# Perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives amongst Generation Y students

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I declare that:

"Perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives amongst Generation Y Students"

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

**SIGNATURE** **DATE**

Chantel Muller
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## LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR

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**16 November 2016**

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have language edited the **dissertation** of

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

Yours truly,

Linda Scott

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# ABSTRACT

**Perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives amongst Generation Y students**

**KEYWORDS:** attitudes, alcohol-consumption behaviour, motives, Generation Y, students, demarketing, South Africa.

Excessive alcohol consumption has been a global issue for decades, especially amongst the Generation Y consumers. These consumers, specifically the Generation Y consumers who are attending higher education institutions with the aim of obtaining tertiary degrees, are the future pioneers of this country. Since these consumers are also those most affected by the negative consequences of excessive alcohol use, including academic failure, demarketing strategies are necessary to target this group. In doing so, a prosperous future for both these individuals and the country is possible.

The published literature on consumer behaviour of the South African Generation Y cohort is limited, specifically with reference to alcohol-consumption motives. Individuals within the Generation Y cohort, pursuing tertiary education, are the future of the economic sector of South Africa, responsible for the country's sustained growth. This group, therefore, is a very important market segment and it is imperative for marketers to understand their alcohol consumption behaviour, as well as their attitudes thereof in order to develop effective demarketing strategies. Without effective demarketing efforts aimed at reducing alcohol consumption among this group, both hazardous and harmful levels of consumption will continue to rise. With the economic costs associated with harmful alcohol use in South Africa already estimated to be between R245 933 to R280 687 billion, this figure will only continue to grow.

As such, the primary objective of this study was to determine Generation Y university students' perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives and consequent attitudes toward such consumption behaviour within the South African context. It is believed that students not only consume higher levels of alcohol based on their perception of other students' drinking behaviour, but that motivation alters perception to facilitate a goal-directed action, or drinking. Therefore, if students' perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives are uncovered, there is a possibility of attempting to change these motives in order to change

attitudes and perceptions that could possibly result in the reduction of alcohol consumption overall.

The target population, relevant to this study, was defined as full-time undergraduate Generation Y students; enrolled at South African registered public higher education institutions (HEIs) and aged between 18 and 24 years. The sampling frame comprised the 26 registered South African public HEIs. A non-probability, judgement sample method was utilised to select one traditional university and one university of technology in the Gauteng province, from the sampling frame. For this study, a convenience sample of 500 Generation Y students was drawn from the sample frame during 2016, where 470 questionnaires were returned and 415 questionnaires deemed viable.

To conduct this study, a structured format was applied where lecturers of the applicable classes were contacted and permission was requested to carry out the survey. Thereafter, hand-delivered self-administered questionnaires were distributed for completion during the scheduled class times of the full-time undergraduate students, which were collected thereafter.

The questionnaire requested participants to indicate on a six-point Likert scale the extent to their agreement/disagreement with items designed to measure their attitudes towards alcohol consumption and their perceptions of various alcohol-consumption motives, namely social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives. The collected data were analysed using confirmatory factor analysis, reliability and validity analysis, descriptive statistics analysis, one sample t-test, correlation analysis and regression analysis.

The findings of this study indicate that South African Generation Y students have statistically significant positive attitudes toward alcohol consumption as well as statistically significant positive social motives, coping motives, enhancement motives as well as conformity motives to consume alcohol. South African Generation Y students' perception of social-, enhancement- and conformity motives to consume alcohol influences their attitudes toward alcohol consumption, unlike their perception of coping motives, which does not.

Insights gained from this study will be relevant to marketing practitioners in understanding the perceptions of various motives determining Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption in order to develop appropriate demarketing strategies to target this segment affectively.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

# LIST OF TABLES

# LIST OF FIGURES

# CHAPTER 1

# INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, individuals consume a significant amount of alcohol (National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence, 2011). The Global Status Report on Alcohol and Health (World Health Organization, 2014) indicates that the total amount of alcohol consumed per person globally, both recorded and unrecorded, equalled to 6.2 litres of pure alcohol in 2010. This translates to 13.5 grams of pure alcohol consumed per person daily. Recorded alcohol pertains to alcohol consumed as a beverage and is documented in formal statistics, namely data on alcohol taxation or sales. In contrast, unrecorded alcohol refers to alcohol that is consumed but not accounted for in official statistics; hence, manufactured, dispensed and sold beyond the official channels under government management. The prevalent tendency worldwide is an increase in recorded alcohol consumption (World Health Organization, 2014).

The amount of alcohol consumed by South Africans 15 years and older, averaged 11 litres of pure alcohol annually, which is 4.8 litres higher than the world average, as recorded in 2010. In the year 2013, the ten million South Africans who consumed alcoholic beverages, consumed the equivalent of 1 176 cans or bottles of beer and 62 bottles of distilled liquor. This translates to approximately 20.1 litres of pure alcohol per person in 2013 (Anon, 2013). The amount of alcohol consumed per South African is projected to increase to 11.9 litres per person by the year 2020 and 12.1 litres per person by the year 2025 (World Health Organization, 2014).

The negative consequences of alcohol use include personal injuries, unplanned sexual activity, violation of liquor laws, public intoxication or driving under the influence, suicidal ideation and behaviour, accident and injury (Perkins, 2002:94), an increase in violence, homicide, transport-related accidents and fatalities and unintentional deaths (Ramsoomar & Morojele, 2012:609). According to the Global Status Report on Alcohol and Health (World Health Organization, 2014:48), alcohol consumption caused approximately 3.3 million deaths in 2012. This translates to 5.9 percent of all fatalities, or one in every 20 fatalities globally. Moreover, the excessive consumption of alcohol results in more than two hundred disease and injury conditions including diseases, injuries and other health conditions (World Health Organization, 2014:2). Similarly, within the South African context, harmful alcohol use has led to an increase in violence, homicide, suicide, transport-related accidents and fatalities as well as unintentional deaths (Ramsoomar & Morojele, 2012:609). Due to South Africa being a nation where extensive crime, the elevated levels of HIV infectivity and inadequate educational sources intensify these negative consequences of alcohol abuse (Young & De Klerk, 2008:103) it is evident that alcohol misuse is a profound problem that needs to be addressed.

Although various South African based research highlight the vast amounts of negative consequences caused by excessive alcohol use (Ramsoomar & Morojele, 2012:609; Van Walbeek & Blecher, 2014:6-7, Young & De Klerk, 2008:103), none provide an understanding of the perceived motives that influence an individual's attitude toward alcohol consumption. Alcohol abuse prevention and education campaigns have been devised based on the target market's alcohol consumption (Du Preez *et al.,* 2016:89), seen as a social marketing effort to reduce excessive alcohol use.

Social marketing is a distinct marketing discipline, pertaining to efforts concentrating on influencing behaviours that aim to enhance health, stop injuries, look after the environment as well as give back to communities (Kotler & Lee, 2008:7). Demarketing is a form of social marketing aimed at demotivating harmful behaviour such as excessive alcohol consumption. Social marketing programmes include public heath campaigns aimed at reducing smoking, drug abuse and obesity (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012:253). Demarketing strategies form an integral part in the efforts to reduce harmful alcohol use amongst members of society.

In South Africa, various governmental and institutional alcohol policies are in place aimed at reducing alcohol intake among citizens. These include age restrictions, the requiring of licenses to sell alcoholic beverages, increasing annual excise taxes, requirements for marketing alcohol products such as requiring health warning labels on alcohol, drinking-driving laws and prevention, along with teaching and awareness programmes and the establishment and management of treatment centres (Ramsoomar, 2015; Setlalentoa *et al.,* 2010; Van Walbeek & Blecher, 2014).

An important element of designing demarketing campaigns that successfully discourage certain behaviours, including excessive alcohol consumption, is to have a clear understanding of a targeted audience's attitude towards such behaviour as well as the motives that drive that behaviour (Nieminen *et al.,* 2010:818). Such an understanding assists to adapt current demarketing efforts and guide prospective demarketing policy development (Nieminen *et al.,* 2010:818).

Attitudes are the learned inclination to react in a consistently positive or adverse way regarding certain aspects of the environment (Joubert *et al.,* 2010:5). Therefore, attitudes reflect how consumers think, feel and act toward those aspects in the surrounding environment (Mothersbaugh & Hawkins, 2016:384). Attitudes can be positive or negative in the same manner in which motives display polarity; they exert either positive or negative influences on consumers' behaviour (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:326). Although an attitude is relatively consistent with the behaviour it imitates, it is not necessarily permanent and is subject to change (Parumasur *et al*., 2013:81; Schiffman *et al*., 2012:233). A distinct link between attitudes, perceptions and behaviour has been established (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999:893) and in order to develop targeted strategies aimed at demotivating excessive alcohol use effectively, the perception of the motives behind the individual's consumption habits needs to be examined.

From a review of the literature, it is asserted that motivation alters perception to facilitate a goal-directed action, which is, in this study, the act of consuming alcohol in ranging quantities (Amodio, 2009:2609). Motivation is defined as the "process that initiates, guides and maintains goal-oriented behaviours and causes individuals to act" (Cherry, 2015). Consumers ranging from adolescents to adults use alcohol for different reasons. The ten most prevalent motives for drinking are identified as the ease of access, to feel/be treated like an adult, social and religious duties, as an act of revolt, to alleviate discomfort /self-medicating, to avoid unhappiness and isolation, for experimental purposes, for party and celebratory reasons, for its euphoric effect and due to peer pressure (Priyadharshini, 2014). However, in depth research revealed four motive categories considered sufficient in uncovering the motives for alcohol consumption (Cooper, 1994). These four categories are identified as coping motives, social motives, enhancement motives and conformity motives.

The impact of social influence causes individuals to change how they behave to be more like others (Johnston & White, 2003:66), to do something that they are asked to do by another individual (Langner *et al*., 2013:32) and obeying orders from someone that they accept as an authority figure (Anon, 2015). Drinking to cope refers to the propensity to consume alcoholic beverages to escape, evade, or else control unpleasant feelings (Abbey *et al*., 1993:660) and, therefore, is characterised as escape drinking (Williams & Clark 1998:371). Drinking for the purpose of enhancement pertains to "drinking to enhance positive emotional states" and are determined by elements for instance drinking because it is entertaining and drinking since it is exciting (Kuntsche *et al*., 2006:1847). Conformity is the result of an individual altering his or her behaviour, attitude, emotions and/or principles to fit into a group standard (Fabrigar & Norris, 2012).

## 1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Evidence suggests that the youth, in particular, have a tendency to abuse alcohol (Slicker, 2001:91). Moreover, young individuals aged between 18 and 24 are deemed especially likely to engage in binge drinking, which refers to the consumption of an excessive quantity of alcohol in a single session for the purpose of reaching a level of intoxication (Szmigin *et al*., 2011:763). In South Africa, young adults aged between 18 and 35 are believed to be particularly prone to consume excessive amounts of alcohol in one sitting and the group most prevalent for consuming high and dangerous levels of alcohol (Peltzer *et al*., 2011:31).

In generational research, the youth are presently categorised as being part of the Generation Y cohort and are defined as those individuals born between 1986 and 2005 (Markert, 2004:21), which in 2016 places them at 11 to 30 years old. In South Africa, the members of the Generation Y cohort accounted for 38 percent of the total South African population (Statistics South Africa, 2015). When considering marketing, or in this case demarketing efforts, university students are expected to be of specific interest as a target segment of the Generation Y cohort. A tertiary degree is commonly linked to a greater future income capacity as well as a higher social status within society, which, in combination, means that university graduates often serve as role models and opinion leaders amongst their friends (Bevan-Dye *et al.,* 2009:174). Evidence suggests that university students also tend to consume excessive amounts of alcohol (Tayob & Van der Heever, 2014:365). Determining Generation Y university students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption as well as their perceptions of the motives that drive such behaviour may prove invaluable in designing successful demarketing efforts directed at discouraging excessive alcohol consumption, not only amongst university students but also amongst the wider Generation Y cohort. Moreover, the potential role model influence of university students means that if they can be dissuaded successfully from over indulging, they are likely to influence other members of the Generation Y cohort from abusing alcohol. As indicated previously, such campaigns require a clear understanding of the motives that drive excessive alcohol consumption.

Therefore, determining Generation Y university students' attitudes towards and perceptions of the motives that drive alcohol consumption are likely to aid in designing demarketing efforts directed at discouraging excessive alcohol consumption amongst members of today's youth.

An extensive review of the literature indicates various studies on alcohol consumption behaviour in the South African context focusing specifically on alcohol consumption patterns and trends, age of initiation and connection with alcohol-related harm as well as decreasing alcohol consumption (Kyei & Ramagoma, 2013; Peltzer *et al*., 2011; Ramsoomar & Morojele, 2012; Young & De Klerk, 2007; Young & De Klerk, 2008). However, empirical research on university students' perceptions of the alcohol-consumption motives and consequent attitudes toward such consumption behaviour are limited, particularly in the South African context.

While one recent study (Du Preez *et al*., 2016) investigated the motives that drive university students' alcohol consumption, it did not consider the influence of these motives on university students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption. It is the contention of this study that understanding the influence of individual alcohol-consumption motives on attitudes towards alcohol consumption will aid in focusing the design of demarketing campaigns aimed at discouraging alcohol abuse amongst members of the South African Generation Y cohort. That is, it is essential to establish the degree of influence exerted from these motives in order to provide the necessary solutions to fight the negative impacts caused by alcohol consumption. Since the ban on alcohol promotion has been on the government's itinerary for the previous five years (Ramsoomar, 2015; Van Walbeek & Blecher, 2014), an opportunity for demarketing strategies has developed.

## 1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives have been devised for the study:

### 1.3.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study was to determine Generation Y university students' perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives and consequent attitudes toward such consumption behaviour within the South African context.

### 1.3.2 Theoretical objectives

With the aim of achieving the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives were devised for the study:

- Conduct a review of the literature regarding the traits of representatives of the Generation Y cohort.
- Outline the essential principles of consumer behaviour.
- Conduct a literature review relating to consumer attitudes and motivation.
- Review the literature on variables influencing alcohol-consumption.
- Conduct a review of demarketing strategies pertaining to alcohol consumption.

### 1.3.3 Empirical objectives

In accordance with the study's primary objective, the following empirical objectives were devised:

- Determine Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived social motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived coping motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived enhancement motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived conformity motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine the relationship between perceived social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives on Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.
- Determine the influence of perceived social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives on Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

## 1.4 HYPOTHESES

A hypothesis, instead of merely answering questions, refers to an unproved statement about proposed relationships between factors or phenomena (Malhotra, 2015:71). In addition, hypotheses may be considered an assumption about the nature of a particular situation (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:275).

The following hypotheses were devised for the study:

$H_o1$: Generation Y students do not have a positive attitude towards alcohol consumption.

$H_a1$: Generation Y students have a positive attitude towards alcohol consumption.

$H_o2$: Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive social motives to consume alcohol.

$H_a2$: Generation Y students exhibit significant positive social motives to consume alcohol.

$H_o3$: Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive coping motives to consume alcohol.

$H_a3$: Generation Y students exhibit significant positive coping motives to consume alcohol.

$H_o4$: Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive enhancement motives to consume alcohol.

$H_a4$: Generation Y students exhibit significant positive enhancement motives to consume alcohol.

$H_o5$: Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive conformity motives to consume alcohol.

$H_a5$: Generation Y students exhibit significant positive conformity motives to consume alcohol.

$H_o6$: There is no relationship between perceived social-, coping-, enhancement-, conformity motives and Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

$H_a6$: There is a relationship between perceived social-, coping-, enhancement-, conformity motives and Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

$H_o7$: Generation Y students' perceived motives (social, coping, enhancement, conformity) to consume alcohol do not influence their attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

$H_a7$: Generation Y students' perceived motives (social, coping, enhancement, conformity) to consume alcohol influence their attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

## 1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study comprised a literature review and an empirical study. Quantitative research, using the survey method, was undertaken for the empirical portion of the study.

### 1.5.1 Literature review

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

### 1.5.2 Empirical study

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

#### 1.5.2.1 Target population

The target population selected for this study included all male and female Generation Y students, between the ages of 18 and 24, registered full time at South African public higher education institutions (HEIs) during 2016. The target population was defined as follows:

- Element: Generation Y, full-time undergraduate students, aged between 18 and 24 years
- Sampling unit: Two HEIs

- Extent: Gauteng, South Africa
- Time period: 2016

#### 1.5.2.2 Sampling frame

The sampling frame included the 26 registered South African public higher education institutions (Business Tech, 2015). Out of the sampling frame, a judgement sample of two South African public registered HEIs was selected; one a traditional university and the other a university of technology situated in the Gauteng Province. The Gauteng province was selected since this province consists of the largest distribution of the South African population.

#### 1.5.2.3 Sample method

For this study, one sample was selected conveniently from the sampling frame. A non-probability, convenience sample of 500 full-time Generation Y students was extracted for the purpose of conducting this study. The sampling technique that was used in this study was a single cross-sectional, non-probability, convenience sample of 500 full-time undergraduate Generation Y students. The participants were selected conveniently from the two HEIs after the necessary permission was obtained from the relevant academic staff members.

#### 1.5.2.4 Sample size

The sample size of 500 full-time undergraduate students was selected for this study. This sample size is in line with previous studies done of a similar nature, such as Gunay and Baker (2011:324) (sample size of 431), Holahan *et al.* (2003:160) (sample size of 412) and Slicker (2001:83) (sample size of 403) and, as such, is considered sufficiently large. The sample size of full-time undergraduate students was divided equally between the two HEIs, granting a sample size of 250 students per HEI campus.

#### 1.5.2.5 Measuring instrument and data collection method

For the purpose of this study, a structured self-administered questionnaire was used to collect the required data. In order to measure students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption, a 12-item, attitude scale, developed and validated by Vargas and Luis (2008) was utilised. A 20-item, drinking motives scale, developed and validated by

Cooper (1994) was adapted and utilised to measure the perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives amongst South African Generation Y students. In this study, the drinking motives scale comprised four determinants, including social motives, coping motives, enhancement motives and conformity motives.

The participants were requested to complete a structured questionnaire comprising four sections. Section A, the first section, consisted of questions aimed at gathering demographic information. The second section, Section B, gathered current alcohol-consumption behaviour information as well as the possible reasons for not consuming alcohol. The third section, Section C, comprised a 12-item measuring scale relating to students' attitudes toward alcohol-consumption. The purpose of this section was to gather information about students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption in general as well as uncover individual opinions and feelings toward students' use of alcoholic beverages. The participants' attitudes toward alcohol consumption were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 6= strongly agree) based on the participants' agreement or disagreement with the statements.

The last section, Section D, comprised a 20-item measuring scale relating to the perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives, which included four dimensions, namely social motives (five items), coping motives (five items), enhancement motives (five items) and conformity motives (five items). Section D was aimed at uncovering the perceptions of students pertaining to the alcohol-consumption motives among their fellow students. The participants' perceptions for alcohol-consumption motives were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 6= strongly agree) based on the participants' agreement or disagreement with the statements.

The questionnaire was hand-delivered to the relevant academic staff members after the necessary permission had been obtained. Thereafter, the questionnaire was distributed personally, with the assistance of two trained fieldworkers during one class period. Once the questionnaires were completed, they were returned to the researcher immediately. All the relevant academic staff and participants were acknowledged for their contribution to the study.

The questionnaire included a cover letter that explained the nature and purpose of the study and requested participation. The questionnaire was piloted using a convenient sample of 50 students on a South African HEI campus that did not form part of the sample frame of the main study. This was executed to ensure the reliability of the study. The results of the pilot test were coded, tabulated and the results were considered before the final questionnaire was adopted.

### 1.5.3 Statistical analysis

The captured data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 23.0 for Windows. The following statistical methods were used on the empirical data sets:

- Confirmatory factor analysis
- Reliability and validity analysis
- Descriptive statistical analysis
- One sample t-test
- Correlation analysis
- Regression analysis

## 1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical concerns were employed at all times throughout this study. These ethical considerations included ensuring that participation in the study was strictly voluntary and that all information provided by participants was kept confidential at all times. In addition, prior to commencing with data collection, the questionnaire, together with the study's proposal, was submitted to the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Economic Sciences and Information Technology of the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus). The questionnaire transcended the committee's standards, whereby the subsequent ethical clearance number was issued: **ECONIT-2016-021**.

## 1.7 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 1 included an introduction and background to the research study. An outline of the problem statement, the research objectives and the research methodology was provided. This chapter concluded with the organisation and structure of the research study.

Chapter 2 provides a detailed literature review on alcohol consumption policies, consumer behaviour and motives, attitudes and demarketing of alcohol. The alcohol-consumption motives are defined and discussed with corresponding aspects outlined in full detail. The variables influencing alcohol-consumption behaviour are also discussed in detail. This chapter also provides a definition of demarketing where it is discussed in line with Generation Y cohort, detailing the aspects applicable to alcohol consumption, perception and drinking motives.

In Chapter 3 the target population, sampling method, sample frame, sampling size and the measuring instrument and data collection method are discussed, together with outlining the data analysis and statistical techniques. This chapter takes account of the questionnaire design, questioning format, questionnaire layout, data preparation, coding and distribution. Furthermore, the difficulties experienced in addition to the response rate to the questionnaire are deliberated.

Chapter 4 reports and displays the results obtained from the empirical portion of this study. Moreover, the research findings are examined, interpreted as well as evaluated within this chapter.

A review of the entire research study is provided in Chapter 5, where the conclusions drawn from the study are presented. Recommendations were made based on the findings as well suggestions for further research.

# CHAPTER 2
# CONSUMER MOTIVES AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

As stated in the first chapter, the main objective of this study was to analyse Generation Y students' perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives and consequent attitudes toward such consumption behaviour. The purpose of Chapter 2 is to review the literature in connection with the motives that influence attitudes towards alcohol consumption for the purpose of proposing a model of the motivations of Generation Y students' attitudes towards consuming alcohol. Therefore, this chapter describes the characteristics of the Generation Y cohort in general as well as the South African Generation Y cohort. Moreover, an overview of consumer behaviour, including the decision-making process, attitudes and consumer motivation is provided as a background to the variables that influence alcohol-consumption behaviour. Thereafter, social marketing and the concept of demarketing, comprising the demarketing mix, is laid out and a subsequent model proposed pertaining to the influence of perceived alcohol-consumption motives on attitudes toward alcohol consumption.

Alcohol consumption is referred to as the act of drinking beverages that contain ethyl alcohol (Vaillant & Keller, 2016). In a legal sense, alcoholic beverages are described as any beverage containing ethanol or ethyl alcohol capable of being consumed (US Legal, 2016). Typical alcoholic beverages include brandy, white spirits, fortified wines, beer and RTDs, which are beverages that are to some extent a combination of distilled liquor, wine or malt and a non-alcoholic beverage, supplied in a pre-constructed format ready for consumption (Holtzkampf, 2012). Within the South African context, it generally is accepted that a drink consisting of 12g pure alcohol is regarded as a standard beverage (Industry Association for Responsible Alcohol Use (ARA), 2016). For the purpose of this study, a standard drink is defined as a 330ml can/bottle of beer or cider, 25ml distilled liquor and a 120 ml glass of wine.

Excessive alcohol consumption is costly to the government (Van Walbeek & Blecher, 2014:6-7) and the efforts to reduce this effect, for instance excise tax on alcohol and age restrictions, among other examples, have not significantly changed the drinking patterns among South African consumers; consumption levels are predicted to increase in coming years (World Health Organization, 2014). Ramsoomar (2015) advocates the ban of alcohol advertising, as in the case of tobacco advertising, though this study will focus solely on demarketing alcohol.

Consumer behaviour, as an understanding of buying patterns of products to fulfil consumers' needs and wants, shapes a portion of the foundation of the marketing concept (Joubert *et al.*, 2013:2). Understanding consumers' behaviour assists marketers in comprehending what consumers value the most, hence, influencing the construction of marketing campaigns for market segmentation, targeting and positioning (Hoyer *et al.,* 2013:14). Typically, marketing focuses on increasing demand, be it as a philosophy or as a function (Sodhi, 2011:177). However, demarketing denotes the opposite of marketing (Kumar, 2010) and is defined as the facet of marketing that pertains to discouraging customers in general, or specifically a particular class of customers, on either an interim basis or permanently (Kotler & Levy, 1971:75). Therefore, demarketing is aimed at decreasing demand (Sodhi, 2011:181).

Consistent with the theoretical objectives devised in the first chapter, this chapter, Chapter 2, comprises a discussion of perceived alcohol-consumption motives. To do so, a discussion of consumer behaviour, variables influencing alcohol-consumption behaviour, attitudes, consumer motivation, as well as alcohol-consumption motives, needs to be included first in order to understand why demarketing efforts are necessary.

## 2.2 GENERATION Y COHORT

The concept of generational cohorts is built on the notion that salient historical events and social trends experienced during an individual's formative years shape the prevailing attitudes, values and mind-sets of a given generation and give rise to a generational consciousness (Schewe & Meredith, 2004:51). A generational consciousness refers to the collective attitudes, values and preferences, including consumption-related preferences exhibited by the prototypical member of a generation (Strauss & Howe, 1991:63). Currently, there are four identified generational cohorts in existence, namely the Silent generation, the Baby Boomers, the Generation X cohort and today's youth, the Generation Y cohort (Bolton *et al.,* 2013:247).

While several authors define the Generation Y cohort as including individuals born in the 1980s (Bolton *et al.,* 2013:246; Kim & Hahn, 2012:134; Market, 2004:21; Olson, 2014), there is a great deal of contention as to the exact start and end dates of this generational cohort. The mishmash of dates that abound in the literature creates a great deal of confusion as to whom the Generation Y cohort includes, especially from a market segmentation perspective. In an effort to overcome this confusion and address the issue, sociologist John Markert (2004:21) devised a generational cohort classification scheme that defines generations in 20-year increments, which then are subdivided further into 10-year cohorts, representing the first and second wave of each generation. According to this scheme, the Generation Y cohort includes individuals born between 1986 and 2005. As such, in 2016, the Generation Y cohort included individuals aged between 11 and 30 years. In terms of the university student segment of this generational cohort, which is the target population of this study, studies reported in the literature typically include individuals aged between 18 and 24 years (Cui *et al.,* 2003; Fry, 2015; Kumar & Lim, 2008).

In terms of alcohol consumption, Blume and Marlatt (2004:410) report that heavy- and binge-drinking habits are customary among university students. For instance, in the United States, young individuals aged between 18 and 24 years, typically the age for attending university, have the highest consumption rates of all age groups (Johnston *et al*., 2011:26). Karama *et al.* (2007) report that despite the religion of Islam, in addition to many Arab countries' law, forbidding the use of alcohol, studies have shown the existence of alcohol-related complications among university students in Arab countries (Karam *et al.,* 2003; Suleiman *et al.,* 2003). According to Stenger (2013), Australia is ranked among the top three countries with regard to alcohol abuse, greatly due to the prevalent binge drinking culture in universities. South Africa not only recorded the highest alcohol consumption rate in Africa, but of the highest globally (Bronkhorst, 2014). In addition, as is evident, excessive drinking is more prevalent among university age Generation Y consumers. As such, an investigation of Generation Y in South African follows.

### 2.2.1 Generation Y in South Africa

As indicated in Chapter 1, members of the Generation Y cohort accounted for approximately 38 percent of South Africa's population of 54 956 920 in 2015 (Statistics South Africa, 2015). This figure represents a sizable portion of the country's population. In terms of current and future health care costs in South Africa, it is evident that the government has a vested interest in promoting healthier lifestyle choices amongst this market segment, including discouraging alcohol abuse. Indeed, a recent publication in the government gazette proposed several moves to counteract excessive alcohol consumption in South Africa. These included locating liquor premises no closer than 500 metres from schools, religious institutions, recreational facilities, rehabilitation or care centres, residential areas and public institutions, in addition raising the national minimum legal age at which alcohol can be acquired and used from 18 to 21 years. In addition, it proposed that the advertisement of the alcoholic beverages be restricted and that sponsorship and promotion related to alcoholic beverages be prohibited (South Africa, 2015:18-19).

It is noted in the literature that the South African Generation Y individuals often consume dangerously high levels of alcohol (Peltzer *et al*., 2011:31). One South African based study reported that more than 50 percent of both undergraduate and postgraduate university students indicated alcohol consumption patterns that were either hazardous, harmful or of a dependent nature (Young & De Klerk, 2008:108). Moreover, this drinking culture also remained stable over a 12-month period. The same authors report that dangerous levels of consumption do not seem to decrease, but rather persist throughout the students' university studies (Young & De Klerk, 2008:109).

The conclusion drawn from the literature is that students, whose friends consume alcohol, are most likely to consume alcohol as well, but it is not clear to what degree. Because immediate manipulation, peer modelling as well as perceived social standards are methods whereby excessive drinking is promoted, the already high incidence of extreme drinking at universities is likely to affect the drinking behaviour of new students when they arrive (Borsari & Carey, 2001:392). This is a very troubling thought considering that first-year or junior students, who witness the extreme drinking behaviour of other older students in the social group, tend to also drink excessively (Young & De Klerk, 2007). Furthermore, Rimal and Real (2005:395) argue that group identity influences the individual's behaviour and suggests that the individual will feel kinship and, therefore, desire connection with the reference group. According to Young and De Klerk (2008:103), students use different types of social pressure on peers, who drink less than they do, varying from slight and indirect comments to more aggressive and confrontational tactics in attempts to persuade them to drink more.

Recent studies identified drinking to cope and reducing negative feelings as fundamental drinking motives and a strong determinant of alcohol use especially amid female students (Kelly-Weeder, 2008:577). Stewart *et al*. (2001:271) suggests that female students use alcohol to reduce anxiety levels as well as depression.

