influence or responsibility difference between children from single or dual-parents families; only one part of the statistic results showed to a significant level that children from single-parent families have more responsibility in helping the parents cook or prepare dinner for the family.

Overall, children from both parenthoods have an equal influence or responsibility in planning, buying, preparing, cooking, deciding, and helping the parents prepare breakfast and lunch. Based on the observations, single-parent families cook the meal without help from the children. In dual-parents families, children also showed little to no involvement during the food buying and consumption processes. They tended to play while waiting for the meal and continue playing while eating their meals.

## Family Size

The more children in the family, the less chance that any of them will be able to decide (Heyer 1997). Williams and Veeck (1998) reported that in China, where most families have only one child, the child exerted significant influence during all decision-making process stages while buying products for family use. KaUR AND SINGH (2006) also stated that a decrease in family size will lead to children's preferences being accorded greater importance by the parents. However, Ward and Wackman (1972) found no correlation between the number of children and their influence. The study from WARD AND WACKMAN supports the study results from the children in Jakarta that there is no correlation between the number of the children in the family and the influence or responsibility degree of each child in the household. Only in the food decision maker part was the significant value high, where fewer children in the household indicates having more influence on deciding what food to buy for the family. Overall, the result signifies that whether children come from big or small families; they have the same influence or responsibility in planning, buying, preparing, cooking, and helping the parents cook or prepare the meal for the family. The fact is that families with fewer children tend to spoil their children rather than families with more children; whereas more children in the family leads to housework distribution from the parents to their children. Children who are spoiled have the right to decide what food they want to buy, and they do not have to participate in buying, preparing, or cooking the meals for the family. In his study, MikKelsen found that some of the children expressed that they do not engage in food activities, as they felt their parents provided well enough for them (MikKelsen 2006). On the other hand, families with more children might treat their children equally, where each child receives his or her own chore as distributed by the parents.

## Age

Most parents were between 31 to 40 years old ( 76 parents out of 150 parents or $50.67 \%$ ), and only a few of them were between 20 to 30 or more than 50 years old. Most participants' children were between seven and nine years old. According to WARD (1978), children from seven to nine years old are able to perceive, select, and evaluate information before they buy the product (WARD 1978). The influence of children increases with age (AtKin 1978). Older children can already decide and be responsible for their own nutrition (HEYER 1997). As children become older, they are able to make decisions independently because they get more money from their parents (Assael 1995). They have a greater cognitive ability to perceive
several perspectives and to understand perspectives other than their own. They are more capable of adapting their argumentation, persuasion, and negotiation with adults compared to younger children. Older children also have greater knowledge of products, are able to develop consumer skills related to information processing, and they are more likely to model their consumer behavior after adults (John 1999; MARTENSEN 2008). On the other hand, younger children use few dimensions in comparing and evaluating the brand (BAHN 1986). Young children are apparently unstable in their product preferences, since they lack knowledge and experience. The choice process used by younger children is different and simpler from the categorization formats used by older children who use more structured indications to classify the product types and brands (John and Lakshmi-Ratan 1992). This research indicates a positive correlation between the age of children and their influence in the family decision-making process. Older children have more influence and more responsibility in planning the food for the family; they are more responsible for preparing meals, help the parents cook or prepare lunch, decide what to eat for lunch and dinner, and have more influence in cooking dinner for the family. However, age does not indicate influence or responsibility differences between children in terms of deciding what food to buy, buying the food, cooking breakfast and lunch, helping the parents cook or prepare breakfast and dinner for the family, or deciding what to eat for breakfast. In other words, older children can help the parents plan what food should be bought for the family or help prepare the meal. In terms of buying food, parents believe that it is their task to do so and to decide what food to buy for the family. Besides, buying the food or grocery shopping is considered a family weekend activity for most of the participants' families.

## Gender

The 150 participants' children were 80 girls ( $53.37 \%$ ) and 70 boys ( $46.67 \%$ ) enrolled in the second to fourth grade in elementary schools. There were more girl participants than boy participants, and more participants were mothers than fathers. Some previous studies did not find any significant differences between boys' and girls' purchases (Martensen 2008). However, the study from KAUR AND SINGH (2006) found that daughters commonly had more influence than sons. Gender also played role in the food choice of a child, where girls ate more fruits and vegetables than boys (NøRGAARD 2007). Previous studies found that as gender roles in the family become more modern and less traditional, the influence of wives is likely to increase (EKASASI 2005). Mothers either in the previous generation or today are still the ones who are primarily responsible for the matters of the children and family (HEYER 1997). This study shows that girls have more influence on the family decision-making process in terms of buying food and preparing the meal. Girls seem to be more independent in preparing and cooking the meal (lunch and dinner) on their own (except breakfast which is normally not cooked); also they are more responsible in buying the food for the family. However, there are no influence or responsibility differences between genders of the children
in terms of planning the food, deciding what food should be bought, cooking the breakfast, deciding what to eat, and helping parents cook or prepare lunch and dinner. During the observation, boys were found to have no interest at all in cooking or preparing the meal for the family, even though their answers on the questionnaire showed different results; they are more interested playing with their toys. Furthermore, during grocery shopping, boys were more interested in finding CDs or video games than in helping their parents. Based on the survey, either boys or girls, they all agree that parents or others should decide what food to buy, without having children contribute.

## Ethnic / Language Ability

Children in Jakarta come from different provinces in Indonesia; therefore in order to analyze the ethnic background of the children, this study utilized the language ability or daily language spoken between children and their family members as the decider of the ethnic background of the children, for example Mandarin is spoken by the Chinese and Javanese is spoken by the Javanese families. Most children use Bahasa Indonesia as their first and daily communication language in the family. Other children use other languages, such as English (11.33\%) or Mandarin Chinese (10\%) as their daily communication language. Research indicates that children who speak more than one language have more influence on planning the food for the family. However the correlation between language ability and children's influence in the family was too weak and it seems that language ability might not be a suitable factor that affects the children's influence in the family. Language ability might affect the perception of the children towards the food products, for instance children who are bilingual tend to consume imported food items, since they have the ability to understand the information on the package of the food product. Based on the survey and observation, children who came from the international school were capable of speaking more than two languages, and they also consumed more imported food products than local food items.

### 2.3 Discussion of Food Buying and the Consumption Process

## Information Sources

This study indicates that TV ads have become the most important source of information on foodstuffs for both parents and children. According to the survey, 92 parents and 77 children agree that TV advertisements have become their main source of information on foodstuffs. During the past few years, television advertising has become a major topic of international concern and debate, mainly about the type of foods being advertised and the impact that follows from these advertisements toward children. Foods most heavily advertised to children are those that are rich in fats, sugars, and salt and are poor in nutrition. Wilcox (2004) found that the heavy advertisement of these types of foods leads children to high consumption and high preference for those products. Besides TV ads, 73 children think that family members are also a very important source for them, whereas parents think that
their friends give them more information about the food products than their children. Supermarket ads are also an important source of product information for parents and children. During the interview at the family's house and observation in the supermarket, parents stated that supermarket brochures or product promotion in supermarkets provide them with the news about new products or ones on sale, therefore taking the brochures before entering the supermarket was a must for the parents, especially the mother.

## Product Criteria Selection

Price, taste, and premiums / gifts were the most important criteria for children when choosing the food products. For parents, what their children like appears to be the most important factor when they want to buy food. It shows that children have strong influence in the parents' decision-making processes. More than $50 \%$ of the parents in some Asian countries (India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan, Philippines, and South Korea) declared that their children are an important factor when it comes to purchase decisions. They even mentioned that "a child's demand" is the primary reason for buying products (RACHAGAN 2004). This study found that $\mathbf{9 4}$ children compared to $\mathbf{6 0}$ parents stated that price is important for them in choosing the food products. When children consider prices, it could be because they know their parents usually focus on this (MIKKELSEN 2006). Either they follow their parents' habits in focusing on the economical products or children realize that their mothers are more willing to yield to the children requests when the goods are economically reasonable (BURR 1977). It is interesting that children during their analytical stage are aware of price, besides taste and premiums. 91 children compared to 78 parents considered taste as well as 47 children compared to 4 parents think that premiums/gifts are important when they want to buy the food. According to Nestlé Studie 2010, children consider taste to be their number one food criterion when they want to buy food from the school cafeteria; however, the healthy category is ranked in last place (rank 1 for taste, rank 13 for healthy) from the NESTLE STUDIE. On the other hand, parents are concerned about the healthy diet and safety of food ingredients, whereas the children think that the premium incentives or toys inside the food package are more attention-grabbing than food ingredients. In the study from ATKIN (1978), children aged 3 to 12 were found to play a dominant influence in the family on the cereal selection in the supermarket. ATKIN pointed out that children tended to rely on preestablished preferences based more often on premium incentives offered in a purchase than the nutritional features of a cereal at the time of influencing cereal purchases. In his report, NøRGAARD (2007) stated that parents want to ensure that their children eat food they like, but parents also want to serve food that constitutes a healthy diet. Studies have proved that children choose food rich in fat and sugar and not rich in vitamins or containing a healthy diet (Hastings 2007). However other studies found that brands, product types, and colors are the important factors that influence children the most (Belch et al. 1985, Foxman ET AL. 1989, Jenkins 1979).

## Most Recommended Food

Milk is the most recommended food or drink requested by children according to parents as well as children. Fruits, cereals, and snacks are the other food categories recommended frequently by children. All these recommended foods and drinks are related directly to the children themselves, means that they are the direct consumers or eaters for these types of foods. Research indicates that children gain the most influence on the products for their own consumption. In general, food is a product category where children exert the most influence (Belch et al. 1985, Foxman et al. 1989, Jenkins 1979, McNeal 1992).

## Grocery Shopping

Both parents and children enjoy grocery shopping, although some parents admitted that they only sometimes do so or do not enjoy grocery shopping because for them it is a waste of money, or they are too tired to wait in the cashier line. The results of this study show that 137 children compared to 109 parents considered grocery shopping to be enjoyable and fun. Only a few of the participants, 6 children and 8 parents, did not like grocery shopping. Some children think that going to the supermarket is like having an adventure and is recreation for them. It is where they can try, see, and taste the varieties of products. A study by Kraak (1998) found that, for most children, the supermarket is the first store that they visit, and this is where most children make their purchase requests. Most of the older children's requests were made at home, whereas, younger children tend to make requests while shopping for groceries with their mothers.

The majority of parents and children think that the children help the parents during grocery shopping, mostly by pushing the shopping cart, taking out the goods from the cart and putting them on the check-out counter, or taking the goods from the shelves. Children also help the mothers by taking care of their younger siblings. When children take part by helping parents during grocery shopping, they are more likely to have more influence (NøRGAARD 2007).

## Buying Decision Process

Studies declared that children often exert a significant influence at the initiation stage of the decision process and will reduce progressively as the decision narrows to a choice decision (for comparison, please refer to Figure 3), for example when it comes to how much to spend on the product wanted, the influence from children becomes less (Jenkins 1979; Moschis and Mitchell 1986; Syzbillo and Sosanie 1976). Previous studies found that children's influence varies across stages (Belch et al. 1985, Foxman ET AL. 1989, Jenkins 1979). Previous studies examined the influence of older children or adolescents, where the results might not be applied to younger children, since age determines the amount of influence that the children have in the family. Also, most of them focus on more complex family decision making such as when the family intends to buy a car (Jensen 1990). Nonetheless, the influence of the children on the buying decision process is still unclear.

From all stages in buying decisions and consumption processes, children influence more in the buying decision stage rather than the consumption decision stage. In the first stage of buying decision "awareness of need," children create awareness in the parents about the product that the children need. On the question of "do you tell your parents / do parents ask their children first if they want to buy food for the children?" most parents and children admitted either always or sometimes, passively or actively, children influence their parents when they need or want food items. On the second stage "Information search," children have less influence, where the parents search the product information more from TV advertisements rather than asking the children. Children have the most influence in the "evaluation of alternatives" stage, where the majority of parents admit that what their children want or like is the most important criterion for them when they want to buy food. Even though that the majority of families have a low income level, price for them is number three beside what their children want and whatever tastes good. Children have less influence on the last stage of the buying decision process, which is the "purchase act" stage. Children might participate by helping parents in pushing the shopping cart, for instance, but they have less influence in deciding what food to buy for them or for the family. Even though parents might ask the children's opinion, in the end parents have the last word, or they are the ones who primarily decide.

## Food Consumption Process

The mother is the responsible person for planning, buying, preparing, and cooking the meal for the family according to the majority of parents and children. Some families are also assisted by a maid or another adult person in the household, such as a grandmother or aunt. On the consumption decision process, children have less influence in the first and second stage "preparing and cooking." Children showed differences in their interest in and willingness to participate. Children showed little interest when it comes to preparing and cooking the meal. Children have limited knowledge about cooking and limited influence over particular foods or ingredients that go into the cooked meals. Therefore, children do not participate in preparing and cooking the meal for the family. Parents admitted that they also prefer that the children not help them, since they are still too young and do not know how to prepare food for cooking. Parents thought that involving their children would be a timeconsuming and grueling job (MIKKELSEN 2006). On the questionnaire and interview, children stated that they participate during the food buying and consumption process. However, during the interview with the parents and from the results of the observational study, children are found seldom or never to help their parents prepare or cook the meal. When they do help, they do uncomplicated household chores such as setting the table or taking out the eating utensils from the shelves. Other housework such as cooking the meal is considered too complicated for children. MikKelsen (2006) stated that children have the most influence on small meals (breakfast and lunch) and snacks that are easy to prepare. He also added that
parents are often guided by their children when it comes to preparing these small meals and snacks. Children have less influence or involvement and sometimes not at all on meals that are more difficult to prepare (such as the cooked meal for dinner).

Children have the most influence in the third stage of consumption decision process "eating," where they can always or sometimes decide what, when, and where to eat. During the observation, children can eat on their beds while watching TV or even eat when they finish playing. Most of the time, children are busy watching TV or play with their toys. According to parents, children can decide "once in a while" what they want to eat for breakfast, lunch or dinner. During the interview with the parents in the ethnographic study, the parents mentioned that they usually ask their children first what they want to eat for their breakfast. For parents, breakfast is very important for their children, because it motivates their children to come to school or wake up early. If the children do not like breakfast or are forced to eat something they do not like, they usually do not want to go to school or wake up. The survey results also found that children are more able to decide for breakfast and less able for lunch or dinner.

Overall, both parents and children admit that children can and do have influence on the family decision-making process during food buying and food consumption. Based on the results, children participate more during the grocery shopping but less during the food purchase planning and food consumption process. Even though during the interview and based on the parents' answers in the questionnaire, most parents refuse or deny their children's role during the decision-making process, but in the end the parents declared that overall children can influence their decision.

Joint decision making between family members was not found while observinv the grocery shopping. Food is considered a low decision involvement product category, where it may not be worth the time and effort to engage in joint decisions.

## Children's Role in the Family

With regards to the children's role in the family, $\mathbf{8 8}$ out of $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ participants' children believe that they are the co-decision maker, whereas 62 children think that they can only act as the influencer, and none of them believes that either they are the primary decision maker or have no influence at all in the family decision-making process. Parents think the opposite of the children. Most parents, 30 fathers $( \pm 91 \%$ from participants' father) and 99 mothers $( \pm$ 85\% from participants' mothers ) believe that children are the influencer in the family, meaning that parents have more to say or parents often decide for the children on what to buy and to eat; only 3 fathers and 17 mothers think that children are their co-decision makers. Although parents think that their children can influence them, they still think that children are only influencers. On the other hand, children think they are the co-decision makers or
partners for their parents, which means that they have an equal right with the parents in deciding what to buy and what to eat. When parents think that children are their co-decision makers, it means that what the children think or the opinion of the children is considered important and needed as input for the family. Neither the parents nor the children think that children decide most or that children are the primary decision maker in the family. Moreover, none of the children think that they do not have influence in the family, but there was one parent who thought that his or her child has no influence at all in the family decision-making process.

## Conflicts

Even though serious conflict in the family decision-making process is consider rare, some types of family conflict are highly possible, because of differences in the preferences and choices from each family member (Lee and Collins 1999). Sheth (1974) stated that conflict between family members is because of the existence of different cognitive structures that may include different purchase motives (goals) and evaluative beliefs (perceptions about alternatives). When several alternatives are being considered, each family member would endeavor to influence the other towards his or her preferred decision. Moreover, the differences in the interest of a purchase outcome would probably lead to disagreement or conflict. In the study of BELCH ET AL. (1980), they found that the amount of disagreement is relatively low for decisions such as where to buy and when to buy, but it is higher when it comes to how much money to spend.

During observation in the grocery stores, children and parents usually disagreed on the product that the children wanted to buy. Since the majority of the parents have a tight budget, they could only afford to buy the main food items for the daily consumption of the family. On the other hand, parents had a dilemma in this of situation. They wanted to buy food that the children want, but the money for the items was not available. In cases of disagreement with the child over brand decisions, the mothers tried to superimpose her preferences over those of the children. They (mothers) reasoned such outcomes stem from the mothers' perceptions of the quality of information possessed by the child.

Buss and SChaninger (1987) stated that conflict can be managed in two ways: by either using avoidance tactics or resolution tactics. Since children influence more on the product types, the nature of the product can also be significant in determining the choice of conflict resolution strategy, such as through negotiating. On the other hand, conflict avoidance was most commonly utilized for family products. Davis (1976) used two models of decision strategies in dealing with conflicts: persuasion and bargaining or negotiating. Persuasion is an act of demanding something from others by using emotional techniques such as crying in order to get the others to agree to what he or she wants. When family members have different buying motives, they might take a bargaining or negotiating strategy. Bargaining influence
tactics comprise waiting for the next purchase, impulse purchasing, and procrastination. Family members realize that there is a conflict between them, and they try to solve it in fairness and equality. Fairness, for most children, means being able to be part of the 'democracy' of the family, means having a 'say' in the decision making. However, parents do not always recognize children's emotional outlay in the moral imperative of fairness.

During observation of the families, much of the negotiation around minor domestic decisions or the interpretation of family rules was conducted indirectly. Parents might set conditions for the child to satisfy in order to secure a particular result (e.g. having to be 'good') and children might seek to influence results either by being good or by such tactics such as 'hassling' or 'nagging.'

Some parents try to solve conflicts by giving the children other alternatives, such as instead of buying the unhealthy snacks, parents promise to bring the children to playground after they leave the supermarket. When conflicts appear between siblings, the parents have the options either not to buy at all for both children or buy for each of them. Usually, the low income families try to look for cheaper food items in order to satisfy both children.

### 2.4. Discussion of Quantitative and Qualitative Results

In the following context, the quantitative and qualitative results from this study will be described and compared to quantitative and qualitative results from other studies concerning children's influence in the family decision-making process. The previous studies that will be compared here are only those that present the same methods of research (quantitative as well as qualitative) and have the same topic of interest (children's influence in the family during food buying and consumption processes).

