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SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS

MASTER'S THESIS
CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF BRANDS

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INTRODUCTION

Today, we are all customers. We buy products and services on a daily basis and take part in the shopping process and consumer groups for different products and brands. Children are no exception. They are surrounded by brands from the day they are born and very quickly become involved in the world of consumerism that surrounds them.

The interest in children as consumers started to emerge after World War II (McNeal, 1992, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 1). After the war, full-time employment for the youth was more common, which meant they had relatively high wages. This was very different from the situation before the war. They became their own sub-culture with their own consumer-related priorities (Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 1). The booming economy created fast-growing markets of goods and services, many of them targeting young consumers (Stewart, 1992, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 1, 2). Earnings also increased for the parents. Combined with other changes that happened between the years 1970 and 1980, such as fewer children per parent, the postponement of having children, dual-working families, and higher the education level of parents, this resulted in an increase of children's economic power, as well as in the higher influence today's children have on family decisions (Gunter & Furnham, 1998, McNeal 1992, in Valkenburg & Cantor, 2001, p. 62). The parent-child relationships also changed, becoming more liberal, especially in Western societies. Child-rearing patterns were no longer characterized by authority, respect, and obedience, but by negotiation, understanding, equality and compromise, making it possible for children to influence family decisions (Torrance, 1998, in Valkenburg & Cantor, 2001, p. 62).

Children today buy a large range of products and services, and since the size of the children's market and their spending power are so large, a lot of companies are putting their efforts into understanding it (Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 2). Many theories about developing a brand to cater to children's needs have emerged. However, children are not important only for their economic and purchasing power. Children form a very important consumer group due to three main reasons. Firstly, apart from having a large amount of money that they are willing to spend on products and services, which makes them the primary market, they are also the future market. Secondly, since children develop loyalty at an early age, brands should speak to them while they are still young. Lastly, they are influencers – they influence the purchases in their households, such as candy, cereal, and even restaurants, holiday destinations, and cars (Assael, 1981 & McNeal, 1992; Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 51).

Understanding children as consumers is very important for companies and their brands, but also for parents and society. While brands can use this understanding to enlarge their consumer base by using the right tools to persuade children, their parents and society in

general should use this knowledge to limit the influence of brands on children. Their naïveté and lack of experience should not be an opportunity for brands to exploit them. While there are many ethical questions that brands should ask themselves before advertising and branding to children, many do not consider them. That is why the understanding of how children become consumers is important – to protect them.

The main purpose of this master's thesis is to contribute to the body of knowledge on the topic of marketing to children, specifically to the knowledge on children's perceptions of brands. The main goal of the master's thesis is to clearly define the perceptions of brands that children have through the theoretical starting points of domestic and foreign professional literature in the field of branding and marketing to children, and through a research.

The aims of the research are to determine how involved are children in the shopping process, under which circumstances children shop alone, how children define the term "brand", whether children think brands are important when shopping for food and non-food products, whether the age and gender of a child influence their brand recall, and what attitude do children have towards brands.

The master's thesis consists of two parts: the theoretical and the empirical. I use the descriptive method in the theoretical part of the thesis, providing an overview and an analysis of multiple documents, articles, and literature, both foreign and domestic, on the topic of branding by focusing on the impact of branding on children. In the empirical part of the master's thesis, I employ the qualitative method, specifically the focus group method, to study the opinions and views of children on branding. I held six focus group in two primary schools, with the participants divided into groups based on their gender and by age.

In the first chapter of my master's thesis, I explain the term "brand", the role of branding today, and how brands are built, as well as define the different types of brands. The second chapter elaborates on how children behave as consumers. I first explain what the role of children is in the consumer market. Next, I analyze different theories on how the socialization process of child consumers occurs and explain the different stages of consumer development. In the third chapter, I focus on the topic of branding to children, explaining how companies target children, what role brands play in the everyday lives of children, how child brands are built, and how children form bonds with brands. Next I analyze how children use brands to form identity, and how digitalization changed the way companies use their branding efforts to appeal to children. In the last, forth part, I present and analyze the results of my empirical research.

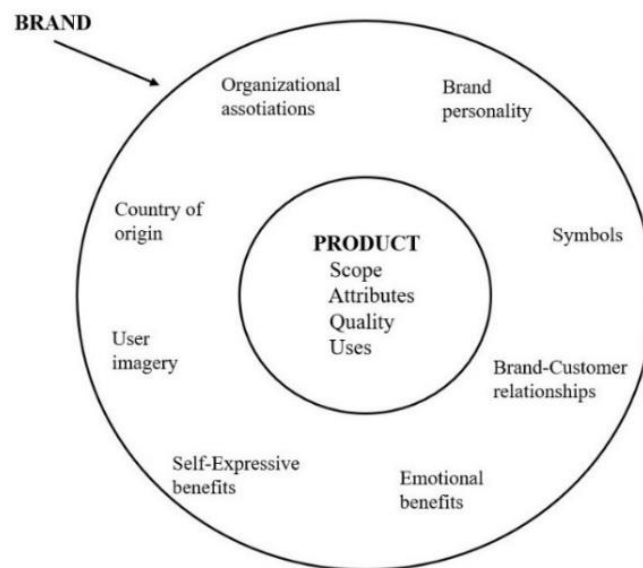
1 **BRANDING**

1.1 **Definition of a brand**

The term “brand” is very often used nowadays, as it is an important part of a company’s strategy (Davis, 2009, p. 12). However, there is no single definition of the term “brand”. Different companies and professionals define it differently.

Firstly, we need to establish that a product and a brand are not equal. A product includes the following characteristics: scope, attributes, quality/value, and uses. On the other hand, a brand includes the previously mentioned characteristics as well as: brand users, the country of origin, organizational associations, brand personality, symbols, brand-customer relationships, emotional benefits and self-expressive benefits (Aaker, 1996, p. 73). Figure 1 summarizes the distinction between a product and a brand.

Figure 1: A brand and a product



Source: Aaker (1996).

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2012, p. 231), a brand is a name, term, sign, symbol, design, or a combination of these, and it identifies the products or services of a seller or a group of sellers and differentiates them from competitors’ products. The American Marketing Association (AMA, 2014) defines the term “brand” very similarly, “a brand is a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller’s good or service as distinct from those of other sellers.” (Dall’Olmo, Singh & Blankson, 2016, p. 525). Weitz and Wensley (2002, p. 152), however, point out that managers usually define a brand in terms of creating awareness, reputation, and prominence in a marketplace, not

only creating a name, logo, and a symbol, as the definitions of the AMA as well as Kotler and Armstrong suggest.

Davis (2009, p. 12) believes that the term “brand” is most frequently defined as the logo and name of a company or product, however, he believes that it is much more than that. A brand, in his opinion, is a connection between a company and its consumers. Bonchek and France (2016) agree with Davis and state that a brand is a relationship that forms between a company and its consumers, and it is the experience with the product and/or company that it delivers in the moment. By forming these relationships and providing these experiences, companies can foster high engagement and loyalty as well as build differentiation. Neumer (2005, p. 2) also believes that a brand can be defined as the way a consumer feels about a product, service or company. according to him, brands are defined by individuals, not companies and marketers, and each person defines their own version of a brand.

The definitions of a brand in Oxford Dictionary are the following: (1) “A type of product manufactured by a particular company under a particular name.” and (2) “An identifying mark burned on livestock or (especially in former times) criminals or slaves with a branding iron.” (Brand, n.d.). The second definition clearly points to the origins of the term “brand”, which is discussed in Appendix 2.

1.2 Role of branding

One of the most important topics in marketing is the intangible value that a brand brings to the organization. Its added value for an organization can be defined by recognizing the benefits of having a strong brand (Keller, 2009, p. 140). There are many potential benefits that have been identified (Hoeffler and Keller, 2003, in Keller, 2009, p. 140):

- Improved perception of a product in the eyes of the consumer,
- Greater loyalty of customers,
- Less vulnerability to competition and marketing crises,
- Larger margins,
- More elasticity in terms of customer responses to price decreases,
- More inelasticity in terms of customer responses to price increases,
- Greater trade,
- Increased effectiveness of marketing communication,
- Increased number of opportunities for brand extensions and licensing.

Weitz and Wensley (2002, p. 152, 153) explained the brand functions by identifying the effects brands have on companies. These are divided into four categories:

- Product-related effects: brand name is positively related to customer product evaluations, their perceptions of quality and purchase rates.
- Price-related effects: brand leaders can demand larger price differences and consumers are more immune to price increases.

- Communication-related effects: well-known and popular brands have many positive communication effects, among others the positive “halo effect”.
- Channel-related effects: products that are produced from top.

In general, a company’s ability to recognize the benefits mentioned above depends on its marketing skills, resources, and the circumstances and context in which the company operates. While some companies operate in highly competitive markets that can reduce the likelihood of their branding benefits, others might not have this problem. In any case, branding will matter to a company if a consumer is making a choice between different products or services, so brand management will be essential to an organization (Keller, 2009, p. 140).

1.3 Building brands

There are four options a company has, when developing brands (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012, p. 249), including line extensions, brand extensions, multibrands, and new brands. These options can be seen in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Brand development strategies

		Product category	
		Existing	New
Brand name	Existing	Line extension	Brand extension
	New	Multibrands	New brands

Source: Kotler & Armstrong (2012).

If the company has an existing brand name and an existing brand category, it can introduce line extensions. With a line extension strategy, a company extends its existing brand name to new forms, colors, sizes, ingredients, and flavors within an existing product category. Line extensions are a low-cost and low-risk way of introducing new products, however, there are risks associated with it. An over-extended brand line can cause confusion if consumers have too many choices. An extension can also “cannibalize” the company’s other products. For instance, how much does a Diet Coke extension steal from Coca-Cola’s own line, and how much does it steal from Pepsi’s line by contrast? (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012, p. 250).

Brand extensions occur when a company extends an existing brand name to a new product category. The benefit of this strategy is, that it gives a new product instant recognition and

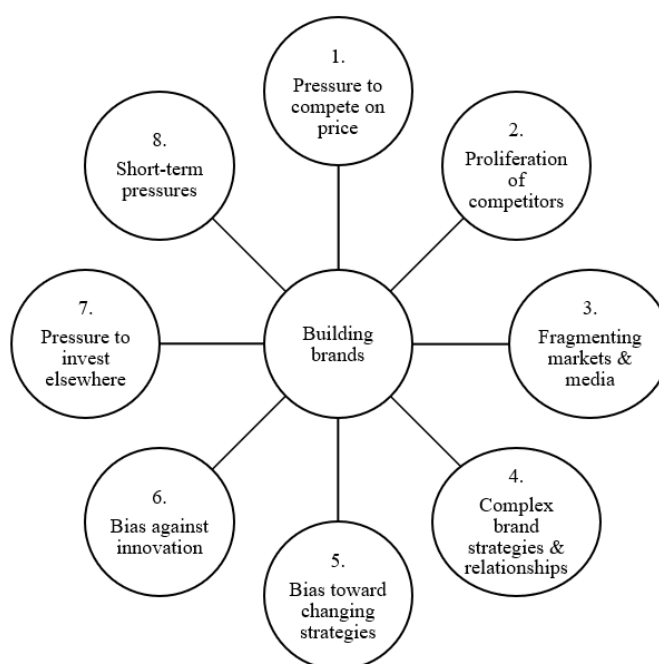
acceptance, while saving on the high costs of advertising, since the company does not have to build a new brand name. On the other hand, this strategy also poses certain risks. In some cases, the extension can confuse the image of the main brand, e.g. Heinz pet food, and if a brand extension fails, it can affect consumer attitudes towards other products carrying the same brand name (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012, p. 250).

A multibranding strategy is used when we have a product in an existing product category but develop a new brand name. Companies often use this strategy, and market different brands in the same product category (e.g. P&G sells multiple brands in the product category of laundry detergents). A multibranding strategy provides the company with a way of targeting many different consumer segments and capturing a large market share. On the other hand, this strategy also has its drawbacks. For example, not all brands obtain a large market share and gain profitability. Furthermore, if a company spreads its resources too thin, it might produce many unprofitable brands instead of building a few highly profitable ones. (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012, p. 251).

If a company feels that its existing brand is weakening, it might believe that a new brand name is needed. A company might also use the strategy of a new brand, when it is entering a new product category that none of its current brand names are appropriate for. As is the case with multibranding, the drawback of this strategy is the risk of spreading resources too thin (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012, p. 251).

Today, building a brand is more important than ever, but building a brand is far from easy. There are numerous pressures and barriers, both external and internal, that can be difficult to overcome when building a new brand. There are eight different factors making the process of building brands difficult (Aaker, 1996, p. 26). They are presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Factors influencing brand building



Source: Aaker (1996).

The first three factors are external. The first factor is the pressure to compete on price. Nowadays, there is an extreme pressure in nearly all industries, for companies to engage in price competitions. This results in reduced overhead costs, downsizing, and cutting of expenditures. Thus, people who support a brand with market research or other brand building activities are vulnerable to the organization's cost structure. Furthermore, the investments in brand equity that result in a margin are also vulnerable. The second factor is the proliferation of competitors. New competitors come from different sources, and they do not only contribute to price wars, but also make it very hard on companies to gain and hold a position on the market. The larger the number of competitors, the more difficult it is to target broad segments. This reduces the positioning options and makes the implementation of the brand less effective. The third factor is the fragmentation of markets and media. Today, being consistent across media and markets to build and maintain strong brands is difficult. There is a large array of media and coordinating messages across all of them without weakening the brand is difficult (Aaker, 1996, p. 28-30).

The remaining five factors are internal. The fourth factor involves complex brand strategies and relationships. Today, a brand is no longer a clear, singular entity and this complexity makes building and managing brands very difficult. The fifth factor is the bias toward changing strategies. There are sometimes internal pressures to change the identity of a brand and its strategy while it is still effective. This focus on change has become a norm. This can undercut brand equity or even prevent it from being established at all. Both the sixth and the seventh factor, the bias against innovation and the pressure to invest elsewhere, are problems faced by strong brands. They are caused by arrogance and

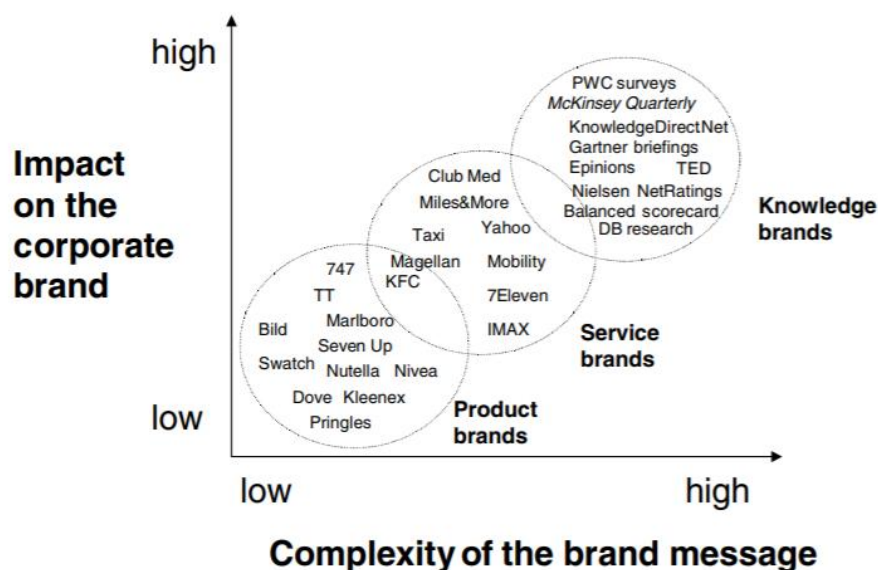
satisfaction combined with pride and greed. Companies are simply so pleased by their past and current success, that they ignore the changes embraced by their competition. By doing this, the brands become vulnerable. Furthermore, there is a temptation to reduce investments in the core business when the brand is strong, with the aim of improving short-term performance. This sharp reduction in support usually damages the brand. The last factor involves short-term pressures. These pressures for short-term results very often undermine investments in brands – there is a large emphasis on quick profits, rather than on trying to make products competitive in the long-run (Aaker, 1996, p. 31-34).

However, despite the numerous factors that make it difficult to build a brand, having a strong brand has its benefits, which makes building a strong brand a management priority (Aaker 1991, 1996; Kapferer 2005 in Keller, 2009, p. 140). One key benefit is an increased marketing communication effectiveness. A strong brand has strong brand equity, which makes consumers more willing to indulge in additional communication with the brand. Furthermore, consumers process these communications more favorably and are more likely to recall these communications later, along with the accompanying cognitive and affective reactions (Keller, 2009, p. 140).

1.4 Types of brands

According to Eppler and Will (2001, p. 445), there are three types of brands that influence the corporate brand: product brands, service brands, and knowledge brands. In their opinion, they differ from one another based on the impact on the corporate brand and the complexity of the brand message (see Figure 4).

Figure 4: Brand typology: Product, service, and knowledge brands

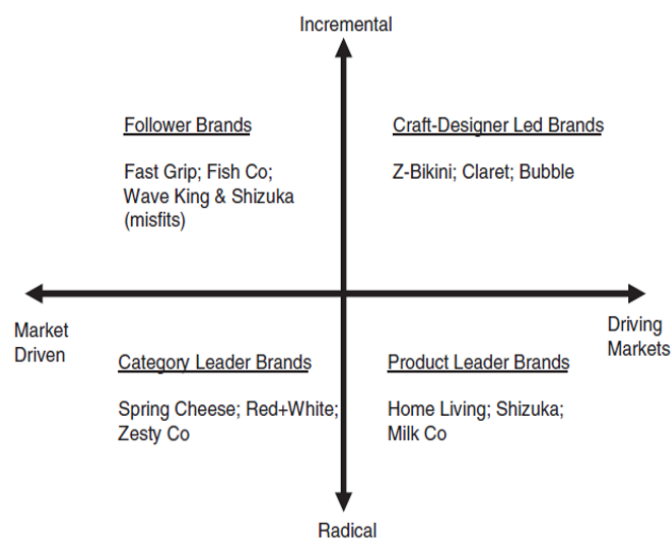


Source: Eppler & Will (2001).

As we can observe in Figure 4, knowledge brands have a greater impact on the corporate brand than product and service brands. This is mostly because they contribute directly to the reputation of a company. Furthermore, we can observe that the brand message complexity of knowledge brands is the highest of all three types of brands, since the value of a product or service does not require a lot of explanation while knowledge must be put into a context to reveal its potential value. Product brands have a very low impact on the overall corporate brand as they often do not make references to the company behind the brand. A typical example is Pringles, a well-known brand that puts no emphasis in terms of advertisement or packaging on the fact that its producer is Procter & Gamble. The middle cluster, service brands, consists of certain brands that market their service without mentioning the corporate brand (e.g. Taxi insurance for young people by Winterthur Insurance), and certain brands that use the corporate name to help market their service (e.g. Club Med). Knowledge brands typically originate in knowledge-intensive industries (e.g. market research, consulting, and investment banking) and are mostly higher-margin businesses. They represent a certain competence, rather than a specific product or service (e.g. the Gartner company represents IT competence). While many knowledge companies are business-to-business companies, they can also target end consumers (Eppler & Will, 2001, p. 449).

Beverland, Napoli, and Farrelly (2009, p. 33) propose a different brand typology. According to their study, where they analyzed companies' approach to innovation (incremental vs. radical) and their relationship to the market space (market-driven vs. driving markets), there are four types of brands: follower brands, category leader brands, craft-design driven brands, and product leader brands. Figure 5 represents this proposed typology.

Figure 5: Brand typology: Follower, category leader, craft-design driven and product leader brands



Source: Beverland, Napoli & Farrelly (2010).

Follower brands are those that are focused on responding to the marketplace. They do this using small-scale innovations. They focus on satisfying their customers' needs by improving their products by benchmarking them to competitors' products and competing on price. An example of a follower brand is Fish Co, which decided to match their product offerings to their competitors', trying to produce slightly higher-quality products while being environmentally sustainable (Beverland, Napoli & Farrelly, 2009, p. 37, 38).

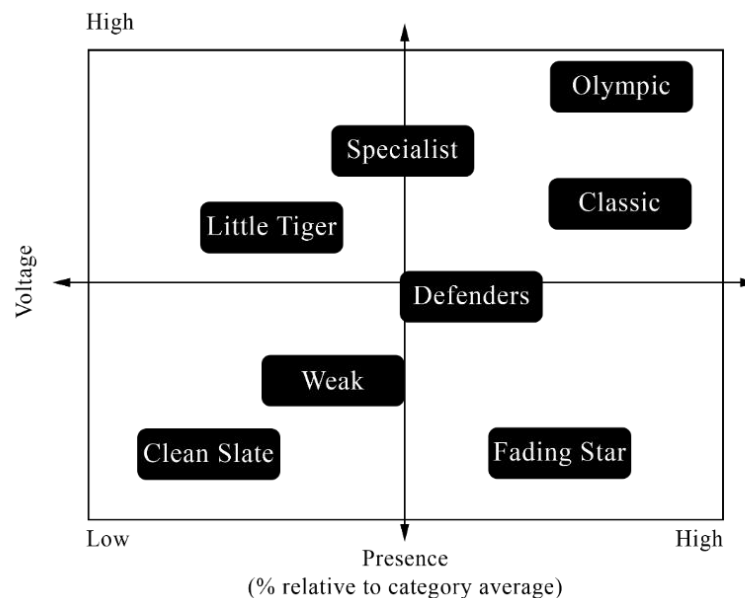
Category leader brands are also market-driven. However, they take on radical innovations, as opposed to follower brands. Furthermore, their primary reason for innovation is not to outplay competitors, but rather to cater to customers. Brands that are category leaders try to dominate their category with new radical inventions. An example of a category leader brand is Zesty Co. Zesty Co decided to analyze the market to understand how customers view the category of fruit and how customers perceive kiwifruit. Based on the knowledge collected, they were able to identify the potential for three radical new products, which they launched: kiwifruit with edible skin, jumbo-sized kiwifruit, and organically grown kiwifruit. Market acceptance of the new products was hasty and the brand dominated the category (Beverland, et al., 2009, p. 38, 39).

Craft-designer led brands are constantly driven either by a desire to continue a craft tradition or due to the desire to maintain the brand's status. They use small, incremental innovations of existing product lines to do this. They rarely change their product in terms of design and style to respond to short-term fashion. They prefer to build a strong heritage of high-quality products that exceed fashion. When innovating a product, they do not put a lot of attention to customers or competitive trends and instead pursue product excellence because of internal values. The goal of each innovation is to reinforce the brand's position, which is all about product superiority, craft, or heritage (Beverland et al., 2009, p. 39, 40). Any major changes to a product might undermine this brand position, which leads to consumers questioning the brand's authenticity (Beverland, 2005, in Beverland et al., 2009, p. 41). The strategy of craft-designer led brands is most relevant for niche brands, luxury brands, and heritage or icon brands (Holt, 2004, in Beverland et al, 2009, p. 41).

Product leader brands strive to become industry leaders by developing radical innovations that will change the nature of consumption, behavior, and demand (McDermott & O'Connor, 2002, in Beverland et al., 2009, p. 41). Brands classified as product leaders focus on innovation and are product-driven. Radical innovation is at the core of their branding strategy. Moreover, they do not innovate to accommodate customers' needs or compete with competitors, but rather base their innovations on new materials, new uses of these materials, and new practices. Their innovations are a product of innovation teams who identify new possibilities on the market. An example of a product leader is the Home Living brand, which has a long history of developing leading-edge technology in the sector of home appliances (Beverland et al., 2009, p. 41).

Another theory places brands into eight different categories based on the likelihood of their performance. These categories are: Olympic, Classic, Specialist, Defender, Little Tiger, Fading Star, Weak, and Clean Slate brands (see Figure 6) (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 254, 255).

Figure 6: Brand typology: Clean Slate, Weak, Defenders, Fading Star, Little tiger, Classic, Specialist and Olympic brands



Source: Lindström & Seybold (2004).

Olympic brands, such as McDonald's, Coca-Cola, and Disney, are known and loved all over the world. These are the strongest performing brands. However, maintaining the status of an Olympic brand is difficult – it is a fight for survival. Olympic brands enjoy five benefits (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 254, 256):

1. Olympic brands have a substantial, dominant, and sustained share of the market (e.g. Disney dominates animated features, theme parks, and film production).
2. Olympic brands can afford to have premium prices (e.g. Disney products command significantly higher prices than competitors).
3. Olympic brands have a track record of extending the brand with new products (e.g. the Disney brand was launched with the first Mickey Mouse cartoon and has since extended into many different categories).
4. Olympic brands cover the full market (e.g. Disney originally focused on children but now covers a full range of demographic groups).
5. Olympic brands extend to new geographic areas (e.g. Disney's films and products are distributed all over the world).

Classic brands are almost as strong as Olympic brands, however, they are not globally strong. An example of a Classic brand is Sony, which is very strong on some markets (e.g.

Japan, the UK, and the US) but weak on others (e.g. Germany). Specialist brands are brands that appeal to specific groups of people, and not to a mass audience, like Olympic and Classic brands do. These brands usually target adults. They are normally expensive, but audiences who find them relevant will purchase them nonetheless and will be strongly committed to them. Examples of Specialist brands are Prada and Gucci. Their products are highly priced and they are exclusive. These types of brands are unlikely to ever become Classic or Olympic brands, mostly because it is not in the interest of the manufacturers (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 256, 257).

Brands that fall in the category of Little Tigers are less-known brands, but they attract a large following among the people who discover them. Companies that enter the market using this category do it because the segment of this category is small, well-defined, and uses peer-to-peer networks to spread the word of the brand. Examples of companies which belonged to this category for a short period of time are Nokia and RedBull (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 257).

Defenders are brands that are neither strong nor weak but occupy the middle ground on the market. The largest problem of such brands is that they lack the leading edge. However, they are accepted by many and have the ability to change. An example of this type of brand is Lego. Clean Slate brands have a low level of awareness. Brands that fall into this category are the ones that just got started and have a fresh image, or brands that are introduced to new markets (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 257, 258).

Brands that are in trouble are called Fading Stars. These brands are usually well-known and relevant but are overtaken by competition. They struggle to differentiate themselves from others and lack advantage in their field. It is interesting to note that brands entering this category also have the ability to step out. Such was the case with Adidas, which suffered major losses due to failure to meet customer demands. They managed to turn things around by adopting dramatic changes to their proposition. The last category are weak brands. Several brands that try to appeal to children find themselves here, which is not surprising, since brands that target children die faster and more dramatically than brands appealing to other age segments (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 258, 259).

It is important to understand that the brand image of the adult population is different from the brand image of children and teen brands. Brands that are created to target children and teens are characterized by an ever-changing profile within the previously explained eight categories, and the speed by which they switch from category to category is very fast, which cannot be said of any other age segment (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 259).

2 CHILDREN AS CONSUMERS

2.1 The role of children in the consumer market

Businesses grow their consumer base in two different settings: when consumers switch to their brand from competitors, or when they build consumers from their childhood. Getting customers from competitors is a short-term strategy and is not very profitable. On the other hand, the strategy of targeting children from their early age results in loyal customers who have a tendency to buy more not only when promotions are in place, but also when they are not (McNeal, 1999, p. 29, 369, 370). Building customers from their childhood also makes a lot of sense since future markets should be cultivated early for most goods and services (Marshall, 2010, p. 6). Children influence the purchasing decisions of the households in three different ways (Assael, 1981, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 51):

- They are influenced by other household members in terms of their shopping behavior,
- They influence other family members in their shopping behaviors,
- They are autonomous purchasing decision makers.

Thus, it is not only important to note that children will, in the future, become consumers. Children also influence their parents' spending, as well as spend their pocket money on their own wants and needs, years before becoming adults (McNeal, 1999, p. 29). For example, in the UK, between years 2015 and 2017, 15-year-olds spent on average around 25 £ a week, while 7-year-olds spent 7.40 £. They spent the largest amount of money on clothes and shoes, followed by school dinners and soft drinks (Office for National Statistics, 2018).

As mentioned, children also influence their parents' spending and they try to do this as soon as they have basic communication skills. The most straightforward influence is when they simply ask their parents to buy them something, which can be expensive or inexpensive. These shopping requests are most likely to take place at a shopping location (Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 51-53).

On average, children visit a store for the first time at the age of 2 months. By the age of 18 months, they are already capable of recognizing products on the shelves. At the age of 2 years, they are already able to make their first in-store requests to parents. Between 4 and 5 years of age, they begin rapidly acquiring consumer competence and learning to make their own purchases. By the age of 10, they already possess half of their consumer skills (McNeal, 1999, p. 37, 38). By the time children become teens, they have already established certain shopping patterns (Tootelian & Gaedeke, 1992, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 46).

2.2 Socialization of children consumers

There are three alternative perspectives that explain the development of children's abilities as consumers (Marshall, 2010, p. 24, 28, 32): cognitive development and the acquisition of economic knowledge (Piaget, 1937 and Roedder-John, 1999), acquiring social skills and knowledge through interaction with socialization agents (Bandura, 1977), and transforming children's participation in joint consumption activities (Rogoff, 1998). While the first perspective describes the transformation of children's consumption abilities, the second explains how children are influenced by socialization agents in their process of gaining economic abilities. The third perspective views children's consumption as socio-historical activity (Marshall, 2010, p. 24).

The first perspective, cognitive development and the acquisition of economic knowledge, asks what the child knows. The main topic is understanding what economic knowledge the child possesses and is capable of using when confronted with consumption activities. This perspective is based on the work of Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget. According to Piaget (1937, in Marshall, 2010, p. 24), a child develops by adapting to the outside world and, during this process, they gain elaborate cognitive mechanisms with the aim of improving their control of the surrounding world. This process happens naturally. Children build their skills by acting on their environment (the process of assimilation), and by doing this, the environment consecutively enforces its own structures on them (the process of accommodation). Piaget (1937 in Marshall, 2010, p. 24, and Šramová, 2017, p. 96) proposes four stages to describe and explain a child's cognitive development: the sensorimotor stage (infants gather knowledge by acting on the surrounding world), the preoperational period (children look at the world from their point of view and are convinced that everyone's point of view is the same as theirs), the concrete logical operation stage (children can consider other's points of view and understand that other people may view things differently), and the formal thinking stage (adolescents are capable of reasoning on hypotheses, not only concrete reality, and can work with abstract terms). The result of this child development process is an adult, who is capable of increasingly complex logical designs (Marshall, 2010, p. 24). Piaget explains that all children go through these stages and in the same order, however, at different speeds (Šramová, 2017, p. 97).

Based on Piaget's four stages of cognitive development, we can also explain how a child develops in terms of consumer behavior during these stages (Šramova, 2017, p. 96, 97:

1. At the end of the sensor-motor period of development (from birth to age 2), the child is capable of recognizing general symbols, so they understand that a doll represents a person, for example.
2. In the preoperational stage (from age 2 to age 7), the child perceives TV commercials as amusing, enjoyable, and trustworthy, and can demand the advertised products.

3. In the concrete operational period (from age 7 to age 11), children become more critical of advertisements and do not trust them blindly. However, children do not perceive the new forms of advertising, e.g. product placement and suggestions from bloggers or vloggers, as advertisements, meaning that companies can have control over them.
4. In the formal operational period (age 11 and older), children are capable of understanding the persuasive content of an advertisement and have a critical view towards traditional forms of advertisements (e.g. TV advertisements, billboards, etc.) and can even reject them. However, like in the previous stage, companies are still able to engage children's attention with the use of new forms of advertising, like product placement in video games and recommendations from bloggers, vloggers, singers, etc.

Roedder-John (1999, in Marshall, 2010, p. 24-25) has studied children and their role as consumers and has incorporated her findings in the framework of socialization presented by Piaget (1937). She identifies three stages (defined in terms of age groups) in children's development as consumers that capture major cognitive shifts from preschool to adolescence: the perceptual stage (3–7 years), the analytical stage (7–11 years), and the reflective stage (11–16 years). In her opinion, there are shifts in children's understanding of basic economic concepts during these periods and she tries to identify these shifts using Piaget's theory. This model describes how a child's intellect develops through stages. It starts with fragmented and imprecise ideas and proceeds towards a more logical understanding (Marshall, 2010, p. 24, 25).

In her model, she describes that the skills of young children are very limited and are based on perceptual skills, so children are unable to understand implicit messages contained in advertising. Children aged 3 to 7 have an egocentric orientation and are not able to see things from different point of views, thus, they might not be able to distinguish the persuasive motivations of the advertiser from the information needed by the consumer. Children's ability to deal with information is very limited so they are not capable of making decisions based on a plurality of dimensions. In the analytical stage, children become more aware of the complexity of the market. Their way of reasoning becomes more abstract and no longer driven only by their own perceptions. In the reflective stage, pre-adolescents and adolescents develop critical thinking about the marketplace and its functions (Roedder-John, 1999, in Marshall, 2010, p. 26).

There are a couple of limitations that this framework has (Marshall, 2010, p. 26):

- This perspective provides a very limited understanding of the child consumer socialization,
- This perspective places age as the cornerstone of the framework, however, age ranges vary among different cultures and social groups,

- This perspective focuses exclusively on logical reasoning while overlooking a major mode of human thought – the narrative one.

The second perspective, acquiring social skills and knowledge through interaction with socialization agents, aims to overcome limitations of the first perspective. This is a process-oriented approach to consumer socialization, which aims to determine how a child acquires economic knowledge. The initial definition of child consumer socialization by this perspective refers to three theoretical elements: the structural antecedents, the socialization process, and the behavioral outcomes (Moschis & Churchill, 1978; Moschis & Moore, 1979, in Marshall, 2010, p. 28). This definition was later enhanced by three complementary contributions (Marshall, 2010, p. 28, 29):

- The first is the revised Piagetian theory by Berti and Bombi (1988). This theory suggests that children have an active role in the economic domain and that socialization is an on-going process which allows the child to assimilate knowledge about the economic world.
- The second draws from the model of Eagly (1978), a social role model theory. This theory suggests that children play different roles in society (e.g. pupil, sibling, grandson, and customer). Children can gather economic knowledge from the following sources of information: parents and family habits, peers, advertising, and products. According to the model, parents, peers, and even effects of gender are factors that help children become economic agents, which means they can choose a product, learn how to buy it, and understand the governance of the marketplace.
- The third theory uses the theory of social learning developed by Bandura (1977). This theory suggests that two central processes explain the real consumer behavior (e.g. comparing prices and products) as well as complex and abstract notions (e.g. purchasing power and taxes). These are the observation and imitation of, e.g., parents, peers, siblings, etc. This model describes the role of social environment with two independent variables: the nature of social environment and the type of reinforcement provided by the environment.

All the contributing authors of this theory focused on defining how children are integrated into society with the help of the roles that they play within society. The main takeaway of this model is that the main consumer socialization agents are: traditional (family, peers, and school), professional (marketing managers and communication agencies) and virtual (web communities and social networking websites) (Marshall, 2010, p. 29, 30).

There are a couple of limitations of this model. The scope of this exploration was limited and did not include young children. Furthermore, indirect learning (observation and imitation) cannot be accountable for cognitive progression, e.g. the development of a child's economic skills, as this perspective suggests (Marshall, 2010, p. 30).

The third perspective is based on cultural psychology theory – transforming children's participation in joint consumption activities. It considers that children are members of the culture of mass consumption. This perspective argues that children develop as consumers because of their involvement in several social activities within their environment. According to this model, a child is integrated into a social body with which they interact and from which they receive help and reassurance in everyday life (Marshall, 2010, p. 24, 32). A child's behavior is formed by being in a social and cultural environment, such as family, school, and religion. These different environments influence the personality of a child, especially in terms of language and cultural meanings (Šramová, 2017, p. 98).

This approach was developed by Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist. According to him, the developmental process is the result of a combination of social interaction, history, and culture of the environment where the child is growing up. Furthermore, he does not neglect the role of the natural environment – evolutionary and biological – in the whole process of development. He argues that a child learns about consumption through everyday activities and gets familiar with the social standards that relate to consumption, e.g. gets familiar with the concept of brands, price, quality, the comparison of products, etc. The child also learns about consumption through their interaction with other members of the society (e.g. teachers, relatives, and peers). The child is then capable of comparing their consumer experience with others, not only face-to-face but also through so-called institutional systems, such as distribution and retailing, carnivals, festivals, sales techniques, etc. (Marshall, 2010, p. 32, 33; Šramová, 2017, p. 98, 99).

Cultural differences in marketing can be seen in packaging, advertising, and/or taste. These cultural differences differently impact the consumer experiences of children growing up in different social and cultural environments. Moreover, children's consumption practices include not only purchase decisions. There are also educational, social, and institutional dimensions that influence their consumer world. Children learn consumer behavior via different kinds of guidance (parents and peers), as well as through different forms of semiotic tools (e.g. language, advertising, packaging, etc.). Children consumption is not only a mediated activity but also a mediating activity. Therefore, a child is not only a passive recipient of knowledge and competences related to consumer behavior, but also learns actively to develop persuasion skills, language, vocabulary, a way of interaction with others, and other social skills (Marshall, 2010, p. 34, 35; Šramová, 2017, p. 99).

2.3 Stages in consumer development

McNeal (2007, p. 27-31, 360-368) recognizes five stages of consumer development:

- Stage one: Observation,
- Stage two: Requesting/seeking,
- Stage three: Selecting/Talking,

- Stage four: Co-purchase, and
- Stage five: Independent purchase.

Children are in the observation stage from the moment they are born and until they are 6 months old. It is the first stage of life and, thus, also the first stage of consumer behavior. The moment parents bring children home from the hospital, they are surrounded by a large array of products and services. Essentially, children are born in a very commercialized physical environment and they are expected to learn how to function as a consumer rather quickly. At this point, the child is probably exposed to the smallest number of commercial products in their lifetime (McNeal, 2007, p. 27, 360).

There are two substages of the first consumer development stage: random observation and voluntary observation. Children that are between 0 and 2 months old are in the substage of random observation. In this stage, they use their body to explore objects and the environment, mostly by involuntary movements. As they develop the senses of smelling, hearing, tasting, feeling, seeing, and balancing, their involuntary random movements are replaced by voluntary movements towards food, people, comfort objects, and play objects – e.g. to the objects they find satisfying. The most important consumer object at this point are their mother's breasts, and they get the most attention. Most of their consumer behavior in the first two months of their lives consists of approach and avoidance reflexes, which produces some kind of memory, so infants are routinely seeking items that give them pleasure through sensorimotor activities (e.g. sucking, twisting, and grunting) (McNeal, 2007, p. 27, 360).

The second stage is voluntary observation, where the child is between 2 and 6 months old. At this stage, most of the noticeable involuntary movements have been replaced by voluntary movements and the child uses their movements to get towards commercial objects more and more. The child develops habits based on getting satisfying results from repeating some movements (e.g. a baby finds that moving in a crib will make the mobile over the crib move, which gives them delight). The child also begins to make choices between products, and parents respond to these choices (the child's consumer behavior) by providing the child with more of what they like and less of what they dislike (McNeal, 2007, p. 28, 360).

When the baby is between 2 and 6 months old, parents often take them to the store for the first time. And since the baby already has well developed senses, they can see, smell, hear, feel, and even taste the attributes of the environment – the marketplace. For example, the mother can give her baby a taste of ice cream after shopping, which she has bought in the supermarket for herself. After a few of these experiences, the baby's mind will begin to associate the marketplace with the provision of good things. And the primary experience with a commercial source of satisfiers is mostly attributed to the parents (McNeal, 2007, p. 28, 360–361).

Children in the requesting/seeking stage are between 6 and 24 months old. As is the case with stage one, this stage also has two substages: Pre-Language/Pre-Legs and Post-Language/Post-Legs. In the Pre-Language/Pre-Legs stage, the child is between 6 and 14 months old. They cannot walk or talk yet. The child's muscles are rapidly strengthening at this stage, so the child can experience commercial objects continuously. As the child learns sit up, they become capable of grabbing, touching, and putting in mouth more and more objects within they grasp. Furthermore, there is no shortage of objects since parents, grandparents, and siblings continue to provide them almost daily. At this stage, trips to the market continue and the baby continues to bond with the buying place. However, babies' limited motor skills limit their actions in the exploration of commercial products and cannot obtain an object on their own. What is even worse, they are unable to vocalize their wants as they are still unable to speak (McNeal, 2007, p. 28, 361).

In the post-language/post-legs stage, the child is between 15 and 24 months old. At this age, infants begin to walk and talk, gradually becoming toddlers. The child starts to name the objects they want and when they see these products in the store, they start asking for them. And since the baby is taught to get what they request, they expect the same in stores. Furthermore, babies see these products in books and on TV at home. The marketplace is thus invited into the baby's home in addition to their weekly visit of the physical. The child begins to learn brand names and they become a part of day-to-day conversations, so marketers now routinely communicate with children (via TV, Radio, and stores). Marketers are aware that if they get their brand or products names in the sensory neighborhood of children, children will ask their parents for the product if they find it appealing (McNeal, 2007, p. 29, 361–362).

A child is at the selecting/talking stage when they are between 24 and 48 months old. They now have developed motor skills, muscles, and memory, which encourages them to take what is theirs. Moreover, the child is also capable of taking things that are not theirs by reaching, grabbing, and taking from others, as well as demanding them from parents. They also do this at the store, where their request rate per visit is between 12 and 15. The child also observes what their classmates in daycare own, and increasingly ask parents for these items. At this stage, they can recognize brand names, store names, and TV programs built around brand names, and make their knowledge apparent to parents. The child at this stage is also big enough to retrieve products from the lower shelves in the store and place them in the shopping cart (particularly a cart designed for them), so competition among marketers for product positioning increases drastically (the slotting fees that producers pay to retailers for shelf space are very high) (McNeal, 2007, p. 29, 30, 362–364).

A child is at the stage of co-purchase when they are between 48 and 72 months old. At this stage, children begin to accumulate money with the help of their parents and grandparents. By the age of 5, most of them already own a piggy bank full of coins. The child is aware that to purchase something at the store, they need money, their mother, or sometimes both. They understand that there are multiple stores with different offerings, including different

brands. At this stage, the child can purchase a product with their own money for the first time. They know the procedure for this. First, they must go to the store where they need to find and select the product. Then they take it to the cashier where they must pay for it, and only then can the product be unwrapped and used. Usually, the first purchase happens with the help of a parent. The importance of product packaging at this stage is enormous. Packages already give a visual “sales talk” to children in the store, and when children take them home, the “sales talk” continues there. If the packaging is not thrown away until its contents are used up, (e.g. shampoo bottle, cereal box, or toothpaste tube) the message of the “sales talk” is transmitted to the child every time they use it. This way, the child learns new brand names and their attributes. Furthermore, children at this stage are able to read the billboards that line the highways, and they are able to read the brand names on the hotels and restaurants they visit with their family. Marketers also use jingles to talk to children at this stage, and they usually remember them easily and repeat them for years (McNeal, 2007, p. 30, 364–366).

At the stage of independent purchase, the child is between 72 and 100 months old. They have already made several co-purchases with their parents and now want to make purchases on their own. This happens mainly because they want to become more independent, so they seek permission to buy alone. These purchases begin as small ones, for example a snack or a beverage. However, this marks the beginning of an independent consumer. The child does not need parents to make purchases anymore, but they still need them in order to get money to fund their newfound habit of being a consumer. At this stage, the child learns to rely on shelf information and packaging for assistance with purchases in self-service stores. The level of point-of-purchase advertising aimed at them rises at this point and marketers start to use the Internet and TV increasingly in an attempt to lead children to specific stores and product displays (McNeal, 2007, p. 30, 31, 367–369).