Another study found that drinking to escape predicted binge drinking; however, it did not directly predict drinking levels and indicated social drinking as an important predictor of alcohol use (Williams & Clark 1998:376). It is evident throughout the literature that in order to cope, many individuals choose to use alcohol to do so, including students. However, a recent study among South African university students failed to find a link between coping motives and drinking behaviour (Du Preez *et al*., 2016:86) and that there is no relationship between conformity motives and drinking behaviour among university students in South Africa. The authors suggest that it is indeed possible to find a relationship between tension reduction and drinking behaviour when such a relationship does not exist between coping motives and drinking behaviour. Read *et al*. (2003:21) explain that since social components and positive affect enhancement play a more significant role while at university, drinking to cope may be a less noticeable predictor of alcohol consumption behaviour. Therefore, students might not drink alcohol as a primary reason of reducing tension, but rather because they expect an element of tension reduction when drinking due to the daily stress experienced (Du Preez *et al*., 2016:87). This conclusion was based on the findings derived from 474 participants, taken from a HEI in the coastal region of South Africa, where circumstances may be different from the extent of this study.

In order to gain a better insight into the potentially harmful behaviour brought on by Generation Y university students' excessive alcohol use, specifically in South Africa, the following section will outline the theory of consumer behaviour.

## 2.3 CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Consumer behaviour reflects the totality of decisions in the what, how, when, where, why and how often people purchase products or acquire services (Hoyer *et al*., 2013:4). That is, consumer behaviour is concerned with what is bought, how it is bought, when and where it is purchased, why people buy specific products or services, as well as how often. Consumer behaviour, therefore, is defined as the decision-making acts that both individuals and groups of people exhibit when seeking out, acquiring, using, evaluating and disposing the products and services that are likely to fulfil certain needs (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:2).

The field of consumer behaviour developed for various reasons (Blackwell *et al*., 2001:8-9). As a field of study, it is especially relevant to those individuals involved in marketing, public policy development, consumer education and protection – all of whom have a desire to influence or change certain behaviours among consumers (Engel *et al*., 1995:4). One of the central themes of consumer behaviour is the consumer decision-making process and the factors that influence this process. Understanding this process will aid in designing strategies to influence or change consumer behaviour.

### 2.3.1 Consumer decision-making process

The consumer decision-making process comprises three interrelated stages of the input, the process and the output stages, which influence the sequence of activities involved from the recognition of a consumption-related need to the evaluation of the acquired item (Schiffman *et al*., 2010:36). Consumer decision making takes place because individuals have needs and desires to satisfy, to which there is often more than one option or alternative (Parumasur *et al*., 2013:250). Figure 2.1 depicts a model of the consumer decision-making process.

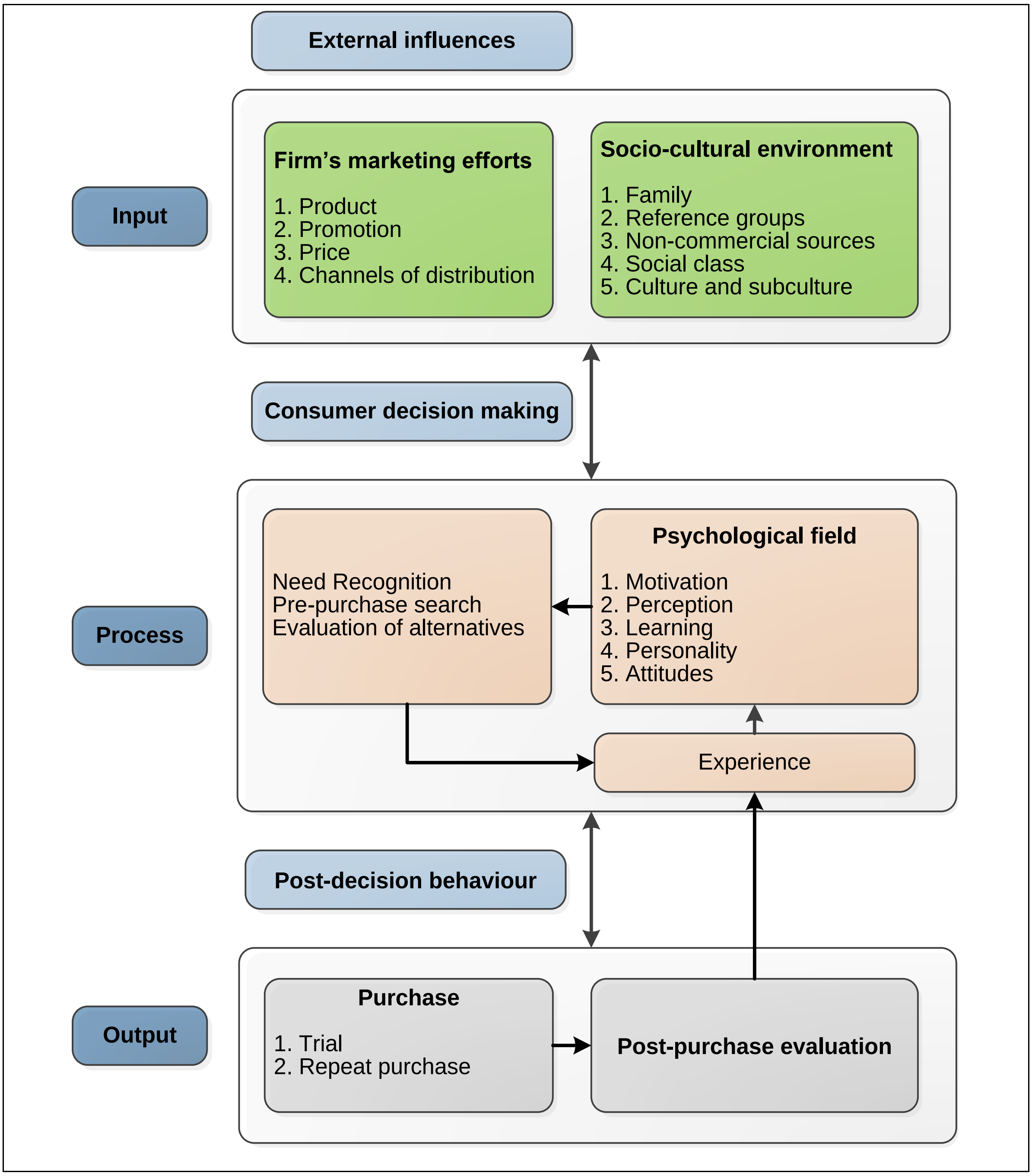



**Figure 2.1: A simplified consumer decision-process framework (Schiffman *et al*., 2010:36)**

As Figure 2.1 presents, there are three main stages in the consumer decision-making process, namely the input stage, the process stage and the output stage. The process stage begins with problem or need recognition, whereby an individual becomes aware of certain needs that have to be satisfied (Blackwell *et al*., 2001:71). As a result, the individual will search for and process information about products or services that may provide possible solutions to the problem. Once sufficient information has been gathered, the individual will begin evaluating alternatives, with the view of making the best possible choice that produces the best benefits at the lowest cost (Cant *et al*., 2006:197). During the output phase, the individual purchases the chosen product or service. This purchase may be a trial purchase or a repeat purchase (Schiffman *et al*., 2010:37). Directly after purchasing, product consumption typically takes place; that is, the point at which the product or service is used (Blackwell *et al*., 2001:80). The last phase of decision-making involves post-purchase behaviour, where the consumer assesses the performance of the product in relation to its criteria that came with the initial purchase (Joubert *et al.,* 2010:132). It is, therefore, the consumer's perception of the product or service having served its purpose in fulfilling the need, or solve the problem identified during the first phase.

Before and during the consumer decision-making process, certain variables play an influencing role in shaping the decisions consumers ultimately make. The external forces that act as input into this decision-making process include organisational marketing efforts as well as factors in the consumer's sociocultural environment, such as family, reference groups, non-commercial information sources, social class, culture and subculture. During the process stage, factors in the individual's psychological field influence the purchase decision, including the individual's motivation, perceptions, learning, personality and attitudes (Schiffman *et al*., 2010:37).

In this study, the emphasis is on factors in the consumer's psychological field, namely attitudes towards alcohol consumption and the perceived motives that drive alcohol consumption. As such, in the following sections the concepts of attitudes and motives are described.

### 2.3.2 Attitudes

Attitudes shape consumer decision making and behaviour when acquiring, using as well as disposing of a given offer (Hoyer *et al*., 2013:128). Therefore, attitudes reflect how consumers think, feel and act toward those aspects in the surrounding environment (Mothersbaugh & Hawkins, 2016:384). Just as much as attitudes are formed and learned, it may change (Joubert *et al.,* 2010:89). Although behaviour is relatively consistent with attitudes, they are not necessarily permanent and are subject to change (Parumasur *et al*., 2013:81; Schiffman *et al*., 2012:233).

As such, attitudes can be defined as the "learned propensity to act in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way with regard to certain aspects of the environment or a given object" (Joubert *et al.,* 2010:5). Each segment of the definition describes an important property of an attitude (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:233). Therefore, it is critical to gain an insight of the role that attitudes play in consumer behaviour.

#### 2.3.2.1 Characteristics of attitudes

The researcher should be object specific when conducting attitude research (ZooPedia, 2016). When referring to the object, in the consumer-oriented definition of attitudes, it should be interpreted to comprise specific consumption- or marketing-related concepts including; the product, price, possessions, product category, people, causes or issues, brand, service and advertisements (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:233).

Moreover, attitudes, with regard to purchase behaviour, are shaped due to the direct experience with a product, knowledge obtained from third parties, word of mouth communication, exposure to mass media advertisements, various forms of direct marketing as well as the through exposure to the Internet (ZooPedia, 2016). However, Schiffman *et al.* (2010:247) argue that although attitudes may result from behaviour, they are not synonymous with behaviour. In addition, as a learned tendency or predisposition, attitudes have a motivational quality. As such, consumers might be driven towards a certain behaviour or deterred from a certain behaviour (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:233).

An attitude is also somewhat consistent with the behaviour it reflects (ZooPedia, 2016). However, attitudes are not permanent; they do change (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:247). These changes in attitude are brought on by environmental and situational occurrences.

A situation of change comprises the events and circumstances that effect the relationship between attitude and behaviour (ZooPedia, 2016). Therefore, a particular situation may instigate individuals to act in such a manner that is contradictory with their attitudes.

In order to grasp the relationship between attitudes and behaviour, several models were constructed to capture the underlying dimensions of an attitude (Lutz, 1991:317-39). As such, the multi-attribute attitude models are discussed in the following section.

#### 2.3.2.2 Multi-attribute attitudes models

According to Schiffman *et al*. (2012:237), multi-attribute attitude models depict consumers' attitudes pertaining to an attitude object, for example a product, a service, direct-mail catalogue, which serve as a function of consumers' perception and evaluation of the essential beliefs held concerning the specific attitude object. There are several multi-attribute attitude models; the attitude towards object model, the attitude towards behaviour model, the theory of reasoned action model and the theory of planned behaviour model.

Fishbein (1963; 1967) states that the attitude towards object model is particularly appropriate for assessing attitudes towards a product- or service category or specific brands. According to this model, the consumer's attitude towards a product, service or specific brand of a product is a function of the presence, or absence as well as evaluation of certain product-specific beliefs and/or characteristics (Schiffman *et al.,* 2012:251-252). As such, consumers usually hold positive attitudes towards those brands believed to have an acceptable level of attributes, which are evaluated as being favourable. Conversely, consumers hold negative attitudes towards those brands believed to have an unsatisfactory level of sought after attributes or comprise too many adverse or undesired characteristics (Himansu, 2009).

The attitude towards behaviour model, on the other hand, pertains to the consumers' attitude towards behaving concerning an object instead of the attitude towards the object itself (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Burnkrant *et al*., 1991:28-29;

Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975:62-63). Furthermore, the attraction of the attitude towards behaviour model is that it appears to relate more to consumers' actual behaviour than the attitude towards object model (Himansu, 2009).

The third multi-attribute attitude model, the theory of reasoned action (TRA) model, provides an explanation of how, when and why attitudes predict behaviour (Bagozzi *et al.*, 2000:97-106). The TRA model results in both enhanced clarification and improved predictions of behaviour (Schiffman *et al.,* 2012:239-240). Moreover, Hoyer *et al.* (2013:133) maintain that the TRA model suggests that behaviour is a function of an individual's behavioural intention, which in turn, is determined primarily by the individual's attitude toward the act and secondly, subjective norms, that operate in the situation.

An expansion of the theory of reasoned action model is the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) model, which aims to envisage behaviours over which consumers have limited control by means of assessing their perceived behavioural control (Notani, 1998:247-271). Van Zanten (2005:49-61) argues that the addition of the perceived behavioural control factor, in the TPB model, enables better prediction of those behaviours not completely under the individual's control.

#### 2.3.2.3 Strategies for changing attitudes

Schiffman *et al.* (2010:260) maintain that a change in attitude is not only learned, but shaped by personal experience and other sources of information, as well as personally affected by both the interest and tempo at which attitudes are expected to be transformed. There are several suggested strategies for changing attitudes (Himansu, 2009).

One such strategy is altering the consumer's basic motivational function. This is an effective strategy for changing consumer attitudes towards a product or brand, where particular needs are endorsed by means of a functional approach (Ennis & Zanna, 1993:662-666; Katz. 1960:163-191; Shavitt, 1989:300-305). According to this strategy, attitudes can be arranged according to four functions including the utilitarian function, the ego-defensive function, the value-expressive function and the knowledge function (Solomon *et al*., 2013:293).

In order to change consumers' attitude in favour of a product, they need to be informed of its previously ignored utilitarian purpose (Hoyer *et al*., 2013:458). Since most consumers strive to protect their self-image from internal feelings of doubt and, therefore, are ego-defensive, their uncertainty about a product should be replaced with a sense of security and self-confidence (Knight-Lapinski & Boster, 2001:314-324). Moreover, Solomon *et al*. (2013:293) argue that by being aware of the target consumers' attitudes, marketers will be better equipped in anticipating their values, lifestyle or outlook and, therefore, will be able to reflect these attributes in their advertising and direct-marketing efforts. Due to consumers' inquisitive nature, being ever curious and seeking knowledge, new information and understanding about products and services will aid in generating, adapting and altering the attitudes towards these products and services (Himansun, 2009).

A second strategy of attitude change is to change consumers' attitudes towards products, services and brands by indicating their associations to specific social groups, occasions or causes (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:247). In doing so, corporate sponsors, who specifically indicate their reasons for a company-cause or a product-cause association, will prevent consumers shaping their own motives for the association between the establishment, product or service and the initiative (Rifon *et al*., 2004:29-42).

At times, attitude-change strategies can solve real or possible inconsistencies between two attitudes. Schiffman *et al.* (2010:264) argue that consumers' evaluation of a brand can be changed as soon as they become aware that their negative held attitudes of a product, specific brand or its features is not in conflict with another held attitude.

A change in consumer attitudes is possible when the components of the multi-attribute model are modified. Schiffman *et al*. (2012:250) suggest changing the relative evaluation of attributes, changing brand beliefs, adding an attribute, as well as changing the overall brand rating. Another strategy of attitude change consists of changing consumer beliefs about the attributes of competitive brands or product categories (Schiffman *et al.,* 2010:267).

The elaboration likelihood model (ELM) is a theory pertaining to how attitudes are shaped and altered under fluctuating conditions of involvement (Mothersbaugh & Hawkins, 2016:395). Furthermore, the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) incorporates exclusive individual, situational and marketing factors in order to understand attitudes (Petty *et al.,* 1983:135-146; Rucker & Petty, 2006:39-52). This model suggests that consumer attitudes are transformed by two markedly diverse routes to persuasion, namely a central route or peripheral route (Haugtvedt & Strathman, 1990:766-769; Mackenzie & Spreng, 1992:519-529; Petty *et al.,* 1983:135-146). The central route is applicable to attitude change when a consumer's motivation or capability to evaluate the attitude object is high. As such, attitude change occurs as a result of the individual actively pursuing information related to the attitude object itself (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:252). In contrast, when consumers' motivation is low, attitude change tends to occur through means of the peripheral route, where consumers do not focus on information that is relevant to the attitude object itself (Schiffman *et al.,* 2010:268).

### 2.3.3 Consumer motivation

Motivation is defined as the "process that starts, directs and maintains goal-oriented behaviours and initiates individuals to act" (Cherry, 2015; Schiffman *et al*., 2012:99). Motivation is one of the psychological factors of consumer characteristics that influence consumer behaviour (Jaideep, 2015). Motivation, as an internal determinant of decision making, underlies the reasons that drive individuals to undertake certain actions, so much so, that if motives behind human action could be understood, it may become possible to ascertain and even predict behaviour (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:212). Hoyer and MacInnis (2008:45) add that consumers may be motivated to assume certain behaviours, make decisions and process information, which can be perceived as in agreement with the acquisition, use, or disposal of a given offer.

In extending the understanding of motivation, Harmon-Jones and Fargas (2014:4-5) express that motivation is characterised by its intensity and direction. Motivational intensity can range from naught, responding to a stimulus with no association to any rewards or punishments, to extremely high; responding to a stimulus that signals the possibility of sudden and imminent death or form of danger (Solomon *et al*., 2013:187). In addition, an unseen inner force, represented by motives, encourages and induces a behavioural response as well as gives specific direction to that reaction (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:290). Therefore, the direction of motivation will depend on whether the individual aims at approaching rewards or avoiding punishments (Harmon-Jones & Fargas, 2014:5). The same authors argue that although motivation directs and energises individuals, it is possible that it will not always result in apparent general behaviour.

Once it is known where motivation originates from, marketers can generate marketing strategies to influence consumers' rationale to consider, be concerned with as well as process information regarding their brand or advertisement (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2008:49). In terms of this study, understanding consumer motivation will aid in devising demarketing strategies. It, therefore, is important to gain an understanding of what affects motivation.

In order to ascertain a foundation for this study, an in depth discussion, comprising motivation as a psychological drive, the factors that influence motivation, as well as the dynamic nature of motivation follows.

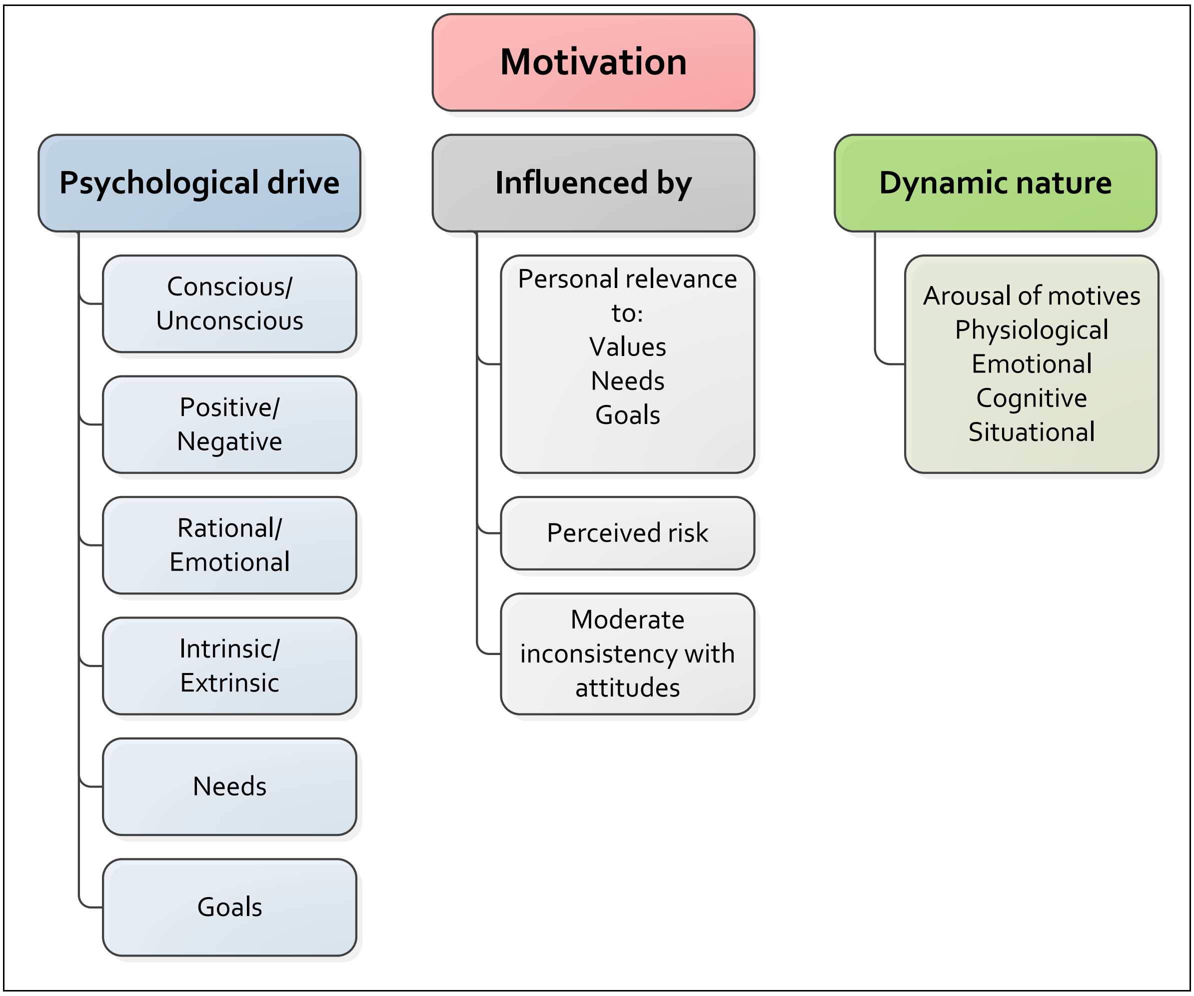



**Figure 2.2: Motivation Model (Adapted from Hoyer & MacInnis, 2008; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993; Schiffman *et al*., 2012)**

There are several important factors to consider when studying consumer motivation, namely needs, goals, positive and negative motivation, rational versus emotional motives, the dynamics of motivation (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:99) as well as the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation along with conscious and unconscious motives (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:214). When reviewing the literature there are various factors that influence motivation, many of which correspond with previous mentioned factors. These factors include personal relevance towards self-concept, value, needs and goals, perceived risk and a moderate inconsistency with attitudes (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2008:46). The motivation model, as illustrated in Figure 2.2, shows the integration between factors that influence motivation and motivation as a psychological drive as well as the dynamic nature of motivation. The following section comprises a discussion of motivation as a psychological drive.

#### 2.3.3.1 Motivation as a psychological drive

Motivation is a psychological drive that compels the consumer to behave in a certain manner (Jaideep, 2015). Hanna and Wozniak (2001:212) suggest that for motivation to be considered a psychological drive, two conditions must prevail, namely a state of arousal or tension, as well the direction of the behaviour. The motivation process model illustrates the stages consumers go through when they are motivated.

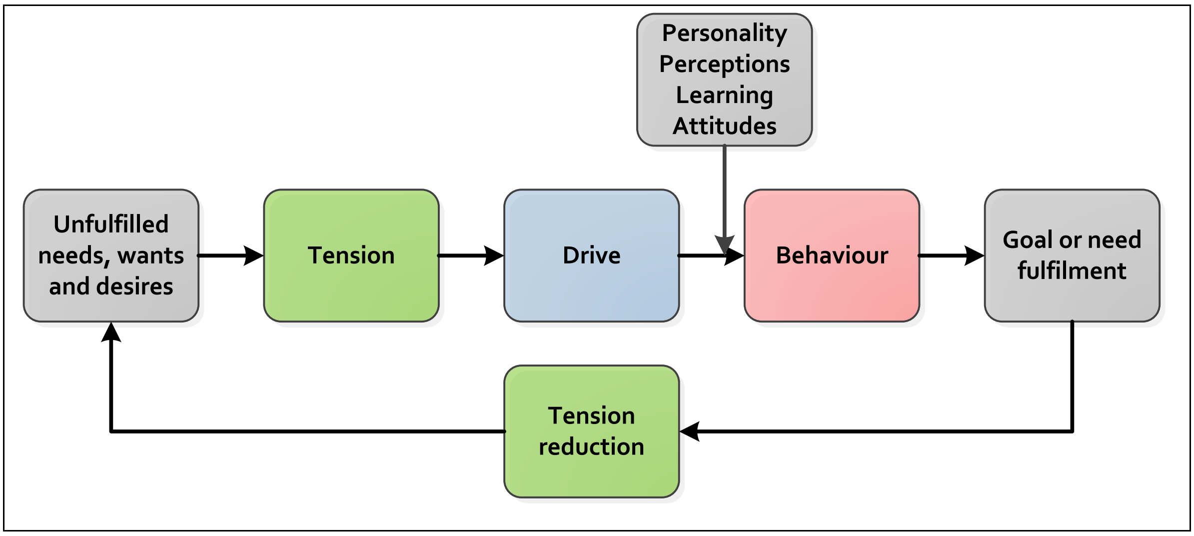



**Figure 2.3: Model of motivation process (Schiffman *et al.*, 2010:107)**

Motivation becomes a driving force as the result of unfulfilled needs, wants and desires that produces a state of tension within the consumer. This causes the individual to reduce the felt tension through consciously and subconsciously striving to fulfil or eliminate the aroused needs or goals by means of certain behaviours, believed to aid in this attempt (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:99; Solomon *et al*., 2006:90). Furthermore, the degree of need satisfaction depends on the consumer's course of action during this process. Both the specific selected goals and course of action or behaviour is selected based on the consumer's personality, perceptions, previous learning and experiences as well as attitudes (Schiffman *et al.,* 2010:106). Schiffman *et al*. (2012:99) add that consumers' behaviour in need fulfilment is based also on individual thinking processes or cognition. Moreover, the unfulfilled needs, wants and desires can be utilitarian or hedonic in nature (Joubert *et al*., 2013:67). Utilitarian motives encompass a desire to attain functional or practical benefits. Hedonic motives, conversely, are experiential in nature and involve emotional responses or fantasies (Solomon *et al*., 2013:187). Whatever the nature of the need, the desired outcome for the consumer remains goal achievement (Solomon *et al*., 2006:90).

A need refers to something that is physical or emotional, yet essential to an individual's well-being (Joubert *et al*., 2013:66). Furthermore, needs are the force directed toward specific goals that can be achieved by purchase behaviour, which have to be stimulated, or aroused before the consumer is driven to action (Parumasur *et al*., 2013:165). Some needs can be either innate or acquired, though Schiffman *et al*. (2012:99) also suggest the existence of secondary needs.

Innate needs are physiological or biogenic and aid in sustaining biological life; this includes the need for food, water, air, clothing and shelter (Cant *et al*., 2006:131). Innate needs, therefore, are viewed as primary needs or motives (Schiffman *et al.,* 2010:106). Acquired needs, or psychogenic needs, are learned in response to the environment and culture, therefore, needs will differ from one culture to the next (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:220). These needs might include the need for self-esteem, notability, affection, power and learning (Parumasur *et al*., 2013:166). Since acquired needs are mostly psychological in nature, they are considered secondary needs or motives (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:99). Secondary needs arise owing to the consumer's subjective psychological state and relationship with others. Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:326) add that secondary or learned motives exert a very important influence on consumers. So much so, that in an economically advanced society, psychogenic motives dominate over psychological ones, affect consumer goal selection and expression, as well as product purchases. Needs do not only differ across culture, but also from one individual to another and the different types of needs start playing a role in consumer decision making.

Cant *et al*. (2006:131) argue that needs by themselves are not enough and that, from a marketing view, the consumers must want to do something about it. Therefore, for any given need, there are various appropriate goals.

Hanna and Wozniak (2001:221) define a goal as being the preferred objective of motivated behaviour. All human behaviour is goal directed rather than random or irrational. In addition, as needs or desires push the consumer to correct a state of tension or imbalance (Solomon *et al*., 2013:303), goals aim at pulling the consumer towards something perceived as desirable (Hoyer *et al.,* 2013:53).

Goals may be generic or product specific. Generic goals are non-specific and are those typical categories of goals consumers view as a means to satisfy their needs (Schiffman *et al.,* 2010:107). Product-specific goals, in contrast, are the branded, identified or labelled alternatives available for consumers to choose from in order to fulfil their goals (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:221; Schiffman *et al*., 2012:100). Like needs, goals can also be positive or negative in nature. With a positive goal, behaviour is directed at and focused on goal achievement; often termed an approach object. Conversely, with negative goals, behaviour is directed away from an object in an effort to avoid the given circumstances and is referred to as an avoidance object (Schiffman *et al.,* 2010:110). In addition, motives may be conscious or unconscious. In the case of conscious motives, the individual is aware of what is driving his/her behaviour. In contrast, with unconscious motives, the individual is primarily unaware of what is driving his/her behaviour (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:214). Furthermore, motives may be rational or emotional in nature. Rational or utilitarian motives are aroused through appeals to reason and logic and involve consumers behaving rationally by cautiously deliberating all alternatives and selecting those providing the ultimate utility (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:217; Schiffman *et al.,* 2010:110). Various emotional motives are linked to an individual's self-concept along with social and aesthetic desires (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:217). Emotional motives involve goal selection that relies on personal or subjective criteria including belonging, beauty, distinctiveness, pleasure, pride, fear, status or affection (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:217; Schiffman *et al*., 2012:107). Moreover, behaviour may be motivated intrinsically or extrinsically. With intrinsic motivation, the individual engages in behaviour for the inherent pleasure of the undertaken activity that emerges spontaneously from psychological needs and innate strivings for growth (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:216; Reeve, 2009:111). Consumers are extrinsically motivated when rewards are acquired that are independent of the activity (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:216). From a marketing standpoint, targeting intrinsically motivated behaviour is more sustainable than the case of external motivated behaviour. The reason being that consumers experiencing the pleasure of involvement with an activity assures continued interest and involvement, whereas the externally motivated end interest in an activity once the rewards cease (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:216).