The quantitative results (through survey) from this study found that:

1) The mother is responsible for preparing and cooking the meal (breakfast through dinner) for the family. The quantitative result study from $\operatorname{HEYER}$ (1997) found that in the German (Giessen) family, the mother is responsible for preparing the meals and providing the food for the family. By comparing these studies, it can be analyzed that even in a different culture and tradition, the mother is still responsible for preparing meals for the family.
2) Children believe that they can always or often decide for all meals from breakfast to dinner. This result is confirmed by the quantitative results from NøRGAARD (2007). From his survey, he found that compared to parents, children believe that they have higher influence for all meals.
3) Most children think that they are co-decision makers, whereas most parents think that children are influencers in the family. This result is also confirmed by the quantitative results from MikKelsen (2006) and NøRGAARD (2007). From their studies, they discovered that children think that they are co-decision makers, whereas parents think that children are only influencers in the family. Parents decide more than children do.
4) Age affects the degree of children's influence in the family. The quantitative study from HEYER (1997) found that the parents prepare the meals for younger children, whereas the older children can decide or prepare their own meal. This result is supported by the survey result from Martensen and Grønholdt L (2008). They found that older children have significantly more influence on the family decision-making process than younger children.
5) Occupation of the mother does not have an effect on the children's influence or role in the family. Children either from employed or unemployed mothers have equal influence and responsibility in the family decision-making process. Children from employed mothers are taken care of by other adults in the family such as a grandmother; therefore the food and the meals for children are well provided. This result is contradicted with the quantitative result from HEYER (1997). She found that the occupation of the mothers had an effect on how the meals (lunch) of the children were arranged. Since the mothers had to work, the children ate their lunch at school (kindergarten). For older children, the mothers either kept a "ready to eat" meal (such as pizza or other meals that are easy to prepare by using the microwave) or the children could order meals by phone.
6) There is almost no correlation between the number of the children in the family and the influence or responsibility degree of the children in the household. Only in the food decision maker part was the significant value high, where fewer children in the household indicated more influence they have in deciding what food to buy for the family. The study from Williams and VEеCK (1998) reported that in China, where most families have a single child, that child exerted considerable influence during all stages of buying products for family use.
7) There are no influence or responsibility differences between children from single or dual-parent families; only one part from the statistic results showed a significant level that children from single-parent families have more responsibility for helping the parents cook or prepare dinner for the family. According to Ekstrom et al. (1987), a child in single-parent family has greater influence. The quantitative results from AHUJA ET AL. (1998) found that children from single-parent families shop alone for the household more often than children in dual-parent families.
8) Children assist their parents during grocery shopping mostly by pushing the shopping cart, taking goods from the shelves, and put them on the checkout counter. According to quantitative result from MiKKELSEN (2006), children mostly help by listing items on the shopping list, browsing through circulars, and finding good food offers. Children rarely help compare the price of the goods.
9) Price is the most important criterion for children when selecting and buying the food. This result contradicts the study from MikKelsen (2006). According to him, price is not an attribute that is at the top of children's minds.
10) Milk is the most recommended foods or drink chosen by children, followed by fruits and snacks. According to the survey results from MArtensen and Grønholdt L (2008), children recommended or influenced their parents mostly to buy juice, soft drinks and cereals. Even though the types of food and drink from both studies are different, both results showed that children recommend or have the most influence on the products for their self use.

The qualitative results from this study found that:

1) Children can influence their parents directly and indirectly. Parents do not consider indirect influence to be part of children's influence. Children could sometimes decide what they want to buy and eat, and parents also knew about their children's preferences in terms of what, where, and when to eat. The parents did not have to ask their children first about what they want, because they thought they know already. The majority of the children were able to decide when and where to eat, and they preferred to eat in front of TV or in the bedroom. Children were mostly able to select what they wanted to eat for breakfast, but less so for lunch or dinner. According to Mikkelsen (2006), parents consider children's influence only actively and not passively, whereas children include direct and indirect influence when considering their own influence.
2) Children have most influence on meals that are easy to prepare (breakfast) and less on meals that are more complicated (lunch and dinner). These results ( $1 \& 2$ ) are confirmed by the qualitative results from MikKelsen (2006) and NøRGAARD (2007). From their ethnographic studies, they found that Danish children influence their parents directly and indirectly; also children have the most influence on meals easy to prepare. According to MikKelsen (2006), all respondents' children knew how to prepare breakfast and lunch (box), but few knew how to cook the dinner meal. In Denmark, lunch meals were considered easy to prepare, whereas in Indonesia the meals for lunch and dinner are complicated and difficult to prepare, since it involves lots of ingredients and techniques.
3) The mothers believe that by involving children in the consumption process (preparing and cooking) is time consuming, exhausting work and children do not have enough
knowledge or skills to cook. The qualitative study from HEYER (1997), which involved 10 families in Giessen, Germany, found that according to the interview with the mothers, they believed that when children help in the kitchen, it is often time-consuming and exhausting work, because the mothers have to prepare and cook and at the same time watch over the children. Children cannot work alone because of a limited knowledge of ingredients, and they might get hurt from knifes or other dangerous cooking tools. However, the situation is different towards adolescents; older children or adolescents help reduce the mother's household work, since they are more knowledgeable and able to work alone. The qualitative study from Mikkelsen (2006) also confirmed this result. He found that parents exclude children from the cooking process, since it is a time-consuming and arduous job. Besides, parents felt that their children did not like to cook and were too busy doing their homework and tending to leisure activities. According to parents, children have limited knowledge about and also limited influence on particular food products and the ingredients that go into the cooked meals.
4) In almost all families, mothers organize, decide, and are responsible for food purchase planning and consumption processes. This result is supported by the ethnographic study from Mikkelsen (2006). According to his results, parents are in charge of organizing the food activities. Parents also make the overall decisions concerning food. The food activities were constantly managed by the parents, whereas the children usually did not participate. However, it is not explicitly described whether both parents or only one of the parents in the family (such as the mother) organize the food activities.
5) Gender of the children has an effect on children's influence on the family decisionmaking process during food buying. Girls have more influence than boys. This result is confirmed by qualitative and quantitative methods. During observation in the grocery shopping, girls were more helpful than boys. Boys helped the mother usually only at the beginning, such as by pushing the shopping cart. However, when the boys saw video games or toys, they split up from their parents, whereas girls more consistently accompanied their parents during grocery shopping. This result is supported by the ethnographic study from Mikkelsen (2006). According to his results, boys show little interest and irregularly take part in the daily food activities. Even if they come with the parents, they usually split up to go to other stores rather than shop for groceries with the parents. On the other hand, girls join their mothers more often in grocery shopping, help by looking for goods and putting them on the shopping cart, and offer some help in the kitchen. By assisting their mothers, girls have a better chance to ask her to buy foods that they want; therefore girls could influence their mother more than boys. Boys have less influence on the purchase made compared to girls. Children have greater influence when they adjust their participation to the parents' set of daily routines in the food buying or consumption processes.

The qualitative and quantitative research methods were integrated into each other and were not carried out separately. Each method was designed and undertaken based on preceding findings. Qualitative research (direct observation and semi-structured interviewing) had a role in testing out the underlying conditions and motivations that explain differences between children's and parents' perceptions from the survey. The qualitative method made use of the quantitative results in comparing and evaluating the perception of the family from the survey and what the actual behavior was during observation with the family. The results from the ethnographic research presented the real situation of the family, which was not defined on the survey, whereas the survey results provided information that the researcher should be more focus on during observations and interviews, as well when confirming or rejecting the research hypotheses.

### 2.5 Discussion of Results Compared to Previous Studies

The study from Mikkelsen (2006) investigated Danish children age 10 to 13 years old with the result that children participate and gain influence on several decision stages and areas during the family food buying and everyday routines. When families buy or consume food, parents are not the only participants and decision makers. Children are able to express their opinion and preferences for food they want to eat and buy, sometimes followed by the parents and sometimes rejected by them. Mikkelsen believed in his theory that if children participate in family everyday routines, they achieve more influence. Furthermore, a study from Lee \& Beatty (2002) declared that children will achieve more influence if their mother works away from home. However, according to the study of children's influence in Jakarta, occupation of the mother did not correlate significantly with the children's influence in the family. The reason was that both mothers working away from home and those staying at home as housewives were still the ones who had the responsibility for organizing the daily household activities. Even when the mothers worked away from home, other adults such as a grandmother would take over the responsibility, allowing for no increased influence of the children in deciding what they want to eat and buy. In his study, MikKelsen had only a few discussions about the occupation or other socioeconomic and demographic factors of the family, though at the beginning he claimed to link these factors to the children's influence in the family. He pointed out stages where children influence the family the most yet did not reflect on the background of the family. According to his study results, Mikkelsen found that in all families, parents are in charge of organizing the food activities, and they also make the overall decisions concerning food. He did not specify which parent in this case, either both parents (father and mother) or only the mother, was the person in charge of organizing the food activities. In the study of children's influence in Jakarta, mothers were responsible for the daily food buying and consumption processes in the family. Fathers were mostly responsible for bringing the family to the grocery store and showed little interest in organizing
the daily household activities. Children showed their interest during grocery shopping and acted as the shopping partner for their mothers. MiKKELSEN also found that children have an influence both actively and passively, which also reflects to the results from children's influence in Jakarta. Parents said that without asking their children, they already knew what their children want, meaning that passively parents were influenced by their children. Also, during the evaluation of the alternative stage, the majority of parents admitted that what their children want or like was the most important criterion for them when they wanted to buy food. Children showed their active influence, mostly during grocery shopping, where they try to persuade their parents to buy what they want. From his observation study, MikKelsen declared that children who participate more by helping their parents during grocery shopping have a better chance to influence their parents in terms of allowing them to buy what they want. On the other hand, children who show little interest and little participation during grocery shopping have less influence on their parents. Based on his example, he also pointed out that girls help their mothers more than boys. Although boys are more interested in finding their favorite items in the supermarket, girls are more attached to their mothers. Shopping for food does not seem to be appealing for boys. Another study from Kaur and Singh (2006) declared that daughters commonly had more influence than sons. This result is also supported by LEE (1994), who found that daughters are generally more influential than sons. The study of children's influence in Jakarta found that boys were more interested in finding their favorite items such as video games than in helping their parents during the grocery shopping. During grocery shopping, children primarily helped their parents by undertaking simple and practical tasks, such as pushing the shopping cart, while other complicated tasks such as comparing the price were usually managed by the mothers.

In the consumption process, children preferred that their mothers buy, prepare, and cook the meals for them, even though some children claimed that they sometimes cooked or prepared the meal by themselves. In his study, MiKkeLSEN stated that children have the most influence over food that is easy to prepare such as breakfast and lunch, and they have less influence over or less involvement in dinner preparation. In Denmark, dinner preparation including cooking takes more time than the other meals and is considered complicated work for children, whereas breakfast can be simply served with cereals or bread. In contrast to Denmark, the meal preparation for lunch and dinner in Indonesian families takes hours to be prepared and cooked, and usually the food that the family ate for lunch will be eaten as well for dinner. Therefore, since the food preparation and cooking for lunch and dinner in Indonesia are considered complicated, children are involved more during breakfast and are able to decide more for that meal and less so for lunch or dinner. Therefore, although children in the survey answered that they prepared, cooked, or helped their parents during the food consumption process, the observation presented the real activities of the children during the consumption process. Food consumption process (preparation and cooking) is considered
a hard and complicated task for the children; as a result they have little involvement and influence over it. Moreover, children have limited knowledge of the ingredients that go into the cooked meals and little ability for cooking. Parents in Denmark and also in Jakarta thought that involving the children during the consumption process would be a grueling, timeconsuming job, so for them it is better that they stay outside the kitchen. For that reason, the consumption process was regularly organized by the parents, especially the mother, whereby children are not involved in it. Based on the study result from MiKKeLSEN, children achieved influence over family food buying in general and more particularly over fruits and vegetables. The study from children's influence in Jakarta indicates that fruits are the second most favorite food items after milk, whereas vegetables are in eighth place on the most recommended food list (Figure 14). MikKelsen also stated that when comparing fruits and vegetables, children gain most influence in the choice of fruit. Fruit seems to be children's favorite food. This might be because they have a sweet taste and colorful appearance just like candy. Sweets are more directed to children compared to other food variations, such as meat or fish. For food the children like, they might try harder to exert influence by making more active persuasion attempts. The study from Martensen (2008) found that children exert quite a strong influence on the family decision-making process, particularly for products relevant to them such as cereal, juice, and soft drinks.

With regards to the socioeconomic and demographic status of the family, the study of children's influence from LEE (1994) found that the occupation of the mothers, age of the children, and income status of the family play a role in the children's influence on family decision making. In modern families, when the mother works outside the home, the elder children from upper income families have more influence than elder children from low and middle-income families. On the other hand, when the mother stays at home, elder children from upper and lower class have more to say than elder children from middle-income families. In this case, whether the mother works outside the house or stays at home, elder children from upper-income families have more influence than elder children from middle and low-income families. The situation is different in conservative families, where the elder children from middle-income families have more influence when their mother stays at home; however, children from low-income families have the most influence when their mother works outside the home. However, the study of children's influence in Jakarta indicates an insignificant relationship between the occupation of the mothers and the children's influence in the family. One possible reason is that in other countries, such as in Europe, when the mothers are employed or when both parents work, the children are in charge of the household activities. Children are taught to be more independent in taking care of themselves in terms of preparing their own meals, for example. Whereas in Indonesia, when mothers or both parents work, then the other adults such as the grandmother or the household helpers handle the household activities, including taking care of the children's needs. They do not participate
or show little interest in the household activities. The grandmother or the household helpers usually prepare everything for the children. Therefore, the studies from Europe compared to the study from Indonesia show different results; where in Europe the occupation of the mothers plays a role in children's influence on family decision making, yet the occupation of the mothers in Indonesia indicates a weak correlation with the children's influence.

In contrast to occupation, age and gender are correlated significantly with the children's influence and responsibility in the family. Age is an important indicator for children's influence on family decision making (MARTENSEN 2008; ATKIN 1978; BEATTY 1994; DARLEY 1986; Jenkins 1979; McNeal 1969; Mehrotra 1977; Nelson 1978; Rust 1993; Swinyard 1987; WARD 1972). With an increase in age, children gain a stronger position in persuasion and negotiation. They have greater knowledge of products and are more likely to model their consumer behavior on that of adults (John 1999; Strauss 1952; LERNER 1982). Older children have more influence or more responsibility in planning the food for the family, they are more responsible for preparing the meal, helping the parents cook or prepare lunch, deciding what to eat for lunch and dinner, and they have more influence in cooking dinner for the family. This is similar to the study results from LEE (1994) that older children have more influence and more say in the family. LeE also found that gender of the children plays a significant role in the family decision-making process. The influence of female children was higher than that of males. She also declared that when there are two daughters in the family, the elder one has more influence than the younger. The study results on children's influence in Jakarta also found a similar result: girls have more influence on the family decision-making process in terms of buying food and preparing meals. Girls seem to be more independent in preparing and cooking the meal (lunch and dinner) on their own (except breakfast which is normally not cooked). Also they are more responsible for buying food for the family.

The study from Martensen (2008) investigated parents who have children between ages 5 and 13 years old in Denmark. She evaluated from the parents' point of view regarding their children's influence during the family decision-making process via an internet survey. She found that older children (age) have significantly more influence on the family decisionmaking process than younger children and that children develop different skills and tastes in food as they grow up. Influence in her study was focused on the brand name and product preferences of children. According to her study, children's involvement is primarily at the first stage, the initiation stage. Children have a powerful role in family decision making - very often, children initiate potential purchases. They tend to influence their parents over products typically aimed at children, such as cereal, juice, and soft drinks. The study about children's influence in Jakarta indicates that children recommend or influence their parents on products such as milk, fruits, and cereals. Unfortunately, milk and fruits were not on the category list from MARTENSEN's study, but cereal was still considered to be the most requested or recommended food item from children. Her study was not specifically on the
food category items but was combined with electronics, vacations, and other products used by the family in general. Thus, parents selected cereal as their children's most preferred items, where the children exert the most influence over their parents on cereal products. According to her study, gender of the children does not contribute significantly to parents' perception of their children's influence. The impact of the child's gender seldom varies with the product category. In her study, MARTENSEN also found that since parents are still the responsible persons for shopping and purchasing household products, the decisions are also dominated by them.

Another study with regards to children's influence in the family decision-making process is presented by Nørgatrd (2007). Similar to the study from Mikkelsen (2006), she found that children influence their parents in all the stages in the decision making process, but more specifically children gain greater influence during the initiation and choice stage. In the initiation stage, children performed various tasks by expressing what kinds of food that they want, either sometimes or often. In her study, children generated the idea of buying fruits and vegetables during the family food purchase process. NørGAARD also defines this children's behavior as the health influencers for the family, since children try to influence their family to buy healthy food (fruits and vegetables). In the choice stage, children influence by performing various tasks, such as helping mothers push the shopping cart.

According to the study of children's influence in Jakarta, children can influence their families at the first and third stages of the buying decision process. At the first stage, "awareness of need," children create an awareness in the parents about the product that the children need. On the question of "do you tell your parents / do parents ask their children first if they want to buy the food for the children?" most parents and children admitted either sometimes or always. Passively or actively children influence their parents when they need or want food items. At the third stage, "evaluation of alternatives," children exert the most influence, where the majority of parents admit that what their children want or like is the most important criterion for them when they want to buy food. In this case, children influence their parents passively; meaning that the parents buy food according to what children want or like, without asking their children first, because they know that what they buy for their children will be consumed by them. The study from NøRGAARD supports the study of children's influence in Jakarta, where children influence their parents in the first and third stages, initiation and choice stages, or awareness of need and evaluation of alternatives.

Studies presented and discussed above had mostly similar results to the study of children's influence in Jakarta. Parents are still the managers and organizers of food buying and consumption activities for the family. Parents agree that children have or can influence family decision making, but this is limited mostly to children's products or when the children are the self-user and eater of the food items. In all studies discussed above, cereal is the main
food category recommended frequently by children. The decision-making process in the family is a joint activity between parents and children and is mostly decided by the parents. Children believe that they achieve influence in the food buying and consumption processes more than their parents. Children overestimated their influence, whereas parents underestimated their children's influence. A similar result is found in the study from Foxman ET AL. (1989), which stated that compared to parents' ratings, children overestimated their influence.

The daily routines of a family indicate important factors in how food activities are performed and how the household tasks are allocated among family members. Parents, especially the mothers undertake most of the household responsibilities; the father is the person who is in charge through financial accommodation of the family. Children contribute only when they have an interest in it or when they are obligated to perform the task.

Most of the previous studies stated that children have an influence on the family, but few offered the supporting results that discuss the children's influence. The most applicable supporting results along with this study were in the study from Mikkelsen (2006). He defines specifically how children attain influence and in which stage children have the most influence. However, his results with regards to the socioeconomic and demographic status of the family in connection with children's influence are still indistinguishable and need further elaborative research on these factors.

## 3 Summary of the Discussion

The study of children in Jakarta focuses on their point of view. The parents' opinions are needed in order to compare answers between children and parents and to see whether or not the parents underestimate their children's influence in the family decision-making process. It is important to analyze the children's point of view in order to have a clear picture of the children's role in the family based on the facts of what and who the children are. The study focuses on children and parents from different socioeconomic and demographic backgrounds in order to compare the different influences and responsibility of the children in the family food buying and consumption processes. Children and parents were recruited randomly according to the study procedures. Even though the areas of the surveys are different from each other in order to cover three different social statuses, the low income families dominated the numbers of the participants.

Both questionnaires for parents and children were designed in different motifs in order to fit the target group and better approach to the participants, especially the children. Children are found to be motivated by their friends when answering questionnaires. The parents' surveys were filled out at home in order for the parents to have a suitable amount of time to fill them out. Misreporting from the questionnaire analysis might occur, therefore one way to
reduce it, is by having a direct observation and personal interview with the participants. The real situation of the family, such as the interaction between family members during the food buying and consumption processes can be evaluated.

Qualitative and quantitative research were integrated with each other and not carried out separately. Each method was designed and undertaken based on preceding findings. Qualitative research (direct observation and semi-structured interviewing) had a role in testing out the underlying conditions and motivations that explained differences between children's and parents' perception from the survey. The qualitative method made use of the quantitative results in comparing and evaluating the perception of the family members from the survey and what the actual behavior was like during the observation with the family. The results from ethnographic research present the real situation of the family, which is not defined clearly on the survey; whereas the survey results provide information that the researcher should be more focused on during the observations and interviews, so as to confirm which research hypotheses are verified and which ones should be rejected. With regard to the research hypotheses, the results show the following:

- Age and gender of the children affect the degree of children's influence on family decision making in food buying and consumption processes.
- The older the children, the bigger the influence they have on their families' decision making (the results confirmed the hypothesis).
- Girls have more influence than boys in the families' decision making (the results confirmed the hypothesis).
- Household income has a modest effect on children's influence in the family decisionmaking process.
- Children from high-income families have more influence on planning the food for the family than children from low or middle-income families.
- Children from high-income families show more responsibility in helping the parents cook or prepare lunch for the family than children from low or middle-income families.
However, there are no influence or responsibility differences between children either from high, medium, or low income levels, when it comes to deciding what food to buy and eat, who is responsible for buying the food, preparing and cooking the meal, or helping the parents cook breakfast and dinner.
- The occupation of the mother, education of the parents, parenthood, ethnicity, and family size do not affect the degree of children's influence on family decision making in food buying and consumption processes.
- Children from employed mothers have more influence on their families' decisionmaking (the results reject the hypothesis).
- Children from high-education parents have more influence on their families' decision-making (the results reject the hypothesis).
- Children from single-parent families have more influence on their families' decisionmaking than children from dual-parent families. (the results reject the hypothesis)
- The ethnic background of the family has an influence in deciding whether the children can or cannot influence their families' decision making (the results reject the hypothesis).
- The fewer the children in the household, the more influence each child has in the family's decision making (the results reject the hypothesis).