3 BRANDING TO CHILDREN

3.1 Marketing efforts targeting children

There are three reasons why marketers target children, the first reason being the fact that children consume products and services 24/7/360, from their birth onwards. Thus, each consumer act of a child is a chance for a company to get a new consumer, and there are multiple potential markets children are a part of. For example, a child eating cereal in the morning in front of the TV is viewed as a member of multiple markets, such as the cereal market, milk market, sugar market, fruit market, cereal bowl market, spoon market, TV-viewing market, TV-program market, etc. Children are thus targeted 24 hours a day and 7 days per week in every activity they perform. However, children are also targeted for products they use rarely or never at all but will use later in life. This brings us to the second reason why marketers target children: they have a higher market potential than any other

group. Children are a primary market in the sense that they buy and consume products designed particularly for them. Furthermore, they create an influence market for products and services that they cannot afford to buy themselves, but suggest, request, or demand them from their parents. Moreover, they create a future market. There are many goods and services that they do not yet use, but will in the future, so marketers target them today as tomorrow's consumers (McNeal, 2007, p. 357, 358).

Marketers are quite aware of the benefits that come with marketing to children, and operate day and night in all dimensions to sell their brands to children or their parents. To do this, they use the so-called notion of integrated marketing communications. In this notion, all marketing communication through all personal and nonpersonal media are coordinated to reach the maximum efficiency. This way, they reach the body of consumers (children of all ages) continuously (24/7/360). Marketing efforts explained by this model are either interpersonal or nonpersonal. When it comes to interpersonal channels, marketers reach children through their parents, teachers, peers, salespeople, and celebrities that are presented in movies, TV and radio programming, magazines, newspapers, books, billboards, stores (personal appearances and point-of-purchase ads), schools (bulletin boards), and events (athletic meetings and fashion shows). Nonpersonal channels include the product itself (branding and packaging), advertising, and programming on radio and TV, magazines, and other media – product placement tactic, promotions through, for example, premiums and gifts, advertising in the store and through events (McNeal, 2007, p. 371, 372).

An overview of the Slovenian laws on branding and advertising to children and the related ethical can be found in Appendix 3.

3.2 Brands in everyday lives of children

As already described, children become a part of the consumer world from their birth on. McAlister and Cornwell (2010, p. 203–228), who analyzed children's brand symbolism understanding on children between 3 and 5 years old, found out that even children aged 3 recognized some of the brands that are present in the markets of fast food, soda and toys. The results showed that they are more likely to recognize brands targeted primarily at children (most likely because they have the most experience with those). Furthermore, they identified that preschoolers aged 3–5 can already understand the symbols of the brands whose target group they are part of. Additionally, they can and willingly do judge others based on brand use.

Their consumer knowledge becomes more sophisticated with age. Children that are between 4 and 6 years old describe the contents of a shopping list very specifically and are amazingly brand conscious. They recognize brands of food products as well as non-food products. Children were very good at recognizing the following food products: cereal, candy, cookies, chips, ice cream, fruit juice, and peanut butter – all the products that they

love and consume (probably) daily. They did not recognize any brands of products typically consumed or used by adults, such as: canned vegetables, milk, detergent, and coffee. Similarly, children recognized non-food brands that they use daily, such as toys, clothing, videogames, cassettes, and records, but did not recognize brands of products such as books, jewelry, and telephones (John, 1984; McNeal, 1992, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 10). The table with answers can be seen in Appendix 4.

As previously presented, children recognized brands of clothes very well. A study conducted by Lovšin, Loriger, and Koch (2014, p. 229–237), where they focus on the importance of clothing brands in the lives of children, supports this claim and suggests that older children can sometimes even exclude a child from their company if they wear non-branded clothes. According to their study on 145 children (aged 10–14 years) from Slovenian primary schools, the three most important factors for children when purchasing clothes were comfort, color, and affordability, while brands present the fifth purchasing decision factor out of eight, ranking it quite low. However, boys and older children did find brands more important. When children were asked if they considered it important that other children wore brands that they themselves liked, almost half of the respondents (49.6 %) responded that they did. However, the results of younger respondents showed that wearing non-branded clothes would not exclude a child from other children's company, but it was more likely to happen to older children.

A different study by Roper and Shah (2007, p. 712-728) found similar results when studying the social impact of a brand on a child. According to their research, teachers in the UK believe children (7–11 years old) are highly aware of brands and can even cause social divisions among children, forming “in” and “out” groups. Furthermore, the parents of these children believe that children who did not own the right brands were bullied and socially excluded. Thus, the parents feel guilty for not being able to afford to buy the latest brands for their children. This was also confirmed by Elliott and Leonard (2006, p. 347) from the children's point of view. They conducted a study based on 30 children aged between 8 and 12 years. According to them, children prefer to talk to someone wearing branded trainers and feel the pressure of their peers to wear sneakers that their friends wear in order to fit in and not be teased about what they wear. The situation is similar with brands of food products. While younger children do not place a lot of importance on brands when purchasing food and drinks, older children find brands important when purchasing food products. They believe specific brands are cooler and that having these brands will make them cooler among their peers (Roper & La Niece, 2009, p. 91, 92).

Children learn to identify products and brand names primarily from parents and grandparents. Children in America usually make their first spoken request for a product to parents when they are between 18 and 24 months old. This is usually a food product, most likely a ready-to-eat one. The child recognizes the package, symbols, shapes, and colors, as well as the brand name of the product he likes or enjoys and requests it. The child is also very likely to name the brand (e.g. Cheerios) when demanding a product, even if not

pronounced the way the marketer might want. Children can do this because they can, at this age, walk, observe and interact with commercial products and can thus ask their parents for these objects. Furthermore, children regularly go shopping with their parents, where they talk about the products, which encourages children to ask for things. At this stage, brand names are part of everyday activities. Between the ages of 2 and 4, the child continues to learn brand names from many sources, such as parents, TV, radio, videos, books, packages, stores, friends, etc., and uses them to name a product (McNeal, 2007, p. 202–362). For example, the results of one study showed that 60 % of 3-year-olds and 80% of 5-year-olds could read environmental print (logos and signs that we see every day in the world around us) in the context of cereal boxes, toothpaste cartons, traffic signs, and soft drink logos (Goodman, 1986, in McMahon Giles & Wellhausen Tunks, 2010, p. 23). Brands become desired for their functional benefits among children at the age of 4. At this age, children have a more active role in choosing brands (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 54).

As children grow, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market, however, they do not understand the difference between a brand and a product. They remember products they are familiar with by their brand names. They group brands in two groups. The brands that they like are a part of an evoked set, or a consideration set. On the other hand, brands they do not like, find unsuitable or unfitting, are remembered as an inept set. There is also a theory that the brands children recognize but do not have enough knowledge about, and thus cannot put them in the previously mentioned groups, are a part of the third group: the inert set. These brands will eventually be put in a liked or disliked group (McNeal, 2007, p. 208).

By the time children enter first grade, they are still learning pronunciation and for most of the part have speech impairments. Furthermore, they are shy, which makes them reluctant to speak with teachers. However, they come to school with the vocabulary of 14,000–15,000 words, out of which at least 200–300 words are brand names (McNeal, 2007, p. 293).

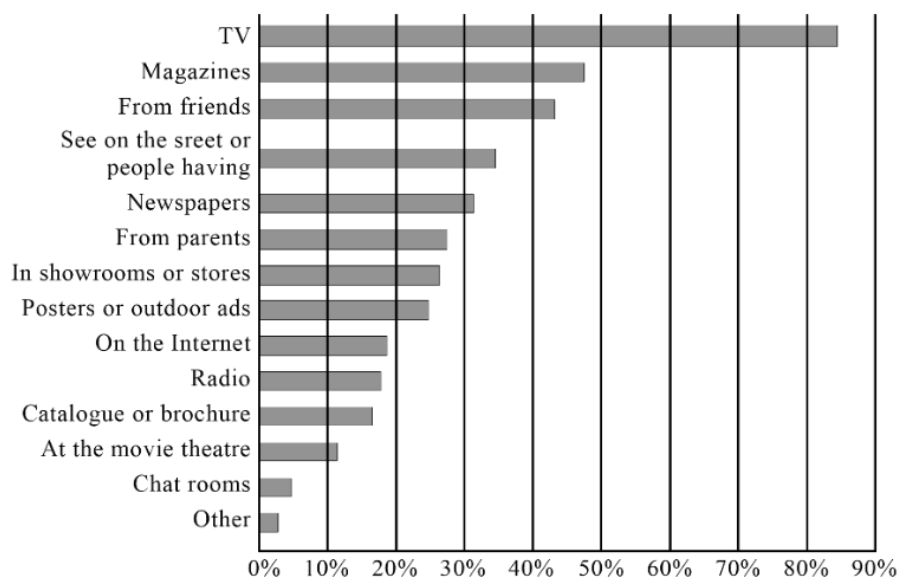
With age, children become more aware of brands in same product groups and start to rank them. While there might be five brands in the evoked set, a child does not like them equally. They put a so-called psychological distance between them, but the distances can be different. For instance, there can be a lot of space between the first and second brand, which clearly indicates the winner. But there can be a very small distance between the second and third brand, indicating that they like the second brand just slightly more than the third (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). There have been studies analyzing which brands children most often list as their favorite. Interestingly, children participating in international studies (Roper and Shah, 2007, p. 718; Elliott & Leonard, 2006, p. 357) as well as a study in Slovenia (Lovšin, Loriger & Koch, 2004, p. 233) chose *Nike* as the best brand, with it having a very high level of brand awareness.

By the time children become tweens (pre-adolescent, up to 14 years old), they have clear opinions about brands and form a distinct group of consumers on the consumer market. Generally, tweens are divided into four groups of consumers (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 15, 16):

- Edges. Tweens in this groups are independent and rebellious. They have an anti-fashion and anti-brand stance, but they do identify with brands that support their rebellious behavior. They tend to break rules, skip school, are rarely at home, and like extreme sports. Due to this behavior, they are perceived as independent trendsetters.
- Persuaders. This group of tweens consists of influencers. They adopt new trends quickly. They are popular, spend a lot of time on their appearance, and like to dress well.
- Followers. Most of today’s tweens are a part of the group of followers. They are influenced by persuaders and never try anything first. They do not consider themselves cool.
- Reflexives. Tweens in this group do not follow fashion trends and do not go out. They lack self-esteem and have a small number of friends, but seek social acceptance.

Tweens gather information on brands from different sources. A study conducted in 2004 asked tweens where they found brand information on products from three categories (cars, fashion, and cellphones). The global average shows that the most important source of brand information at that time was TV, followed by magazines and information from friends. Parents are listed quite low, on the 6th place. Finding information on the Internet ranked 9th (see Figure 7) (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 63, 64), but we can safely presume it would rank very high, if not on top, were the same study conducted today.

Figure 7: Brand information sources for tweens



Source: Lindström & Seybold (2004).

3.3 Building a brand for children

Children are targeted by many brands, among them brands made especially for children, brands made for the whole family, and brands that are targeted at adults but are recognized by children nevertheless due to their entertaining marketing campaigns. And while marketers of adult-oriented brands do not primarily target children, they also do not mind the fact that children are influenced by them as well. They understand that these children will eventually become part of their future consumer base (Gunter, Oates & Blades, 2005, in Gunter, 2016, p. 22, 23). Furthermore, according to McNeal (1999, p. 48), all companies should target children with their marketing effort since birth as they are their future potential customers.

However, building brands that will appeal to children is difficult. There is no unique formula that would guide a company to build a brand that children would have a strong preference towards. Different authors tried to define the factors that make a brand successful, among others Wiener (2003), Lindström & Seybold (2004), and Mininni (2005).

According to Wiener (2003, p. 47, 48), children are always looking for something new and different, and companies should keep this in mind when developing brands for them. A lack of originality in a brand can lower the element of fun in children, who want to express their own individuality and who enjoy using products that form a new trend. Brands are a medium that helps them discover something new and unexpected. Furthermore, they expect brands to tell a story and capture their imagination, which a company can only do if it stays at the cutting edge of trends.

In Wiener's opinion, there are four key mindsets in children. If a brand wishes to be successful, it must tap into at least one of these mindsets, however, the most successful brands tap into all four. These key mindsets are (Wiener, 2004, p. 48):

- The exploratory mindset. Children are always curious and enjoy feel like explorers. They tend to explore the world around them much deeper than the adults, both through role play and questioning. Playmobil is a brand that managed to tap into this mindset very successfully and has evolved their product offering over the years. They managed to get children excited and wanting to interact with the brand in more ways than just one.
- The expression mindset. Children have the need to express their imagination because they love to create. They love to express their creativity in many ways and want their skills to be recognized and respected.
- The exchange mindset. Children love to communicate with their peers and the Internet has opened the world of possibilities to them, especially to the older children. Blogging and sharing opinions and views has become very popular. Brands like Nike and Pepsi

have decided to tap into this mindset by sponsoring bloggers since they make good product testers and critics.

- The excitement mindset. Children get bored quickly and are constantly on the search for new surprises and excitement. They search for things that induce an emotional response in them by using the smell, feel, sound, tactility, or design of a product or service.

Lindström & Seybold (2004, p. 25) recognized six characteristics that most successful brands of the world possess. These characteristics are fear, fantasy, mastery, humor, love, and stability, and the combination of these characteristics must be just right for it to be successful.

The fear factor includes terror, horror, panic, and war, to which mostly boys are drawn. There are many brands that have incorporated this fear factor into their brands in order to appeal more to boys. A brilliant example of fear and humor incorporation would be Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles. The four heroes, who are turtles and behave as human beings, have a mission to conquer evil and they do it in a fun way, which appeals to children (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 27, 28).

Fantasy is unlimited and expands the imagination of children. Capacity for fantasy is the largest when the child is small, and it slowly reduces with time. This is because small children are not restricted by traditional thinking yet. It is important to note that every toy, marketing campaign, and communication that is directed at children should appeal to their imagination in some way. An example of a successful strategy that appeals to children with the use of fantasy is JK Rowling's *Harry Potter* series. The plot of the story is the fight between good and evil, and the Harry Potter universe allows children to escape reality and everyday lives (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 29-32).

Children also like the sense of winning and being in control, and this is where mastery comes in play. Every child wants to be the master of the universe and some brands can offer this experience. Computer games, for example, use this characteristic to appeal to children. However, even if the score lists are important, the journey to get there is equally relevant. Winning should not be difficult, nor too easy (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 33, 34).

Humor is very important to children, though their sense of humor is very specific. They find it amusing when they are the ones who are dictating the situation and someone else is losing control. Furthermore, making friends laugh generates acceptance and their loyalty. The fundamentals of humor lie in cartoons, such as Tom and Jerry, where they push the limits, make fun of adults, and do crazy things (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 34, 35).

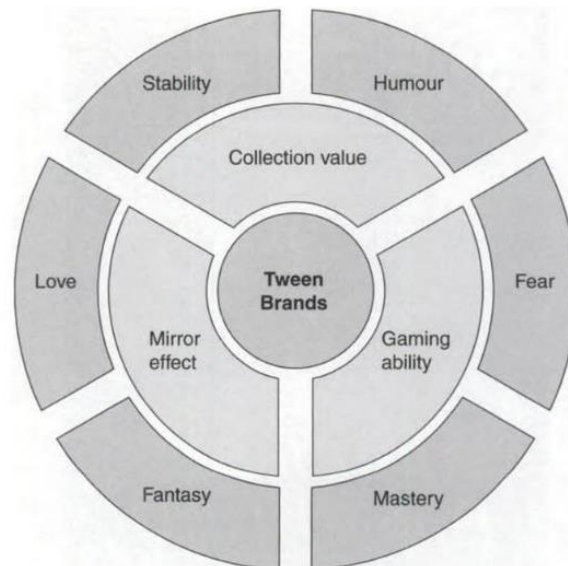
When it comes to love, girls tend to express it more directly than boys. Nonetheless, children of both genders have the universal need for love. And the more we mature, the higher our need to nurture what we love – particularly something small and cute. A very

reflective version of this need is Tamagotchi, a cute small egg which emerged in Japan in the late 1990s. It is a pocket-sized, egg-shaped device with a screen and buttons. When you put in the batteries, the egg hatches and you become the owner of a chick. From that moment on, you are its official caretaker – you need to feed it, play with it, clean it, etc. Interestingly, not only girls loved this game, but also boys (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 35–37).

For children, stability usually means a safe home, food on the table, clothes, and paid education. It also represents steadiness – no moving away, no new schools, and no divorces. However, the divorce rate in Europe is at 50 %. With the combination of high unemployment and credit card debts, children tend to project their love and need for stability onto boy and girl pop bands. They put their trust into their favorite brands, take the lyrics of their songs seriously, and purchase their merchandise. Stability might not be as important a factor as the remaining five, but it is growing in importance (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 37, 38).

Apart from these six characteristics, there are also three drivers that are important for brands who want to appeal to children. These are the mirror effect, collection value, and gaming ability (see Figure 8) (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 39).

Figure 8: Tactics that drive successful children concepts



Source: Lindström & Seybold (2004).

Children love to imitate the grown-ups' world and mirror almost every aspect of their parents' lives. They learn and mirror by observing their parents and imitating them. A brand that has successfully implemented this driver into their business model is Fisher-Price with their kitchen selection, plastic food, and small appliances (e.g. hairdryers, living room furniture, etc.). The mirror effect also works in the following way: it places the child

at the center of the world they admire and aspire to be in. This type of a mirror effect is successful if the brand manages to position the child very firmly at the center of the world that they aspire to be a part of (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 39, 40).

Collection is also a very large driver for children to want a specific brand. The collection of many different types of cards has been a large hit among kids for a long time now, and many companies managed to make a small or large fortune in this industry by using the right formula. Furthermore, both boys and girls tend to collect cards, such as Pokémon cards, Ninja Turtle cards, Lord of the Rings cards, Harry Potter cards, etc. (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 40, 41).

The world of games has grown exponentially in the past couple of years, however, the concept of a game must include a challenge – there must be a winner and a loser. If the game itself is not built on some sort of high-score, point-collecting, or level-achieving platform, then children will create the rules themselves. Children are also not very likely to promptly join a game if it does not include high-score boards, point collection or level versions – they demand gaming components (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 41, 42).

According to Mininni (2005, p. 23-25), it is no longer enough for a brand to be relevant when targeting children. Brands for children must be interactive and deliver instantaneously in today's day and age, where every child has access to a computer and/or smartphone. Furthermore, brands should not talk down to children but assume that the children's market is sophisticated and precious. Additionally, they respond to honesty in marketing and expect the brands to deliver on their promises. Children also tend to respond to brands on an emotional level and this is what forms brand loyalties and brand passions. Brands that successfully tap into the children's market are rewarded with premium prices and brand endorsements – when children like a brand, they endorse it to all their friends, which increases sales and the market share.

The elements that make a great brand for adults, also make a great brand for children. Brands should be straightforward, have integrity, believe in themselves, be attractive, and be of good quality if they are to succeed in the children's market. Lindström & Seybold (2004, p. 213, 214) lay out the following ten guidelines for building a strong brand for children:

1. The company building a children's brand will be working with paradoxes. For example, it is a children's market, but children do not want childish things. Furthermore, price competition is tough, but quality of the product must stay high. And what is the most complex, children want to own brands that give them social recognition, but do not like it when everyone around them owns the brand. The company must consider these paradoxes and build a brand that is unique.

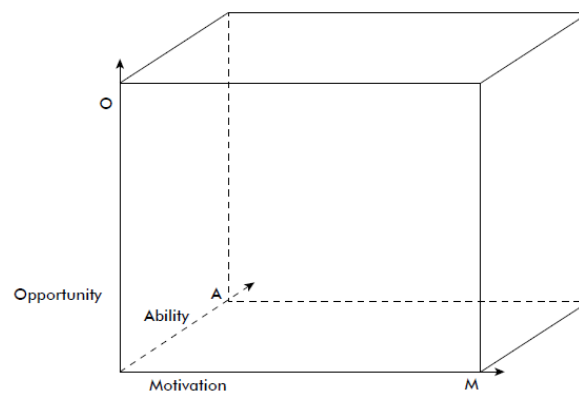
2. Children are disloyal. They will leave a brand and try new things. Nevertheless, the company should not panic, but find a way to strengthen its core benefits and brand proposition to stay relevant.
3. It is important for a brand to reach for brand leadership, mainly because children do not have the room in their minds for more than a few players. The brand a company is creating should be fascinating and different enough to reach the top.
4. Companies should not build complicated brands. Expressing brand proposition should be as simple as possible, so that the children will understand what the brand is all about. The company should, unsurprisingly, stick to the brand proposition in everything it does. The only way to do this is to build a brand proposition that is timeless and traditional.
5. The company should find inspiration for defining brand positioning in classical themes, avoiding quick and superficial themes at all cost.
6. When defining the “holding power” of the brand (i.e. what will make children come back for more), the company must be clear. This holding power can either be a story, functionality of a product, symbolic value of the brand, or community around the brand. Whatever the company chooses, it should be innovative and not repetitive, and most importantly, it should remain loyal.
7. The company is encouraged to join forces with children, but it is important that these children know what makes a different and interesting brand.
8. The company should also not assume that they know everything about children and the children’s market just because it has worked in this sector for a longer period. Talking to children on a regular basis is a must to see and recognize new trends.
9. Building a brand should be seen as building relationships with children. This relationship should, foremost, be based on trust.
10. Lastly, the company should have fun while creating a brand. Children will see this and will be grateful for it, which will manifest itself through love for the company’s brand.

3.4 Forming bonds between children and brands and creating loyalty

Children tend to form relationships with people, pets, and inanimate objects very early in their lives. Brands belong to the group of inanimate objects, however, we tend to associate them with human characteristics (Aaker, 1997, in Ji, 2008, p. 604). And because people like to animate, humanize, and personalize brands (Fournier 1998, in Ji, 2008, p. 604), children have the possibility to develop relationships with them. However, it is difficult to understand how children form relationships with brands. There are two models that explain how children bond with brands and how brands can use this to create loyalty: a model called Children as Potential Relationship Partners (CPRP) developed by Ji (2008), and a model developed by Lindström & Seybold (2004) that presents it in the form of a brand dynamics pyramid.

The Children as Potential Relationship Partners (CPRP) framework proposes that children develop relationships with brands depending on their motivation (M; self-concept development and intimacy motive), opportunity (O; direct and indirect contacts with brands), and ability (A; cognitive, affective and acting abilities), which can be presented in a 3-dimensional box. Relationship potential is represented by the volume of the MOA space (see Figure 9), which is the product of all three dimensions, its size depending on the magnitude of each of the dimensions – the longer the dimension, the larger the magnitude of the dimension (Ji, 2008, p. 604).

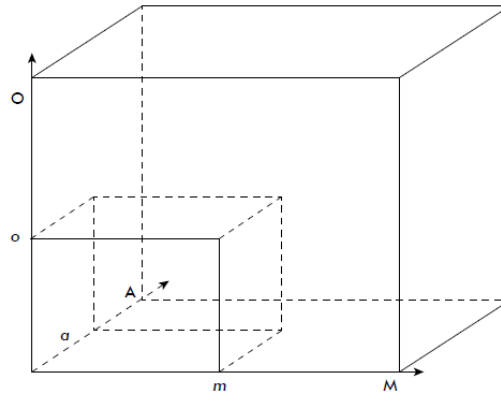
Figure 9: CPRP framework: MOA space



Source: Ji (2008).

However, the mere existence of this potential does not guarantee a formation of the relationship. For the relationship between the child and brand to develop, each dimension of the relationship potential must be realized at least partially. If we look at Figure 10, we see a small rectangular space called the moa space. This space illustrates a situation where a child-brand relationship is realized and has developed. The difference between the MOA and the moa spaces suggests that marketers have the possibility to further realize this potential in order to minimize the difference between two spaces. They can do this by developing new strategies (Ji, 2008, p. 606).

Figure 10: CPRP: Realized child-brand relationship potential



Source: Ji (2008).

As mentioned before, there are three dimensions in the CPRP framework: motivation, opportunity, and ability. The motivation to form a relationship with a brand depends on the product category and the brand, since a child might find a specific product category and its brands more relevant than others. The motivation for a child to form a relationship with a brand comes from two needs – the need to know oneself (self-concept development) and the need to be intimate. Self-concept development defines how individuals perceive themselves in relation to others. Children's self-concept changes with regards to age. As they get older, their motivation to develop relationships with brands goes through three stages: (1) stage 1, early childhood, where children typically consider owning a brand as a part of self; (2) stage 2, middle and late childhood, where knowing a brand becomes a part of self for children; (3) stage 3, early adolescence, where children try to connect themselves with brands, seeking popularity and acceptance. When children grow older, they are also likely to find more brands central to their self-concepts. Thus, they are more motivated to develop relationships with a larger number of brands. The intimacy motive is developed by the need for warm, close, and communicative interactions with others. This motivation emerges in children's early adolescence (11 years old) and increases through their preadolescence (11-14 years old). In general, preadolescent girls show stronger motivation to form an intimate relationship with a brand than boys (Ji, 2008, p. 607, 608).

The second dimension of the model is opportunity. The opportunity to interact with brands is often very limited for children. This usually happens because children do not interact with the marketplace regularly. The opportunity for them to interact with brands usually comes from usage experiences and media usage (surfing websites). As children grow older and reach adolescence, they have more opportunities to interact with brands because they start visiting stores. Furthermore, as they get older there are more opportunities for them to interact with brands on their websites (Ji, 2008, p. 608, 609).

Children's ability to form relationships with brands is divided into three dimensions (Ji, 2008, p. 609-611):

- Cognitive ability. Piaget defined that children go through different stages of cognitive development: the sensorimotor stage (children aged up to 2 years), preoperational stage (children between 2 and 7 years old), concrete operational stage (children between 7 and 11 years old), and formal operational stage (children from 11 years old to adulthood). When children age and move from the preoperational stage to the concrete stage, their ability to understand a brand's conceptual characteristics (e.g. brand personality) increases. When they move from the concrete stage to the operational stage, their ability to build relationships with brands without them being present increases. Furthermore, the older they get, the larger their memory capacity is and they become increasingly capable of developing long-lasting relationships with brands.
- Affective ability or the ability to take social perspective. For children to form any kind of relationships, they must acquire some social skills. The skill to understand how others think is among these skills. The older children are, the greater their ability to take social perspective is.
- Acting or behavioral ability. This ability is addressed from two perspectives: the ability to use a brand and the ability to purchase the brand. Young children usually lack fine motor skills to use products and, therefore, cannot use them. For example, a two-year old can pour cereal in a bowl but cannot pour milk into the bowl because it is too heavy for them to do it. In this case, they have a greater ability to form a relationship with cereal than with milk. As they get older, they acquire more sophisticated motor skills and, with them, a greater ability to use products and develop relationships with brands. Furthermore, as they get older, they also begin to make purchases, which also makes them more likely to form relationships with brands.

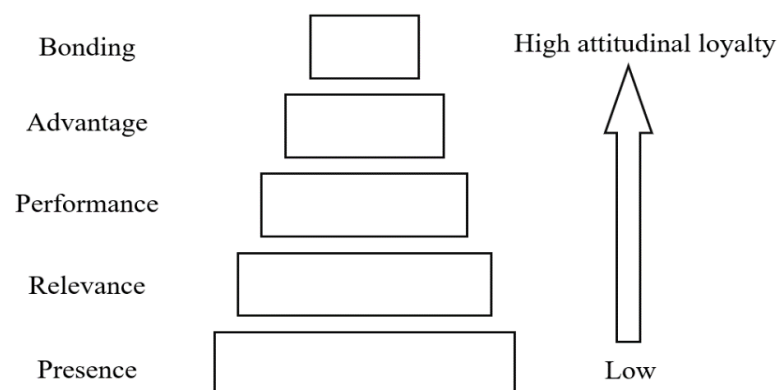
The MOA space is influenced by many factors, for example parents, peers, school, mass media, and culture. Parents can influence their children's relationships with brands by showing their own relationships with brands to their children or by influencing any of the three dimensions in the MOA space. Peers become an important factor in middle school. Children become more likely to choose brands that are valued by peers. In summary, the MOA space is not only a function of a child's motivation, ability, and opportunity, but also of their age, gender, and social and environmental factors (Ji, 2008, p. 611, 612).

The CPRP framework can help brand managers to develop strategies that nurture successful relationships between brands and children. Brand managers should try to match between child's MOA space and brand's marketing communication efforts, to minimize the difference between the MOA and moa spaces. Since MOA is built from three dimensions (motivation, opportunity, and ability), managers should build a strategy that focuses on all three dimensions. Managers can also use the CPRP framework to diagnose the problem areas of their current strategies and identify which of the three dimensions the mismatch occurs in. Brand managers can directly influence children's motivation to form

relationships with the brand by increasing their involvement with the brand (e.g. by developing a communications campaign that implies the use of a brand will enhance the child's self-image and increase popularity among peers), brand managers can influence children's opportunity to form relationships with the brand by enriching the children's experience with brands (e.g. by giving out free samples or organizing events that require their participation), and, most importantly, brand managers can facilitate children's acquisition of marketplace-related abilities (skills) in order for them to form relationships with the brand (e.g. by sponsoring educational programs that teach children how to manage and use money, read labels, use products safely, etc.) (Ji, 2008, p. 613, 615).

On the other hand, the brand dynamic pyramid suggests that companies can use the same approach with children and adults when striving to bond with them and create loyal customers. Building relationships between a brand and its customers is, in this case, visualized as a pyramid (see Figure 11). Before a company can gain loyal customers, it must first create strong foundations. The customers who make it to the top of the pyramid are bonded to the brand and are highly likely to become loyal customers (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 48, 50).

Figure 11: The brand dynamics pyramid



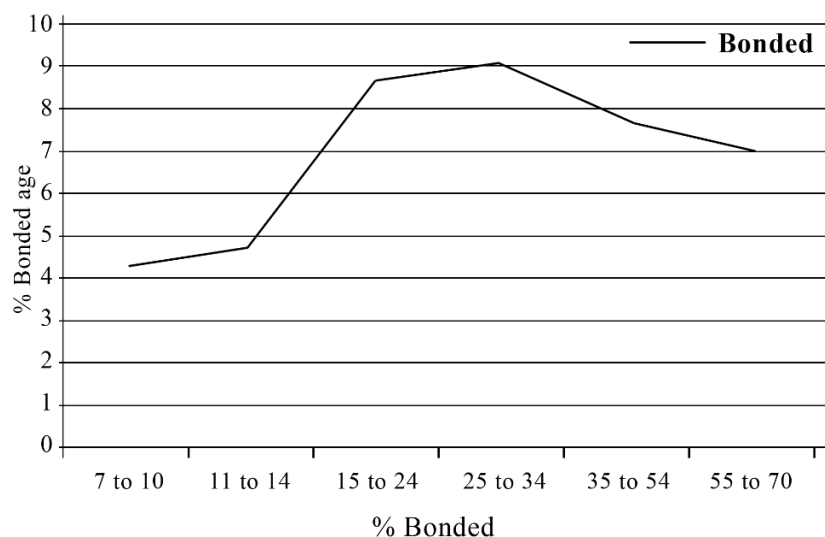
Source: Lindström & Seybold (2004).

Customers at the presence stage are not just aware of the brand but know more about the brand and its promise. They have just enough information to accept or reject the brand. Next, customers enter the stage of relevance. Before entering this stage, the customer asks themselves if the brand meets their basic needs, if the price range is right for them, and if it fits with their self-image and values. If the brand does not meet all the customer's criteria, they do not advance to relevance but remain at presence. For a customer to enter the stage of performance, they must experience the brand (e.g. eat it, drive it, or use it). Customers will enter this stage when they are completely sure that the brand delivers on its basic promise. Today's brands are having difficulties providing competitive advantage with the

use of a product, since marketing and product development are very aggressive. Rather than searching for an advantage from that point of view, companies tend to find a different dimension that gives the brand an advantage over the competition. Most often, companies try to do this by accompanying peripherals (e.g. the Beyblade toy launched an accompanying television show). However, this type of advantage is short, and the manufacturer often becomes trapped in a continuous cycle of producing add-ons. Advantage should rather be established by tapping into emotional needs, which create a very strong and long-lasting bond. When a customer reaches a level of attachment to a brand, where they exclude other brands from their frame of reference, they reach the top of the pyramid. Once a person reaches this stage of bonding with a specific brand, they are 10 times more likely to buy this brand than those people who do not make it to the stage of presence (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 49, 50).

While pyramids of children and adults are very similar, and the stages are the same, children are less likely to bond with brands to the same degree as adults do. In comparison – children are 40 percent less likely to bond with a brand than adults. This does not mean that they are not aware of the brand promise or that they believe one brand cannot have an advantage over another. It just means that children simply do not display the same level of emotional allegiance towards a brand as adults do. However, once children become teenagers, their bond to brands increases strongly (see Figure 12) (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 50, 51).

Figure 12: Bonding patterns at different ages



Source: Lindström & Seybold (2004).

There are three main reasons why children aged 12–14 are less likely to bond with a brand than adults (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 54):

- They are subjected to extreme peer pressure and thus appear more indecisive.

- They grow through brands quickly as their basic interests in different product groups change every year.
- There are many marketing efforts designed to promote their change from one brand to another.

Even though it is very difficult to get loyal customers by raising them from childhood, it is also very rewarding. As a study conducted by Yankelovich, Skelly, and White shows, a significant percentage of adult women use the same brands they did when they were teenagers, meaning that several consumer-related orientations that tweens develop persist well into adulthood (Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 10). Furthermore, according to Ross and Harradine (2004, p. 11-26), who conducted a research at a school in North East England (among children between 5 and 11 years old), companies that establish brand awareness in children's minds as soon as possible are more likely to have a stronger brand association when these children become independent consumers. Thus, companies can use their marketing efforts on children to develop a long-term profitable relationship in the future.

When children are loyal and bonded with a brand, they are very likely to become a part of a brand community. This concept was introduced by Muniz and O'Guinn (2001, p. 412-426) and they define it as a specialized, non-geographically bound community, which is based on the relationships brand admirers have towards this specific brand. They reflect how the brand is situated in the daily lives of its consumers and how the brand connects with consumers as well as consumers among themselves. Consumers who are a part of a brand community feel an important connection to the brand and to one another. Consumers who are a part of a specific brand group feel like they know one another at some level, even if they have never met. This is the most important element of community, defined as consciousness of kind. The second element of brand community are rituals and traditions. A community often develops shared rituals and traditions, the purpose of which is to maintain the culture of the community. Examples of rituals and traditions are greeting rituals, sharing brand stories and myths based on common experience, etc. The last element is the shared moral responsibility. Consumers involved in these brand groups for a longer period often feel a moral responsibility towards the community and other brand community members. They offer help or provide social support to the brand community in different ways, for example by teaching new members how to use the product and about the norms of the brand community, as well as put their effort in the retention of members.

3.5 Forming identity with the help of consumer products

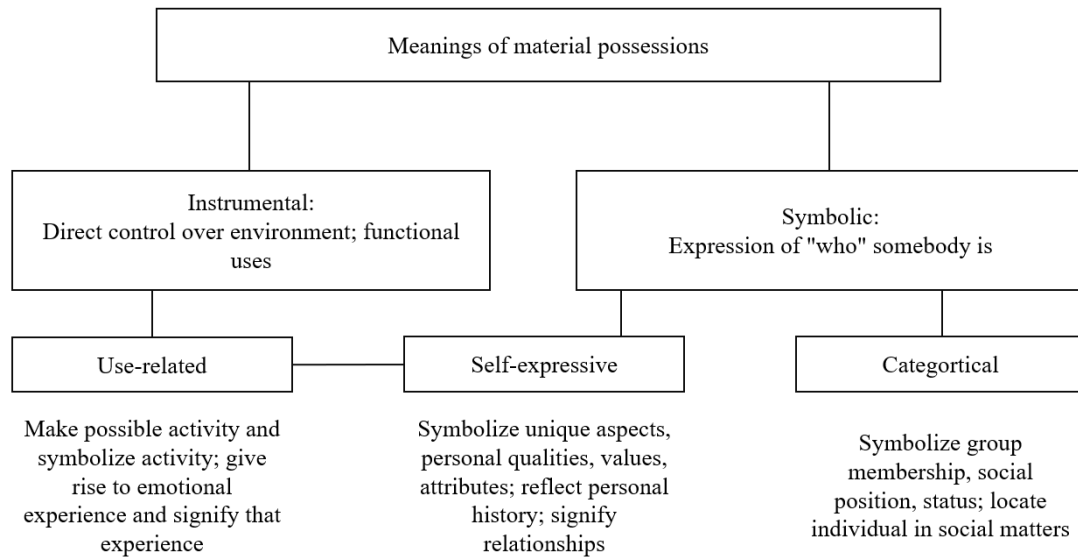
For many adults, material possession symbolizes their identity. For example, clothes provide information about the social status, occupational status, sex-role orientation, political beliefs, ethnicity, individual values, etc., for both the wearer and the observer. The possession of any consumer good is related to self-esteem and well-being, and it develops over time. Children usually establish powerful relationships with certain products and as

they start to understand terms “mine” and “yours”, they also start to understand that these possessions are instruments of both control and social power. Furthermore, possessions also represent relationships to children as they help command who is and who is not allowed to play with a specific product (Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 43).

Children tend to lack confidence and individual identity in their tween years. They try to discover themselves and build self-esteem during this period. They are also very brand sensitive and brand knowledgeable, commonly wanting to define themselves through purchases of the brands they wear. For example, a child who wears Gap clothing has committed to a mainstream designation, a child wearing Nike has committed to athleticism, and a child wearing Roots has committed to patriotism (in Canada). Thus, each brand carries a meaning that defines its wearer and tweens believe that a brand will help define who they are. Companies target these vulnerabilities and try to capitalize them by integrating branding into all the aspects of tween culture because they are aware that tweens have a sizeable spending power (Hulan, 2007, p. 31, 32, 35).

Furby (1991, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 45, 46) developed a model that helps us understand how material possessions are related to identity. The model is graphically represented in Figure 13. As we can see in the model, the functions of possessions can be either instrumental or symbolic. While the instrumental meanings of possession are their direct functional uses, the symbolic ones serve to show who we are. If a product has a categorical symbolic meaning of possession, individuals own it to symbolize their group membership, social position, and status. If a product is self-expressive, a person who owns it wants to symbolize their unique attitude, goals, and personal qualities with its use. Individuals accumulate many products throughout their lifetimes and these products represent their personal history and relationships. The use-related meaning of product possession combines both instrumental and symbolic elements. An example is a car that makes it possible to indulge in various activities (e.g. visiting friends), while also signifying the possibility of these activities. A study conducted by Roper and La Niece (2009, p. 84) showed that with age, children start to see even the simplest products as symbolic, rather than instrumental. When children become tweens, they view all their possessions as symbols of identity and make implications about their friends based on the products they possess.

Figure 13: Meanings of material possession for identity

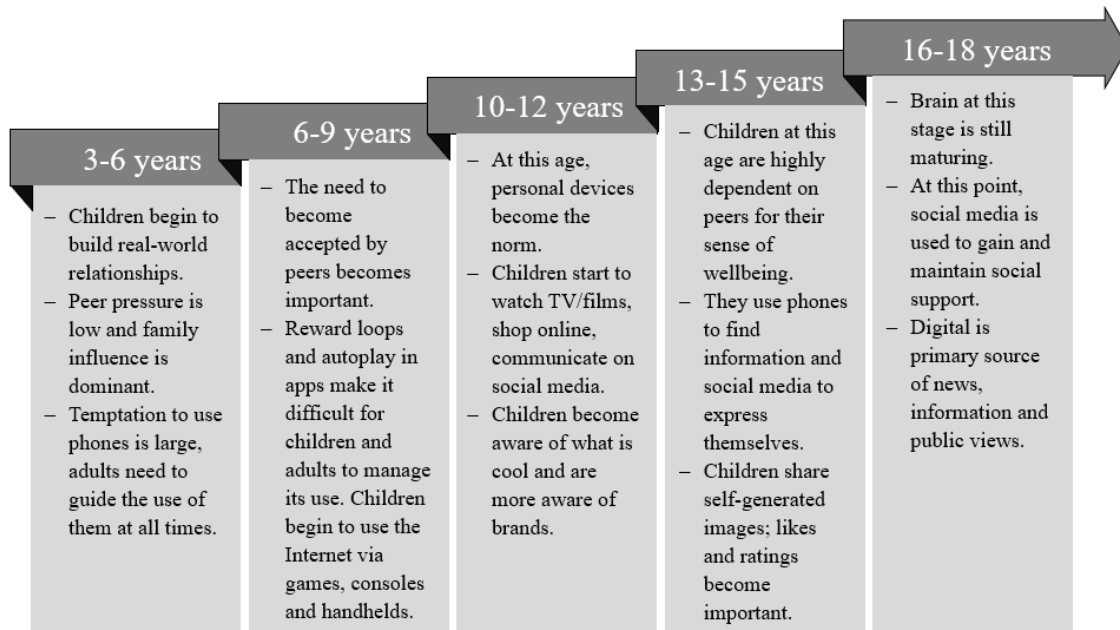


Source: Furby, 1991, in Gunter & Furnham (2004).

3.6 Branding to children in digital world

Mobile phones, tablets, computers, and other digital devices, accompanied by the Internet, are a large part of children's lives. A UK survey conducted in 2017 found that children aged between 5 and 15 years spend more than 2 hours online on average. And to do that, they use their own devices, since 21 % of children aged 3 to 4 already have their own tablet or games console and 83 % of children aged 12 to 15 own a smartphone. Children also tend to have their own social media profiles very early – 23 % of 8–11-year-olds have a social media profile, and 74 % of 12–15-year-olds own one (Lake, 2017). A research conducted in Slovenia showed that children aged 11, 13 and 15 use a phone every day to call (37.7 %), chat on Viber, Facebook, or Skype (35.2 %), send text messages (29.1 %), communicate through social media (19.3 %), and send e-mails (4.1 %). Furthermore, more than half of respondents (52.6 %) said that they spend more than 2 hours per day to watch funny videos (Jeriček Klanšček et. al., 2015, p. 19, 42). Worldwide, children have been shown to be the most enthusiastic adopters of any digital media and in any age group (ITU, 2008; Lenhart et. al., 2010; Green, Brady, Olfasson et al., 2013, in Gunter, 2016, p. 79), and as they grow older, they are more likely to spend much more time online (Livingstone et al., 2011, in Gunter, 2016, p. 79). In a digital childhood, growing up is different from what it used to be, and a new path to adulthood has developed (see Figure 14). Parents and companies should consider this (Lake, 2017).

Figure 14: New path to adulthood



Source: Lake, A. (2017, December 3).

The popularity of turning digital media into a marketing platform has been increasing rapidly, however we still don't completely understand how this medium works and how effective it can be in terms of delivering results in the marketplace, especially when children are the targeted audience. Nonetheless, children are often the targets, mostly due to their indirect and direct spending powers and their enthusiasm for the online world. However, consumers engage with this new promotional environment very differently than they do with traditional mass media, so brands must adapt. For example, conventional advertising methods are not as effective or even welcome in the online environment (Gunter, 2016, p. 79-81).