When referring back to Figure 2.2, it is evident that needs and goals are co-dependent in that neither can exist without the other (Schiffman *et al*., 2012:102). In conclusion, goals, regardless of their nature, are the pathway to need fulfilment and needs and goals are considered interdependent of one another.

#### 2.3.3.2 Dynamic nature of motivation

As seen in the motivational process (Figure 2.3), need fulfilment is a continuous process. Needs and goals fluctuate and develop in response to the consumer's physical condition, environment, experiences as well as interactions with others (Reeve, 2009:15). Furthermore, when consumers attain pre-determined goals, new ones are developed and if goals are not reached, consumers will continue to pursue them or cultivate new ones (Schiffman *et al.,* 2012:107). Therefore, motivation is a dynamic process.

There are various reasons for the ever-changing nature of motivation, namely needs are never completely fulfilled, new needs arise as older ones are met (Schiffman *et al.,* 2012:107), success and failure influence goals, the existence of multiple needs and variations of goals, the conflicting nature of needs as well as the arousal of needs (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2008:53).

Motivation is continuously changing in reaction to life experiences and, therefore, a highly dynamic construct (Schiffman *et al.,* 2012:107). Hoyer and MacInnis (2008:53) state that needs are dynamic because of daily living being a constant process of need fulfilment and, therefore, needs are never truly satisfied. In addition, the gratification experienced by the consumer after satisfying a need is only temporary. This was theorised by Abraham Maslow (1970:35), who indicated that a hierarchy of needs exist and that new, higher-order needs surface as lower-order needs are fulfilled.

Another reason for motivation being a dynamic process is that success and failure influence the goals set by consumers. Individuals who successfully attain a certain pre-determined goals will typically establish new and higher goals causing them to raise their aspirations. In contrast, those individuals who are not able to reach set goals may occasionally lower their levels of aspiration by substituting that goal for a more attainable one (Schiffman *et al.,* 2012:108, 109). Furthermore, when it becomes clear that the individual's goals cannot be attained, it will lead to feelings of frustration. Consumers will then react differently to such challenging situations, where some will cope and find a way around the problem and others will regard it as personal failure. These consumers will then likely adopt a defence mechanism in order to protect their self-esteem from feelings of inadequacy (Schiffman *et al.,* 2010:112). These defence mechanisms include aggression, retaliation, regression, withdrawal, projection, daydreaming, identification and repression (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:254; Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:302).

Reeve (2009:15) states that at any given point in time consumers will always entertain a multitude of different motives. In addition, the strongest motive has the greatest impact on consumer behaviour. However, each recurring need thereafter will become dominant as circumstances change and subsequently influence behaviour differently. The theory is that consumers fulfil more than one need and that some goals fulfil multiple needs, therefore, motivation is an ever-changing process (Schiffman *et al.,* 2010:113).

Another reason why motivation is dynamic is the manner in which needs arise. Need arousal refers to a situation or condition where a specific stimulus will trigger some type of recognition from the consumer (Joubert *et al.,* 2013:67). Needs arise for various reasons and may be physiological, emotional, cognitive or situational. Physiological arousal is caused by involuntary stimuli that lead to need recognition that originates from inside the consumer such as hunger pangs (Cant *et al.,* 2006:132). Arousal can also be generated by emotional cues, especially when daydreaming. When the individual experiences boredom or frustration when trying to achieve their goals, they start fantasising about more attainable alternatives (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:213). Loudon and Della Bitta (1993:328) maintain that consumers engage in extensive cognitive activity like thinking and rationalising, even whilst the objects of their thoughts are not tangibly evident. That is when cognitive awareness is activated by a stimulus from the environment (Parumasur *et al.,* 2013:168). In addition, when consumers are confronted by a certain situation, arousal can also be triggered and this is referred to as situational arousal and will come about when the situation pulls the consumers' attention to an existing physiological condition (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:328). For instance, consumers will see a beer advertisement and a thirst need will develop, but the need to have a good time with friends, which is an emotional trigger, will also surface. Therefore, it is evident that motivation is not a linear process, but rather one that is dynamic and interchangeable.

As mentioned before, motivation can go either in a positive or in a negative direction, in other words, towards an approach object or away from it, which is avoidance. Statt (1997:100) states that needs can conflict as a result of the motivational direction. There are three types of need-conflicts, namely approach-approach conflict, approach-avoidance conflict and avoidance-avoidance conflict. With an approach-approach conflict, the consumer is faced with choosing between two attractive alternatives, where the conflict is greater, the more equal the attractions become (Mothersbaugh & Hawkins, 2016:365). With an approach-avoidance conflict, which is the most typical to occur (Hanna & Wozniak, 2001:235), the consumer may want to simultaneously engage and avoid a certain behaviour (Hoyer *et al.,* 2013:52). For instance, consumers may experience such a conflict when deciding to drink alcohol. Even though peers regard the belief of alcohol consumption as attractive, as individuals they may also be aware of the negative consequences of drinking. Thus, the need for affiliation, or approach object conflicts with the need for safety, an avoidance object. Lastly, an avoidance-avoidance conflict the consumer is left with the decision between two equally undesirable alternatives (Statt, 1997:100). This motivation conflict occurs the least amount of times out of the three conflicts.

The preceding section provided a background to consumer behaviour and consumer motivation, including the decision-making process and the variables that influence consumer behaviour. The following section provides insights into the variables that influence alcohol-consumption behaviour in order to shape a background to the social marketing concept and the discussion of demarketing strategies.

## 2.4 VARIABLES INFLUENCING ALCOHOL-CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOUR

The following section comprises a discussion of the various factors that influence alcohol–consumption behaviour. The section opens with a discussion of alcohol-consumption patterns, how these patterns are determined as well as how they contribute to consumption behaviour. Thereafter, the variables that shape alcohol-consumption behaviour are discussed. These variables include a discussion of the role attitudes play, as well as the motives that drive alcohol consumption.

### 2.4.1 Alcohol consumption patterns

The manner in which alcohol is consumed in a country or within a group is an essential determinant of the types as well as the degree of possible complications associated with drinking. Furthermore, alcohol should be recognised in the context of patterns of drinking, which differ greatly between societies (Peltzer *et al.*, 2011:30). The indicators used to assess drinking patterns are the number of heavy drinking occasions, drinking in public places, typical high volume of alcohol consumed and drinking at community festivals (Obot, 2006:21). The World Health Organisation (WHO) explains a combined measure of drinking patterns (World Health Organization, 2011:14-15), which reflects the manner in which people drink as opposed to the volume they consume. The pattern of consumption is measured on a scale of one to five, with one representing the least perilous pattern of consumption and five the most hazardous pattern of consumption. The characteristics used to form this indicator comprise quantity or volume of alcohol consumed per occasion, festive drinking, the ratio of drinking events that leads to intoxication, the percentage of daily drinkers, drinking with meals and consuming alcohol in public places (Rosenquist *et al.*, 2010:427; World Health Organization, 2016).

Worldwide consumers drink a significant amount of alcohol (National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence, 2011). The Global Status Report on Alcohol and Health (World Health Organization, 2014) indicates that the total (recorded and unrecorded) amount of alcohol consumed per person worldwide equalled to 6.2 litres of pure alcohol in 2010. This translates to 13.5 grams of pure alcohol consumed per person daily. Furthermore, the prevalent tendency worldwide is an increase in recorded alcohol consumption (World Health Organization, 2014). The higher risk patterns of consumption are found in Belarus, Belize, Grenada, Guatemala, Kazakhstan, Mexico, Namibia, the Russian Federation, Ukraine, Zimbabwe and South Africa.

The amount of alcohol consumed by South Africans 15 years and older averaged 11 litres of pure alcohol, which is 4.8 litres higher than the world average as recorded in 2010. Furthermore, the ten million South Africans who consumed alcoholic beverages, consumed the equivalent of 1 176 cans or bottles of beer and 62 bottles of distilled liquor. This translates to approximately 20.1 litres of pure alcohol per person in 2013 (Anon, 2013). The amount of alcohol consumed per drinking South African is projected to increase to 11.9 litres and 12.1 litres per person for the years 2020 and 2025 respectively (World Health Organization, 2014:297). South Africa is considered a medium consumption nation regarding per capita adult alcohol consumption. However, an increase in current, binge drinking and hazardous or harmful drinking prevalence was observed from 2005 to 2008 (Peltzer *et al.*, 2011:36). Moreover, alcohol is the third most important disease concern globally and even though seventy percent of individuals do not drink, those who do, drink excessively (Kasolo, 2012). The great concern is the prevalence of young individuals who are of the heaviest consumers in South Africa.

According to the Global Health Observatory Data Repository (World Health Organization, 2016), the average daily intake of alcohol for the year 2010 in South

Africa was 58.5 grams. However, the noticeable difference in the statistics were between genders. Males were responsible for consuming 70.7 grams of pure alcohol daily, which converts to between 6 to 7 standard drinks. Females, on the other hand, only consumed 34.6 grams of pure alcohol in the same period, which is almost half of what males consumed.

In the section above, a background to alcohol consumption was given, with that, the definition of alcohol-consumption behaviour, as well as consumption patterns. The following section comprises a discussion of the variables that shape the alcohol-consumption behaviour that Generation Y consumers, display.

### 2.4.2 Variables that shape alcohol-consumption behaviour

There are several variables that influence consumer behaviour, that shape consumer decision-making and subsequently, alcohol consumption behaviour. These variables include how attitudes (Mothersbaugh & Hawkins, 2016:384) and certain drinking motives (Cooper, 1994) are linked to alcohol-consumption behaviour. The next section comprises a discussion of each variable in order to gain insights into how it affects alcohol-consumption behaviour.

#### 2.4.2.1 Attitude towards alcohol consumption

Joubert *et al.* (2010:5) describes attitudes as the conditioned inclination to respond in a constantly favourable or unfavourable manner regarding certain aspects of the environment. As discussed, in the same manner that attitudes are formed and learned, it is subject to change. Therefore, a specific situation may cause some individuals to behave inconsistently to held attitudes and, as seen throughout this study, this may be due to conforming to peer roles, standards and conditions. Therefore, it is in the hands of marketers to change current attitudes of alcohol use in order to influence, as well as recover inadequate decision-making. Attitudes can be positive or negative in the same manner in which motives display polarity; they exert either positive or negative influences on consumers' behaviour (Loudon & Della Bitta, 1993:326). The Business Dictionary (2016b) describes valence as a negative or positive psychological value assigned by an individual to another person, event, goal, job or outcome, based on its attractiveness, or aversiveness (Frijda, 1986:207) to him or her.

#### 2.4.2.2 Motives that drive alcohol consumption

There are endless motives why any individual, ranging from adolescence to adulthood, would consume alcohol. Several different motives for drinking may include drinking to improve sociability, to increase power, become intoxicated, for enjoyment, as well as for ritualistic reasons (Abbey *et al*., 1993:660), to be sociable, celebrating a special occasion with friends, to forget about problems (Cooper, 1994:122), curing depression, imitating role models and acquiring relief from loneliness or self-doubt (Kyei & Ramagoma, 2013:77). Among these many motives, the top ten amongst general consumers were identified as; the ease of access, to feel or be treated like an adult, social and religious duties, as an act of revolt, to alleviate discomfort /self-medicating, to avoid unhappiness and isolation, for experimental purposes, for party and celebratory reasons, for its euphoric effect and due to peer pressure (Priyadharshini, 2014).

However, regardless of all the possible motives, most researchers focus on two broad categories of motivation (refer to Figure 2.4), namely negative reinforcement drinking, also known as escape drinking and positive reinforcement drinking or social drinking (Abbey *et al*., 1993:660; Farber *et al*., 1980:780). Negative reinforcement drinking refers to the tendency to drink as a means to escape, evade, or control unpleasant emotions. Positive reinforcement drinking, on the other hand, involves drinking to be companionable, to celebrate special occasions and to have an enjoyable experience with other individuals (Abbey *et al*., 1993:660).

Cox and Klinger (1988, 1990) recommended a framework for categorising drinking motives by expanding the idea of the two main motive categories. The authors suggest that drinking motives can be characterised along two facets that reflect the valence, either positive or negative and the source, either internal or external of the results individuals hope to attain by drinking. As can be seen in Figure 2.4, four classes of motives are produced by crossing these two dimensions, namely:

- Internally generated, positively reinforced motives (drinking to enhance positive mood or well-being)

- Internally generated, negatively reinforced motives (drinking to reduce or regulate negative emotions)

- Externally generated, positively reinforced motives (drinking to obtain positive social rewards)

- Externally generated, negatively reinforced motives (drinking to avoid social rejection)

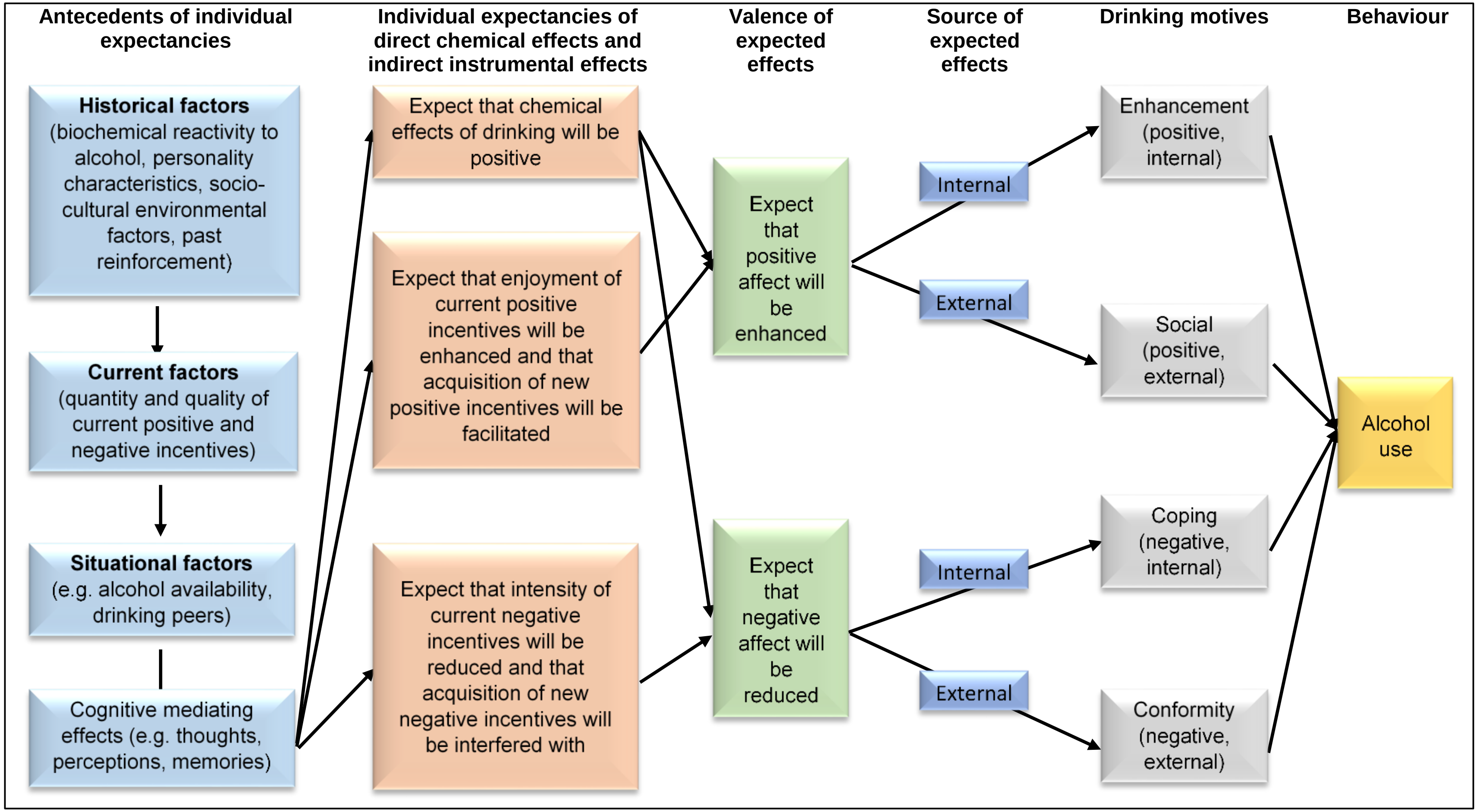
Cox and Klinger (1988:168) maintain that the final pathway to alcohol consumption is motivational and that an individual decides, consciously or unconsciously, either to consume or not to consume any particular alcoholic beverage. This is based on whether or not the individual expects that the positive affective consequences of drinking will offset those of not drinking. In a later study, Cox and Klinger (2004:125) illustrate this decision in a motivational model of alcohol use, which includes the various factors that are present leading up to the decision between drinking and not drinking, under any given circumstance.

It is important to note that there are also various reasons why individuals choose not to drink or limit their consumption. There are ten main motives to abstain from or limit alcohol consumption, namely religious or moral concerns, alcohol being too expensive and subsequent limited availability, possible health and safety risks, taste and alertness issues, the need to be consciously in control, social image as well as peer or family influences (Slicker, 2001:102).

Mogotsi *et al*. (2014:193) suggest that, after various studies about the patterns and prevalence of consumption among young adults, more research into the reasons for drinking is needed. It can be said that the individual’s perception of alcohol-consumption motives may be the true motives for own consumption behaviour. Therefore, it is necessary to discuss possible alcohol-consumption motives. After reviewing the various reasons for drinking alcohol, Cooper (1994:119) maintain that, the four most influential classes of alcohol-consumption motives are social, conformity, enhancement and coping, as presented in the Revised Drinking Motive Questionnaire (DMQ-R).

Many authors have since adopted this 20-item measure to underpin different groups' alcohol-consumption motives (Du Preez *et al*., 2016; Howell *et al*., 2010; Kuntsche *et al*., 2005; Kuntsche *et al*., 2006). Figure 2.4 illustrates how antecedents of individual expectancies, individual expectancies of direct chemical effects as well as indirect instrumental effects along with the categories of motives proposed by Cox and Klinger (1988) in addition to the drinking motives proposed by Cooper (1994), ultimately lead to alcohol use.

**Figure 2.4: Antecedents, alcohol expectancies, drinking motives and alcohol use according to assumptions of the motivational model (Kuntsche *et al*., 2005:843)**



The following section comprises a discussion of each motive class.

- **Social motives**

There are vast amounts of relevant social components that may or may not have an impact on behaviour among young adults (Johnston & White, 2003:65). According to Borsari and Carey (2001:403), peer persuasion involves a minimum of three different processes, namely direct peer influence, peer modelling and social norms. Social influence refers to the reactions, actions and thoughts of an individual that are influenced by other individuals or social groups that may be represented by persuasion, peer pressure (Business Dictionary, 2016a), as well as conformity, compliance and obedience (Anon, 2015). The impact of social influence causes individuals to change how they behave to be more like others (Johnston & White, 2003:66), to do something that they are asked to do by another (Langner *et al*., 2013:32) and obey orders from someone that they accept as an authority figure (Anon, 2015). Various authors maintain that social enablement is a major drinking motive among young adults (Cooper, 1994:118; Murphy *et al*., 2005:188; Read *et al*., 2003:13) and that university level drinking usually takes place in a social environment (Carey, 1993:217; Carey 1995:287; Johnston & White, 2003:66) that can lead to enhanced social associations and relaxation.

It is possible that many young consumers believe that drinking alcohol will lead to greater acceptance among peers and fitting in better with friends (Cismaru *et al*., 2008:285). Peer pressure plays a major role in consumption patterns and quantities among adolescents and peer influence tend to increase with age. The perception that alcohol is a social "lubricant" result in these adolescents believing that alcohol is an essential part of transitioning into adulthood (Coggans & McKellar, 1995). In addition, the age when adolescents first enter tertiary institutions is seen as an age of freedom and experimentation, where young individuals have the opportunity to test the limits previously set by parents and schools (Young & De Klerk, 2007). This leads to the speculation that alcohol consumption levels among these adolescents will increase after entering university. The abrupt change in influence from parents and/or guardians to peers, alongside the urgent need to establish new relationships with friends, ascertain peer networks and cultivate an identity in this new social environment often contains alcohol (Young & De Klerk, 2008:103).

Many individuals are susceptible to the intense peer influence that is faced at university (Young & De Klerk, 2008:103). Szmigin *et al*. (2011:767) express that an important context for drinking among young individuals is the social environment and, that if alcohol is consumed in the immediate environment, it will likely reinforce social and peer acceptability and normality. Langner *et al.* (2013:32) argue that a person who defines themselves as a member of a certain social group will often incorporate the main attributes of that social group. Young adults, therefore, will be tempted to take the collective's interest at heart and will adapt to the social group behaviour. Rimal and Real (2005:390) concur, adding that it is possible for individuals to believe that when others, with reference to peers, engage in a specific behaviour, they will believe it is acceptable, but simultaneously believe that others – with reference to authority figures such as parents – would disapprove of that exact same behaviour. For instance, young adults may see that most of their peers or other, older adults consume alcohol but at the same time, they consider that some of their important social referents (parents, brothers, sisters and/or close friends) would disapprove, if they themselves engage in these alcohol-consuming behaviours. This may cause them to refrain from engaging in these drinking activities. It is also likely that the influence of peers will be so enormous to them that they will comply, because to them maintaining new friendships becomes their priority. Neuwirth and Frederick (2004:669) concur, stating that when individuals are faced with risky situations (referring to alcohol consumption), they will consider the potential reactions of family, friends and others before determining which behaviours to pursue.

Based on previous research on a national and international level, Rimal and Real (2005:392) argue that individuals can enact a certain behaviour because they believe that important others expect them to do so, or that failing to do so will result in social sanctions. Research performed by Kyei and Ramagoma (2013:81) conveys a strong relationship between alcohol use and peer pressure among individuals in the Limpopo province within South Africa. Peer pressure plays a major role in high alcohol consumption due to young adults having the need to feel accepted and form part of the perceived "in-group" (Mogotsi *et al.,* 2014:187).

Even though there is a relationship between social motives and drinking behaviour, Cooper (1994:117) argues that individuals who use alcohol mainly for social reasons are participating in habitual or normative behaviour and this behaviour should not be related to drinking problems, nor coping and social skill shortages. Corresponding research shows that social drinking was significant in predicting alcohol consumption, specifically higher consumption, however, it did not predict binge drinking directly (Williams & Clark, 1998:376).

- **Coping motives**

Drinking to cope refers to the propensity to consume alcoholic beverages to escape, evade, or else control unpleasant feelings (Abbey *et al*., 1993:660) and, therefore, is characterised as escape drinking (Williams & Clark 1998:371). Several cross-sectional studies, using community samples, have revealed a correlation between avoidant methods of coping with emotional distress and not only alcohol use, but drinking problems and abuse as well (Cooper *et al*., 1988; Cooper *et al*., 1992; Grunberg *et al*., 1999). Holahan *et al*. (2003:159) concur, stating that drinking to cope has been associated with alcohol use as well as alcohol-related problems in several community samples – samples involving individuals with psychiatric disorders. Cooper *et al*. (1988:218) state that alcohol is not only consumed as a general coping mechanism, but that drinking to cope will encourage heavier drinking and excessive alcohol use to the extent of alcohol abuse. So much so that, research investigating drinking motives constantly reveal that a considerable proportion of drinkers, usually between 10 and 15 percent, report drinking to control destructive emotion.

When referring back to the motivational model of alcohol use, Figure 2.4, Cox and Klinger (2004:129) argue that the extent to which an individual has experienced reductions in negative effects, for example anxiety, from drinking alcohol in the past, that such an individual will have the same expectations of attaining similar results in the present or future. When such an individual encounters anxiety-provoking situations, there is a strong possibility that the individual will drink alcohol in order to cope. Therefore, an individual, who has experienced mood-enhancing effects from alcohol use in the past, will expect the same results when facing current or future negative situations. Thus, alcohol serves as a coping mechanism since these individuals lack the necessary self-regulatory skills to cope with negative situations (Kaschel & Kuhl, 2004:112). Cooper (1994) and Cooper *et al*. (1988) concur, stating that individuals who depend on alcohol in order to cope with undesirable emotions may have learned to do so since they lack the necessary adaptive methods of coping with those emotions.

The group who demonstrated the strongest association between drinking to cope with anxiety and excessive alcohol use were young adults (Abbey *et al*., 1993:666). Even though social drinking was shown to be a significant predictor of alcohol consumption (Williams & Clark 1998:371) among young adults, stress was a stronger predictor of both monthly consumption and heavy consumption, such as binge drinking, more so than drinking for social reasons (Abbey *et al*., 1993:666).

- **Enhancement motives**

Enhancement motives are described as “drinking to enhance positive emotional states” and are determined by items for example drinking because it is fun and drinking for the reason that it is exhilarating (Kuntsche *et al*., 2006:1847). Studies found that enhancement motives are related to sensation seeking and can be defined as a personality factor that reflects a desire for intense and unique experiences (Comeau *et al*., 2001; Cooper *et al*., 1995). Furthermore, research suggests that enhancement-motivated drinkers are carefree individuals inclined to use alcohol as a means of fulfilling originality and stimulation needs as well as the need for exciting interpersonal interactions (Mezquita *et al*., 2010:244). One study also suggests that individuals who drink for the purpose of enhancement are shown to be extraverted, impulsive, have low inhibitory control and questionable levels of responsibility, are sensation seekers as well as aggressive in nature (Kuntsche *et al*., 2006:1850).

Read *et al*. (2003:13-14) maintain that in the same way coping motives mediate the connotations of negative emotion and tension reduction, the same way enhancement motives mediate the associations of sensation seeking and enhancement expectancies pertaining to alcohol consumption. Kuntsche *et al*. (2005:844) argue that among the motives behind younger individuals’ alcohol use, for example drinking to obtain social rewards, to reduce negative emotions as well as to circumvent social rebuff, they also use alcohol as a way to enhance positive moods or well-being.

It was revealed that adolescent individuals mainly drink alcohol for social reasons, though some indicated enhancement motives, where coping motives were only revealed by a few (Kuntsche *et al*., 2005). However, Kuntsche *et al*. (2006:1847) found that as people age, drinking motives become gender-specific. For example, it was found that although male participants reported social and enhancement motives for drinking during late adolescence (Cooper, 1994; Jerez & Coviello, 1998), coping motives were more prominent among young adults attending university. Mezquita *et al*. (2010:242) agree, reporting that males scored significantly higher on drinks per month, extraversion and enhancement drinking motives than females.

In addition to enhancement being an alcohol-consumption motive, a more recent study found that it also leads to increased consumption. For example, moderate drinkers were more motivated by enhancement than light drinkers were and heavy drinkers were motivated more by enhancement than moderate drinkers (Mobach & Macaskill, 2011:12). Thus, sensation-seeking individuals who drink for the purpose of enhancement are also likely to consume larger quantities of alcohol.

Enhancement, for the purpose of this study, was limited to an increase or improvement in the user's experience as a result of alcohol intake after making a conscious decision for that exact purpose that resulted in intrinsic rewards for them. Cooper (1994:122) examined the motives behind adolescents' engagement in alcohol consumption sessions for the purpose of enhancement and found that it was because individuals thought the act itself (drinking alcohol) was exciting, fun, that it gave them a pleasant feeling and also to get high. This is linked closely to the second highest ranked reason, namely euphoria, for drinking alcohol as identified by Priyadharshini (2014).

- **Conformity motives**

Conformity plays a major role in a young adult's life when trying to find friends, fit in, as well as progress through the changes into adulthood. Guandong *et al*. (2012:1376) define conformity as a person's behaviour or attitudes that follow those of the object, which can be another person or situation that directly or indirectly influence the individual. According to Tolley (2013), conformity can be divided into several different components including compliance. Compliance refers to a condition, in which an individual does not internally believe a group's opinions or actions are morally right, but agrees with the group outwardly and subsequently assumes the same opinions and actions.

Conformity is the result of an individual altering his or her behaviour, attitude, feelings and/or beliefs to fit to a group standard (Fabrigar & Norris, 2012). Johnston and White (2003:66) concur, reporting that when an individual strongly identifies with the norms of a behaviourally relevant group, it is likely that they will engage in a certain activity since their behaviour is influenced through the mediating role of the group's norms. This suggests that when an individual with no prior commitment to consume alcohol or consume less than intended, will become more willing to do so as a result of fulfilling a role in the group setting.

It is also likely that the influence of peers will be so enormous to some individuals that they will comply, because to them maintaining new friendships become a priority. Neuwirth and Frederick (2004:669) agree, stating that when individuals are faced with risky situations, with reference to alcohol consumption, they will consider the potential reactions of family, friends and others before choosing which behaviours to pursue. The several causes of conformity include curiosity and perception, as well as the local community and environment (Tolley, 2013).

The previous section revealed that there are various motives for alcohol consumption, though without an understanding of what the possible outcomes of alcohol use are, the necessary demarketing strategies cannot be devised. The following section provides insights into the social marketing concept as well as possible demarketing strategies.

## 2.5 SOCIAL MARKETING AND THE CONCEPT OF DEMARKETING

Social marketing is a distinct marketing discipline, which refers to attempts focused on influencing behaviours that aim to enhance health, avoid injuries, safeguard the environment as well as contribute to societies (Kotler & Lee, 2008:7). Demarketing is a form of social marketing and according to Kotler (2011:135), necessitates the use of a marketing strategy (segmentation, targeting and positioning) and organisations need to attend to marketing mix elements (Cullwick, 1975:53), namely the traditional four P's; product, price, promotion, place. Kotler and Keller (2012:638) suggest various social marketing strategies, namely cognitive campaigns, action campaigns, value campaigns and behavioural campaigns. This study will adopt a behavioural approach to social marketing in that it falls in the category of demotivating cigarette smoking, demotivating the use of hard drugs and demotivating excessive alcohol consumption. Kotler and Armstrong (2012:253) concur, stating that social marketing programs include public heath campaigns aimed at reducing smoking, drug abuse and obesity.