In contrast to other factors, the age of the children plays a big role in the food buying and consumption processes. This result confirms the research hypothesis that older children have more influence on the family decision-making process than younger children. Older children are more involved in the joint decision-making process, where the parents ask their opinion when selecting products. Girls have more influence than boys (mainly in the food buying and less in the consumption process), and older children have a greater influence in family decision making. Along with the study from Atkin (1978) and Heyer (1997), this study indicates that older children can help their parents plan what food should be bought for the family or by helping the parents in prepare the meal. In terms of buying food, parents believe that it is their responsibility to buy and decide on food for the family.

The gender of children makes a difference in influence and responsibility roles in the family. Previous and current studies proved that girls have more influence than boys in terms of buying food and preparing meals. Girls seem to be more independent in preparing and cooking the meal (lunch and dinner) on their own (except for breakfast, which is normally not cooked); also they are more responsible for buying food for the family.

Although previous studies found that children from high-income families exert more influence than children from low or middle-income families; this study discovered that the influence from children from high-income families correlated only during the food planning and did not correlate positively to the other factors such as food buying or food cooking. The reason is that parents from all income levels do not involve their children during the food buying and consumption process. The parents tend to manage the process by themselves or by letting other people such as household helpers to do it instead of the children.

In terms of occupation of the parents, this study shows that children either from working or non-working mothers have the same influence and responsibility in the family decisionmaking process. Similar to the education background of the parents, children from low or high education parents have the same influence and responsibility in the family decisionmaking process. Parents from all education levels tend not to engage their children in the food buying and consumption process.

The statistic results also show a weak correlation between parenthood and the family food buying and consumption processes. Children from single-parent families have more responsibility in helping parents in terms of cooking or preparing dinner for the family, but their influence on other food buying and consumption processes are the same with children from dual-parent families. Based on the observations, the single-parent families cooked the meal without help from the children. In dual-parents families, children also show little or no involvement during the food buying and consumption process. Previous studies found that the more children in the family, the less chance that each of them are able to decide (HEYER 1997, Williams and Veeck 1998, Kaur and Singh 2006). However, Ward and WACKMAN (1972) and also this study of children in Jakarta found no correlation between the number of children and their influence in the family.

The family size only correlated significantly with the influence of children in deciding what food the children want to eat or buy. The children from small families are able to decide more on what they eat or buy than children from big families, but the mothers or parents are still responsible for organizing the food buying and consumption processes. Concerning ethnic and language ability of a child, this study shows that there is a weak correlation between language ability and influence role of a child in the family. Children who are bilingual or multilingual have influence in planning the food for the family, but other factors in the food buying and consumption process show no significant results with language ability.

It is a common perception for most families that TV ads are an essential source of food product information; the family members, especially children learned and were informed about what the product is about, how and where to get it, and when it is available in the market. The results of the study show that TV ads are the most important source for foodstuffs for both parents and children. In terms of selecting the product: price, taste, and gifts are the most selected category by children. Even though savory and sweet snacks are favored by children, they more frequently recommend their parents buy "milk" for them. Grocery shopping is considered an enjoyable activity for both parents and children. They both agree that children help their parents during grocery shopping, especially by pushing the shopping cart.

In the buying decision process stage, children exert most influence in the initiation stage, and the influence becomes less as the decision narrows to a choice decision such as how much to spend being mostly decided by the parents. From all the stages in the buying decision and consumption processes, children have more influence in the buying decision stage than in the consumption decision stage. In the consumption process, mothers are responsible for planning, buying, preparing, and cooking the meal for the family. Children might assist their mothers in simple tasks, such as by setting up the table. Other tasks are considered complicated or uninteresting from the children's point of view. Children have the most influence in the third stage of the consumption decision process, "eating," where children can always or sometimes decide what, when, and where to eat.

Even though during the interview and based on the parents' answer in the questionnaire, most parents refuse or deny their children's role during the decision-making process, in the end the parents declared that overall children can influence their decisions. Although parents think that their children can influence them, still they think that children only act as influencers. On the other hand, children think they are co-decision makers or partners for their parents, which means that they have an equal right with the parents in deciding what to buy and what to eat. When parents think that children are their co-decision makers, it means that what children think or the opinion from the children is considered important and need as the input for the family. Neither the parents nor the children think that children decide most all the time or that children are the primary decision maker in the family. Moreover, none of the children thinks that they do not have influence in the family, but there was only one parent who thought that his or her child has no influence at all in the family decision-making process. Serious conflicts during the food buying and consumption processes are seldom, but still there are some common conflicts between parents and children. Most of these occur when parents disagree with what children want and when the children keep nagging their parents to follow what they want to buy or to eat.

Previous and current studies more likely convey similar results to the study of children's influence in Jakarta. The decision-making process in the family is a joint activity between parents and children and mostly decided by the parents. Children believe that they achieve influence in the food buying and consumption processes more than their parents. Children overestimate their influence, whereas parents underestimate it.

The study of children's influence in Jakarta with regard to children's influence on the family decision-making process presents a new insight into research about child-specific explanations for children's influence and brings a research prospect on children in Jakarta. Research and studies concerning children's influence and role in the family are expected to be further investigated.

## VI SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

Once 'a child' can be isolated psychologically as having its "own," it is autonomous from its mother in fulfilling its needs and desires. The degree of influence applied by the children depends on how interested or involved the children are in the product or purchase. A review of past research on family purchase decision making has emphasized a number of factors that have proved to be significant in the family decision-making process.

## Summary of the Research Problems and Approach

There is an increasing recognition of the child's importance in family purchase and consumption decisions. Not only are children important players in the family decisionmaking process, but they are also the main, vital influencers in the situations where influence is exercised directly and indirectly through the structure of agreement among family members. Many studies were done, mostly in developed countries such as the USA and those in Europe but very few in other countries such as Indonesia. Varying with different cultures, norms, and religions, the previous studies might not applicable worldwide, and there is a need for further research in other countries in order to define the problems and compare the results, respectively.

Moreover, in previous studies, measuring the influence was not clearly identified, and the statements from the study could be biased and subjective. Therefore, this study analyzes the influence and involvement of the children during their analytical stage ( 6 to 9 years old) in the family by using an influence score in order for the respondents to distinguish the level of influence from the children in the family. The results from this study give the first overview of children's influence on family's decision-making process in food buying and consumption in Jakarta, Indonesia. This study has never been conducted in Jakarta before.

The data from this explorative study is based on qualitative and quantitative methods in order to find and test the relevant factors that could support the result from each method. Using the quantitative method through standardized questionnaires is a suitable tool to gain the opinions, beliefs, and behavior patterns of children as well as parents. At the same time, the qualitative method supports what is being said and written through direct observation in the household.

## Summary of the Results

For most families, it is the mothers' responsibility to buy, prepare, and cook the meal for the family. Children do have roles in the family, and based on the results, it has been proved that children participate in the food buying and consumption process. Children have influence on the family food when they adjust their participation to the parents' set of daily routines in cooking or shopping. Children have both a direct and indirect influence on family food buying and the consumption process. Indirect influence occurs when the parents buy food that they know that their children will eat; when parents are ready to meet the food preferences of their children, the children are in a position of influence. Children include both indirect and direct influence when considering their own influence, for instance, children believe that they achieve influence when the parents serve the foods that they like, even if children do not directly make a request to their parents. Parents do not consider indirect influence as part of children's influence. Some parents during the interview stated that it depends on the situation and the product, parents still think that children are too small to decide or influence the family; all the authority and decisions are held mainly by the parents.

Grocery shopping is considered a fun and enjoyable event for the family. During the grocery shopping, children often act as the sales representatives for their preferred foods, because they like to promote and influence the family to buy the foods they have seen in TV advertisements. According to the surveys, TV advertisements are the most important product information source for the family. Besides TV ads, family members are also an important source for children, whereas parents think that their friends give them more information about food products than their children. When it comes to selecting the products that the family wants to buy, price and taste seem to be the most important factors for both parents and children. For parents, what their children like appears to be the most important factor when they want to buy the food. Milk is the most recommended food items requested by children according to parents as well as children. Children achieve the most influence and recommend mostly the products that relate directly to themselves such as cereals and snacks. Children have the least influence in the choice of jams, eggs, and rice. Children help their parents generally by doing uncomplicated tasks such as pushing the shopping cart or taking out goods from the shelves. More complicated task such as comparing the price is less preferred by the children. Some of them expressed that they do not engage in food activities, as they felt their parents provided well enough for them.

Children's selection of food and their eating habits constitute a part of the cultural activities that children engage in and constitute parts of the routines of everyday life. Children show little interest in preparing and cooking the meal by themselves. They are found seldom or never to help their parents prepare or cook meals. Although children claimed that they always
or sometimes helped their parents during the food consumption process, they mainly did this through simple tasks such as setting the table. Parents thought that involving their children was a time-consuming and exhausting job. However, some of them were glad if their children could help them cook the meal so that they could train them to be independent and not have to rely on others. Children are able to decide more for breakfast and less for lunch and dinner. Children's participation in and influence on the family food were bound by the opportunities and constraints of their familial practices and their individual preferences. During the observation, most of the families believed that what they cooked for the children was healthy, because they consider it healthy when the food is cooked directly by them and not bought from outside. Their knowledge of what is considered healthy food is still low, even though they kept mention that they want only healthy food for the family. Furthermore, the families explained that healthy food is mostly vegetables, fruits, all fresh food such as chicken and other types of meat if they buy directly from the local market. During grocery shopping, some parents were found to be afraid of taking some unhealthy food (such as chips or soft drinks). However, they believed that once in a while the family can enjoy this kind of food and were not always bond to healthy food.

Overall, not only children, but the majority of parents also thinks that children have influence on the family decision-making process during food buying and food consumption. Although parents think that their children can influence them, they still think that children are only influencers. On the other hand, children think they are the co-decision makers or partners for their parents. In this case, children are overestimating their own influence, while parents are underestimating children's influence.

The socioeconomic and demographic statuses of the family play a role in determining the children's influence in the family, especially the age and gender of the children. The study confirmed that:

1) Age and gender of the children affect the degree of children's influence on family decision making in food buying and consumption processes.

- The older the children, the bigger the influence they have on their families' decision making (the results confirm the hypothesis).
- Girls have more influence than boys in the families' decision making (the results confirm the hypothesis).

2) Household income has a modest effect on children's influence in the family decision-making process

- Children from high-income families have more influence on planning the food for the family than children from low or middle-income families
- Children from high-income families show more responsibility in helping the parents in terms of cooking or preparing lunch for the family than children from low or middle-income families.
Hence, there are no influence or responsibility differences between children either from high, medium or low-income levels when it comes to deciding what food to buy and eat, who is responsible for buying the food, preparing and cooking the meal, helping the parents in cooking breakfast and dinner. The results indicate that even if income plays a role in the family decision-making process, the correlation between income levels and the degree of influence or responsibility from the children is considered relatively modest. One possible reason is that the income level of the participants' parents was not equally distributed; the low-income parents dominated the number of the participants, and therefore the results of this study were affected.

3) Occupation of the mother, education of the parents, parenthood, ethnicity, and family size do not affect the degree of children's influence on the family decision making in food buying and consumption processes.

- Children from employed mothers have more influence on their families' decisionmaking (the results reject the hypothesis).
It was expected that children from working mothers would have more influence on their families' decision making; however, the results indicated a different fact, where the correlation was insignificant for all the activities in the family decision-making process. When the mothers are employed, other adults in the household such as the grandmother or the maid contribute in the daily household activities. Therefore, children do not participate or get involve in organizing, planning, preparing, or cooking the meal for the family.
- Children from high education parents have more influence on their families' decision-making (the results reject the hypothesis).
The statistics show a weak result to support the hypothesis that children from high education parents have more influence on their families' decision making process. Children from low or high education parents have the same influence and responsibility in the family decision-making process. Parents from high and low degrees of education are still the people who plan, decide, and buy the food for the families.
- Children from single-parent families have more influence on their families' decisionmaking than children from dual-parent families (the results reject the hypothesis).
The study shows that there are no influence or responsibility differences between children from single or dual-parent families; only one part from the statistic results
shows a significant level - that children from single-parent families have more responsibility in helping the parents cook or prepare the dinner for the family. The correlation between parenthood and children's influence is considered too weak and far from the expectation. Children who come from single-parent families are usually being taken care of by other adults in the household such as the grandmother. Therefore, children do not have to participate in the buying and consumption process of the family.
- The ethnic background of the family has an influence on deciding whether the children can or cannot influence their families' decision-making (the results reject the hypothesis).
The correlation between language ability and children's influence in the family is too weak, and it seems that language ability might not a suitable factor that affects the children's influence in the family.
- The fewer children in the household, the more influence the child has in the family's decision-making (the results reject the hypothesis).
There is no correlation between the number of the children in the family and the influence or responsibility degree of the children in the household. Only in the food decision maker part is the significant value high, where fewer children in the household indicate more influence they have in deciding what food to buy for the family. Overall, the results signify that whether children come from big or small families, they have the same influence or responsibility in planning, buying, preparing, cooking, and helping the parents cook or prepare the meal for the family.

Children exert influence on the decision stages in buying decision process but mainly in the "evaluation of alternatives" stage, where the majority of parents admit that what their children want or like is the most important criterion for them when they want to buy the food.

Children have less influence on the last stage of buying decision process, which is "purchase act" stage. Even though parents might ask the children's opinion, in the end they have the last word, or they are the ones who mostly decide. The budget available for groceries is limited; this is also one of the factors why parents exclude children in the purchase act stage. In the consumption process, children have less influence and little participation in the "preparing and cooking" stage, but achieve more influence in the "eating" stage. Children can sometimes choose what they want to eat and they can always decide when and where they want to eat. In front of TV and inside the bedroom are the preferred places chosen by children.

## Research Limitations

In this study, participants' parents and children came mostly from low-income families, with some from middle and very few from high-income families. It would be relevant if the participants represent an equal amount of people from each income level; otherwise it could lead to a biased result.

Second, since the questionnaires were read by the teachers in class with a limited amount of time, children had difficulties understanding and answering the questions. For the next survey, the time given for the children should be carefully considered in order for the children to be able to focus and concentrate more on the questionnaires.

Furthermore, the study of both active and passive influence is important; previous studies and researchers concentrated more on the active side and less on the passive influence of children. Since passive influence of children also plays a significant role in the market and it is challenging for the researchers, it is necessary to further the research and analyze it more deeply.

## Research Implications and Recommendations

Research on children's roles in buying decisions has become more interesting for those contributing in the marketing of goods and services. Advertisers, marketers, and food producers search for information on how children are involved in buying decisions so that they may present portrayals of the family buying decision processes. The results of this study can help marketers utilize this knowledge in identifying the significant role that children play in influencing the family decision-making process and then develop a suitable marketing strategy focusing on children. By having this knowledge, the marketers must plan more child-friendly marketing activities, creating a good relationship with the children as well as the parents. The trick is to achieve an effective balance between a good marketing strategy and responsible marketing, for instance by educating the children as well as the parents about healthy nutrition and raising awareness of healthy food consumption.

Given the widespread influence of a child in the family, it is important for the parents to develop the children's consumer information processing skills in order for them to have a better knowledge of goods that they influence their family to buy and to consume. Parents could show their children how to select food that is healthy and good for the children's growth and give reasons why junk food and unhealthy snacks are not good for them. However, during the observation and interview with the parents, many are still confused in choosing the right food for their children. They think that foods rich in energy, fat, and sugar are necessary for the growing process of their children. Many parents under a misguided perception in general are not worried about the children's body image, and they believe that a
growing child needs all the nutrients they acquire from the food they eat. Therefore, it is the task of the government to inform and train not only children but also parents on the concepts of healthy food and how to establish healthy eating in their home environment. The government should cooperate with the schools in conducting this task, since they are the institutional place where the children gain their knowledge and skills, as well as a suitable guidance institution for the parents. According to the observations and surveys, some parents and children believe that schools give them important information with regard to food products and knowledge of nutrition. For this reason, the government should apply the healthy food concept and educate children as well as parents starting from school. By helping parents understand the importance of giving and practicing healthy eating patterns in their family, the food selection and food preferences of the family, especially in children, could be healthily enhanced. Children thought that food preparation and cooking are complicated tasks and they had little knowledge on it. Also, taste and price are considered important factors for the children when selecting and consuming the food. By teaching the children how to create a simple, tasty, healthy, and affordable snack that is easy and fast to prepare, they are trained to be independent in helping themselves prepare and cook their own food rather than buying fast food daily. For instance, through a special cooking program on children's TV, they are taught to be a "health-conscious chefs" for their families.

## Conclusion

Everyday routines made up an important factor in how food activities were practiced and how participation in and influence on food activities were distributed among family members. Family food buying was a joint family process, where parents as well as children participated actively and influenced decisions directly. Children's participation in and influence on the family food were bound by the opportunities and constraints of their familial practices and their individual preferences. In all families, mothers were in charge of organizing food buying and consumption processes. Children had the greatest influence on the family food when they adjusted their participation to the parents' set of daily routines in cooking or shopping. Children participated in and helped with decision-making regarding ideas, general food choices for meals, and more practical decisions. Parents were still the major influence on the food choices of their children. They made decisions about which foods were available at home, but where and when foods could be eaten in the house were mostly up to children. Parents' decisions usually prevailed in the final decision stage in family decision making. This may be due to economic realities, where parents contribute and hold family financial resources. During grocery shopping, parents were more concerned on the timing of the purchase, location of the purchase, and the amount spent. Even though the mothers were still the ones who had the last word, this study recognized the importance of seeing decision influence as a matter of degree and not matter of who has the ultimate decision at the end.

Children varied in the degree to which they considered themselves to be capable of influencing their families. Children's competencies in influencing their families were related to their growing sense of individual identity and independence. All in all, results from this research show that children play a significant role in the family decision-making process, and therefore it is important that their role in family decision making be explicitly acknowledged.

## Further Research

1) One study has found that food choices are less healthy in families with influential children. Children have limited knowledge in determining which food is healthy and which is not. Previous studies have found that children's food choice is influenced by other factors such as the media that often give children a misunderstanding of healthy food. It is therefore important to elaborate and investigate further this matter.
2) Since age of the children plays a big role in determining the degree of children's influence in the family, the age of the parents might also be an interesting topic for further research regarding children's influence on family decision making. The topic could discuss whether children from young parents (age 20 to 39) have more influence rather than children from older parents (above 40 years old). Some parents postpone having children or getting married until their careers are settled, so they might have a different perspectivee on teaching their children about household contribution. Older parents might be more authoritative, leaving their children with less influence in the family, whereas younger parents might be more open and democratic to children's opinions, enabling them to influence their parents more in household decision-making.
3) This study found a modest correlation between ethnic background and the influence of children on the family decision-making process. Since language ability might not be a suitable indicator for ethnic background of the family, future research should investigate profound factors that can be applied as the appropriate indicator of ethnic background. Different ethnicities have different norms, cultures, and traditions in the family.

Although the three topics mentioned above feature different directions from one another, they present research continuance from the study of children's influence in the family. The issue of children's influence on family decision making deserves critical and extensive research attention.

## Summary

It has taken a long time for consumer decision-making researchers to acknowledge children as important actors in the family's decision-making process. The focus of previous studies was centered on the role of husbands and wives, whereas the children's role in the family was ignored, overlooked, and neglected. Children are very important consumers that influence family purchases of products in various ways, and they have a big influence in terms of decisions in food selection. Children today are better informed, have more personal power, more influence, and get more attention from their family compared to children in past generations. These transformations have made it possible for children to exert influence in the family decision-making process.