Children are very enthusiastic for the digital world, so it is reasonable to regard digital platforms as having potential for young consumers (Dreze & Hussher, 2003, 2003, in Gunter, 2016, p. 81). However, children have a poor understanding of what the purpose of advertising is (Brady et al., 2008, in Gunter, 2016, p. 83). A study done in Indonesia and the UK, where children aged 6, 8, 10, and 12 years were observed, showed that children of 6 years could identify only about $\frac{1}{4}$ of the advertisements embedded on the web pages created and printed out by researchers. The older the children were, the more advertisements they could recognize – 8-year-olds could recognize about half of the advertisements, and 10- and 12-year-olds could recognize $\frac{3}{4}$ of the advertisements; and older children were most likely to recognize an advertisement if it contained information about price (Ali et al., 2009, in Gunter, 2016, p. 83). This indicates that advertisements in an online setting may not be instantly recognized. However, exposure to brands that advertise online can shift consumers' attitudes and make the brand more favorable (Yoo,

2008, in Gunter, 2016, p. 83, 84). The fact that children cannot recognize a brand advertisement does not automatically mean that they did not notice the brand and that they were unable to encode the information in the brand after being exposed to it – the brand might still make itself to the mind of the consumer. Or maybe the consumer is already familiar with the brand and this exposure serves as a reminder of it (Gunter, 2016, p. 84). Therefore, apart from brands that are designed for the children's market, there are many other brands for products that target all age groups and seek to capture the attention and loyalty of children (Dreze & Hussher, 2003, in Gunter, 2016, p. 81).

Brands learned that they must become more innovative when speaking to children online. There are two advertising techniques that brands apply to appeal to children: by embedding brands in social media channels or social networking sites, and by entering the world of video games to engage with its consumers. When it comes to representing brands on social media, there are two broad approaches that companies use: they try to establish their own profile presence with the goal of becoming embedded in an established online social network; and they use other users as brand endorsers, who support the brand by promoting it to other consumers. Brands usually establish a very strong presence on social media, most often on Facebook. It is currently unknown in terms of their abilities to identify their true purpose, how children respond to these promotional sites, and such research can be difficult to conduct since children below 13 are not supposed to use this site. When it comes to brand endorsers, companies usually recruit children and incentivize them to use their existing online social network and to make new ones, to promote their brand. Academic expert opinions on whether this practice is harmful to those involved are very divided. While an absolute rejection of using children as brand endorsers is not necessary, as they can be effective in getting a positive message across to children, the concern remains in the fact that marketers use a very subtle method of brand promotions, and children whose cognitive abilities are not yet fully formed might not understand that this is a promotion, rather than a suggestion produced by an ordinary consumer (Gunter, 2016, p. 89, 106, 109).

The second technique brands use in order to engage with their young consumers is by entering the world of video games. They do this in two ways: by negotiating directly with videogame developers to place their products within their games, and by developing their own games that consumers can access through the brands' corporate website. Placing brands in videogames first occurred in the early 1980s in computer games that were console-based (Gunter, 2016, p. 98, 110). At first, brand promotions through games were not very common, however, with the expansion of broad connections and online gaming, marketers started to see the potential as they had access to a wider community, including children (Burns, 2006, in Gunter, 2016, p. 110). The brand can be integrated into a game on 3 different levels: associative, illustrative, and demonstrative. When the brand is at the level of associative integration, it appears in the game as a background feature. It is important that it has a good fit with the game, but there is no opportunity for interaction,

apart from its visibility. If a brand is at the level of an illustrative integration, it is a part of the on-screen action controlled by the consumer. Nevertheless, the brand has a supportive role to the central narrative of the game – e.g. the character controlled by the consumer eats food or is wearing clothing on their principal quest in the game. The highest level of brand integration is called demonstrative integration. At this level, the brand is a repeating feature in the game narrative – e.g. if the virtual character controlled by the consumer is competing in sports competition, he might use branded equipment that is crucial for the success of the character in the sports games (Gunter, 2016, p. 114). The level of brand integration in the game influences the impact of the brand. It is important for the brand to be cohesive with the surrounding entertainment content in the advergame. If the brand is well embedded in the surroundings of the advergame, the brand can become more memorable. The players can also perceive the brand more positively, if they find the game enjoyable (De Pelsmacker, Geuens & Anckaert, 2002; Nelson, 2005, in Gunter, 2016, p. 114, 115). The effect of advertising through games with the use of brands in advergames is still not very well defined. Research shows that food brand websites with advergames tend to have a larger proportion of users who are children. Furthermore, children tend to explore sites with advergames more in-depth and spend more time on them (Harris et al., 2012, in Gunter, 2016, p. 119, 120).

4 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF BRANDS

4.1 Research questions

Based on the purpose and the aim of the research, I have defined the following research questions:

- RQ1: How involved are children in the shopping process?
- RQ2: Under which circumstances do children shop alone?
- RQ3: How do children define the term “brand”?
- RQ4: How important are brands to children when purchasing food and non-food products?
- RQ5: How do the age and the gender of a child influence their brand recall?
- RQ6: What attitude do children have towards brands?

4.2 Research methods and techniques

The research is based on a qualitative method of empirical research. I used focus groups as the data gathering technique. Focus groups are any type of discussions in a group, in which the researcher actively encourages the group’s interaction (Kitzinger & Barbour, 1992, in

Barbour, 2007, p. 2). They are often used by researchers to gain an in-depth understanding of different social topics.

Focus groups follow four steps: research design, data collection, analysis, and reporting the results. The first step, research design, begins with identifying the research objectives of the study. Based on these objectives, a script is prepared. A script is used to guide each focus group discussion session. Furthermore, researchers have to identify their participants and define the size of their focus groups in this step. The next step is data collection. In this step, the focus groups take place and the data is gathered. It is important to note that researchers gather different types of data – verbal data, non-verbal communication, the use of temporal speech markers (e.g. gasps and silences), variations in volume, pitch, the quality of voice, and so on. Then the analysis of the gathered data begins, where the researchers code the data collected. This helps the researchers draw comparisons across focus groups. Once the data is analyzed, the results must be reported in the form of a coherent report (O.Nyumba, Wilson, J. Derrick & Mukherjee, 2018, p. 20–24).

Focus groups are used in different circumstances. They can be used to debate topics that are regarded as sensitive and to access the hard-to-reach groups (Barbour, 2007, p. 27). Furthermore, they are a valuable, versatile, interactive, and fun method to use when analyzing topics with children. However, conducting focus groups with children poses its challenges (Gibson, 2007, p. 482). It is important that researchers encourage participation and reduce the hierarchical relationship established between adults and children. This can be done by using first names, starting the sessions with icebreakers, and choosing the right location for holding the focus groups (Morgan, Gibbs, Maxwell & Britten, 2002, p. 9; Gibson, 2007, p. 476–478) – e.g. conducting focus groups in schools, where participants are ‘insiders’, which reduces the power imbalance between participants and researchers (Morgan et al., 2002; Broome & Richards, 2003; Hill, 2005, in Gibson, 2007, p. 476). Choosing a circular sitting arrangement or sitting the children opposite of the facilitator can also help project a non-authoritarian climate (Morgan, Gibbs, Maxwell & Britten, 2002, p. 10; Gibson, 2007, p. 477).

Furthermore, researchers should keep in mind that children cannot stay focused for a longer period of time (young children can stay focused on one activity for up to an hour) and should break up sessions with group activities or refreshments to keep the participants engaged. An interesting suggestion is also to let the children ‘fiddle’ with toy as this facilitates their participation. It seems to relax children if they can focus on the toy (instead of keeping eye contact with the facilitator or other focus group participants) as it provides them with relief from the intensity of the group experience and increases their participation. If the focus group consists of friends, there is a greater tendency for participants to giggle and lose focus but, on the other hand, if the participants do not know each other, we can observe approval-seeking behavior between group members. Thus, both choices (deciding to have participants who know each other are friends or participants who

do not know each other) have their own obstacles (Morgan, Gibbs, Maxwell & Britten, 2002, p. 10–15).

4.3 Data collection process

Data collection took place on 17 February 2020, 2 March 2020, and 6 March 2020. All participants had signed parental consents (by their parent or legal guardian) for their participation in the study. Data collection took place in person, on the premises of the children's primary schools. All conversations were recorded for later data processing.

I followed the ethical principles of research and protection of the obtained data. Personal information about the focus groups participants is strictly confidential. Therefore, it is not possible to identify an individual or their family based on the reported results. The data collected was used only for the purpose of this research and not for any subsequent, non-research-related purposes that violate the privacy of such information.

4.4 Sample description

Altogether, 52 children participated in six focus groups. The focus groups were conducted in two different primary schools, Primary school A and Primary school B. I conducted four focus groups in Primary school A and two focus groups in Primary school B. Primary school A is situated in a rural area and Primary school B is situated in urban area. The largest focus groups had 10 participants and the smallest focus groups had 7 participants.

The first focus group (FG1, younger girls) was conducted in Primary school A and consisted of ten girls, three of them seven years old and seven of them eight years old. All of them attended the second grade. The focus group took place on 17 February 2020 at 11.30 AM in a classroom at Primary school A and lasted for 50 minutes. A transcript of the debate can be found in Appendix 27.

The second focus group (FG2, younger boys) was conducted in Primary school A and consisted of seven boys, three of them seven years old and four of them eight years old. Five of the boys attended the second grade and two the third grade. The focus group took place on 17 February 2020 at 12:30 AM in a classroom at Primary school A and lasted for 21 minutes. A transcript of the debate can be found in Appendix 28.

In terms of the participants' ages, children of the first two focus groups are at the analytical stage (7–11 years) of their development as consumers. They are aware of the complexity of the market, and their way of reasoning is more abstract and no longer driven only by their own perceptions (Roedder-John, 1999 in Marshall, 2010, p. 24-26). Furthermore, according to the model explaining the stages of cognitive development, children at this age are critical towards advertisements and do not trust them, but also do not perceive new

product advertisements and, thus, companies can have control over them (Šramova, 2107, p. 96, 97).

The third focus group (FG3, older boys) was conducted in Primary school A and consisted of nine boys, eight of them eleven years old and one twelve years old. All of them attended the sixth grade. The focus group took place on 17 February 2020 at 1:30 PM in a classroom at Primary school A and lasted for 37 minutes. A transcript of the debate can be found in Appendix 29.

The fourth focus group (FG4, older girls) was conducted in Primary school A and consisted of seven girls, two of them eleven years old, two of them twelve years old, and three of them thirteen years old. Five of them attended the sixth grade, and three of them the eighth grade. The focus group took place on 2 March 2020 at 12:00 AM in a classroom at Primary school A and lasted for 40 minutes. A transcript of the debate can be found in Appendix 30.

In terms of the ages of the participants, children from focus group 3 and focus group 4 are at the reflective stage (11–16 years) of their development as consumers. They have developed critical thinking about the marketplace and its functions (Roedder-John, 1999 in Marshall, 2010, p. 24-26). Furthermore, according to the model explaining the stages of cognitive development, children at this age can understand the persuasive content of an advertisement, have a critical view of the traditional forms of advertisements, and can even reject them. However, their attention can still be captivated by the new forms of advertising (e.g. product placement) (Šramova, 2107, p. 96, 97).

The fifth focus group (FG5, older boys) was conducted at Primary school B and consisted of ten boys, one of them nine years old, five of them ten years old, one of them eleven years old, two of them twelve years old, and one of them thirteen years old. Three attended the fourth grade, four attended the fifth grade, two attended the seventh grade, and one attended the eighth grade. The focus group took place on 6 March 2020 at 8:30 AM in a classroom at Primary school B and lasted for 54 minutes. A transcript of the debate can be found in Appendix 31.

The sixth focus group (FG6, older girls) was conducted at Primary school B and consisted of nine girls, three of them ten years old, one of them eleven years old, four of them twelve years old, and one of them thirteen years old. One attended the fourth grade, three attended the fifth grade, four attended the seventh grade, and one attended the eighth grade. The focus group took place on 6 March 2020 at 10:00 AM in a classroom at Primary school B and lasted for 1 hour and 6 minutes. A transcript of the debate can be found in Appendix 32.

In terms of the ages of the participants, children from focus group 5 and focus group 6 are at the analytical stage (7–11 years) and at the reflective stage (11–16 years) of their development as consumers. They are aware of the complexity of the market and their way

of reasoning is more abstract and no longer driven only by their own perceptions. Older participants also have a developed critical thinking about the marketplace and its functions (Roedder-John, 1999 in Marshall, 2010, p. 24-25) and are critical of traditional forms of advertisement. The attention of both age groups can be captured by companies that use new forms of advertisement (e.g. product placement) (Šramova, 2107, p. 96, 97).

The basic information about the participants in each focus group can be seen in Appendix 5.

4.5 Description of the discussion guide for focus groups

The focus group discussion guide was divided into four parts. The first part were introductory questions, where the participants had to introduce themselves, think about, and explain their shopping habits – shopping with parents, shopping alone, shopping online, and understanding the term “brand”. In the second part, the participants had to think about the brands of different food product groups (candy, soft drinks, juices, pâtés, cereal, salty snacks, and milk). Additionally, they had to evaluate the importance of brands for each of the groups. Furthermore, they had to rank the importance of brands in previously mentioned food product groups from the most important to the least important when purchasing them by using stickers and a worksheet. In the third part, they had to think about the brands of different non-food product groups (clothes, shoes, cosmetics, toys, gaming consoles, books, and mobile phones). Moreover, they had to evaluate the importance of brands for each of the groups. Further, they had to rank the importance of brands in previously mentioned food product groups from the most important to the least important when purchasing them by using stickers and a worksheet. In the last, forth part, they had to define their favorite brand (or the one they are most familiar with), draw its logo, define what kind of feelings this brand evokes in them, and elaborate on the personality traits that they think this brand has by using the worksheet. The discussion guide can be found in Appendix 6 and the worksheet with the stickers can be found in Appendix 7.

4.6 Research results

4.6.1 Introductory questions

The first set of questions asked was introductory. The purpose of the first set of questions was to see to what extent the participants are included in the shopping process, if they shop in stores themselves, if they shop online, where they find information about brands, and if they are familiar with the term “brand”. Furthermore, I asked them about how important they believed brands were in their purchasing decisions, and where they got information about different brands.

The first question relates to whether participants shop with their parents. The participants of all 6 focus groups were synonymous in their answers – they all shop with their parents. For example, a girl (FG1) commented, “My dad goes to the store on Sundays, I go with him almost every time,” and a boy (FG5) was of the opinion that he goes to the store with their parents too often, “[I go shopping with my parents] too often! I do not like to go to the store.” There do not seem to be any differences in the answers among younger and older participants. Furthermore, both boys and girls answered that they go shopping with their parents. This corresponds to the theory, which states that parents start taking their children to the store with them when they are 2 months old (McNeal, 2007, p. 360). Answers of all participants in each focus group as well as codes of given answers can be seen in Appendix 8.

The second question relates to whether participants help their parents when they shop and how they do that. When asked if they help their parents when they shop, all participants answered yes. There do not seem to be any differences in the answers among younger and older participants. Furthermore, both boys and girls listed multiple ways in which they help their parents. It seems that parents like to involve their children in the shopping process by asking them to write the shopping list (e.g. a girl (FG6) said, “When I go with my mom, I write the list of things we need /.../”), remember what groceries they need to buy (e.g. a boy in FG5 said “I help remembering which products we need.”), put products in the cart, etc.

Parents also often ask children to provide input on what to buy if the products are meant for children, e.g. the clothes or shoes they will wear (e.g. a boy (FG2) explained, “I can choose the shoes I like and the size that fits me,” and a boy (FG3) commented, “My mom asks me what I like, and I can choose. Mostly when we shop for clothes, or shoes, or products that are intended for me”) or the toys they will play with (a boy (FG2) said, “I can choose my own toys, like Lego.”). Children also mentioned that they help parents choose food products (for example, a boy (FG2) said, “I can sometimes help decide which products to buy. For example, pasta – I always choose macaroni,” and a boy (FG3) commented, “And sometimes I can also help choosing what food we buy, like for example candy.”). This confirms the claim that children influence other family members in their shopping behaviors (Assael, 1981, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 51).

Children also mentioned that when their parents ask them to choose products, like bread, they tend to choose the products they know their parents would normally choose. This confirms the claim that children are influenced by other household members in terms of their shopping behavior as well (Assael, 1981, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 51), as they choose products that their parents normally buy. This was reflected in the following discussion in FG6:

P1: “They often ask me to choose the bread I like.”

P2: “You choose the healthier [bread]?”

P1: “Yes, I choose the one I know my mom would take.”

When parents include their children in the shopping processes, they enable them to acquire consumer skills. According to Vygotsky, this social interaction, along with the history and culture of the environment where the child is growing up, helps the child to learn about consumption (Marshall, 2010, p. 32; Šramová, 2017, p. 98). The answers of all the participants in each focus group as well as the codes of the provided answers can be seen in Appendix 9.

The third question relates to whether the participants shop alone. The answers show that younger boys almost never go shopping alone, while other participants said that they do. Younger girls mentioned they often go to the store close to their home to grab milk, Nutella, or other groceries that their (grand-)parents need but do not have while cooking lunch, making pancakes, etc., so mostly for the products that their parents need (e.g. a girl from FG1 mentioned, “Sometimes when I go to my grandma and she is making pancakes, she doesn’t have Nutella. She usually asks me if I can go buy it in the nearby store. She gives me money and I go buy it.”). This corresponds to the theory, which states that children go shopping alone for the first time when they are between 6 and 7 years old (McNeal, 2007, p. 366).

Older participants also often go shopping when instructed by their parents (e.g. a participant in FG1 said, “Yes, my mom sometimes gives me money and asks me to go get something in the store close to the house”), and sometimes also when they want to buy something for themselves (candy, snacks, toys, drinks, or clothes) (e.g. a girl (FG5) commented, “Sometimes when I go to catechesis, I go to the store and buy something [cookies, chips, or cola] for myself.”). The latter happens more often with children in FG5 and FG6, who attend the primary school in the urban area. Girls from FG4, attending the school in the rural area, said that they rarely shop alone. We can presume that children who attend the primary school in the rural area would need their parents to drive them to the city center for them to go shopping and later pick them up, which is inconvenient for parents. So, if they go shopping, they go together. The answers of all the participants in each focus group as well as the codes of the provided answers can be seen in Appendix 10.

The fourth question relates to whether participants have their own pocket money. Most of the participants said that they have pocket money or get money from their parents when they ask for it. All the participants also said that they do not like to spend their own pocket money and prefer to save it. When asked what they buy with their pocket money, if they do spend it, the girls answered that they mostly go shopping for clothes, while boys tend to purchase candy, toys, or something to drink. This is similar to the situation in the UK, where children spend most of their pocket money on clothes and shoes, followed by school dinners and soft drinks (Office for National Statistics, 2018). The answers of all the

participants in each focus group as well as the codes of the provided answers can be seen in Appendix 11.

The fifth question relates to whether participants shop online. All the participants had to think a bit longer when asked if they shop alone. Most of the participants said they shop online but, after some follow-up questions, they explained that they shop online with the help of their parents and not alone (for example, a boy (FG3) said, “Yes, I shop on the Nike website. I order shoes and clothes there. I use my mom’s credit card. She helps me.”). Websites such as Ebay, Amazon, Bolha and Wish were mentioned.

Furthermore, children seem to adapt to the thinking of their parents and are precautionous when shopping online, which also corresponds to the statement that children are influenced in their shopping habits by their parents (Assael, 1981, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 51). For example, they do not order products from stores that are not based in Slovenia (e.g. a girl (FG6) explained, “No one from my family ever bought products from abroad, we always order from Slovenian online shops.”) and they do not purchase products that are expensive (e.g. a girl (FG6) said, “We sometimes buy small, unimportant, and cheap products online because you never know what the quality will be like. So, if the product is not OK, you didn’t spend too much money on it.”). The answers of all the participants in each focus group as well as the codes of the provided answers can be seen in Appendix 12.

The sixth question relates to whether participants understand what the term “brand” means. The theory states that younger children find it difficult to understand what the difference between a brand and a product and tend to remember the products they are familiar with by their brand names (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). Judging by the answers, children somewhat understand the concept of a brand. However, younger participants have a less clear idea of what a brand is. They tend to equal the brand with the price, saying that the brand tells you what the price of the product is (e.g. a girl (FG1) said, “A brand is, for example, when we go to the store and according to it, we get to know the price.”). Nevertheless, they understand that a brand consists of a logo and a slogan (e.g. a girl (FG1) said, “Sometimes there is something drawn and written. That is a brand, I think.”).

According to the theory, as children become older, they start to become more aware of brands and by the time they become tweens, they have a clear opinion about them (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 15). This was also confirmed by my research. Older participants had a stronger idea of what a brand is, explaining that a brand is a firm, a company producing something:

P1: “For example, a piece of clothing has a brand, like Nike.”

P2: “Food products also have their own brands, for example ‘Droga’ and ‘Delamaris’.”

P3: “A company that produces something.”

P4: “A brand is a product, it’s a firm that produces it.”

P5: “The producer is represented by the brand. And, also, food. Every product has its own brand.”

The answers of all the participants in each focus group as well as the codes of the provided answers can be seen in Appendix 13.

The seventh question relates to whether the participants think brands are important when buying products. The participants in FG3, FG4, FG5, and FG6 answered this question. For most of the participants, the importance of brands depends on the product. They mentioned that brands are important when buying food (e.g. a girl (FG6) said, “I think brands are important when buying food. Because one brand has better food than other”), but not necessarily when buying clothes. Some participants said that brands are not important when buying clothes (e.g. a girl (FG6) said, “It is a bit stupid to buy a shirt or something just because it has the brand written on it”), as brands only make clothes more expensive. Other participants mentioned that brands are important when purchasing clothes (e.g. a girl (FG6) mentioned, “[Brands are important] when buying clothes, so that I can wear them for a long time. Even if it is a bit more expensive, it is better quality.”). This somewhat corresponds to the analysis done by Lovšin, Lorger, and Koch (2014, p. 237), where they found out that brands are not the most important factor when purchasing clothes but are still considered very often. This is especially true for older children. The answers of all the participants in each focus group as well as the codes of the provided answers can be seen in Appendix 14.

The eighth question relates to where the participants get information about brands. The answers were not as diverse as expected. The theory states that children gather information from multiple sources – a research done by Lindström & Seybold listed 14 different sources of information (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 64), but children mostly mentioned the following: friends, family, seeing people having the brand, salespersons, and sometimes the Internet (reviews and Google). The participants in all groups answered that they get the information from their parents. This does not correspond to the analysis done by Lindström and Seybold (2004, p. 64), where parents ranked as the 6th source of information to children. Older participants often mentioned seeing other people having or wearing a brand as a source of information (e.g. a boy (FG3) said, “If most of the people are wearing a specific brand, I know that it is good”), as well as their friends, pointing to the fact that peer pressure is stronger among older children than younger.

An interesting conversation was held in FG4, where one girl said that she knows nothing about brands and gets most of the information about different brands from her friend, who is very brand-conscious.

P1: “I don’t know much about brands or trends, she tells me everything.”

P2: [Smiling] “Yes.”

According to Lindström & Seybold (2004, p. 15, 16), all tweens are divided into four groups of consumers. The first girl (P1) is in this case the follower, who never tries anything first and does not consider herself cool. She is influenced to try new brands by her friend (P2), who is a persuader. She, on the other hand, adopts new trends quickly, is popular, and likes to dress well.

Older participants also mentioned using the Internet to find information about brands (e.g. a girl (FG4) said that she finds information about brands from the Internet, and another girl (FG4) mentioned YouTubers), however, they all said they do not get information about brands on the Internet very often. This corresponds to the results of the research done by Lindström & Seybold (2004, p. 64), where the Internet is ranked as the 9th most popular source of information about brands. However, the research was done in 2004, so I expected the Internet to be mentioned more often today as it is more widespread and children are known to be early adopters of all new technologies. The answers of all the participants in each focus group as well as the codes of the provided answers can be seen in Appendix 15.

4.6.2 Recognizing food brands

In the second part of the analysis, I asked the participants from all focus groups if they remembered any brands from different food groups. The number of mentioned brands by different food groups and for each focus group can be seen in tables 1–7.

The first question relates to the number of candy brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing candy. Table 1 shows all the participants’ answers to the question, “Which brands do you think of when you think of candy? Are brands important when purchasing candy?”

Table 1: Recognition of brands: Candy

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Milka, Šumi, Snickers, Oreo, Twix, Kinder Bueno</i>	6	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Šumi, Milka, Domačica, Zoo, Taralucci</i>	6	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Šumi, Haribo, Milka, Taralucci, Domačica, Toblerone, Tic-Tac</i>	7	Yes

(table continues)

Source: Own work.

Table 1: Recognition of brands: Candy (continued)

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Milka, Kinder, Haribo, Orbit, Oreo, Hubba Bubba, Airwaves, Loacker, Manner, Chocolate Cocoa</i>	10	Yes
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Šumi, Haribo, Milka, Trolli, Kinder, Mr. Twister, Gorenjka, Chupa Chups, Oreo, Twix, Snickers, Frutabela, Rum ploščica, Hubba Bubba, Pocket Coffee, Ferrero, Orbit, Airwaves</i>	18	No
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Šumi, Haribo, Trolli, Milka, M&M, Kraš, Manner, Skittles, Kinder, Twix, Toffifee, Ferrero Rocher, Štark, Lindt, Raffaello, Gorenjka, Domačica, Frutabela, Chupa Chups, Orbit, Hals, Ricola, Hubba Bubba, Juicy Fruit, Ledo, King, Leo, Oreo, Lumpi, Barni, Snickers</i>	31	Yes/No

Source: Own work.

The participants from FG1 and FG2 could list 6 brands of candy, the participants in FG3 could list 7 brands of candy, the participants in FG4 could list 10 brands of candy, the participants in FG5 could list 18 brands of candy, and the participants in FG6 could list 31 brands of candy. The most recognized brand in all groups was Milka, since it was mentioned by the participants of all 6 focus groups. We can see that the number of candy brands that children can list grows with age. Younger participants could list 6 brands, while older participants could list up to 31 brands of candy. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of the existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). Furthermore, there is a difference among schools: older participants from the school in the urban area could list more candy brands than older participants from the school in the rural area.

The participants of three focus groups (FG1, FG2, and FG5) answered that the brand is not important when purchasing candy, mentioning that the taste is more important than the brand. On the other hand, the participants of two focus groups (FG3 and FG4) said that brands are important when purchasing candy, however, this is mostly because they recognize the brand for having tried this brand's candy before and knowing that they like the taste (e.g. a girl (FG4) said, "Well, if one brand is good, then I just purchase that one."). The opinions of the participants in FG6 were divided, with some saying it was important, and others saying it was not.

The second question relates to the number of brands of soft drinks that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing soft drinks. Table 2 shows all the participants' answers to the question, "Which brands do you think of when you think of soft drinks? Are brands important when purchasing soft drinks?"

Table 2: Recognition of brands: Soft drinks

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Fanta, Coca-Cola (Lemon), Cockta, Radenska, Sprite, Ora</i>	6	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Coca-Cola, Pepsi, Cockta, Radenska, Fanta, Ora</i>	6	Yes
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Coca-Cola, Fanta, Cockta, Pepsi, Schweppes, Monster, RedBull, Ora</i>	8	Yes
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Coca-Cola, Fanta, Sprite, Radenska, Cockta, Ora, Schweppes</i>	7	No
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Coca-Cola, Fanta, Cockta, Ora, Sprite, Radenska, Schweppes, Jamnica, RedBull</i>	9	Yes, very much
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Coca-Cola (Zero), Radenska (with taste), Cockta, Pepsi, Ora, Sprite, Fanta, 7Up, Orangina, Schweppes, Donat Mg</i>	11	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 and FG2 could list 6 brands of soft drinks, the participants in FG3 could list 8 brands of soft drinks, the participants in FG4 could list 7 brands of soft drinks, the participants in FG5 could list 9 brands of soft drinks, and the participants in FG6 could list 11 brands of soft drinks. The most recognized brands in all groups were Coca-Cola, Cockta, Fanta, and Ora, since they were mentioned by the participants of all 6 focus groups. While younger participants could list up to 6 brands of soft drinks, older participants could list up to 11 brands of soft drinks. This corresponds to the theory, which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). However, GF4 (older girls) also listed 7 brands of soft drinks, close to FG1 (younger girls; 6 brands), meaning that young girls are very exposed to brands of soft drinks and, thus, remember more of them. An interesting observation is that older children from the primary school situated in the urban area could list more brands than older children from the primary school situated in the rural area.

While the participants in FG1, FG4, and FG6 thought brands were not important when purchasing soft drinks (e.g. a girl (FG4) explained, "I don't care about the brand. If it is the real Coca-Cola or Coca-Cola from Spar, I don't care"), the participants in FG2, FG3, and FG5 thought brands were important when purchasing soft drinks, and often use brands in

order to distinguish the drinks and to know which one they like and which one they do not (e.g. a boy from FG3 commented, “I would not buy Fanta because it makes me sick.”).

The third question relates to the number of juice brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing juice. Table 3 shows all the participants’ answers to the question, “Which brands do you think of when you think of juice? Are brands important when purchasing juice?”

Table 3: Recognition of brands: Juice

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Fruc, Cedevita, flavored waters Jana, Zala, Dana</i>	5	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Fructal, Sola</i>	2	No
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Fruc, Pingo, Cedevita, CapriSun, Sola, flavored waters, like Jana, Zala, Dana, Costella</i>	9	No
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Fructal, Dana, Fruc, Sola, juice from Spar, juice from Tuš, juice from Mercator</i>	7	Yes
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Sola, Fruc, Fructal, Pingo, 1st, Dana, Jana, Happy Day; every store has their own brands of juice</i>	8	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 could list 5 brands of juice, the participants in FG3 could list 2 brands of juice, the participants in FG4 could list 9 brands of juice, the participants in FG5 could list 7 brands of juice, and the participants in FG6 could list 8 brands of juice. There was no juice brand recalled in all the focus groups. The most named brands were Fruc, Sola and flavored water Dana with 4 mentions. An interesting observation is that older boys (FG3) could list only 2 brands of juice, while younger girls (FG1) could list 5 brands of juice, meaning that they are more exposed to these brands. However, in general, older participants could list more brands of juice than younger participants, listing as many as 9 brands of juice. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208).

While participants in FG1, FG3, FG4, and FG6 thought brands were not important when purchasing juice, explaining that taste is more important (e.g. a girl (FG4) commented, “I don’t care if it is a Fructal juice or some store brand, I care about the taste.”), the participants in FG5 thought brands are important when purchasing juice.

The fourth question relates to the number of pâté brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing pâté. Table 4 shows all the

participants' answers to the question, "Which brands do you think of when you think of pâté? Are brands important when purchasing pâté?"

Table 4: Recognition of brands: Pâté

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Argeta, Kekec, Nika pâté</i>	3	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Argeta, Kekec, Rožle</i>	3	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Delamaris, Argeta, Nika pâté, Kekec</i>	4	Yes
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Argeta, Kekec, Nika pâté, Perutne Ptuj, Gavrilovič</i>	5	Yes
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Argeta, Gavrilovič, Kekec, Rio Mare</i>	4	Yes
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Argeta, Gavrilovič, Kekec, Rio Mare, Delamaris, Eva</i>	6	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 and FG2 could list 3 brands of pâté, the participants in FG3 and FG5 could list 4 brands of pâté, the participants in FG4 could list 5 brands of pâté, and the participants in FG6 could list 6 brands of pâté. All six focus groups mentioned the Kekec and Argeta brands. While younger participants could list up to 3 brands of pâté, older participants could list up to 6 brands of pâté. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). An interesting observation is that older girls and boys (FG4, FG3) and younger girls (FG1) from the primary school situated in the rural area listed Nika pâté as one of the brands. I did not recognize it, so I asked them which one it was. They explained that it is the pâté that they get for breakfast at school sometimes and, according to my further research, it cannot be purchased in retail stores, which means that children remembered it by getting it in school only.

The participants in FG1, FG2, and FG6 thought that brands are not important when purchasing pâté, mostly because they choose the pâté they buy based on the taste, rather than the brand (e.g. a girl (FG6) said, "I think I don't really care about the brand but more about the taste. I don't like Gavrilovič, but I like Argeta. So, I prefer Argeta."). The participants in FG3, FG4, and FG5 thought that brands are important when purchasing pâté. Some participants also expressed their preference, stating that it has to be Argeta or Kekec. One participant in FG5 explained that Argeta is more modern than Kekec, which is why he prefers Argeta.

The fifth question relates to number of cereal brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing cereal. Table 5 shows all the

participants' answers to the question, "Which brands do you think of when you think of cereal? Are brands important when purchasing cereal?"

Table 5: Recognition of brands: Cereal

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Nesquik</i>	1	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Lino</i>	1	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Nesquik, Cheerios, Lino, Cap'n Crunch</i>	4	Yes
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Nesquik, Manner muesli, Frutabela muesli, Lino, Cini Minis, Cheerios, Frosted Flakes, Cap'n Crunch, Froot Loops</i>	9	No
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Milzu!, Zlato Polje, Nesquik, Vital, Proteini.si, Vitalis, Čokolino, Cheerios, Cap'n Crunch</i>	9	Yes
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Nesquik, Čokolino, Frutabela muesli, Zlato Polje, Manner muesli, Žito</i>	6	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 and FG2 could list 1 brand of cereal, the participants in FG3 could list 4 brands of cereal, the participants in FG4 and FG5 could list 9 brands of cereal, and the participants in FG6 could list 6 brands of cereal. The most mentioned brand was Nesquik, which was mentioned in five out of six focus groups. We can again observe differences between ages. Younger participants took a lot of time to remember brands and could list only 1 brand of cereal. Older participants could list a considerably higher number of cereal brands, mentioning brands like Zlato Polje and even their new product flavors, such as "SPORT kaša kokos in datlji". This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208).

While the participants in FG1, FG2, FG4, and FG6 thought brands were not important when purchasing cereal, the participants in FG3 and FG5 thought brands were important when purchasing cereal. An interesting observation is that participants also listed brands that cannot be bought in Europe, such as Cap'n Crunch, Froot Loops. When asked where they remembered these brands from, they said they remembered them from movies and series. These brands were mentioned by older participants, who probably watch tween movies and series that include these kind of product placements quite often. This corresponds to the model of consumer development stages, where the definition states that companies can engage older children's attention (ages 11 and older) by using new forms of advertising, such as product placement and recommendations from singers and vloggers

(Šramova, 2017, p. 96, 97). Younger participants are not as exposed to these products while watching cartoons or shows intended for them.

The sixth question relates to the number of salty snack brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing salty snacks. Table 6 shows all the participants' answers to the question, "Which brands do you think of when you think of salty snacks? Are brands important when purchasing salty snacks?"

Table 6: Recognition of brands: Salty Snacks

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Bobí salty sticks, Smoki</i>	2	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Chio Chips, Smoki</i>	2	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Leis, Bobí salty sticks, Pringles, Chio Chips, Crunchips</i>	6	Yes
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Tuc-Tuc, Smoki, Chio Chips, Bobí salty sticks, Pringles, Doritos</i>	6	No
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Chio Chips, Pringles, Crunchips, Smoki, Lais, Kviki, Bobí salty sticks, Pom-Bär</i>	8	No
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Tuc-Tuc, Chio Chips, Pringles, Smoki, Bobí salty sticks, Mercator chips, Pom-Bär, Bio Zone rice waffles, Lino Baby Flips, Crunchips</i>	10	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 and FG2 could list 2 brands of salty snacks, the participants in FG3 and FG4 could list 6 brands of salty snacks, the participants in FG5 could list 8 brands of salty snacks, and the participants in FG6 could list 10 brands of salty snacks. The most mentioned brands (each of them in five focus groups) were Smoki, Chio Chips and Bobí salty sticks. Again, we can observe the same trend: older participants could list more brands than younger participants could. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). Furthermore, older children attending the primary school in the urban area could list more salty snack brands than children attending the primary school in the rural area. Both younger and older children mostly believed that brands are not important when purchasing salty snacks: the participants in FG1, FG2, FG4, FG5 and FG6 thought brands were not important, and the participants in FG3 thought brands were important when purchasing salty snacks.

The older participant in FG4 also named the brand Doritos, which cannot be purchased in Europe. She said she recognizes it from US movies and series, where they often mention or eat them. This corresponds to the model of consumer development stages, where the

definition states that companies can engage older children's attention (ages 11 and older) by using new forms of advertising, such as product placement and recommendations from singers and vloggers (Šramova, 2017, p. 96, 97). Furthermore, all groups mentioned Bobi salty sticks. This seems to be the synonym for all salty sticks on the market. Only other brand of salty sticks that was mentioned was Kviki, which only occurred in one group (FG5).

The seventh question relates to the number of milk brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing milk. Table 7 shows all the participants' answers to the question, "Which brands do you think of when you think of milk? Are brands important when purchasing milk?"

Table 7: Recognition of brands: Milk

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Alpsko mleko</i>	1	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Alpsko mleko</i>	1	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Alpsko mleko, Mu, Pomursko mlejko, Tuš</i>	4	Yes/No
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Alpsko mleko, Tuš, Spar</i>	3	No
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Alpsko mleko, Mu, Pomursko mlejko, 'Z Bregov</i>	4	Yes
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Alpsko mleko, Mu, Mercator, Pomursko mlejko, Spar</i>	5	Yes/No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 and FG2 could list 1 brand of milk, the participants in FG3 and FG5 could list 4 brands of milk, the participants in FG4 could list 3 brands of milk, and the participants in FG6 could list 5 brands of milk. The most mentioned brand of milk was Alpsko Mleko, which was mentioned in all six focus groups. Differences among age groups can be observed; older participants could list more brands than younger participants could. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). The first brand all participants mentioned was Alpsko Mleko, implying that their branding to children is very strong, even though children are probably not their main target group. Ljubljanske Mlekarne, the company producing Alpsko Mleko is probably aware of the fact that children will create the future market and are targeting them today, acknowledging them as tomorrow's consumers (McNeal, 2007, p. 357, 358). They are doing this through their activations such as collaboration with Ilka Štuhec and Žan Košir, where they made animated characters of the famous Slovenian skier and snowboarder. They made a lot of short animated movies starring these two characters, where they call them "superheroes". I

believe they are doing this to capture the characteristic of fantasy, one of the six core values of children's brands that Lindström & Seybold (2004, p. 25-32) defined as important for brands that want to appeal to children. Companies that choose the characteristic of fantasy, develop a strategy through which they try to appeal to children's imagination.

The participants in FG1, FG2, and FG4 thought that brands are not important when purchasing milk (e.g. a participant (FG4) said, "It just has to be cheap."). On the other hand, the participants in FG5 thought the brand was important when purchasing milk, the main reason being that they use brands to recognize which products are of higher quality (e.g. a boy (FG5) said, "Yes, [brands are important]. Some of the milk gets sour earlier."). The opinions of participants in FG3 and FG6 were divided, with some thinking brands were important when purchasing milk and others thinking brands were not important when purchasing milk.

4.6.3 Recognizing non-food brands

Further, I asked the participants to list the brands of 7 different non-food product groups. The number of mentioned brands for different non-food product groups and for each focus group can be seen in tables 8–16.

The first question relates to number of clothing brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing clothes. Table 8 shows all the participants' answers to the question, "Which brands do you think of when you think of clothes? Are brands important when purchasing clothes?"

Table 8: Recognition of brands: Clothes

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Adidas, Puma, Nike, H&M, Zara, OVS, Okaidi</i>	7	Yes
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Nike, Adidas</i>	2	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Gucci, Guess, Hugo Boss, Louis Vuitton, Supreme, Puma, Nike</i>	7	Yes
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Gucci, Chanel, Louis Vuitton, Nike, Adidas, s.Oliver, Puma, Tom Taylor, Hummel, Dior, Diesel, Tommy Hilfiger, Under Armour, Lacoste, Rhino</i>	15	Yes

(table continues)

Source: Own work.

Table 8: Recognition of brands: Clothes (continued)

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>s.Oliver, Gucci, Next, Nike, Adidas, Fila, Vans, Puma, Under Armour, H&M, Okaidi, Versace, Kipsta</i>	13	Yes
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Nike, Adidas, Puma, Under Armour, s.Oliver, Okaidi, H&M, Zara, New Yorker, Bershka, Stradivarius, Mango, Gap, Guess, Gucci</i>	15	Yes

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 and FG3 could list 7 brands, the participants in FG2 could list 2 brands, the participants in FG4 and FG6 could list 15 brands, and the participants in FG5 could list 13 brands. The most mentioned brand was Nike (mentioned in all 6 focus groups). We can observe that older children could list more clothing brands than younger participants could. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). However, younger girls (FG1) could list the same number of brands as older boys (FG3) could (7). We can also observe differences in gender – younger girls could list more brands than younger boys could, and older girls could list more brands than older boys could.

The participants in FG1, FG3, FG4, FG5, and FG6 thought that the brand is important when purchasing clothes. The participants in FG2 thought that brands were not important when purchasing clothes.

This section also included a sub-question whether children believe it is important that their family and/or friends wear specific clothing brands, and if they feel like friends would hang out less with them if they did not wear specific brands of clothing. Table 9 shows the answers of all focus groups.

Table 9: Importance of clothing brands: Influence of friends and family

Focus group	Primary school	Is it important to you that your friends or family wear specific clothing brands?	Do you feel like your friends would hang out less with you if you did not wear a specific clothing brand?
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	No	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	No	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	No	No
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	No for family, yes for friends	No
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	No	No
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	No	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in almost all focus groups believe that it is not important to them which clothing brands their family and friends wear. Girls in FG4 mentioned that it was important for them what brands their friends wore, but not their family. Furthermore, all focus groups thought friends would not exclude them from their company if they did not wear specific brands. They were quite harsh in their responses on why they think it is not important what their parents and friends wear (e.g. a girl (FG1) said, “We shouldn’t worry about what our friends wear, we should only care about ourselves.”) as well as on why they think friends would not exclude them from their company if they did not wear specific brands (e.g. a girl (FG6) said, “If they do, these are not your true friends. If they were, they would accept you regardless of what you wear.”).

This does not correspond to other studies which show that children would exclude other children from their company if they did not wear the right brands (Lovšin, Lorget & Koch, 2014, p. 237; Roper & Shah, 2007, p. 712; Elliott & Leonard, 2006, p. 347). This is, however, to some degree indicated in the answers provided by the girls in FG4, where some of the participants stated that it was important which brands their friends wear, but do not care which brands their family members wear. Furthermore, while the boys in FG5 thought that their friends would not exclude them from their company if they did not wear specific brands, they did mention that having and wearing specific brands could make them more popular (e.g. a participant (FG5) said, “They would like us better if we had specific brands but would not exclude us if we didn’t have them.”).

The girls in FG4 believe that friends from primary school would not exclude them from their company if they wore non-branded clothing or clothing of non-popular brands, but said that they believe this could happen in high school where “you have to wear good brands at least at the beginning to make a good impression”. It seems that children wish to wear certain brands (at least in high school) to fulfill their need to fit in. This also corresponds well to the theory, where both Ji and Hulan explained that children in their tween years use brands to express their identity. Ji (2008, p. 607, 608) explains this

through the CPRP framework, specifically the motivation dimension. The motivation for a child to form a relationship with a brand comes from the need of self-concept development. According to the model, self-concept development changes with the age of children: when they are in early adolescence, they try to connect with brands and seek popularity and acceptance through brands, which in turn motivates them to connect with brands. Hulan (2007, p. 31–35) also offers a similar idea: tweens lack confidence and individual identity and try to discover themselves in this period. They are very brand-sensitive and often try to define themselves through their purchases and with the brands they wear. The answers provided by children in FG4 point to the fact that according to the model developed by Furby (1991, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 46), children see branded clothing as symbolic items, and they use branded clothes to express who they are.

The second question relates to number of brands of shoes that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing shoes. Table 10 shows all the participants' answers to the question, "Which brands do you think of when you think of shoes? Are brands important when purchasing shoes?"