In social marketing, the marketing mix elements are vital in formulating a behavioural strategy or position in the market. Since the aim of this study is to demotivate excessive alcohol use, a fifth P – penalties, is added to the traditional marketing mix and discussed in the following section.

### 2.5.1 Segmentation, targeting and positioning

Traditional market segmentation is the process of dividing a market into smaller, well-defined groups of consumers with similar requirements (Hollensen, 2015:289). However, in a social marketing sense the population is divided into smaller clusters that will likely require unique but similar strategies to advocate behaviour change. Furthermore, these groups should share similar interests for example, similar needs, wants, motivations, values, behaviour and lifestyles, that will make them more likely to respond equally to a campaign (Kotler & Lee, 2008:116).

The Generation Y student population represents the market in this study, that were divided according to the abovementioned criteria in addition to alcohol consumption patterns and perceptions and, therefore, alcohol users were selected as the target market to whom behavioural campaigns will be addressed.

Kotler and Lee (2008:187-194) suggest several different positioning statements for social marketing products, namely barrier-focussed positioning, benefit-focused positioning, competition-focused positioning, repositioning-focused positioning and behaviour-focused positioning. Given that this study is aimed at demotivating alcohol consumption, a behaviour-focused view would be an appropriate positioning statement.

### 2.5.2 Demarketing mix

The following section comprises a discussion of the demarketing mix strategies used to dissuade the consumption of alcohol.

#### 2.5.2.1 Demarketing product strategy

Organisations use products as a means of satisfying consumer needs and wants, be it tangible or intangible (Parumasur *et al*., 2013:23), which can be physical products, a service, an experience, an event, a person, a place, a property, information or an idea (Kotler & Lee, 2008:205). Shiu *et al*. (2009:270) state that the product strategy, pertaining to the demarketing mix, involves finding a replacement product for the product in question, as well as services and programs that can help the user to refrain from using the harmful product. In the case of alcoholic beverages, non-alcoholic- or alcohol-free versions, as well as light versions, which contain a lower to a null alcohol concentration, have been introduced on the market. In addition to the new product version, several organisations can be contacted that serve as quit helplines to struggling consumers including Alcoholic Anonymous South Africa (AASA). Given that hazardous alcohol use is popular among Generation Y students and likely to rise in future (World Health Organization, 2014:297), a more appropriate product strategy needs to be developed.

According to the Foodstuffs, Cosmetics and Disinfectants Act (54 of 1972), the container labels for any alcoholic beverage, as of 24 February 2009, must contain at least one of the following health messages: “alcohol reduces driving ability, don’t drink and drive”; “don’t drink and walk on the road, you may be killed”; “alcohol increases your risk to personal injuries”; “alcohol is a major cause of violence and crime”; “excessive alcohol use is dangerous to your health”; “alcohol is addictive”; and “drinking during pregnancy can be harmful to your unborn baby” (Department of Health South Africa, 2007).

Moreover, this stated condition under the Act requires that these messages are visible, legible and indelible and that the legibility thereof not be obscured in any way, printed or otherwise. Secondly, the health message should be on a specifically assigned space and be at least one eighth of the total size of the label. Lastly, it should be printed only in black ink in front of a white background (Department of Health South Africa, 2007). Many warning labels contain the message: “Alcohol abuse is dangerous to your health” though it is possible that consumers are not aware of what is meant by alcohol abuse. Alcohol abuse is similar to alcoholism by definition, where alcohol causes both harm to the drinker and his or her surroundings; though, with alcohol abuse, the user is not dependent yet, but drinking habits result in legal, social and other problems (Tracy, 2012). A local study found that only 53 percent of participants were aware that an average individual of 68 kilogram needs to consume less than three beers in an hour to keep a blood alcohol concentration level that is within the legally intoxicated limit (Mogotsi *et al*., 2014:192).

Thus, even if alcoholic beverages contain warning labels, it seems futile if not understood by consumers. Therefore, it is necessary to review warning labels and provide the consumer with a better understanding of the negative effects caused by excessive alcohol use.

#### 2.5.2.2 Demarketing price strategy

The main method of demotivating alcohol use, by means of a pricing strategy, is through pricing (Obot, 2006:31) and excise tax on alcoholic beverages, known as sin taxes in South Africa (Innes *et al*., 2008:405; Shiu *et al*., 2009:272). This method results in an increase in the ultimate price that consumers have to pay for alcohol-related products.

According to the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (2005), there is sufficient evidence that shows that as the price of alcohol and tobacco is increased, consumption decreases, especially among young consumers. This may be due to young individuals having limited disposable funds. Babor *et al*. (2004:101) concur, stating that various economic studies, conducted in both developed and undeveloped areas of the world, have established that heightened alcoholic beverage taxes and prices are connected to reductions in alcohol use and alcohol-related problems. Thus, alcohol taxes and prices can play a major role in controlling the availability and use of alcohol since consumers respond to these changes in price (Obot, 2006:32).

Contrary to the monetary approach to alcohol-consumption, control is the notion that price, in social marketing, is rather a transactional concept that outlines what a consumer has to trade in order to receive the collection of benefits from the product or service experience (Elliot *et al*., 2014). In other words, the consumer will outweigh the benefits gained from drinking to the benefits (health-wise) of not drinking. Therefore, according to the theory, if there are no better alternatives to consuming alcohol, then consumers are not likely to lower current consumption levels.

Thus, consumers need to be made aware of the benefits gained from not drinking alcohol excessively. In order to achieve this, consumers first need to be fully aware of the negative consequences that result from excessive consumption so that the benefits are prominent.

#### 2.5.2.3 Demarketing promotion strategy

Promotion may be the most widely adopted component of the marketing mix in social marketing, but if interventions do not combine more than promotion; the efforts are simply social advertising (Kubacki *et al*., 2015:2215). Kotler and Lee (2008:268) state that, in social marketing, promotions are influential messages constructed and conveyed to prompt the target audience to action. The process of developing this communication strategy comprises four major decisions, namely the message, the messengers, the creative strategy and the communication channels.

The message that is communicated is inspired by what the target audience has to do, know and believe in future. The messengers are the individuals responsible for delivering this message, perceived to sponsor, or support the offer at hand. The creative strategy is what actually is said, shown and the manner in which both it is conducted, where the communication channels involve where and when the messages will appear and should be visible and distinguishable from traditional distribution channels. In order to have a successful campaign, messages and creative strategies need to be pre-tested to assess their ability to deliver all set objectives and to identify potential pitfalls.

There is reliable and consistent evidence from the international literature which shows that exposure to alcohol, mainly to youths, through media and other communication channels, promotes underage drinking (Austin *et al*., 2006:382; Ellickson *et al*., 2005:235) and is connected to an increased likelihood that these individuals will start drinking and continue to drink afterwards (Anderson *et al*., 2009:239). Studies indicate that banning the advertising of alcohol products, banning all sport and arts sponsorships and banning alcoholic beverage promotion will reduce exposure to alcohol, resulting in a reduced likelihood of early alcohol use and alcohol-related harm as well as an increase in healthier lifestyles (Parry *et al*., 2014:1972).

Even though the ban on alcohol advertising and promotion has been on the government's itinerary for the past five years, ongoing public discussion has increased in the past two years, specifically between the South African government, academic, civil society organisations as well as the alcohol and advertising industries (Ramsoomar, 2015). The topic of discussion is on the proposed ban on alcohol advertising in South Africa, as seen by the tobacco industry (Tobacco Control Laws, 2016).

Even though McCarthy (2012) argues that forbidding alcohol advertising in South Africa is not the answer, despite its negative consequences, Magome and Segar (2012) testify that the government is moving forward and plans to implement the proposal of banning marketing and advertising of alcohol in South Africa.

#### 2.5.2.4 Demarketing place strategy

Place refers to where and when the consumers will accomplish the desired behaviour, purchase any related tangible objects, or receive any related services (Kotler & Lee, 2008:247). In addition to raising alcohol prices and taxes as well as restricting or banning alcohol advertising, Payne (2012) suggests that limiting the accessibility of alcohol to consumers as well as raising the statutory age of consumption will further demotivate its consumption. Limiting accessibility to alcohol entails restricting the liquor outlets' trading hours. According to the National Liquor Policy, notice 446 of 2015, it is essential to control the availability of alcohol in order to reduce the harmful use thereof. Moreover, one of the strategies includes the need to control the days and hours when selling alcohol should be allowed. Liquor authorities and municipalities should regulate this by restricting times for sales of alcohol by means of setting norms and standards around trading hours (South Africa, 2015:5).

Another factor affecting alcohol consumption is drinking age (Wilkinson *et al*., 2009:265). Therefore, the national minimum legal age when alcohol can be acquired and consumed, should be increased from 18 to 21 years (Payne, 2012; South Africa, 2015:6).

Other suggested measures of demotivating alcohol use include restricting access to alcohol not only in location and time, but also in content, as well as increasing the measures to manage public drinking and drunk driving (Payne, 2012). There should also be consequences that are more serious for failing to adhere to new or current alcohol-related laws and legislation. Therefore, penalties, as the fifth P was included for discussion.

#### 2.5.2.5 Penalties

Penalties, relating to the demarketing concept, involve imposing stricter regulatory actions on alcohol as well as harsher punishing measures on the individuals who fail to keep to these controls (Roets, 2013:28).

Penalties pertaining to alcohol consumption comprised having more severe legal implications toward individuals driving over the legal limit (blood alcohol limit of 0.05g per 100ml) as well as harsher control measures against supplying alcohol to consumers already under the influence (Automobile Association South Africa, 2016; Wilkinson *et al.*, 2009:267). According to an updated government proposal, bartenders can be held personally liable for any harm or damage caused if an intoxicated customer is involved in either a motor vehicle accident or crime (John, 2015; South Africa, 2015:19). This is an attempt to discourage bartenders from serving already intoxicated customers.

Individuals or entities who sell alcohol to persons under the legal drinking age, currently 18 proposed to be raised to 21, and individuals under the legal drinking age who attempt to access or provide false documents to gain access to alcohol or related locations will be treated as offenders, subject to legal punishment (South Africa, 2015:19).

The major demarketing strategies are summarised in Figure 2.5.

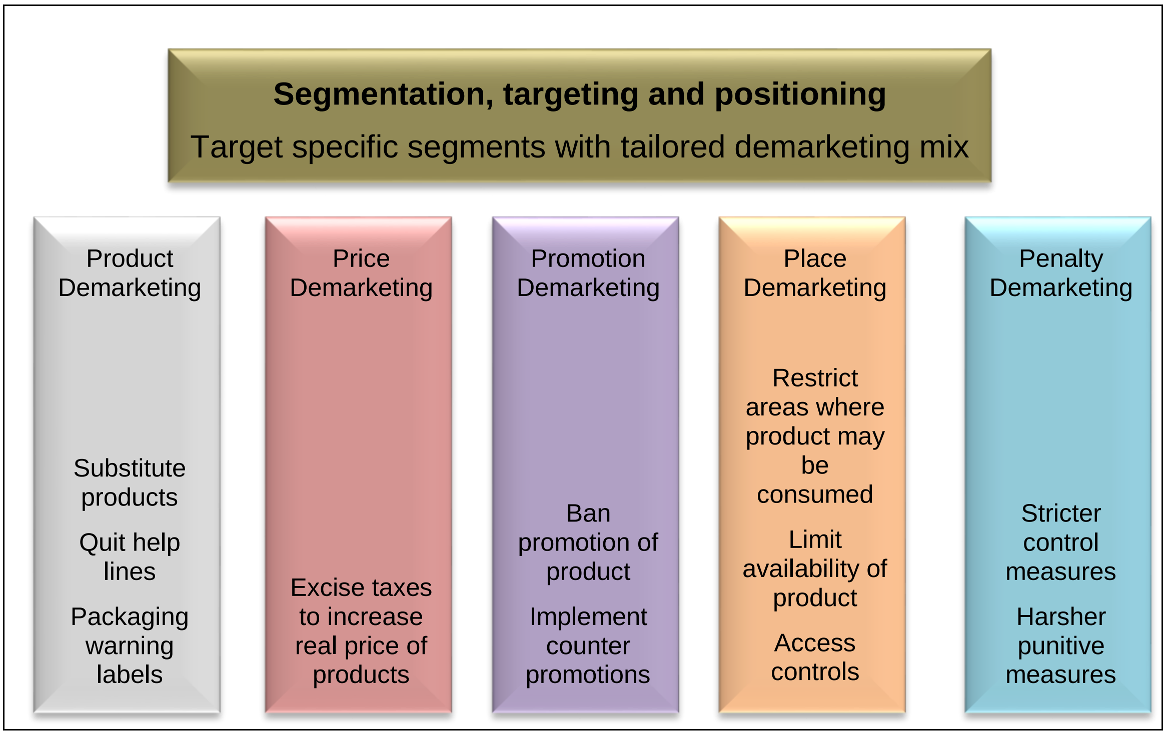



**Figure 2.5: Major demarketing strategies (Roets, 2013:30)**

The following section comprises a proposed model for the influence of perceived alcohol-consumption motives on attitudes toward alcohol consumption motives. Once the hypothesised relationship is tested empirically and the findings reported in Chapter 4, appropriate demarketing strategies can be developed, effectively targeting the Generation Y cohort.

## 2.6 PROPOSED MODEL FOR THE INFLUENCE OF PERCEIVED ALCOHOL-CONSUMPTION MOTIVES ON ATTITUDES TOWARD ALCOHOL CONSUMPTION

The literature review in Chapter 2 provided a valuable foundation for examining the perceived alcohol-consumption motives (social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives) as influencers of Generation Y students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption. The intent of this section is to propose a model of such motives influencing alcohol-consumption attitudes. As evident from the preceding literature review, this proposed model suggests the possible motives that influence Generation Y students' attitudes toward the use of alcohol. In addition, the aforementioned literature contains existing theories that may support the hypothesised model. Figure 2.6 demonstrates the proposed model for this study.

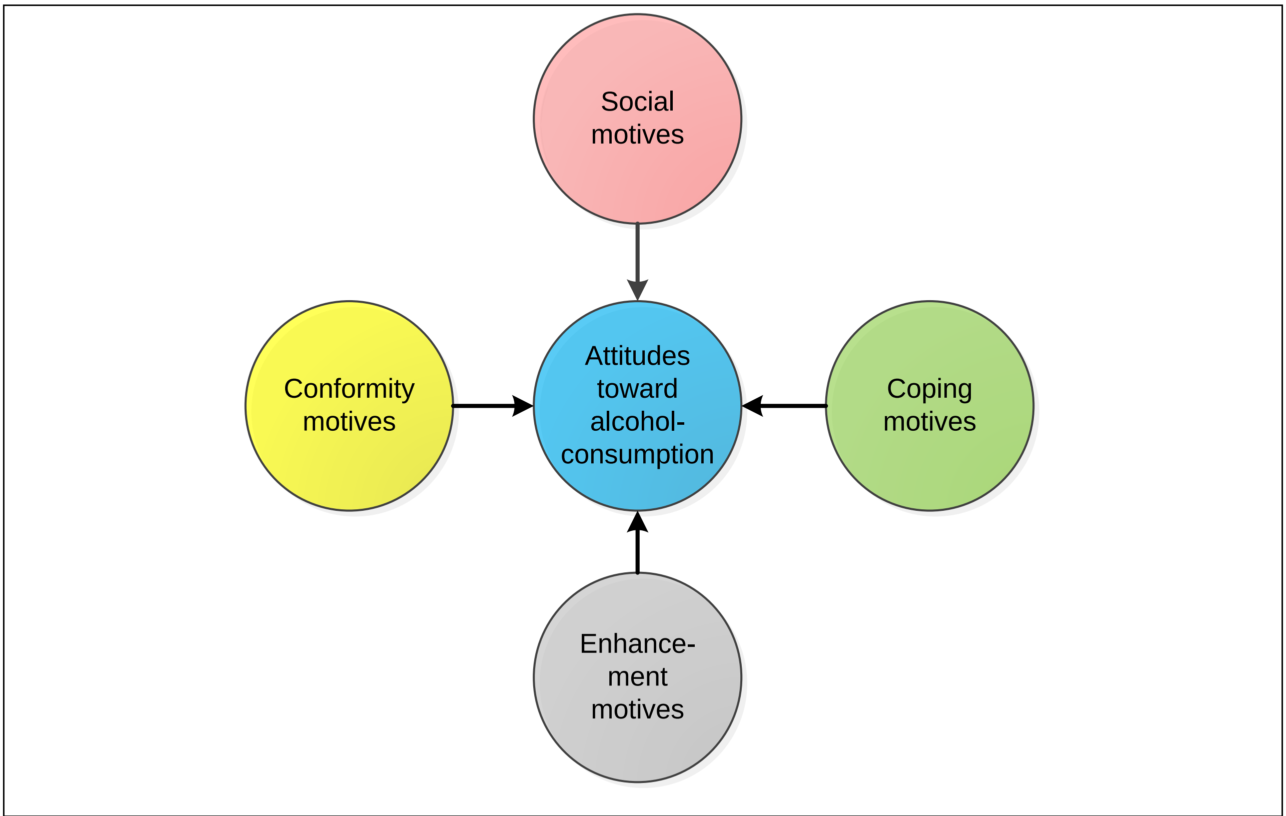



**Figure 2.6: Proposed influence of perceived social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives on Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.**

The proposed model shown in Figure 2.6 portrays the alcohol-consumption motives that influence Generation Y students' attitude toward the use of alcohol. In order to determine the influence of the perceived motives on attitudes toward alcohol consumption, the hypothesised relationship will be tested empirically, as reported on in Chapter 4.

## 2.7 SYNOPSIS

The primary purpose of this study is to analyse the perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives amongst Generation Y students. This chapter presented a detailed literature review of consumer behaviour, consumer motivation, attitudes and alcohol-consumption motives as a background to the study. The chapter opened with a detailed discussion of the Generation Y cohort. Alcohol-consumption behaviour and consumption patterns were highlighted. Demarketing in terms of segmentation, targeting and positioning were discussed, followed by an examination of the demarketing mix elements.

The succeeding chapter, Chapter 3, provides an overview of the research methodology applied to the empirical portion of the study. The research design and approach, the sampling strategy, data collection method, pre-testing and administration of the questionnaire, as well as the preliminary data analysis is discussed. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the statistical analysis conducted for this study.

# CHAPTER 3
# RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Marketing research is the process that reports information that can be used to identify opportunities and solve marketing problems, such as determining price or identifying the most effective advertising media (Burns & Bush, 2014:34; Malhotra, 2015:28). Marketing research is defined as "the systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of information about all marketing problems by means of recognised scientific methods". Furthermore, marketing research is aimed at providing information that is utilised by marketing management in the decision-making process (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:5). Marketing research serves as a "function that links an organisation to its market through the gathering of information" (Hair *et al.,* 2008:4).

The primary objective of this study was to determine Generation Y students' perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives and consequent attitudes toward such consumption behaviour within the South African context.

Consistent with the primary objective, the following empirical objectives were devised and investigated:

- Determine Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived social motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived coping motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived enhancement motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived conformity motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine the relationship between perceived social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives on Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.
- Determine the influence of perceived social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives on Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

Within this chapter, the research methodology used for collecting and analysing the data for the study is discussed. A description of the research approach, including the development of a sampling strategy, referring to the target population, the sampling frame, the sampling method and the sample size will follow. Thereafter the data collection method is discussed containing the questionnaire design, question format and the questionnaire layout, followed by the discussion of the pre-testing of the questionnaire as well as the operational procedure used to administer the questionnaire. The statistical techniques used to analyse the data is described in this chapter. The next section examines the research design selected for the study.

## 3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a framework or blueprint for conducting the marketing research project that gives details of the procedures vital when obtaining the necessary information to identify or solve marketing research problems (Malhotra, 2015:84). Identifying the most suitable research design and characteristics of the design assists the researcher just as a blueprint serves a builder (Burns & Bush, 2014:98). Marketing research can be divided into three categories, namely exploratory research, descriptive research and causal research (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:57).

- Exploratory research is aimed at providing insights into and the comprehension of the problem situation confronting the researcher (Malhotra, 2015:85). Examples of exploratory research methods comprise literature reviews of already available information as well as qualitative approaches including focus groups, in-depth interviews or pilot studies (Hair *et al*., 2008:32).
- Causal research is used to examine the relationship between two events by showing whether an alteration in one variable will result in a change in another variable (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:32). Results can be attained by use of laboratory- and field experiments (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:57).
- Descriptive research addresses the questions of what, when, where, who and how, in that it describes the characteristics of consumers, brands or other marketing phenomena under study (Clow & James, 2014:28). Further classifications of descriptive research include longitudinal and cross-sectional studies. Longitudinal studies involve the repeated measure of the same sample of elements over time where cross-sectional studies involve the collection of information from any given

sample of the population only once (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:56). Surveys and observations are the two major methods applied when using descriptive research (Malhotra, 2015:87).

The primary focus of this study was to gather data concerning the perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives amongst Generation Y students. As such, a descriptive research design was selected as the most suitable research design for this study to follow. A single cross-sectional design was used to obtain the data from the sample of participants. The research approach used in this study is described in the following section.

## 3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

The method of data collection during the research process can be classified into two broad categories, namely quantitative and qualitative (Burns & Bush, 2014:146). Qualitative research is an unstructured data collection method that involves collecting, analysing and interpreting data. This is done in order to gain an understanding of the existence of attitudes and opinions by observing what people do and say (Bradley, 2013:236; Clow & James, 2014:41). In qualitative research, questions and observations are open-ended (Malhotra, 2015:246).

Quantitative research, in contrast, is a structured data collection method that involves the administration of a set of structured questions with prearranged response options to a large number of participants, which provide results that can be converted to numbers and analysed through statistical procedures (Burns & Bush, 2014:146; Clow & James, 2014:41). One of the key considerations when using quantitative research is its generalisability. The degree to which the results of a study based on a sample is said to embody the results obtained from the entire population, from which the sample was drawn, is referred to as generalisability (Brown, 2006:21).

Within Table 3.1, Clow and James (2014:42) outline the main differences between the two approaches.

**Table 3.1: Comparison of qualitative and quantitative research**

| Feature | Qualitative | Quantitative |
|---|---|---|
| **Type of research** | Exploratory | Descriptive / Causal |
| **Sample size** | Small | Large |
| **Types of questions** | Unstructured | Structured |
| **Type of analysis** | Subjective | Objective, statistical |
| **Generalisability** | Limited | High |
| **Costs (typically)** | Lower | More expensive |
| **Time frame (typically)** | Shorter | Longer |

**Source: Clow and James (2014:42)**

Data pertaining to the motives that influence alcohol consumption amongst Generation Y students were gathered. Therefore, a quantitative research approach was employed in this study for the high generalisability possibilities and the objective nature of the analysis. The sampling strategy used in this study is described in the succeeding section.

## 3.4 SAMPLING STRATEGY

After the appropriate research approach was selected, a sampling strategy needs to be formulated and implemented. The process of selecting the group of individuals included in the study is called sampling, where the group of individuals chosen is the sample (Clow & James, 2014:225). According to Malhotra (2010:375) the sampling strategy shapes how the sampling decision, coupled with the population, sampling frame, sampling unit, sample size and sampling method, were applied.

Sampling comprises its own basic terminology including population, census and sample (Burns & Bush, 2014:238) and before the relevant aspects of the sampling strategy can be discussed, the question of whether the researcher should sample or take a census, needs to be addressed (Malhotra, 2015:270).

The population refers to the group from which the sample is drawn (Clow & James, 2014:225). It, therefore, is defined as the entire group considered, as specified by the objectives of the research study (Malhotra, 2015:238). A census is conducted when the researcher attempts to question or observe all the members of the defined target population (Hair *et al.,* 2013:38). Alternatively, a sample is referred to as a subset of the population that appropriately represents the entire group (Burns & Bush, 2014:239; Wyner, 2001:4-5).

A sample strategy or plan serves as the blueprint for defining the suitable target population, identifying the possible participants, establishing the methods for selecting the sample, as well as determining the appropriate sample size (Hair *et al.,* 2013:38). Therefore, the sampling strategy must be explained meticulously as sampling forms a critical component of any research study (Clow & James, 2014:440).

The sub-sections included hereafter, describe the sampling strategy applied to this study specifically related to the description of the target population, the sampling frame, the sampling method and the sample size.

### 3.4.1 Target population

In order to accomplish the desired outcomes of the study, the appropriate selection of the target population is essential. Target population refers to the entire group of individuals or objects, with varying characteristics, to which researchers are interested in generalising the conclusions and relate their research questions (Anon, 2009; Shiu *et al.,* 2009:63). The imprecise definition of the target population will result in research that is both ineffective and misleading. Therefore, the target population must be defined precisely. The target population should be defined in terms of elements, sampling units, extent and time after the researcher clearly identified the inclusive and exclusive criteria for participation in the study (Malhotra, 2015:272). The target population for this study includes all male and female Generation Y full-time undergraduate students aged between 18 and 24, enrolled at South African higher education institutions in 2016.

### 3.4.2 Sampling frame

The sampling frame should emulate the population of interest in summary form (Bradley, 2013:155). The sampling frame is a list of all the sample units available from which the sample or subset of the population is drawn. The sampling frame may take the form of geographic maps to divide the sample by region, or even at street level, institutions, households, individuals and other units (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:171; Bradley, 2013:155; Wiid & Diggines, 2009:194).

Often, a list of population elements is obtained or compiled that includes some elements that do not belong or overlook others that do. This leads to sampling frame error (Malhotra, 2015:273). Sampling frame error occurs when the source of the sample might not cover the target population or where duplicates or other defects exist (Bradley, 2013:323). Additionally, when a sample is drawn from an incomplete list of potential or prospective participants, sampling frame error ensues (Hair *et al.,* 2013:382). In order to avoid sampling frame error all relevant and potential participants were taken into consideration when selecting the final sample.

The sampling frame for this study comprised the 26 registered South African public HEIs, as listed by the Department of Higher Education and Training (Business Tech, 2015). The institutions are divided into three categories, namely traditional universities, comprehensive universities and universities of technology. For the purpose of this study, a judgement sample of two universities in the Gauteng province was selected. Of the two universities, one is a traditional university and the other a university of technology.

### 3.4.3 Sample method

Sampling techniques are classified broadly as nonprobability and probability sampling. Probability sampling, also known as random sampling (Bradley, 2013:162), is the process in which each element of the population has a fixed probabilistic chance of being chosen for the sample and the chances of selection are known. Whereas, non-probability sampling relies on the personal judgment of the researcher rather than chance to select sample elements and where the probability of selecting members from the population into the sample are unknown (Burns & Bush, 2014:242; Malhotra, 2015:275). Figure 3.1 outlines the different types of probability and non-probability sampling techniques.

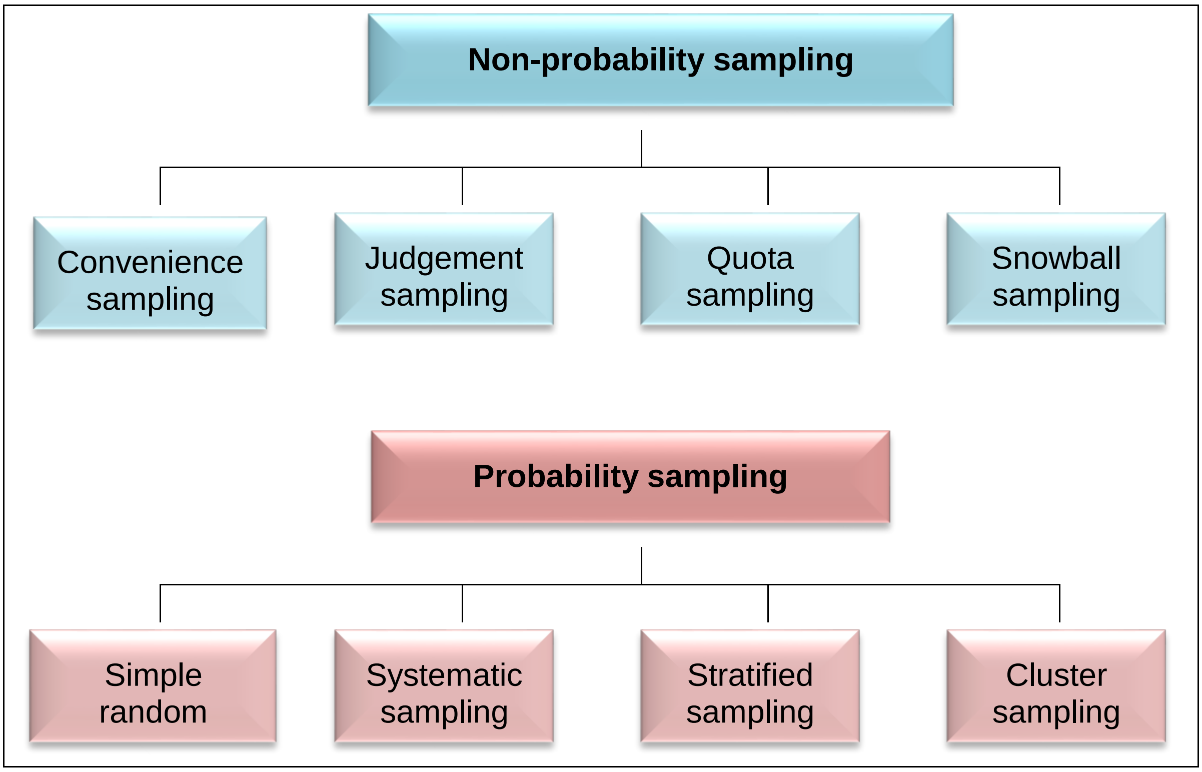



**Figure 3.1: Sampling techniques (Malhotra, 2015:276)**

Four different types of probability sampling techniques are identified, namely simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling. Simple random sampling is a selection process that assures all members of the population in the sample frame with an identical chance of being selected (Burns & Bush, 2014:243; Clow & James, 2014:235). Systematic sampling involves using a sample frame that lists members of a population and the researcher then selects a random starting point for the first sample member. Thereafter, a constant skip interval that is calculated by dividing the number of population elements in the sample frame by the sample size is used to select every other member from the sample frame (Burns & Bush, 2014:243). Stratified sampling is a probability sampling technique that uses a two-step process in which the population is partitioned into subpopulations or strata. Thereafter, elements from each stratum are selected by a random process (Malhotra, 2015:282). Cluster sampling involves using a two-step probability sampling technique whereby the target population is divided into equally exclusive and collectively extensive sub-populations called clusters, whereafter a random sample of clusters is selected (Bradley, 2013:163).