A large number of studies with regard to children's influence in the family's decision-making process were mostly conducted in the USA and Europe. Only very few studies have come from Asia or Africa. Until now no research on children's influence in Jakarta, Indonesia, has been conducted. Therefore, this underlying study will fill this research gap. The analysis of the study focuses on the behavior and attitude of children in Jakarta from different socioeconomic statuses (SES) and socio-demographic statuses (SDS) in terms of their participation and influence in family decision-making during food buying and consumption processes. This study has the following objectives:
(1) To define the relationship between parents and children in terms of food planning, buying, cooking, and eating. The conflicts in this relationship will also be analyzed.
(2) To identify children's product preferences during grocery shopping.
(3) To examine the behavior and attitude of children during food buying, preparation, cooking, and eating.
(4) To evaluate which stage of the buying and consumption decision process children influence the most.
(5) To compare and analyze the perception and behavior of the parents and children in the family decision-making process.

For these purposes, the study focuses on children age six to nine years old, enrolled in the second to fourth grade in elementary schools located in the housing district in Jakarta, whose parents come from low to high income social levels. The study was conducted from October 2008 to December 2010 in Jakarta, Indonesia.

In order to evaluate the influence of the children concerning their participation in food purchase planning and consumption processes, a combination of two research methods
(mixed method) was applied. In the first step, the quantitative survey was conducted in three elementary schools involving 150 children and 150 parents. Then, the qualitative ethnographic study was conducted through direct observation and semi-structured interviewing, which involved 17 selected families. The participants' parents were from 20 to more than 50 years old, and they were responsible for managing the daily food buying and food consumption activities in the family.

The results show that $73 \%$ of parents and $68 \%$ of children believe that children can influence their parents in the family decision making process. Around $59 \%$ of children consider themselves to be Co-decision makers (distribution of decision power: 50\% parents / 50\% children) of the family, meaning that they sometimes decide and act as a partner for their parents in deciding what to buy and what to eat. Approximately $41 \%$ of children think that they can only act as the Influencer ( $\mathbf{7 5 \%}$ parents / 25\% children), meaning that the parents often decide for them or the family. According to the parents' point of view, $86 \%$ of them believe that children are the influencer in the family food buying and consumption processes. This prediction is correct; children overestimate their influence and role in the family, whereas parents underestimate their children's influence.

The socioeconomic and demographic statuses of the families play a role in determining the children's influence in the family decision-making process, especially in terms of food buying. Age and gender of the children have a greater influence compared to education background of the parents, for example. The older the children, the more influence they have on food planning. Girls are more responsible in buying food for the family. Other socioeconomic and demographic statuses such as income, education, parenthood, language ability of the children, and the size of the family or amount of children present less correlation with children's influence in the family decision-making process. Furthermore, this study indicates that there is no positive correlation between the occupation of the mother and the children's influence in the family. Mothers who are either employed or unemployed are responsible for managing the daily household (including food planning, buying, and cooking) of the family. Mothers still hold the dominant role in the family.

The previous empirical studies analyzed the children's influence in the family in general, such as on deciding where to go for vacation, buying a car, etc. Consequently, the results from this study of children's influence in Jakarta with regard to the family's decision-making process focused specifically on the area of food buying and consumption. Other research from other countries depicts similar results, but it only declares that children have influence in the decision-making process. In this study, children are examined not only as the influencer but also as the co-decision maker in the family decision-making process.

Having an acquaintance and understanding from this study, it is important to awaken the awareness of parents that their children have knowledge about food and how they can teach their children to buy and consume healthy food so that finally the children can become good influencers or co-decision makers for their parents. Not only children, but also parents need to be informed and trained in the concepts of healthy food and how to establish healthy eating in their home environment. By helping parents understand the importance of giving and practicing healthy eating patterns in their family, the food selection and food preferences of the family could be healthily enhanced. Furthermore, by using the knowledge from this study, the food industry must plan more child-friendly marketing activities, creating a good relationship with children as well as parents. The goal is to achieve a "healthy" balance between a good, successful marketing strategy and responsible marketing, for instance by educating children as well as parents about the healthy nutrition and bringing an awareness of consuming healthy food; therefore both parties can benefit from each other.

## "While we teach our children all about life, our children teach us what life is all about"

(Quotes from: Angela Schwindt)

## Zusammenfassung

Es war ein langer Prozess bis Entscheidungsforscher Kinder als wichtige Akteure in familiären Entscheidungsfindungsprozessen anerkannten. Der Fokus früherer Studien konzentrierte sich auf die Rolle von Ehemännern und Ehefrauen, wohingegen die Rolle von Kindern in der Familie ignoriert, übersehen und vernachlässigt wurde. Kinder sind aber sehr wichtige Akteure, die die Produktauswahl im Zuge von Familieneinkäufen auf verschiedene Art beeinflussen. Auch im Kontext von Entscheidungen hinsichtlich der Lebensmittelauswahl ist die Einflussnahme durch Kinder sehr groß. Kinder sind heute besser informiert, besitzen mehr individuellen Einfluss und genießen im Vergleich zu Kindern früherer Generationen mehr Aufmerksamkeit innerhalb der Familie. Diese Veränderungen führten dazu, dass sich der Einfluss der Kinder auf den familiären Entscheidungsfindungsprozess vergrößert hat.

Eine große Zahl von Studien, die sich mit dem Einfluss von Kindern auf familiäre Entscheidungsfindungsprozesse beschäftigen, stammen aus den USA und Europa. Nur sehr wenige Studien stammen aus Asien oder Afrika. Auch in Jakarta - Indonesien wurde der Einfluss von Kindern auf familiäre Entscheidungsfindungsprozesse bisher noch nicht untersucht. Diese Forschungslücke wird mit der vorliegenden Studie gefüllt. Im Mittelpunkt der Arbeit steht die Untersuchung des Verhaltens und der Einstellungen von Kindern aus Jakarta mit unterschiedlichem sozioökonomischen Status (SES) und soziodemografischem Status (SDS) bezüglich ihrer Teilnahme und ihrem Einfluss auf die familiäre Entscheidungsfindung hinsichtlich des Nahrungsmitteleinkaufs- und Verbrauchsprozesses. Für diese Studie wurden daher folgende Ziele definiert:
(1) Beschreibung der Beziehung zwischen Eltern und Kindern hinsichtlich der Essensplanung, dem Einkauf, dem Kochen und der Nahrungsaufnahme. Dabei werden auch die zahlreichen Konflikte, die diese Beziehung behaften, untersucht.
(2) Identifizierung von Produktvorlieben der Kinder beim Lebensmitteleinkauf.
(3) Untersuchung des Verhaltens und der Einstellungen von Kindern während des Lebensmitteleinkaufs, der Mahlzeitenzubereitung und -einnahme.
(4) Feststellung der Phase, in der Kinder den Kaufs- und Verbrauchsentscheidungsprozess am stärksten beeinflussen.
(5) Vergleich und Analyse der Wahrnehmung und des Verhaltens der Eltern und Kinder hinsichtlich des familiären Entscheidungsfindungsprozesses.

Zu diesem Zweck konzentriert sich die Studie auf Schulkinder im Alter von sechs bis neun Jahren, die die zweite bis vierte Klasse besuchen. Die besuchte Schule befindet sich im Wohngebiet von Jakarta. Die Eltern verfügen über ein niedriges bis hohes Einkommen. Die Studie wurde von Oktober 2008 bis Dezember 2010 in Jakarta durchgeführt.

Um den Einfluss der Kinder bezüglich ihrer Teilnahme während der Planung des Nahrungsmitteleinkaufs- und Verbrauchsprozesses zu bewerten, wurde eine Kombination von zwei Forschungsmethoden (mixed-method) angewandt. Im ersten Schritt wurde eine quantitative Erhebung mittels eines Fragebogens in drei Grundschulen durchgeführt, die 150 Kinder und 150 Eltern einbezog. Dann wurde eine qualitative ethnographische Studie durch direkte Beobachtung und halb strukturierte Interviews ergänzt, welche 17 ausgewählte Familien einschloss. Die teilnehmenden Eltern sind zwischen 20 und über 50 Jahre alt und sie sind verantwortlich für die Organisation des täglichen Nahrungsmitteleinkaufs und verbrauchs in der Familie.

Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass 73\% der teilnehmenden Eltern und 68\% der Kinder glauben, dass Kinder ihre Eltern im familiären Entscheidungsfindungsprozess beeinflussen. Ungefähr 59\% der Kinder betrachten sich selbst als Mitentscheider (Verteilung der Entscheidungsmacht: $\mathbf{5 0 \%}$ Eltern / 50\% Kinder), das bedeutet, dass sie manchmal entscheiden und als Partner ihrer Eltern agieren hinsichtlich dem, was gekauft und was gegessen wird. Etwa 41\% der Kinder denken, dass sie nur als Beeinflusser (75\% Eltern / 25\% Kinder) handeln können, das bedeutet, dass die Eltern häufig für sie oder für die Familie entscheiden. Aus Sicht der Eltern glauben $86 \%$ von ihnen, dass Kinder als Beeinflusser die familiären Nahrungsmitteleinkaufs- und Verbrauchsprozesse entscheiden. Die Annahme, dass Kinder ihren Einfluss und ihre Rolle in der Familie überschätzen, wohingegen Eltern den Einfluss ihrer Kinder unter-schätzen, bestätigt sich demnach.

Sozioökonomische und demografische Faktoren der Familie spielen eine Rolle in der Bestimmung des Einflusses der Kinder auf familiäre Entscheidungsfindungsprozesse bezüglich des Nahrungsmitteleinkaufs. Alter und Geschlecht der Kinder, haben einen größeren Einfluss als z.B. der Bildungsstand der Eltern. Je älter die Kinder sind, desto mehr Einfluss haben sie auf die Essensplanung. Mädchen übernehmen häufiger die Verantwortung für den familiären Nahrungsmitteleinkauf. Andere sozioökonomische und demografische Faktoren wie Einkommen, Ausbildung, Elternschaft, Sprach-fähigkeit der Kinder, die Größe der Familie oder die Anzahl der Kinder zeigen einen geringen Zusammenhang zum Einfluss der Kinder in familiären Entscheidungs-findungsprozessen. Weiterhin zeigen die Ergebnisse dieser Studie, dass es keine positive Korrelation zwischen dem Beruf der Mutter und dem Einfluss der Kinder in der Familie gibt. Sowohl Mütter, die berufstätig sind als auch Mütter die Hausfrauen sind, sind für die Handhabung des täglichen Haushalts (inklusive

Nahrungsmittelplanung, Einkaufen und Kochen) verantwortlich. Mütter nehmen noch immer die dominante Rolle in der Familie ein.

Vorausgehende empirische Studien analysierten den Einfluss der Kinder in der Familie in allgemeiner Hinsicht, was z.B. auch Bereiche wie Urlaub, Autokauf usw. beinhaltet. Folglich sind die Ergebnisse der Studie bezüglich des Einflusses von Kindern in Jakarta auf familiäre Entscheidungsfindungsprozesse durch ihren Fokus auf den Bereich des Nahrungsmitteleinkaufs und -konsums sehr spezifisch. Andere Forschungen aus anderen Ländern beschreiben zwar vergleichbare Ergebnisse, allerdings erkennen sie lediglich, dass Kinder einen Einfluss auf Entscheidungsprozesse haben. In der vorliegenden Studie hingegen werden die Kinder nicht nur als Beeinflusser charakterisiert, sondern eben auch als Mitentscheider.

Aus den Erkenntnissen dieser Studie kann geschlussfolgert werden, dass es notwendig ist, das Bewusstsein der Eltern dafür zu wecken, dass ihre Kinder Wissen über Lebensmittel und deren Kauf und Konsum für eine ausgewogene Lebensmittelauswahl haben müssen, um dann schließlich sinnvolle Beeinflusser oder Mitentscheider im Zuge von Konsumentscheidungen ihrer Eltern sein zu können. Allerdings stehen nicht nur Kinder im Mittelpunkt von Schulungs- und Aufklärungsmaßnahmen, sondern auch Eltern müssen über Konzepte der gesunden Ernährung und wie diese in der häuslichen Umgebung umgesetzt werden können, informiert werden. Die Unterstützung der Eltern und die Steigerung der Bedeutung einer gesunden Lebensmittelauswahl innerhalb der Familie, führt zu einer Verbesserung der Ernährungssituation der ganzen Familie. Darüber hinaus zeigen die Erkenntnissen aus dieser Studie, dass die Lebensmittel-industrie kinderfreundlichere Marketing-Maßnahmen planen muss, um eine verbesserte Beziehung zu Kindern und Eltern zu erreichen. Ein „gesundes" Gleichgewicht zwischen einer guten und damit erfolgreichen Marketingstrategie und verantwortlichem Marketing, das Kinder sowie Eltern z.B. über gesunde Ernährung aufklärt und ein Bewusstsein für gesunde Ernährung schafft, hat für beide Seiten Vorteile.
"While we teach our children all about life, our children teach us what life is all about"
(Zitat von: Angela Schwindt)

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# Children's Influence on the Family Decision-Making Process in Food Buying and Consumption - An Empirical Study of Children's Influence in Jakarta, Indonesia 


#### Abstract

Aim - The aim of the study is to analyze the behavior of children in Jakarta, Indonesia from different socioeconomic statuses (SES) and socio-demographic statuses (SDS) in terms of their participation and influence in family decision-making process during food buying and consumption. Furthermore, the perception and behavior of the parents and children will be compared to see whether children overestimate their influence or whether parents underestimate their children's influence on the family decision making process or not.


Method - The study is based on a mixed-method of empirical design, combining quantitative and qualitative techniques. The quantitative part includes standardized questionnaires, and the qualitative part utilizes an ethnographic study in terms of direct observation and semi-structured interviewing. Questionnaires were completed by 300 participants ( 150 children aged 6 to 9 years and 150 parents aged 20 to more than 50 years). 17 families participated in the qualitative part of the study.

Findings - The results signify that the majority of parents and children think that children can or have influence on the family decision-making process. Parents think that their children can influence them, but they perceive their children only as the influencer, means that the parents often decide for them. On the other hand, children describe themselves as the codecision maker, means that the decision is $50 \%$ decided by parents and $50 \%$ decided by children. In this case, children overestimate their own influence, while parents underestimate children's influence. The family SES and SDS play a role in determining the children's influence in the family, especially age and gender of the children. Nevertheless, household income, education background, occupation of the parents, parenthood, family size, and language ability of the children have modest effects on determining the children's influence and responsibility in the family.

Conclusion - Daily routines made up an important factor in how food activities were practiced and how participation in and influence on food activities were distributed among family members. Children's participation in and influence on the family food were bound by the opportunities and constraints of their familial practices and their individual preferences. In all families, mothers are in charge of organizing food buying and the consumption process. Children participate in and help with decision-making regarding ideas, general food choices for meals, and decisions that are more practical. Parents are still the major influence on the food choices of their children.

## EIDESSTATTLICHE ERKLÄRUNG

"Ich erkläre: Ich habe die vorgelegte Dissertation selbstständig und ohne unerlaubte fremde Hilfe und nur mit den Hilfen angefertigt, die ich in der Dissertation angegeben habe. Alle Textstellen, die wörtlich oder sinngemä $\beta$ aus veröffentlichten Schriften entnommen sind, und alle Angaben, die auf mündlichen Auskünften beruhen, sind als solche kenntlich gemacht. Bei den von mir durchgeführten und in der Dissertation erwähnten Untersuchungen habe ich die Grundsätze guter wissenschaftlicher Praxis, wie sie in der „Satzung der Justus-LiebigUniversität Giessen zur Sicherung guter wissenschaftlicher Praxis" niedergelegt sind, eingehalten".

Ort, Datum
Unterschrift

## DECLARATION

"I declare that the dissertation here submitted is entirely my own work, written without any illegitimate help by any third party and solely with materials as indicated in the dissertation. I have indicated in the text where I have used texts from already published sources, either word for word or in substance, and where I have made statements based on oral information given to me. At all times during the investigations carried out by me and described in the dissertation, I have followed the principles of good scientific practice as defined in the 'Statutes of the Justus Liebig University Giessen for the Safeguarding of Good Scientific Practice.'"

## List of Appendices

A1. A Request Letter for School to Participate in the Research (in English) ..... 2
A2. A Request Letter for School to Participate in the Research (In Indonesian) ..... 3
A3. A Request Letter for Parents to Participate in the Research (in English) ..... 4
A4. A Request Letter for Parents to Participate in the Research (In Indonesian) ..... 5
A5. Questionnaire for Children (in English) ..... 6
A6. Questionnaire for Children (In Indonesian) ..... 14
A7. Questionnaire for Parents (in English) ..... 22
A8. Questionnaire for Parents (In Indonesian) ..... 29
A9. Influence Score for Children's Questionnaire ..... 37
A10. Influence Score for Parents' Questionnaire ..... 38
A11. Influence Score Results ..... 40
A12. Observation and Interview Protocol ..... 42
A13. Pictures during the Survey ..... 46
A14. Pictures during the Ethnographic Study (Observation \& Interview) ..... 48
$\square$ Institut für Ernährungswissenschaft - Senckenbergstr. 3 • D-35390 Gießen

## Institut for Nutritional Science

## Agricultural Sciences, Nutritional Sciences, Envental Management

Prof. Dr. I.-U. Leonhäuser
Senckenbergstr. 3
D-35390 Gießen
Tel.: 0049 641 / 99 - 39081/80
Fax.: 0049 641 / 99-39089
Email: leonhaeuser-ebvv@ernaehrung.uni-giessen.de
October 9-2008

## School Information

The department of nutritional education and consumer behaviour of Justus-Liebig-University Giessen would like to request your allowance for us in conducting our research project in your school, with the topic "Children's influence on family's decision-making process in food buying and consumption in Jakarta, Indonesia."
The purpose of this research project is to analyse the behaviour of children in Jakarta, in terms of their involvement and influence in family decision-making process during food buying and consumption.
This research project will involve some interviews, observations and questionnaires, which will be conducted from October 2008 until approximately July 2009. The personal data information acquired from the project activities (interviews, observations, and questionnaires) will be restricted anonym, i.e. without names and will be securely saved and used for the purpose of the department of nutritional education and consumer behaviour of Justus-Liebig-University Giessen.
The participation or involvement from this research project is optional and voluntary. The parents or the authorized person, together with the children have the right to refuse the involvement offer or cancel the participation afterwards.

Prof. Dr. Ingrid-Ute Leonhäuser
Hanny Suwandinata, M.A

With this signature, I confirm that I have been informed about the participation and involvement from the research project "Children's influence on family's decision-making process in food buying and consumption in Jakarta, Indonesia" and I agree to give Ms. Hanny Suwandinata and her team the allowance to conduct the project activities (interviews, observations, and questionnaires) in our school.

Jakarta, $\qquad$
$\qquad$
Signature and full name from the school principal or authorized person from the school

## Institut für Ernährungswissenschaft • Senckenbergstr. 3 -

 D-35390 Gießen
## Institut for Nutritional Science

Prof. Dr. I.-U. Leonhäuser<br>Senckenbergstr. 3<br>D-35390 Gießen<br>Tel.: 0049641 / 99 - 39081/80<br>Fax.: 0049 641 / 99-39089<br>Email: leonhaeuser-ebvv@ernaehrung.uni-giessen.de

October 9-2008

## Informasi untuk Sekolah

Kepada Yang Terhormat Bapak / Ibu,
Bersama dengan surat ini, perkenankan saya, Hanny Suwandinata M.A. atas nama fakultas ilmu gizi, universitas Giessen, Jerman, untuk melakukan penelitian di sekolah yang dipimpin oleh Bapak/lbu. Adapun tema penelitian saya adalah "Pengaruh anak dalam proses pengambilan keputusan pembelian makanan dan konsumsi dalam keluarga". Penelitian ini akan dipusatkan kepada anak-anak sekolah dasar di Jakarta yang berumur 7 sampai dengan 10 tahun.