Table 10: Recognition of brands: Shoes

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Adidas, Puma, Alpina, Nike</i>	4	Yes
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Nike, Adidas, Vučko</i>	3	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Nike, Jordan Shoes, Puma, Gucci, Adidas</i>	5	Yes
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Adidas, Nike, Puma, Guess, Lacoste, Kilimanjaro, Alpina, Vučko, Crocs, AirMax</i>	10	Yes/No
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Nike, Adidas, Fila, Puma, Skechers, Salomon, Gucci</i>	7	Yes
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Nike, Adidas, Puma, Fila, Skechers, Gucci, Guess, Mustang, Tommy Hilfiger</i>	9	Yes

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 listed 4 brands, the participants in FG2 listed 3 brands, the participants in FG3 listed 5 brands, the participants in FG4 listed 10 brands, the participants in FG5 listed 7 brands, and the participants in FG6 listed 9 brands. The most mentioned brands were Adidas and Nike, which were named in all 6 focus groups. We can observe a difference in the number of brands listed between younger and older children. Older children could list more brands of shoes than younger children could. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). We can

observe a difference between genders in both the age groups: younger girls could list more brands of shoes than younger boys could, and older girls could list more brands of shoes than older boys could.

The participants in FG1, FG3, FG5, and FG6 thought that brands were important when purchasing shoes. Participants in FG2 thought brands were not important when purchasing shoes. The opinions of participants in FG4 were divided, with some thinking brands were important when purchasing shoes (e.g. a girl commented, “I care which shoes I have. I find it important; I don’t want to have some random shoes.”), and others thinking brands were not important when purchasing shoes.

This section also included a subquestion whether children believe it is important that their family and/or friends wear specific shoe brands and if they feel like their friends would hang out less with them if they did not wear specific brands of shoes. Table 11 shows the answers of all focus groups.

Table 11: Importance of shoe brands: Influence of friends and family

Focus group	Primary school	Is it important to you that your friends or family wear specific brands of shoes?	Do you feel like your friends would hang out less with you if you did not wear a specific brand of shoes?
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	No	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	No	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	No	Some would
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	No	No
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	No	No
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	No	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in all focus groups believe that it is not important to them which shoes brands their family and friends wear. They often mentioned that the character of the person was more important than the brand of shoes they wore (e.g. a boy in FG3 said, “I wouldn’t like a person who showed off the brands they wear, it is more important for me that they are nice.”). Furthermore, almost all focus groups thought friends would not exclude them from their company if they did not wear specific brands, however, they did mention that other people might judge them based on the shoes they wear (e.g. a girl (FG4) commented, “You are cooler if you wear some brands. But people would not exclude you for it.”). Only boys in FG3 said that some people would exclude them from their company if they did not wear specific brands of shoes. This does not fully correspond to the findings of Elliott and Leonard (2006, p. 347), where they found out that children prefer to talk to someone wearing branded trainers and feel the pressure of their peers to wear sneakers that their friends wear in order to fit in and not be teased about what they wear.

The girls in FG4 agreed that in high school, you must make a good impression at least at the beginning and wear popular brands (e.g. a girl (FG4) said, “It is important to wear brands in high school, at least in the beginning. To make a good impression.”). This again corresponds well to the theory, where both Ji and Hulan explained that children in their tween years use brands to express their identity. Ji (2008, p. 607, 608) explains this through the CPRP framework, specifically the motivation dimension. The motivation for a child to form a relationship with a brand comes from the need of self-concept development. According to the model, self-concept development changes with the ages of children: when they are in early adolescence, they try to connect with brands and seek popularity and acceptance through brands, which in turn motivates them to connect with brands. Hulan (2007, p. 31–35) also offers a similar idea: tweens lack confidence and individual identity and try to discover themselves in this period. They are very brand-sensitive and often try to define themselves through their purchases and by the brands they wear. The answers of children point to the fact that according to the model developed by Furby (1991, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 46), children see branded shoes as symbolic rather than functional items, and they use branded shoes to express who they are.

The third question relates to the number of brands of cosmetics that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing cosmetics. Table 12 shows all the participants’ answers to the question, “Which brands do you think of when you think of cosmetics? Are brands important when purchasing cosmetics?”

Table 12: Recognition of brands: Cosmetics

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Nivea, Avon</i>	2	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Avon (+Bepanthen)</i>	1	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Just, Mac, Dior (+Bepanthen)</i>	3	No
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Loreal, Afrodita, KKW, Kylie Cosmetics, Morphe, Chanel, Fancy Beauty, Just, Nivea, Aquafresh, Paradontax, Colgate</i>	12	Yes
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Afrodita, Labello, Labellino, Signal, Aquafresh, Nivea, L’Occitane, Nuxe</i>	8	Yes/No
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Nivea, Bioderma, L’Occitane, Afrodita, Balea, Essence, Maybelline, Labello, Melem, Labellino, Eucerin</i>	11	Yes/No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 could name 2 brands, the participants in FG2 could name 1 brand, the participants in FG3 could name 3 brands, the participants in FG4 could name 12 brands, the participants in FG5 could name 8 brands, and the participants in FG6 could name 11 brands. The most frequently named brand was Nivea, which was mentioned in 4 out of 6 focus groups. We can again observe the trend of older children listing more brands of cosmetics than younger children. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). Furthermore, girls could list more brands of cosmetics than boys could, probably because they come in contact with these products more often.

Interestingly, Bepanthen was mentioned in two groups, namely among younger boys (FG2) and older boys (FG3). Bepanthen is a cream that helps heal wounds and prevents infection, hence it is not really a cosmetic product. The boys probably memorized it because their mothers used it often for their scratches and cuts. Another interesting observation is that girls could list brands of makeup that cannot be bought in brick-and-mortar stores in Slovenia, such as Kylie Cosmetics. The girls that mentioned these brands said that they know them because they follow makeup tutorials on YouTube.

The participants in FG1, FG2, and FG3 thought that brands were not important when purchasing cosmetics, mostly stating that the purchase depends more on how your skin reacts to these products (e.g. a girl (FG6) said, “No, brands are not important. Every person has a different type of skin and different products are suitable for them. It depends on how the product reacts to your skin, general health.”). The participants in FG4 thought that brands were important when purchasing cosmetics. The opinions of the participants in FG5 and FG6 were divided, with some thinking brands were important when purchasing cosmetics and other thinking brands were not important when purchasing cosmetics.

The fourth question relates to the number of toy brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing toys. Table 13 shows all the participants’ answers to the question, “Which brands do you think of when you think of toys? Are brands important when purchasing toys?”

Table 13: Recognition of brands: Toys

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Lego, Lego Duplo</i>	2	Yes
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Lego</i>	1	No
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>Lego, Barbie and Ken, Baby Born, Bruder, Hot Wheels</i>	5	No

(table continues)

Source: Own work.

Table 13: Recognition of brands: Toys (continued)

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Lego, Playmobile, IQ, Brainbox, Nerf</i>	5	Yes/No
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Lego, Barbie, Lego Duplo, Ty, LOL dolls, Sophie Doll, Luna Petunia, they make a lot of toys from cartoons, like Garfield</i>	8	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG2 could name 2 brands, the participant in FG3 could name 1 brand, the participants in FG4 and FG5 could name 5 brands, and the participants in FG6 could name 8 brands. The most frequently named brand was Lego, which was mentioned in all six focus groups as the first brand. Older participants could list more brands of toys than younger participants could. This corresponds to the theory, which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). Older girls from FG4 and FG6 had younger siblings or relatives and tried to remember which toys were popular with them. Even though they do not play with these toys, they remembered/knew that Luna Petunia and Lol dolls are among the popular toys.

The participants in FG2 thought that brands were important when purchasing toys, and the participants in FG3, FG4, and FG6 thought that brands were not important when purchasing toys (e.g. a girl (FG4) commented, “I don’t think brands are important when purchasing toys. But when I was little, I liked Barbie and preferred it. I am not sure why; I don’t think I knew what brands were at that time.”). The opinions of participants in FG5 were divided – some thought that brands were important when purchasing toys and others thought they were not.

The fifth question relates to the number of game console brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing game consoles. Table 14 shows all the participants’ answers to the question, “Which brands do you think of when you think of gaming consoles? Are brands important when purchasing gaming consoles?”

Table 14: Recognition of brands: Gaming consoles

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>PlayStation</i>	1	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>PlayStation, Xbox,</i>	2	Yes/No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Xbox, PlayStation, Nintendo Switch</i>	3	Yes
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>PlayStation, Xbox, Nintendo, Nintendo Switch, Philips igralna konzola</i>	5	No
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Xbox, PlayStation, Nintendo, GameCube, Wii</i>	5	Yes, very
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>PlayStation, Nintendo Switch, Xbox</i>	3	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 could name 1 brand, the participants in FG2 could name 2 brands, the participants in FG3 and FG6 could name 3 brands, and the participants in FG4 and FG5 could name 5 brands. The most frequently named brand of game consoles was PlayStation, which was named in all 6 focus groups. Older participants could list more brands of gaming consoles than younger children. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). Furthermore, there are differences among boys and girls and their opinions whether brands are important when buying gaming consoles. Girls believed that brands are not important (e.g. a girl (FG4) said, “You have to look at quality, not the brand”), while boys mostly believed that brands are important when purchasing gaming consoles. Additionally, girls were mostly of the opinion that gaming consoles were more important to boys and expressed that they did not really understand why gaming consoles were so interesting to boys.

The sixth question relates to number of book brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing books. Table 15 shows all the participants’ answers to the question, “Which brands do you think of when you think of books? Are brands important when purchasing books?”

Table 15: Recognition of brands: Books

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Mladinska knjiga, Beletrina</i>	2	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Učila, Mladinska knjiga</i>	2	No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Miš, Založba Grahovec, Mladinska knjiga, Lastovka</i>	4	No
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>DZS, Mladinska knjiga, Rokus Klett, Beletrina</i>	4	No
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Mladinska knjiga, Mojang, Učila, Rokus Klett</i>	4	No
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>Mladinska knjiga, Učila, DZS, Založba Grahovec</i>	4	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 and FG2 could list 2 brands, and the participants in FG3, FG4, FG5, and FG6 could list 4 brands. The most frequently named brand was Mladinska Knjiga, which was named in all six focus groups. Older participants could list more brands than younger participants could. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). The participants of all six focus groups were of the opinion that brands were not important when purchasing books, stating that what you are interested in reading is more important than the brand of the book itself.

The seventh question relates to number of mobile phone brands that the participants can recall and whether they find brands important when purchasing mobile phones. Table 16 shows all the participants' answers to the question, "Which brands do you think of when you think of mobile phones? Are brands important when purchasing mobile phones?"

Table 16: Recognition of brands: Mobile phones

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<i>Samsung, LG, Huawei</i>	3	No
FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<i>Samsung, iPhone (Apple), Huawei, Nokia</i>	4	Yes/No
FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<i>Apple, Samsung, Nokia, Xiaomi, Google phone, LG, Acer, Razer, Pepsi Phone</i>	9	Yes

(table continues)

Source: Own work.

Table 16: Recognition of brands: Mobile phones (continued)

Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Number of brands mentioned	Importance of brands
FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	<i>iPhone (Apple), Samsung, Nokia, LG, Huawei</i>	5	Yes
FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<i>Samsung, iPhone (Apple), Huawei, Nokia, Honor, LG, Sony Xperia, Xiaomi, Lenovo, Google Phone</i>	10	Yes
FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<i>iPhone (Apple), Samsung, Huawei, LG, Nokia, Xiaomi, Wiko, Lenovo</i>	8	No

Source: Own work.

The participants in FG1 could name 3 brands, the participants in FG2 could name 4 brands, the participants in FG3 could name 9 brands, the participants in FG4 could name 5 brands, the participants in FG5 could name 10 brands, and the participants in FG6 could name 8 brands. The most frequently mentioned brands were Samsung and LG, which were mentioned in all 6 focus groups. Again, older participants could list more brands of mobile phones than younger participants could. This corresponds to the theory which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). We can also observe that younger boys could list more brands of mobile phones than younger girls could. The same can be observed for older children: older boys could list more brands of mobile phones than older girls could.

The participants in FG1 and FG6 believed brands were not important when purchasing mobile phones (e.g. a girl (FG6) said, “It doesn’t matter what kind of phone you have; it matters that you can call with it.”). On the other hand, the participants in FG3, FG4, and FG5 believed that brands are important when purchasing mobile phones. The opinions of participants in FG2 were divided, with some thinking brands were important when purchasing mobile phones and others thinking brands were not important when purchasing mobile phones. The participants in FG6 also expressed their opinion that you can get bullied if you have an “old” phone, and a girl explained what happened in her class:

“You can get excluded if you own a different phone. My classmate made fun of my friend because she had a phone with buttons, and he asked her if her parents don’t have enough money to buy her a proper phone.”

4.6.4 Ranking food and non-food brands

Further, participants had to rank food and non-food groups based on how important the brand is when purchasing them. Participants ranked food and non-food product groups on a scale 1–7, where for the 1st ranked product group the brand were the most important when

purchase factor, and for the 7th ranked product group the brand were the least important purchase factor. The participants in FG1, FG3, FG4, FG5, and FG6 filled out this task.

Data shows that among food products, the participants ranked milk 1st most often, which means that they believe that brands are most important when purchasing milk among all food products. Furthermore, among non-food products, the participants ranked clothes and mobile phones 1st most often, which means they believe that brands are most important when purchasing clothes or mobile phones among all non-food products. The food product group that was ranked 7th most frequently was candy, meaning that the participants believe brands are least important when purchasing candy among listed food products. Additionally, in the non-food product group, the participants ranked books 7th most often, which means that they believe brands are least important when purchasing books among listed non-food products. The rankings by the participants across all focus groups can be found in Appendices 16–20, and a detailed analysis of the rankings for each focus group can be found in Appendix 21.

4.6.5 Descriptions of favorite brands

In the last part, the participants were asked to choose their favorite brand. They had to draw the logo of the brand. Further, they had to explain what feelings the brand evokes in them and write down what kind of personality trait the brand has in their opinion.

The first task for participants was to choose their favorite brand (or the one they are most familiar with) and draw its logo. Examples of answers and drawn logos can be seen in Appendices 22–25. According to the theory, consumers choose their favorite brand based on their interaction with it. A brand becomes a favorite when the consumer reaches a very high stage of attachment, which excludes all other brands from their frame of reference. Consumers that are at this stage of attachment are much more likely to become loyal to this brand (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 50). Since children foster good relationships with these brands, according to the CPRP framework, their moa space is probably very close to the MOA space of the brand, meaning that children have a high motivation to connect with these brands, these brands offer children the opportunity to connect with them, and children have the ability to form relationships with these brands (Ji, 2008, p. 605).

The participants in FG1 (younger girls) chose the following brands as their favorites: Adidas, Nike, Müller, and Zara. Appendix 22 shows Figures of some of the answers and drawings by the participants from FG1. While some of the participants' answers were precise, had correctly written brand names and drawn logos that resemble the brands' logos, most of them had certain mistakes. Mistakes included misspelled brands names (Addidas, Najk, and Miler) and wrong logos (the favorite brand is defined as Adidas while the logo is that of Nike).

The participants in FG3 (older boys) chose the following brands as their favorites: Funko Pop, Samsung, Louis Vuitton, Apple (iPhone), and Nike. Appendix 23 shows Figures of some of the answers and drawings by the participants from FG3. Some of the drawings of logos were very precise (e.g. letters L and V in the logo of Louis Vuitton overlap, and the participant tried to mimic the font used in the original logo; the logo of Funko Pop has a crown above letter “F” and the word “POP” written in a bubble, and the participant used different types of fonts to present the logo). There are some minor mistakes, however, they are not that obvious. Mistakes included a mirrored Apple logo drawing (the bite in the apple is on the left instead of being on the right), the crown above the Funko Pop logo is positioned wrong (it should be on the right, above the letter “O”; instead, it is on the left, above the letter “F”).

The participants in FG5 (older boys) chose the following brands as their favorites: Nintendo, TPV Avto, Apple, Samsung, Gucci, Milka, CCM, Xbox, and Nike. Appendix 24 shows Figures of some of the answers and drawings by the participants from FG5. A couple of participants in FG5 drew logos with a lot of detail, e.g. some of participants used colors to draw their logos (a yellow rhomb in the TPV logo; red letters in the Nintendo logo). The logos they decided to draw were also a bit more complicated. There were also some mistakes. The TPV Avto logo seems to be a combination of the TPV Avto and Renault logos; the Gucci logo has both letters “G” drawn in the same directions (to the left) when one should be facing in the different direction (to the right); and a mirrored Apple logo (the bite-out of the apple is on the left instead on the right).

The participants in FG6 (older girls) chose the following brands as their favorites: Nike, Adidas, L’Occitane, and Apple. Appendix 25 shows Figures of some of the answers and drawings by the participants from FG6. The participants in this group put a lot of effort into drawing their logos and drew a lot of detail. The Adidas logo included the three stripes; the Apple logo was drawn in the right direction; a participant drawing the L’Occitane logo included the registered trademark symbol (®). Mistakes included wrongly written brand names (Locittane and Loccitane), wrongly shaped stripes in the Adidas logo (they are triangular) that do not follow the right pattern (they should be from small to large).

Fourteen out of thirty-eight children (more than 30 % of children) chose Nike as their favorite brand. Previous research shows that Nike’s brand awareness is very high among children and that children often choose Nike as their favorite brand, both internationally and in Slovenia (Roper & Shah, 2007, p. 718; Elliott & Leonard, 2006, p. 357; Lovšin, Lorger & Koch, 2014, p. 233), so the results are consistent with previous findings.

Previous research also shows that children aged between 18 and 24 months are already capable of recognizing packaging, symbols, shapes, and colors and are likely to name the brand while demanding a product. They can also recognize brand names, store names, and TV programs built around brand names (McNeal, 2007, p. 29-30; 202-362). When children

are between 3 and 5 years old, they are already capable of understanding the symbols of brands (McAlister & Cornwell, 2010, p. 206). Thus, children in primary school should not have difficulties remembering the shape of the logo of their favorite brand.

According to my research, children aged between 7 and 13 years have a good recall of what the logo of their favorite brand looks like. While younger children drew logos using very simple shapes and ignoring the color schemes of their brands' favorite logos, older children drew more complex logos with more detail (using colors, different fonts, and drawing smaller details). Logos drawn by both younger and older children were mostly similar to the originals. There were a few of mistakes that younger children made, for example: the name of the brand did not correspond to the logo drawn (the favorite brand was defined as Adidas, while drawn logo was that of Nike), and a misspelled name of the brand ("*najk*" instead of Nike). Older children also made mistakes, but they were not as obvious, for example: logos were drawn mirrored (Apple), details were placed in the wrong spot (the crown in the logo positioned above the wrong letter), letters were facing the wrong direction, and shapes were positioned in the wrong order. Nonetheless, we can conclude that children aged between 7 and 13 years memorize brand logos. With age, they can memorize it with more detail and use different techniques to mimic the original logo.

In the second part, the participants had to explain what feelings the brand stimulates in them and write down what kind of personality trait the brand has, in their opinion. This task seems to have been difficult to the participants in all focus groups and results mostly included answers that were copied from the suggestions in the written question or my verbal explanation of what is expected as an answer in this part. Furthermore, many participants decided to not answer these questions.

Since all participants had to draw the logos of their favorite brands, they wrote down that these brands evoke positive feelings in them and chose to describe them with positive characteristics. Examples can be seen in Appendix 26.

Since more than 30 percent of participants chose Nike as their favorite brand, I have decided to compare their answers. The participants in FG1 wrote that the brand makes them happy. They explained that if the brand were a person, it would be sporty, smiling, fun, and would make people laugh. One participant believed the brand would keep to themselves. The participants in FG3 wrote that Nike makes them feel good and professional. They described the brand as being serious and social. They had different opinions about how old the brand would be as a person – while one participant described it as old, others described it as young. The participants in FG5 also described Nike as a serious but social brand, which makes them feel good. The participants in FG6 said the brand makes them feel happy and sporty. They thought that as a person, Nike would be a sporty, happy and friendly person with a passion for something, but it would also be modest. According to them, this person would be funny and would hang out with younger

people, but it would also be serious. Two participants thought this person would be young and three participants thought this person would be old.

The participants in all focus groups who described the Nike brand shared similar view on what it would look like if it were a person. The person would be sporty and social. It would make people laugh but would also be serious and professional. They had different opinions when it came to its age – some thought Nike would be an old person, while others thought it would be a young person. All participants said the brand makes them feel good and happy, which makes sense since they chose Nike as their favorite brand. The fact that children have a homogeneous view on what the brand Nike represents means that these children are a part of the same brand community (Muniz & O’Guinn, 2001, p. 412) and are united in this community by the shared feelings that the brand evokes in them.

4.7 Analysis of research questions

Research question one: How involved are children in the shopping process?

Preliminary research suggests that children shop with their parents very often. Gunter and Furnham (2004, p. 9) state that mothers take their children shopping with them when they are two to three years old. However, McNeal (2007, p. 360) suggests parents take their children to the store for the first time when they are between 2 and 6 months old. His research also shows children make their first co-purchase (when the mother and child shop together) when they are between 4 and 6 years old, which gives them the opportunity to acquire in-store shopping skills (McNeal, 2007, p. 365; and Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 9).

The results of my research are aligned with previous findings. According to my research, children aged between 7 and 13 years shop with their parents. The participants in all six groups answered that they shop with their parents. There are no differences in age – the focus groups with younger participants and the focus groups with older participants answered that they shop with their parents. Furthermore, there are no differences in terms of gender – the focus group consisting of girls and the focus groups consisting of boys answered they go shopping with their parents. A participant in FG1 (younger girls) mentioned her family has a habit of going to the store every Sunday and how she joins the shopping trip almost every time. A participant in FG5 (older boys) was even of the opinion that he goes to store with his parents too often.

Previous research also suggests that children help their parents when they go shopping. They start to influence their parent’s spending as soon as they own basic communication skills (Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 51). When they are between 2 and 4 years old, they are large enough to grab products from lower shelves in the store and give them to parents (McNeal, 2007, p. 364).

The results of my research are aligned with previous findings. According to my research, participants aged between 7 and 13 years help their parents when they go shopping. The participants in all six focus groups answered that they help their parents when they go shopping with them. There are no differences in age – the focus groups with younger participants and the focus groups with older participants answered that they help their parents in the shopping process. Furthermore, there are no differences in terms of gender – the focus group consisting of girls and the focus groups consisting of boys answered they help their parents in the shopping process. The answers on how they help their parents were as follows: write shopping lists, put products in carts, choose gifts, help remember groceries they need to buy or read from the shopping list, choose toys, shoes, and clothes, can choose some food products (e.g. pasta, bread, candy, cereal, yogurt, and juice), and find products in store. They also sometimes recommend products to their parents if they are familiar with them, but their parents are not.

Research question two: Under which circumstances do children shop alone?

Preliminary research suggests children start shopping alone when they are 6 or 7 years old. Most often, their first independent purchase is in a store close to home or school, because it is convenient and comfortably close to their home and/or classmates. Furthermore, the first individual purchase children make is most often a soft drink or a candy bar (McNeal, 2007, p. 366-367). By the time they become teens, they already establish certain shopping patterns (Tootelian & Gaedeke, 1992, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 46).

The results of my research are aligned with previous findings. According to my research, children aged between 7 and 13 years shop alone. The participants in five out of six focus groups answered that they sometimes shop alone. The participants in FG2 (younger boys) answered they almost never shop alone. They did not provide a further explanation why. The participants in other groups (FG1, FG3, FG4, and FG5) answered that they shop alone. Most often, they shop alone because they are instructed to do so by their parents or grandparents: they ask them to go to a store close to the house to buy ingredients they need at that moment (e.g. bread, ingredients for pancakes, Nutella for pancakes, milk, and eggs). This seems to be universal across all genders and ages. However, focus groups with older participants also mentioned that they sometimes go to the store to buy products for themselves. The participants in FG5 (older boys) mentioned that they go shopping alone after school to buy candy, toys, or something to drink. Similarly, the participants in FG6 (older girls) mentioned they sometimes go to the store after their catechesis lessons to buy chocolate or candy.

Furthermore, previous research shows that children are the most enthusiastic adopters of any digital media in any age group (ITU, 2008; Lenhart et. al., 2010; Green, Brady, Olfasson et al., 2013, in Gunter, 2016, p. 79) and that when they are between 10 and 12 years old, they start communicating on social media and shopping online (Lake, 2017).

The results of my research are partially aligned with previous findings. According to my research, children aged between 9 and 13 years shop online, but only with the help of their parents. The participants in FG3 (older boys), FG5 (older boys), and FG6 (older girls) mentioned that they choose certain products on websites and their parents order those products and complete the transactions. The participants in FG6 had a lot of explanations for what the online shopping process looks in their family. One participant mentioned that they only shop on Slovenian online sites. Another participant said they only shop for unimportant, cheap products, because if they are not OK, then there is not a lot of damage in terms of money. A participant also mentioned that they sometimes first check clothes online and, if they like something, they go to the store and buy it there. It seems that the participants are very careful when shopping online, following the example of their parents.

It appears that children trust their parents, mimic their shopping behavior and value their opinions. This was also observed when children were asked to define what or who is their source of information about brands. Both younger and older children, regardless of gender, said that family members are their main source of information about brands. While younger children only mentioned their parents, older participants could also list additional sources of information. The participants in FG3 (older boys) said that their sources of information, besides family members, are their own past experiences with the brand, friends, seeing other people having the brand, and the seller in the store. The participants in FG4 (older girls) listed the following sources of information (besides family members): YouTubers, friends, the Internet, salespersons, and seeing other people having the brand. The participants in FG5 (older boys) also stated that family members, friends, and their own experience are their sources of information. Furthermore, they mentioned finding information on Google. The participants in FG6 (older girls) mentioned family members, past experiences, salespersons, Google, and reviews on websites as their sources of information. We can conclude that older children also use the Internet to find information about brands, but not in as often as expected. They mostly rely on friends as their sources of information. Seeing other people having the brand is also often their source of information. The results are not consistent with the study conducted by Lindström and Seybold (2004, p. 64), where TV and magazines are the top two sources of information for children. However, their research showed that the Internet is rarely a source of information about brands, which corresponds to the findings of my preliminary research.

Preliminary research suggests children gather information about brands from different sources. A research conducted in 2004 showed that children gather information about brands mostly from the TV, followed by magazines, friends, seeing the brand on the street or people having it, newspaper, parents, etc. The Internet ranked 9th (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 64). Since today's children grow up in a digital world and are connected online very quickly, I believed this ranking would be much different if conducted today, with the Internet ranking very high, if not first. Lake (2017) already suggested that children aged 13–15 years use their phones to find information online, and when they are between 16 and

18 years old, digital is the primary source of information for them. However, this was not the case, since children most often named their parents as their primary source of information and very rarely use the internet to search for information about brands.

Research question three: How do children define the term "brand"?

There are different definitions of the term brand. Among others:

- Kotler and Armstrong (2012, p. 231): a brand is a name, term, sign, symbol, design, or a combination of these, and it identifies the products or services of a seller or a group of sellers and differentiates them from competitors' products.
- Davis (2009, p. 12): most often the term "brand" is defined as the logo and name of a company or product, however, it is much more than that. A brand is a connection between the company and its consumers.
- Neumer (2005, p. 2): a brand is like a feeling that a consumer has about a product, service, or company. Brands are defined by individuals, not companies and marketers, and each person defines their own version of a brand.

According to my research, children somewhat understand what the term "brands" stands for. However, research shows that older children have a more in-depth understanding of what a brand is than younger children do. The focus groups with younger participants (FG1, younger girls; and FG2, younger boys) explained that a brand is the price tag of a product. A participant from FG1 (younger girls) also noted that a brand consists of a drawn shape and text on a product. It seems that younger children believe that if a product has a brand, it makes it more expensive, probably thinking of expensive, luxury brands. They also understand the basic concepts of what a brand is: a combination of a symbol, design, and text. The participants of focus groups with older children had a clearer idea of what a brand is. The children in FG4 (older girls) said that a brand is a company, and the participants in FG5 (older boys) said a brand is a firm that produces the product. The participants in FG6 (older girls) said that the producer is represented by a brand, and that every company that produces something has its own brand. It seems that children aged between 9 and 13 years understand the concept of a brand, but tend to define it as something tangible (company or firm), rather than diving into the intangible aspect of the brand (e.g. connection between company and brand or a feeling that a customer has about a product), which is understandable as the tangible explanation is easier to understand and comprehend.

Research question four: How important are brands to children when purchasing food and non-food products?

According to previous research, children first start grouping brands into two groups: the evoked set and the inept set. The brands they like belong to the evoked set, while the brands they do not like are put in the inept set. As they grow older, they become more

aware of brands and start ranking them. The difference between two ranked brands is called a psychological distance and can be either very large or very small (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). For children to base their purchasing decision on the ranked brands, they must believe that brands are an important factor when purchasing products. When it comes to food products, previous research showed that younger children do not put much emphasis on brands when purchasing food and drinks, but older children do. They believe that specific brands of food are cooler and owning them makes them cooler as well (Roper & La Niece, 2009, p. 91, 92).

The results of my research are aligned with previous findings. According to my research, older children believe brands are important when purchasing food, but it depends on the type of products. Older children in all four focus groups (FG3, FG4, FG5, and FG6) answered that brands are important when purchasing food at the beginning of the discussion, but their subsequent answers show that this does not apply to all food products. The participants in FG3 (older boys) believe brands are important when purchasing candy, soft drinks, pâté, cereal, and salty snacks. When it comes to milk, the opinions are divided – some believe brands are important when purchasing milk, and others believe brands are not important when purchasing milk. The participants in FG3 believe that brands are not important when purchasing juice. The participants in FG4 (older girls) believe brands are important when purchasing candy and pâté, but believe brands are not important when purchasing soft drinks, juices, cereal, salty snacks, or milk. The participants in FG5 (older boys) believe that brands are important when purchasing soft drinks, juices, pâté, cereal, and milk, but not when purchasing candy or salty snacks. The participants in FG6 (older girls) believe brands are not important when purchasing products in any of the food product groups. They think that brands are not important when purchasing soft drinks, juices, pâté, cereal, and salty snacks. Their opinions were divided when asked about the importance of brands when purchasing candy and milk – some believed brands were important when purchasing candy and milk, and others believed brands were not important when purchasing candy and milk.

My research shows that younger children do not believe brands are important when purchasing food products. The participants in FG1 (younger girls) do not believe that brands are important when purchasing any of the food products discussed: they believe the brand is not important when buying candy, soft drinks, juice, pâté, cereal, salty snacks, or milk. On the other hand, the participants in FG2 (younger boys) believe that brands are important only when purchasing soft drinks, but do not think brands are important when purchasing candy, pâté, cereal, salty snacks, or milk.

Furthermore, we can also observe gender differences among older children. Older boys in FG3 and FG5 found brands more important when purchasing food products than the girls in FG4 and FG6 did. While the boys in FG3 and FG5 thought brands were important for 5 presented food product groups, the girls in FG4 thought brands were important for only 2

of the presented food product groups and girls in FG6 thought brands were not important for any of the food product groups.

The participants in all focus groups most often expressed that brands are not important when purchasing salty snacks (5 out of 6 focus groups thought brands were not an important factor when purchasing salty snacks), and most often thought that brands are important when purchasing pâté and soft drinks (3 out of 5 focus groups answered that they think brands are important when purchasing products in these food product groups). When children had to rank the importance of brands when purchasing products in different food product groups, the results were a bit different from their previous answers. Data shows that the participants most often ranked milk as 1st among food products, which means that they believe brands are most important when purchasing milk among all presented food product groups. The food product group that was ranked 7th by most of the children was candy, meaning that participants believe brands are least important when purchasing candy among listed food product groups. This result surprised me. I expected children to rank candy or soft drinks 1st most often, since children often consume these products and I expected them to have brand preferences. During the debate, I discovered that children do not really mind which brand of candy they eat since they simply wish to eat something sweet. When asked about soft drinks, children often mentioned they do not drink them because they are not healthy and are too sweet. They rarely buy these drinks and, if they do, they do not feel like there is a difference between a private label and any other brand.

Tables with rankings of food products by all the participants can be seen in Appendices 16–20.

When it comes to non-food products, different studies show that children believe brands are important when purchasing clothes and shoes (Roper & Shah, 2007, p. 712–728; Elliott & Leonard, 2006, p. 347). Children tend to judge their peers by the brands they wear (Elliott & Leonard, 2006, p. 355), and even use them to form in- and out-groups (Roper & Shah, 2007, p. 712–728).

According to my research, children believe that brands are important for specific non-food products, however, older participants thought brands are important for a higher number of the presented non-food product groups as younger participants did. The participants in FG1 (younger girls) believe brands are important when purchasing clothes and shoes, but believe brands are not important when purchasing cosmetics, gaming consoles, books, and mobile phones. The participants in FG2 (younger boys) believe brands are important when purchasing toys, but they believe that brands are not important when purchasing clothes, shoes, cosmetics, and books. The opinions of the participants were divided when asked about the importance of brands when purchasing gaming consoles and mobile phones: some thought brands were important, while others thought they were not.

The participants in FG3 (older boys) believe brands are important when purchasing clothes, shoes, gaming consoles, and mobile phones, but believe that brands are not important when purchasing cosmetics, toys, and books. The participants in FG4 (older girls) believe that brands are important when purchasing clothes, cosmetics, and mobile phones. They believe that brands are not important when purchasing toys, gaming consoles, and books. The opinions of participants were divided when asked about the importance of brands when purchasing shoes – some believe that brands were important when purchasing shoes, while others believed brands are not important when purchasing shoes. The participants in FG5 (older boys) believe brands are important when purchasing clothes, shoes, gaming consoles, and mobile phones. They believe brands are not important when purchasing books. The opinions of participants were divided when asked about importance of brands when purchasing cosmetics and toys – some believe brands are important when purchasing cosmetics and toys, while others believed brands are not important when purchasing cosmetics and toys. The participants in FG6 (older girls) believed brands are important when purchasing clothes and shoes, but they believed that brands are not important when purchasing toys, gaming consoles, books, and mobile phones. Their opinions were divided when asked about the importance of brands when purchasing cosmetics – some believed brands are important, while others believed brands are not important.

Furthermore, we can also observe differences in gender among older children. When purchasing non-food products, older boys in FG3 and FG5 found brands important more often than the girls in FG4 and FG6 did. While the boys in FG3 and FG5 thought brands were important for 4 presented non-food product groups, the girls in FG4 thought brands were important for only 3 presented non-food product groups and girls in FG6 thought brands were important for only 2 non-food product groups.

When children had to rank the importance of brands when purchasing different non-food group products, the results were a bit different from their previous answers. Data shows that among non-food products, the participants most often ranked clothes and mobile phones 1st, which means they believe that brands are most important when purchasing clothes or mobile phones among the listed non-food products. Additionally, when ranking non-food product groups, the participants most often ranked books 7th, which means that they believe brands are least important when purchasing books among the listed non-food products. The results were not surprising. As previously mentioned, children put a emphasis on clothing brands and even form in- and out-groups based on what they wear (Roper & Shah, 2007, p. 713). Furthermore, children use clothing brands to express themselves (Hulan, 2007, p. 31-35) so it was expected that they would most often rank clothes 1st. Mobile phones were also ranked 1st, which was expected as well, as they are a large part of children's lives (Lake, 2017). I believe children also often use phone brands to express themselves and define their identity.

Tables with rankings by all the participants can be seen in Appendices 16–20.

Research question five: How do the age and the gender of a child influence their brand recall?

Previous research shows that children are a part of the consumer world from their birth onwards and start to recognize the brands of fast food, soda, and toys when they are as young as 3 years. They are more likely to recognize brands that are targeted primarily at them because they have the most experience with them (McAlister & Cornwell, 2010, p. 203–206). With age, they become more sophisticated consumers. Children aged between 4 and 6 years can describe what is on a shopping list in detail and are very brand-conscious (John, 1984; McNeal, 1992, in Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 10). As a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208).

According to my research, younger children in general know fewer food brands than older children do across most of the food categories. Younger participants listed fewer brands than older children in the following categories: candy, soft drinks, cereal, salty snacks, pâté, and milk. Furthermore, younger children could also list fewer non-food brands than older children could in most non-food categories. Younger children could list fewer brands than older children in the following categories: shoes, cosmetics, gaming consoles, books, and mobile phones.

The fact that younger children could list fewer brands than older children could correspond to my previous research, which states that as a child grows, they also expand their knowledge of existing products and brands on the market (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). We could also observe that among food categories, children could list most brands of candy (31). This also corresponds to my previous research which states that children are more likely to remember brands that are intended primarily for them. Among non-food categories, children listed the most brands of clothes (15), and not toys as expected, since toys are primarily made and marketed to children and children should, according to my previous research, be most familiar with these brands.

According to my research, boys in general know fewer food brands than girls do in most of the food categories. The girls listed more brands in the following categories: candy, soft drinks, juice, pâté, salty snacks, and milk. Furthermore, the boys could also list fewer non-food brands than girls could in most non-food categories. The girls listed more brands in the following categories: clothes, shoes, cosmetics, and toys.

My research shows that girls are better at recalling brands than boys are. The theory states that preadolescent girls show a stronger motivation to form an intimate relationship with a brand than boys (Ji, 2008, p. 607, 608), which could be the reason why girls could list more brands than boys could – they are simply more motivated to develop relationships with a large number of brands.

Previous findings also show that children aged between 1.5 years and 2 years are already capable of recognizing the packaging, shapes, and colors of brands and their logos (McNeal, 2007, p. 202). When children are between 3 and 5 years old, they are already capable of understanding the symbols of brands (McAlister & Cornwell, 2010, p. 203). For example, the results of one study showed that 60 % of 3-year-olds and 80 % of 5-year-olds could read environmental print: cereal boxes, toothpaste cartons, traffic signs, and soft drink logos (Goodman, 1986, in McMahon Giles & Wellhousen Tunks, 2010, p. 23).

The results of my research are aligned with previous findings. According to my research, children aged between 7 and 13 years have a good recollection of what the logo of their favorite brand looks like. While younger children drew logos using very simple shapes and ignoring the color schemes of their favorite brands' logos, older children drew logos more complexly and with more detail (using colors, different fonts, and drawing smaller details). The logos drawn by both younger and older children were mostly similar to the original. There were a couple of mistakes that the younger children made, for example: the name of the brand did not correspond to the logo drawn (the favorite brand was defined as Adidas, while the drawn logo was that of Nike) and the name of the brand was misspelled ("najk" instead of Nike). Older children also made mistakes but they were not as obvious, for example: logos were drawn mirrored (Apple), the details were placed in the wrong spot (the crown in the logo positioned above the wrong letter), letters were facing the wrong direction, and shapes were positioned in the wrong order. Nonetheless, we can conclude that children aged between 7 and 13 years memorize brand logos. With age, they can memorize it more in detail and use different techniques to mimic the original logo.

Research question six: What attitude do children have towards brands?

The attitudes of children towards brands are favorable. Through the conversations held with all six focus groups, I was able to conclude that children find brands important and see them in a positive light. Through brands, they determine the quality and price of a product or service, as well as use them to express themselves and judge other people based on the brands they wear or use. This is especially evident among older children, who see the items they own as symbolic, while younger children more often see the items they own as functional.

When it comes to the brands of food products, children seem to put a lesser importance on brands when it comes to products that are considered junk food (salty snacks and candy). Through conversation they often mentioned they prefer to choose "healthy" options, options with "less sugar", or "bio" food products, and they search brands with these attributes by following the example of their parents. They also have a favorable attitude towards private labels when it comes to food products, often mentioning that their lower price does not correspond to quality.

Children also have a positive attitude towards non-food product brands, especially clothing and shoe brands, even though, as discovered through conversation, they use it to judge other people based on them. While all participants thought other people would not judge them or exclude them if they wore clothing and shoe brands that were not popular, I discovered that they sometimes use clothing and shoe brands to assess a person wearing these brands. For example, if you wear Nike-branded clothes, you or your parents are probably rich and you are showing off. Many of participants mentioned that it is not important if you wear specific brands and that “it’s what’s on the inside that counts.” However, they also frequently said and wrote that they wished they had more Nike or Louis Vuitton clothes. It seems that because they do not have access to these brands (e.g. a participant mentioned that it does not make sense to buy such expensive clothes for them as they will outgrow them very fast – which is probably something their parents said), they downplay their importance.

4.8 Limitations of the research

While focus groups are useful for revealing beliefs, attitudes, experiences and feelings of participants, there are potential limitations that this methodology has. Among the most important limitations are the following: bias and manipulation, ‘false’ consensus, difficulty in distinguishing between an individual view and a group view, difficulty in making generalizations and difficulty of analysis and interpretation of results (Litosseliti, 2007, p. 21).

Bias and manipulation refer to the possibility of encouraging participants to respond with what they think the moderator wants to hear, rather what they think. This should be anticipated and taken into the account. Furthermore, focus groups can result in a ‘false’ consensus. This happens when dominant participants with strong personalities and opinions dominate the discussion, and other participants stay silent. The moderator has to recognize when this situation emerges and use a firm, non-intrusive moderating techniques and a well-structured topic guide to keep the discussion on track (Litosseliti, 2007, p. 21, 23).

Groups also often appear more consistent than they actually are, so it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between an individual view and a group view. Individuals that do not agree with the opinions of the louder majority often do not want to say so and put themselves in the position of disagreement. A group of people often also generates more emotion about the discussed issue, than any of the individual participants feel. The moderator needs to point out that there are no right and wrong answers and that the group is not expected to reach a consensus (Litosseliti, 2007, p. 21, 22).

The data obtained in the focus group is also very difficult to generalize. This is due to the limitation of the number of participants, as well as due to the difficulty of having a representative sample. It is important to know, that data obtained through focus groups are

not representative but indicative. It is used to illustrate a particular social phenomenon. Furthermore, the open-ended nature of focus groups makes the results difficult to analyze and interpret. They require careful planning and moderation to understand the underlying meaning of what people say (Litosseliti, 2007, p. 21-27).

All of these limitations are also the limitations of my research. I believe that children sometimes said what they believe I wanted to hear, what their parents said and want them to think or what they believe is socially acceptable, instead of what they really believe. Furthermore, some of the groups had participants that were dominant and thus imposed their opinion on others. In some cases, it is difficult to determine if children have a homogenous view, or do they just appear more consistent than they actually are. It is also difficult to make generalizations based on the obtained data. This is because I have conducted only six focus groups. Furthermore, I conducted an uneven number of focus groups of younger children and older children. Focus groups were conducted in only two different primary schools, both located in the same statistical region. The analysis and interpretation of obtained data were also difficult since the answers varied from child to child and from focus group to focus group.

All these limitations restrict the collected answers and results. Future research should focus on overcoming these limitations. However, the purpose of my research was to get insights that can later be tested on a larger and more representative sample that would enable generalizations.

CONCLUSION

This master's thesis focuses on analyzing children as consumers and their understanding of brands. The main purpose of the master's thesis was to contribute to the body of knowledge on the topic of children's perceptions of brands. I analyzed this topic from the theoretical and empirical point of view.

The theoretical analysis showed that parents take their children to the store for the first time when they are between 2 and 6 months old (McNeal, 2007, p. 360). As they grow older, they develop communication skills and start to influence their parents' spending (Gunter & Furnham, 2004, p. 51). When children are between 6 and 7 years old, they make their first purchase alone (soft drink or candy bar), which often happens in a store close to their home or school (McNeal, 2007, p. 366–367). They start shopping online when they are between 10 and 12 years old (Lake, 2017).