Four different types of non-probability sampling techniques are identified, namely convenience sampling, judgement sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling. In convenience sampling, the sample is drawn from a section of the population that is readily accessible to the researcher and includes only those individuals present at the same time and place as the researcher (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:200). Judgement sampling is the selection of participants because the researcher believes the individuals meet the requirements of the study (Hair *et al.,* 2008:136). In snowball sampling, an initial group of participants is randomly selected, whereafter, these participants are asked to identify others who belong to the target population of interest. Based on these referrals, subsequent participants are selected (Malhotra, 2015:279). During quota sampling, a subjective decision is made by the researcher to allocate the population into useful groups based on known divisions from census data, namely age, gender, region and income. Once the segments are divided or grouped, they are examined and the researcher needs to determine which participants meet the required characteristics outlined in the study (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:174; Bradley, 2013:167).

Although the probability sampling techniques offer the opportunity to generalise the findings of the research study (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:175), selecting a non-probability sampling technique is quicker, more convenient and cost effective to execute (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:199). Therefore, for the purpose of this study, a single cross-sectional, non-probability, convenience sample of 500 full-time undergraduate Generation Y students was drawn from the sample frame.

### 3.4.4 Sample size

A sample size refers to the number of elements to be included in a research study. The factors that should be considered when establishing the sample size include the importance of the decision, the nature of the research and analysis, resource constraints and sample sizes used in similar studies (Malhotra, 2015:274). According to Bradley (2013:175), the sample size usually is agreed upon before undertaking fieldwork and depends on the purpose of the study, the size and nature of the participants, the time, budget and resources available as well as the importance of the results to be obtained from conducting the specific research. Burns and Bush (2014:267) add that, while many researchers believe that the sample size determines a sample's representativeness, it has been established that there is no relationship between the two components.

With all criteria considered, a sample size of 500 full-time undergraduate Generation Y students was selected for this study. This sample size is in the range of other similar studies such as Gunay and Baker (2011:324) (sample size of 431), Holahan *et al*.

(2003:160) (sample size of 412) and Slicker (2001) (sample size of 403) and, therefore, was deemed sufficiently large.

## 3.5 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Data collection refers to the act of collecting responses from the identified sample (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:202). Clow and James (2014:169) identify several data collection methods, namely telephone interviews and surveys, mail surveys, personal interviews, Internet methods and mixed approaches. Various other data collection methods are identified within the literature, namely in-home interviews, mall-intercept interviews, in-office interviews, fully automated interviews, online surveys, group self-administered surveys, drop-off surveys, mail surveys and telephone-, personal-, mail- and electronic interviews (Burns & Bush, 2014:184; Malhotra, 2015:298). Despite the method used to collect data, the objective remains to deliver data that are free of errors (Clow & James, 2014:38).

Observation research can be used to collect data about behaviours and results of behaviours. However, it cannot be used to explain consumers' motivations, attitudes, or reasoning behind specific behaviours (Clow & James, 2014:128). Collecting data through observation takes place through either human observation or using mechanical or electronic equipment (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:59). Electronic methods of data collection involve the use of technology, or computer-based methods to collect data (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:204) that includes e-mail surveys and Internet surveys (Malhotra, 2015:159). Experimentation is done in a controlled environment and conclusions are generalised to apply to a wider context (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:59). The two methods of experimentation applied in research are laboratory and field experiments (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:221).

The survey method of acquiring information is built on questioning participants regarding their behaviour, intentions, attitudes, awareness, motivations and demographic and lifestyle characteristics (Malhotra, 2015:149; Wiid & Diggines, 2009:59). If survey research is used, it can be collected through various methods, *inter alia* personal interviews, telephone-based surveys, mail surveys, or online interviews, self-administered questionnaires as well as drop-off surveys. Surveys can be issued at a mall, distributed in a university classroom, or placed alongside a credit card receipt (Clow & James, 2014:38). Questions may be asked verbally, in writing, or via computer. The questionnaire typically is structured, whereby a formal questionnaire is prepared and the questions are in a prearranged order. The structured survey is the most popular data collection method and involves preparing and administering a questionnaire to the participant (Malhotra, 2015:149). When using a self-administered survey, the participant has the choice of what questions will or will not be completed (Burns & Bush, 2014:193). Questionnaires are distributed and the participants read the instructions then complete the questionnaire without any assistance from the interviewer (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:204).

For the purpose of this study, the selected data collection method was the survey method. The required data were obtained through a standardised self-administered questionnaire using the group self-administered questionnaire survey method. The reason for selecting the survey method was the advantages this method offers in screening potential participants (Hair *et al.,* 2013:266). After the questionnaire was proposed for approval and an ethics clearance certificate issued (Ethics Clearance Number: ECONIT-2016-021) by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Economic Sciences and Information Technology at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus), the relevant lecturers members at each institution were contacted telephonically and a personal meeting was arranged to discuss the study and its objectives. The meeting also served to ask permission from lecturers at each of the institutions to administer the questionnaires to their students during class time. After permission was solicited, the questionnaire was personally distributed, with the assistance of two trained fieldworkers, to the participating students during one class period that was convenient for the participating lecturers at the two selected HEI campuses. The participants were informed of the study and its objectives and thereafter, voluntary assistance was requested for the completion of the questionnaire. Participants were assured that the completion of the questionnaire is anonymous and that all responses were being recorded for statistical purposes only. A discussion pertaining to the research instrument used in this study, namely the questionnaire, is discussed in the next section.

### 3.5.1 Questionnaire design

When a survey method is adopted to gather data in a study, a data collection tool is required to solicit the information from a sample or census of participants (Clow & James, 2014:323). A questionnaire is defined as a document consisting of a set of questions and scales designed to gather primary data (Hair *et al.,* 2013:188) where a sound questionnaire design enables researchers to collect both reliable and valid information. Moreover, a questionnaire is the tool used to present the questions the researcher desires participants to answer and serves various key functions. These functions include, translating the research objectives into specific questions presented to the participants, standardising both the questions and response format so that every participant responds to identical stimuli and cooperation on the participants' part throughout the completion of the process by the correct wording, question flow and appearance of the questionnaire (Burns & Bush, 2014:214).

For a questionnaire to fulfil the study's research objectives, the questions must meet the basic criteria of relevance and accuracy (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:270-71). The basic criteria to consider includes being clear on which questions to present, how the questions should be phrased, the sequence thereof, the questionnaire layout and whether the questionnaire will be pre-tested or not (Bradley, 2013:487). Furthermore, Burns and Bush (2014:217) state that questions used in a questionnaire should preferably be brief, grammatically simple, clear and be focused on a single issue or topic.

According to Burns and Bush (2014:214), the questionnaire design directly shapes the quality of the data collected and, therefore, is essential. Malhotra (2015:242) concludes that a series of steps need to be followed to execute the questionnaire design process successfully. Among the first steps in the questionnaire design process are specifying the information needed, specifying the type of interviewing method (Clow & James, 2014:324), determining the content of individual questions and overcoming the participant's inability and/or willingness to answer (Malhotra, 2015:242). Further steps include selecting the question structure, determining the question wording, arranging the questions in the correct order (Burns & Bush, 2014:215), selecting the format and layout, reproducing the questionnaire (Hair *et al.,* 2013:189) and pre-testing the questionnaire (Bradley, 2013:215).

The abovementioned recommendations directed the design of the questionnaire employed in this study. The questions were formulated according to the empirical objectives of this study as outlined in Chapter 1. In order to ensure that the language used in the questionnaire was simple and easy to understand, unambiguous, clear and concise words where used to construct the questions. A cover letter attached to the questionnaire included the purpose of the study as well as the relevant contact details. The cover letter, alongside the final questionnaire is presented in Annexure A.

### 3.5.2 Questioning format

The formation of a questionnaire is systematic and includes a series of analytical activities whereby researchers select the appropriate scales and design the questionnaire in accordance with the data required to achieve the study's objectives (Hair *et al.,* 2013:190). The questionnaire used in this study, was designed consistent with achieving the empirical objectives of the research study as formulated in Chapter 1 (refer to Section 1.3.3). In keeping with the data required to achieve these objectives, this study adapted and used two previously validated scales, namely the Vargas and Luis (2008) attitude scale (12 items) and the Cooper (1994) drinking motives scale (20 items). The Vargas and Luis (2008) attitude scale was used to measure the participants' attitudes of alcohol consumption and the Cooper (1994) drinking motives scale comprised four possible determinants, including social motives (five items), coping motives (five items), enhancement motives (five items) and conformity motives (five items). The students' attitudes and perceptions were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 6= strongly agree) based on the participants' agreement or disagreement with the statements.

Additionally, the questionnaire included a section (Section A), designed to gather the participants' demographical data, such as their higher education institution, country of origin, province of origin, year of study, gender, ethnicity, home language, age, monthly income, source of income, living arrangements and number of residents. Background information, in view of alcohol consumption, was also contained in the questionnaire (Section B) and included questions related to whether they consume alcohol or not, how often they drink alcohol, how many drinks on average they consume, their preferred alcoholic beverage, who they are most likely to drink with and to those who do not drink, to provide a reason.

Two main types of question formats are identified, namely structured or unstructured. A structured questionnaire comprises pre-determined questions that require the participants to select from a predetermined set of responses, of which the response format may be multiple-choice, dichotomous, or a scale (Malhotra, 2015:245). In contrast, an unstructured questionnaire consists of open-ended questions, allowing the participants to reply using their own words (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:274). According to Hair *et al.* (2013:190), determining the type of data required, namely nominal, ordinal, interval, or ratio is an essential consideration when forming the questionnaire.

The primary scales of measurement including the properties, basic empirical operations, usage and typical descriptive statistics used, are nominal scales, ordinal scales, ratio- and interval scales (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:160). Where nominal scales assign a value to an object for classification or identification purposes (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:241), ordinal scales enable participants to express relative importance between the answers to a question (Hair *et al.,* 2013:162). In addition, the ordinal scale allows responses to be rank-ordered in a hierarchical pattern. The ratio scale comprises all the properties of the nominal, ordinal and interval scales, in addition to an absolute zero point (Clow & James, 2014:262). With ratio scales, it is possible to identify or classify objects, rank these objects and compare intervals or differences (Malhotra, 2015:212). An interval scale is used to measure unobservable constructs (Burns & Bush, 2014:208-211) where the most frequently used itemised rating scales are the staple scale, semantic differential scale and the Likert scale (Cant *et al.,* 2008:141; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:239; Malhotra, 2010:308; Malhotra, 2015:207; Wiid & Diggines, 2013:156).

#### 3.5.2.1 Semantic differential scale

The semantic differential scale is a unique bipolar ordinal scale that captures participants' attitudes or feelings about a given object (Hair *et al.,* 2013:172). This scale comprises a finite number of choices anchored by dichotomous words or phrases and commonly contains five or seven points, allowing a neutral position (Clow & James, 2014:298). Furthermore, the scale contains three dimensions, namely evaluation, which includes words like good and bad, potency, which includes words like strong and weak and activity, that includes words such as fast and slow (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:241). The participants indicate what best depicts their attitude towards the object being measured by marking in the blank space on the scale (Malhotra, 2010:310). The data gathered from using this scale are commonly analysed by means of profile analysis where mean values on each rating scale are computed and compared by plotting or through statistical analysis (Malhotra, 2015:222). Although this scale is quick and easy to use, its many disadvantages include the lack of standardisation and it lacks meaning, having too few categories. In addition, this scale has been found to be complex to interpret as responses may not relate to the adjectives provided in the scale, or participants view might simply be neutral (McDaniel & Gates, 2001:271). Since various marketing stimuli have meaning, mental connotations, or associations, this type of scale is suitable when the researcher is aimed at determining brand, store, or other images (Burns & Bush, 2014:209).

#### 3.5.2.2 Stapel scale

The Stapel scale is considered a modified version of the semantic differential scale (Hair *et al*., 2013:383), though it only uses one anchor and both a positive and a negative numeric scale (Clow & James, 2014:301). The Stapel scale is defined as "a non-comparative vertical scale for measuring attitudes that consist of a single adjective in the middle of an even-numbered range of values, usually ten" that range from +5 to -5 (Malhotra, 2015:222). The different categories of the instrument are characterised by numerical labels (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:243), which usually are presented vertically (Malhotra, 2010:311). McDaniel and Gates (2001:272) maintain that the scale descriptors of the Stapel scale can be worded positively, in neutral, or negatively. Therefore, the manner in which statements are phrased will affect the results. Malhotra (2010:311) noted that even though no pre-testing is necessary with a Stapel scale, various disadvantages should be taken into account, such as this particular scale being complicated to apply. Another disadvantage of the Stapel scale is that some participants have difficulty understanding or interpreting the scale and, therefore, circle the anchor itself, rather than the positive or negative number (Clow & James, 2014:302). The data gathered by using a Stapel scale can be analysed in the same manner as Likert or semantic differential data. In addition, the advantages of using a Stapel scale are that it does not require pre-testing of the adjectives or phrases to ensure true bipolarity and it can be administered telephonically (Malhotra, 2015:223).

#### 3.5.2.3 Likert scale

The Likert scale, or summated rating scale (Bradley, 2013:203), is a non-comparative measurement scale, typically comprising five response categories ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, (Malhotra, 2015:219) that require participants to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement with a series of statements about a subject (Hair *et al*., 2013:171). That is, using the Likert scale will aid in capturing the intensity of participants' feelings toward the statements' claim or declaration because they are asked how much they agree or disagree with a specific statement (Burns & Bush, 2014:208).

McDaniel and Gates (2001:274) add that the Likert scale consists of a column of favourable or unfavourable statements in relation to the subject being researched. The reason for producing the scale used in the study was to allow the researcher to obtain the overall score of a participant, in addition to determining whether the participants are positive or negative towards the subject, being researched (McDaniel & Gates, 2001:276). The key advantage of using a Likert scale is that it is free from bias. Scales employed earlier appeared to take a position where participants may have felt constrained to share the value simply because the question was presented. Likert scales aid in avoiding this by allowing the participant the opportunity to take another stance (Bradley, 2013:203). However, the Likert scale has some disadvantages. It is often difficult to embody the responses from a Likert item and it is more time consuming for the participant since the individual has to read, interpret and respond to every statement (Malhotra, 2010:309). Likert scales are best for research designs that make use of self-administered surveys, online surveys, or personal interviews (Hair *et al*., 2013:172).

For the purpose of this study, an undisguised, structured, self-administered questionnaire was used. The questions that were used in obtaining the participants demographic information (Section A of the questionnaire) consists of dichotomous questions, where the participants had to indicate their higher education institution, country of origin, province of origin, their current year of study, gender, ethnicity, home language, age, monthly income, source of income, living arrangements and number of residents.

A Likert scale, as a measuring instrument, was applied to measure the participants' attitudes and perceptions toward alcohol consumption and alcohol-consumption motives respectively. The existing scales of Vargas and Luis (2008) and Cooper (1994) were adapted and utilised in this study in order to collect information pertaining to students' attitudes of alcohol consumption as well as students' perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives. The participants' attitudes of alcohol consumption as well as perceptions for alcohol-consumption motives were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 6= strongly agree).

### 3.5.3 Questionnaire layout

There is a possibility that the format, spacing and position of questions can significantly affect the results (Malhotra, 2015:254). Therefore, it is important that the questionnaire have the correct layout. The format and layout of the questionnaire should ensure that participants can easily read and follow instructions, so much so that if the researcher disregards questionnaire layout, the quality of data can be significantly reduced (Hair *et al.,* 2013:199). Struwig and Stead (2010:96) add that both the layout and the appearance of the questionnaire should be considered carefully, especially when structuring a self-administered questionnaire. Owing to the various types of information required, a questionnaire should comprise of several sections (Malhotra, 2010:352).

Several partitions are necessary for questions with reference to basic information, where the questions or responses in each part should be numbered, especially when using branching questions (Malhotra, 2015:254-255). Clow and James (2014:340) identify the primary sections of a questionnaire and the typical order in which the sections appear as instructions, screening questions, survey questions, demographic information and closing. Several authors suggest inserting the section gathering demographical information at the end of the questionnaire (Clow & James, 2014:340; Hair *et al.,* 2013:194). However, Swanepoel *et al*. (2006:291) state that demographical questions should be placed first, followed by the questions that relate to the topic.

During the development of the questionnaire used in this study, the first section aimed at obtaining certain demographical data from the participants. According to Malhotra (2010:350), demographic information refers to the participants' demographical and social-economical descriptors. Three filter questions were used along with the demographic information in an attempt to ensure that the participants qualified for the study per sample requirements. The first thereof was country of origin. Since the study is based in the South African context, those who indicated another country were discarded. The second thereof was age, which ensured that the participants formed part of the Generation Y cohort. The third was current year of study, which for this study was limited to full-time undergraduate students. Any responses that fell outside of the filter questions were disregarded.

The designed questionnaire in this study comprised of four sections. The first section, Section A, gathered demographical information and included screening questions to ensure that all participants were part of the target population. The second section, Section B, gathered current alcohol-consumption behaviour information as well as the possible reasons for not consuming alcohol.

The third section, Section C, gathered information about the students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption in general and aimed at uncovering individual opinions and feelings toward students' use of alcoholic beverages. The participants' attitudes toward alcohol consumption were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 6= strongly agree) based on the participants' agreement or disagreement with the statements.

The last section, Section D, intended to uncover the perceptions of students pertaining to the alcohol-consumption motives among their fellow students. The participants' perceptions for alcohol-consumption motives were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 6= strongly agree) based on the participants' agreement or disagreement with the statements.

**Table 3.2: Determinants of alcohol-consumption motives**

| Determinants | Authors |
|---|---|
| Attitudes | Vargas (2012); Vargas & Luis (2008) |
| Social | Cooper (1994); Du Preez *et al.* (2016); Howell *et al*. (2010); Kuntsche *et al*. (2005); Kuntsche *et al*. (2006); Mobach and Macaskill (2011); Read *et al.* (2003) |
| Coping | Cooper (1994); Du Preez *et al.* (2016); Howell *et al*. 2010; Kuntsche *et al*. (2005); Kuntsche *et al*. (2006); Mobach and Macaskill (2011); Read *et al.* (2003); Tayob & Van der Heever (2014) |
| Enhancement | Cooper (1994); Du Preez *et al.* (2016); Howell *et al*. 2010; Kuntsche *et al*. (2005); Kuntsche *et al*. (2006); Mobach and Macaskill (2011); Read *et al.* (2003); Tayob & Van der Heever (2014) |
| Conformity | Kuntsche *et al*. (2006); Read *et al.* (2003); Tayob & Van der Heever (2014) |

In this section, the data collection method, questionnaire design, format and layout, including the different measurement instruments that the researcher can utilise in a study, were discussed. The following section comprises an examination of the process followed in pre-testing the questionnaire used in this study.

## 3.6 PRE-TESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

It is advised to pre-test a questionnaire before conducting the main study, as it is the best way to evaluate if the questionnaire measured what it intended to (Bradley, 2013:215-216). Furthermore, a pre-test, together with a pilot test is done to ascertain whether the participants understood the questions, if the wording thereof needs to be changed, which questions were missed and the tendency to provide the same response for all questions (Hair *et al.,* 2008:180). The other outcome derived from conducting a pilot test is determining the amount of time participants took to complete the questionnaire. It is advised that the participants used for the pilot test be similar to those used in the main study, consisting of a small, representative group typically between 20 and 30 individuals (Clow & James, 2014:28; Hair *et al.,* 2008:180).

Berndt and Petzer (2011:146,7) stress the importance of pretesting the research questionnaire, because a lot of time and money is involved in the process, which would go to waste if flaws are only discovered after distributing hundreds of questionnaires. Therefore, pilot studies are an essential component in survey research, by refining measures and subsequently reducing the risk of having a defective main study (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:54).

The process of performing a pilot test involves finding a group of representative participants that will not form part of the main study. Burns and Bush (2014:229) suggests that before the questionnaire is administered, the participants should be informed of the pre-testing and requested to indicate any problems pertaining to words, instructions, phrases, question flow or other aspects that appear difficult to understand, unclear, or problematic in any other way. A pilot test should be done since a question might be clear and obvious to one, but have a different meaning to another. Thus, the questionnaire used within a study should be piloted at least once (Blythe, 2005:118).

For the purpose of this study, the questionnaire was pre-tested by means of the debriefing and pilot testing approaches. Pre-testing, by means of the debriefing approach, was conducted for the purpose of permitting both face or content validity of the research instrument. First, three experienced researchers reviewed the questionnaire to detect potential errors. Thereafter, two academic staff members were requested to participate in the debriefing process. This approach confirmed that both first- and non-first language English-speaking participants would be able to understand and complete the questionnaire without having trouble. The participants took approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire, which was sufficient according to McDaniel and Gates (2007:352). After pre-testing the questionnaire, all suggestions were considered and subsequent changes were made.

On completion of the pre-testing stage, the questionnaire was then subjected to pilot testing in order to ensure the internal-consistency reliability of the scales used in this study. The pilot test was performed on a convenience sample of 50 full-time undergraduate students on a South African HEI campus that did not form part of the sampling frame of the main study. The results of the pilot study are analysed and reported on in Chapter 5. The problems that were identified after executing the pilot study were corrected. Thereafter, the main study was conducted using the final questionnaire (refer to Annexure A).

This section comprised a discussion of the procedure followed in pre-testing the questionnaire in order to distribute the final questionnaire. This procedure is discussed in detail in the following section.

## 3.7 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

According to Shiu *et al.* (2009:486), the process of administrating the questionnaire involves the collection of the data. Moreover, McDaniel and Gates (2001:338) state that the administration of the questionnaire is deemed an essential process, since it includes ensuring that the specific procedures are followed. The process of formally administrating the questionnaires of this study was completed in August 2016, using a sample of 500 Generation Y full-time undergraduate students. As the sample frame for this study comprised two HEIs, the sample was divided equally and 250 questionnaires were administered among each of the institutions.

The relevant lecturers at each institution were contacted telephonically whereafter, a personal meeting was arranged to discuss the study and its objectives. The meeting also served as an opportunity to ask permission and assistance from the staff members to help distribute the questionnaire or arrange for a class period to do so. One class period was deemed ample as the questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes to complete. Once a suitable date and time was established, the questionnaires were hand delivered to the physical venues where participants were approached. Upon arrival, the participants were informed of the study and its objectives and thereafter, voluntary assistance was requested for the completion of the questionnaire. Participants were assured that all responses were being recorded for statistical purposes only and that the completion of the questionnaire is completely anonymous. After the participants completed the questionnaires, they were returned immediately to the researcher.

The data gathered from this study was tabulated and analysed, as presented in Chapter 4. The purpose of collecting the data from this study was to draw conclusions and make appropriate recommendations.

## 3.8 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

Data preparation plays a significant role in both assessing and controlling the integrity of data and in ensuring the quality of data (Hair *et al*., 2013:242). The steps of data preparation are identified by Malhotra (2015:302) as preliminary plan of data analysis, questionnaire checking, editing, coding, transcribing, data cleaning, statistically adjusting the data and selecting a data analysis strategy. Moreover, Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:350) maintain that the purpose of data analysis is to gain meaning from the data that can be achieved through editing, coding and tabulation.

Editing ensures that answers are complete, accurate and suitable for further processing. Questionnaires are inspected to identify questions that are answered incorrectly or not answered at all. This sometimes is called cleaning the data (Bradley, 2013:313). Editing pertains to the review of questionnaires with the objective of increasing accuracy and precision (Malhotra, 2015:302). Wiid and Diggines (2009:230) add that the researcher needs to consider certain criteria when editing questionnaires, namely cheating by the interviewer, compliance with sampling requirements, relevance of the answers, completeness of questions and sections, comprehensiveness and unambiguity of answers, as well as inconsistencies, for instance, a participant indicating his/her favourite alcoholic beverage, but no previous consumption was reported in previous questions.

Within this study, all responses indicative of a nationality other that South African and an age outside of 18 – 24 years of age bracket were discarded. In addition, all of the questionnaires that were incomplete by more than 10 percent, that is, more than five missing values, were discarded as well.

Coding involves grouping and allocating values to responses to the survey questions. It is the allocation of numerical values to each individual response for each question on the survey (Hair *et al.,* 2013:249). If possible, standard codes should be used for missing data, missing value codes should be different from the codes assigned to the legitimate responses (Malhotra, 2015:303). The primary objective of coding is to represent each possible response with a unique number for the reason that numbers are easier and faster to use in computer tabulation programs (Burns & Bush, 2014:229).

Transcribing the data involves transferring the coded data from the questionnaires directly into computers by either keypunching or other means, namely using optical recognition, digital technologies, bar codes, or other technologies (Malhotra, 2010:459). In this study, a manual, keypunching method was used.

Clow and James (2014:373) define data cleaning as the process of checking the data for inconsistencies. Furthermore, this process involves three steps, namely examine the data for values that are out of the coded range, examine the data for values that are extreme and compare the responses that show inconsistency. Malhotra (2015:307,308) adds that data cleaning also includes performing consistency checks and the treatment of missing responses.

Data that are out of range, logically inconsistent, or have extreme values are identified after performing consistency checks. Missing responses or missing values represent values of variables that are unknown. This occurs either because participants did not properly record their answers and/or provided unclear answers (Malhotra, 2015:308).

One of the first options involves substituting a neutral value, whereby the missing value typically is replaced by the mean response to the variable. Casewise deletion is where participants with any missing values are discarded from the analysis (Malhotra, 2015:308). In pairwise deletion, the researcher only uses the cases or participants with complete responses for the variables involved in each calculation, instead of removing all of the cases with any missing values. Lastly, it is suggested to use the participants' patterns of responses to other questions to impute or calculate a suitable response to the missing values (Malhotra, 2010:462).

This research study's questionnaire consisted of four sections. Section A (A1 – A13) was designed to gather demographic data from the participants. Section B (B1 – B6) measured participants' current alcohol consumption behaviour, where Section C (C1 – C12) measured participants' attitudes toward alcohol consumption. The last section, Section D (D1 – D20), measured participants' perception of alcohol-consumption motives.

The questionnaire was pre-coded with the assistance of a statistician. The statistical analysis procedures used and implemented to the data obtained from the survey are discussed in the following section.

## 3.9 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The captured data was analysed using SPSS Version 23.0 for Windows. The following statistical methods were used on the empirical data sets:

- Confirmatory factor analysis
- Reliability and validity analysis
- Descriptive statistical analysis
- One sample t-test
- Correlation analysis
- Regression analysis

### 3.9.1 Confirmatory factor analysis

A factor analysis involves the analysis of a set of indicators or items in order to determine underlying constructs dimensions, by reducing a larger number of items into a smaller subset of factors (Clow & James, 2014:311). Factor analysis is a term used to describe a set of procedures used to reduce and summarise data that aims to discover simple patterns (Bradley, 2013:321). Furthermore, factor loading shows how close an indicator is to the factor and also signifies the degree of correlation between each variable and a factor. The variable describes the factor thoroughly if it has a very high factor loading of greater than 0.6. High factor loading is where the variable describes the factor well with a value of greater than 0.3 and low loading, with a value of less than 0.3 should be ignored, as the factor is not well described by the variable (Bradley, 2013:321). Two methods of factor analysis are identified within the literature, namely confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

Exploratory factor analysis adheres to a process of determining factors, pertaining to the relationships between variables and developing a theory (Çokluk & Koçak, 2016:539). EFA is conducted to explore the dimensionality of a measurement instrument by uncovering the smallest number of interpretable factors necessary to explain the correlations among a set of variables (Torres-Reyna, 2016).

Contrary to exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used when the researcher wants to test specific hypothesis about the structure or the number of dimensions underlying a set of variables (Torres-Reyna, 2016). Malhotra (2010:727) describes confirmatory factor analysis as a method used to ascertain if the variables of a scale load as anticipated on their relevant factors, thereby confirming the factor structure of the indicator variables. Struwig and Stead (2010:142) agree, stating that a confirmatory factor analysis either verifies or rejects the predicted factor structure. CFA is conducted when there is a specific hypothesis that is to be tested (Etchegaray, 2013:170).

For the purpose of this study, confirmatory factor analysis was used to determine whether the factors of the attitudes toward alcohol- and perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale, load as expected.

### 3.9.2 Reliability analysis

Reliability is an index of consistency, whereby the same or similar results are produced after repeated measurements are made using a multi-item scale (Hair *et al.,* 2008:151; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:258; Malhotra, 2015:226). Furthermore, a reliability test determines the degree to which a measurement is free from error (Clow & James, 2014:267). The total error of measurement has two main components, namely systematic- and random sampling error (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:254; Wiid & Diggines, 2009:109). Systematic error is caused by an oversight or problem in the research design or the research process (Clow & James, 2014:164) whereas random error indicates the temporary factors that have an effect on the observed score in different ways each time the measurement was made (Malhotra, 2015:225). Therefore, it is important to distinguish between systematic- and random error as it provides an understanding of reliability and validity (Malhotra, 2015:225). According to Malhotra (2010:318-319) the approaches for assessing reliability consist of test-retest, alternative-forms and internal consistency methods.