Tujuan dari penelitian ini adalah untuk menganalisa tingkah laku anak didalam keterlibatan dan pengaruh mereka dalam proses pengambilan keputusan orang tua pada saat mereka merencanakan, membeli dan menkonsumsi makanan.

Penelitian ini akan meliputi wawancara, tanya jawab, pengamatan, dan survey di lingkungan sekolah, rumah dan tempat belanja keluarga. Penelitian ini akan diselenggarakan diluar jam belajar sekolah, yaitu selama waktu istirahat (didalam sekolah/di kantin) dan setelah anak-anak selesai dengan jam belajar sekolah (disekitar halaman sekolah). Penelitian ini akan diadakan mulai dari bulan Oktober 2008 sampai dengan perkiraan bulan Juli 2009. Data-data yang diperoleh selama penelitian tidak akan mencantumkan nama dan tentunya akan menjadi rahasia. Data ini hanya dipergunakan untuk penelitian dan tidak akan disebarluaskan untuk tujuan dan kepentingan hal atau pihak pihak tertentu.

Partisipasi dan keterlibatan dalam penelitian ini adalah bebas dan suka rela. Orang tua bersama dengan anaknya berhak untuk menolak tawaran dari partisipasi ini atau membatalkan partisipasi mereka setelahnya.

Hanny Suwandinata, M.A

[^1]
## Institut for Nutritional Science

Institut für Ernährungswissenschaft • Senckenbergstr. 3 • D-35390 Gießen

Prof. Dr. I.-U. Leonhäuser<br>Senckenbergstr. 3<br>D-35390 Gießen<br>Tel.: 0049 641 / $99-39081 / 80$<br>Fax.: 0049 641 / 99-39089<br>Email: leonhaeuser-ebvv@ernaehrung.uni-giessen.de

October 9-2008

## Parents Information

The department of nutritional education and consumer behaviour of Justus-Liebig-University Giessen would like to request you and your children to participate in our research project, with the topic of "Children's influence on family's decision-making process in food buying and consumption in Jakarta, Indonesia."
The purpose of this research project is to analyse the behaviour of children in Jakarta, in terms of their involvement and influence in family decision-making process during food buying and consumption.
This research project will involve some interviews, observations and questionnaires, which will be conducted from October 2008 until approximately July 2009. The personal data information acquired from the project activities (interviews, observations, and questionnaires) will be restricted anonym, i.e. without names and will be securely saved and used for the purpose of the department of nutritional education and consumer behaviour of Justus-Liebig-University Giessen.
The participation or involvement from this research project is optional and voluntary. The parents or the authorized person, together with the children have the right to refuse the involvement offer or cancel the participation afterwards.

Prof. Dr. Ingrid-Ute Leonhäuser
Hanny Suwandinata, M.A

With this signature, I confirm that I have been informed about the participation and involvement from the research project "Children's influence on family's decision-making process in food buying and consumption in Jakarta, Indonesia", also that I and my child agree to participate and involve in the project activities (interviews, observations, and questionnaires).

Jakarta, $\qquad$
$\qquad$
Signature and full name from parent or authorized person for the child(ren)
Contact address:
Telephone:
Appropriate day \& time (hour) for us to contact you by phone:

Institut für Ernährungswissenschaft - Senckenbergstr. 3 . D-35390 Gießen

## Institut for Nutritional Science

## Agricultural Sciences, Nutritional Sciences,

Prof. Dr. I.-U. Leonhäuser
Senckenbergstr. 3
D-35390 Gießen
Tel.: 0049 641 / 99 - 39081/80
Fax.: 0049 641 / 99-39089
Email: leonhaeuser-ebvv@ernaehrung.uni-giessen.de
October 9-2008

## Informasi untuk Orang tua

Kepada Yang Terhormat Bapak /lbu /Orangtua murid,
Bersama dengan surat ini, perkenankan saya, Hanny Suwandinata M.A. atas nama fakultas ilmu gizi, universitas Giessen, Jerman, untuk melakukan penelitian di tempat anak anak ibu dan bapak bersekolah. Adapun tema penelitian saya adalah "Pengaruh anak dalam proses pengambilan keputusan pembelian makanan dan konsumsi dalam keluarga". Penelitian ini akan dipusatkan kepada anak-anak sekolah dasar di Jakarta yang berumur 7 sampai dengan 10 tahun.

Tujuan dari penelitian ini adalah untuk menganalisa tingkah laku anak didalam keterlibatan dan pengaruh mereka dalam proses pengambilan keputusan orang tua pada saat mereka merencanakan, membeli dan mengkonsumsi makanan.

Berhubungan dengan tujuan penelitian ini, maka pertanyaan ataupun wawancara yang akan dilaksanakan dengan orang tua maupun anak, akan meliputi thema di bidang perencanaan, pembelian dan pengkonsumsian makanan. Data-data yang diperoleh selama penelitian hanya dipergunakan untuk penelitian dan tidak akan disebarluaskan untuk tujuan dan kepentingan hal atau pihak pihak tertentu.

Partisipasi dan keterlibatan dalam penelitian ini adalah bebas dan suka rela. Anda beserta anak anda berhak untuk menolak tawaran dari partisipasi ini atau membatalkan partisipasi mereka setelahnya.

## Hanny Suwandinata, M.A

## Contact: 085882663919

Dengan tanda tangan dibawah ini, saya menyatakan bahwa saya dan anak saya telah diberitahukan tentang penelitian "Pengaruh anak dalam proses pengambilan keputusan pembelian makanan dan konsumsi di dalam keluarga" dan saya beserta anak saya bersedia untuk berpartisipasi dalam kegiatan penelitian tersebut.
Jakarta, $\qquad$
(___)
Tanda tangan dan nama lengkap dari orang tua anak atau pihak keluarga yang berwenang.
Kontak alamat:
Telefon:
Hari dan jam yang sesuai untuk kami bisa hubungi anda lewat telefon

# Questionnaire 

## for Children


$\qquad$
When answering questions, please cross $(X)$ inside the box or write the answer that most nearly reflects your opinion. Thank you ©

About you

1. I am a:

girl
2. How old are you: years old
3. How many brothers or sisters do you have? If you don't have brothers or sisters, just write 0 (Zero)
Brothers: Sisters:
4. What languages do you speak in your family?
$\square$ Indonesian
$\square$ English
$\square$ Chinese (Mandarin)
$\square$ Others: (Please mention)

## Food Buying Planning

5. Who usually plan or organize in buying the food? Please cross 1 box only
$\square$ Mommy (Value: 0)
$\square$ Daddy (Value: 0)Me alone (Value: 2)Mommy and Daddy (Value: 0)Me together with Mommy (Value: 1)Me together with Daddy (Value: 1)
Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
6. Who in the family decide what food to buy? Please cross 1 box only
$\square$ Mommy (Value: 0)
$\square$ Daddy (Value: 0)
$\square$ Me alone (Value: 2)Mommy and Daddy (Value: 0)Me together with Mommy (Value: 1)Me together with Daddy (Value: 1)
Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
7. Who do you think should be responsible for buying the food? Please cross 1 box onlyMommy (Value: 0)Daddy (Value: 0)Me alone (Value: 2)Mommy and Daddy (Value: 0)Me together with Mommy (Value: 1)Me together with Daddy (Value: 1)Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
8. Mommy or daddy allows me to buy what I want. Please cross 1 box only
$\square$ Always (yes, every time or every day) (Value: 4)
$\square$ Often (yes, but only about 3 times a week) (Value: 3)
$\square$ Sometimes (yes, but only once a week) (Value: 2)
$\square$ Seldom (yes, but only once a month or less) (Value: 1)
$\square$ Never (No, I am not allowed to buy what I want) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Don't know (Value: 0)
9. Do you feel happy if your parents allow you decide what you want to buy? Please cross 1 box only

Yes (Value: 2)
(I am always happy every time my parents allow me decide what I want to buy)
$\square$ No (Value: 0)
(I am not happy if my parents allow me decide what I want to buy), Please give your reason why:
Sometimes (Value: 1)
(I can be happy and can be not happy if my parents allow me decide what I want to buy) Please give your reason why:
Don't Know (Value: 0)
10. Where do you usually get the information about the foodstuffs? Who told you about the food stuffs or food products, for example about the new product? (For this question, you may cross more than 1 box, but maximum 3 boxes)

```
            Family members (Father, Mother, Brother, Sister)
            Friends
            School
            Supermarket
            TV advertisement
                            \squareTV Programme (Cartoon film on TV)
```

```Newspaper
```

```Magazines
Radio
```

```Advertisement on the street (Billboard)
```

```Internet
Others:
```


## During grocery shopping

11. What is important for you when you buy or choose the foodstuffs? (For this question, you may cross more than 1 box, but maximum 3 boxes)
$\square$ Price (cheap, expensive, on sale)Pictures, colours, and form of the packagePictures, colours, and form of the foodTaste (Variety of taste)Toys (premiums)New in the marketI saw it on advertisementNear cashier deskBecause other family members like it (mommy, daddy or sisters brothers)
$\square$ Others:
12. How often does your mother or father go for grocery shopping? Please cross 1 box only
$\square$ Every day
$\square$ Two or Three times a week
Once a week
Once a month or less
Never, Please give the reason why:
Don't know
13. How often do you go for grocery shopping with your mother or father? Please cross 1 box only
$\square$ Always (Every time they go for grocery shopping, I always come along) (Value: 4)Sometimes (Only 3 times from their grocery shopping time) (Value: 2)Never (I never go with them during grocery shopping) (Value: 0)
14. Do you enjoy grocery shopping? Please cross 1 box only
$\square$ Yes, please give reason why
(Value: 2)
$\square$ No, please give reason why
(Value: 0)
$\square$ Sometimes, please give reason why (Value: 1) Don't know (Value: 0)
15. How do you help your mother /father during groceries shopping? (For this question, you may cross more than 1 box, but maximum 3 boxes)
$\square$ Listing items on the shopping list (Value: 1)
Browsing through circulars (Value: 1)
$\square$ Taking the goods from the shelves (Value: 1)
$\square$ Pushing the shopping cart (Value: 1)
$\square$ Taking out the goods and put them on the check-out counter (Value: 1)
$\square$ Comparing the price between the products (Value: 1)
I don't help them (Value: 0)
Others: (Value: 1)
16. When your mother buys foods for you, does she ask first whether you want it or not? Please cross 1 box only
$\square$ Always (Yes, she always ask me first whether I want it or not) (Value: 4)
$\square$ Often (Yes, from 4 out of 5 foods buying for me, she would ask me first) (Value: 3)
$\square$ Sometimes (Yes, from 3 out of 5 foods buying for me, she would ask me first) (Value:2)
$\square$ Seldom (Yes, but only 1 or 2 out of 5 foods buying for me, she would ask me first) (Value: 1)Never (No, she never ask me first) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
17. Do you tell your mother or father what food to buy? Please cross 1 box only
$\square$ Always (Value: 4)
(Yes, I always tell her what food to buy)
$\square$ Often (Value: 3)
(Yes, from 4 out of 5 foods buying, I tell her what food to buy)
$\square$ Sometimes (Value: 2)
(Yes, from 3 out of 5 foods buying, I tell her what food to buy)
$\square$ Seldom (Value: 1)
(Yes, from 1 or 2 out of 5 foods buying, I tell her what food to buy)Never (Skip question 18 and continue to question no. 19) (Value: 0)
(No, I never tell her what food to buy)
$\square$ Don't know (Skip question 18 and continue to question no. 19) (Value: 0)
$\qquad$
18. What kind of food do you tell your mother to buy? (For this question, you may cross more than 1 box, but maximum 3 boxes)$\square$ Vegetables
Cereal
Breads
Jam
$\square$ Milk
Juice
$\square$ Meat or fishEgg
RiceSnacks (chips, chocolates, candies)
$\square$ Ice creamOthers :

## Consumption Process

## Breakfast:

19. Who usually prepare(s) breakfast in your family? Please cross 1 box onlyMommy (Value: 0)
Daddy (Value: 0)
Me alone (Value: 2)
Mommy and Daddy (Value: 0)
Me together with Mommy (Value: 1)Me together with Daddy (Value: 1)
Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
20. Who usually cooks the breakfast in your family? Please cross 1 box only.Mommy (Value: 0)
Daddy (Value: 0)Me alone (Value: 2)Mommy and Daddy (Value: 0)Me together with Mommy (Value: 1)Me together with Daddy (Value: 1)
Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
21. How often do you help your parents in cooking the breakfast (including cutting the vegetables or meat, pour the spices or sauces)? Please cross 1 box only.Always (Value: 4)
(I always help them in cooking the breakfast)Often (Value: 3)
(From 4 out of 5 times)Sometimes (Value: 2)
(From 3 out of 5 times)Seldom (Value: 1)
(From 1 or 2 out of 5 times)Never (Value: 0)
(No, I never help them in cooking the breakfast)
Please give the reason why:Don't know (Value: 0)
22. Can you decide what kind of food you want to eat for breakfast? Please cross 1 box only.

Always (Value: 4)
(I can always decide what kind of food I want to eat for breakfast)Often (Value: 3)
(From 4 out of 5 times)Sometimes (Value: 2)
(From 3 out of 5 times)Seldom (Value: 1)
(From 1 or 2 out of 5 times)Never (Value: 0)
(No, I can not decide what kind of food I want to eat for breakfast) Please give the reason whyDon't know (Value: 0)

## Lunch:

23. Who usually prepare(s) lunch in your family? Please cross 1 box only.Mommy (Value: 0)Daddy (Value: 0)
Me alone (Value: 2)Mommy and Daddy (Value: 0)
Me together with Mommy (Value: 1)Me together with Daddy (Value: 1)Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
24. Who usually cooks the lunch in your family? Please cross 1 box onlyMommy (Value: 0)Daddy (Value: 0)
Me alone (Value: 2)
Mommy and Daddy (Value: 0)
Me together with Mommy (Value: 1)Me together with Daddy (Value: 1)
$\square$ Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
25. How often do you help your parents in cooking the lunch (including cutting the vegetables or meat, pour the spices or sauces)? Please cross 1 box only.Always (Value: 4)
(I always help them in cooking the lunch)Often (Value: 3)
(From 4 out of 5 times)Sometimes (Value: 2)
(From 3 out of 5 times)Seldom (Value: 1)
(From 1 or 2 out of 5 times)Never (Value: 0)
(No, I never help them in cooking the lunch)
Please give the reason why
Don't know (Value: 0)
26. Can you decide what kind of food you want to eat for lunch? Please cross 1 box only.

Always (Value: 4)
(I can always decide what kind of food I want to eat for lunch)Often (Value: 3)
(From 4 out of 5 times)Sometimes (Value: 2)
(From 3 out of 5 times)Seldom (Value: 1)
(From 1 or 2 out of 5 times)Never (Value: 0)
(No, I can not decide what kind of food I want to eat for lunch)
Please give the reason whyDon't know (Value: 0)
Dinner:
27. Who usually prepare(s) dinner in your family? Please cross 1 box only.Mommy (Value: 0)
Daddy (Value: 0)
Me alone (Value: 2)
Mommy and Daddy (Value: 0)
Me together with Mommy (Value: 1)
Me together with Daddy (Value: 1)
Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
28. Who usually cooks the dinner in your family? Please cross 1 box only.Mommy (Value: 0)
Daddy (Value: 0)
Me alone (Value: 2)
Mommy and Daddy (Value: 0)
Me together with Mommy (Value: 1)
Me together with Daddy (Value: 1)
Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
29. How often do you help your parents in cooking the dinner (including cutting the vegetables or meat, pour the spices or sauces)? Please cross 1 box only.Always (Value: 4)
(I always help them in cooking the dinner)Often (Value: 3)
(From 4 out of 5 times)Sometimes (Value: 2)
(From 3 out of 5 times)Seldom (Value: 1)
(From 1 or 2 out of 5 times)Never (Value: 0)
(No, I never help them in cooking the dinner), Please give the reason why Don't know (Value: 0)
30. Can you decide what kind of food you want to eat for dinner? Please cross 1 box only.

Always (Value: 4)
(I can always decide what kind of food I want to eat for dinner)Often (Value: 3)
(From 4 out of 5 times)Sometimes (Value: 2)
(From 3 out of 5 times)Seldom (Value: 1)
(From 1 or 2 out of 5 times)Never (Value: 0)
(No, I can not decide what kind of food I want to eat for dinner)
Please give the reason whyDon't know (Value: 0)
31. Overall, do you think you have influence towards your parents in terms of what to buy and what to eat?Yes (Value: 1)No (Value: 0)Don't know (Value: 0)

## Pertanyaan Survey untuk Anak



Berikan satu tanda silang didalam kotak yang tersedia untuk setiap pertanyaan atau jawablah pertanyaan dibawah yang paling sesuai dengan pendapat kamu. Terima kasih ;) Tentang kamu

1. Aku adalah anak:


Laki laki Perempuan
2. Aku berumur: tahun
3. Berapa jumlah kakak atau adik perempuan atau laki laki yang kamu punya? Kalau kamu tidak punya kakak atau adik perempuan atau laki laki, silahkan tulis 0 ( Nol ) dipertanyaan dibawah ini. Kakak atau adik laki laki: Kakak atau adik perempuan:
4. Bahasa apa yang kamu pakai dalam berkomunikasi sehari hari dengan keluargamu?
$\square$ Indonesia
$\square$ Inggris
$\square$ Chinese (Mandarin)
$\square$ Bahasa lainnya:
(Bahasa lain yang kamu pakai untuk berkomunikasi dengan keluargamu)

## Rencana belanja makanan

5. Siapa yang biasanya merencanakan belanja makanan sehari hari? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah iniIbu (Value: 0)
Ayah (Value: 0)
Aku sendiri (Value: 2)
Ibu dan Ayah (Value: 0)
Ibu dan aku (Value: 1)
Ayah dan aku (Value: 1)
Orang lain: (Tolong sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
6. Siapa yang menentukan makanan apa yang harus dibeli? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini
$\square$ Ibu (Value: 0)
Ayah (Value: 0)
Aku sendiri (Value: 2)
Ibu dan Ayah (Value: 0)
Ibu dan aku (Value: 1)
Ayah dan aku (Value: 1)
Orang lain: (Tolong sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
7. Menurut pendapat kamu siapakah yang seharusnya bertanggung jawab untuk membeli makanan? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah iniIbu (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ayah (Value: 0)
$\square$ Aku sendiri (Value: 2)
$\square$ Ibu dan Ayah (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ibu dan aku (Value: 1)
$\square$ Ayah dan aku (Value: 1)
Orang lain: (Tolong sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
8. Ibu atau ayah mengijinkan aku untuk membeli apa saja yang aku mau beli. Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.