When it comes to brands, children are very good at recognizing those that target them (McAlister & Cornwell, 2010, p. 203) and they expand their knowledge of brands as they grow older (McNeal, 2007, p. 208). Older children find brands important when purchasing food (Roper & La Niece, 2009, p. 91, 92), clothing (Roper & Shah, 2007, p. 712-728), or

shoes (Elliott & Leonard, 2006, p. 347). They tend to gather most of their information about brands from TV, magazines and friends (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, p. 64).

The main findings of my research are as follows. Children often go shopping with their parents and are very involved in the shopping process. They write shopping lists, help find products in the store, put products in the shopping cart, and even make decisions on which products their parents should buy. Children also often shop alone, mostly because they are instructed to do so by their parents (they send them to buy bread or milk in the store close to their home), but older children also go shopping alone when they want to purchase candy or drinks for themselves. Children also mentioned that they shop online, but only to the extent of helping their parents choose products intended for them. Their parents are the ones that then complete the transaction.

The research shows that children understand the concept of brands, however older children have a better understanding than younger children. Younger children understand the basic concepts of what a brand is: a combination of a symbol, design, and text. Older children understand that a brand is beyond just a logo, but still tend to define a brand as something tangible (company or firm), rather than diving into the intangible aspect of the brand. The majority of children get information about brands from their family members.

A difference in the age could be observed when testing their knowledge of brands. Older children could list more brands than younger children in most food and non-food categories presented to them. Furthermore, older children find brands important in a higher number of food categories than younger children. Most of the children also thought brands are important when purchasing clothes and shoes but think that other children would not exclude them from their group if they did not wear specific brands of clothes or shoes.

My research explores the attitudes of children and tweens towards brands. In particular, the consumption behaviors of children and tweens is analyzed, with emphasis put on brands. While previous studies on this topic in Slovenia focused on analyzing children's perceptions of clothing brands, I have decided to also analyze how children perceive the brands of different food product groups. This research contributes to the paucity of research of how food and non-food brands influence the children in Slovenia.

In general, my research showed that the attitudes of children towards brands are favorable. They use brands to express themselves, they judge others by the brands they use, they define the quality and price of a product based on a brand, etc. It seems that this is less distinct for younger children than for older children. We can observe that younger children see products as functional items, while older children see products more as symbolic items and, thus, find brands more important.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Povzetek v slovenskem jeziku

Glavni namen magistrskega dela je prispevati k razumevanju, kako trženje vpliva na otroke, specifično kako otroci zaznavajo blagovne znamke. Glavni cilj magistrskega dela je skozi teoretična izhodišča domače in tuje literature ter z lastno raziskavo jasno opredeliti, kako otroci zaznavajo blagovne znamke.

V teoretičnem delu magistrskega dela s pomočjo domače in tuje literature predstavim osnovni koncept blagovnih znamk, otroka kot porabnika in opredelim, kako blagovne znamke vplivajo na otroke. V empiričnem delu magistrskega dela uporabim kvalitativno metodo: fokusne skupine. Preko raziskave želim ugotoviti, ali otroci nakupujejo skupaj s svojimi starši, ali pomagajo svojim staršem v nakupovalnem procesu in kako, ali nakupujejo sami, ali nakupujejo preko spleta, kako definirajo pojem blagovna znamka, ali je za otroke internet glavni vir informacij o blagovnih znamkah, ali otroci menijo, da so blagovne znamke pomemben faktor pri nakupu prehranskih in neprehranskih izdelkov, kako starost in spol vplivata na otrokovo poznavanje blagovnih znamk in ali si otroci zapomnijo logotipe blagovnih znamk. Na dveh osnovnih šolah sem izvedla šest fokusnih skupin z otroki starimi med 7 in 13 let. Otroci so bili v fokusne skupine razdeljeni glede na starost in spol.

Danes vsak od nas predstavlja porabnika. Na dnevni bazi kupujemo izdelke in storitve in smo s tem del nakupovalnega procesa ter tvorimo skupine porabnikov za različne izdelke in storitve. Otroci niso izjema. Od rojstva naprej so obkroženi z izdelki in zelo hitro postanejo vpleteni v svet potrošništva, ki jih obkroža.

Starši svoje otroke prvič peljejo v trgovino, ko so stari 2 do 6 mesecev (McNeal, 2007, str. 360). Ko odraščajo, razvijajo komunikacijske veščine in s svojimi prošnjami po izdelkih vplivajo na nakupovalne navade svojih staršev (Gunter & Furnham, 2004, str. 51). Ko so stari med 6 in 7 let, opravijo svoj prvi samostojni nakup v trgovini blizu doma ali šole. Najpogosteje je to gazirana pijača ali čokoladica (McNeal, 2007, str. 366-367). Ko so stari med 10 in 12 let, začnejo nakupovati tudi preko spleta (Lake, 2017).

Otroci zelo dobro prepoznavajo blagovne znamke izdelkov, ki so jim namenjeni (McAlister & Cornwell, 2010, str. 203) in z odraščanjem tudi širijo svoje znanje o blagovnih znamkah (McNeal, 2007, str. 208). Prejšnje raziskave so pokazale, da starejši otroci menijo, da so blagovne znamke pomemben faktor pri nakupu hrane (Roper & La Niece, 2009, str. 91, 92), oblačil (Roper & Shah, 2007, str. 712-728) in čevljev (Elliott & Leonard, 2006, str. 347). Otroci pogosto ocenjujejo svoje vrstnike glede na to, katere blagovne znamke oblačil nosijo (Elliott & Leonard, 2006, str. 355) in celo ustvarjajo "in" in "out" skupine na podlagi blagovnih znamk, kar še povečuje socialne razlike med njimi (Roper & Shah, 2007, str. 712-728). Podobno tudi pri hrani otroci menijo, da so specifične blagovne znamke bolj "kul" in da bodo tudi sami bolj "kul", če bodo imeli te blagovne

znamke (Roper & La Niece, 2009, str. 91, 92). Največ informacij o blagovnih znamkah otroci dobijo na televiziji, v revijah in od prijateljev (Lindström & Seybold, 2004, str. 64).

Raziskava je pokazala, da otroci pogosto hodijo po nakupih s svojimi starši in so zelo vključeni v nakupovalni proces. Prav tako pogosto pišejo nakupovalne sezname, pomagajo staršem najti izdelke v trgovini, dajejo izdelke v nakupovalni voziček in se celo odločajo, katere izdelke naj kupijo njihovi starši. Otroci pogosto nakupujejo sami, najpogosteje po navodilih njihovih staršev, ki jih pošljejo v trgovino blizu doma po kruh, mleko ipd. Starejši otroci nakupujejo sami, tudi ko želijo kupiti izdelke zase kot npr. sladkarije. Otroci pogosto nakupujejo tudi preko spleta, vendar s pomočjo svojih staršev. Najpogosteje pomagajo zbrati izdelek, transakcijo pa zaključijo njihovi starši.

Tako mlajši kot tudi starejši otroci razumejo koncept blagovne znamke, vendar starejši bolj kot mlajši. Mlajši otroci razumejo osnovne pojme blagovne znamke – kombinacija simbola, oblikovanja in besedila, starejši otroci pa vedo, da koncept blagovne znamke presega samo logotip na izdelku. Vseeno pa v svojih razlagah ostajajo pri oprijemljivih konceptih (blagovna znamka je podjetje, firma). Večina otrok dobi informacije o blagovnih znamkah od svojih staršev.

Pri preizkušanju njihovega znanja o blagovnih znamkah lahko opazimo razliko glede na starost. Starejši otroci poznajo več blagovnih znamk prehranskih in neprehranskih izdelkov kot mlajši. Prav tako starejši otroci menijo, da so blagovne znamke pomemben faktor pri nakupu izdelkov v več kategorijah kot mlajši otroci. Razlike lahko opazimo tudi glede na spol. Deklice poznajo več blagovnih znamk od dečkov v skoraj vseh predstavljenih kategorijah prehranskih in neprehranskih izdelkov. Raziskava je tudi pokazala, da so za starejše dečke blagovne znamke pomembne za več prehranskih in neprehranskih izdelkov kot pa za starejše deklice. Tako mlajši kot starejši otroci se dobro spominjajo, kako je videti logotip njihove najljubše blagovne znamke, pri čemer so starejši otroci narisali logotipe bolj natančno in z več detajli.

Raziskava je pokazala, da imajo otroci pozitiven odnos do blagovnih znamk. Na podlagi blagovnih znamk se izražajo, sodijo druge, definirajo kvaliteto in ceno izdelka itd. Zdi se, da je to bolj izrazito pri starejših otrocih kot pri mlajših. Opazimo lahko, da mlajši otroci izdelke vidijo bolj kot funkcionalne predmete, starejši otroci pa bolj kot simbolne predmete, kar pomeni, da so blagovne znamke zanje bolj pomembne.

Raziskava ima omejitve. Menim, da so otroci včasih povedali tisto, kar verjamejo, da sem želela slišati oziroma kar verjamejo, da je družbeno sprejemljivo, namesto tega, kar v resnici verjamejo. Poleg tega so bili v nekaterih skupinah otroci, ki so bili bolj glasni in bolj samozavestni od drugih, zato je lahko v določenih primerih prevladalo njihovo mnenje. V nekaterih primerih je težko ugotoviti, ali imajo otroci homogeno mnenje, ali se le zdi, da so njihova mnenja enotna. Hkrati je težko posplošiti pridobljene podatke, saj sem izvedla samo šest fokusnih skupin. Prav tako sem izvedla neenakomerno število fokusnih

skupin – dve z mlajšimi otroki in štiri s starejšimi otroki. Vse fokusne skupine so bile izvedene v isti statistični regiji, na samo dveh različnih osnovnih šolah. Analizo in razlago pridobljenih podatkov je bilo težko narediti tudi zato, ker so bili odgovori različni od otroka do otroka in od fokusne skupine do fokusne skupine. Vse te omejitve so vplivale na kakovost zbranih podatkov. Prihodnje raziskave bi se morale osredotočiti na premagovanje teh omejitev. Kljub vsemu pa je bil namen moje raziskave pridobiti vpogled v to, kakšen odnos imajo otroci do blagovnih znamk, z namenom, da bi kasnejše raziskave lahko moje ugotovitve analizirale na večjem in reprezentativnejšem vzorcu, ki bi omogočil posplošitve.

Appendix 2: History of branding

Branding has had different roles over the past few decades. The word branding originates in the Old Norse word “brandr”, which means “to burn”. Early societies used to stamp their livestock by burning a mark on them to distinguish one farmer’s cattle from another’s and indicate ownership. If a farmer and their cattle had a high-quality reputation, the animals with their brand were preferred (Bonchek & France, 2016; Blackett, 2003, p. 13, 14). Later on, the same concept was transferred onto the first “mass-produced” goods – clay pots. Potters would mark their pots by drawing a mark (e.g. a star or a fish) on the bottom of the pot to better differentiate their work. This points to the fact that visual symbols were the first form of brands (Blackett, 2003, p. 14).

The widescale use of brands began in the early 20th century. The industrial revolution opened the door to mass markets and consumer products, and many companies, such as P&G, General Motors, and Ford, began competing for consumers on the world market. Many of the best-known brands today emerged in this period, e.g. Singer, Coca-Cola, Quaker, Kodak, American Express, etc. However, it was the growth of the economy after World War II, and with it the rise of the middle class and boom in advertising, that gave a push to brands and consumerism. With the invention of mass broadcasting systems and the improvement of communications, competition among products and services kept increasing and branding helped businesses stand out. Furthermore, brands helped companies convey to the consumers the message about what their products or services had to offer (Blackett, 2003, p. 15). Later, the perception of a brand became more the idea it represents, rather than a feature in itself – brands became something that company managed, not something they produced (Bonchek & France, 2016).

Today, brands are no longer limited to corporations – in the past decade, we could, for example, observe the emergence of “personality brands” in the celebrity culture, which are built with the use of looks, personal values, and their associations. Nowadays, the pressing environmental issues are forcing companies to adapt their business models by innovation, which influences the communication of the company with consumers through brands as well. Additionally, new consumer markets, such as China, India and the Latin America, are growing rapidly, which could result in a more internationally diverse array of the leading brands in the world, lowering the power of the currently dominating US and European brands (Davis, 2009, p. 20). There is also a trend of companies perceiving brands as relationship-building tools and introducing new brand roles to the consumers. For example, Disney switched the roles of people involved in the consumer process in their amusement parks from operators-riders to cast members-guests. Lyft redefined the traditional roles in the taxi industry from driver-passenger to friend-friend by, for example, encouraging Lyft passengers to sit up front next to the driver, as if they were getting a ride from a friend rather than a random driver (Bonchek & France, 2016). These examples also show that the concept of branding has been successfully implemented to the service sector, where many

service providers, like Disney and Lyft, have built powerful global brands (Stobart, 1994, p. 4).

Appendix 3: Ethics of branding to children

Advertising and branding specifically to children raise many ethical questions. Companies that target children spend millions of dollars annually to do so across different sectors (toys, food, beverages, games, and clothing). They place ads on both the traditional media (TV, radio, and print), as well as on new media, such as the Internet, apps, DVDs and mobiles. Furthermore, they use in-store advertising, promotions, and event sponsorships to reach children. When determining if it is ethical to target children, a company should consider two central issues. The first issue is that children do not have a fully developed cognitive ability and are thus unable to fully understand the persuasive nature of advertising. And since the basic ethical tenet is that the targeted audience must understand and be aware that the content directed at them is advertising, this point suggests that advertising to children is unethical. Secondly, there is the question of the product advertised. It is agreed upon that advertisements for adult products (e.g. tobacco and alcoholic beverages) are inappropriate for children, and a lot of effort is put into minimizing its advertising in programing frequented by children. However, the question about advertising food and beverage products involves controversy. It is proven that these ads encourage childhood obesity and thus compromise their health, however, it is not legally forbidden to direct them at children. Companies in this industry should make a voluntary ethical decision to advertise fairly and try to exclude children from their marketing efforts (Snyder, 2017, p. 50, 51 80, 81).

There are a couple of legal guidelines that guide contemporary advertising in Slovenia today, among them the Media Law (In Slovenian: *Zakon o medijih, ZMed*) Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 110/2006, and the Slovenian Advertising Code (In Slovenian: Slovenski oglaševalski kodeks, SOK). The mentioned law and code also regulate advertising to children. Article 49 of ZMed states that the advertisements where the target audience are children should not include scenes of violence, pornography, and other content that could harm children's health, psychological, or physical development or in any other way affect the susceptibility of children. Furthermore, Article 49 states that the advertisements should not morally or psychically hurt children. Thus, it is forbidden to encourage children to purchase products or services by exploiting their inexperience and gullibility, it is forbidden to encourage children to persuade parents or anyone else to buy products or services, it is forbidden to exploit the trust children have in their parents, teachers, or any other person, and it is forbidden to depict children in dangerous situations in these advertisements.

SOK was developed by the Slovenian Chamber of Advertising and it works in parallel with the law. It often fills in the gaps where the law is flawed. But while it can be used to resolve disputes in the field of advertising, SOK has no legal power. It can only be used for the assessment of broader judgment, so it is a self-regulatory act. SOK addresses the topic of advertising to children in Act 18, where a child is defined as a person younger than 16

years. It states that children do not have the same knowledge, experience, and mature judgment as adults do, so advertisements that directly or indirectly target children should consider the specifics of children (e.g. how they perceive advertisements and how they react to them). Furthermore, Act 18 forbids advertising products that are not suitable for children in the media that mainly targets children. It is also not allowed to use advertisements that are made for children in the media with content unsuitable for children. Similarly to ZMed, SOK also forbids abusing the gullibility of children or their lack of experience. Advertisements should not contain scenes of psychological or physical violence, or any other content that could be detrimental to the overall development of children (Slovenska oglaševalska zbornica, 2009, p. 16–18).

SOK also does not allow the collection of children's or their parents' personal data without a prior permission by parents or legal guardians. According to the act, it is also forbidden for advertisers to create an image that children will be inferior or less popular to their peers if they do not own a specific product. Advertisements should also not evoke in children the feeling that they lack courage or loyalty if they do not buy a product. It is also not allowed for an advertisement to appeal to children to collect certain cards, stickers, covers, etc. When it comes to the prices in advertisements, they should not be presented as if the price makes the product easily affordable to their families and should not diminish the importance of price with words such as "only". Advertisements should also not promote a bad attitude towards road safety in children or undermine authority and parental judgment. There are also some limitations to how children can be portrayed in advertisements. For example, they should not drive vehicles, they should not be shown in dangerous situations (e.g. reaching for something on a dangerous surface or tilting across the window), they should not be shown using lighters, and they must not be encouraged to enter unfamiliar places or speak to strangers (Slovenska oglaševalska zbornica, 2009, p. 16–18).

A special section is also devoted to advertising of food and drinks to children. Food and drink advertisements should not promote poor eating habits, they should not actively encourage children to eat or drink at bedtime or eat snacks and sweets frequently during the day, they should not encourage children to eat more than usual, or mislead them about any physical, social, or psychological benefits the consumption of a product may have (Slovenska oglaševalska zbornica, 2009, p. 16–18).

As we can observe, ZMed protects children as consumers very loosely and does not greatly limit advertisements, but SOK complements it and defines much stricter rules for advertising to children. However, the provisions of SOK are often not considered and there are only a few good practices in the European Union when it comes to these types of documents. In Slovenia, the exposure of children to company advertisements increased between 2005 and 2011, even though companies and the government joined the EU's initiative to reduce the exposure of children to advertisements. The reason for this is probably the dispersion of the legislative frameworks (Zveza potrošnikov Slovenije, 2016).

Appendix 4: Children and brand recognition

Product	Brand indicated	Frequency
<i>Foods</i>		
Cereal	Yes	5
Candy	Yes	4
Cookies	Yes	4
Soft drinks	Yes	4
Chips	Yes	3
Ice cream	Yes	3
Fruit juice	Yes	2
Peanut butter	Yes	2
Bakery foods	No	-
Bottled water	No	-
Butter	No	-
Canned vegetables	No	-
Coffee	No	-
Detergent	No	-
Eggs	No	-
Fish	No	-
Fruits	No	-
Meat	No	-
Milk	No	-
Popcorn	No	-
Vegetables	No	-
<i>Non-foods</i>		
Toys	Yes	16
Clothing	Yes	8
Records/cassettes	Yes	7
Video games	Yes	7
Sporting goods	Yes	6
Cosmetics/toiletries	Yes	5
Shoes	Yes	4
Stereos/jam boxes	Yes	3
Bicycles	Yes	2
Computer/software	Yes	2
Skateboards/skates	Yes	2
Television sets	Yes	1
Books	No	-
Jewelry	No	-
Stickers	No	-
Telephones	No	-

Source: Gunter, B., & Furnham, A. (2004).

Appendix 5: Basic information about focus group participants

Number of participants	Focus group	Gender	Age	Grade	School
1	FG1	Female	7	2	Primary school A
2	FG1	Female	8	2	Primary school A
3	FG1	Female	8	2	Primary school A
4	FG1	Female	8	2	Primary school A
5	FG1	Female	7	2	Primary school A
6	FG1	Female	8	2	Primary school A
7	FG1	Female	7	2	Primary school A
8	FG1	Female	8	2	Primary school A
9	FG1	Female	8	2	Primary school A
10	FG1	Female	8	2	Primary school A
1	FG2	Male	7	2	Primary school A
2	FG2	Male	8	3	Primary school A
3	FG2	Male	7	2	Primary school A
4	FG2	Male	8	3	Primary school A
5	FG2	Male	7	2	Primary school A
6	FG2	Male	8	2	Primary school A
7	FG2	Male	8	2	Primary school A
1	FG3	Male	11	6	Primary school A
2	FG3	Male	11	6	Primary school A
3	FG3	Male	11	6	Primary school A
4	FG3	Male	12	6	Primary school A
5	FG3	Male	11	6	Primary school A
6	FG3	Male	11	6	Primary school A
7	FG3	Male	11	6	Primary school A
8	FG3	Male	11	6	Primary school A
9	FG3	Male	11	6	Primary school A
1	FG4	Female	13	8	Primary school A
2	FG4	Female	11	6	Primary school A
3	FG4	Female	13	8	Primary school A
4	FG4	Female	12	6	Primary school A
5	FG4	Female	11	6	Primary school A
6	FG4	Female	13	8	Primary school A
7	FG4	Female	12	6	Primary school A
1	FG5	Male	12	7	Primary school B
2	FG5	Male	10	4	Primary school B
3	FG5	Male	10	5	Primary school B
4	FG5	Male	10	5	Primary school B
5	FG5	Male	10	4	Primary school B
6	FG5	Male	9	4	Primary school B
7	FG5	Male	11	5	Primary school B
8	FG5	Male	10	5	Primary school B
9	FG5	Male	12	7	Primary school B
10	FG5	Male	13	8	Primary school B

(table continues)

Source: Own work.

Number of participants	Focus group	Gender	Age	Grade	School
1	FG6	Female	12	7	Primary school B
2	FG6	Female	12	7	Primary school B
3	FG6	Female	10	5	Primary school B
4	FG6	Female	12	7	Primary school B
5	FG6	Female	10	5	Primary school B
6	FG6	Female	12	7	Primary school B
7	FG6	Female	11	5	Primary school B
8	FG6	Female	13	8	Primary school B
9	FG6	Female	10	4	Primary school B

Source: Own work.

Appendix 6: Discussion guide

Uvodna vprašanja

Ime, starost, razred.

1. Ali sodelujete pri nakupih izdelkov, greste z mamo, očetom v trgovino?
2. Ali pomagate izbrati izdelke v trgovini, ali vplivate na nakup? Kako?
3. Ali sami nakupujete? Če ja, kaj? Z žepnino? Kdaj nakupujete sami? Kje nakupujete?
4. Kako bi razložili, kaj pomeni izraz »blagovna znamka«?
5. Kdaj ste prvič prišli v stik z znanimi blagovnimi znamkami? Ali so vam jih predstavili/kupili starši, ali ste jih videli v reklami, ali izvedeli preko prijateljev/sošolcev?
6. Ali so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu različnih izdelkov? Če ja, pri katerih?
7. Kje dobite informacije o blagovnih znamkah?

Blagovne znamke – prehranski izdelki

8. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »sladkarije« - npr. na čokolado, bombone?
 - a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu sladkarij? Zakaj?
9. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »gazirane pijače« - na pijače z mehurčki?
 - a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu gaziranih pijač? Zakaj?
10. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »sokove« - npr. pomarančne, jabolčne ipd.?
 - a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu sokov? Zakaj?
11. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »paštete« - npr. na mesne in ribje namaze?
 - a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu paštet? Zakaj?
12. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »kosmiče«?
 - a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu kosmičev? Zakaj?
13. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »slane prigrizke«?
 - a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu slanih prigrizkov? Zakaj?
14. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »mleko«?
 - a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu mleka? Zakaj?

Blagovne znamke – neprehranski izdelki

15. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »oblačila« - npr. na majice, hlače, trenerko?
 - a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu oblačil? Zakaj?

- b) Ali vam je pomembno, da vaši prijatelji, družina nosijo oblačila določenih blagovnih znamk?
 - c) Ali menite, da bi se prijatelji manj družili z vami, če ne bi nosili oblačil določenih blagovnih znamk?
16. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »obutev« - npr. na teniske, čevlje, copate?
- a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu obutve? Zakaj?
 - b) Ali vam je pomembno, da vaši prijatelji, družina nosijo obutev določenih blagovnih znamk?
 - c) Ali menite, da bi se prijatelji manj družili z vami, če ne bi nosili obutve določenih blagovnih znamk?
17. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »kozmetiko« - npr. makeup, kreme?
- a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu kozmetike? Zakaj?
18. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »igračke«?
- a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu igrač? Zakaj?
19. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »video igre« - npr. na konzole in njihove igre ali igre za računalnik?
- a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu video konzol? Zakaj?
20. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »knjige« - npr. na pravljice, učbenike?
- a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu knjig? Zakaj?
21. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na »mobilne telefone«?
- a) Ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu mobilnih telefonov? Zakaj?

Najljubša blagovna znamka – opis

22. Katera blagovna znamka je tebi najljubša?
23. Ali bi znali narisati logotip te blagovne znamke?
24. Ali veste, kakšen je slogan te blagovne znamke?
25. Katere 3 besede najbolje opišejo to blagovno znamko?
26. Kakšne občutke v vas vzbuja ta blagovna znamka? Zakaj?
27. Kakšne osebnostne lastnosti mislite, da ima ta blagovna znamka? Kako bi jo opisali? Je stara ali mlada? Je šaljiva ali resna? Je družabna ali se drži zase?

Appendix 7: Worksheet and stickers for children

IME: _____ STAROST, RAZRED: _____

		Prehranski izdelki	Neprehranski izdelki		
BLAGOVNA ZNAMKA NAJBOLJ POMEMBNA				BLAGOVNA ZNAMKA NAJBOLJ POMEMBNA	
BLAGOVNA ZNAMKA NAJMANJ POMEMBNA				BLAGOVNA ZNAMKA NAJMANJ POMEMBNA	

NAJLJUBŠA BLAGOVNA ZNAMKA: _____

LOGTIP



SLOGAN:

Katere 3 besede najboljše opišejo to blagovno znamko?

_____, _____, _____

Kakšne občutke v vas vzbuja ta blagovna znamka? Zakaj?

Kakšne osebnostne lastnosti ima ta blagovna znamka? Kako bi jo opisali? Je stara ali mlada? Je šaljiva ali resna? Družabna, ali se drži zase?

	SLADKARIJE		OBLAČILA
	GAZIRANE PIJAČE (Z MEHURČKI)		OBUTEV
	SOKOVI (BREZ MEHURČKOV)		KOZMETIKA
	PAŠTETE		IGRAČE
	KOSMIČI		IGRALNE KONZOLE
	SLANI PRIGRIZKI		KNJIGE
	MLEKO		MOBILNI TELEFONI

Appendix 8: Answers and codes: Participation level in the shopping process at home

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Do you participate in the shopping process at home? Do you go to the store with your mom and dad?	FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes</i> . P1: <i>My dad goes to the store on Sundays, I go with him almost every time.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • With dad on Sunday
	FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes</i> .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes
	FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes</i> .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes
	FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes</i> .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes
	FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	All participants: <i>Yes</i> . P1: <i>[I go shopping with my parents] too often! I do not like to go to the store.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Go shopping with parents too often • Do not like to go to store
	FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	All participants: <i>Yes</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes

Source: Own work.

Appendix 9: Answers and codes: Level and type of help when shopping with parents

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Do you help your parents when you go shopping with them? If yes, how?	FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes. I help put products in the shopping cart.</i> P1: <i>I helped my dad choose a gift for my mom, for her birthday. We bought her a pajama.</i> P2: <i>Sometimes when my mom forgets the note with the groceries we must buy, I help her remember what else we need to buy.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Put products in shopping cart • Help choose gift for mom • Help mom remember groceries we need
	FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes. I help put products in the shopping cart.</i> P1: <i>I can choose my own toys, like Lego.</i> P2: <i>I can choose the shoes I like and the size that fits me.</i> P3: <i>I can sometimes help decide which products to buy. For example, pasta – I always choose macaroni.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Put products in shopping cart • Choose toys • Choose shoes and size • Sometimes can decide which products parents buy
	FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes.</i> P1: <i>My mom asks me what I like, and I can choose. Mostly when we shop for clothes, or shoes, or products that are intended for me.</i> P3: <i>Yes, me too. And sometimes I can also help choosing what food we buy, like for example candy.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Put products in shopping cart • Can choose own clothes and shoes • Can choose products intended for me • Can sometimes help choose which food parents buy, e.g. candy
	FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes.</i> P1: <i>I help my parents choose products.</i> P2: <i>I put things in the cart.</i> P3: <i>I don't choose alone and put the product in the cart, I ask my mom first.</i> P4: <i>I sometimes recommend products to my parents, if I know the products and if I am familiar with them.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Help choose products • Ask mom before putting products in cart • Recommend products to parents if familiar with it

(table continues)

Source: Own work.

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Do you help your parents when you go shopping with them? If yes, how?	FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<p>All participants: <i>Yes.</i></p> <p>P1: <i>I help put products in the cart and carry the shopping list.</i></p> <p>P2: <i>I help remembering which products we need.</i></p> <p>P3: <i>I help choose toys.</i></p> <p>P4: <i>[I also help choose] cereal, yogurt. Things I will eat.</i></p> <p>P5: <i>Yes, yogurt.</i></p> <p>P6: <i>And candy.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Help remember which products they have to buy • Put products in shopping cart • Read groceries from shopping list • Help choose toys, cereal, yogurt, candy • Help choose products intended for them
	FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<p>All participants: <i>Yes.</i></p> <p>P1: <i>When I go with my mom, I write a list of things we need and carry it in the store and read from the list. I also help my mom find products, because I usually know better where the products are located in the store.</i></p> <p>P2: <i>I have a very good memory and my mom always tells me things we have to buy. Before we leave the store, she asks me if there is anything we forgot to buy.</i></p> <p>All participants: <i>Help choose products at the store.</i></p> <p>P3: <i>They often ask me to choose the bread I like.</i></p> <p>P4: <i>You choose the healthier one (bread)?</i></p> <p>P5: <i>Yes, I choose the one I know my mom would take.</i></p> <p>P6: <i>[I can help choose] when we go shopping for clothes.</i></p> <p>P7: <i>My mom often asks me to choose the juice when we know we will have visitors and I know what we usually like to drink.</i></p> <p>P8: <i>I go shopping for my clothes with my mom. She chooses the store because she is familiar with them and I can choose clothes I like, so I actually wear them and not just keep them in my closet.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Write a list of things we have to buy • Carry the list in the store and read from it • Find products • Know where products in store are located more than my mom • Good memory, mom tells products and asks to remember them • Before we leave store, I list the products • Help choose products in store • Choose bread • Choose healthy bread, like mom • Choose when shopping clothes • Mom chooses store, I choose pieces of clothing • Choosing juice for when we have visitors

Source: Own work.

Appendix 10: Answers and codes: Shopping alone and what children shop for

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Do you ever go shopping alone? If yes, what do you buy?	FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	<p>All participants: <i>Yes.</i></p> <p>P1: <i>My mom sometimes gives me money and asks me to go to the store close to the house.</i></p> <p>P2: <i>Every year when we go to the seaside, my mom gives me and my brother Croatian Kunas and asks us to go get bread from the store.</i></p> <p>P3: <i>Sometimes my mom asks me to go buy bread from the store.</i></p> <p>P4: <i>Sometimes when I go to my grandma and she is making pancakes, she doesn't have Nutella. She usually asks me if I can go buy it in the nearby store. She gives me money and I go buy it.</i></p> <p>P5: <i>My dad once asked me and my brother to get cooking cream when we were on the seaside, but we didn't know which one to buy.</i></p> <p>P6: <i>Once my mom was getting a haircut done and she was thirsty, but she couldn't go buy anything. She asked me if I could go buy a bottle of water for her and gave me money, so I did.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Mom gives money and asks to buy something from store close to home • Mom gives Croatian Kunas and asks to buy bread when at seaside • Mom asks to buy bread from store • Grandma asks to buy Nutella from nearby store when she is making pancakes • Dad asks to buy cooking cream • Mom asks to buy water when she cannot do it herself
	FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	<p>All participants: <i>Almost never.</i></p> <p>P1: <i>If I go alone, I buy myself candy.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Almost never. • Buy candy if in store alone
	FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	<p>All participants: <i>Yes.</i></p> <p>P1: <i>Yes, [mom sometimes gives me money and asks me to go get something in the store close to the house].</i></p> <p>P2: <i>Sometimes when I am at my dad's.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Mom gives money and asks to buy something in store near house • When at dad's

(table continues)

Source: Own work.

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Do you ever go shopping alone? If yes, what do you buy?	FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Sometimes</i> . P1: <i>For my birthday</i> . P2: <i>When my mom asks me to get something from the store</i> .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sometimes • For birthday • If mom asks to grab something from nearby store
	FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	All participants: <i>Yes</i> . P1: <i>Yes, after school</i> . P2: <i>Candy</i> . [To which most agreed.] P3: <i>Toys and bread</i> . P4: <i>And something to drink</i> .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Go shopping alone after school • Buy candy, toys, bread, something to drink
	FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	All participants: <i>Yes</i> . P1: <i>Chocolate</i> P2: <i>Basically, what my mom asks me to buy. Because I often go with her, I know approximately which products she buys, so I try to take those products. For example, bread, I know which one she usually takes so I take that one</i> . P3: <i>If we make pancakes and we are out of eggs, I go to Mercator to buy them, because it is close</i> . P4: <i>We have a neighbour who has chicken and sells eggs. If we run out of eggs, I take the money and go buy them. Sometimes she “trades” the eggs for empty egg cartons/boxes too</i> . P5: <i>Bio!</i> P4: <i>Yes, bio</i> . P6: <i>Sometimes when I go to catechesis, I go to the store and buy something [cookies, chips, or cola] for myself</i> .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Chocolate • What mom asks me to buy • I know what mom usually buys so I buy the same • Go to store alone if we need something quickly – eggs for pancakes • Go to neighbour who sells eggs • Shop alone for candy or chocolate when going to catechesis

Source: Own work.

Appendix 11: Answers and codes: Pocket money and how children spend it

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Do you have your own pocket money? Do you spend it or save it?	FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes</i> P1: <i>I have my own wallet and money. Sometimes I forget it at home and my mom has to remind me to take it when we go to store.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Own a wallet, often forget at home when going to store
	FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes.</i> P1: <i>I Sometimes spend the money on snacks, like candy.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Spend it on candy
	FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	4 participants: <i>Have pocket money.</i> 3 participants: <i>Don't have pocket money.</i> P1: <i>I am saving my money for something bigger.</i> Participants: <i>sometimes buy snacks with their pocket money, but not often.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have pocket money • Don't have pocket money • Saving pocket money • Sometimes buy snacks with pocket money
	FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	All participants: <i>have pocket money, but do not like to spend it.</i> P1: <i>I am saving it. I don't know for what, but I am saving it.</i> Participants: <i>most of the time when they go shopping with their pocket money, they buy clothes.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have pocket money • Like to save the money • Unsure why saving it • When shopping with their money, they mostly shop clothes
	FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	All participants: <i>Have pocket money.</i> All participants: <i>I never spend my pocket money on clothes.</i> Buy toys, candy, something to drink...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have pocket money • Never spend pocket money on clothes • Buy toys, candy, something to drink
	FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	Not all participants have pocket money. P1: <i>My pocket money is actually the money my mom gives me when I ask her for it, if I want to buy something.</i> All participants: <i>Sometimes I spend my own money, not often.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not all participants have pocket money • Get pocket money if ask mom for something specific they want • Rarely spend pocket money

Source: Own work.

Appendix 12: Answers and codes: Children shopping online

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Do you ever shop online?	FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Yes, with the help of parents. On E-bay, Amazon, Bolha, Wish.</i> P1: <i>Yes, a lot. A lot-lot.</i> P2: <i>Yes, I shop on Nike website. I order shoes and clothes there. I use my mom's credit card. She helps me.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Ebay, Amazon, Bolha, Wish • A lot • On Nike website • With mom's credit card, she helps
	FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	All participants: <i>Yes, with the help of parents.</i> P1: <i>Yes.</i> P2: <i>With my mom.</i> P3: <i>With my dad.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • With the help of mom • With the help of dad
	FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	All participants: <i>Yes, with the help of parents.</i> P1: <i>My mom buys online all the time.</i> P2: <i>No one from my family ever bought products from abroad, we always order from Slovenian online shops.</i> P3: <i>We sometimes buy small, unimportant, cheap products online, because you never know what the quality will be like. So, if the product is not OK you didn't spend too much money on it.</i> P4: <i>And clothes. You always hear people say that you should go to the store and try it on, because it can be a different model, can be very expensive, you try it on, and it just isn't the right size for you.</i> P5: <i>We sometimes first check on a shop's website what clothes they have and then go to the store if we liked something we found online.</i> P4: <i>I shop online with the help of my parents. For example, I got inline skates for my birthday and my parents bought them online. I was able to choose the model and color I liked, and they made the purchase.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes, with help of parents • Mom shops online frequently • Never buy from foreign online stores • Buy small, unimportant items that are cheap, in case it is not a good product • Do not shop clothes online, you never know if it will fit • Check the store's website for clothes, if we like something we go to the store and buy there • Choose model and color of inline skates, parents make the purchase

Source: Own work.

Appendix 13: Answers and codes: What children understand under the term "brand"

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Do you know what a "brand" is?	FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	P1: <i>A brand is for example when we go to the store and according to it, we get to know the price.</i> P2: <i>Sometimes there is something drawn and written. That is a brand, I think.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brand tells price • Brand is something drawn and written on product
	FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	P1: <i>A brand tells you what the price is.</i> P2: <i>The firm.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brand tells price • The firm
	FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	P1: <i>For example, a piece of clothing has a brand, like Nike.</i> P2: <i>Food products also have their own brands, for example "Droga" /.../ and "Delamaris".</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clothing has brand • Nike • Food products have brands • Droga, Delamaris
	FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	P1, P2: <i>A company that produces something.</i> P3: <i>Brands are more expensive.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brand is a company • Brands are expensive
	FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	P1: <i>A brand is a product, it's a firm that produces it.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brand is a product • Brand is a firm
	FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	P1: <i>Clothes have brands, for example.</i> P2: <i>The producer is represented by the brand. And, also, food. Every product has its own brand.</i> P3: <i>A company that produces their own products.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clothes have brands • Food has brands • Producer is represented by brand • Every product has brand • Company that produces something has a brand

Source: Own work.

Appendix 14: Answers and codes: Level of brand importance when buying products

Question	Focus group	Primary School	Answers	Codes
Do you think brands are important when buying products?	FG3 – older boys	Primary School A	P1: <i>It depends.</i> P2: <i>It is important. Because some brands are high quality and you recognize them, but if you take some other random clothing brand you can't know how long it will last.</i> P3: [It is important] <i>when buying food. Some food brands put "poison" in their food and others are good.</i> P4: [It is also important] <i>when buying shoes. It has to look good.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It depends • For some products yes, other no • Yes, very important • Some brands are high quality and others no • Can't know how long a piece of clothing will last if not a specific brand • Important when buying food • Some brands put "poison" in their food • Important when buying shoes • Has to look good
	FG4 – older girls	Primary School A	P1: <i>Yes, they are important.</i> P2: <i>Especially for clothes.</i> P3: <i>When buying chips, I always search Pringles.</i> P4: <i>Also when buying sneakers.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Important when buying clothes • Important when buying sneakers • Important when buying chips
	FG5 – older boys	Primary School B	All participants: Yes P1: <i>It is not good to always buy the same brand, because with clothes and shoes you can see differences in quality of different brands.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • Not good to always buy the same brand • Differences in quality among brands

(table continues)

Source: Own work.

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Do you think brands are important when buying products?	FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<p>Opinions were divided: Yes, no, it depends.</p> <p>P1: <i>For example, I don't think you always have to wear Adidas or Nike. Because it is not important, I think it is just so that other people think, "Oh, you can afford these". But basically, you spend a lot of money for these brands when you could buy 5 different products for the same amount of money.</i></p> <p>P2: <i>It is a bit stupid to buy a shirt or something just because it has the brand written on it.</i></p> <p>P3: <i>I think brands are important when buying food. Because one brand has better food than other.</i></p> <p>P4: <i>[Brands are important] when buying clothes, so that I can wear them for a long time. Even if it is a bit more expensive, it is better quality.</i></p> <p>P5: <i>It is important for things that you want to have for a longer period of time.</i></p> <p>P6: <i>And with shoes. I once bought a pair of expensive shoes and I wore them from home to school and back, and they fell apart really quickly. So, I said I would not buy shoes in this store anymore, because they are expensive, but low quality.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yes • No • It depends • Not important to always wear Nike or Adidas – sometimes people buy brands just for other people to think they can afford them • You can buy 5 products with the same amount of money you spend on a pair of Adidas or Nike shoes • Stupid to buy something just because it has a brand written on it • Brands important when buying food • Brands important when buying clothes, so that you can have it for a longer time • Higher price is acceptable in exchange for better quality • Brands important when buying things that you want to own for a longer time • Bad experience with expensive brand, will not buy from this store anymore

Source: Own work.

Appendix 15: Answers and codes: Children's source of information about brands

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Where do you get your information about a brand? Do you remember your first encounter with a brand?	FG1 – younger girls	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Family members.</i> P1: <i>I went shopping with my aunt one day. She said we were going to H&M. I didn't know what that is, so she said it is a very good brand for clothes.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family members. • Shopping with aunt • H&M a good brand for clothes
	FG2 – younger boys	Primary school A	All participants: <i>Mom and dad introduced to brand and are main source of information.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mom and dad
	FG3 – older boys	Primary school A	P1: <i>For example, I know that the brand is good quality because of my past experience. And also if I see other friends that have this brand.</i> P2: <i>If most of the people are wearing a specific brand, I know that it is good.</i> P3: <i>I know the brand is good if other people wear it. And for example, I ask members of my family if they own product of that brand about their experiences. I also ask the seller about the quality of a brand.</i> P4: <i>I know the brand is good if it has a higher price.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Past experience • Brand is good quality if other friends have it • If most people wear it is good • Ask family members about their experiences with the brand • Ask the seller about quality of the brand • Brand is good if it has higher price
	FG4 – older girls	Primary school A	P1: <i>You can see other people wearing the brands.</i> P2: <i>Also, from YouTubers.</i> P3: <i>From friends.</i> P4: <i>I don't know much about brands or trends, she tells me everything.</i> P5: [Smiling] <i>Yes.</i> P6: <i>From the Internet.</i> P7: <i>In store, from salesperson.</i> P8: <i>And parents.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Other people • YouTubers • Friends • The Internet • Salesperson • Parents

(table continues)

Source: Own work.

Question	Focus group	Primary school	Answers	Codes
Where do you get your information about a brand? Do you remember your first encounter with a brand?	FG5 – older boys	Primary school B	<p>P1: <i>From parents.</i></p> <p>P2: <i>On Google.</i></p> <p>P3: <i>When someone gives you advice. /.../ Whoever. He says he likes the firm and that he recommends it.</i></p> <p>P4: <i>In the store, the seller.</i></p> <p>P5: <i>Friends.</i></p> <p>P6: <i>From my own experience.</i></p> <p>Examples of first contact with brands:</p> <p>P1: <i>When I was about 4 years old, my dad liked Nike and he told me about it.</i></p> <p>P2: <i>When I was little, we went buying clothes and my dad explained to me about brands.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • From parents • On Google • From someone who gives you advice • In store from seller • From friends • From own experience
	FG6 – older girls	Primary school B	<p>Sources of information about brands: <i>Parents, from experiences, salesperson, sometimes Google</i></p> <p>P1: <i>If you shop online, you can see reviews of other people about this product, that is also a good source of information. They can write that the product tore apart quickly etc., and you can see more from that.</i></p> <p>Examples of first contact with brands:</p> <p>P2: <i>I think I came into contact with brands when I started first grade and my mom and I were preparing for my first day in school. But at that time, I wasn't that interested in brands.</i></p> <p>P2: <i>Probably very similar as she (P1) said, but also from my classmates, when they were arguing about which brand is better (Adidas or Nike, for example). And that is when I realized that there are differences in quality, models, etc. I realized every brand has a specific frame and sticks to it.</i></p> <p>P3: <i>When I was in 1st grade, I went shopping with my brother and dad for sneakers that my brother needed. I saw the brand, Nike, and asked my brother what it was, and he explained that this was a brand.</i></p> <p>P4: <i>I think it was when I went shopping with my mom for slippers for school and I saw a pair I liked but my mom said this brand that produces these doesn't have good quality products.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parents • Past experience • Salesperson • Google – rarely • Reviews on websites when shopping online • First came in contact when preparing for first school day with mom • First came in contact through my classmates • First came in contact when shopping for sneakers for my brother • First came in contact when shopping for slippers with my mom

Source: Own work.