- **Test-retest reliability**

This method of determining reliability involves the distribution of the same scale to the same participants on two different occasions in order to test for instrument stability

(Zikmund & Babin, 2013:257). Moreover, Hair *et al.* (2013:165) add that the test-retest technique, whereby the scale measurement is repeated, can also be applied to two different samples of participants from the same defined target population under as nearly the same conditions as possible. The typical process of test-retest reliability involves the initial administration of the questionnaire to a specified group of participants. After two to four weeks (Malhotra, 2010:319), the same questionnaire is then administered again, either to the same group of participants, or a group of participants from the same defined target population (Hair *et al.,* 2013:165). The scores of the two surveys then are compared, where the correlation coefficient indicates the degree of similarity between the two measurements (Malhotra, 2010:319). Clow and James (2014:267) state that a high level of correlation or similarity between the two measures is indicative of the survey's high level of reliability. If differentiations in the results of the two measurements occur, it may either be due to the lack of cooperation from the participants or personal and environmental factors that changed during the process (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:275).

- **Alternative-forms reliability**

This method involves administering two measurement scales, that are as similar as possible in terms of form, with the intent of measuring the same object as well as the same participants during different time periods, usually two to four weeks apart (Cant *et al.,* 2008:235; Malhotra, 2010:319). The degree of alternative-forms of reliability of the instrument is determined by computing the two sets of scores of the alternative-scale forms by means of a correlation coefficient (Maree *et al*., 2011:215). The scores from the two measurements, therefore, are correlated to assess reliability. According to Malhotra (2010:319), the major problems associated with alternative-form reliability is that it is time-consuming, expensive and challenging to construct two equivalent forms of a scale. As a result, researchers tend to make use of internal consistency reliability. According to McDaniel and Gates (2007:277), this method is similar to the test-retest reliability method, except for the main difference being the measuring instrument itself.

- **Internal-consistency reliability**

This method involves using one measuring instrument and assessing its reliability, whereby different samples or items within each scale are used (Clow & James, 2014:268). Hair *et al.* (2013:166) define internal consistency as the degree to which the individual questions or items of a construct are correlated. Simply put, the set of questions or items that make up the measuring instrument must be internally consistent. Zikmund and Babin (2010:249) identify the two types in which internal consistency can be measured as split-half reliability and coefficient alpha, also known as Cronbach's alpha (Cant *et al.,* 2008:235). Split-half reliability involves the division of the scale items into two halves, based on odd-and-even numbered items or randomly, whereby the resulting two half scores are correlated with one another. High internal consistency is indicated by high correlations between the two halves (Malhotra, 2010:319). The problem with the split-half method, however, is that the coefficient of reliability changes depending on how the scale items were divided (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:278). Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:259) propose that the coefficient alpha is a better method to assess internal consistency. Coefficient alpha calculates the average of all possible split-half measures resulting from the different ways of dividing scale items (Hair *et al.,* 2013:166). Clow and James (2014:269) state that the measure is more reliable if the Cronbach's alpha score has a higher value. A score above 0.6 is regarded as acceptable and any score below, is indicative of unsatisfactory internal consistency reliability (Malhotra, 2010:319). One key advantage Cronbach's alpha procedure is that researchers can discard of items within the construct that may not be a good measure, specifically those items showing low correlation with the other items (Clow & James, 2014:269). The researcher is then able to retest the construct for reliability after unsatisfactory items were removed from the construct. According to Malhotra (2010:319), the coefficient alpha may be inflated both artificially and inappropriately with the inclusion of several unnecessary scale items. Therefore, it should be noted that the Cronbach alpha tends to increase with more items and, in order to ensure internal consistency reliability, the unnecessary items must be removed.

In order to determine the reliability of the scale within this study, an internal consistency reliability approach, namely the Cronbach's coefficient alpha method, was used.

### 3.9.3 Validity analysis

Malhotra (2010:320) refers to scale validity as the extent to which alterations in observed scale scores indicate true differences among objects on the specific characteristic being measured, instead of random- or systematic error. Moreover, a scale with perfect validity is one containing no random or systematic error (Cant *et al.,* 2008:235). Thus, validity is the degree to which a scale or construct measures what it proposed to measure (Wiid & Diggines, 2013:241).

Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:107) identify the two categories of validity as internal- and external validity where internal validity is the ability to ascribe the effect that was observed specifically to the experimental or interchangeable variable and not to other factors. Thus, internal validity is present if a change in the relevant dependent variable is caused after an independent variable was introduced (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:109). External validity, on the other hand, should be applied if the researcher wants to generalise the data obtained in the study (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:107). The three basic aspects involved when measuring scale validity are content validity, criterion validity and construct validity (Cant *et al.,* 2008:235; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:256; Malhotra, 2010:320; McDaniel & Gates, 2007:278; Zikmund & Babin, 2013:258).

- **Content validity**

This aspect of measuring the instrument validity describes the degree to which the scale items represent the theoretical construct being measured (Shiu *et al*., 2009:382). Content validity is also referred to as face validity at times, since it is assessed by looking at the measure to determine the construct being sampled (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:257). The same authors state that if the actual items look different from the possible construct, then the measure lacks content validity. Hair *et al.* (2013:167) argue that face validity in the measurement of scale validity is not synonymous to content validity, but rather based on the researcher's intuitive evaluation of whether statements or items seem to measure what they are supposed to. Content validity, alternatively, requires a more thorough statistical assessment than face validity where it is established whether a construct represents all the relevant dimensions or items within it. It is evident from the literature that content validity is unable to measure the validity of a scale alone since it is subjective in nature, therefore, a more formal assessment of the measuring scale should be utilised, namely criterion validity (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:279). In order to determine content validity of the scale employed in this study, the above-mentioned steps were followed and three experienced researchers examined the questionnaire. The three researchers were approached only after consulting prior research instruments that were found in line with the subject matter and utilised in the study. Thereafter, a pilot study was done to determine the content validity of the instrument.

- **Criterion validity**

Malhotra (2010:320) maintains that criterion validity examines whether a scale performs as expected concerning other variables selected as meaningful criteria. With criterion validity, the usefulness of the measure as a predictor of some other characteristic of the individual is assessed (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:256). The criterion variables may comprise demographic and psychographic attributes, attitudinal and behavioural tendencies, or measures acquired from a related measuring instrument (Malhotra, 2010:320). Criterion validity may be classified as either concurrent validity or predictive validity (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:281). This classification depends on the time series in which the new measurement scale and the criterion measure are correlated (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:250-251). Predictive validity examines the degree to which a measurement can predict future actions or behaviour (Clow & James, 2014:271). Concurrent validity, on the other hand, is the relationship between the measure and criterion variable assessed in the present, when it occurs at the same point in time (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:256).

- **Construct validity**

Clow and James (2014:271) identify construct validity as the degree to which the measurement captures the construct or concept under consideration and how well it logically connects to underlying theories, which is also the most difficult to achieve. Hair *et al.* (2013:167) add that, in addition to above-mentioned validity measures, there are other methods of validity to be examined after data collection, particularly when multi-item scales were being used, namely convergent- and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is the extent to which a measure correlates positively with other measures present in the same construct (Malhotra, 2010:321). Alternatively, discriminant validity requires that a measure does not correlate to a high degree with unrelated measures or constructs (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:258). Malhotra (2010:321) pinpoints an additional method of construct validity, namely nomological validity. This method is described as the degree to which the scale correlates with measures of different, but related constructs in a theoretically predicted fashion.

The measuring instrument used in this study was assessed by means of content and construct validity. The construct validity of the instrument was determined by using inter-item correlations. According to Clark and Watson (1995:316), these correlations should range from 0.15 to 0.50.

### 3.9.4 Descriptive statistical analysis

At times the information within frequency tables, though easy to read, are too detailed or complex. Therefore, it is essential for the researcher to summarise the information by the use of descriptive statistics (Malhotra, 2015:331). Thus, descriptive statistics are useful in summarising and describing the data obtained from a sample of participants (Hair *et al.,* 2008:234). The most commonly used statistics associated with frequencies are measures of location including mean, mode and median as well as measures of variability, namely range and standard deviation (Malhotra, 2015:332) and measures of shape like kurtosis and skewness (Maree *et al.,* 2011:189). For this purpose, the abovementioned statistics were used in this study.

- **Measures of location**

Measures of location pertains to the methods for finding a central point around which the data revolve and is referred to as measures of central tendency (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:265). Measures of location describe the centre of the distribution (Malhotra, 2015:332) and include the mean, mode and median.

The mean is the arithmetic average of a set of numbers (Burns & Bush, 2014:320) that is calculated by adding all observed values and dividing the sum by the number of observations. The mean is also the most commonly used measure of central tendency (Hair *et al.,* 2008:246). The mode refers to the most common value in the set of responses to a question. Thus, mode is the value that emerges in the distribution most often (Hair *et al.,* 2008:247). The median is the middle value between the lowest and highest value that divides the data so that half the data are above the statistic value and half are below (Hair *et al.,* 2008:154; Wiid & Diggines, 2009:243). With an odd number of values, the median falls on one of the values, but with an even number, the median may fall between two adjacent values (Burns & Bush, 2014:320).

- **Measures of variability**

The measures of variability indicated both the distribution and dispersion of data. The most used, which are calculated on ratio or interval data, are the range, variance and standard deviation (Malhotra, 2015:333). The difference between the maximum and the minimum is called the range (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:232). Thus, the range identifies the distance between the lowest value and the highest value in an ordered set of values (Burns & Bush, 2014:321). Hair *et al.* (2008:250) define variance as the average squared deviation about the mean of a distribution of values. When the data points converge around the mean, the variance is deemed small. Similarly, when the data points are scattered, the variance is large. The variance provides an understanding of how similar or different the data points are (Malhotra, 2015:333).

The standard deviation is the square root of the variance and the average degree to which scores deviate from the mean (Boeree, 2005; Malhotra, 2015:333). If the estimated standard deviation is large, the responses in a distribution of numbers do not fall very close to the mean of the distribution. In contrast, if the estimated standard deviation is small, distribution values are close to the mean. The size of the estimated standard reflects the level of agreement among participants in response to a particular question (Hair *et al.,* 2008:250).

- **Measures of shape**

According to Maree *et al.* (2011:189), two numerical measures refer to the shape of a distribution, namely the extent of skewness and kurtosis of the distribution. Skewness represents an imbalance and asymmetry from the mean of data distribution (Gonzales, 2016). Skewness is the likelihood that the deviation from the mean is greater in the one direction than it is in the other, whereby the distribution may be skewed to the left, symmetrical, or skewed to the right (Malhotra, 2010:488). When calculating all three measures of central tendency, namely mean, median and mode, the distribution can be determined to be either symmetric or skewed. In a symmetric distribution, the values are equally likely to plot on either side of the centre of the distribution and the mean, mode and median are equal (Malhotra, 2015:333). Kurtosis refers to the extent of the distribution of the curve's peakededness or flatness. A normal distribution occurs when the kurtosis value is equal to zero. A positive kurtosis indicates heavy tails and peaks relative to the normal distribution, whereas negative kurtosis indicates light tails and flatness (DeCarlo, 1997:292).

### 3.9.5 Significance tests

Significance testing entails testing the significance of the overall regression equation, as well as particular partial regression coefficients (Malhotra, 2015:373). According to Shiu *et al.* (2009:537), the level of significance is the total risk the researcher is willing to accept with regard to the accuracy of the hypothesis being tested. In addition, a test of significance will enable the researcher to test whether a concept can be supported by empirical evidence (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:373). Before the hypothesis formulated for a study can be accepted or rejected, the existence of a significant difference between the findings from the selected sample and findings of the entire population, if taken into account, should be determined (Bradley, 2010:327).

#### 3.9.5.1 T-tests

Hair *et al.* (2013:288) state that a t-test is a parametric test that utilises the t-distribution to test differences between means or proportions. It should be noted, that while the z-test is typically used in the case of sample sizes greater than 30, SPSS considers z-tests and t-tests as one type of test. Performing a t-test will determine the differences between two percentages or two or more means for groups in the sample as well as evaluate the statistical significance of difference in the means of two groups in a sample (Burns & Bush, 2014:317). Chapman and McDonnell Feit (2015:142) state that a t-test compares the mean of one sample against that of another and that it is important to note that t-tests compare the mean for exactly two sets of data. There are three types of t-tests, namely the one sample t-test, the two independent-samples t-test and the paired samples t-test (Clow & James, 2014:409).

With the paired samples t-test the significance of the difference between the mean of any two questions by the same participants in the sample can be tested (Burns & Bush, 2014:373; Hair *et al.,* 2013, 289). On the other hand, the one sample t-test is used to test if the mean of a sample distribution is different from a specified or test mean (Clow & James, 2014:409). Lastly, the independent-samples t-test measures the differences between means taken from two independent samples or groups (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:378). The two independent-samples t-test is the parametric statistical hypotheses test that evaluates whether the means of two normally distributed independent samples are equal (Coussement *et al.,* 2011:127).

For the purpose of this study, the one sample t-test was performed on all the scale factors in order to determine its significance.

#### 3.9.5.2 Correlation analysis

Significance testing involves examining the significance of the overall regression equation, as well as particular partial regression coefficients (Malhotra, 2015:373). According to Shiu *et al.* (2009:537), the level of significance pertains to the total risk the researcher is willing to accept regarding the accuracy of the hypothesis being tested. In addition, a test of significance will enable the researcher to test whether a concept can be supported by empirical evidence (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:373). Before the hypothesis formulated for a study can be accepted or rejected, the existence of a significant difference between the findings from the selected sample and finding of the entire population, if taken into account, should be determined (Bradley, 2010:327).

The correlation coefficient, known as the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Chapman & McDonnell Feit, 2015:96) or product movement correlation (Malhotra, 2015:371) and the Pearson correlation coefficient (Hair *et al.,* 2013:316), shows the degree to which one set of data relates to another (Blythe, 2005:115) and is abbreviated by the symbol *r*.

According to Clow and James (2014:310), correlation is the degree to which one variable changes with another, where bivariate correlation involves only two variables. Correlation measures the degree of the linear relationship between two variables and varies between –1.00 and 1.00, with zero representing absolutely no association between two variables (Hair *et al.,* 2008:286). If values are near +1.0 it is indicative of a very positive association and for values near 1.0, there is a very negative relationship (Malhotra, 2015:371). Wiid and Diggines (2009:249) state that if the correlation coefficient is exactly –1 or +1, then there is a perfect correlation between variables; if *r* is between zero and –1 then there is a negative correlation between variables and it is positive if *r* is between zero and +1.

For the purpose of this this study, Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated, in order to measure the relationship between the factors to determine whether there is a relationship between perceived social-, coping-, enhancement-, conformity motives and Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

### 3.9.5.3 Regression analysis

Regression analysis is defined as a predictive analysis technique in which one or more variables are used to predict the level of another when utilising the straight-line formula (Burns & Bush, 2014:407). It is a procedure for analysing associative relationships between a metric dependent variable and one or more metric independent variable(s). Although the independent variables can explain the variation in the dependent variable, this does not necessarily imply causation regression analysis (Malhotra, 2015:372).

With regression analysis there is no cause-and-effect relationship or true dependence between the dependent and the independent variable. In the case where one variable is highly correlated with another, it cannot be concluded that one causes the other to occur. Thus, a strictly statistical relationship exists between the two variables, not a causal relationship (Burns & Bush, 2014:408). In regression, the independent variable is used to predict the dependent variable (Malhotra, 2015:372). Regression analysis consists of simple or bivariate regression and multiple regression analysis as well as logistic regression (Clow & James, 2014:416; Hair *et al.,* 2013:321).

Simple or bivariate regression analysis is a procedure for deriving a mathematical equation, in the form of a straight line. It is a statistical technique that uses information about the relationship between a single metric independent or predictor variable and a single metric dependent variable to make predictions. In bivariate regression, only one independent variable is tested and the marketing researcher is able to determine conclusively its correlation with a dependent variable (Hair *et al.,* 2013:322; Malhotra, 2015:372).

When the situation necessitates, the examination of several independent variables' influence on a dependent variable, multiple regression analysis is used (Hair *et al.,* 2008:296). Thus, one dependent variable is explained by more than one independent variables (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:391). With multiple regression, several independent variables are entered into the regression equation and for each variable, a separate regression coefficient is calculated, whereafter its relationship with the dependent variable is explained. Thereafter, the marketing researcher is able to examine the relative influence of each independent variable on the dependent variable (Hair *et al.,* 2013:327).

For the purpose of this study, regression analysis was undertaken to determine whether there is a relationship between Generation Y students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption and their perception of alcohol-consumption motives.

## 3.10 SYNOPSIS

Chapter 3 discussed the research methodology employed in the empirical part of this study. This included a reference to the research design and approach, the sampling strategy as well as the data collection method, pilot testing and administration of the questionnaire, data preparation and statistical analysis.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the empirical part of this study. This includes a discussion and interpretation for each section, Section A – Section D, including demographic information and descriptive analysis. Thereafter, recommendations, based on the findings of this study, will be made in the final chapter, using the information presented in Chapter 4 as a foundation.

# CHAPTER 4
# ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to address the empirical objectives of this study, as devised in Chapter 1. In the preceding section, Section 4.2, the results obtained from the pilot testing of the questionnaire are reported on and an explanation of the data gathering process provided in Section 4.3. This is followed by Section 4.4, which supplies an examination of the preliminary data analysis that involves the coding as well as the tabulation of the data. Section 4.5 comprises a discussion of the demographic information of the sample, accompanied by an outline of participants' alcohol consumption background information. Then, in Section 4.6, the study describes the confirmatory factor analysis conducted and Section 4.7 reports on the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument utilised in the main study. The descriptive statistical analysis is discussed in Section 4.8 and the significance tests conducted, reported on in Section 4.9, which included one sample t-tests, correlation analysis and regression analysis.

The data analysis was undertaken using IBM SPSS Statistics, Version 23.0 for Windows. The data analysis was performed in two stages. First the results gathered from the pilot testing of the questionnaire were analysed, thereafter the second stage followed with an examination of the results obtained from the main survey. The following section provides insight into the results gathered from the pilot testing.

## 4.2 PILOT TESTING RESULTS

As outlined in Section 3.6, the pre-testing of the questionnaire was done through the debriefing approach after finalising the questionnaire design. Three experienced researchers evaluated the questionnaire to detect potential errors. Afterwards, three academic staff members participated in the debriefing process. The results gained from the pre-testing process were employed to improve the questionnaire.

Following the pre-testing and before conducting the main survey, the questionnaire was pilot tested for the purpose of establishing the reliability of the scales present in the questionnaire. The pilot test included a convenience sample of 50 full-time undergraduate students registered at a higher education institution (HEI), which did not form part of the main study. The outcomes with regard to the reliability of the attitudes toward alcohol consumption scale and the perception of alcohol consumption motives scale obtained within the pilot test are displayed in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1: Summary of the pilot testing results**

| Scale | Number of items | Cronbach alpha | Inter-item correlation |
|---|---|---|---|
| Scale C: Attitudes toward alcohol consumption scale | 12 | 0.775 | 0.224 |
| Scale D: Perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale | 20 | 0.889 | 0.287 |

The Cronbach alpha coefficient was computed to determine the internal-consistency reliability of the attitudes toward alcohol consumption scale as well as the perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale. The six-point attitudes toward alcohol consumption scale (C1-C12) returned a Cronbach alpha value of 0.775. For the perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale (D1-D20), a Cronbach alpha of 0.889 was recorded. The Cronbach alpha values of both of these scales exceeded the acceptable Cronbach alpha level of 0.60 (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:249).

The average inter-item correlation coefficient was used to analyse the convergent and discriminant validity of the two scales used in the measuring instrument. The average inter-item correlation for the attitudes toward alcohol consumption scale was 0.224. The perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale recorded an average inter-item correlation value of 0.287. The inter-item correlation values of both of the scales in the research instrument fell within the recommended range of 0.15 to 0.50 (Clark & Watson, 1995:316). Therefore, none of the items included in the attitudes toward alcohol consumption scale as well as the perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale were removed.

Following the pre-testing and pilot testing, the 12 items from the attitudes towards alcohol consumption scale and the 20 items from the perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives scale where used to prepare the main survey questionnaire (refer to Annexure A), which was dispensed to a larger sample size. Table 4.2 presents an overview of the descriptions of these variables and constructs. It should be noted that negative items were reverse coded.

**Table 4.2: Description of variables and constructs**

| Code | Variables | Construct |
|---|---|---|
| **Scale C: Attitudes toward alcohol consumption** | | |
| C1 | I feel that people have the right to drink alcohol. | Attitudes |
| C2 | I feel that alcoholic beverages are enjoyable and make people feel good. | |
| C3 | I feel that the use of alcoholic beverages is normal. | |
| C4 | I feel that drinking one standard alcoholic beverage is considered as drinking socially | |
| C5 | I feel that drinking moderately is not harmful. | |
| C6 | I feel that alcohol, in small amounts, is beneficial. | |
| C7 | I feel that alcohol relieves daily tensions. | |
| C8 | I feel that I am favourable to drinking moderately. | |
| RC10 | I feel that drinking any amount of alcohol may cause alcohol dependence. | |
| RC11 | I feel that I am against using alcohol at any time. | |
| RC12 | I feel that small amounts of alcohol can cause alcohol addiction. | |
| **Scale D: Perception of alcohol-consumption motives** | | |
| D1 | I think students consume alcohol because it helps them to enjoy a party. | Construct 1 - Social motives |
| D2 | I think students consume alcohol to be sociable. | |
| D3 | I think students consume alcohol because it makes social gatherings more fun for them. | |
| D4 | I think students consume alcohol because it improves parties and celebrations. | |
| D5 | I think students consume alcohol to celebrate a special occasion with friends. | |

**Table 4.2: Description of variables and constructs (continued…)**

| Code | Variables | Construct |
|---|---|---|
| **Scale D: Perception of alcohol-consumption motives** | | |
| D6 | I think students consume alcohol to forget about their worries. | |
| D7 | I think students consume alcohol because it helps them when feeling depressed or nervous. | |
| D8 | I think students consume alcohol to cheer them up when they are in a bad mood. | Construct 2- coping motives |
| D9 | I think students consume alcohol because they feel more self-confident and sure of themselves. | |
| D10 | I think students consume alcohol to forget about their problems. | |
| D11 | I think students consume alcohol because they like the feeling. | |
| D12 | I think students consume alcohol because it is exciting to them. | |
| D13 | I think students consume alcohol because they want to get drunk. | Construct 3 - Enhancement motives |
| D14 | I think students consume alcohol because it gives them a pleasant feeling. | |
| D15 | I think students consume alcohol because it is fun. | |
| D16 | I think students consume alcohol because their friends pressure them to drink. | |
| D17 | I think students consume alcohol so that others won't tease them about not drinking. | |
| D18 | I think students consume alcohol to fit in with a group they like. | Construct 4 - Conformity motives |
| D19 | I think students consume alcohol to be liked. | |
| D20 | I think students consume alcohol so that they won't feel left out. | |

The succeeding section deals with the data gathering process undertaken in this study.

## 4.3 DATA GATHERING PROCESS

In accordance with the sampling plan set out in Chapter 3, the data required for this study was collected from 500 full-time South African Generation Y students enrolled at two selected South African HEI campuses. A self-administered questionnaire was employed to collect the required data.

As stated in Section 1.5.2.3, permission was requested from the academics at the two campuses to partake in the study and allow the allocation of the questionnaires to the students during class time. The group self-administered survey approach was followed, whereby the questionnaires were personally administered to the participating students, during a single class period of those academics who gave permission. In line with the specified sample size, 500 questionnaires were distributed – 250 per campus. The researcher and two fieldworkers collected the completed questionnaires, directly after completion. Students were informed that participation was strictly voluntary.

The following section addresses the preliminary data analysis process undertaken in this study.

## 4.4 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

It is advised that a preliminary data analysis should precede the final analysis of the data set. The preliminary data analysis involves the use of coding and tabulation, which follows the completion of the data gathering process. The following two sections comprise a discussion pertaining to coding and tabulation.

### 4.4.1 Coding

The coding process involves assigning a code to characterise a specific response to a particular question, or item, accompanied by the data entry, in addition to the column position that the code will occupy (Malhotra, 2015:303). In this study, the questionnaire was split into four sections, namely Section A, which requested the demographical information from the participants, Section B, which requested the alcohol-consumption behaviour information, Section C, the participants' attitudes toward alcohol consumption and Section D, the participants' perception of alcohol consumption motives. Table 4.3 illustrates the codes assigned to specific variables applicable to all four sections of the final questionnaire.

**Table 4.3: Coding information**

| Section A: Demographical information | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Question** | **Code** | **Variable** | **Value assigned to responses** |
| 1 | A1 | Institution | North-West University (1); Vaal University of Technology (2) |
| 2 | A2 | Country of origin | South Africa (1); Other (2) |
| 3 | A3 | Province of origin | Eastern Cape (1); Free state (2); Gauteng (3); KwaZulu-Natal (4); Limpopo (5); Mpumalanga (6); Northern Cape (7); North West (8); Western Cape (9); Other (10) |
| 4 | A4 | Registered | Full-time (1); Part-time (2) |
| 5 | A5 | Current year of study | $1^{st}$ (1); $2^{nd}$ (2); $3^{rd}$ (3); $4^{th}$ (4) |
| 6 | A6 | Gender | Male (1); Female (2) |
| 7 | A7 | Ethnic group | Black/African (1); Coloured (2); Indian/Asian (3); White (4); Other (5) |
| 8 | A8 | Home language | Afrikaans (1); English (2); isiNdebele (3); isiXhosa (4); isiZulu (5); Sepedi (6); Sesotho (7); Setswana (8); siSwati (9); Tshivenda (10); Xitsonga (11); Other (12) |
| 9 | A9 | Age at last birthday | 18 (2); 19 (3); 20 (4); 21 (5); 22 (6); 23 (7); 24 (8) |
| 10 | A10 | Monthly income | < R500 (1); R501–R1000 (2); R1001–R1500 (3); R1501 - R2000 (4); > R2001 (5) |
| 11 | A11 | Source of income | Bursary (1); Work (2); Loan (3); Parents (4); Relative (5); Other (6) |
| 12 | A12 | Living arrangement | Informal housing (1); Flat (2); Townhouse/ House (3); Hostel/ Student house/ Residence (4); Other (5) |
| 13 | A13 | Residents | I live alone (1); 2–5 (2); 5 or more (3) |

**Table 4.3: Coding information (continued…)**

| Question | Code | Construct | Value assigned to responses |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Section B: Alcohol consumption behaviour information** | | | |
| **Question** | **Code** | **Construct** | **Value assigned to responses** |
| Item 1 | B1 | | Yes (1); No (2) |
| Item 2 | B1 | | Alertness concerns (1); Availability concerns (2); Control concerns (3); Economic concerns (4); Health concerns (5); Peer/family concerns (6); Religious/Moral concerns (7); Safety concerns (8); Social image concerns (9); Taste concerns (10) Other (11) |
| Item 3 | B2 | | Special occasions (1); Monthly (2); Weekly (3); Daily (4) |
| Item 4 | B3 | | Less than R300 (1); R301-R600 (2); R601-R1000 (3); < R1000 (4) |
| Item 5 | B4 | | 1 – 2 (1); 3 – 6 (2); 7 or more (3) |
| Item 6 | B5 | | Wine (1); Cider (2); Beer (3); Distilled liquor (whiskey, brandy, vodka) (4); Other (5) |
| Item 7 | B6 | | Alone (1); Family/relatives (2); Friends (3) |
| **Section C: Attitudes toward alcohol consumption** | | | |
| **Question** | **Code** | **Construct** | **Value assigned to responses** |
| Item 1 | C1 | | |
| Item 2 | C2 | | |
| Item 3 | C3 | | |
| Item 4 | C4 | | |
| Item 5 | C5 | | Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Disagree somewhat (3); Agree somewhat (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6) |
| Item 6 | C6 | | |
| Item 7 | C7 | | |
| Item 8 | C8 | | |
| Item 9 | C9 | | |
| Item 10 | RC10 | | |

**Table 4.3: Coding information (continued…)**

| Section C: Attitudes toward alcohol consumption | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Question** | **Code** | **Construct** | **Value assigned to responses** |
| Item 11 | RC11 | | Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Disagree somewhat (3); Agree somewhat (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6) |
| Item 12 | RC12 | | |
| **Section D: Perception of alcohol-consumption motives** | | | |
| **Question** | **Code** | **Construct** | **Value assigned to responses** |
| Item 1 | D1 | Construct D1 Social motives | Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Disagree somewhat (3); Agree somewhat (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6) |
| Item 2 | D2 | | |
| Item 3 | D3 | | |
| Item 4 | D4 | | |
| Item 5 | D5 | | |
| Item 6 | D6 | Construct D2 Coping motives | Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Disagree somewhat (3); Agree somewhat (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6) |
| Item 7 | D7 | | |
| Item 8 | D8 | | |
| Item 9 | D9 | | |
| Item 10 | D10 | | |
| Item 11 | D11 | Construct D3 Enhancement motives | Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Disagree somewhat (3); Agree somewhat (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6) |
| Item 12 | D12 | | |
| Item 13 | D13 | | |
| Item 14 | D14 | | |
| Item 15 | D15 | | |
| Item 16 | D16 | Construct D4 Conformity motives | Strongly disagree (1); Disagree (2); Disagree somewhat (3); Agree somewhat (4); Agree (5); Strongly agree (6) |
| Item 17 | D17 | | |
| Item 18 | D18 | | |
| Item 19 | D19 | | |
| Item 20 | D20 | | |

Table 4.3 displays the relevant coding information, the tabulation and the frequency distribution of the main survey is discussed in the next section.