Selalu (ya, setiap kali atau setiap hari) (Value: 4)
Sering (ya, tapi hanya seminggu 3 kali) (Value: 3)
Kadang kadang (ya, tapi hanya seminggu sekali) (Value: 2)
Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah
(ya, tapi hanya sekali dalam sebulan atau kurang dari itu) (Value: 1)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Aku tidak pernah diijinkan untuk membeli apa yang aku mau) (Value: 0) Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
9. Apakah kamu merasa senang kalau orangtuamu mengijinkan kamu memutuskan untuk membeli makanan apapun yang kamu mau? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini $\square$ Ya (Value: 2)
(Aku selalu senang kalau setiap saat orangtuaku mengijinkan aku memutuskan untuk membeli apapun yang aku mau)Tidak (Value: 0)
(Aku tidak senang kalau orangtuaku mengijinkan aku memutuskan untuk membeli apapun yang aku mau), Tolong jelaskan alasan kenapa kamu tidak senang:Kadang Kadang (Value: 1)
(Kadang aku senang, kadang aku tidak senang kalau orangtuaku mengijinkan aku memutuskan untuk membeli apapun yang aku mau), Tolong jelaskan alasannya kenapa:
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
10. Darimana biasanya kamu mendapatkan informasi tentang berbagai macam makanan? Siapa yang memberi tahu kamu tentang informasi makanan atau produk makanan, misalnya informasi tentang produk makanan baru? (Untuk pertanyaan ini, kamu boleh menyilang lebih dari satu kotak tapi paling banyak bisa sampai 3 kotak)

Dari keluargaku (Ayah, ibu, kakak, adik)<br>Dari teman-temanku<br>Dari sekolahku<br>Dari supermarket<br>Dari iklan-iklan di televisi<br>Dari program acara ditelevisi (Misalnya dari film karton)<br>Dari koran<br>Dari majalah<br>Dari radio<br>Dari iklan dipinggir jalan<br>Dari Internet<br>Dari sumber informasi lainnya:

## Selama berbelanja makanan

11. Menurut kamu apa yang paling penting dalam memilih atau membeli makanan? (Untuk pertanyaan ini, kamu boleh menyilang lebih dari satu kotak tapi paling banyak bisa sampai 3 kotak)
$\square$ Harga (murah atau lagi didiscount)
$\square$ Gambar, warna, dan bentuk dari kemasannya
$\square$ Gambar, warna, dan bentuk dari makanannya
Rasanya (Berbagai macam rasa)
Hadiah didalamnya, seperti mainan
Baru muncul disupermarket
Aku liat iklannya di televisi
$\square$ Dekat dengan kasir disupermarket
$\square$ Karena keluargaku suka (Bapak, ibu, kakak, adikku suka dengan makanannya)
Faktor lainnya:
12. Berapa sering ayah atau ibu pergi berbelanja makanan? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.


Dua atau tiga kali dalam seminggu
Sekali dalam seminggu
Sekali dalam sebulan atau kurang
Bapak atau ibu tidak pernah berbelanja makanan
Tolong berikan penjelasannya kenapa:
Aku tidak tahu
13. Berapa sering kamu ikut pergi berbelanja makanan dengan ayah atau ibumu? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.

Selalu (Value: 4)
(Setiap mereka pergi berbelanja makanan, aku selalu ikut serta)
Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Hanya kira kira 3 kali dari waktu belanjanya mereka)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Aku tidak pernah ikut mereka pergi berbelanja makanan)
14. Apakah kamu menyukai pergi berbelanja makanan? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.

Ya, (Value: 2), Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
Tidak (Value: 0), Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
Kadang kadang (Value: 1), Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
15. Bagaimana kamu membantu ibu atau ayahmu selama mereka berbelanja makanan? (Untuk pertanyaan ini, kamu boleh menyilang lebih dari satu kotak tapi paling banyak bisa sampai 3 kotak)

Membaca atau mencocokan barang barang yang dibeli dengan daftar belanja ibu atau ayahku (Value: 1)


Melihat barang barang dari lorong lorong supermarket (Value: 1)
Mengambil barang dari raknya (Value: 1)
Mendorong kereta belanja (Value: 1)
Memindahkan barang belanjaan dari kereta dorong ke meja kasir (Value: 1)
Membandingkan harga dari berbagai macam produk dan merek makanan (Value: 1)
Aku tidak membantu mereka sama sekali (Value: 0)
Hal lainnya yang aku bantu: (Value: 1)
16. Pada waktu ibumu membelikan makanan untuk kamu, apakah ibumu menanyakan terlebih dahulu ke kamu, apa kamu mau atau tidak? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini

## Selalu (Value: 4)

(Ya, ibuku selalu menanyakan terlebih dahulu ke aku apa aku mau atau tidak)
$\square$ Sering (Value: 3)
(Ya, 4 dari 5 kali membelikan makanan untuk aku, ibuku akan bertanya dahulu ke aku)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Ya, 3 dari 5 kali membelikan makanan untuk aku, ibuku akan bertanya dahulu ke aku)
$\square$ Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Ya, tapi hanya 1 atau 2 dari 5 kali membelikan makanan untuk aku, ibuku akan bertanya dahulu ke aku)
Tidak pernah (Value: 0) (Tidak, ibuku tidak pernah bertanya dahulu ke aku)Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
17. Apakah kamu memberi tahu ibu atau ayahmu makanan apa yang harus dibeli? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Ya, aku selalu memberi tahu mereka makanan apa yang harus dibeli)
$\square$ Sering (Value: 3)
(Ya, 4 dari 5 kali belanja makanan, aku sering memberi tahu mereka makanan apa yang harus dibeli)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Ya, 3 dari 5 kali belanja makanan, aku kadang kadang memberi tahu mereka makanan apa yang harus dibeli)
$\square$ Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Ya, 1 atau 2 dari 5 kali belanja makanan, aku jarang memberi tahu mereka makanan apa yang harus dibeli)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Jika kamu menjawab ini,loncat pertanyaan no. 18 dan lanjut ke no.19) (Value: 0)
(Aku tidak pernah memberi tahu mereka makanan apa yang harus dibeli)
$\square$ Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0) (Jika kamu menjawab ini,loncat pertanyaan no. 18 dan lanjut ke no.19)
18. Jenis makanan apa yang kamu beri tahu ibu atau ayahmu untuk membeli? (Untuk pertanyaan ini, kamu boleh menyilang lebih dari satu kotak tapi paling banyak bisa sampai 3 kotak)


```
Buah-buahan
Cereal
Selai
Jus
Telur
Snacks (Keripik, coklat, permen)
Minuman bersoda, seperti coca cola
Jenis makanan lain :
```

Sayuran

## Proses konsumsi

Sarapan pagi:
19. Siapa yang biasanya menyiapkan sarapan pagi dikeluargamu? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.


Ibu (Value: 0)
Ayah (Value: 0)
Aku sendiri (Value: 2)
Ibu dan Ayah (Value: 0)
Ibu dan aku (Value: 1)
Ayah dan aku (Value: 1)
Orang lain: (Tolong sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
20. Siapa yang biasanya memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi dikeluargamu? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Ibu (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ayah (Value: 0)

Aku sendiri (Value: 2)
Ibu dan Ayah (Value: 0)
Ibu dan aku (Value: 1)
Ayah dan aku (Value: 1)
Orang lain: (Tolong sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
21. Berapa sering kamu membantu orang tuamu memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi (termasuk membantu memotong sayuran atau daging, menuangkan bumbu atau saus)? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.

Selalu (Value: 4)
(Aku selalu membantu mereka memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi)
$\square$ Sering (Value: 3)
(Aku sering membantu mereka memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang aku membantu mereka memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi)
$\square$ Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Aku jarang membantu mereka memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Aku tidak pernah membantu mereka memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi)
Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
$\square$ Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
22. Dapatkah kamu memutuskan makanan apa yang kamu mau makan untuk sarapan pagi? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Aku selalu dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk sarapan pagi)
$\square$ Sering (Value: 3)
(Aku sering dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk sarapan pagi)


Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang aku dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk sarapan pagi)
$\square$ Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Aku jarang dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk sarapan pagi)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Aku tidak pernah dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk sarapan pagi), Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)

## Makan siang:

23. Siapa yang biasanya menyiapkan makan siang dikeluargamu? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.


Ibu (Value: 0)
Ayah (Value: 0)
Aku sendiri (Value: 2)
Ibu dan Ayah (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ibu dan aku (Value: 1)
$\square$ Ayah dan aku (Value: 1)
$\square$ Orang lain: (Tolong sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
24. Siapa yang biasanya memasak atau membuat makan siang dikeluargamu? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Ibu (Value: 0)
Ayah (Value: 0)
Aku sendiri (Value: 2)
Ibu dan Ayah (Value: 0)
Ibu dan aku (Value: 1)
Ayah dan aku (Value: 1)
Orang lain: (Tolong sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
25. Berapa sering kamu membantu orang tuamu memasak atau membuat makan siang (termasuk membantu memotong sayuran atau daging, menuangkan bumbu atau saus)? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Aku selalu membantu mereka memasak atau membuat makan siang)
$\square$ Sering (Value: 3)
(Aku sering membantu mereka memasak atau membuat makan siang)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang aku membantu mereka memasak atau membuat makan siang)
$\square$ Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Aku jarang membantu mereka memasak atau membuat makan siang)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Aku tidak pernah membantu mereka memasak atau membuat makan siang)
Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
26. Dapatkah kamu memutuskan makanan apa yang kamu mau makan untuk makan siang? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Aku selalu dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk makan siang)
$\square$ Sering (Value: 3)
(Aku sering dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk makan siang)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang aku dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk makan siang)
$\square$ Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Aku jarang dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk makan siang)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Aku tidak pernah dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk makan siang)
Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)

## Makan Malam:

27. Siapa yang biasanya menyiapkan makan malam dikeluargamu? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
```
Ibu (Value: 0)
```

Ayah (Value: 0)
Aku sendiri (Value: 2)
$\square$ Ibu dan Ayah (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ibu dan aku (Value: 1)


Ayah dan aku (Value: 1)
Orang lain: (Tolong sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
28. Siapa yang biasanya memasak atau membuat makan malam dikeluargamu? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Ibu (Value: 0)
Ayah (Value: 0)
Aku sendiri (Value: 2)
Ibu dan Ayah (Value: 0)
Ibu dan aku (Value: 1)
Ayah dan aku (Value: 1)
Orang lain: (Tolong sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
29. Berapa sering kamu membantu orang tuamu memasak atau membuat makan malam (termasuk membantu memotong sayuran atau daging, menuangkan bumbu atau saus)? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)(Aku selalu membantu mereka memasak atau membuat makan malam)
Sering (Value: 3)(Aku sering membantu mereka memasak atau membuat makan malam)
Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang aku membantu mereka memasak atau membuat makan malam)
$\square$ Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Aku jarang membantu mereka memasak atau membuat makan malam)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Aku tidak pernah membantu mereka memasak atau membuat makan malam)
Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
30. Dapatkah kamu memutuskan makanan apa yang kamu mau makan untuk makan malam? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Aku selalu dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk makan malam)
$\square$ Sering (Value: 3)
(Aku sering dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk makan malam)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang aku dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk makan malam)
$\square$ Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Aku jarang dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk makan malam)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Aku tidak pernah dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang aku mau makan untuk makan malam)
Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)
31. Secara keseluruhan, menurut kamu apakah kamu punya pengaruh atau bisa mempengaruhi orang tuamu dalam hal membeli dan menkonsumsi makanan yang dibeli dan dimakan?Ya (Value: 1)
Tidak (Value: 0)
Aku tidak tahu (Value: 0)


When answering questions, please cross (X) inside the box or write the answer that most nearly reflects your opinion. Thank you ©

## About you

1. I am the:

Mother
Father
2. How old are you:under 20 years oldbetween 20 and 30 years oldbetween 31 and 40 years oldbetween 41 and 50 years oldmore than 50 years old
3. What is your last school degree?Primary SchoolJunior High SchoolSenior High SchoolCollege (Polytechnic, Diploma)Bachelor (S1)Master (S2)
PhD (S3)Others
4. What is your job position level?Owner
CEO /President DirectorVice President Director / Senior ManagerManagerAssistant Manager / Senior ExecutiveJunior Executive / Sales Executive / Administrator / Secretary /OfficerWaiters / Driver / Labour WorkersNot working (housewife / houseman)
Others: (please specify)
5. What is your family structure?Single-parent
(If you answer this, please skip question 6 and go to question 7)Double-parents
6. What is your husband / wife's job position level?Owner
CEO /President Director
Vice President Director / Senior Manager
Manager
Assistant Manager / Senior ExecutiveJunior Executive / Sales Executive / Administrator / Secretary /Officer Waiters / Driver / Labour Workers
Not working (housewife / houseman)Others:
(please specify)
7. How much is your household income? ${ }^{1}$Less than 2,000,000 Rupiah / MonthBetween 2,000,001 Rupiah / Month to 5,000,000 Rupiah / MonthBetween 5,000,001 Rupiah / Month to 7,000,000 Rupiah / MonthBetween 7,000,001 Rupiah / Month to 10,000,000 Rupiah / MonthBetween 10,000,001 Rupiah / Month to 15,000,000 Rupiah / MonthBetween 15,000,001 Rupiah / Month to 25,000,000 Rupiah / MonthMore than 25,000,001 Rupiah / Month

[^2]8. Please list the number and the age of your children:

| Number |  |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | - years |
|  | - years |
|  | - years |
|  | - years |
|  | - years |

## Food Buying Planning

9. Who usually plan or organize in buying the food? Please cross 1 box only.Mother (Value: 0)Father (Value: 0)Children (Value: 2)Mother and Father (Value: 0)Mother together with children (Value: 1)Father together with children (Value: 1)Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
10. Who in the family decide what food to buy? Please cross 1 box only.Mother (Value: 0)Father (Value: 0)Children (Value: 2)Mother and Father (Value: 0)Mother together with children (Value: 1)Father together with children (Value: 1)Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Don't know (Value: 0)
11. Who do you think should be responsible for buying the food? Please cross 1 box only.Mother (Value: 0)Father (Value: 0)Children (Value: 2)Mother and Father (Value: 0)Mother together with children (Value: 1)Father together with children (Value: 1)Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)Don't know (Value: 0)
12. I allow my children to buy what they want. Please cross 1 box only.Always (yes, every time or every day) (Value: 4)Often (yes, but only about 3 times a week) (Value: 3)Sometimes (yes, but only once a week) (Value: 2)Seldom (yes, but only once a month or less) (Value: 1)Never (No, they are not allowed to buy what they want) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
13. Do you feel happy if you allow your children decide what they want to buy? Please cross 1 box only.Yes (I am always happy every time I allow them decide what they want to buy)
No (I am not happy if I allow them decide what they want to buy), Please give your reason why:Sometimes (I can be happy and can be not happy if I allow them decide what they want to buy), Please give your reason why:Don't Know
14. Where do you usually get the information about the foodstuffs or food products? (For this question, you may cross more than 1 box, but maximum 3 boxes)
$\square$ My Children (Value: 2)Friends (Value: 0)
School from my children (Value: 1)
$\square$ Supermarket (Value: 0)
$\square$ TV advertisement (Value: 0)
$\square$ TV Programme (Cartoon film on TV) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Newspaper (Value: 0)
$\square$ Magazines (Value: 0)
$\square$ Radio (Value: 0)
$\square$ Advertisement on the street (Billboard) (Value: 0)
Internet (Value: 0)
$\square$ Others:
(Value: 0)

## During grocery shopping

15. What is important for you when you buy or choose the foodstuffs? (For this question, you may cross more than 1 box, but maximum 3 boxes)
$\square$ Price (cheap, expensive, on sale) (Value: 0)Pictures, colours, and form of the package (Value: 0)Pictures, colours, and form of the food (Value: 0)Taste (Variety of taste) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Toys (premiums) (Value: 1)New in the market (Value: 0)I saw it on advertisement (Value: 0)Near cashier desk (Value: 0)Because my children or other family members like it (Value: 2)
Others:
(Value: 0)
16. How often do you go for grocery shopping? Please cross 1 box only.
$\square$ Every day
$\square$ Two or Three times a weekOnce a weekOnce a month or less
Never, Please give the reason why
Don't know
17. In connection with the previous question (Q.16), how often do you go for grocery shopping with your children? Please cross 1 box only.
$\square$ Always (Every time I go for grocery shopping, they always come along) (Value: 4)
$\square$ Sometimes (Value: 2)
$\square$ Never (I never go with them during grocery shopping) (Value: 0)
Please give reason why
18. Do you enjoy grocery shopping? Please cross 1 box only.
$\square$ Yes, please give reason why
$\square$ No, please give reason why
$\square$ Sometimes, please give reason why
Don't know
19. How do your children help you during groceries shopping? (For this question, you may cross more than 1 box, but maximum 3 boxes)Listing items on the shopping list (Value: 1)Browsing through circulars (Value: 1)
Taking the goods from the shelves (Value: 1)Pushing the shopping cart (Value: 1)Taking out the goods and put them on the check-out counter (Value: 1)
Comparing the price between the products (Value: 1)
They don't help me (Value: 0)
$\square$ Others:
(Value: 1)
20. When you buy foods for your children, do you ask first whether they want it or not? Please cross 1 box only.
$\square$ Always (Value: 4)
(Yes, I always ask them first whether they want it or not)Often (Value: 3)
(Yes, from 4 out of 5 foods buying, I would ask them first)Sometimes (Value: 2)
(Yes, from 3 out of 5 foods buying, I would ask them first)
Seldom (Value: 1)
(Yes, but only 1 or 2 out of 5 foods buying, I would ask them first)Never (Value: 4)
(No, I never ask them first because I know already what they like)Never (Value: 0)
(No, I never ask them first because I just buy according to what I like)Don't know (Value: 0)
21. Do your children tell you what food to buy? Please cross 1 box only.Always (Value: 4)
(Yes, they always tell me what food to buy)Often (Value: 3)
(Yes, from 4 out of 5 foods buying, they tell me what food to buy)Sometimes (Value: 2)
(Yes, from 3 out of 5 foods buying, they tell me what food to buy)
Seldom (Value: 1)
(Yes, from 1 or 2 out of 5 foods buying, they tell me what food to buy)Never (Skip question 22 and continue to question no. 23) (Value: 0)
(No, they never tell me what food to buy)
Don't know (Skip question 22 and continue to question no. 23) (Value: 0)
22. What kind of food do your children tell you to buy? (For this question, you may cross more than 1 box, but maximum 3 boxes)
$\square$ Fruits
$\square$ Cereal
$\square$ Jam
$\square$ Juice
$\square$ Egg
$\square$ Rice
$\square$ Snacks (chips, chocolates, candies)
$\square$ Others :


## Consumption Process

Breakfast:
23. Who usually prepare(s) breakfast in your family? Please cross 1 box only.
$\square$ Mother (Value: 0)Father (Value: 0)Children (Value: 2)Mother and Father (Value: 0)
Mother together with children (Value: 1)Father together with children (Value: 1)
Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
24. Who usually cooks the breakfast in your family? Please cross 1 box only.Mother (Value: 0)
Father (Value: 0)
Children (Value: 2)
Mother and Father (Value: 0)
$\square$ Mother together with children (Value: 1)
$\square$ Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Don't know (Value: 0)
25. How often do your children help you in cooking the breakfast (including cutting the vegetables or meat, pour the spices or sauces)? Please cross 1 box only.
$\square$ Always (They always help me in cooking the breakfast) (Value: 4)
$\square$ Often (From 4 out of 5 times) (Value: 3)
$\square$ Sometimes (From 3 out of 5 times) (Value: 2)
$\square$ Seldom (From 1 or 2 out of 5 times) (Value: 1)
$\square$ Never (No, they never help me in cooking the breakfast) (Value: 0)
Please give the reason whyDon't know (Value: 0)
26. Can your children decide what kind of food they want to eat for breakfast? Please cross 1 box only.
$\square$ Always (They can always decide what kind of food they want to eat for breakfast) (Value: 4)
$\square$ Often (From 4 out of 5 times) (Value: 3)
$\square$ Sometimes (From 3 out of 5 times) (Value: 2)
$\square$ Seldom (From 1 or 2 out of 5 times) (Value: 1)
$\square$ Never (Value: 0) (No, they can not decide what kind of food they want to eat for breakfast) Please give the reason why
$\square$ Don't know (Value: 0)
Lunch:
27. Who usually prepare(s) lunch in your family? Please cross 1 box only.
$\square$ Mother (Value: 0)
$\square$ Father (Value: 0)
$\square$ Children (Value: 2)
$\square$ Mother and Father (Value: 0)
$\square$ Mother together with children (Value: 1)
$\square$ Father together with children (Value: 1)
$\square$ Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Don't know (Value: 0)
28. Who usually cooks the lunch in your family? Please cross 1 box only.
$\square$ Mother (Value: 0)
$\square$ Father (Value: 0)
$\square$ Children (Value: 2)
$\square$ Mother and Father (Value: 0)Mother together with children (Value: 1)
$\square$ Father together with children (Value: 1)
$\square$ Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Don't know (Value: 0)
29. How often do your children help you in cooking the lunch (including cutting the vegetables or meat, pour the spices or sauces)? Please cross 1 box only.Always (They always help me in cooking the lunch) (Value: 4)Often (From 4 out of 5 times) (Value: 3)Sometimes (From 3 out of 5 times) (Value: 2)Seldom (From 1 or 2 out of 5 times) (Value: 1)
Never (Value: 0)(No, they never help me in cooking the lunch)
Please give the reason whyDon't know (Value: 0)
30. Can your children decide what kind of food they want to eat for lunch? Please cross 1 box only.Always (They can always decide what kind of food they want to eat for lunch) (Value: 4)Often (From 4 out of 5 times) (Value: 3)
Sometimes (From 3 out of 5 times) (Value: 2)Seldom (From 1 or 2 out of 5 times) (Value: 1)Never (Value: 0)(No, they can not decide what kind of food they want to eat for lunch) Please give the reason why
$\square$ Don't know (Value: 0)

## Dinner:

31. Who usually prepare(s) dinner in your family? Please cross 1 box only.
$\square$ Mother (Value: 0)Father (Value: 0)
Children (Value: 2)
Mother and Father (Value: 0)
Mother together with children (Value: 1)Father together with children (Value: 1)
Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
32. Who usually cooks the dinner in your family? Please cross 1 box only.Mother (Value: 0)Father (Value: 0)Children (Value: 2)Mother and Father (Value: 0)
Mother together with children (Value: 1)Father together with children (Value: 1)
Others: (Please write who) (Value: 0)
Don't know (Value: 0)
33. How often do your children help you in cooking the dinner (including cutting the vegetables or meat, pour the spices or sauces)? Please cross 1 box only.Always (They always help me in cooking the dinner) (Value: 4)
$\square$ Often (From 4 out of 5 times) (Value: 3)Sometimes (From 3 out of 5 times) (Value: 2)Seldom (From 1 or 2 out of 5 times) (Value: 1)
Never (No, they never help me in cooking the dinner) (Value: 0)
Please give the reason whyDon't know (Value: 0)
34. Can your children decide what kind of food they want to eat for dinner? Please cross 1 box only.Always (They can always decide what kind of food they want to eat for dinner) (Value: 4)Often (From 4 out of 5 times) (Value: 3)Sometimes (From 3 out of 5 times) (Value: 2)Seldom (From 1 or 2 out of 5 times) (Value: 1)
Never (No, they can not decide what kind of food they want to eat for dinner) (Value: 0)
Please give the reason why
Don't know (Value: 0)
35. Overall, do you think your children have influence towards you in terms of what to buy and what to eat?