Appendix 16: Ranking: Food and non-food product groups according to brand relevance when purchasing (FG1)

	FG1 – younger girls										
	Participant/ Food and non- food product groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Food product groups	<i>Candy</i>	1	7	7	7	7	1	7	5	1	7
	<i>Soft drinks</i>	6	5	1	4	6	2	1	2	5	5
	<i>Juices</i>	5	6	4	6	4	4	4	6	6	6
	<i>Pâté</i>	7	2	5	3	2	7	5	1	7	3
	<i>Cereal</i>	2	4	2	5	3	3	2	3	2	1
	<i>Salty snacks</i>	4	3	6	2	5	6	6	7	4	4
	<i>Milk</i>	3	1	3	1	1	5	3	4	3	2
Non- food product groups	<i>Clothes</i>	1	6	1	4	5	2	1	2	2	N/A
	<i>Shoes</i>	4	7	2	5	3	4	2	3	4	N/A
	<i>Cosmetics</i>	7	3	5	7	2	7	4	4	7	N/A
	<i>Toys</i>	6	5	4	6	4	6	5	7	5	N/A
	<i>Gaming consoles</i>	5	1	7	1	7	5	7	6	6	N/A
	<i>Books</i>	3	4	3	3	1	3	3	5	3	N/A
	<i>Mobile phones</i>	2	2	6	2	6	1	6	1	1	N/A

Source: Own work.

Appendix 17: Ranking: Food and non-food product groups according to brand relevance when purchasing (FG3)

	FG3 – younger boys									
	Participant/ Food and non-food product groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Food product groups	<i>Candy</i>	6	3	3	7	7	7	6	5	2
	<i>Soft drinks</i>	7	5	5	5	6	6	5	1	1
	<i>Juice</i>	3	4	4	3	5	5	4	6	4
	<i>Pâté</i>	4	2	2	4	2	2	2	3	7
	<i>Cereal</i>	2	1	6	2	1	4	1	4	5
	<i>Salty snacks</i>	5	7	7	6	3	3	7	7	3
	<i>Milk</i>	1	6	1	1	4	1	3	2	6
Non-food product groups	<i>Clothes</i>	3	4	2	1	1	1	3	3	5
	<i>Shoes</i>	4	2	3	2	3	2	1	2	3
	<i>Cosmetics</i>	7	5	4	5	2	6	5	7	4
	<i>Toys</i>	6	6	6	6	7	7	6	6	2
	<i>Gaming consoles</i>	1	3	5	4	5	5	4	4	7
	<i>Books</i>	5	7	7	7	6	3	7	5	6
	<i>Mobile phones</i>	2	1	1	3	4	4	2	1	1

Source: Own work.

Appendix 18: Ranking: Food and non-food product groups according to brand relevance when purchasing (FG4)

	FG4 – older girls							
	Participant/ Food and non-food product groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Food product groups	<i>Candy</i>	1	1	3	1	1	3	5
	<i>Soft drinks</i>	6	7	2	6	6	2	6
	<i>Juice</i>	5	6	6	7	5	7	4
	<i>Pâté</i>	4	2	1	4	2	1	1
	<i>Cereal</i>	2	3	7	3	4	5	2
	<i>Salty snacks</i>	7	4	4	5	3	4	3
	<i>Milk</i>	3	5	5	2	7	6	7
Non-food product groups	<i>Clothes</i>	1	2	2	1	2	1	1
	<i>Shoes</i>	2	1	1	5	1	2	3
	<i>Cosmetics</i>	5	4	3	2	4	4	2
	<i>Toys</i>	6	6	7	6	5	7	6
	<i>Gaming consoles</i>	4	5	5	4	7	5	5
	<i>Books</i>	7	7	6	7	6	6	7
	<i>Mobile phones</i>	3	3	4	3	3	3	4

Source: Own work.

Appendix 19: Ranking: Food and non-food product groups according to brand relevance when purchasing (FG5)

	FG5 – older boys										
	Participant/ Food and non- food product groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Food product groups	<i>Candy</i>	6	3	1	1	6	7	6	7	6	7
	<i>Soft drinks</i>	1	4	4	3	4	4	7	4	1	5
	<i>Juices</i>	2	5	3	4	5	6	3	2	4	6
	<i>Pâté</i>	4	2	7	5	3	2	2	1	7	3
	<i>Cereal</i>	3	7	5	6	2	1	5	3	3	2
	<i>Salty snacks</i>	5	6	2	2	7	5	4	6	5	4
	<i>Milk</i>	7	1	6	7	1	3	1	5	2	1
Non- food product groups	<i>Clothes</i>	3	1	5	5	4	4	5	3	3	3
	<i>Shoes</i>	1	2	4	4	3	3	4	5	2	4
	<i>Cosmetics</i>	4	5	6	6	5	5	6	6	6	5
	<i>Toys</i>	6	6	3	3	6	6	3	4	5	6
	<i>Gaming consoles</i>	5	4	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1
	<i>Books</i>	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
	<i>Mobile phones</i>	2	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	4	2

Source: Own work.

Appendix 20: Ranking: Food and non-food product groups according to brand relevance when purchasing (FG6)

	FG6 – older girls									
	Participant/ Food and non-food product groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Food product groups	<i>Candy</i>	2	6	6	1	6	6	2	7	4
	<i>Soft drinks</i>	4	7	1	3	5	4	7	5	7
	<i>Juices</i>	3	1	4	4	3	2	3	2	5
	<i>Pâté</i>	7	2	3	7	4	7	5	6	2
	<i>Cereal</i>	5	5	7	5	2	3	4	4	1
	<i>Salty snacks</i>	6	4	2	2	7	5	6	3	3
	<i>Milk</i>	1	3	5	6	1	1	1	1	6
Non- food product groups	<i>Clothes</i>	3	1	1	3	2	2	2	2	2
	<i>Shoes</i>	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	3	5
	<i>Cosmetics</i>	4	4	4	2	4	4	3	1	3
	<i>Toys</i>	7	7	5	7	5	5	6	5	7
	<i>Gaming consoles</i>	6	6	7	5	7	7	7	7	6
	<i>Books</i>	5	5	3	6	3	6	4	6	1
	<i>Mobile phones</i>	2	3	6	4	6	3	5	4	4

Source: Own work.

Appendix 21: Analysis of rankings

In the first focus group, all 10 participants ranked food product groups based on the importance of brands when purchasing food product groups. One participant did not rank non-food product groups, thus 9 participants ranked non-food group products based on the importance of brands when purchasing non-food product groups.

The results indicate the participants in FG1 (younger girls) believe that that within food product groups, brands are the most important when purchasing milk, most often ranking it 1st. The participants in FG1 believe that brands are the least important when purchasing candy, since it was most often ranked 7th most often. Furthermore, the participants in FG1 believe that when purchasing non-food product groups, brands are most important when purchasing clothes and mobile phones, most often ranking them 1st. The participants also believe that among non-food products, brands are the least important when purchasing cosmetics, since it was most often ranked 7th.

In the third focus group, all 9 participants ranked food product groups based on the importance of brands when purchasing food product groups. Furthermore, all 9 participants ranked non-food product groups based on the importance of brands when purchasing non-food product groups.

The results show the participants in FG3 (older boys) believe that within food product groups, brands are the most important when purchasing milk, most often ranking it 1st. The participants in FG3 believe that brands are the least important when purchasing salty snacks, since it was most often ranked 7th. Furthermore, the participants in FG3 believe that when purchasing non-food product groups, brands are most important when purchasing mobile phones, most often ranking it 1st. Participants also believe that among non-food product groups, brands are the least important when purchasing *books*, since it was most often ranked 7th.

In the fourth focus group, all 7 participants ranked food product groups based on the importance of brands when purchasing food product groups. Furthermore, all 7 participants ranked non-food product groups based on the importance of brands when purchasing non-food product groups.

The results indicate the participants in FG4 (older girls) believe that that within food product groups, brands are the most important when purchasing candy, since it was most often ranked 1st. The participants in FG4 believe that brands are the least important when purchasing juice and milk, since they were most often ranked 7th. Furthermore, the participants in FG4 believe that when purchasing non-food product groups, brands are the most important when purchasing clothes, since it was most often ranked 1st. The participants also believe that among non-food product groups, brands are the least important when purchasing books, since it was most often ranked 7th.

In the fifth focus group, all 10 participants ranked food product groups based on the importance of brands when purchasing food product groups. Furthermore, all 10 participants ranked non-food product groups based on the importance of brands when purchasing non-food product groups.

The results show the participants in FG5 (older boys) believe that within food product groups, brands are the most important when purchasing milk, since it was most often ranked 1st. The participants in FG5 believe that brands are the least important when purchasing candy, since it was most often ranked 7th. Furthermore, the participants in FG5 believe that when purchasing non-food product groups, brands are the most important when purchasing gaming consoles, since it was most often ranked 1st. The participants also believe that among non-food product groups, brands are the least important when purchasing books, since it was most often ranked 7th.

In the sixth focus group, all 9 participants ranked food product groups based on the importance of brands when purchasing food product groups. Furthermore, all 9 participants ranked non-food product groups based on the importance of brands when purchasing non-food product groups.

The results indicate the participants in FG6 (older girls) believe that within food product groups, brands are the most important when purchasing milk, since it was most often ranked 1st. The participants in FG6 believe that brands are the least important when purchasing soft drinks and pâté, since they were most often ranked 7th. Furthermore, the participants in FG6 believe that when purchasing non-food product groups, brands are the most important when purchasing shoes, since it was most often ranked 1st. The participants also believe that among non-food products, brands are the least important when purchasing gaming consoles, since it was most often ranked 7th.

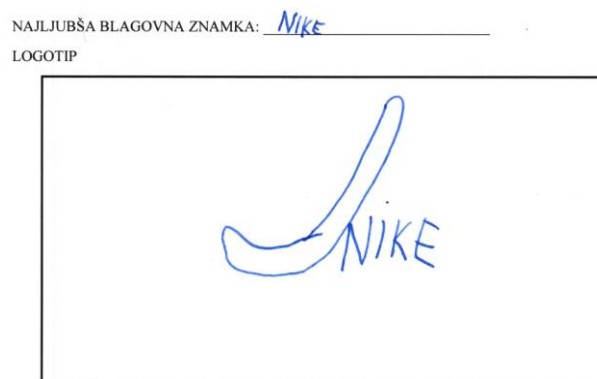
Appendix 22: Examples of favorite brands and their logos (FG1)

Figure 1: Participant A, focus group 1: Favorite brand and logo



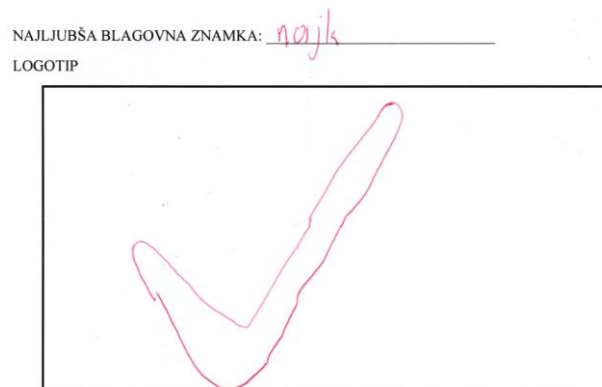
Source: Participant A, focus group 1 (2020).

Figure 2: Participant B, focus group 1: Favorite brand and logo



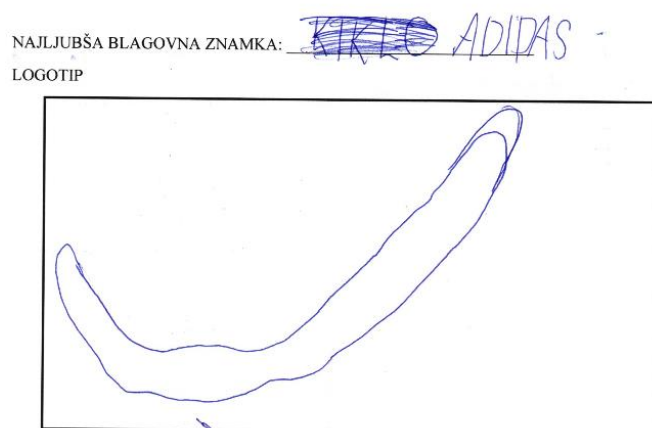
Source: Participant B, focus group 1 (2020).

Figure 3: Participant C, focus group 1: Favorite brand and logo



Source: Participant C, focus group 1 (2020).

Figure 4: Participant D, focus group 1: Favorite brand and logo



Source: Participant D, focus group 1 (2020).

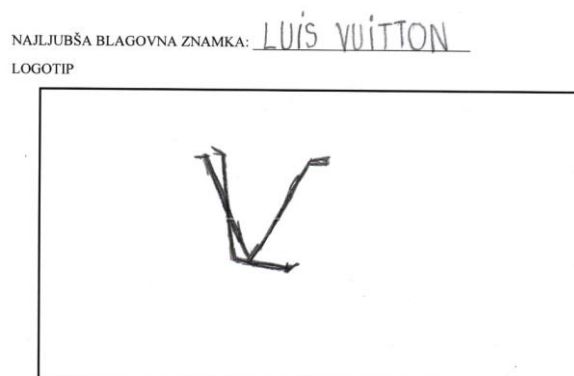
Appendix 23: Examples of favorite brands and their logos (FG3)

Figure 1: Participant A, focus group 3: Favorite brand and logo



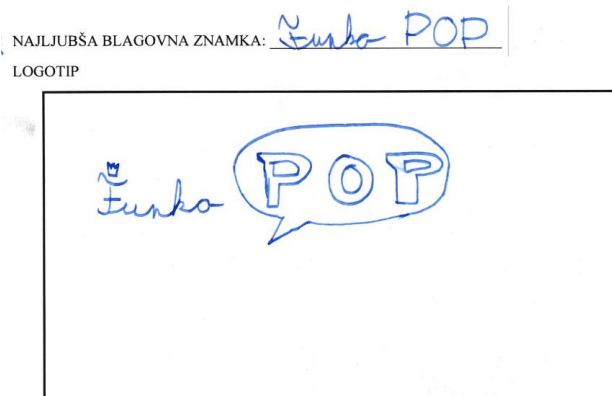
Source: Participant A, focus group 3 (2020).

Figure 2: Participant B, focus group 3: Favorite brand and logo



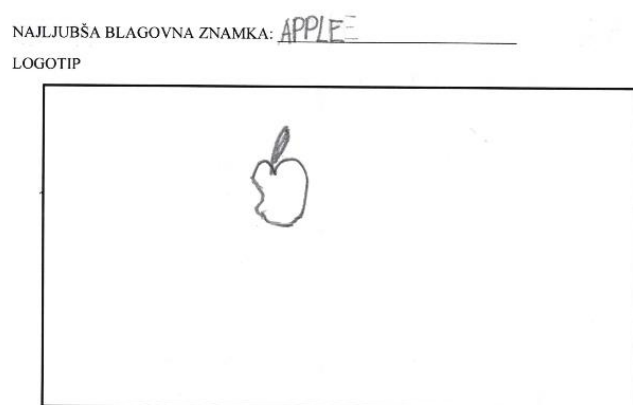
Source: Participant B, focus group 3 (2020).

Figure 3: Participant C, focus group 3: Favorite brand and logo



Source: Participant C, focus group 3 (2020).

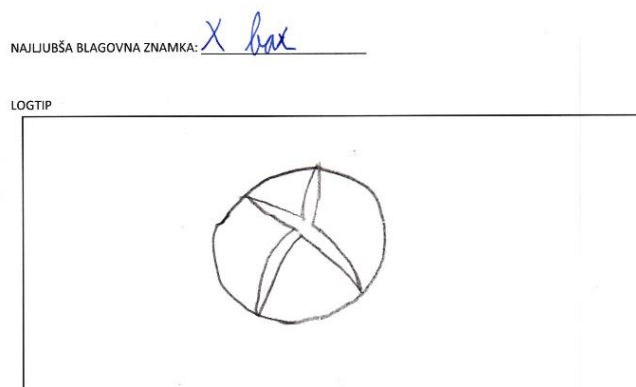
Figure 4: Participant D, focus group 3: Favorite brand and logo



Source: Participant D, focus group 3 (2020).

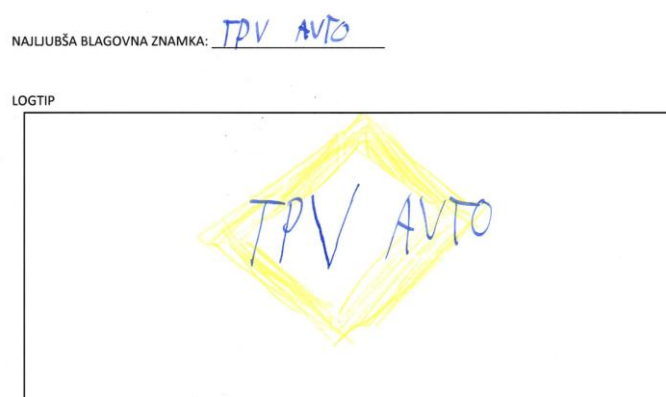
Appendix 24: Examples of favorite brands and their logos (FG5)

Figure 1: Participant A, focus group 5: Favorite brand and logo



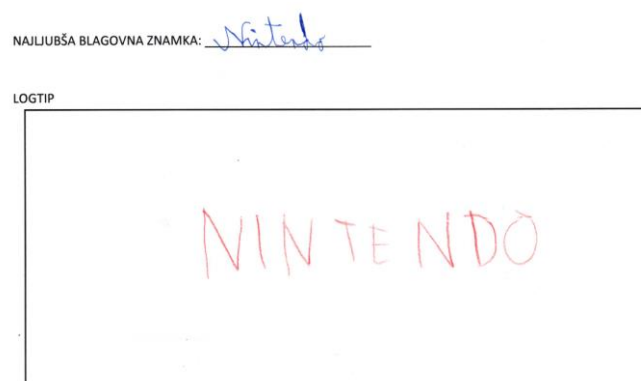
Source: Participant A, focus group 5 (2020).

Figure 2: Participant B, focus group 5: Favorite brand and logo



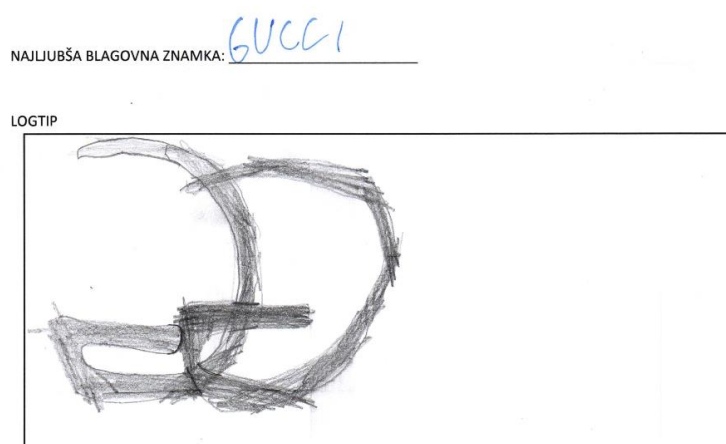
Source: Participant B, focus group 5 (2020).

Figure 3: Participant C, focus group 5: Favorite brand and logo



Source: Participant C, focus group 5 (2020).

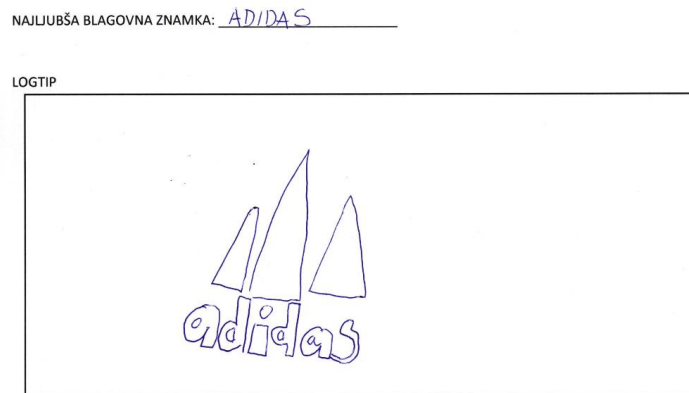
Figure 4: Participant D, focus group 5: Favorite brand and logo



Source: Participant D, focus group 5 (2020).

Appendix 25: Examples of favorite brands and their logos (FG6)

Figure 1: Participant A, focus group 6: Favorite brand and logo



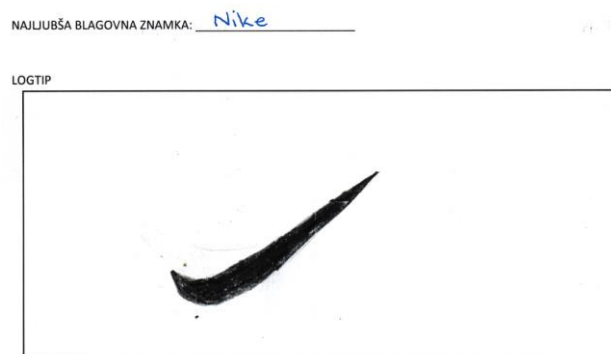
Source: Participant A, focus group 6 (2020).

Figure 2: Participant B, focus group 6: Favorite brand and logo



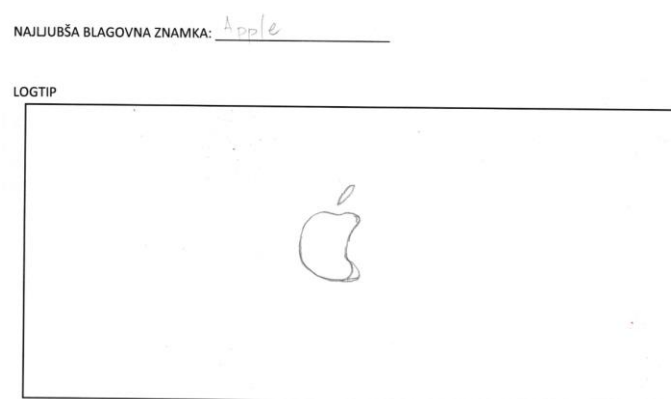
Source: Participant B, focus group 6 (2020).

Figure 3: Participant C, focus group 6: Favorite brand and logo



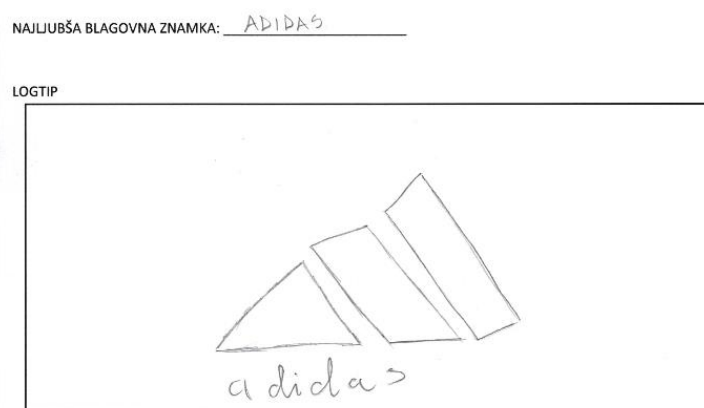
Source: Participant C, focus group 6 (2020).

Figure 4: Participant D, focus group 6: Favorite brand and logo



Source: Participant D, focus group 6 (2020).

Figure 5: Participant E, focus group 6: Favorite brand and logo



Source: Participant E, focus group 6 (2020).

Appendix 26: Examples of favorite brand descriptions

Figure 1: Participant A, focus group 1: Describing favorite brand (Nike)

Kakšne občutke v vas vzbuja ta blagovna znamka? Zakaj?

VESELA SEM KER IMAJO LEPE

MAJICE.

Kakšne osebnostne lastnosti mislite da ima ta blagovna znamka? Kako bi jo opisali? Je stara ali mlada? Je šaljiva ali resna? Je družabna ali se drži zase?

ŠPORTNA IN NASPEJANA

Source: Participant A, focus group 1 (2020).

Figure 2: Participant B, focus group 6: Describing favorite brand (L'Occitane)

Kakšne občutke v vas vzbuja ta blagovna znamka? Zakaj?

Veliko veselje in zadovoljstvo. Želi se mi, da je dobro za telo.

Kakšne osebnostne lastnosti ima ta blagovna znamka? Kako bi jo opisali? Je stara ali mlada? Je šaljiva ali resna? Družabna, ali se drži zase?

Je malce dražja, a zelo miha. Produkti so z nežnim vonjem, je mlada znamka in šaljiva.
Bila bi družabna.

Source: Participant B, focus group 6 (2020).

Figure 3: Participant C, focus group 3: Describing favorite brand (Nike)

Kakšne občutke v vas vzbuja ta blagovna znamka? Zakaj?

Nike je dobra znamka. Imam
veliko njegovih izdelkov, nekaj sportnih
majic in kratkih hlač in pa tudi
teniske

Kakšne osebnostne lastnosti mislite da ima ta blagovna znamka? Kako bi jo opisali? Je stara ali mlada? Je šaljiva ali resna? Je družabna ali se drži zase?

Nike je zelo dobra hkrati pa zelo
mlada znamka. Zasluži si spoštovanje.

Source: Participant C, focus group 3 (2020).

Appendix 27: Transcript of focus group debate (FG1)

I: Zdravo, moje ime je Iva in danes bi se z vami rada pogovarjala o nakupovanju. Če imate kakšno vprašanje, prosim, dvignite roko, tako bomo najlažje sodelovale. Bi se za začetek lahko predstavile?

[Vseh 10 deklic pove svoje ime.]

I: Moje prvo vprašanje je, če mogoče veste, kaj je blagovna znamka?

O1: Blagovna znamka je, recimo, ko gremo v trgovino pa nam pove ceno.

I: Aha, super, še kakšna ideja? Ne? No, blagovna znamka je ime, simbol ali oblika, ki jo najdemo na nekem izdelku (recimo na majici, hlačah, teniskah). Na podlagi blagovne znamke vemo, kdo je proizvajalec tega izdelka in lahko razlikujemo med različnimi izdelki. Recimo na teniskah, na katerih je gor narisana kljukica, vemo, da je blagovna znamka Nike.

O1: In Adidas.

O2: Puma!

I: Tako, vidite, poznate veliko blagovnih znamk.

O1: Ali pa kdaj je gor tudi kaj narisano pa noter kaj piše.

I: Tako je, tisto kar je narisano, je ponavadi logotip blagovne znamke.

O1: Pa recimo H &M!

I: Ja, H&M je recimo blagovna znamka.

O1: H in M! Pa na kakšnih majčkah je recimo napisan tudi »M« ali »XXL«.

I: Aha, to pa pove velikost majice, to ni blagovna znamka.

O1: Pa tudi trgovine imajo blagovne znamke.

O2: Naš sošolec, ki je tam notri, je imel zvezek in je gor pisalo Založba Ajda in je potem učiteljica prebrala Ajda, ampak je bilo v bistvu od našega sošolca.

I: Aha, je mislila, da je zvezek od Ajde.

[Deklice se smejijo.]

I: V redu, zdaj pa me zanima, koliko kaj ve sodelujete pri nakupovanju. Greste z mami in očitom v trgovino?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Moj oči gre. Ob nedeljah gre, pa grem jaz z njim.

I: Aha, greš z njim.

O1: Jaz imam svojo denarnico in denar, ki jo vzamem v trgovino. Včasih jo pozabim in me mami spomni, da jo vzamem s seboj.

I: O, imaš že svojo denarnico.

O2: Jaz imam pet denarnic!

I: In kaj pomagate svojim staršem pri nakupovanju?

O1: Ja, jaz dajem stvari v voziček.

Več deklic: Jaz tudi.

I: Kaj pa izbirat izdelke, pomagate izbirat izdelke?

O1: Ko imam rojstni dan, si lahko izberem.

O2: Jaz sem za svojo mami, ki je imela rojstni dan, očitu pomagala zbrat pižamo.

I: Lepo, si pomagala zbrat pižamo. Kako pa še pomagate?

O1: Ammm, jaz pomagam na primer mamici izbrat, ne vem, kaj bi vzela še tako pri koncu, pa jo še kaj spomnim – mogoče ko pozabimo listek doma napisat, pa se spomnim, kaj je pa ji pomagam.

I: Aha, super. Ti si prej rekla, da imaš svojo denarnico in denar, a same tudi kdaj nakupujete?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ja, recimo. Moj bratranec, ki je blizu tukaj doma in smo bili enkrat na igrišču, pa je imel s sabo svoj denar pa je šel sam v trgovino.

O2: Moja mami, če nima časa, meni reče pa grem jaz v trgovino blizu doma. Recimo po kruh.

I: Aha, greš kar sama.

O1: Ko smo na morju, nama mami z bratom da kune pa greva zjutraj po kruh.

O2: Jaz pa včasih, ko me mami prosi, da grem po kruh pa mi da denar, pa grem v trgovino, ki je zraven.

O3: Enkrat na morju z bratcem naju je oči prosil če greva po smetano v trgovino in nisva vedela, katero naj vzameva, ker je razlika.

I: Aha, pa če ne bi bila na morju ampak, bi šla recimo tukaj v Spar, bi vedela, katero smetano vzeti?

O1: Hmm, ne vem.

O2: Mi za rojstni dan damo denar pa rečemo, da naj si grejo sami kupit. Pa je šla moja prijateljica sama s svojimi prijateljicami nakupovat v Qulandijo.

O3: Mi smo pa zraven hotela na morju imeli trgovino pa sem šla kdaj po kruh.

O4: Jaz vedno, ko grem k babici pa če pečemo palačinke, včasih babi nima Nutelle pa reče, če lahko grem jaz iskat pa mi da potem denar in grem jaz tja.

O3: Jaz sem enkrat, ko je mami šla k frizerju pa je bila žejna in ni mogla iti iskat, pa mi je mami dala dva evra pa sem šla po vodo.

I: Aha, torej velikokrat greste tudi same v trgovino. Pa imate sicer tudi svojo žepnino?

Večina deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Učiteljica, kaj je žepnina?

O2: Denar.

I: To je denar, ki ti ga starši dajo recimo enkrat na mesec in je tvoj. In z njim kupiš, kar želiš.

O1: Jaz recimo dobim za rojstni dan pa šparam in si potem kaj kupim.

I: Aha, torej tudi za rojstni dan dobite denar. Zdaj pa me zanima, če se mogoče spomnite, kdo vam je prvič povedal za blagovne znamke. Ste jih spoznale, ker ste si same kaj kupile ali zato, ker so vam starši pokazali, mogoče prijatelji?

O1: Starši.

O2: Ne vem. Ne spomnim se.

O3: Jaz sem šla v trgovino z mami pa mi je povedala.

O4: Moj bratec je včeraj dobil teniske Nike. Smo šli v Ljubljano.

I: Kako pa veste, če so vam blagovne znamke všeč?

O1: Zato ker imajo lepe stvari.

O2: Ja, ker so lepe stvari, mi je všeč.

I: Aha, torej je pomembno, kako izgleda?

O1: Ja.

I: Super. Kje dobite informacije o blagovnih znamkah? Kdo vam pove, kakšne so te blagovne znamke?

Več deklic hkrati: Mami in oči.

O2: Jaz sem šla s teto enkrat v H&M, ko sem bila še majhna in nisem vedela, kaj to je. In mi je rekla, da je zelo dobra blagovna znamka za obleke.

I: Aha, potem v bistvu največkrat dobite informacije od družine, družina vam pove?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: V redu, zdaj bi se pa z vami rada pogovarjala o blagovnih znamka. In sicer me zanima, koliko blagovnih znamk poznate v različnih skupinah prehranskih in ne-prehranskih izdelkov. Velja? Ok, mogoče lahko kar začnemo. Ali poznate kakšne blagovne znamke sladkarij?

O1: Müller.

I: Ok, super, ampak govorimo prav o samem izdelku, ne ravno o trgovini. Recimo, ko pomislim, na čokolado pomislim na...

O1: Milka!

I: Milka, super, kaj še? Recimo, ko pomislite na bombone. Na kaj se spomnite?

O1: Šumi.

O2: Snickers.

I: Super, kaj še?

O1: Piškoti Oreo.

O2: Sladoled Oreo.

I: O, super, Oreo, še kaj?

O1: Twix.

O2: Kinder Bueno.

I: Super, kaj še?

O1: Rižev narastek.

I: Ja, rižev narastek je super, ampak govorimo zdaj o sladkarijah, ki jih lahko kupimo v trgovini in imajo blagovno znamko.

O1: To ni sladkarija!

I: Še kakšna? Ne? Gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Mi lahko poveste, na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na gazirane pijače? To so tiste z mehurčki.

O1: Fanta, Coca-Cola, Cockta, Sprite.

O2: Pivo.

O3: Radenska.

O4: Ora.

O5: Jaz imam doma Coca-Cola Lemon.

O6: Jaz je ne pijem drugače.

O7: Jaz tudi ne.

I: Tiste, ki ste rekle, da ne pijete Coca-Cole, a mi lahko poveste zakaj ne?

O1: Meni ni dobra, zato ker je preveč mehurčkov.

O2: Preveč sladka.

I: Velja. Se spomnite še kakšne znamke? V redu, potem pa gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Na katere blagovne znamke pa pomislite, ko se spomnite na sok.

O1: Jabolčni sok!

O2: Malina.

O3: Jagodni.

O4: Fruc.

O5: Cedevida.

I: V redu, kar počasi, ker govorite druga čez drugo.

O1: Voda z okusi.

I: Aha, katero vodo z okusi pa poznaš?

O1: Jagoda.

O2: Limona.

I: Ne govorite druga čez drugo. Zaenkrat ste omenile Fruc in Cedevida. Ti si rekla voda z okusom, a se mogoče katera spomni kakšne vode z okusom?

O1: Jagoda.

O2: Jabolko.

O3: Breskev.

I: Ja, ampak ali se spomnite blagovne znamke?

O1: Jana. Ali pa Dana.

O2: Zala.

O3: Ja Zala! Ali pa junior piše na kakšnih majhnih flaškah!

I: Ja, res je, na kakšnih manjših piše tudi Junior. Se spomnite še kakšnih sokov? Če ne, gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Kaj pa če pomislite na paštete, ali se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke paštete?

O1: Junior Argeta!

O2: Kekec.

O3: Nika

O4: Argeta.

O5: Tuna!

O6: Jaz ne jem tune.

[Govorijo druga čez drugo.]

I: V redu, dovolj, prosim, če ste tiho! Se spomnite še kakšne blagovne znamke paštet? Ne? Gremo naprej. Ali se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke kosmičev?

O1: Müsli!

O2: Koruzni.

I: Kaj pa blagovne znamke?

O1: Ne.

O2: Ne.

O3: Nesquik.

[Govorijo druga čez drugo.]

I: V redu, tiho prosim! Še nismo na polovici, zelo počasi nam gre. Se spomnite še kakšne blagovne znamke kosmičev? Kaj pa ko pomislite na slane prigrizke, se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Čips!

I: Katere čipse poznate?

O1: Bobi palčke.

O2: Čips s papriko.

O3: Nacho.

O4: V obliki medvedkov.

O5: Smoki.

[Govorijo druga čez drugo. Postajajo zelo nemirne.]

I: Še čisto malo pa gremo lepiti nalepke. Ali se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke mleka?

O1: Čokoladno.

O2: Bio mleko.

O3: Alpsko mleko!

I: Alpsko mleko, super. Še kakšna blagovna znamka?

O1: Bio mleko!

I: Ja, ampak kakšna je blagovna znamka? Se še kakšne spomnite? Imam še eno vprašanje glede teh izdelkov. Ali mislite, da so blagovne znamke pomembne, ko kupujete katere izmed teh izdelkov, torej pri sladkarijah, gaziranih pijačah, sokovih, paštetah, kosmičih, slanih prigrizkih in mleku?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: To pa res ni pomembno.

I: Potem pa gremo lepiti nalepke. Zdaj bom razdelila liste in nalepke, ki imajo gor narisane skupine izdelkov, o katerih smo se zdaj pogovarjale. Torej sladkarije, sokovi, slani prigrizki... In zdaj vas prosim, da te nalepke nalepite na delovni list v levi stolpec. Čisto zgoraj dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najbolj pomembne pri nakupovanju. Čisto spodaj nalepite nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najmanj pomembne, vmes pa porazdelite še druge glede na pomembnost. Bo šlo?

Deklice prikimavajo.

[Deklice lepijo nalepke.]

I: Zdaj se bomo pogovarjale pa še o izdelkih, ki niso hrana. Velja? Na katere izdelke pomislite, ko se spomnite na oblačila.

O1: Adidas.

O2: Puma.

O3: Okaïdi.

O4: Am, ne vem.

I: Še kakšna znamka?

O1: Nike.

O2: Nike.

O3: H&M.

O4: Katerokoli trgovino? H in M.

O5: OVS.

O6: Zara.

I: Še kakšna blagovna znamka? Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne, ko kupujete oblačila?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Pa se vam zdi, da je pomembno, katere znamke oblačil nosijo vaši prijatelji ali pa družina?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Ne, za prijatelje se ne rabiš brigat. Brigamo se zase.

O2: Ja.

I: Aha, v redu. Kaj pa drugi, a mislite, da bi se drugi manj družili z vami, če ne bi nosili »pravih« blagovnih znamk?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

I: V redu. Gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na čevlje.

O1: Adidas.

O2: Nike.

O3: Puma.

O4: CCC.

O5: Alpina.

O6: Nike.

I: Pa bi rekle, da so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri obutvi?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Pa vam je pomembno, katere blagovne znamke nosijo vaši prijatelji ali vaša družina?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

I: A mislite, da bi se kdo manj družil z vami, če ne bi imele čevlje »pravih« blagovnih znamk?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

I: V redu. Gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na kozmetiko. Se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke kozmetičnih izdelkov?

Več deklic hkrati: Kaj je kozmetika?

I: To so recimo kremice, parfumi, šminke, šamponi...

O1: Me še nimamo tega!

I: Ampak a se mogoče spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke, ki obstaja? Mogoče jo uporablja vaša mamica, starejša sestra?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Nivea.

I: Nivea, super, mogoče še kakšna?

O1: Avon!

I: No, super, Avon. Pa bi rekle, da so blagovne znamke pri nakupu takih izdelkov pomembne?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

I: Velja. Gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Na katero blagovno znamko pomislite, ko se spomnite na igralne konzole?

O1: Kaj so konzole?

I: To je naprava za igranje videoiger.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: A se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Ammm, nekaj na S. Samsung.

I: Aha, to je telefon. Da vam malo pomagam, ali poznate mogoče PlayStation?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Fortnite!

I: Aha, ampak to je igra, se spomnite še kakšne konzole?

O1: To ne igramo. Nam ni pomembno.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O2: Blagovne znamke tega res niso pomembne.

I: Velja. No, pogledjmo še knjige, ali poznate kakšne blagovne znamke knjig?

O1: Mladinska knjiga.

I: Super, še kakšna?

O1: Beletrina.

O2: Jaz najraje berem enciklopedijo.

I: Še kakšna znamka? Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

I: Kaj pa ko pomislite na telefone, ali poznate kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Samsung.

O2: LG.

O3: Huawei.

I: Pa bi rekle, da so blagovne znamke pomembne pri telefonih?

[Deklice postanejo zelo nemirne.]

Več deklic: Ne.

I: Potem pa gremo spet lepiti nalepke. Zdaj bom razdelila nalepke, ki imajo gor narisane skupine izdelkov, o katerih smo se zdaj pogovarjali, torej telefoni, oblačila, kozmetika... In zdaj vas prosim, da te nalepke nalepite na delovni list v desni stolpec. Čisto zgoraj dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najbolj pomembne pri nakupovanju. Čisto spodaj pa dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najmanj pomembne. Vmes pa porazdelite še druge glede na pomembnost. Bo šlo? Razporejate torej enako kot ste prej.

[Deklice lepijo nalepke.]

I: V redu, ko vse nalepite, lahko obrnete delovni list na drugo stran. Tam zgoraj napišite, katera je vaša najljubša blagovna znamka. Če jih imate več, izberite eno. In potem spodaj

narišite logotip. Logotip je majhna risba ki označuje podjetje, recimo logotip telefona iPhone je jabolko. Se spomnite?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

[Deklice rišejo logotipe.]

O1: Jaz ga ne znam dobro narisat.

I: Kakor se spomnite, ni treba, da je čisto natančno.

I: Slogan lahko spustimo. Lahko pa greste na naslednje vprašanje – katere tri besede najbolje opišejo to blagovno znamko? Kakšna mislite, da je?

[Deklice pišejo in se pogovarjajo.]

I: Če ste že, lahko greste naprej. Naslednje vprašanje je, kakšne občutke v vas vzbuja ta blagovna znamka. Ali ste vesele, ko pomislite na to blagovno znamko?

[Deklice pišejo in se pogovarjajo.]

I: V redu, še čisto zadnje vprašanje je, če si vašo blagovno znamko predstavljate kot osebo, kakšna mislite da bi ta blagovna znamka bila? Recimo, če bi blagovna znamka Nike bila oseba, jaz mislim, da bi bila športna oseba, ki veliko govori. Je bolj mlada in bolj resna. Ima zastavljene neke cilje, ki jih želi doseči. Razmislite o vaši blagovni znamki kot o osebi. Kakšna je vaša blagovna znamka?

[Deklice pišejo in se pogovarjajo.]

I: Če ste končale, lahko oddate in greste nazaj v svoj razred.

[Deklice zaključijo z reševanjem in oddajo delovne liste ter odidejo.]

Appendix 28: Transcript of focus group debate (FG2)

I: Zdravo, moje ime je Iva in danes bi se z vami rada pogovarjala o nakupovanju. Če imate kakšno vprašanje, prosim, dvignite roko, tako bomo najlažje sodelovali. Bi se za začetek lahko predstavili?

[Vseh 7 dečkov pove svoje ime.]

I: Najprej me zanima, če mi lahko poveste, kaj je blagovna znamka?

O1: Nekaj, kar ti pove ceno.

I: Aha, super, še kakšna ideja? Blagovna znamka je ime, simbol ali oblika, ki jo najdemo na nekem izdelku (recimo na majici, hlačah, teniskah). Na podlagi blagovne znamke vemo, kdo je proizvajalec tega izdelka in lahko razlikujemo med različnimi izdelki.

O1: Firma!

I: Tako, firma. Pa se mogoče spomnite, kdo vas je najprej predstavil blagovnim znamkam?

O1: Mami in oči.

[Drugi dečki prikimajo odgovoru.]

I: Ali od staršev tudi dobite informacije o blagovnih znamkah?

[Dečki prikimavajo.]

I: Preden nadaljujemo z blagovnimi znamkami, me najprej zanima, če kaj hodite v trgovino s svojimi starši?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

I: Pa jim kaj pomagata pri odločitvi, kaj boste kupili in kaj ne?

Vsi dečki: Ja.

O1: Ja, jaz si izberem Lego kocke. Najraje imam Harry Potter, ampak mi mami ne dovoli, da vsakič kupim, ker imam premalo denarja.

I: Aha. Kaj pa še kupujete skupaj, poleg igrač?