### 4.4.2 Tabulation

After the data was assigned specific codes, the following step is to tabulate the data. Tabulation, occasionally referred to as frequency count, involves calculating the number of observations or responses that are classed into particular categories (Hair *et al.,* 2013:254). Table 4.4 presents the frequencies obtained from the total sample for Section C and Section D of the questionnaire, which intended to measure Generation Y students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption (C1 – C12) and perception of alcohol-consumption motives (D1 – D20).

**Table 4.4: Frequency table of responses**

| **Section C: Attitudes toward alcohol consumption** | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Code** | **Strongly disagree** | **Disagree** | **Disagree somewhat** | **Agree somewhat** | **Agree** | **Strongly agree** |
| C1 | 27 | 7 | 24 | 84 | 151 | 122 |
| C2 | 30 | 34 | 50 | 141 | 94 | 66 |
| C3 | 30 | 29 | 56 | 130 | 115 | 55 |
| C4 | 19 | 32 | 52 | 138 | 106 | 68 |
| C5 | 32 | 38 | 63 | 100 | 105 | 77 |
| C6 | 51 | 42 | 72 | 86 | 89 | 75 |
| C7 | 60 | 47 | 69 | 110 | 66 | 63 |
| C8 | 75 | 50 | 42 | 97 | 105 | 46 |
| C9 | 12 | 5 | 26 | 50 | 127 | 195 |
| RC10 | 48 | 98 | 90 | 81 | 45 | 53 |
| RC11 | 62 | 53 | 57 | 69 | 89 | 85 |
| RC12 | 38 | 61 | 50 | 71 | 78 | 117 |

**Table 4.4: Frequency table of responses (continued …)**

| Section D: Perception of alcohol-consumption motives | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Construct D1: Social motives** | | | | | | |
| **Code** | **Strongly disagree** | **Disagree** | **Disagree somewhat** | **Agree somewhat** | **Agree** | **Strongly agree** |
| **D1** | 13 | 18 | 14 | 78 | 150 | 142 |
| **D2** | 13 | 16 | 21 | 82 | 162 | 121 |
| **D3** | 10 | 11 | 17 | 64 | 164 | 149 |
| **D4** | 19 | 23 | 31 | 100 | 143 | 99 |
| **D5** | 5 | 12 | 18 | 85 | 170 | 125 |
| **Construct D2: Coping motives** | | | | | | |
| **Code** | **Strongly disagree** | **Disagree** | **Disagree somewhat** | **Agree somewhat** | **Agree** | **Strongly agree** |
| **D6** | 26 | 21 | 74 | 96 | 106 | 92 |
| **D7** | 26 | 32 | 62 | 115 | 102 | 78 |
| **D8** | 19 | 23 | 46 | 120 | 120 | 87 |
| **D9** | 13 | 28 | 47 | 120 | 119 | 88 |
| **D10** | 26 | 25 | 57 | 115 | 110 | 82 |
| **Construct D3: Enhancement motives** | | | | | | |
| **Code** | **Strongly disagree** | **Disagree** | **Disagree somewhat** | **Agree somewhat** | **Agree** | **Strongly agree** |
| **D11** | 7 | 22 | 27 | 117 | 130 | 112 |
| **D12** | 5 | 10 | 27 | 103 | 150 | 120 |
| **D13** | 9 | 15 | 37 | 93 | 124 | 137 |
| **D14** | 6 | 10 | 25 | 113 | 158 | 103 |
| **D15** | 8 | 11 | 31 | 106 | 147 | 112 |

**Table 4.4: Frequency table of responses (continued …)**

| Section D: Perception of alcohol-consumption motives | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Construct D4: Conformity motives** | | | | | | |
| **Code** | **Strongly disagree** | **Disagree** | **Disagree somewhat** | **Agree somewhat** | **Agree** | **Strongly agree** |
| **D16** | 45 | 54 | 65 | 110 | 60 | 81 |
| **D17** | 71 | 66 | 64 | 86 | 65 | 63 |
| **D18** | 45 | 41 | 59 | 93 | 93 | 84 |
| **D19** | 58 | 38 | 56 | 93 | 93 | 77 |
| **D20** | 51 | 35 | 46 | 92 | 100 | 91 |

The following section, Section 4.4, reports on the demographic and alcohol-consumption behaviour background information computed in this study.

## 4.5 DEMOGRAPHIC AND ALCOHOL-CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOUR BACKGROUND ANALYSIS

The succeeding section reports on the demographical information and alcohol-consumption behaviour of the sample. The demographical information and alcohol-consumption behaviour information is illustrated using pie charts and bar graphs.

### 4.5.1 Sample description

From the 500 questionnaires distributed, 470 questionnaires were returned. As a result, a response rate of 94 percent was achieved. However, for the purpose of this study, all the questionnaires that were incomplete or completed by non-South Africans, part-time students, or students outside of the specified 18 to 24 year age range were discarded. As such, from the remaining 470 questionnaires, only 415 questionnaires were deemed useable, which translates into an actual response rate of 83 percent. Provided that the sample only consist of participants that fell in the defined target population, no graphs are presented for country of origin or for full- or part-time registration status.

A description of the participants' demographic characteristics with reference to their higher education institution, province of origin, year of study, gender, ethnicity, home language, age, monthly income, source of income, living arrangements and number of individuals residing with them, follows.

Figure 4.1 outlines the distribution of the participants between the two institutions. Thereafter, Figure 4.2 provides an illustration of the participants' distribution pertaining to their province of origin.

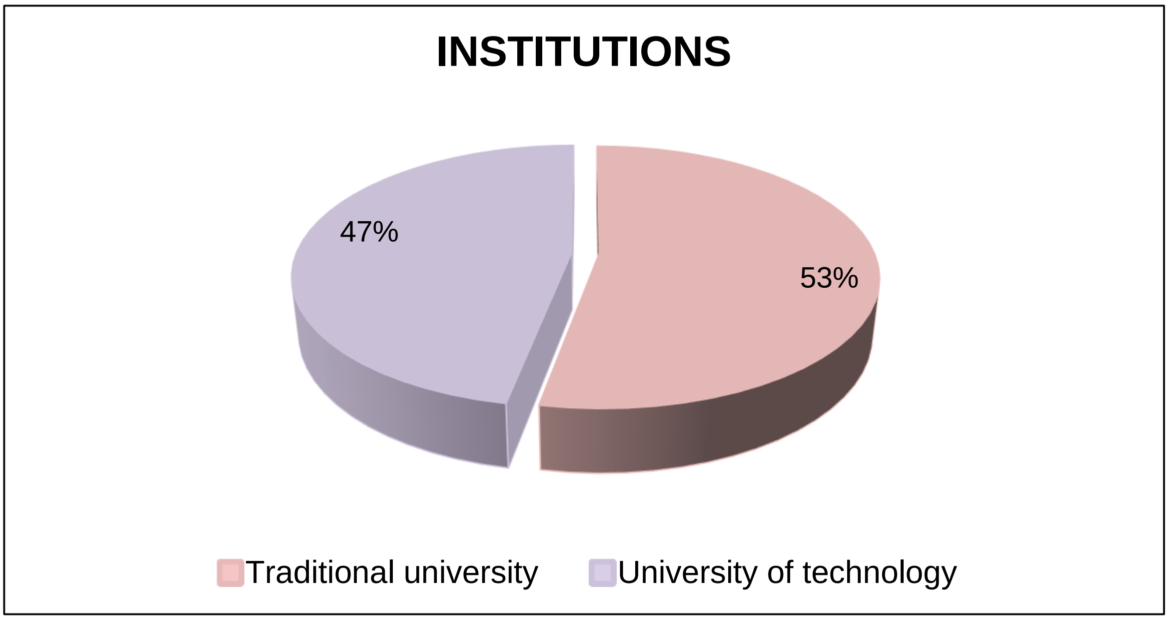



**Figure 4.1: Higher Education Institutions**

The total sample (N) of participants who participated in this study represents one sample group made up of two HEIs. According to Figure 4.1, the largest distribution of questionnaires was attained from the traditional university, with 53.0 percent. In addition, the distribution of questionnaires obtained from the university of technology is slightly less, gathering a 47.0 percent of responses.

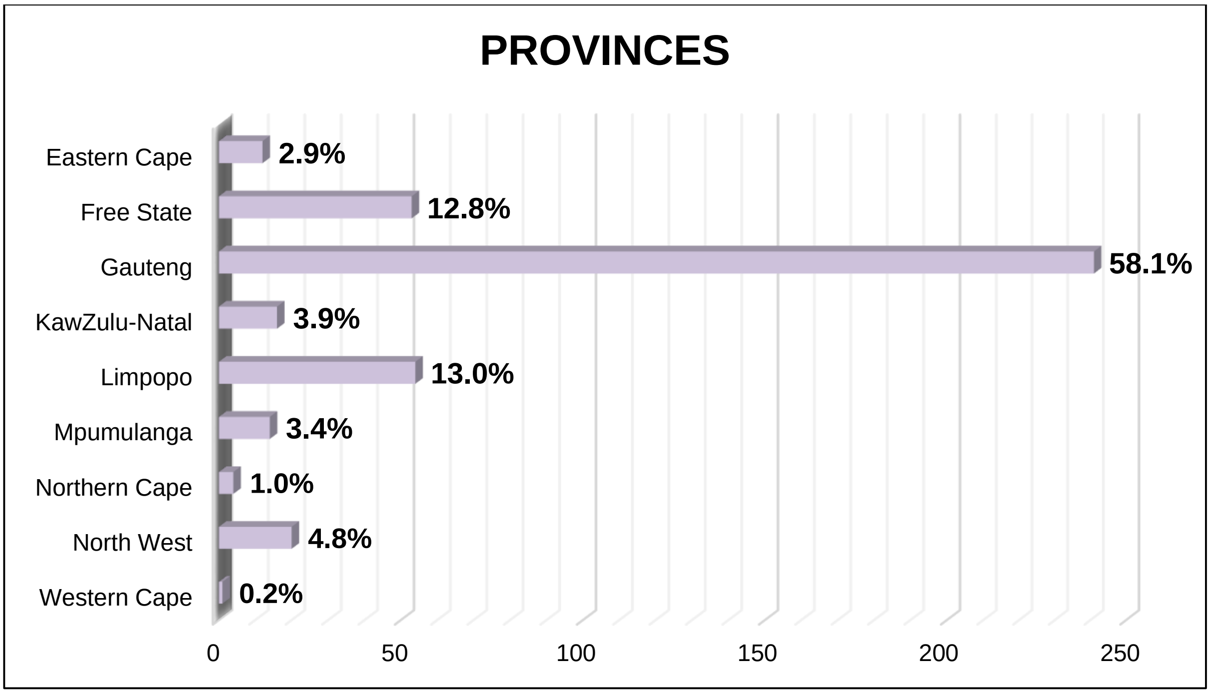



**Figure 4.2: Province of origin**

Figure 4.2 shows that the majority of participants originate from the Gauteng province, representing 58.1 percent. The Limpopo and Free State province accounted for the second and third largest distribution, with a representation of 13.0 percent and 12.8 percent respectively. Participants originally from the North West province represented 4.8 percent. KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga and the Eastern Cape were represented by 3.9, 3.4 and 2.9 percent of the sample respectively. Participants from the Northern Cape represented 1.0 percent, followed by the Western Cape with 0.2 percent, which accounted for the smallest distribution of representatives. The missing response represents the one participant who did not complete this question on the classification data, representing 0.2 percent of the total sample.

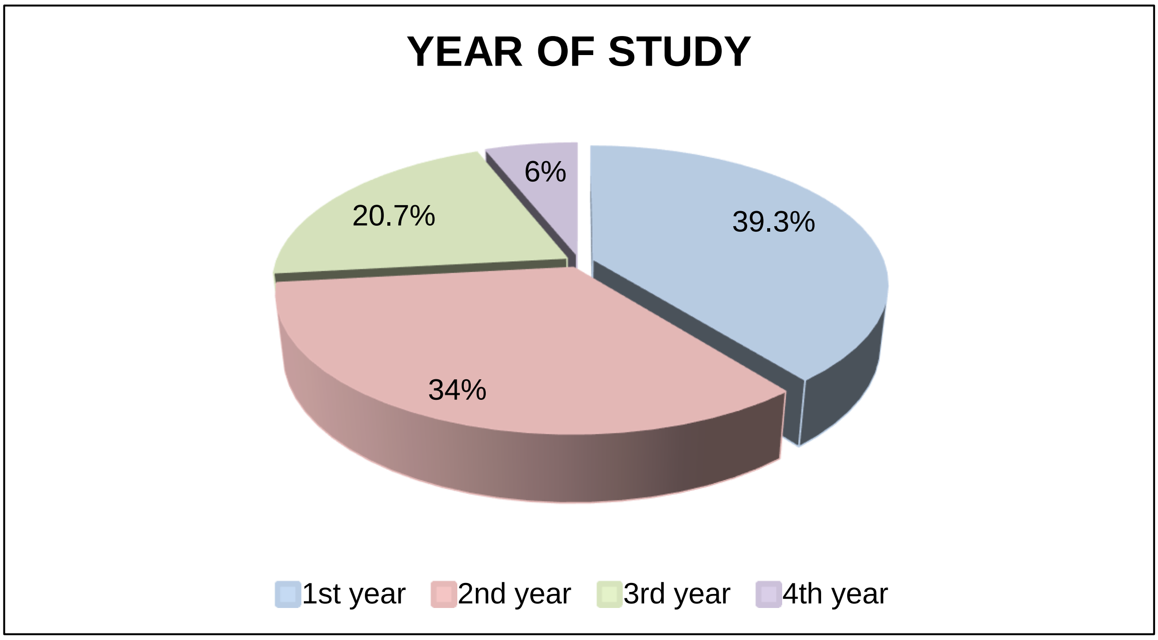



**Figure 4.3: Current year of study**

The distribution information with regard to the participants' current year of study is presented in Figure 4.3. The largest proportion of the sample was first-year students, which represents 39.3 percent, followed by the students currently in their second year of study, with 34.0 percent. The third-year students represented the third largest portion of the sample at 20.7 percent. The participants registered for an extended programme, requiring four years of study, represented as the fourth-year response category, were also included in this study. This group accounted for 6.0 percent of the total sample.

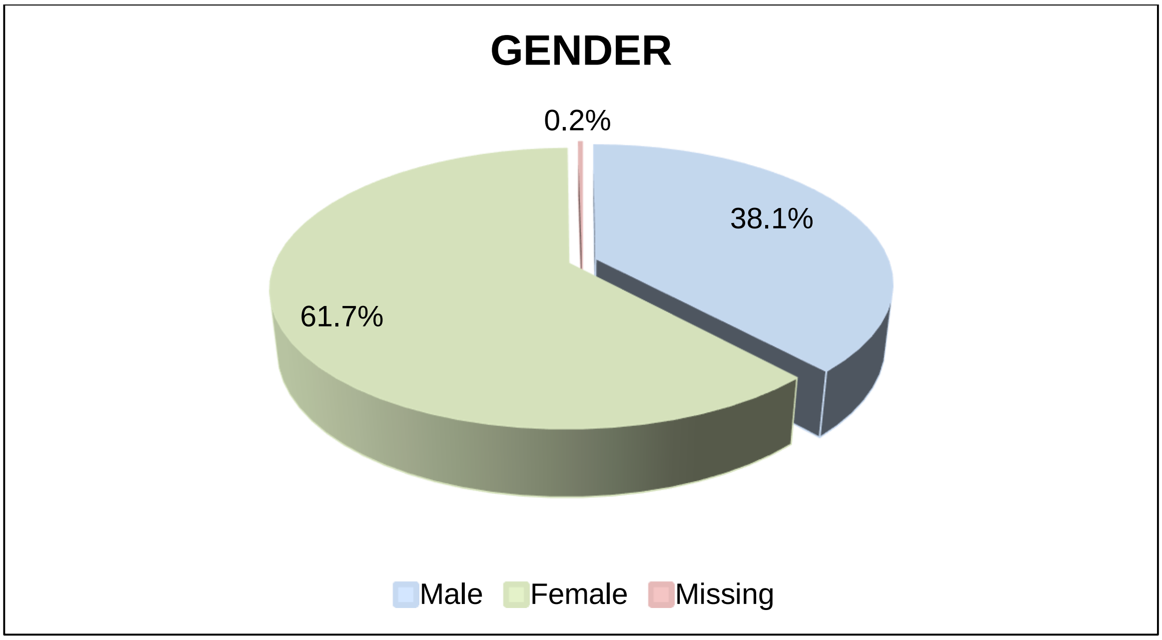



**Figure 4.4: Gender profile**

The information pertaining to the participants' gender is presented in Figure 4.4. The largest proportion of the sample is represented by females with 61.7 percent, where male participants accounted for 38.1 percent of the total sample. The missing value represents the one participant who did not complete the question of the classification information, accounting for the 0.2 percent of the total sample.

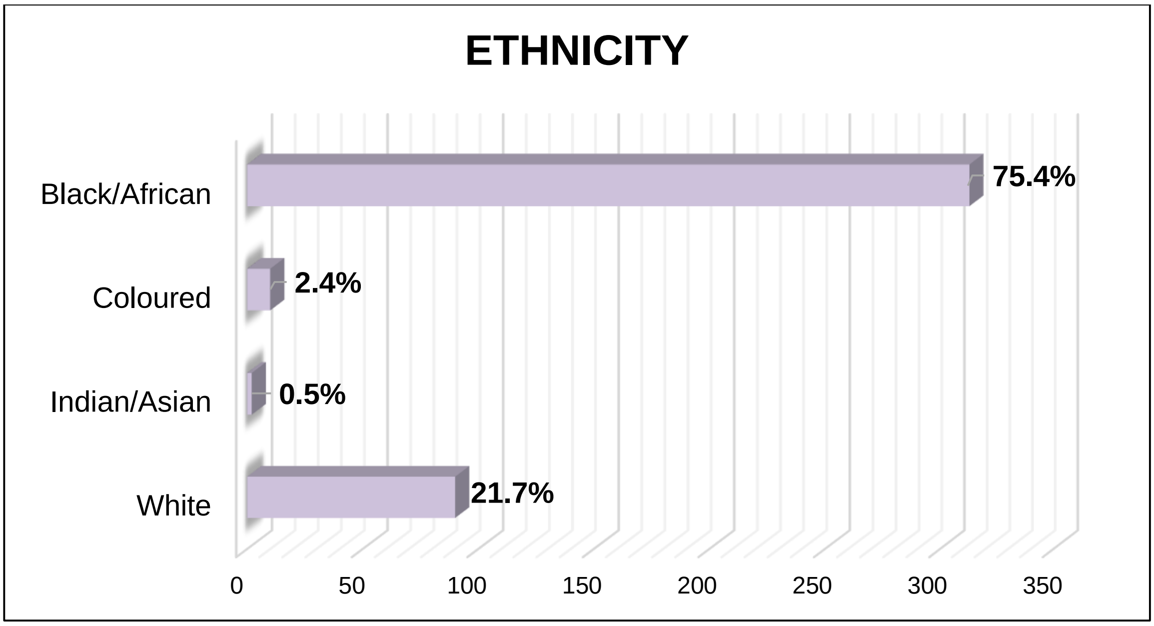



**Figure 4.5: Ethnic distribution of the sample**

Black or African students represented the largest number of the total sample, with 75.4 percent, where Indian or Asian students represented the smallest proportion of the sample with 0.5 percent. The second largest proportion of the sample is represented by White students with 21.7 percent and Coloured students accounted for 2.4 percent of the total sample. The participants had to indicate their home language and the distribution thereof is exhibited in Figure 4.6.

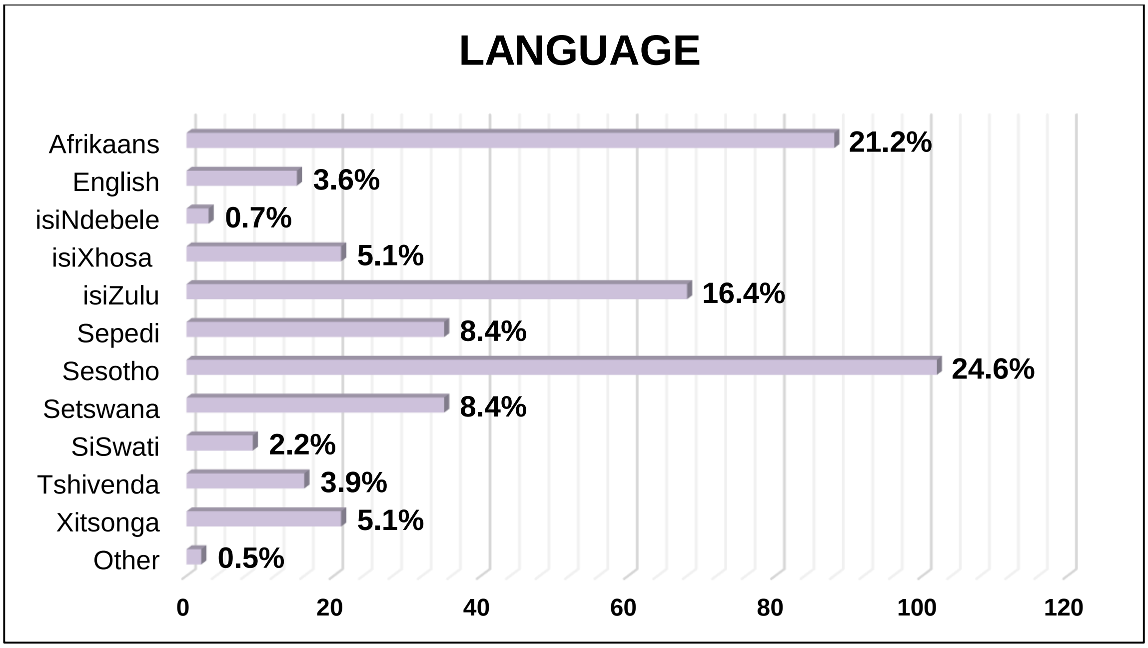



**Figure 4.6: Home language**

It is evident from Figure 4.6 that the majority of the participants speak Sesotho with 24.6 percent representation of the total sample. Afrikaans is the second leading language spoken amongst participants, with 21.2 percent and isiZulu the third main language at 16.4 percent. Sepedi and Setswana represent an equal amount of participants at 8.4 percent, as well as isiXhosa and Xitsonga, both at 5.1 percent. English speaking participants account for 3.6 percent of the total sample and Tshivenda speaking participants 3.9 percent of the sample. SiSwati speaking participants represented 2.2 percent of the sample, where isiNdebele accounted for a small number of the total sample with 0.7 percent and other languages made up the remaining 0.5 percent of the sample.

Figure 4.7 depicts the distribution information with regard to the participants' stated age.

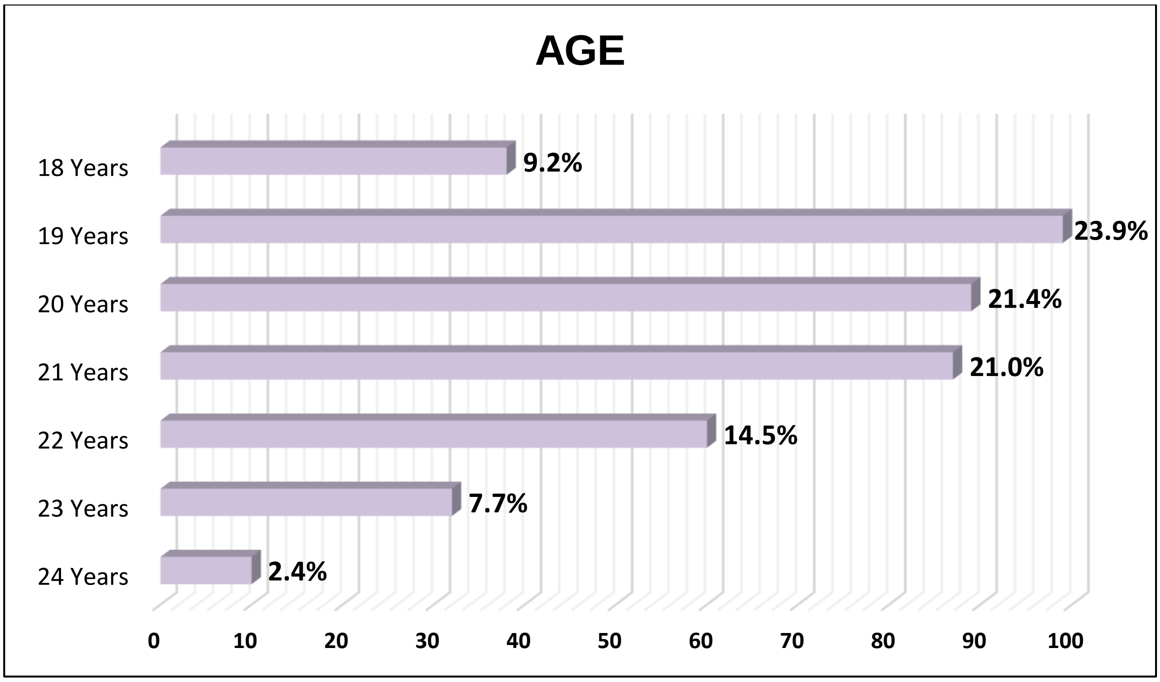



**Figure 4.7: Age distribution**

Age was used as a screening question (refer to Section 3.4.1) where the defined target population should comprise students aged between 18 to 24 years. It is evident from Figure 4.7 that all the participants met the requirements to partake in the study. Most of the participants were 19 years of age, representing 23.9 percent of the total sample, followed by participants 20 years of age (21.4%). Students who were 21 years of age accounted for the third largest distribution of the total sample with 21.0 percent and 22 year-old students the fourth largest with 14.5 percent. Students who were 18, 23 and 24 years of age represented 9.2, 7.7 and 2.4 percent of the total sample respectively.

As part of the classification information, participants had to indicate their monthly income or allowance as well as the source of this income. The information gathered with regard to these two aspects is presented in Figure 4.8 and 4.9 respectively.

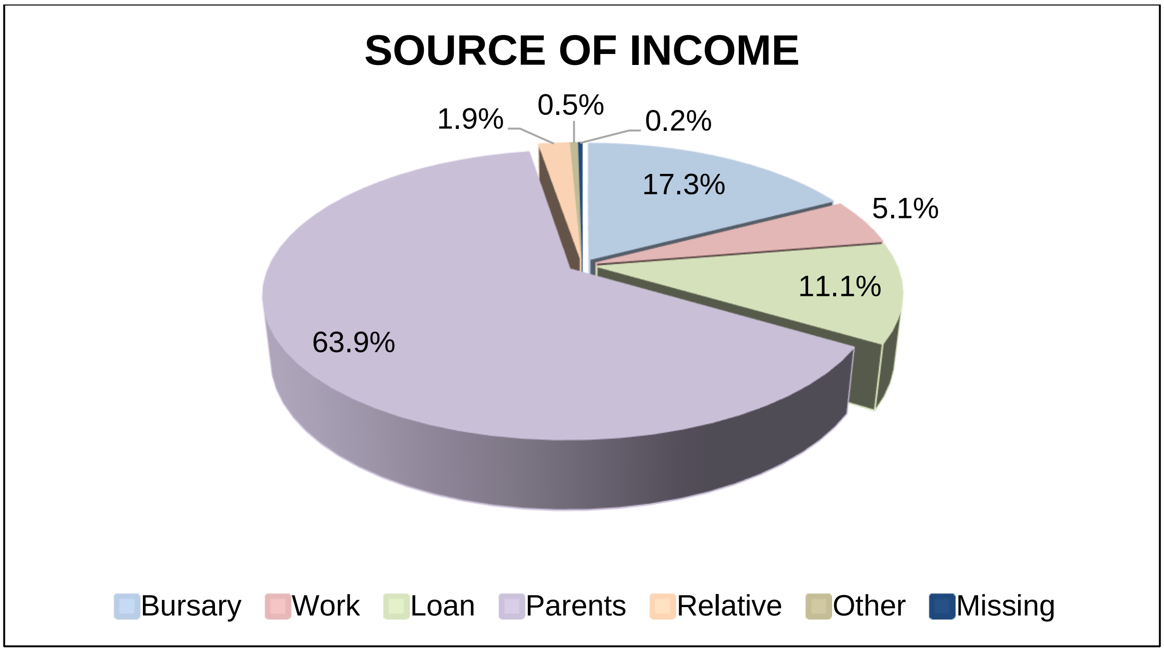



**Figure 4.8: Participants' source of income**

The majority of the participants, 63.9 percent, receive their monthly income from their parents. Bursaries and loans provide 17.3 and 11.1 percent of the participants with a monthly income respectively. The proportion of participants that work for their own income were 5.1 percent, where 1.9 percent receive a monthly income from relatives. Participants who indicated other sources of monthly income represent 0.5 percent of the sample, while one participant did not answer the question, accounting for the missing value of 0.2 percent.