## Yes (Value: 1)

No (Value: 0)Don't know (Value: 0)

## Jawablah pertanyaan dibawah ini dengan menyilang salah satu kotak jawaban yang tersedia, yang paling mendekati pendapat anda. Terima kasih ©

## Tentang anda

1. Saya adalah:
$\square \mathrm{Ibu}$
Ayah
2. Berapa usia anda:Dibawah 20 tahunAntara 20 dan 30 tahunAntara 31 dan 40 tahunAntara 41 dan 50 tahunLebih dari 50 tahun
3. Jenjang pendidikan terakhir apa yang anda raih:SDSMPSMAAkademi pendidikan (Sekretaris, bahasa, diploma)Bachelor (S1)
PhD (S3)
Jenjang pedidikan yang lain:
4. Posisi pekerjaan anda:Pemilik perusahaanCEO /President DirekturWakil president direktur / Manager seniorManagerAssistant Manager / Senior ExecutiveJunior Executive / Sales Executive / Administrator / Sekretaris /OfficerPelayan restoran / Supir / pekerja pabrikTidak bekerja (lbu/bapak rumah tangga)
Posisi pekerjaan yang tidak tersebut diatas: (Sebutkan posisinya)
5. Apa struktur keluarga anda?

Single-parent (Ibu atau ayah saja)
(Jika anda menjawab ini, lewati pertanyaan no. 6 dan lanjutkan ke pertanyaan no. 7)Double-parents (lbu dan ayah)
6. Apa posisi pekerjaan suami / istri anda?


Pemilik perusahaanCEO /President DirekturWakil President Direktur / Manager senior
Manager
$\square$ Assistant Manager / Senior Executive
$\square$ Junior Executive / Sales Executive / Administrator / Sekretaris /OfficerPelayan restoran / Driver / Labour WorkersTidak bekerja (lbu / bapak rumah tangga)
Posisi pekerjaan yang tidak tersebut diatas:
7. Berapakah pendapatan rumah tangga anda perbulan? ${ }^{2}$Kurang dari 2,000,000 Rupiah / BulanAntara 2,000,001 Rupiah / Bulan sampai 5,000,000 Rupiah / BulanAntara 5,000,001 Rupiah / Bulan sampai 7,000,000 Rupiah / BulanAntara 7,000,001 Rupiah / Bulan sampai10,000,000 Rupiah / BulanAntara 10,000,001 Rupiah / Bulan sampai15,000,000 Rupiah / BulanAntara 15,000,001 Rupiah / Bulan sampai 25,000,000 Rupiah / BulanLebih dari 25,000,001 Rupiah / bulan

[^3]8. Harap sebutkan nomor dan usia anak anda:
Nomor Usia

- tahun
- tahun
- tahun
- tahun
- tahun


## Rencana belanja makanan

9. Siapakah yang biasanya merencanakan pembelanjaan makanan sehari hari? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah iniIbu (Value: 0)
Ayah (Value: 0)
Anak (Value: 2)Ibu dan ayah (Value: 0)Ibu bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Ayah bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Yang lain: (Harap sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
10. Siapakah didalam keluarga yang menentukan makanan apa yang dibeli? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah iniIbu (Value: 0)Ayah (Value: 0)Anak (Value: 2)Ibu dan ayah (Value: 0)Ibu bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Ayah bersama dengan anak (Value:1)
Yang lain:
(Harap sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
11. Menurut anda siapakah yang bertanggung jawab dalam pembelian makanan? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah iniIbu (Value: 0)Ayah (Value: 0)Anak (Value: 2)Ibu dan ayah (Value: 0)Ibu bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Ayah bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Yang lain: (Harap sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
12. Saya mengijinkan anak saya membeli apapun yang mereka mau beli? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini

Selalu (Value: 4) (Ya, setiap saat mereka meminta, saya selalu mengijinkan anak saya membeli apapun yang mereka mau beli)Sering (Value: 3) (Ya, kira kira 3 kali dalam seminggu, saya mengijinkan anak saya membeli apapun yang mereka mau beli)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2) (Ya, tapi hanya sekali dalam seminggu, saya mengijinkan anak saya membeli apapun yang mereka mau beli)
$\square$ Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1) (Ya, tapi hanya sekali dalam sebulan atau lebih, saya mengijinkan anak saya membeli apapun yang mereka mau beli)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0) (Tidak, mereka tidak pernah saya ijinkan untuk membeli apapun yang mereka mau beli)
13. Apakah anda merasa senang atau bahagia apabila anda mengijinkan anak anda yang memutuskan untuk membeli apapun yang mereka mau beli? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini
$\square$ Ya, (Saya selalu senang atau bahagia apabila saya mengijinkan anak saya yang memutuskan untuk membeli apapun yang mereka mau beli)
Tolong berikan penjelasan anda:Tidak, (Saya tidak senang atau bahagia apabila saya mengijinkan anak saya yang memutuskan untuk membeli apapun yang mereka mau beli)
Tolong berikan penjelasan anda:
$\square$ Kadang kadang, (Saya bisa bahagia dan bisa juga tidak bahagia apabila saya mengijinkan anak saya yang memutuskan untuk membeli apapun yang mereka mau beli) Tolong berikan penjelasan anda:

## $\square$ Tidak tahu

14. Darimana biasanya anda mendapatkan informasi mengenai jenis jenis makanan atau berbagai macam produk makanan? (Untuk pertanyaan ini, anda dapat menyilang lebih dari 1 kotak, tapi batas maximal 3 kotak)
$\square$ Anak saya (Value: 2)
$\square$ Teman teman yang merekomendasikan atau yang memberi tahu (Value: 0)Sekolah anak saya (Value: 1)
$\square$ Supermarket (Value: 0)
$\square$ Iklan iklan di televisi (Value: 0)
$\square$ TV Program (Value: 0)
$\square$ Koran (Value: 0)Majalah (Value: 0)Radio (Value: 0)
Iklan iklan dipinggir jalan (Billboard) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Internet (Value: 0 )
$\square$ Sumber informasi lainnya:
(Value: 0)

## Selama berbelanja makanan

15. Kriteria apa yang paling penting ketika anda membeli atau memilih (produk) makanan? (Untuk pertanyaan ini, anda dapat menyilang lebih dari 1 kotak, tapi batas maximal 3 kotak)Harga (Murah / lagi didiscount) (Value: 0)Gambar, warna, dan bentuk dari kemasan (Value: 0)
$\square$ Gambar, warna, dan bentuk dari makanan (Value: 0)
$\square$
Rasa (berbagai macam rasa) (Value: 0)
Hadiah didalamnya (Value: 1)
Baru keluar dipasaran (Value: 0)
$\square$ Saya melihatnya diiklan (Value: 0)
$\square$ Dekat dengan kasir pembayaran (Value: 0)
$\square$ Karena anak atau anggota keluarga saya menyukai makanan tersebut (Value: 2)
$\square$ Faktor lainnya:
(Value: 0)
16. Berapa sering anda pergi berbelanja makanan (Sayuran, Buah, Susu, Daging, dll)? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah iniSetiap hari
$\square$ Dua atau tiga kali dalam seminggu
$\square$ Sekali dalam seminggu
$\square$ Sekali dalam sebulan atau kurang
$\square$ Tidak pernah, Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
$\square$ Tidak tahu
17. Sehubungan dengan pertanyaan sebelumnya (No.16), seberapa sering anda pergi berbelanja dengan anak anda? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini
$\square$ Selalu (Setiap saya pergi berbelanja, anak saya selalu ikut serta) (Value: 4)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
Tidak pernah (Saya tidak pernah pergi berbelanja makanan dengan anak saya)(Value: 0)
Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
18. Apakah anda menikmati atau menyukai pergi berbelanja makanan? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini
$\square$ Ya,Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
$\square$ Tidak,Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
$\square$ Kadang kadang,Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
Tidak tahu
19. Bagaimana anak anda membantu anda selama anda berbelanja makanan? (Untuk pertanyaan ini, anda dapat menyilang lebih dari 1 kotak, tapi batas maximal 3 kotak)
$\square$ Membaca atau mencocokan barang barang yang dibeli dengan daftar belanja saya (Value:1)
$\square$ Melihat barang barang dari lorong lorong supermarket (Value: 1)
$\square$ Mengambil barang dari raknya (Value: 1)
Mendorong kereta belanja (Value: 1)
Memindahkan barang belanjaan dari kereta dorong ke meja kasir (Value: 1)
$\square$ Membandingkan harga dari berbagai macam produk dan merek makanan
(Value: 1)
$\square$ Anak saya tidak membantu saya sama sekali (Value: 0)
Hal lainnya yang anak saya bantu: (Value: 1)
20. Ketika anda membelikan makanan untuk anak anda, apakah anda bertanya terlebih dahulu ke mereka, apakah mereka mau atau tidak? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Ya, saya selalu menanyakan terlebih dahulu ke mereka, apakah mereka mau atau tidak)
$\square$ Sering (Value: 3)
(Ya, saya sering (4 dari 5 kali) menanyakan terlebih dahulu ke mereka, apakah mereka mau atau tidak)Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Ya, saya kadang kadang (3 dari 5 kali) menanyakan terlebih dahulu ke mereka, apakah mereka mau atau tidak)


Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Saya jarang (1 atau 2 dari 5 kali) menanyakan terlebih dahulu ke mereka, apakah mereka mau atau tidak)Tidak pernah (Value: 4)
(Tidak, saya tidak pernah menanyakan terlebih dahulu ke mereka, apakah mereka mau atau tidak, karena saya sudah tahu makanan apa yang mereka sukai)Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Tidak, saya tidak pernah menanyakan terlebih dahulu ke mereka, apakah mereka mau atau tidak, karena saya beli berdasarkan yang saya suka)Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
21. Apakah anak anda memberi tahu anda makanan apa yang anda harus beli? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Ya, mereka selalu memberi tahu saya makanan apa yang saya harus beli)Sering (Value: 3)
(Ya, mereka sering ( 4 dari 5 kali) memberi tahu saya makanan apa yang saya harus beli)Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Ya, mereka kadang kadang (3 dari 5 kali) memberi tahu saya makanan apa yang saya harus beli)Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Ya, tapi mereka jarang (1 atau 2 dari 5 kali) memberi tahu saya makanan apa yang saya harus beli)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Tidak, mereka tidak pernah memberi tahu saya makanan apa yang saya harus beli)
(Jika anda menjawab ini, lewati pertanyaan no. 22 dan lanjutkan ke pertanyaan no. 23)
$\square$ Tidak tahu (Value: 0) (Jika anda menjawab ini, lewati pertanyaan no. 22 dan lanjutkan ke pertanyaan no. 23)
22. Jenis makanan apa yang anak anda sarankan anda untuk membeli? (Untuk pertanyaan ini, anda dapat menyilang lebih dari 1 kotak, tapi batas maximal 3 kotak)

| $\square$ Buah buahan | $\square$ Sayuran |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\square$ Cereal | $\square$ Roti |
| $\square$ Selai | $\square$ Susu |
| $\square$ Jus | $\square$ Daging atau ikan |
| $\square$ Telur | $\square$ Mie |
| $\square$ Nasi | $\square$ Snacks (Keripik, coklat, permen) |
| $\square$ Minuman bersoda, seperti Cola | $\square$ Es Krim |
| $\square$ Jenis produk makanan yang tidak tersebut diatas : |  |

## Proses konsumsi

## Sarapan pagi:

23. Siapakah yang biasanya menyiapkan sarapan pagi dikeluarga anda? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Ibu (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ayah (Value: 0)Anak (Value: 2)Ibu dan ayah (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ibu bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Ayah bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)
$\square$ Yang lain:
(Harap sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
24. Siapakah yang biasanya memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi dikeluarga anda? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.Ibu (Value: 0)Ayah (Value: 0)Anak (Value: 2)Ibu dan ayah (Value: 0)Ibu bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Ayah bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)
$\square$ Yang lain: (Harap sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
25. Berapa seringkah anak anda membantu anda dalam hal memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi (termasuk membantu memotong sayuran atau daging, menuangkan bumbu atau saus)? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Mereka selalu membantu saya dalam hal memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi)Sering (Value: 3)
(Mereka sering membantu saya dalam hal memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi)Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang mereka membantu saya dalam memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi)Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Mereka jarang membantu saya dalam hal memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi)Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Mereka tidak pernah membantu saya dalam hal memasak atau membuat sarapan pagi) Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
$\square$ Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
26. Dapatkah anak anda memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk sarapan pagi? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Mereka selalu dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk sarapan pagi)Sering (Value: 3)
(Mereka sering dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk sarapan pagi)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang mereka dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk sarapan pagi)

Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Mereka jarang dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk sarapan pagi)Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Mereka tidak pernah dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk sarapan pagi), Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:Tidak tahu (Value: 0)

## Makan siang:

27. Siapakah yang biasanya menyiapkan makan siang dikeluarga anda? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Ibu (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ayah (Value: 0)
$\square$ Anak (Value: 2)
$\square$ Ibu dan ayah (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ibu bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)
$\square$ Ayah bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)
$\square$ Yang lain: (Harap sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
28. Siapakah yang biasanya memasak atau membuat makan siang dikeluarga anda? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Ibu (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ayah (Value: 0)
$\square$ Anak (Value: 2)
$\square$ Ibu dan ayah (Value: 0)
$\square$ Ibu bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)
$\square$ Ayah bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)
$\square$ Yang lain: (Harap sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
$\square$ Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
29. Berapa sering anak anda membantu anda dalam hal memasak atau membuat makan siang (termasuk membantu memotong sayuran atau daging, menuangkan bumbu atau saus)? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Mereka selalu membantu saya dalam memasak atau membuat makan siang)Sering (Value: 3)
(Mereka sering membantu saya dalam memasak atau membuat makan siang)Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang mereka membantu saya dalam memasak atau membuat makan siang)


Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Mereka jarang membantu saya dalam memasak atau membuat makan siang)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Mereka tidak pernah membantu saya dalam memasak atau membuat makan siang)
Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
$\square$ Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
30. Dapatkah anak anda memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan siang? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Mereka selalu dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan siang)
$\square$ Sering (Value: 3)
(Mereka sering dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan siang)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang mereka dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan siang)
Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Mereka jarang dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan siang)

## $\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)

(Mereka tidak pernah dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan siang), Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:Tidak tahu (Value: 0)

## Makan Malam:

31. Siapakah yang biasanya menyiapkan makan malam dikeluarga anda? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.Ibu (Value: 0)Ayah (Value: 0)Anak (Value: 2)Ibu dan ayah (Value: 0)Ibu bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Ayah bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Yang lain: (Harap sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
32. Siapakah yang biasanya memasak atau membuat makan malam dikeluarga anda? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.


Ibu (Value: 0)
Ayah (Value: 0)Anak (Value: 2)Ibu dan ayah (Value: 0)lbu bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Ayah bersama dengan anak (Value: 1)Yang lain:
(Harap sebutkan siapa) (Value: 0)
Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
33. Berapa sering anak anda membantu anda dalam hal memasak atau membuat makan malam (termasuk membantu memotong sayuran atau daging, menuangkan bumbu atau saus)? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.
$\square$ Selalu (Value: 4)
(Mereka selalu membantu saya dalam hal memasak atau membuat makan malam)Sering (Value: 3)
(Mereka sering membantu saya dalam hal memasak atau membuat makan malam)Kadang kadang (Value: 2)
(Kadang kadang mereka membantu saya dalam hal memasak atau membuat makan malam)Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1)
(Mereka jarang membantu saya dalam hal memasak atau membuat makan malam)
$\square$ Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Mereka tidak pernah membantu saya dalam hal memasak atau membuat makan malam); Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa: <br> Tidak tahu (Value: 0)}
34. Dapatkah anak anda memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan malam? Berikan satu tanda silang disalah satu kotak dibawah ini.