O1: Za čevlje, na primer jaz povem, kateri so mi všeč in katera velikost je v redu.

O2: Jaz včasih pomagam izbrati, kaj bomo kupili. Na primer, vedno ko me vprašajo, katere testenine bi, izberem makarončke.

I: Ali kdaj staršem tudi pomagate pri nakupovanju, na primer, s polaganjem izdelkov v nakupovalni voziček?

Vsi dečki: Ja.

I: Kaj pa sami, greste tudi kaj sami v trgovino?

Več dečkov hkrati: Skoraj nikoli.

O1: Ja, samo včasih.

O2: Ne. Moj brat pa gre.

I: Kaj pa kupiš, če greš sam v trgovino? Kupiš hrano, igrače?

O1: Bonbone.

I: To kupite s svojo žepnino ali prosite starše za denar?

O1: Z žepnino.

O2: Jaz imam svojo žepnino.

O3: Jaz tudi.

I: Koliko pa vas ima svojo žepnino?

[Vsi dvignejo roko.]

I: Zdaj pa bi se rada z vami pogovarjala o tem, katere blagovne znamke prehranskih in neprehranskih izdelkov poznate. Pa bomo kar začeli. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko rečem »sladkarije«

O1: Bomboni, čokolade, lizike.

I: Ja, to so sladkarije. Se mogoče spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Šumi.

O2: Milka.

I: Super, se še kaj spomnite? Ne? Kaj pa še kakšna čokolada ali pa piškotki?

O1: Domačica

O2: Zoo piškoti.

O3: Taralucci.

I: Super. Še kaj?

O1: Čokoladni Taralucci.

[Smeš vseh dečkov.]

I: Pa vam je pomembno, katere blagovne znamke so sladkarije?

O1: Ne, samo da so.

O2: Meni je vseeno.

I: V redu, gremo naprej. Kaj pa ko pomislite na gazirane pijače, to so tiste z mehurčki?

O1: Coca-Cola.

O2: Pepsi

O3: Cockta

O4: Radenska

I: Super, Coca-Cola, Cockta, Pepsi, Radenska, še kaj?

O1: Fanta.

O2: Ora.

I: Super. Pa vam je pomembno, katere blagovne znamke so gazirane pijače, ki jih pijete?

O1: Ja, mora biti.

[Dečki prikimavajo.]

O2: Pa pivo. Pivo bi jaz pil.

[Smeš vseh dečkov.]

I: V redu, gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Ali se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke ko pomislite na sokove?

O1: Jabolčni sok.

O2: Malinovec.

I: Ampak katere blagovne znamke imate v mislih? Recimo Fruc ali Cedevita?

[Nobenega odgovora, tudi z govorico telesa ni bilo nakazano.]

I: Prav. Kaj pa če pomislite na paštete? Se spomnite kakšnih blagovnih znamk?

O1: Tunina pašteta.

O2: Argeta.

O3: Kekec.

O4: Rožle.

I: Super. So vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu paštet?

[Dečki odkimajo.]

I: Kaj pa blagovne znamke, na katere pomislite, ko se spomnite na kosmiče?

O1: Kosmiči...

O2: Koruzni kosmiči.

I: Ja, ampak ali se spomnite kakšnih blagovnih znamk?

O1: Ne spomnim se.

O2: Lino.

I: So vam blagovne znamke pomembne, ko kupujete kosmiče?

O1: Ne.

I: Kaj pa slani prigrizki, se spomnite kakšnih blagovnih znamk?

O1: Chio Chips.

O2: [Zapoje glasbeni vložek] Chio, Chio, Chio Chips.

O3: Smoki.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu?

O1: Ne.

I: Pa še zadnje vprašanje pri prehranskih izdelkih: se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke mleka?

O1: Alpsko mleko.

O2: Riževo mleko je najboljše.

I: Ali se spomnite še kakšne blagovne znamke? So vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu mleka?

[Dečki odkimajo.]

I: Prav. Zdaj gremo pa na neprehranske izdelke. Velja?

Dečki: Ja.

I: V redu. Če pomislite na oblačila, na katere blagovne znamke pomislite?

O1: Oblačila... Ne.

I: Nobenih se ne spomnite? Kaj pa recimo Nike?

O1: Ja, Nike.

O2: Adidas.

I: Še kaj? Pa vam je pomembno, katere blagovne znamke imate oblečene?

Vsi dečki: Ne.

O1: Samo da niso prevelike.

I: Kaj pa drugim, mislite, da je pomembno, kaj imate vi oblečeno?

O1: Ne.

I: A vam je pomembno, kaj majo vaši prijatelji oblečeno? Ali pa vaša družina? Ali vam je vseeno?

O1: Ne.

O2: Vseeno.

I: Velja. Na katere blagovne znamke pa pomislite, ko se spomnite na čevlje?

O1: Nike

O2: Adidas

O3: [Pogleda copate] Vučko.

I: Pa vam je pomembno, da vaša družina ali prijatelji nosijo čevlje določene blagovne znamke?

O1: Ne.

I: Kaj pa vam, mislite, da je pomembno, katere blagovne znamke čevljev vi nosite?

O1: Ne.

O2: To je vseeno.

I: Kaj pa drugi ljudje, mislite, da jim je pomembno, katere blagovne znamke čevljev vi nosite? Mislite, da bi vas lahko prijatelji izključili iz družbe, ker ne nosite čevljev "kul" blagovnih znamk?

O1: Ne.

I: Velja. Gremo naprej. Se spomnite kakšnih blagovnih znamk, ko pomislite na kozmetiko? Kakšni parfumi ali pa kremice.

O1: Avon.

I: Super, Avon. Še kaj?

O1: Ne vem.

I: Kakšna krema, mogoče?

O1: Bepanthen.

I: Pa vam je blagovna znamka pomembna pri kozmetiki?

O1: Ne.

O2: Ne.

I: Kaj pa ko pomislite na igrače, a se spomnite na kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Pikapolonica.

I: To so trgovine. Kaj pa blagovne znamke igrač, se spomnite kakšne?

O1: Lego kocke.

O2: Lego Duplo.

I: Pa vam je pomembno pri igračah, katere blagovne znamke so?

O1: Ja.

I: Zakaj pa?

O1: Ja ker so igrače.

I: Recimo Lego kocke, se vam zdi da so Lego kocke boljše od ostalih kock?

O1: Ja.

I: Zakaj pa?

[Brez odgovora.]

I: Velja. Gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na igralne konzole?

O1: PlayStation.

O2: X-box.

I: Še kaj mogoče?

[Brez odgovora.]

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri konzolah?

O1: Ne. Vse je isto.

O2: Ja. Je pomembno.

I: Zakaj pa?

[Brez odgovora]

I: V redu. Kaj pa, ko pomislite na knjige, se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Učila.

O2: Mladinska knjiga.

I: Pa vam je pomembno, katera blagovna znamka so knjige, ki jih kupite?

O1: Ne.

I: Na katere blagovne znamke a pomislite, ko se spomnite na mobilne telefone?

O1: iPhone.

O2: Huawei.

O3: Samsung.

O4: Samsung Galaxy

O5: Nokia.

I: Pa se vam zdi, da je ob nakupu telefona blagovna znamka pomembna?

O1: Ja.

O2: Ne.

I: Zakaj pa?

O1: Ja, ker nekateri telefoni so slabši.

I: In blagovna znamka ti pove, kateri telefoni so boljši?

O1: Ne vem.

O2: Apple že imam in mi vedno nekaj 'šteka'.

O3: Samsung ne 'šteka'.

O4: Pa saj vsi 'štekajo'. Vseeno je.

I: Gremo še na zadnji del. Obrnite delovne liste na drugo stran. Zgoraj boste najprej napisali, katera je vaša najljubša blagovna znamka, v okvirček pa narišite njen logotip. Ostala vprašanja lahko pustite prazna.

[Dečki izpolnijo delovni list.]

I: Ste vsi končali? Če ste zaključili, lahko oddate delovni list in greste nazaj v svoj razred.

[Dečki oddajo delovne liste in odidejo.]

Appendix 29: Transcript of focus group debate (FG3)

I: Zdravo, moje ime je Iva. Danes bi se z vami rada pogovarjala o nakupovanju. Če imate kakšno vprašanje, prosim, dvignite roko, tako bomo najlažje sodelovali. Bi se za začetek lahko predstavili?

[Vseh 9 dečkov pove svoje ime.]

I: Moje prvo vprašanje, ki ga imam za vas je, če mogoče veste, kaj so blagovne znamke? Bi mi znali razložiti, kaj so blagovne znamke?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Pač recimo to ima neka obleka svojo blagovno znamko, kot recimo Nike.

I: Super, še kdo drug mogoče?

O1: Pač recimo tudi hrana ima svojo blagovno znamko. Uno, »Droga«.

O2: Alpsko mleko.

O1: Pa Delamaris.

I: Super. Bi še kdo rad razložil, kaj je blagovna znamka? Gremo mogoče zdaj bolj na splošno pogledat vaš nakupovalni proces. Ali hodite kaj s starši v trgovino in sodelujete pri nakupovanju?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja, itak.

I: Ja? Kako pa? Kako sodelujete?

O1: Mami mi reče, kaj mi je všeč, pa zberem.

I: Pri katerih izdelkih pa, recimo?

O1: Ne vem, pri oblekah. Pa čevlje. Ali pa če kupimo kakšno stvar, ki naj bi bila recimo zame. Si lahko sam zberem.

O2: Pač ja, isto. Ali pa mogoče tudi pri hrani. Ne vem, mogoče kakšne bombone ali pa kaj takega. Pa pri oblekah pa čevljih.

I: Aha, super, pa imate mogoče tudi že svojo žepnino?

Večina dečkov: Ja.

I: Aha. Tisti ki nimate žepnine, a vam starši kdaj dajo denar, da greste sami v trgovino, recimo blizu doma?

[Dečki prikimavajo v odgovor.]

O1: Ja.

I: Ali pa da vam mami da denar pa reče: prosim, pojdi v trgovino iskat liter mleka?

O1: Ja.

O2: Ko sem pri očitu.

I: Aha. Kaj pa tisti, ki mate žepnino, ali si greste kdaj kaj kupit s tem denarjem?

O1: Ja

O2: Meni mami na banko da.

O3: Meni tudi.

O4: Jaz šparam za kaj večjega.

I: Ali si ne greste kupit kdaj kakšne Smokije ali kaj podobnega?

[Nekaj dečkov prikimava v odgovor.]

O1: Včasih.

O2: Včasih si privoščim kaj.

I: Dobro. Kaj pa recimo nakupovanje preko spleta. Ali kdaj nakupujete preko spleta?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja

O1: Ja, ful.

O1: Amazon.

O3: Ebay

O4: Bolha.

O5: Wish.

O56 Jaz nakupujem Nike. Teniske ali obleke.

I: A preko njihove spletne strani?

O1: Ja.

I: Pa imaš svojo kartico ali... ?

O1: Mamino. Ona vnese podatke.

I: Kaj pa menite, ali so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupovanju?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Odvisno

Večina dečkov si premisli: Odvisno, ja.

O2: Ja, so. Recimo, ker nekatere so kvalitetne in že veš za njih. Če boš pa kar-eno oblačilo vzel, pa mogoče ne veš, koliko časa bo zdržalo.

O3: Pri hrani, recimo. Nekatere hudobne so pač te znamke, ki dajo noter te nekakšne strupe. Nekatere so pa pač dobre, ane.

I: Aha, torej bi rekli, da so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu oblačil in hrane? Še kje?

O1: Pri obutvi. Da dobro zgledaš.

I: Še kje? Kje pa dobite informacije o blagovnih znamkah, kdo vam pove?

O1: Že po oblačilu samem, po navadi. Že takoj vidiš.

I: Ampak kako veš, da je, recimo, Nike oblačilo kvalitetno? Kdo vam pove?

O1: Jaz recimo že po izkušnjah vem. Pa tudi recimo, ko vidim, da imajo drugi prijatelji ali pa kaj takega.

O2: Če večina ljudi nosi neko znamko, potem mislim da je v redu.

I: Aha, super. Ti si tudi dvignil roko?

O1: Ja, jaz sem tudi mislil, da pač če vidiš druge ljudi, da nosijo. Pa če recimo vprašaš nekoga v družini, ki ima recimo te čevlje.

O2: Ja pa pač če je visoka cena, je znamka tudi dobra.

O3: Jaz sem hotel isto povedat, pa mogoče tudi če vprašaš v trgovini. Prodajalka ali prodajalec, da ti svetuje.

I: Super, veliko primerov. Zdaj bi šli pa kar na naslednji sklop vprašanj. Jaz vam bom povedala skupine prehranskih izdelkov, vas pa prosim, da naštejete vse blagovne znamke, ki se jih spomnite. Bo šlo?

Dečki: Ja.

I: V redu. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na sladkarije?

O1: Šumi.

O2: Haribo.

O3: Milka.

O4: Smoki.

O5: Taralucci.

O6: Domačica.

O7: Ta, kako se že reče... Toblerone.

O8: Tic-Tac

O9: A kdo še je Tic-Tac?

I: Še kaj? Kaj pa, ko pomislite na gazirane pijače, se spomnite na kakšno blagovno znamko?

O1: Coca-Cola.

O2: Fanta.

O3: Pepsi.

O4: Cockta, Monster.

O5: Schweppes.

O6: Ora.

O7: Redbull.

O8: Monster

I: Super, še kakšna?

[Dečki postajajo nemirni in se pogovarjajo med seboj.]

I: V redu. Prosim, ne pogovarjajte se, gremo naprej. Ali poznate kakšno blagovno znamko sokov?

O1: Jabolčni sok.

O2: Fructal.

O3: Ja, Fructal.

O4: Sola.

[Dečki se pogovarjajo med seboj.]

I: Kaj pa paštete, se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke?

Več dečkov hkrati: Argeta.

O1: Delamaris.

O2: Nika.

O3: Delamaris je ful dobra.

O4: Kekec.

[Dečki se pogovarjajo med seboj.]

I: V redu. Kaj pa, ko pomislite na kosmiče, se spomnite na kakšno blagovno znamko?

O1: Corn flakes.

O2: Nesquik

O3: Cheerios

O4: Lino

O5: Cap'n Crunch

[Dečki se smejijo.]

O5: Ja kaj, to res obstaja.

[Dečki se pogovarjajo med seboj.]

I: Zelo ste glasni. Prosim, če govorite, samo ko odgovarjate na moje vprašanje. Gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Ali poznate kakšne blagovne znamke slanih prigrizkov?

[Dečki se derejo drug čez drugega.]

O1: Leis.

O2: Bobi palčke.

O3: Ja, Bobi palčke.

O4: Ja tisto, kaj je že... Pringles!

O5: Chio!

O4: Pa še eden je, tale... Crunch Chips.

I: Super. Še zadnje vprašanje. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na mleko?

Več dečkov hkrati: Alpsko mleko!

O1: Ljubljanske mlekarne.

O2: Mu.

O3: Kaj pa Tuš?

I: Ja, tudi Tuš ima svoje mleko. To je trgovinska znamka.

O1: Uno, Mlejko.

O2: Ja, Mlejko!

I: Samo še eno vprašanje, preden gremo na delovne liste. Ali mi lahko poveste, kako pomembne so vam blagovne znamke pri nakupu mleka?

Več dečkov hkrati: Nič.

Nekaj dečkov: So kar pomembne.

O1: Mi pa vedno kupimo Alpsko mleko.

O2: Mleko je tako dobro... Za kosti.

I: Aha, torej nekaj vas misli, da je pomembno, nekaj pa da ni. Kaj pa pri nakupu sladkarij?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja, precej.

O1: Niti ne.

O2: Ja, kako ti ni pomembno, da dobiš eno plastično neko čokolado?

[Dečki govorijo drug čez drugega.]

I: Kaj pa pri paštetah, so vam blagovne znamke pomembne?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ja, tukaj je ful pomembno.

[Dečki postanejo zelo nemirni.]

I: Kaj pa pri gaziranih pijačah, so vam blagovne znamke pomembne?

Nekaj dečkov hkrati: Ja.

I: A pri sokovih tudi?

O1: Ne, za sokove je vseeno.

I: Kaj pa za kosmiče?

O1: Ja. Ker po blagovnih znamkah veš kaj je dobro.

I: Kaj pa pri slanih prigrizkih?

Nekaj dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ja, isto, pač veš, kateri so dobri.

I: V redu. Zdaj pa bom razdelila delovne liste in nalepke, ki imajo gor narisane skupine izdelkov, o katerih smo se zdaj pogovarjali. Torej sladkarije, sokovi, slani prigrizki... In zdaj vas prosim, da te nalepke nalepite na delovni list v levi stolpec. Čisto zgoraj dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najbolj pomembne pri nakupovanju. Čisto spodaj pa dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najmanj pomembne. Vmes pa porazdelite še druge glede na pomembnost. Bo šlo?

[Dečki nalepijo nalepke v vrstnem redu.]

I: Če ste vsi nalepili vse nalepke, lahko gremo naprej. Ste končali?

Več dečkov: Ja.

I: V redu. Gremo na drugi del vprašanj. Zdaj se bomo pogovarjali o izdelkih, ki niso hrana. Ali se morda spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke oblačil?

O1: Gucci.

O2: Nike.

O3: Puma.

O4: Guess.

O5: Hugo Boss.

O6: Louis Vuitton.

O7: Supreme.

I: Pa bi rekli, da so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu oblačil?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ja, kar no.

I: Pa se vam zdi pomembno, če vaši starši ali družina nosijo specifične znamke?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

O1: Boljše je, ampak ne vem; če me kdo vpraša za mnenje, povem, ne pa da bi se manj z njim družil.

I: Kaj pa drugi, mislite, da bi se manj družili z vami, če ne bi nosili oblačil določenih blagovnih znamk?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

O1: Ampak lepše izgledaš ane, boljše je.

I: Kaj pa kakšne blagovne znamke obutve?

Več dečkov hkrati: Nike.

O1: Jordan.

O2: Puma.

O3: Gucci.

O4: Adidas.

I: Aha, še kakšna? A menite, da so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu obutve?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

I: Kako pomembno pa se vam zdi, da vaši prijatelji ali družina nosijo obutev določene blagovne znamke?

Več dečkov hkrati: Skoraj nič.

O1: Ni mi fora, da bi en nosil neka »huda« oblačila pa bi se nosil. Boljše mi je, da je prijazen pa tako.

O2: Ja.

I: Pa potem tudi mislite da vas tudi drugi ne bi sodili glede na to kaj imate vi obuto, pa vas izključevali iz družbe?

Več dečkov hkrati: Nekateri bi.

I: Aha. Zdaj bi šli pa na kozmetiko. Poznate kakšne blagovne znamke kozmetike?

O1: Just

O2: MAC

O3: Bepanthen

O4: Kaj je že tisto, Dior.

O5: Mi imamo tudi doma Just.

[Dečki postanejo nemirni, govorijo drug čez drugega.]

I: Pa mislite da so blagovne znamke pomembne pri kozmetiki?

O1: Ma ne.

I: Velja, gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Kaj pa, ko pomislite na igrače, na katere blagovne znamke se spomnite?

Večina dečkov: Skoraj nobene.

O1: Razen mogoče kakšne Lego kocke.

O2: Meni so ful bol pomembne igrice.

[Dečki postanejo nemirni, govorijo drug čez drugega.]

I: Torej bi rekli, da vam blagovne znamke pri igračah niso tako pomembne?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

O1: Itak se več ne igramo z igračami.

I: Dobro, samo še malo. Prosim, ne pogovarjajte se. Kaj pa, ko pomislite na igralne konzole, se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Xbox.

O2: PlayStation.

O3: Nintendo Switch.

I: Kako pomembne pa se vam zdijo blagovne znamke pri nakupu igralne konzole?

O1: Je, ja.

O2: Odvisno, nekatere so bolj zmogljive.

O3: Meni je bolj pomembno pri telefonih.

O5: Ja, pač ja.

O6: Odvisno tudi, koliko je kakšen model, pa koliko je zmogljiva pa take stvari.

O7: Tukaj se mi zdi pomembno mnenje drugih.

O8: Če imam doma Playstation, potem je bolje, da od njih vzamem tudi konzolo, kot pa od kakšnega Kitajca kakšno slabšo, plastično.

I: Torej načeloma vam je kar pomembna blagovna znamka pri nakupu igralne konzole?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

I: Kaj pa kakšna blagovna znamka knjig, se spomnite kakšne?

O1: Ja, Miš.

O2: Grahovec.

O3: Pa Lastovka.

O4: Mladinska knjiga.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu knjig?

Večina dečkov: Ne.

I: In še zadnje vprašanje. Mobilni telefoni. Se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke telefonov?

O1: Apple.

O2: Samsung .

O3: LG.

O4: Nokia.

O5: Xiaomi.

O6: Google Pixel.

O7: Pepsi ima tudi nek telefon.

O8: Razer.

O9: Acer.

I: In a so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu telefona?

Večina dečkov: Ja, kar.

I: Prav. Potem pa gremo lepiti nalepke. Zdaj bom razdelila nalepke, ki imajo gor narisane skupine izdelkov, o katerih smo se zdaj pogovarjali. Torej telefoni, oblačila, kozmetika... In zdaj vas prosim, da te nalepke nalimate na delovni list v desni stolpec. Čisto zgoraj dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najbolj pomembne pri nakupovanju. Čisto spodaj pa dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najmanj pomembne. Vmes pa porazdelite še druge glede na pomembnost. Bo šlo? Razporejate torej enako, kot ste prej.

[Dečki lepijo nalepke.]

I: V redu. Ko vse nalepite, lahko obrnete na drugo stran. Tam zgoraj napišite, katera je vaša najljubša blagovna znamka. Če jih imate več, izberite eno in potem spodaj narišite logotip te blagovne znamke, napišete slogan (če ga ima) in odgovorite na vprašanja. Če rabite pomoč, dvignite roko.

[Dečki rišejo in odgovarjajo na vprašanja.]

I: Če ste končali, lahko oddate in greste nazaj v svoj razred.

[Dečki zaključijo z reševanjem in oddajo delovne liste ter odidejo.]

Appendix 30: Transcript of focus group debate (FG4)

I: Zdravo, moje ime je Iva in danes bi se z vami rada pogovarjala o nakupovanju. Če imate kakšno vprašanje, prosim, dvignite roko, tako bomo najlažje sodelovali. Bi se za začetek lahko predstavile?

[Vseh 7 deklic pove svoje ime.]

I: V redu, super, hvala. Moje prvo vprašanje je, koliko sodelujete v nakupovalnem procesu? A greste s starši v trgovino...?

O1: Večinoma ja.

[Deklice prikimavajo.]

I: Kako pa kaj sodelujete?

O1: Pomagam dat v voziček.

O2: Skupaj zbiramo produkte.

O3: Sama ne izberem pa dam v voziček. Najprej vprašam mami.

I: Aha, recimo, če bi rada čips, najprej vprašam mami, če lahko vzameš?

O1: Ja. Mislim, ponavadi reče ne, ampak ja.

[Deklice se smejijo.]

I: Aha, v redu. Prej ste rekle, da pomagate tudi zbirat kakšne izdelke. Kako pa to poteka?

O1: Ja ne vem, kaj priporočamo. Če od prej kej poznamo.

O2: Ne to salamo, Poli!

[Deklice se smejijo.]

I: Kaj pa same, a greste same v trgovino?

O1: Ne velikokrat.

O2: Za rojstni dan.

O3: Mislim, ne vem, če sem s kom v mestu ali kaj podobnega. To ja. Sama pa drugače ne.

I: Aha. Kaj pa ve?

O1: Če me mami prosi, da grem v trgovino, grem sama.

[Deklice prikimavajo.]

I: Aha, trgovino, ki je blizu doma?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Kaj pa žepnina, a jo imate?

[Deklice prikimavajo.]

I: Pa greste kdaj z žepnino nakupovat?

Več deklic hkrati: Niti ne.

O1: Včasih...

O2: Šparam.

O3: Šparam, ja. Samo ne vem še, za kaj.

I: Kaj pa če greste v trgovino in si same kupujete s svojim denarjem, kaj si kupite?

O1: Oblačila.

O2: Ja.

[Deklice prikimavajo.]

I: V redu. Gremo zdaj na blagovne znamke. Moje prvo vprašanje je, če veste, kaj blagovne znamke so?

O1: Recimo podjetje, ki nekaj proizvaja.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O2: Znamke so bolj drage.

O3: Neka firma, ki nekaj proizvaja.

I: Pa bi rekle, da blagovne znamke izražajo tudi kvaliteto?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Kako pa veste katera blagovna znamka je dobra? Oz. kako dobiš informacije o blagovni znamki?

O1: Vidiš, da drugi ljudje nosijo.

O2: YouTuberji tudi.

O3: Od staršev.

O4: Prijatelji.

I: Mi lahko mogoče poveš, od katerih YouTuberjev dobiš informacije o blagovnih znamkah?

O1: Jaz kar tako gledam, ni specifičnih...

O2: Mogoče Infinite.

I: Aha, velja.

O1: Jaz od tebe. [Pokaže na prijateljico.]

O2: Internet, recimo. Pa po ceni tudi.

O3: V trgovini vprašam prodajalko.

O4: Pa če še kdo nosi. Pač je popularna.

I: Torej če veliko ljudi nosi neko blagovno znamko, bi rekle, da, to je pa dobra blagovna znamka?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Kako pomembne pa so vam blagovne znamke pri nakupovanju? In pri katerih izdelkih so vam pomembne?

O1: Pri oblačilih.

O2: Ja, pri oblačilih najbolj.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Pa bi rekle, da so vam na splošno blagovne znamke pomembne, ko kupujete različne izdelke?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Recimo pri čipsu vedno iščem da je Pringles.

O2: Tudi pri teniskah.

O3: Ja, pri teniskah pa ja.

I: Kaj pa vpliva na to, da vam je blagovna znamka všeč?

O1: Da dobro izgleda.

I: Bi rekle, da tudi pri hrani?

O1: Tam je bolj okus.

O2: Čeprav nekatere znamke pri hrani, ki so dražje... Obstajajo znamke, ki so cenejše, pa je isti okus.

I: V redu, zdaj bi se pa z vami rada pogovarjala o blagovnih znamkah. In sicer me zanima, koliko blagovnih znamk poznate v različnih skupinah prehranskih izdelkov. Velja? Lahko kar začnemo. Ali poznate kakšne blagovne znamke sladkarij?

Več deklic hkrati: Milka.

O1: Kinder.

O2: Milka.

O3: Chio Chips.

O4: Haribo.

O5: Orbit.

O6: Oreo.

O7: Hubba Bubba.

O8: Airwaves čigumi.

O9: Loacker napolitanke.

O10: Ali pa Manner.

Še kakšni bombončki ali čokolada?

O1: Čokolada Cocoa.

O2: Ja, Cocoa, to je res čokolada.

I: Pa so vam pomembne blagovne znamke pri sladkarijah?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ja, če je ena znamka dobra potem kupujem to.

I: Kaj pa ko pomislite na gazirane pijače, na kaj se spomnite?

O1: Coca-Cola.

O2: Fanta.

O3: Sprite.

O4: Radenska.

O5: Cockta.

O6: Ora.

O7: Schweppes.

I: Pa bi rekle, da vam je pri nakupu gaziranih pijač pomembno, katera blagovna znamka je?

O1: Ne preveč.

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

I: Aha, zakaj pa ne?

O1: Ne pijem, ker ne maram mehurčkov.

O2: Moja mami pije mogoče bolj Cockto kot Coca-Colo, drugače pa ne.

O3: Če je Sparova Cola ali pa Coca-Cola taprava, je meni čisto vseeno.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja, enako.

I: Kaj pa ko pomislite na sokove, se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Fruc.

O2: Dana.

O3: Pingo.

O4: Cedevita.

O5: CapriSun.

O6: Sola.

I: Še kaj mogoče?

O1: Zala. Dana.

O2: Jana.

O3: Costella.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu sokov?

O1: Ne.

O2: Ne ravno.

I: V redu, pa pogledajmo še paštete. A se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke paštete?

O1: Argeta.

O2: Kekec.

O3: Nika. To mam v šoli.

O4: Perutnine Ptuj.

O5: Gavrilovič.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pri paštetah pomembne?

O1: Ja.

O2: Ja, mora biti Argeta

O3: Argeta je v bistvu najboljša.

O4: Meni je pa Kekec.

I: V redu, gremo naprej na kosmiče. A se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke kosmičev?

O1: Nesquik.

O2: Manner misliji. Pa Frutabela.

O3: Lino.

O4: Cini Minis.

O5: Pa tisti kot krogci. Cheerios.

O6: Frosted flakes.

O7: Cap'n Crunch.

O8: Froot Loops.

I: Od kod pa poznaš znamke, kot so recimo Frosted Flakes, Cap'n Crunch in Froot Loops?

O1: V kakšnih filmih in serijah so jih imeli.

I: Aha, super.

O1: Jaz polovico tega ne poznam.

[Deklice se smejijo.]

I: Pa bi rekle, da so blagovne znamke pri nakupu kosmičev pomembne?

Več hkrati: Ne, niti ne.

I: Kaj pa slani prigrizki, se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke slanih prigrizkov?

O1: Tuc-Tuc.

O2: Smoki.

O3: Chio.

O4: Bobi palčke.

O5: Pringles.

O6: Doritos.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu slanih prigrizkov?

O1: Ni pomembno.

O2: Ne maram čips. To mi je pa res nagravžno.

O3: Bobi palčke so tudi vse iste.

I: Velja. Kaj pa, ko pomislite na mleko, se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke?

Več deklic hkrati: Alpsko mleko.

O2: Spar mleko.

O3: Pa Tuševo mleko.

O4: Tisto kar je bolj poceni...

O5: Sojino in riževo mleko...

I: Pa vam je pomembno, katera blagovna znamka mleka je, ko ga kupujete?

O1: Ne.

O2: Moja mami ponavadi kupi Sparovo.

O3: Pomemben je procent maščobe.

I: Prav. Gremo lepit nalepke. Zdaj bom razdelila delovne liste in nalepke, ki imajo gor narisane skupine izdelkov, o katerih smo se zdaj pogovarjale. Torej sladkarije, sokovi, slani prigrizki... In zdaj vas prosim, da te nalepke nalepite na delovni list v levi stolpec. Čisto zgoraj dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najbolj pomembne pri nakupovanju. Čisto spodaj pa dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najmanj pomembne. Vmes pa porazdelite še druge glede na pomembnost. Bo šlo?

[Deklice lepijo nalepke.]

I: Zdaj se bomo pogovarjale še o izdelkih, ki niso hrana. Velja? Na katere izdelke pomislite, ko se spomnite na oblačila.

O1: Gucci, Chanel, Louis Vuitton.

O2: Nike.

O3: Adidas.

O4: Puma.

O5: s.Oliver.

O6: Potem so tiste... Rhino, Hummel. Tiste bolj...

I: Super, še kakšna blagovna znamka?

O1: Dior.

O2: Diesel.

O3: Tom Taylor.

O4: Tommy Hilfiger.

O5: Under Armour.

O6: Lacoste.

I: Super. Pa so vam blagovne znamke pri nakupu oblačil pomembne?

Večina deklic: Ja, precej.

I: Pa bi rekle, da vam je pomembno, da vaši prijatelji ali pa družina nosijo specifične blagovne znamke oblačil?

Več deklic: Ja, za prijatelje je pomembno.

O1: Ja če nosijo neka »šiptarska« oblačila itak da mi ni kul.

O2: Jaz mislim, da je vseeno, moja mami se lahko obleče kakor se ona hoče.

O3: Ja, se strinjam.

I: A se vam zdi, da bi vas drugi mogoče izločali iz svoje družbe, če bi nosili »napačne« blagovne znamke, oz. blagovne znamke, ki niso popularne?

O1: Ne. Ko pridemo v srednjo šolo, bo mogoče malo bolj.

O2, O3: Ja. [Se strinjata z O1.]

I: Torej, zaenkrat imate občutek, da ne?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Ker smo že skupaj, že od takrat, ko te znamke niso bile pomembne/znane.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Pa vas je mogoče kaj strah za naprej, da bi si kdo kaj o vas mislil, če ne bi imele specifičnih blagovnih znamk?

O1: Ja ne vem, lahko bi se razdelil na »popularne« in »nepopularne«.

O2: Ja, na tiste, ki imajo znamke, in tiste, ki jih nimajo.

O3: Ja, recimo na tiste, ki imajo boljše znamke kot Rebook pa to, in tiste, ki jih nimajo.

I: Aha, razumem, ja. Kaj pa kakšne blagovne znamke obutve, se spomnite kakšnih?

O1: Adidas

O2: Puma

O3: Nike.

O4: Guess.

O5: Potem so pa tiste: Air Max 93, 97, 720,...

I: Ssuper. Še kakšne?

O1: Pa še Lacoste.

O2: Kilimanjaro.

O3: Alpina.

O4: Crocs.

O5: Vučko.

[Deklice se smejijo.]

O6: Papuči.

[Deklice se smejijo.]

I: Koliko vam je pa blagovna znamka pomembna pri nakupu čevljev?

O1: Za šport. Ne pa za vsak dan.

O2: Men je za šport, pač ko kupujem kakšne čevlje. Je bolje, da so kakšne znamke kot druge.

O3: Men je pa nujno, da imam. Ni mi všeč, če bi imela kar ene.

O4: Jaz tudi, ja.

O5: Ja.

I: Koliko vam je pa potem pomembno, da vaši prijatelji ali pa družina nosijo neke specifične blagovne znamke obutve?

O1: Moja mami čisto druge znamke nosi...

O2: Ja, moja tudi. Mislim, saj dosti lepo, ampak pač druge znamke.

O3: Ma ja, ni ravno pomembno.

I: Pa mislite, da bi vas drugi mogoče izločevali iz družbe, če bi nosili druge blagovne znamke čevljev, kot so popularne?

O1: Ne. Samo si pa bolj kul, če imaš te blagovne znamke.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Kaj pa potem za naprej, v srednji šoli? Mislite, da takrat tudi ni ravno pomembno, ali mislite da bi vas lahko izločevali iz družbe?

O1: Ja, isto je. Zato da pač mogoče na začetku narediš nek dober vtis. Zdaj te itak vsi poznajo.

O2: Ja, se strinjam.

I: Aha. Kaj pa kakšne blagovne znamke kozmetike, se spomnite kakšne?

O1: L'Oreal.

O2: Afrodita.

I: Super, L'Oreal in Afrodita, še kaj?

O1: Ja pol je od Kim Kardashian. KKW.

O2: Pa potem je Morphe.

O3: Kylie Cosmetics.

O4: Ja, to poznam iz kakšnih makeup tutorial-ov.

O5: Chanel.

O6: Fancy Beauty.

O7: Kaj je še...

I: Kakšne kremice še mogoče?

O1: Afrodita.

I: Še kaj?

O1: Just.

O2: Nivea.

I: Super, še kaj?

O1: Aquafresh.

O2: Paradontax.

O3: Colgate.

I: Kako pomembne pa so vam znamke pri nakupu kozmetike?

O1: Jaz ne nosim make-upa, meni je vseeno.

O2: Ja, je kar pomembno. Čeprav tukaj je bolj pomembno kakšne ima sestavine, ker ti lahko, na primer, poškoduje kožo.

O3: Ja.

O4: Mislim, za te bolj znane znamke maš več na internetu in tudi več od drugih slišiš.

I: Super. Kaj pa če gremo na igrače, a se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke igrač?

O1: Tale, Lego.

O2: Lego, ja.

O3: Barbie.

O4: Baby Born. To ima moja sestrična. Ko lulajo.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja! [smeh]

O5: Barbi in Ken.

I: Še kakšne znamke mogoče?

O1: Bruder. To ima moj bratec. Pa tisti avtomobilčki, kaj so že?

Več deklic hkrati: Hot Wheels!

O2: PlayStation 4.

I: Aha, ja, to se bomo potem pri igralnih konzolah še pogovarjale. A mislite da so drugače blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu igrač?

O1: To ni pomembno.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja. [Se strinjajo z O1.]

I: Recimo ko ste bile majhne, vam blagovne znamke najbrž niso bile pomembne? Se mogoče spomnite?

Več deklic hkrati: Niti ne.

O1: Ma ne. Ampak če smo kupovali te punče ali Barbike sem imela najraje pač Barbie.

I: A misliš, da zato, ker je prav Barbika, ali zato ker je najlepše narejena?

O1: Bol so bile kvalitetne.

O2: Čeprav tega takrat nisem še vedela, verjetno.

I: Velja. Gremo na naslednje vprašanje: Ali se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke igralnih konzol?

O1: PlayStation.

O2: Xbox.

O3: Nintendo.

O4: Nintendo Switch.

O5: Jaz tega nič ne poznam.

O6: Philips igralna konzola. Oni imajo tud.

I: Še kakšna? Kaj pa mislite, da so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu igralne konzole?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Tle bolj gledaš na kakovost.

O2: Ja.

O3: Pa kako dolgo zdrži, da ne crkne takoj.

O4: Ja, recimo če ima kolega PlayStation že pet let boš itak vzel tega, ker že veš da je kvaliteten. Ne pa da ti prodajalec pametuje.

I: Aha. Gremo naprej. Na katere znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na knjige?

O1: Mladinska knjiga.

O2: DZS?

O3: Felix.

O4: Rocus Klett.

O5: Beletrina.

I: Še kakšna? Pa vam je pomembno, kdo je založnik, kakšna je blagovna znamka knjig, ko jih kupujete?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

I: Velja. Še zadnje vprašanje: Ali se spomnite kakšnih blagovnih znamk mobilnih telefonov?

O1: iPhone.

O2: Ja, Apple.

O3: Samsung.

O4: Nokia.

O5: LG.

O6: Huawei.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu telefonov?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ja, pač Applu raje kupim kot Nokio.

I: Potem pa gremo lepiti nalepke. Zdaj bom razdelila nalepke, ki imajo gor narisane skupine izdelkov, o katerih smo se zdaj pogovarjale. Torej telefoni, oblačila, kozmetika... In zdaj vas prosim, da te nalepke nalepite na delovni list v desni stolpec. Čisto zgoraj dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najbolj pomembne pri nakupovanju. Čisto spodaj pa dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke

najmanj pomembne. Vmes pa porazdelite še druge glede na pomembnost. Bo šlo? Razporejate torej enako kot ste prej.

[Deklice lepijo nalepke.]

I: V redu, vem da smo precej podaljšale naš pogovor. Če imate mogoče samo še toliko časa, na drugi strani napišite, katera je vaša najljubša blagovna znamka in narišete logotip, če nimate časa, pa lahko oddate delovni list in greste.

[Nekatere deklice še narišejo logotip, druge oddajo delovni list in odidejo.].

Appendix 31: Transcript of focus group debate (FG5)

I: Zdravo, moje ime je Iva in danes bi se z vami rada pogovarjala o nakupovanju. Če imate kakšno vprašanje, prosim, dvignite roko, tako bomo najlažje sodelovali. Bi se za začetek lahko predstavili?

[Vseh 10 dečkov pove svoje ime.]

I: V redu, super, hvala. Če karkoli potrebujete, me kar vprašajte. Zdaj bi pa začeli kar z vprašanji. Mi lahko mogoče najprej poveste, koliko vi sodelujete pri nakupovalnem procesu? Greste s starši v trgovino?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ja, prevečkrat.

O2: Prevečkrat!

I: Prevečkrat? Kaj pa to pomeni?

O1: Večkrat ko grem v trgovino, bolj se mi ne da it!

I: A res? A se ti ne da v trgovino?

Nekaj dečkov: Ne.

O1: Jaz skoraj nikoli ne grem v trgovino, zato ker se mi ne da.

I: Ko pa greste v trgovino s svojimi starši, a kaj pomagate pri nakupovalnem procesu?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

I: Kaj pa to pomeni?

O1: Pač dajem v voziček, listek.

O2: Povem, kaj rabimo.

I: Kaj pa izdelke, a pomagate izbirati izdelke?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

I: Kaj pa, recimo?

O1: Igrače.

O2: Na primer kosmiče, ane, jogurte... Kar pač mi jemo.

O3: Jogurte.

O4: Pa cukre.

I: Aha. Kaj pa sami, a greste kdaj sami v trgovino?

Vel dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Po šoli.

I: Kaj pa takrat nakupujete?

O1: Sladkarije.

Več dečkov hkrati: Sladkarije, ja.

O2: Igrače pa kruh.

O3: Kruh.

O4: Makovke.

O5: Pa za pit.

I: Aha, pa si to kupujete s svojo žepnino?

O1: Ja, pa od rojstnega dneva.

I: A si greste kdaj mogoče tudi obleke sami kupit?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

I: V redu. Zdaj pa gremo na malo bolj specifično vprašanje – me zanima, če veste, kaj je to blagovna znamka?

O1: Blagovna znamka je proizvod nekega izdelka, neka firma, ki pač to dela.

O2: Isto sem hotel reči.

O3: Ja, isto.

I: Aha, kaj pa vi vidite potem kot blagovno znamko?

O1: Nike.

O2: Gucci.

O3: Adidas.

O4: Fila.

O5: Next.

I: Torej se spomnite veliko blagovnih znamk. Pa se mogoče spomnite, kdaj ste se prvič spoznali z blagovnimi znamkami?

O1: Ko smo kupovali čevlje, smo zmeri gledali na blagovno znamko.

O2: Jaz ko sem bil star neke 4 leta, pa je moj oči imel najraje Nike, pa mi je povedal.

O3: Ko sem bil majhen, pa smo šli kakšne obleke iskat, pa mi je to oči povedal.

I: Od koga pa potem dobite informacije o blagovnih znamkah?

O1: Starši.

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja. [Se strinjajo z O1.]

O2: Na Googlu.

O3: Ko ti nekdo svetuje.

I: Aha, kdo pa ti svetuje?

O1: Ne vem, kdorkoli, samo reče, da mu je ta firma všeč pa da priporoča.

I: Aha, razumem.

O1: V trgovini, prodajalec.

O2: Prijatelji.

O3, O4: Od izkušenj.

I: Kaj pa vpliva na to, da vam je neka blagovna znamka všeč?

O1: Detajli, kvaliteta. Da se ne raztrga takoj, če padeš al' pa kej.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu izdelkov?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Blagovne znamke ni dobro, da bi samo ene kupoval, ker pri različnih oblekah pa pač pri čevljih se kvaliteta razlikuje glede na blagovne znamke.

I: Aha, super. Imam še eno vprašanje glede nakupovanja – ali nakupujete tudi kaj preko spleta?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Moja mami. Pa sem jaz včasih zraven.

O2: Z očitom skupaj.

O2: Tiste izdelke, ki se jih v Sloveniji ne da dobit.

I: Aha. Pa tudi kdaj sami nakupujete?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

I: Aha, torej samo s pomočjo staršev?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

I: V redu. Zdaj bi pa rada preverila, koliko blagovnih znamk poznate. Pa bomo najprej pogledali prehranske izdelke. Povedala vam bom skupino prehranskih izdelkov, vas pa prosim, da naštejete blagovne znamke teh prehranskih izdelkov, ki se jih spomnite. Bo šlo? Pa, prosim, poskusite govoriti eden po eden.

[Dečki prikimavajo.]

I: Super. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na sladkarije?

O1: Šumi.

O2: Haribo.

O3: Milka.

O4: Trolli.

O5: Mr. Twister.

O6: Kinder.

O7: Milka.

O8: Gorenjka

I: Super, kaj še? Še kakšni bomboni ali lizike?