Selalu (Value: 4) (Mereka selalu dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan malam)
$\square$ Sering (Value: 3) (Mereka sering dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan malam)
$\square$ Kadang kadang (Value: 2) (Kadang kadang mereka dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan malam)
$\square$ Jarang atau hampir tidak pernah (Value: 1) (Mereka jarang dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan malam)Tidak pernah (Value: 0)
(Mereka tidak pernah dapat memutuskan makanan apa yang mereka mau makan untuk makan malam); Tolong berikan alasannya kenapa:
$\square$ Tidak tahu (Value: 0)
35. Secara keseluruhan, menurut anda apakah anak anda punya pengaruh atau bisa mempengaruhi anda dalam hal membeli dan menkonsumsi makanan yang dibeli dan dimakan? $\square$ Ya (Value: 1) Tidak (Value: 0)

Tidak tahu (Value: 0)

| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| $5,6,7$ | Organize, decide, and responsible for buying the food; | Mommy | 0 |
| 19,20 | Person prepares and cooks the breakfast | Daddy | 0 |
| 23,24 | Person prepares and cooks the lunch | Me alone | 2 |
| 27,28 | Person prepares and cooks the dinner | Mommy and Daddy | 0 |
|  |  | Me and Mommy | 1 |
|  |  | Me and Daddy | 1 |
|  | Others | 0 |  |
|  | Don't Know | 0 |  |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 8 | Parents allowance to buy what children want | Always | 4 |
| 16 | Asking children first before parents buy the Food for the children | Often | 3 |
| 17 | Children tell parents what food to buy | Sometimes | 2 |
| $21,25,29$ | Frequent helping parents in cooking the breakfast,lunch, dinner | Seldom | 1 |
| $22,26,30$ | Able to decide what food to eat for breakfast, lunch, dinner | Never | 0 |
|  |  | Don't Know | 0 |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 9 | Happy felling if the parents allow children what they want to buy; | Yes | 2 |
| 14 | Enjoyment by shopping | No | 0 |
|  |  | Sometimes | 1 |
|  |  | Don't Know | 0 |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 13 | Frequent shopping with parents | Always | 4 |
|  |  | Sometimes | 2 |
|  |  | Never | 0 |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 15 | Helping parents during shopping | Listing items on the shopping list | 1 |
|  |  | Browsing through circulars | 1 |
|  |  | Taking the goods from the shelves | 1 |
|  |  | Pushing the shopping cart | 1 |
|  | Taking out the goods and put on checkout <br> counter | 1 |  |
|  |  | Comparing the price between the products | 1 |
|  |  | Others | 1 |
|  |  | Don't help parents | 0 |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 31 | Overall influence towards what to buy \& eat | Yes | 1 |
|  |  | No | 0 |
|  |  | Don't know | 0 |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| $9,10,11$ | Organize, decide, and are responsible for buying the food | Mother | 0 |
| 23,24 | Person prepares and cooks the breakfast | Father | 0 |
| 27,28 | Person prepares and cooks the lunch | Children | 2 |
| 31,32 | Person prepares and cooks the dinner | Mother and Father | 0 |
|  |  | Mother and Children | 1 |
|  |  | Father and Children | 1 |
|  |  | Others | 0 |
|  | Don't Know | 0 |  |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 12 | Parents allowance to buy what children want | Always | 4 |
| 20 | Asking children first before parents buy the Food for the children | Often | 3 |
| 21 | Children tell parents what food to buy | Sometimes | 2 |
| $25,29,33$ | Frequent helping parents in cooking the breakfast, lunch, dinner | Seldom | 1 |
| $26,30,34$ | Children are able to decide what food to eat for breakfast, lunch, <br> dinner | Never | 0 |
|  |  | Don't Know | 0 |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 14 | Info about the food products | My children | 2 |
|  |  | Friends | 0 |
|  |  | School from my children | 1 |
|  |  | Supermarket | 0 |
|  | TV ads | 0 |  |
|  |  | TV program | 0 |
|  | Newspaper | 0 |  |
|  | Magazines | 0 |  |
|  |  | Radio | 0 |
|  | Ads on the street (Billboard) | 0 |  |
|  |  | Internet | 0 |
|  |  | Others | 0 |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 15 | Important when choosing the food <br> products | My children like it | 2 |
|  |  | Price | 0 |
|  |  | Picture, colour, form of the package | 0 |
|  |  | Picture, colour, form of the food | 0 |
|  | Taste | 0 |  |
|  | Toys / premiums | 1 |  |
|  |  | New in the market | 0 |
|  | I saw it on TV ads | 0 |  |
|  | Near cashier desk | 0 |  |
|  |  | Others | 0 |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 17 | Frequent shopping with children | Always | 4 |
|  |  | Sometimes | 2 |
|  |  | Never | 0 |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 19 | Children Helping parents during grocery <br> shopping | Listing items on the shopping list | 1 |
|  |  | Browsing through circulars | 1 |
|  |  | Taking the goods from the shelves | 1 |
|  |  | Pushing the shopping cart <br> Taking out the goods and put on <br> checkout counter | 1 |
|  |  | Comparing the price between the <br> products | 1 |
|  |  | Others | 1 |
|  |  | Don't help parents | 0 |


| Question <br> No. | Question Matters | Answer | Value |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 35 | Overall children's influence towards what to buy \& eat | Yes | 1 |
|  |  | No | 0 |
|  |  | Don't know | 0 |


| No. | Influence score children (according to children) | Influence score children (according to parents) | Result |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 27 (Influent) | 24 (Influent) | Significant |
| 2 | 32 (Influent) | 13 (Influent) | Significant |
| 3 | 30 (Influent) | 21 (Influent) | Significant |
| 4 | 32 (Influent) | 21 (Influent) | Significant |
| 5 | 30 (Influent) | 20 (Influent) | Significant |
| 6 | 33 (Influent) | 24 (Influent) | Significant |
| 7 | 34 (Co-decision maker) | 41 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 8 | 47 (Co-decision maker) | 27 (Influent) |  |
| 9 | 38 (Co-decision maker) | 21 (Influent) |  |
| 10 | 34 (Co-decision maker) | 23 (Influent) |  |
| 11 | 45 (Co-decision maker) | 19 (Influent) |  |
| 12 | 35 (Co-decision maker) | 30 (Influent) |  |
| 13 | 41 (Co-decision maker) | 27 (Influent) |  |
| 14 | 31 (Influent) | 42 (Co-decision maker) |  |
| 15 | 36 (Co-decision maker) | 30 (Influent) |  |
| 16 | 34 (Co-decision maker) | 27 (Influent) |  |
| 17 | 39 (Co-decision maker) | 31 (Influent) |  |
| 18 | 46 (Co-decision maker) | 18 (Influent) |  |
| 19 | 43 (Co-decision maker) | 24 (Influent) |  |
| 20 | 15 (Influent) | 19 (Influent) | Significant |
| 21 | 47 (Co-decision maker) | 34 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 22 | 38 (Co-decision maker) | 42 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 23 | 33 (Influent) | 22 (Influent) | Significant |
| 24 | 34 (Co-decision maker) | 28 (Influent) |  |
| 25 | 42 (Co-decision maker) | 23 (Influent) |  |
| 26 | 33 (Influent) | 27 (Influent) | Significant |
| 27 | 29 (Influent) | 17 (Influent) | Significant |
| 28 | 29 (Influent) | 19 (Influent) | Significant |
| 29 | 35 (Co-decision maker) | 23 (Influent) |  |
| 30 | 44 (Co-decision maker) | 31 (Influent) |  |
| 31 | 45 (Co-decision maker) | 30 (Influent) |  |
| 32 | 37 (Co-decision maker) | 19 (Influent) |  |
| 33 | 34 (Co-decision maker) | 30 (Influent) |  |
| 34 | 32 (Influent) | 14 (Influent) | Significant |
| 35 | 40 (Co-decision maker) | 33 (Influent) |  |
| 36 | 43 (Co-decision maker) | 30 (Influent) |  |
| 37 | 46 (Co-decision maker) | 25 (Influent) |  |
| 38 | 42 (Co-decision maker) | 29 (Influent) |  |
| 39 | 40 (Co-decision maker) | 24 (Influent) |  |
| 40 | 43 (Co-decision maker) | 44 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 41 | 16 (Influent) | 29 (Influent) | Significant |
| 42 | 25 (Influent) | 27 (Influent) | Significant |
| 43 | 23 (Influent) | 22 (Influent) | Significant |
| 44 | 27 (Influent) | 26 (Influent) | Significant |
| 45 | 31 (Influent) | 29 (Influent) | Significant |
| 46 | 39 (Co-decision maker) | 28 (Influent) |  |
| 47 | 35 (Co-decision maker) | 25 (Influent) |  |
| 48 | 39 (Co-decision maker) | 32 (Influent) |  |
| 49 | 45 (Co-decision maker) | 29 (Influent) |  |
| 50 | 34 (Co-decision maker) | 30 (Influent) |  |
| 51 | 28 (Influent) | 40 (Co-decision maker) |  |
| 52 | 39 (Co-decision maker) | 21 (Influent) |  |
| 53 | 41 (Co-decision maker) | 35 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 54 | 35 (Co-decision maker) | 29 (Influent) |  |
| 55 | 34 (Co-decision maker) | 28 (Influent) |  |
| 56 | 43 (Co-decision maker) | 34 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 57 | 45 (Co-decision maker | 20 (Influent) |  |
| 58 | 28 (Influent) | 35 (Co-decision maker) |  |
| 59 | 37 (Co-decision maker) | 18 (Influent) |  |
| 60 | 43 (Co-decision maker) | 32 (Influent) |  |
| 61 | 44 (Co-decision maker) | 19 (Influent) |  |
| 62 | 44 (Co-decision maker) | 30 (Influent) |  |
| 63 | 35 (Co-decision maker) | 18 (Influent) |  |
| 64 | 39 (Co-decision maker) | 15 (Influent) |  |
| 65 | 27 (Influent) | 25 (Influent) | Significant |
| 66 | 41 (Co-decision maker) | 25 (Influent) |  |
| 67 | 38 (Co-decision maker) | 25 (Influent) |  |
| 68 | 50 (Co-decision maker) | 29 (Influent) |  |
| 69 | 45 (Co-decision maker) | 28 (Influent) |  |
| 70 | 37 (Co-decision maker) | 21 (Influent) |  |
| 71 | 45 (Co-decision maker) | 24 (Influent) |  |
| 72 | 37 (Co-decision maker) | 33 (Influent) |  |
| 73 | 38 (Co-decision maker) | 31 (Influent) |  |
| 74 | 35 (Co-decision maker) | 26 (Influent) |  |


| 75 | 41 (Co-decision maker) | 25 (Influent) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 76 | 47 (Co-decision maker) | 27 (Influent) |  |
| 77 | 35 (Co-decision maker) | 28 (Influent) |  |
| 78 | 36 (Co-decision maker) | 28 (Influent) |  |
| 79 | 47 (Co-decision maker) | 31 (Influent) |  |
| 80 | 42 (Co-decision maker) | 25 (Influent) |  |
| 81 | 34 (Co-decision maker) | 26 (Influent) |  |
| 82 | 45 (Co-decision maker) | 19 (Influent) |  |
| 83 | 48 (Co-decision maker) | 32 (Influent) |  |
| 84 | 44 (Co-decision maker) | 40 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 85 | 13 (Influent) | 29 (Influent) | Significant |
| 86 | 31 (Influent) | 23 (Influent) | Significant |
| 87 | 33 (Influent) | 23 (Influent) | Significant |
| 88 | 33 (Influent) | 18 (Influent) | Significant |
| 89 | 33 (Influent) | 22 (Influent) | Significant |
| 90 | 23 (Influent) | 29 (Influent) | Significant |
| 91 | 37 (Co-decision maker) | 18 (Influent) |  |
| 92 | 45 (Co-decision maker) | 16 (Influent) |  |
| 93 | 42 (Co-decision maker) | 26 (Influent) |  |
| 94 | 45 (Co-decision maker) | 18 (Influent) |  |
| 95 | 17 (Influent) | 22 (Influent) | Significant |
| 96 | 26 (Influent) | 36 (Co-decision maker) |  |
| 97 | 40 (Co-decision maker) | 34 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 98 | 48 (Co-decision maker) | 33 (Influent) |  |
| 99 | 43 (Co-decision maker) | 21 (Influent) |  |
| 100 | 36 (Co-decision maker) | 34 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 101 | 20 (Influent) | 28 (Influent) | Significant |
| 102 | 33 (Influent) | 22 (Influent) | Significant |
| 103 | 23 (Influent | 29 (Influent) | Significant |
| 104 | 42 (Co-decision maker) | 24 (Influent) |  |
| 105 | 28 (Influent) | 22 (Influent) | Significant |
| 106 | 31 (Influent) | 24 (Influent) | Significant |
| 107 | 30 (Influent) | 17 (Influent) | Significant |
| 108 | 33 (Influent) | 31 (Influent) | Significant |
| 109 | 30 (Influent) | 24 (Influent) | Significant |
| 110 | 32 (Influent) | 25 (Influent) | Significant |
| 111 | 28 (Influent) | 21 (Influent) | Significant |
| 112 | 33 (Influent) | 27 (Influent) | Significant |
| 113 | 36 (Co-decision maker) | 26 (Influent) |  |
| 114 | 36 (Co-decision maker) | 23 (Influent) |  |
| 115 | 19 (Influent) | 19 (Influent) | Significant |
| 116 | 31 (Influent) | 21 (Influent) | Significant |
| 117 | 45 (Co-decision maker) | 32 (Influent) |  |
| 118 | 28 (Influent) | 25 (Influent) | Significant |
| 119 | 33 (Influent) | 30 (Influent) | Significant |
| 120 | 48 (Co-decision maker) | 28 (Influent) |  |
| 121 | 33 (Influent) | 33 (Influent) | Significant |
| 122 | 31 (Influent) | 25 (Influent) | Significant |
| 123 | 39 (Co-decision maker) | 35 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 124 | 43 (Co-decision maker) | 26 (Influent) |  |
| 125 | 32 (Influent) | 29 (Influent) | Significant |
| 126 | 28 (Influent) | 23 (Influent) | Significant |
| 127 | 33 (Influent) | 28 (Influent) | Significant |
| 128 | 42 (Co-decision maker) | 22 (Influent) |  |
| 129 | 48 (Co-decision maker) | 30 (Influent) |  |
| 130 | 37 (Co-decision maker) | 32 (Influent) |  |
| 131 | 47 (Co-decision maker) | 26 (Influent) |  |
| 132 | 20 (Influent) | 10 (No Influent) |  |
| 133 | 22 (Influent) | 30 (Influent) | Significant |
| 134 | 34 (Co-decision maker) | 34 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 135 | 41 (Co-decision maker) | 34 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 136 | 26 (Influent) | 26 (Influent) | Significant |
| 137 | 24 (Influent) | 24 (Influent) | Significant |
| 138 | 16 (Influent) | 29 (Influent) | Significant |
| 139 | 28 (Influent) | 27 (Influent) | Significant |
| 140 | 33 (Influent) | 26 (Influent) | Significant |
| 141 | 41 (Co-decision maker) | 26 (Influent) |  |
| 142 | 36 (Co-decision maker) | 27 (Influent) |  |
| 143 | 36 (Co-decision maker) | 25 (Influent) |  |
| 144 | 33 (Influent) | 31 (Influent) | Significant |
| 145 | 41 (Co-decision maker) | 36 (Co-decision maker) | Significant |
| 146 | 30 (Influent) | 37 (Co-decision maker) |  |
| 147 | 30 (Influent) | 34 (Co-decision maker) |  |
| 148 | 34 (Co-decision maker) | 32 (Influent) |  |
| 149 | 27 (Influent) | 34 (Co-decision maker) |  |
| 150 | 28 (Influent) | 23 (Influent) | Significant |



# ObSERVATION 

AND

## InTERVIEW PROTOCOL

## Family Interview Protocol with

$\qquad$ and $\qquad$
Date of Visit:
Time of Visit:
Number of Person living in the House:

## 1. Introduction

- Brief personal introduction and the role within this research
- Brief introduction about the research
- Explain about the participation
- Ask for any clarification questions

2. Demographic Information of the family member

|  | Family Role | Age | Gender | Race /Ethnicity | Education/Degree |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Adults (over 18) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Teens <br> $(12-17)$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Children <br> (4-11) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Young children <br> /babies <br> (up to 3 years old) |  |  |  |  |  |

## 3. Observation of the House Situation and Condition

## House situation and condition

- Location / area of the house (rich / middle / poor area)
- Distance from central city ( shopping centre, supermarket, traditional market,etc)
- Outside:
- Outlook of the house
- Park/garden
- How many level of the house?
- How many cars?
- The size of the house and garden
- Inside:
- Design of the house
- Number of bathrooms
- Number of bedrooms
- Garden inside the house
- Kitchen (design, high-tech, place for food preparation)
- House pets
- Furniture condition
- Television, Hi Fi
- Personal:
- Servant
- Driver
- Gardner
- Nanny
- Security


## Food buying planning

## Parents:

1. Do parents ask their children to participate in the family food buying planning?
2. Both parents or only one of them who plan / participate
3. Do they use the source of info (newspapers, ads, TV, ...)
4. Outside parents and children, who else participate
5. Spontaneously or planned
6. Do they use notes to write what they want to buy
7. When they use ads, do they attracted to buy outside their plan
8. Who say more (parents or children)
9. What kind of food do they plan to buy?
10. Where do they plan (living room / dining room)?
11. How often do they have this food buying planning?
12. What criteria for buying the food? Price, on sale, taste, brand, premiums, new in the market, friends recommendation, others.
13. How do they react to their children's influence?
14. Who has the last words, who finally decide what to buy?

## Children:

1. Do children participate (freewill or not)?
2. Do they give suggestion / trying to influence the parents?
3. Are they become the main source for this food buying planning?
4. How do they influence / persuade parents to buy?
5. What criteria for buying the food? Price, on sale, taste, brand, premiums, new in the market, friends recommendation, others.
6. Source of info?
7. How many children participate?
8. Who has more power to decide / influence among these children?

## Grocery shopping

## Parents:

1. Who do(es) the grocery shopping? Who come along? Both parents? Servant?
2. Do the parents use notes during grocery shopping?
3. Do they take the supermarket ads before they come in?
4. Do they buy based on their notes/plan, or do they buy more based on what's on sale / what in the ads
5. How they evaluate the produce that they want to buy? Price, on sale, taste, brand, premiums, new in the market, friends recommendation, package outlook, children or family members like it, others
6. How do they react / response to their children's request?
7. Do they enjoy the grocery shopping?
8. When the parents buy the food (for family), do they ask the children first?
9. When the parents buy the food (for children), do they ask the children first?
10. How do they get to the supermarket? What transportation do they use (car, taxi, bus)

## Children:

1. Do children come with? If yes, how many / who participate?
2. How do they behave during the grocery shopping?
3. Do they help their parents? How?
4. Do they enjoy the grocery shopping?
5. How they evaluate the produce that they want to buy? Price, on sale, taste, brand, premiums, new in the market, friends recommendation, package outlook, children or family members like it, others
6. Do the children tell the parents what / which food to buy?
7. What kind of food do they tell their parents to buy?
8. Do they take candies / other food near the cashier desk?
9. Do they open / eat the food before the parents pay?

## Consumption process

## Parents:

1. Who cook for:

- Breakfast
- Lunch
- Dinner

2. Who prepares:

- Breakfast
- Lunch
- Dinner

3. Who set up the table?
4. Do parents decide what, when and where to eat?
5. When the parents don't cook, what are they doing during food preparation / cooking / table setting?
6. When the parents cook, how do they behave towards their children?

- Teach / show them how to cook / prepare the food?
- Educate the children about vitamin / healthy food
- Ignore the children
- Do not let the children help them

7. What kind of food do they serve / give their children?
8. Do the parents aware of healthy eating?
9. Where do they eat?

## Children:

1. Do children help during

- Cooking
- Preparation
- Setting of the table

2. Do they help because the parent asks / freewill?
3. Can the children decide what / when and where to eat?
4. How do they influence the parents to follow what they want?
5. How do they behave during

- Cooking
- Preparation
- Setting of the table
- Eating

6. Do children know or aware of healthy eating?
7. Where do the children eat?

SINGAPORE INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL


SDK SAMARIA


## Survey in the Classroom



Questionnaire answered by $4^{\text {th }}$ Grade (8 years old)


Questionnaire answered by $2^{\text {nd }}$ Grade ( 6 years old)


School Observation during Food Buying


Questionnaires for Children


Outlook of the House


Middle Income Family


Low Income Family

Outlook of the Kitchen


Dining Table


Middle Income Family


Low Income Family


Food preparation at home


Food Cooking by the Children Themselves


Eating in the bedroom as one of the
favourite place to eat


Pictures during the Ethnographic Study

Location of the dining table near TV


Interview with the families


## Participant Families

Family A


Family G


Family J


Family M


Family P


Family D


Family F


Family I


Family L


Family 0


Family Q



[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The salary ranges in this study are subject to change arising from fluctuations in the market and economic conditions. Rp. refers to Rupiah as the Indonesian currency value. The exchange rate of $1 €$ is approximately Rp. 12.000 (according to Yahoo Finance on November 15, 2011). The income distribution level is based on the occupation criteria. low income, middle income, high income.

[^1]:    Dengan tanda tangan dibawah ini, saya menyatakan bahwa saya telah diberitahukan tentang partisipasi dan keterlibatan didalam penelitian "Pengaruh anak dalam proses pengambilan keputusan pembelian makanan dan konsumsi di dalam keluarga" dan saya bersedia untuk memberi kesempatan untuk saudari Hanny Suwandinata beserta tim penelitiannya untuk mengadakan aktifitas penelitiannya disekolah kami.

    Jakarta,
    $\qquad$
    Tanda tangan dan nama lengkap dari kepala sekolah atau pihak sekolah yang berwenang

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ Indonesia Salary Guide 2007 (http://hidupgembira.files.wordpress.com/2008/02/kellyindonesiasalary.pdf

[^3]:    ${ }^{2}$ Indonesia Salary Guide 2007 (http://hidupgembira.files.wordpress.com/2008/02/kellyindonesiasalary.pdf