O1: Ja, Chupa Chups.

O2: Oreo.

O3: Twix.

O4: Snickers.

O5: Frutabela.

O6: Rum ploščica.

O7: Hubba Bubba.

O8: Pocket Coffee.

O9: Ferrero.

I: Super, kaj še?

O1: Čigumi se tudi šteje?

I: Lahko ja.

O1: Orbit

O2: Airwaves.

I: Pa bi rekli, da so vam blagovne znamke zelo pomembne, ko kupujete sladkarije?

Več dečkov hkrati: Niti ne.

O1: Pazimo samo, da so dobri, da veš, kakšni so.

O2: Nekateri potem tudi samo po izgledu izbirajo. Ena čokolada ima recimo veliko stvari gor, ena pa samo čokolado, pa potem bi nekateri izbrali tisto, ki ima več stvari narisanih.

I: Aha, razumem.

O1: Jaz recimo, ko kupujem čokolado, pogledam, katera ima koliko cukra.

I: In katero potem izbereš? Katera je boljša, tista ki ima več, ali tista, ki ima manj sladkorja?

O1: Tista ki ima VEČ.

[Dečki se smejijo.]

O2: Jaz bi vzel tisto, ki jo poznam, ker vem, da je dobra.

O3: Samo probat pa tudi ni slabo. Kdaj pa kdaj.

O4: Samo to jaz probam bolj tako, da če ima kdo, na primer babi, da mi da en košček pa pol se odločim.

I: Velja. Kaj pa če vas vprašam za blagovne znamke gaziranih pijač? To so tiste z mehurčki.

O1: Coca-Cola.

O2: Fanta.

O3: Cockta.

O4: Ora.

O5: Sprite.

O6: Radenska.

O7: Schweppes.

O8: Jamnica.

O9: RedBull.

I: Pa bi rekli, da so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu gaziranih pijač?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: V bistvu ja.

O2: Ja, tle pa zelo.

I: Zakaj pa ja?

O1: Pač jaz Fante ne bi kupil, ker mi je po njej slabo. Mogoče je pomembno, kako si navajen.

O2: Recimo pri Fanti pa Ori bi rekel, da je razlika samo v blagovni znamki pa niti ni res. Zato ker pri Ori je ta po-okus drug.

O3: Ja recimo, ker je pri Cockti tudi ena, ki je brez cukra.

I: Aha, Cockta Free?

O1: Ja, Cockta Free. No, tista mi je boljša kot navadna Cockta. Pol pa še dodam mal cukra.

[Dečki se smejiyo.]

I: Kaj pa ko pomislite na sokove, se spomnite kakšnih blagovnih znamk?

O1: Fructal.

O2: Dana.

O3: Fruc.

O4: Sola.

O5: Sok iz Spara.

O6: Ja, pa Tušev sok.

O7: Mercator.

I: Ja, Mercatorjev sok. Še kakšna znamka mogoče? Ne? Pa se vam zdijo blagovne znamke pomemben faktor pri nakupu sokov?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ja, ker pri blagovnih znamkah so različni okusi, različni tipi pijač.

O2: Pa eni so bolj koncentrirani, eni manj, eni bolj gosti, eni bolj redki...

I: Aha. In to prepoznate po blagovni znamki?

O1: Ja.

O2: Če jo poznaš, ja.

I: Razumem. Gremo naprej. Se spomnite kakšnih blagovnih znamk paštet?

O1: Gavrilovič.

O2: Argeta.

O3: Ja, Argeta.

O4: Kekec.

I: Kaj še? Se spomnite še kakšne?

O1: Niti ne...

O2: Rio Mare!

I: Super, še kakšna? Ne? Pa so vam blagovne znamke pri nakupu paštet pomembne?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Srednje.

O2: Razlika je v bistvu pri blagovnih znamkah, na primer pri Argeti, pri Kekcu in pri drugih, recimo da Argeta je bolj sodobna.

I: Aha, ker je Argeta bolj sodobna, ti je bolj všeč?

O1: Ja.

O2: Recimo Argeta je meni osebno boljša kot Kekec, s tem da to [okus] vpliva bolj na to, katero boš imel raje. Ampak če pogledaš seznam, kaj je noter v pašteti, pa vidiš cel seznam stvari. Na primer če greš na Google, kaj je v pašteti, vidiš, da so noter tudi kremplji od kokoši, sladkor in barvila.

O3: Fuuj.

O2: Pač tudi meso, ki je noter, vpliva na okus, recimo mora biti zdravo in kvalitetno meso.

I: Torej bi rekli, da so znamke pomembne zato, ker po njih veste, katere so vam všeč in katere ne?

O1: Ja, tukaj je stvar okusa.

O2: To, pa pri paštetah še kar velja, da dražja je, boljša je.

O1: Ja.

I: Razumem.

O1: Pa odvisno je tudi, kaj nekomu več pomeni. Recimo nekomu pomeni več okus, nekomu pa, da so noter zdrave stvari pa da zdravo veš.

I: Aha, in misliš, da to tudi prepoznaš iz blagovne znamke?

O1: Ja, če jo poznaš, če ne, moraš pa prebrat. Ni zmeraj na reklamah pa na pašteti napisano, moraš kdaj malo *googlat*.

I: Aha, seveda, razumem ja. Gremo zdaj počasi na naslednje vprašanje. Kaj pa, ko pomislite na kosmiče, a se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Milzu!

I: Tega pa ne poznam.

O1: To so neki novi.

I: Super, moram preveriti. Poznate še kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Zlato Polje.

O2: Nesquik.

O3: Corn flakes.

I: Ja, to so kosmiči. Se mogoče spomni kdo blagovne znamke kakšnih kosmičev?

O1: Vital.

O2: Vitalis.

O3: Čokolino.

O4: Cheerios.

O5: Moj oči ima Proteini.si.

O6: Cap'n Crunch.

I: Kako pomembno pa vam je pri kosmičih, katera blagovna znamka je?

O1: Tukaj je pomembno bolj zaradi okusa pa tudi različni tipi so. Ene blagovne znamke imajo nekaj, druge nekaj drugega...

O2: Ja, pa tudi kakšne stvari imajo dodane. Recimo eni imajo čokolado noter, eni so samo z žitom, odvisno, kaj želiš.

O3: Eni so tudi taki bolj zdravi, pa s proteini, eni so pa sam tako, za jest.

O4: Pa po navadi, če ne poznaš blagovne znamke, moraš pogledat, recimo če ima noter sadje, koliko sadja je dejansko noter. Da ne bi zdaj bil 1% sadja, drugo pa vse umetno.

O5: Pa tudi zbiraš po izgledu, če je nekaj novega.

I: Aha, torej načeloma so blagovne znamke kar pomembne, da veste, če so vam všeč okusi?

O1, O2: Ja.

I: V redu. Kaj pa če pomislite na slane prigrizke, se spomnite kakšnih blagovnih znamk?

O1: Chio Chips.

O2: Pringles.

O3: Crinchips.

O4: Smoki.

O5: Leis.

O6: Pom-Bär.

O7: Kviki.

O8: Pringles.

O9: Tiste prestice, ne vem, kako se jim reče.

O10: Bobi palčke.

I: Še kaj mogoče? Pa vam je pomembno, katere znamke čipsa kupujete?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

O1: Tle glih ne.

I: V redu. Gremo pogledat še zadnjo skupino prehranskih izdelkov, potem pa gremo lepiti nalepke. Katere blagovne znamke mleka poznate?

O1: Alpsko.

O2: Mu.

O3: Mlejko.

O4: Alpsko.

O5: 'Z Bregov.

I: Še kdo mogoče?

O1: Vem, da ima Alpsko tudi čokoladno mleko.

I: Ja, res je. Še kakšna blagovna znamka? Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu mleka?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Tle pa ja.

O2: Ja, tle ja, ker eni prej skisajo.

O3: Pa pač tukaj je pomembno tudi, koliko maščobe je. Pa eni so bolj tekoči pa mastni. Pa drugačen okus in priokus je.

I: Gremo lepiti nalepke. Zdaj bom razdelila nalepke, ki imajo gor narisane skupine izdelkov, o katerih smo se zdaj pogovarjali. Torej sladkarije, sokovi, slani prigrizki... In zdaj vas prosim, da te nalepke nalepite na delovni list v levi stolpec. Čisto zgoraj dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najbolj pomembne pri nakupovanju. Čisto spodaj pa dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najmanj pomembne. Vmes pa porazdelite še druge glede na pomembnost. Bo šlo?

[Dečki lepijo nalepke.]

I: Če ste vsi končali bi šli počasi na drugi sklop. Zdaj se bomo pogovarjali še o izdelkih, ki niso hrana. Velja? Na katere izdelke pomislite, ko se spomnite na oblačila?

O1: s.Oliver.

O2: Gucci.

O3: Next.

O4: Nike.

O5: Adidas.

O6: Fila.

O7: Vans.

O8: Puma.

O9: Under Armour.

O10: Adidas.

O11: To smo že.

O12: H und M.

I: Kaj še?

O1: Kipsta, zdej sem se spomnil.

O2: Okaïdi.

O3: Gucci.

O4: Versace.

I: Pa se vam zdijo blagovne znamke pomembne, ko kupujete oblačila?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

I: Pa mislite, da bi vas prijatelji mogoče izključili iz družbe, če ne bi nosili oblačil »kul« blagovnih znamk?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

O1: Mogoče bi nas bolj vključili, če bi imel.

O2: Mogoče če bi mel kakšen dres.

I: Kaj pa vam, a je vam pomembno, katere blagovne znamke nosijo vaši starši ali pa prijatelji?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

O1: Briga me.

[Dečki se smejijo.]

I: Na katere blagovne znamke pa pomislite, ko se spomnite na obutev?

O1: Nike.

O2: Adidas.

O3: Fila.

O4: Puma.

O5: Skechers.

O6: Aja, Salomon.

O7: Gucci.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu obutve?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

I: Kaj pa vaši prijatelji in družina, vam je pomembno, katere blagovne znamke nosijo oni?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

I: Ali mislite, da bi vas drugi izključevali iz družbe na podlagi čevljev, ki jih imate obute?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

I: Gremo naprej. Na kaj pa pomislite, ko se spomnite na kozmetiko, na katere blagovne znamke?

O1: Afrodita.

O2: Labello.

O3: Labellino

O4: Aquafresh.

O5: Nivea.

O6: Signal.

O7: L'Occitane.

O8: Nuxe.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu kozmetike?

O1: To pa ne vem.

Nekaj dečkov: Ja.

Nekaj dečkov: Ne.

O2: Ne nakupujem kozmetike.

O3: Odvisno.

I: Kaj pa ko pomislite na igrače, a se spomnite na kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Lego.

O2: Dexy Co [Ime spletne trgovine za nakup igrač.]

O3: Playmobile.

O4: IQ igrače.

O5: Brainbox.

O6: Nerf.

I: Še kakšna mogoče? Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu igrač?

Nekaj dečkov: Ja.

Nekaj dečkov: Ne.

O1: Ja, razen če v tujini kupuješ, tam ne veš.

O2: Odvisno tudi, kako to izgleda. Če so iz plastike, raje ne kupim, jaz kupim take, ki so za dolgo časa.

O3: Ja!

O4: Pa take igrače, da niso made in China.

O5: Odvisno, ker v Chini je tudi več kvalitetnih izdelkov.

O6: No ja, cheap plastika.

I: Velja. Na katere blagovne znamke pa pomislite, ko se spomnite na igralne konzole?

O1: Xbox.

O2: PlayStation.

O3: Nintendo.

O4: GameCube.

O5: Wii.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu igralnih konzol?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Nujno. Xbox mora biti.

O2: Ne, PlayStation.

O3: Ne pa ne, Nintendo.

I: Gremo zdaj kar naprej na knjige, a se spomnite kakšnih blagovnih znamk?

O1: Ja, Mladinska knjiga.

O2: Mojang.

O3: Učila.

O4: Rocus Klett.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu knjig?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ne.

I: Velja, še zadnje vprašanje. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na mobilne telefone?

O1: iPohone.

O2: Samsung.

O3: Apple.

O4: Huawei.

O5: iPhone

O6: Nokia.

O7: Xiaomi.

O8: LG.

O9: Sony Xperia.

O10: iPhone.

O11: Lenovo.

O12: Google phone.

O13: Google?

O14: Ja, Pixel.

O15: Honor.

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu telefonov?

Več dečkov hkrati: Ja.

O1: Mora biti iPhone.

O2: Ne, Samsung.

I: Gremo na nalepke. Zdaj bom razdelila nalepke, ki imajo gor narisane skupine izdelkov, o katerih smo se zdaj pogovarjali. Torej telefoni, oblačila, kozmetika... In zdaj vas prosim, da te nalepke nalepite na delovni list v desni stolpec. Čisto zgoraj dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najbolj pomembne pri nakupovanju. Čisto spodaj pa dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najmanj pomembne. Vmes pa porazdelite še druge glede na pomembnost. Bo šlo? Razporejate torej enako kot ste prej.

[Dečki lepijo nalepke.]

I: Prav. Gremo še na zadnji del. Obrnite delovne liste na drugo stran. Zgoraj boste najprej napisali, katera je vaša najljubša blagovna znamka. V okvirček pa narišite njen logotip. Potem poskusite odgovoriti na vprašanja spodaj. Če imate kakšno vprašanje o navodilih, dvignite roko, pa se bomo pogovorili oz. vam pridem pomagat.

[Dečki izpolnijo delovni list.]

I: Ste vsi končali? Če ste zaključili, lahko oddate delovni list in greste nazaj v svoj razred.

[Dečki oddajo delovne liste in odidejo.]

Appendix 32: Transcript of focus group debate (FG6)

I: Zdravo, moje ime je Iva in danes bi se z vami rada pogovarjala o nakupovanju. Če imate kakšno vprašanje, prosim, dvignite roko, tako bomo najlažje sodelovale. Bi se za začetek lahko predstavile?

[Vseh 9 deklic pove svoje ime.]

I: V redu, super, hvala. Če karkoli potrebujete, me kar vprašajte. Zdaj bi pa začeli kar z vprašanji. Mi lahko mogoče najprej poveste, koliko ve sodelujete pri nakupovalnem procesu? Greste s starši v trgovino?

Veliko deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Na kakšen način pa kaj sodelujete v nakupovalnem procesu?

O1: V bistvu jaz ko grem z mami, napišem listek, ker mi mami pove, kaj potrebujemo. In potem v bistvu ker jaz vem bolj kakor mami, kje je kaj, pa pomagam. Torej da preberem in najdem, kje je kakšna stvar.

I: Super.

O2: Jaz pa na primer imam ful dober spomin in večkrat mi mami kaj reče, da si moram to zapomnit, da bomo kupili. In preden gremo iz trgovine, mi vedno reče, če smo kaj pozabili, pa ji potem začnem govorit, kaj smo še pozabili, kar mi je prej naročila.

I: Aha. Mogoče pomagate tudi zbirati izdelke?

Veliko deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Pa imate kakšen primer?

O1: Pri kruhu me mami večkrat vpraša katerega hočem.

O2: Raje vzameš tistega bolj zdravega.

Več deklic hkrati: ja.

O3: Jaz vzamem recimo koruznega ali pa kakšnega temnejšega. Samo mami pa doma peče kruh.

O4: Mi po navadi pečemo doma, ker je men ful boljši domač kruh kot pa iz trgovine. Včasih pa v trgovini kupimo črnega.

O5: Pri nas doma tudi večkrat speče mami polnozrnat kruh, ker od sošolke babica dostavlja pirino moko. Drugače pa tudi v trgovini kupimo raje temnega kot belega.

I: Aha, super. Kaj pa pri kakšnih drugih izdelkih, tudi pomagate izbirati? Vas kdaj starši vprašajo?

O1: Mhm.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O2: Pri oblekah.

O3: Večkrat me mami za kakšen izdelek vpraša, ali pa za sok, ko dobimo kakšne obiske. Pa me vpraša, ali bi tega ali tega, pa jaz že približno vem, kaj radi pijemo pa izberem.

O4: Pač svetuješ, če veš, kakšna je kvaliteta. Če si že kdaj probal, pa ti ni bilo všeč, potem veš, da naslednjič tega ne boš kupil.

I: A greste tudi same kdaj v trgovino?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: kaj pa si greste recimo kupit takrat?

O1: Čokolado.

O2: V bistvu kar mi mami naroči. Pa ker grem večkrat z njo, že približno vem, kaj naj vzamem. Recimo če me pošlje po kruh, vem, katerega ona večkrat vzame, pa potem tudi jaz tega vzamem.

O3: Al pa če kaj pečemo, recimo palačinke. Pa če nam zmanjka jajc, pa ker imamo blizu Mercator, pa grem iskat.

O4: Mi imamo pa sosedo... Ker je ravno ta primer z jajci... Mi imamo sosedo, ki ima kokoši in vedno, če nam zmanjka kaj jajc, grem jaz, vzamem denar in grem k njej. In na primer kdaj ona tudi vzame v zameno škatle za jajca.

O5: Bio.

O4: Ja, bio.

I: Pa si greste same kupit tudi kdaj kaj zase, recimo kakšne piškote, čips ali pa kokakolo?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ko grem k verouku, recimo.

O2: Ne.

I: A greste mogoče kdaj tudi oblačila same kupit?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Daleč od trgovine smo, pa ne moremo.

I: Aha, seveda.

O1: Pa zaenkrat še nič ne rabim, če je kaj takega, prosim starše. Saj imamo še veliko oblačil.

O2: Jaz grem ponavadi kar z mami, ker je daleč. Pa ker ve. Ponavadi gremo kar v iste trgovine, ampak si jaz zberem, kaj bi jaz nosila, ne da bo v omari stalo.

I: Ko ste omenile, da greste same v trgovino: ali si kdaj kupite kaj s svojo žepnino?

O1: Kdaj pa kdaj.

[Deklice prikimavajo.]

O2: Pač v bistvu ta denar, ki mi ga mami da, je moja žepnina. Ko ji rečem da, nekaj rabim.

I: Kaj pa nakupovanje preko spleta, a ste že kdaj nakupovale?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Moja mami ves čas kupuje.

O2: Ja, moja mami večkrat.

O3: Moja mami je dvakrat nekaj kupila..

O4: Ko mi kupujemo, v bistvu še nobeden iz naše družine ni tako nikoli naročil iz tujih držav, ampak vedno iz Slovenije, da dostavljajo.

O5: Ja, recimo takšne stvari, ki niso preveč pomembne, ker ne veš, kakšne kvalitete je kaj. In na primer nekaj, kar ni preveč drago in če ti ni v redu, da potem ne zapraviš ful denarja za nič.

O6: Ja, pa na primer pri oblačilih. Večkrat rečejo, pojdi raje v trgovino in probaj, ker lahko je drugačen model, ko pa potem kupiš, je drago, ampak ti ni prav.

O7: Mi pa recimo tako naredimo: če ima trgovina spletno stran, pogledamo, katera oblačila ima, da ne rabimo ravno v trgovino hodit in če nam je kaj všeč, pol vemo, kaj gremo iskat.

I: Aha, seveda, da si vnaprej narediš nekakšen plan. Prej ste rekly, da kupujete preko spleta, pa me samo še zanima, če kupujete same ali s pomočjo staršev?

Več deklic hkrati: S starši.

O1: Večkrat s pomočjo staršev, na primer za rojstni dan sta mi oči in mami kupila rolerje in sem bila zraven, samo da sem si zbrala, drugo sta pa onadva uredila. Pač barvo in model sem izbrala.

I: Super. Gremo kar na naslednje vprašanje, in sicer me zanima če bi znale razložiti, kaj so to blagovne znamke?

O1: Recimo oblačila jih imajo.

O2: Ja, oblačila.

O3: Pa ne samo oblačila, tudi recimo hrana ima blagovne znamke.

O4: Torej vsaka stvar ima svojo blagovno znamko. Recimo od jogurta je drugačna kot od neke vode.

O5: Podjetje, ki proizvaja svoje produkte.

Več deklic hkrati: Ja. [Se strinjajo z O5.]

I: Super. Pa se mogoče spomnite, kdaj ste prvič stopile v stik z blagovno znamko? In kdo vam jo je predstavil?

O1: Mogoče v prvem razredu, ko smo šle z mami kupit kaj za 1. šolski dan. Ampak takrat me to še ni tako zanimalo. Pač toliko da smo šle v trgovino in kupile tisto, kar sem potem oblekla.

O2: Jaz sem tudi v bistvu nekaj takega, kar je ona rekla. Ampak mislim, da sem prvič prišla v stik z blagovnimi znamkami, predvsem ko so se sošolci prepirali. Na primer ali je Adidas boljši ali Nike. Potem pa pač sem videla, da so razlike tudi v kvaliteti, modelih pa tako. Da, vsaka blagovna znamka ima nek določen okvir in potem spreminja modele, recimo.

O3: Jaz, ko sem bila v prvem razredu, sem šla z mojim bratom pa očitom v trgovino, ker je bratec rabil nove tenisne. In ko sem zagledala blagovno znamko Nike, sem doma spraševala brata, kaj to pomeni in potem mi je on povedal, da je to nekako blagovna znamka, ki je na oblačilih.

O4: Jaz mislim, da ko sem bila v prvem razredu, pa sva z mami šli kupovat copate, pa je mami rekla, da te pa niso tako kvalitetne in mi povedala o blagovnih znamkah.

I: Aha, super. Kje pa danes dobite informacije o blagovnih znamkah? Kdo vam svetuje, katere so dobre, katere niso?

Več deklic hkrati: Od staršev.

O1: Iz izkušenj.

O2: Prodajalka.

O3: Tudi recimo, če mi je kaj všeč v trgovini, najprej vprašam mami, če je v redu. Recimo, če je pretanek material, potem raje ne kupimo, ker se lahko hitro razpara. In je brez veze.

O4: Če pa preko interneta naročaš, ti pa lahko tam tudi kaže ocene ljudi in komentarje: da se recimo raztrga, da so dobil ne vem kakšno in potem tudi na to gledaš.

O5: Ali pa na primer gledaš sestavo. Recimo, če je nekaj čisto iz poliestra, je vroče.

O6: Ja, ni za poletje.

I: Pa mogoče kdaj tudi Googlate blagovne znamke, da bi našle informacije o njih?

Nekaj deklic hkrati: Včasih.

I: Velja. Ali bi rekle, da so vam blagovne znamke načeloma pomembne pri nakupovanju?

Nekaj deklic hkrati: Ja.

Nekaj deklic hkrati: Ne.

Nekaj deklic hkrati: Odvisno.

O1: Pač moji mamici ne. Enkrat se spomnim, da si je kupila pleteno jopico in se ji je takoj strgala. Pa enkrat je kupila nekaj moji sestrični za rojstni dan in se je tudi takoj strgalo.

O2: Na primer tako, da bi moral vedno imeti Adidas in Nike to ne. Ker v bistvu sploh ni pomembno, je bolj za to, da si drugi mislijo »o si pa lahko privoščiš«. V bistvu si dal ful veliko denarja za to, pa bi si lahko pet stvari kupil s tem denarjem, ki si ga dal za to eno drago stvar.

O3: Pa v bistvu je malo brez veze, da si nekaj kupiš, majico ali pa kaj podobnega, zato ker ima gor napisano blagovno znamko.

I: Kje pa bi rekle, da so vam blagovne znamke pomembne?

O1: Mogoče pri hrani, ker ima ena blagovna znamka boljšo hrano kot druga.

O2: Ali pa meni pri oblačilih, zato da bi jih lahko dlje časa nosila. Pa tudi če je malo dražje, je pa boljša kvaliteta.

O3: Pač pri enih stvareh, ki jih boš dlje imel ane.

O4: Ali pa pri čevljih. Jaz sem kupila ene čevlje, ki so bili zelo dragi in samo v šolo in nazaj sem šla z njimi in po enem mesecu je že odpadel podplat. In so bile ful drage in sem rekla, da v tej trgovini ne bom več takih stvari kupovala, ker so zelo drage, pa ni tako kvalitetno.

O5: Jaz pa imam te čevlje že 6 mesecev. In prej sploh nisem poznala te blagovne znamke in nisem vedela, kako bodo zdržale. In v trgovini je bil en aparat, ki odstrani umazanijo in smo jih dali tam noter. In jih že zelo dolgo nosim, pa nobene take praske ni gor ali pa na primer, če je kakšna umazanija, samo pobrišem. Imam pa še ene druge čevlje, ki so bili iste blagovne znamke, ampak so mi bile v dveh mesecih prevelike, so se raztegnile. In jih nisem mogla več nosit.

I: V redu. Zdaj bi pa rada preverila, koliko blagovnih znamk poznate. Pa bomo najprej pogledali prehranske izdelke. Povedala vam bom skupino prehranskih izdelkov, vas pa prosim, da naštejete blagovne znamke teh prehranskih izdelkov, ki se jih spomnite. Bo šlo? Pa prosim, poskusite govoriti ena po ena.

[Deklice prikimavajo.]

I: Torej: na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na sladkarije?

O1: Šumi.

O2: Haribo.

O3: Trolli.

O4: Milka.

O5: M&M.

O6: Kraš.

O7: Manner.

O8: Skittles.

O9: Kinder.

O10: Toffife.

O11: Twix.

O12: Snickers.

O13: Ferrero Rocher.

O13: Štark znak je včasih gor. Na več produktih.

O14: Lindt.

O15: Raffaello.

O16: To je vse Ferrero Rocher...

O17: Gorenjka.

O18: Domačica.

O19: Frutabela.

O20: Chupa Chups.

O21: Barni.

O22: Orbit.

O23: Hals.

O24: Ricola.

O25: Hubba Bubba.

O26: Juicy Fruit.

O27: Ledo.

O28: King.

O29: Leo.

O30: Oreo.

I: Pa je pri sladkarijah pomembna blagovna znamka, ko jih kupujete?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Ja, zaradi okusa nekako.

O2: Vsak brand ima itak svoje izdelke in ne moreš primerjat.

O3: Jaz raje kupim sladkarijo, ki sem jo že probala, pa vem, da mi je dobra, kot pa da vzamem nekaj, kar še nisem probala, pa mi ni dobro pa zapravim denar.

O4: Jaz se pa ne strinjam z njo. Jaz ravno obratno. Rada preizkušam nove stvari, da vidim kakšni so okusi in mogoče kaj novega spoznam, kar mi je še boljše od tistega, kar sem prej jedla.

I: Recimo, če pogledamo Oreo piškotke. Imaš torej Oreo piškote in imaš trgovinske znamke, ki so zelo podobne Oreo piškotom, pa so cenejši. Katere bi vzela?

O1: Saj so skoraj isti.

O2: Cenejše bi vzela.

O3: Jaz pa raje Oreo.

O4: Jaz tudi.

O5: V Mercatorju recimo imajo Trolli bombone, ki so neki črvi, potem pa so zraven Mercatorjevi bonboni, ki so čisto podobni, samo mogoče ni tako izrazit okus, ampak so še vedno v redu. Pa se pozna tudi na ceni.

O6: Ja, Lumpi bonboni.

O7: Isto tiste žabice, ki so Mercatorjeve pa Haribo.

O8: Ali pa tiste jagode od Mercatorja.

I: Gremo na naslednje vprašanje: Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na gazirane pijače?

Več deklic hkrati: Coca-Cola.

O1: Fanta.

O2: Ora.

O3: Cockta.

O4: Radenska.

O5: Pepsi.

O6: Coca-Cola Zero.

O7: Sprite.

O8: Fanta.

O9: 7Up.

O10: Orangina.

O11: Tonic.

O12: Schweppes.

O13: Donat Mg.

O14: Fanta.

O15: Radenska z okusom

I: Pa so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu gaziranih pijač?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Ne, ker jih ne pijem.

O2: Enako. Samo ob kakšnih posebnih priložnostih, za novo leto ali pa kakšen rojstni dan.

O3: Jaz pijem samo Cockto.

I: Zakaj pa recimo ne pijete gaziranih pijač?

O1: Ker imajo preveč sladkorja.

O2: Ker je toliko sladkorja da ti na koncu zobje kar škripajo. Meni je res fuj.

O3: Pa mehurčki, sploh ne moreš pogoltnit.

I: V redu. Gremo na naslednje vprašanje. Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na sokove – torej brez mehurčkov.

O1: Sola.

O2: Fruc.

O3: Fructal.

O4: Pingo.

O5: 1st.

O6: Ja saj to je Fructal.

O7: Dana.

O8: Jana.

O9: Happy Day.

O10: Pa vsaka trgovina ima sokove teh svojih trgovinskih znamk.

I: Pa se vam mogoče pri sokovih zdi pomembno, katere blagovne znamke so, ko jih kupujete?

O1: Tukaj ne ravno, bolj je odvisno od okusa.

Večina deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ne sme bit pretirano sladek, recimo.

I: Torej pri sokovih nakup ni pogojen toliko z blagovnimi znamkami, kot je s samim okusom?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Pa bi rekle, da so sokovi znamk, ki ste jih zdaj naštele, boljši od recimo Mercatorjeve znamke sokov?

Več deklic hkrati: Ni nujno.

O1: Na primer v Eurospinu in v Sparu imajo isto vodo z okusom, ki jo polni isti proizvajalec, pa je v Eurospinu cenejša kot v Sparu. Razlika je samo v embalaži.

I: Prav. Gremo naprej še na blagovne znamke paštete.

Več deklic hkrati: Argeta.

O2: Gavrilovič.

O3: Kekec.

O4: Jaz ne jem paštete, tako da...

O5: Rio Mare.

O6: Pa kaj je že... Delamaris.

O7: Pa ena tunina pašteta...

O8: Eva.

I: Pa bi rekle, da je blagovna znamka pomembna, ko nakupujete paštete?

Nekaj deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Kupujemo samo eno znamko, vedno...

O2: Argeta!

O3: Bolj je odvisno od okusa.

O4: Recimo jaz ne maram Gavrilovič, Argeto imam pa rada. Ne gre toliko za blagovno znamko kot za okus.

I: Velja. Kaj pa ko omenim kosmiče, na katere blagovne znamke pomislite?

O1: Žito.

O2: Nesquik.

O3: Jaz ne jem kosmičev...

O4: Frutabela tudi zdaj dela nekaj...

O5: Manner.

O6: Čokolino.

O7: Zlato polje ima. Tiste muslije.

O8: Oni imajo neke Sport s kokosom ane?

O9: Ja.

I: Pa bi rekle, da so blagovne znamke pri nakupu kosmičev pomembne?

O1: Tukaj je bolj kakšen okus imajo.

O2: Tukaj se prav vidi, da ne poznamo veliko znamk, ker jih sploh ne gledamo, ampak vzamemo prav tiste znamke, ki so nam všeč.

O3: Ja.

O4: Mi tudi vedno ene in iste vzamemo, pa imamo vsaj pet vrst kosmičev doma.

O5: Tukaj je okus pomemben.

I: Kaj pa blagovne znamke slanih prigrizkov, se spomnite kakšnih?

O1: Tuc-Tuc.

O2: Mercator čips.

O3: Bobi palčke.

O4: Chio Chips.

O5: Cruchips.

O6: Pringles

O7: Smoki.

O8: Pom-Bär.

O9: Kako je že blagovna znamka tistih Smokijev, ki se ti kar stopijo v ustih?

O10: Aja, vem, kaj misliš. Kaj so že, Lino Baby Flips!

O11: Ti so pa res ful dobri.

O12: A se štejejo tudi riževi vaflji?

I: Lahko, če se spomniš blagovne znamke?

O1: Kaj je že tisto... Bio Zone.

I: Bravo!

O1: To je pa to, če si konstantno v trgovini... [Smeh.]

I: Pa bi rekle, da so vam blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu slanih prigrizkov?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Odvisno je od okusa.

[Deklice prikimavajo, se strinjajo z O1.]

I: Super. Gremo še na zadnje vprašanje v tem sklopu. Ali se spomnite kakšne blagovne znamke mleka?

O1: Alpsko mleko.

O2: Mu.

O3: Mercator.

O4: Spar.

O5: Mlejko.

O6: Alpsko je v bistvu...

O7: Čokoladno mleko.

O8: Ja, pri čokoladnem mleku je meni blagovna znamka kar pomembna, ker mi je samo Alpsko čokoladno mleko všeč, drugega ne maram. Drugače pa mi ni važno.

I: Potem bi rekle, da so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu mleka?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ne, jaz včasih pijem iz Eurospina mleko, naslednji teden pa Alpsko pa ni nobene razlike. Vseeno je.

O2: Jaz tudi mislim da je vseeno.

I: Zdaj gremo lepiti nalepke. Razdelila bom delovne liste in nalepke, ki imajo gor narisane skupine izdelkov, o katerih smo se zdaj pogovarjali. Torej sladkarije, sokovi, slani prigrizki... In zdaj vas prosim, da te nalepke nalepite na delovni list v levi stolpec. Čisto zgoraj dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najbolj pomembne pri nakupovanju. Čisto spodaj pa dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najmanj pomembne. Vmes pa porazdelite še druge glede na pomembnost. Bo šlo?

[Deklice lepijo nalepke.]

I: Če ste vse končale, bi šle počasi na drugi sklop. Zdaj se bomo pogovarjale še o izdelkih, ki niso hrana. Velja? Na katere izdelke pomislite, ko se spomnite na oblačila?

O1: Nike.

O2: Adidas.

O3: Puma.

O4: Under Armour.

O5: s.Oliver.

O6: Okaïdi.

O7: H&M.

O8: Zara.

O9: New Yorker.

O10: Bershka.

O11: Stradivarius.

O12: Mango.

O13: Gap.

O14: Guess.

O15: Gucci.

I: Super, še kakšna mogoče? Ne? Pa mislite, da so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu oblačil?

Nekaj deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Ne.

O2: Odvisno.

O3: Okolje tudi vpliva nate. Na primer ,tudi če si ti sam pri sebi misliš, da ti nič ne pomeni, nekako vseeno vpliva nate zaradi drugih.

O4: Ja.

[Deklice prikimavajo.]

I: Pa bi rekle, da bi se drugi manj družili z vami, če ne bi imele določenih blagovnih znamk oblačil?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Saj, pa kaj...

O2: Pač to niso tvoji pravi prijatelji. Če so tvoji pravi prijatelji, potem te bodo sprejeli ne glede na to, kako si oblečen, pa če ti lahko res zaupajo. In pač če te izločijo, si najdeš nekoga drugega.

I: A potem mogoče pričakujete, da bi se na srednji šoli to malo bolj dogajalo, da bi bilo bolj izrazito?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

O1: Seveda

O2: Ja, seveda.

O3: Nekateri se že zdaj tako obnašajo...

I: Kaj pa ve, a je vam pomembno, kaj nosijo vaši prijatelji ali pa družina, katere blagovne znamke?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

O1: Če na primer ne nosiš, ampak hočeš nosit samo zato, da bi te sprejeli, potem bi te tudi s časom izločili, zato ker tisti, ki imajo veliko denarja, imajo vsakič drugačno Nike ali Adidas majico. Če bi pa ti večkrat imel isti Adidasov pullover, bi pa najbrž te tudi zaradi tega izključili.

I: Aha. Pa pogledjmo še čevlje. Ali mislite, da so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu čevljev?

O1: Ja... Ker včasih so res kar ene znamke...

O2: Ja, pri čevljih je kar pomembno. Na primer zdaj zato, ker nam še noga raste, potem je pa pomembno zato, da jih imaš lahko dlje časa, ne da moraš na vsake pol leta kupit nove.

O3: Jaz imam že zdaj lahko dlje časa ene čevlje, ker mi kupijo eno številko večje. Ampak tak model, da mi noga v redu noter stoji in mi je prav.

O4: Jaz imam pa te copate 36, pa imam številko 34.

I: Pa poznate kakšne blagovne znamke obutve?

O1: Nike.

O2: Adidas.

O3: Puma.

O4: Fila.

O5: Skechers.

O6: Gucci.

O7: Guess.

O8: CCC.

O9: Deichman.

O10: Fila.

O11: Mustang.

O12: Tommy Hilfiger.

I: Aha, super. Prej ste rekle, da so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu obutve, če sem prav razumela?

Več deklic hkrati: Ja.

I: Vam je pomembno tudi, katere blagovne znamke nosijo vaši prijatelji ali pa družina?

O1: Ne.

O2: Ne.

O3: Meni je vseeno.

O4: Ja, vseeno je.

I: Mislite, da bi se drugi mogoče manj družili z vami, če ne bi nosile čevljev določenih »kul« blagovnih znamk?

O1: Ne.

O2: Ne.

O3: Itak smo v šoli v copatih in imamo vsi ali drsalke ali pa navadne. In se obujemo, samo ko gremo v kulturni center, ali pa, ko gremo domov.

I: Kaj pa v srednji šoli, mislite, da bi se tam bolj pogosto lahko zgodilo, da bi vas izključili iz družbe, zato ker nimate obutve določene blagovne znamke?

O1: Mogoče.

O2: Malo bolj, ja.

O3: Prej oblačila, kot pa obutev.

I: V redu. Gremo na naslednje vprašanje: Na katere blagovne znamke pomislite, ko se spomnite na kozmetiko?

O1: Nivea.

O2: Afrodila.

O3: L'Occitane.

O4: Essence.

O5: Balea.

O6: Maybelline.

O7: Labello.

O8: Tista, ki je v Bosni ful dobra... pa imajo tudi pri nas... Melem.

O9: Bioderma.

O10: Eucerin.

O11: Labellino.

I: Pa bi rekle, da so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu kozmetike?

O1: Ja...

O2: Odvisno, kaj ti paše.

O3: Ja, odvisno, kaj paše tvoji koži. Znamke niti niso pomembne, bolj je pomembno, kako to vpliva na zdravje, počutje...

O4: Enim je pomembno, enim pa ne.

O5: Recimo moja sestra je imela en šampon in mene je po uporabi vse srbelo. In kljub temu če bi bila neka super blagovna znamka, ne bi še enkrat kupila, ker me je vse srbelo.

I: Super. Kaj pa ko pomislite na igrače, se spomnite kakšnih blagovnih znamk?

O1: Lego.

O2: Barbie.

O3: Dexy Co.

O4: Lego Duplo.

O5: Jaz se ne igram več...

O6: Jaz tudi ne...

O7: Kaj so že res...

O8: Aha, Ty, na nekih plišastih igračkah.

O9: Kaj pa LOL punčke?

O10: Ja, LOL so tudi.

O11: Ja!

O12: Kaj pa te namesto Barbie, Sophie?

O13: Ja, tudi to!

O14: Kaj pa tiste punčke, ki imajo dolge lase...?

O15: Ja, saj to so LOL.

O16: Ne, tiste neki-neki, z zvezdami povezano al' kaj

O17: Ja, vem, kaj misliš, ja!

O18: Kaj pa tista, ki ima modre lase?

O19: Aja, tista... Luna Petunia!

O20: Ja!

O21: Po risankah imajo tudi ful igrač.

O22: Garfield je tudi ful dober.

O23: Kaj ima moja sestrice...

O24: Zdaj se že bolj s kakšnimi žogami igrajo...

I: Pa bi rekle, da so blagovne znamke pomembne pri nakupu igrač?

O1: Ne.

O2: Pff, za take majhne otroke, ne...

O3: Mogoče samo za Barbike.

O4: Ja, ker nekatere punčke so bile take malo čudne. Pa smo imele raje Barbie.

I: Na katere blagovne znamke pa pomislite, ko se spomnite na igralne konzole?

O1: PlayStation.

O2: Nintendo Switch.

O3: Kaj je že...

O4: Xbox.

I: Še kaj?

O1: To sploh ni pomembno.

I: Aha, torej bi rekle, da blagovne znamke niso pomembne pri igralnih konzolah?

O1: Ne, za nas ne.

O2: To so fantje, ki igrajo igrice.

O3: Mojemu bratu je to ful. Pa nočem to, pa nočem uno, pa to ni dobro, pa... [zavije z očmi]

O4: Popoldne se punce kličemo ena drugo, če bi se skupaj učile, fantje pa če bi igrali skupaj igrice.

O5: Ja.

O6: Pa tudi če rečejo »gremo košarko igrat,« pa pridejo na igrišče, pa so na telefonih!

[Deklice se smejijo.]

I: Kaj pa ko pomislite na knjige, poznate kakšne blagovne znamke?

O1: Mladinska knjiga.

O2: Učila.

O3: DZS.

O4: Založba Grahovec.

O5: Bolj so naslovi pomembni, tisto kar rad bereš, ni niti založba toliko pomembna.

I: Torej bi rekle, da blagovne znamke pri knjigah niso pomembne?

Več deklic hkrati: Ne.

I: Pa še zadnje vprašanje: blagovne znamke mobilnih telefonov.

O1: iPhone.

O2: Samsung.

O3: Huawei.

O4: LG.

O5: Nokia.

O6: Apple.

O7: Kaj je Xiaomi zdaj nek kitajski...

O9: Smo Samsung rekle?

O10: Ja.

O11: Wiko je tud neki.

O12: Lenovo

O13: Pa to bi rekla, da ni neki pomembno.

O14: Vsak se za nekaj odloči, kar mu paše...

O15: Tudi te lahko izključijo zaradi tega, kakšen telefon imaš... Recimo en sošolec se je posmehoval sošolki, ki je imela tak telefon na tipke samo toliko, da pokliče, ko gre domov zato ker bolj stran živi. In se je norca delal, če nimajo njeni starši denarja, da bi ji boljši telefon kupil.

O16: Ja kaj a oni imajo pa tok denarja, da ne vejo, kaj bi z njim?

O17: Ker on pa dobi telefon za 1000 EUR...

O18: Jaz imam en telefon od mami, pa ga je imela že 15 let.

O19: Moj oči, pač takoj ko so bili telefoni, ga je dobil in v prvih 10 sekundah mu je padel na tla in mu je šel...

I: Pa se vam torej zdijo blagovne znamke pomembne pri telefonih?

O1: Ne.

O2: Ja.

O3: Če nekdo hoče imet telefon na tipke, naj ga ima, saj je to njegova stvar.

O4: Ja, ni važno, kakšen imaš telefon, važno, da lahko pokličeš.

O5: Potem se vedno najdejo neki ljudje, ki te potem zafrkavajo, da si manj vreden, ker telefon toliko pomeni.

P6: Na Instagramu, na neki aplikaciji, se ljudje grejo v trgovino slikat z novimi telefoni, a v bistvu imajo nek star telefon. Se delajo frajerje.

I: Zdaj gremo pa na nalepke. Razdelila bom nalepke, ki imajo gor narisane skupine izdelkov, o katerih smo se zdaj pogovarjale. Torej telefoni, oblačila, kozmetika... Prosim, da te nalepke nalepite na delovni list v desni stolpec. Čisto zgoraj dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najbolj pomembne pri nakupovanju. Čisto spodaj pa dajte nalepko s tistimi izdelki, kjer so vam blagovne znamke najmanj pomembne. Vmes pa porazdelite še druge glede na pomembnost. Bo šlo? Razporejate torej enako kot ste prej.

[Deklice lepijo nalepke.]

I: Gremo še na zadnji del. Obrnite delovne liste na drugo stran. Zgoraj boste najprej napisale, katera je vaša najljubša blagovna znamka. V okvirček pa narišite njen logotip. Potem poskusite odgovoriti na vprašanja spodaj. Če imate kakšno vprašanje o navodilih, dvignite roko, pa se bomo pogovorili oz. vam pridem pomagat.

[Deklice izpolnijo delovni list.]

I: Ste vse končale? Če ste zaključile, lahko oddate delovni list in greste nazaj v svoj razred.

[Deklice oddajo delovne liste in odidejo.]