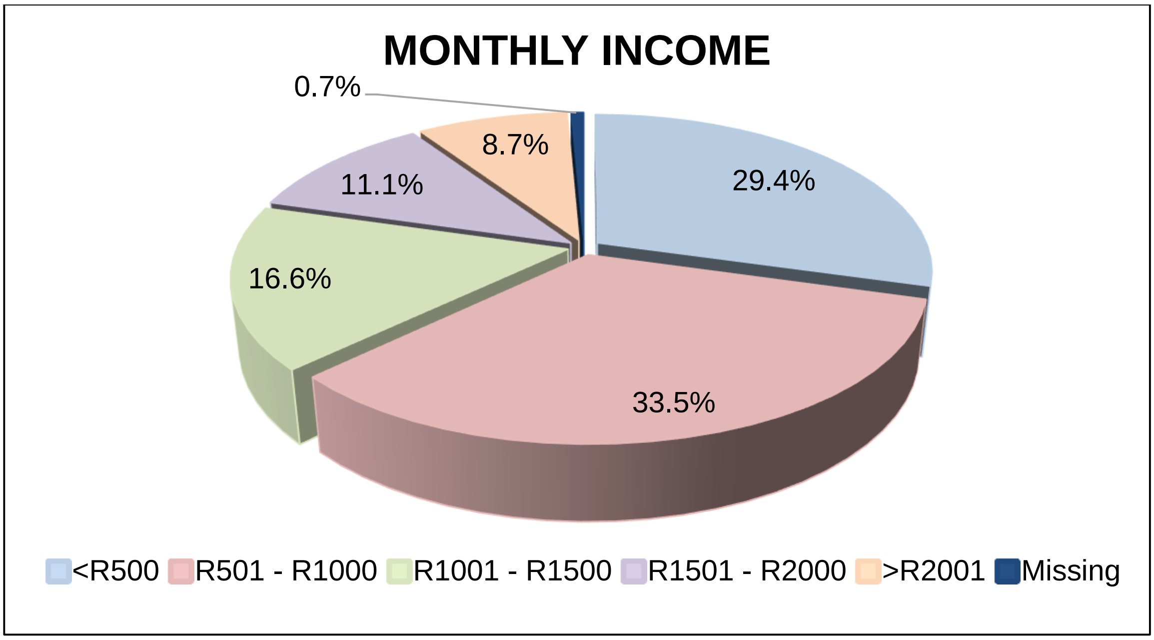



**Figure 4.9: Participants' monthly income**

It is evident from Figure 4.9 that 33.5 percent of participants earn between R501 and R1000 per month, which accounts for the majority of the total sample. Participants earning less that R500 a month comprise 29.4 percent of the total sample, where participants earning between R1001 to R1500 include 16.6 percent of the sample. Participants who earn between R1501 and R2000 represent 11.1 percent of the sample. Furthermore, participants earning more than R2001 account for 8.7 percent of the total sample, where three participants did not answer this question of the classification information, thus representing the missing value of 0.7 percent.

The information pertaining to the participants' living arrangements are illustrated in Figure 4.10 and the number of residents they live with, in Figure 4.11.

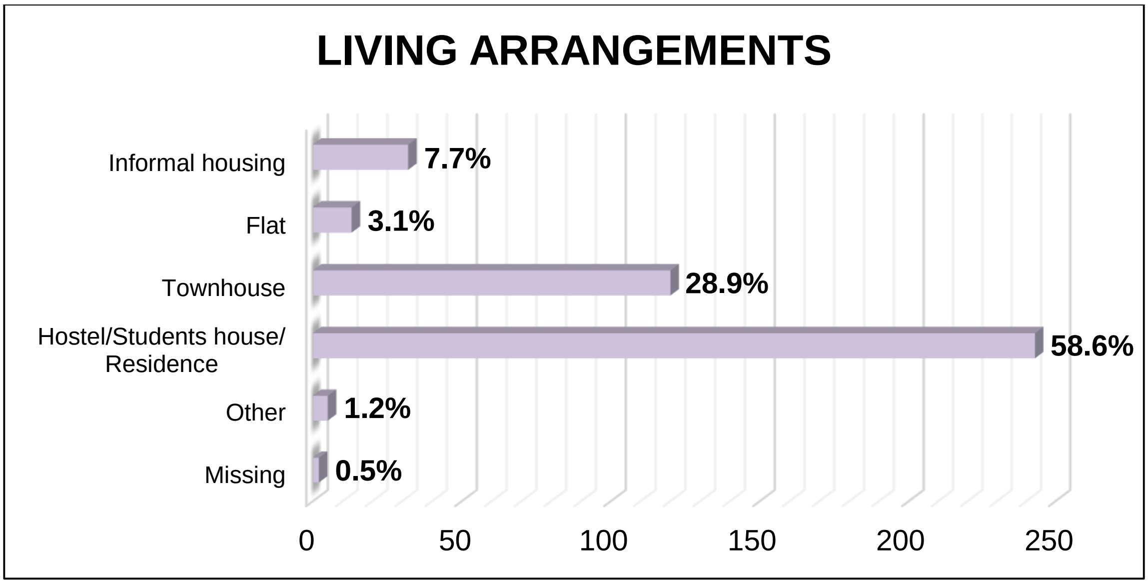



**Figure 4.10: Participants' living arrangements**

Since the specified target population tends to consume higher amounts of alcohol due to in-group and peer pressure in addition to preferred drinking companions (refer to Section 2.4.2.2) participants were asked to indicate their current living arrangements as well as the number of residents they live with, as part of the classification information.

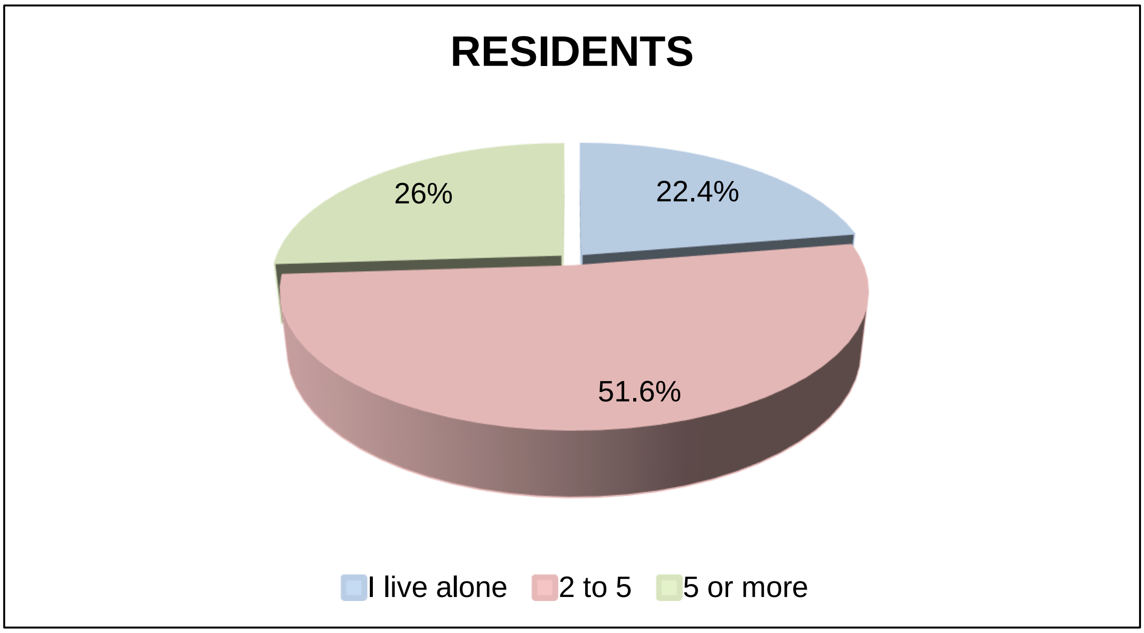



**Figure 4.11: Number of residents**

Participants who reside in a hostel, student house, or residence formed 58.6 percent of the total sample, where participants occupying a house or townhouse represent 28.9 percent of the sample. Participants living in informal housing and flats make up 7.7 and

3.1 percent of the sample respectively. Participants, who had living arrangements outside those indicated on the questionnaire, represented 1.2 percent of the sample, where two participants did not answer the question, accounting for the 0.5 percent of the sample.

Of the participants, 51.6 percent have between two and five other individuals who live with them. Furthermore, 26 percent of the participants have five or more residents that live with them, where 22.4 percent of the total sample of participants lives alone.

The following section reports the background information pertaining to alcohol-consumption behaviour, as provided by the participants in this study.

### 4.5.2 Alcohol-consumption behaviour background information

In addition to providing demographic information, Section B comprised seven questions where participants were requested to provide information concerning their current alcohol consumption behaviour, in an attempt to establish a background to the study. The series of questions involved requesting the participants to indicate whether they consume alcohol or not, how often they drink alcohol, how many drinks on average they consume, their preferred alcoholic beverage, who they are most likely to drink with and to those who do not drink, to provide a reason.

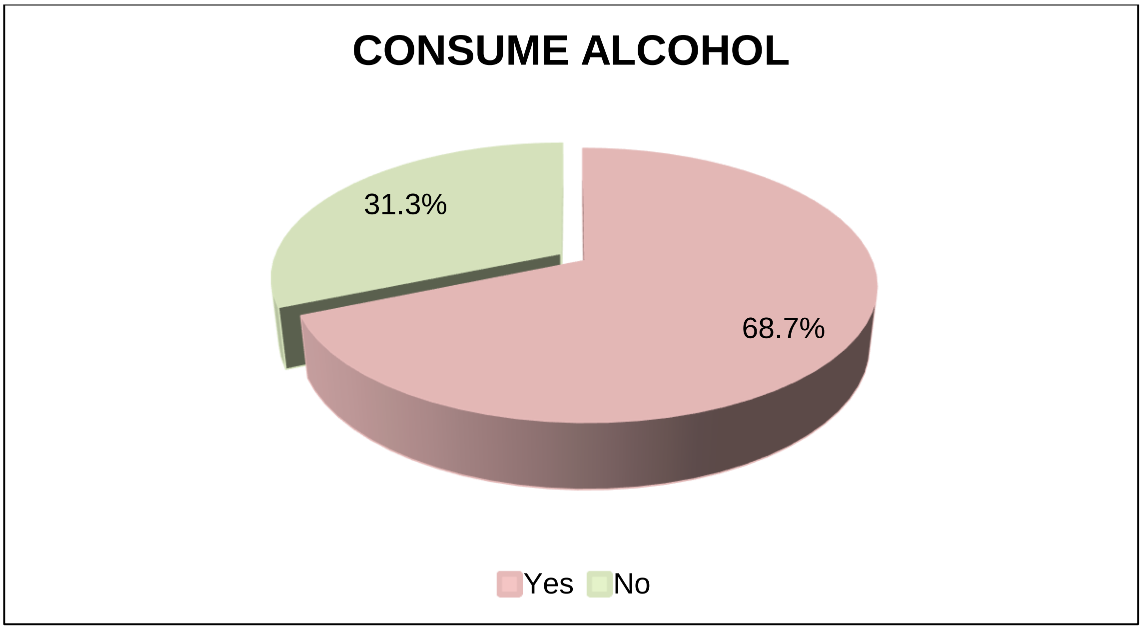



**Figure 4.12: Participants' alcohol-consumption behaviour**

Figure 4.12 shows that 68.7 percent of the participants indicated that they consume alcohol, where 31.3 percent indicated that they do not. These participants, who indicated that they do not consume alcohol, were requested to provide one main reason out of ten possibilities, namely alertness concerns, availability concerns, control concerns, economic concerns, health concerns, peer or family concerns, religious or moral concerns, safety concerns, social-image concerns and taste concerns. The possible reasons, as indicated by the 31.3 percent of participants, are illustrated Figure 4.13, where it should be noted that the total sample for non-consumers is 130 (N=130).

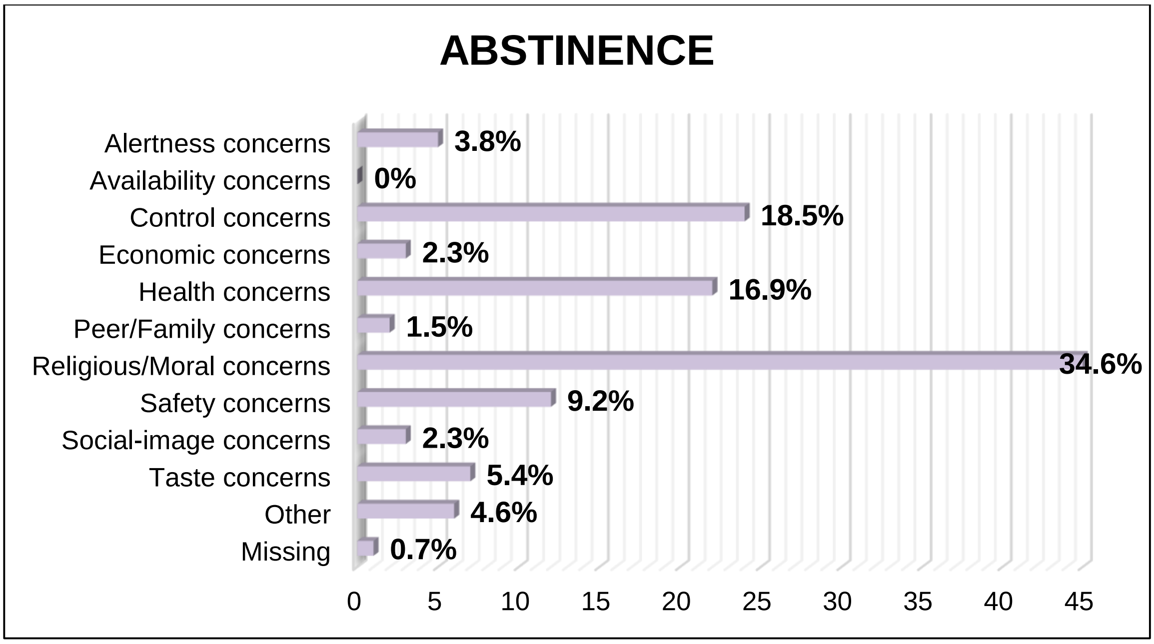



**Figure 4.13: Reasons for abstinence**

As indicated in Figure 4.13, participants indicated religious or moral concerns as the main reason for not consuming alcohol, with 34.6 percent. The second and third leading reasons for abstinence were control- and health concerns, represented by 18.5 and 16.9 percent of the total non-consumers sample, respectively. Economic- and social-image concerns were both accounted for by 2.3 percent of the sample, where 9.2 percent indicated safety concerns as a reason for not consuming alcohol. Not one participant had indicated availability concerns as a motive, which confirms that this target population did not experience any difficulty accessing alcoholic beverages, but chose to abstain for other reasons. Among the reasons for not drinking, alertness- and taste concerns were represented by 3.8 and 5.4 percent of the sample respectively. Six participants provided reasons for abstaining, other than those provided on the questionnaire, which accounts for 4.6 percent of the non-consumers sample and one participant did not provide a reason, representing 0.7 percent of the sample.

The following figure, Figure 4.14, reports how often the participants, who indicated that they drink, consume alcohol. It should be noted that the total sample of the alcohol consumers is 285 (N=285).

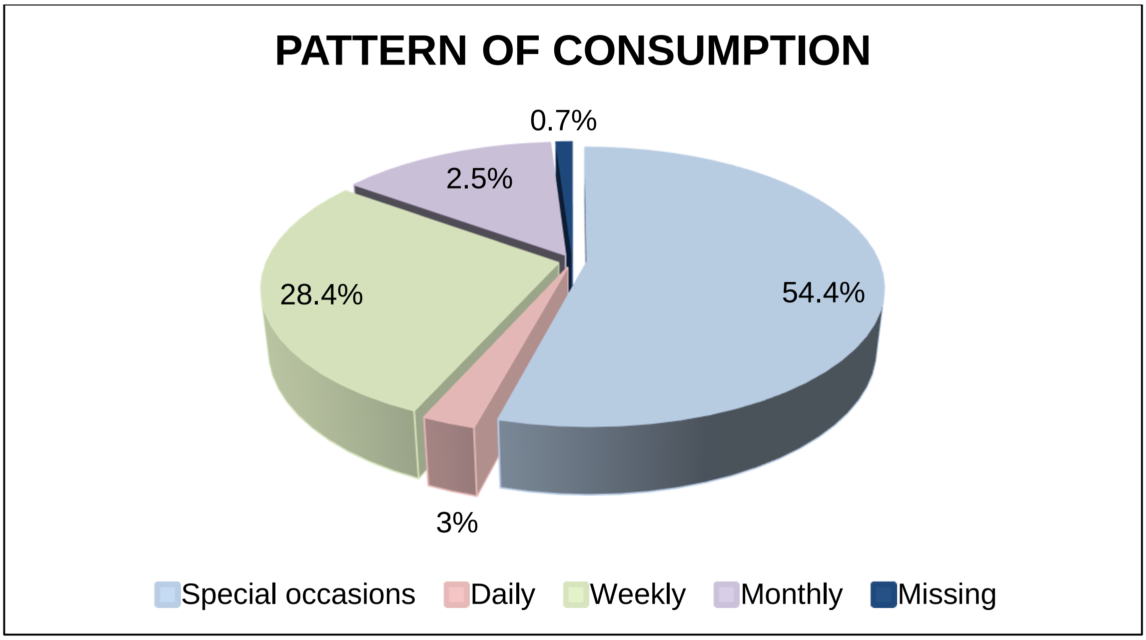



**Figure 4.14: How often participants consume alcohol**

Of the 285 participants who indicated that they consume alcohol, 54.4 percent drink only on special occasions. Fourteen percent (14%) of participants consume alcohol on a monthly basis, where 28.4 percent consume alcohol weekly. Seven participants indicated that they drink daily, representing 2.5 percent of the sample, where 0.7 percent failed to indicate how often they consume alcohol.

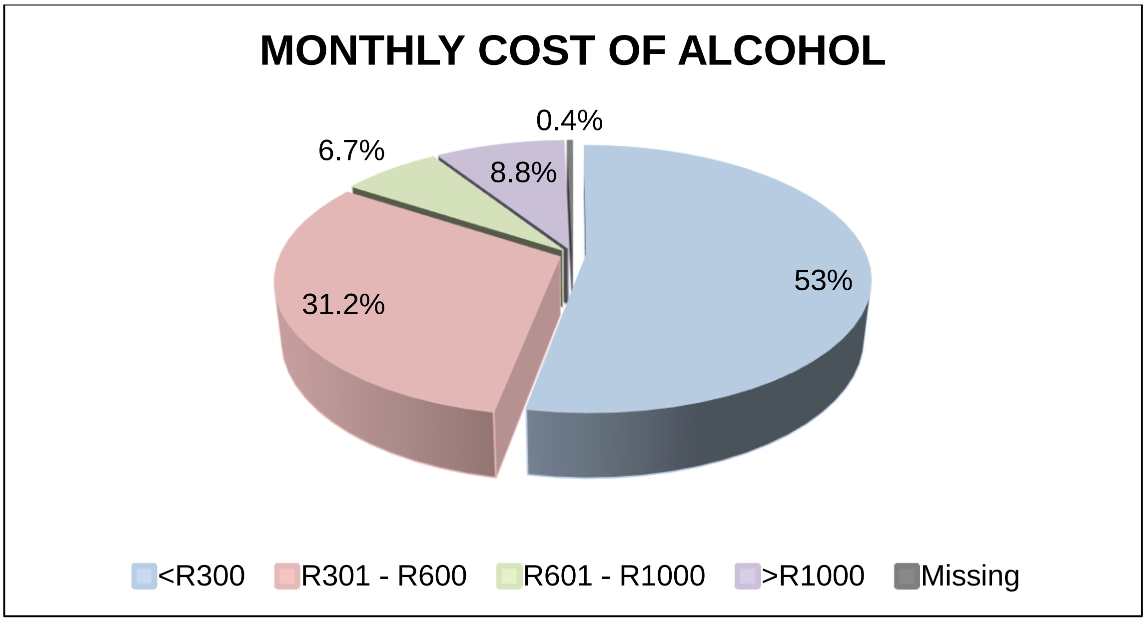



**Figure 4.15: Average amount of money spent on alcoholic beverages per month**

Participants were asked to indicate the average amount of money they spend on alcoholic beverages per month. As illustrated in Figure 4.15, the majority of participants (53%) spend less than R300 purchasing alcoholic beverages. Participants that spend between R301 to R600 represent 31.2 percent of the sample, where 6.7 percent spend between R601 to R1000 per month on alcoholic beverages. Twenty-five participants or 8.8 percent of the sample reported spending more than a R1000 on beverages and 0.4 percent failed to answer the question.

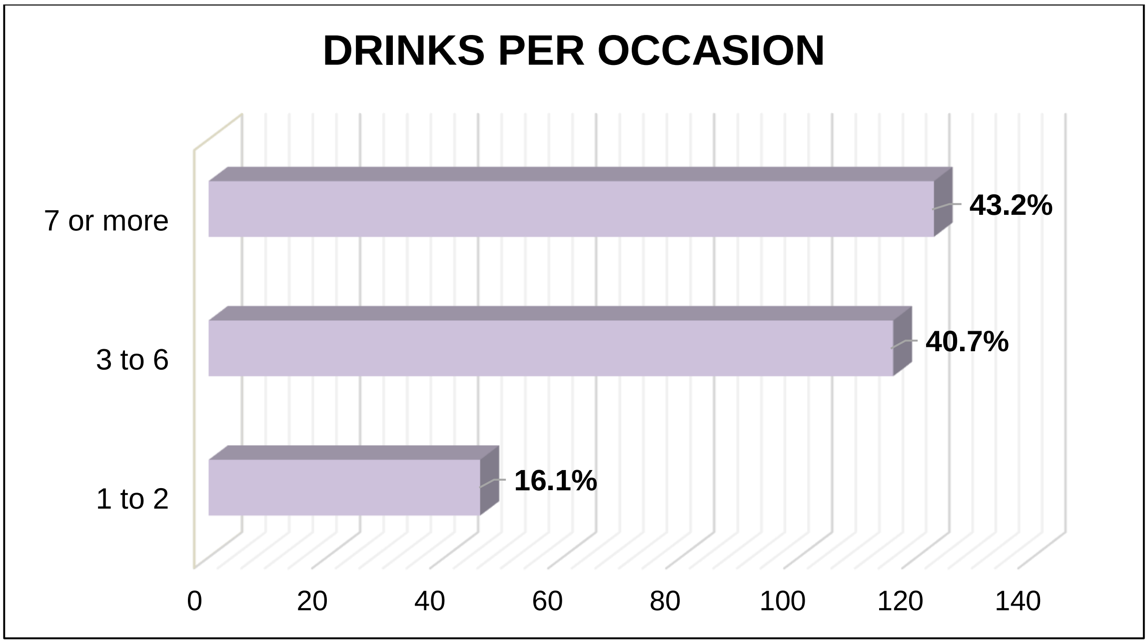



**Figure 4.16: Average amount of drinks consumed on one occasion**

In an attempt to establish under which alcohol-consumption category the target population fell, participants were asked to indicate the average amount of standard alcoholic beverages they consume on one occasion. Figure 4.16 shows that the majority of participants (43.2%) consume seven or more standard drinks (refer to Section 2.1). Participants who reported consuming between three to six standard drinks on one occasion, considered moderate drinkers, accounted for 40.7 percent of the total sample. Of the 285 participants who consume alcohol, 16.1 percent consume between one to two standard drinks on one occasion.

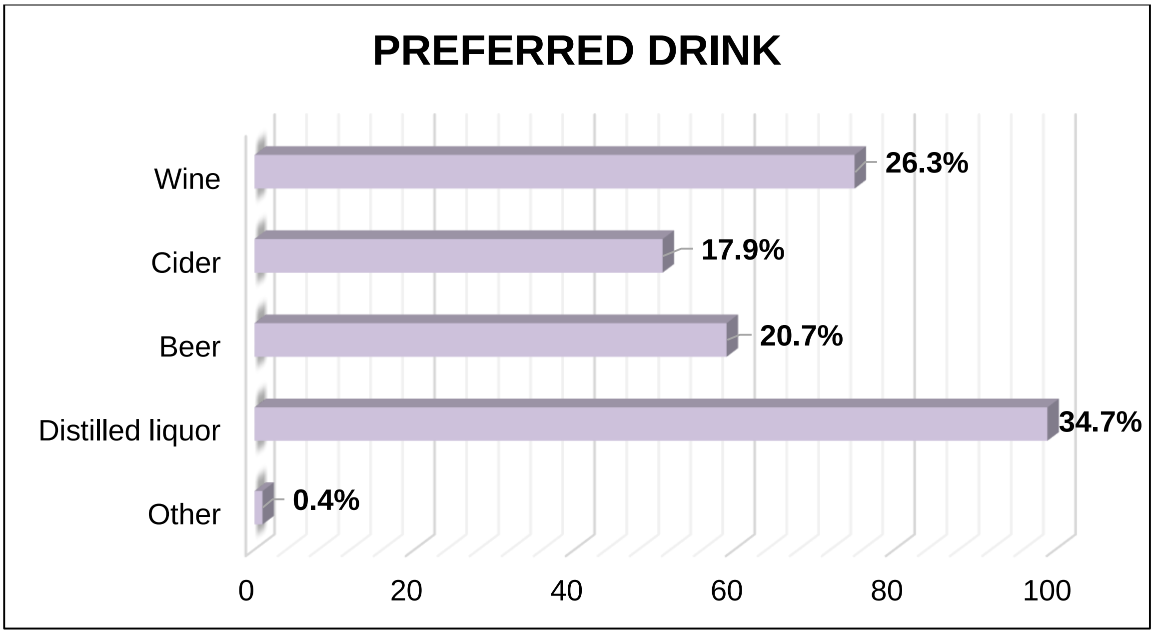



**Figure 4.17: Preferred alcoholic beverage**

Figure 4.17 indicates what alcoholic beverages participants consume the most. The majority of the sample prefers distilled liquor (34.7%), which includes whiskey, brandy and vodka; thereafter wine (26.3%). Participants who prefer beer represents 20.7 percent of the sample and participants who prefer cider 17.9 percent, where 0.4 percent indicated a beverage preference other than those provided on the questionnaire.

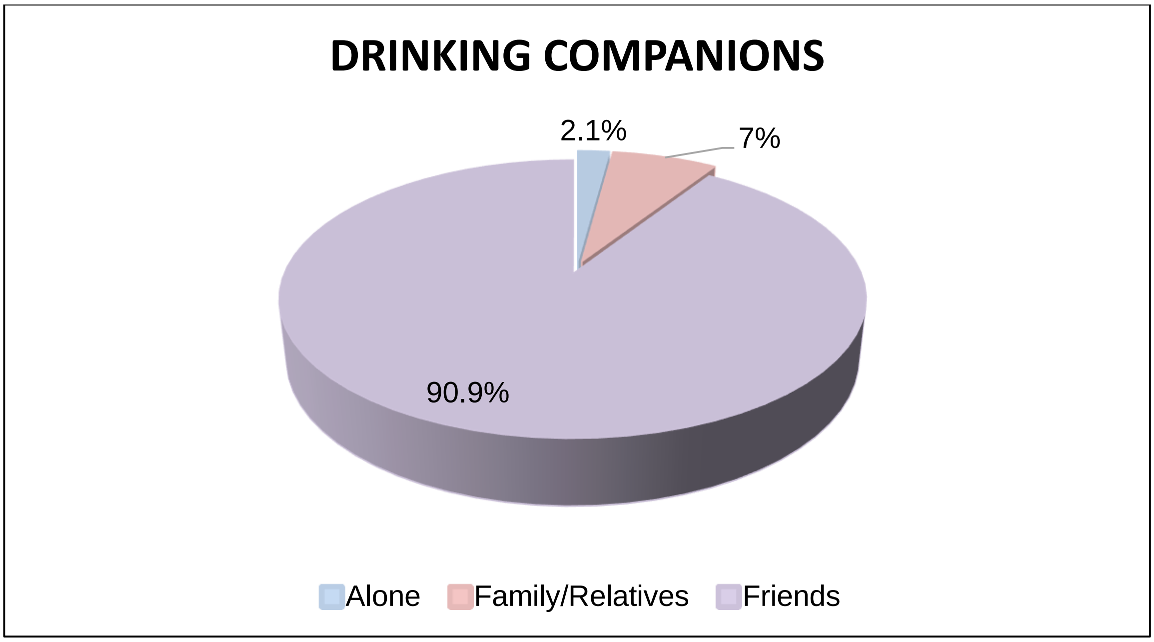



**Figure 4.18: Participants' drinking companions**

Since the possibility exists that an individual's drinking companion, if present, can determine their perception of alcohol-consumption motives, or drinking behaviour in itself (refer to Section 2.4.2.2), participants were asked to indicate who they are most likely to drink with. The largest proportion of the sample (90.9%) prefer drinking with friends, where 2.1 percent prefer to drink alone. Seven percent (7%) prefer drinking with family or relatives.

The above section provided information pertaining to the sample's demographics as well as alcohol-consumption behaviour background. The following section comprises a discussion with regard to the confirmatory factor analysis conducted for this study.

## 4.6 CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Confirmatory factor analysis, using the principal component analysis with the varimax rotation, was conducted on the scaled items in the research instrument in order to determine whether the items produced the proposed dimensions as per the literature. Before performing this analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) tests for sampling adequacy, in addition to the Bartlett's test of sphericity were executed.

For the KMO test, a value of 0.6 and greater is recommended and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity value, indicate the adequacy of the sample data for principle component analysis (Pallant, 2010:183). Both of these tests returned satisfactory values

(KMO=0.875, chi square Bartlett test = 6622.390 (df:496), (p=0.000<0.05), thereby indicating the suitability of the data set for factor analysis. Once the factorability of the data was determined, principle component analysis, using the Varimax rotation was performed on scaled items in the measuring instrument. As expected, five factors were extracted with eigenvalues above 1.0 that explained 55.68 percent of the total variance. Table 4.5 illustrates the results of the factor analysis conducted for this study.

**Table 4.5: Confirmatory factor analysis results**

| Item | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | Factor 4 | Factor 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Scale C: Attitudes toward alcohol consumption scale** | | | | | |
| **C1** | | 0.490 | | | |
| **C2** | | 0.697 | | | |
| **C3** | | 0.612 | | | |
| **C4** | | 0.545 | | | |
| **C5** | | 0.622 | | | |
| **C6** | | 0.478 | | | |
| **C7** | | 0.686 | | | |
| **C8** | | 0.659 | | | |
| **C9** | | 0.321 | | | |
| **RC10** | | 0.230 | | | |
| **RC11** | | 0.417 | | | |
| **RC12** | | 0.368 | | | |
| **Scale D: Perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale** | | | | | |
| **D1** | | | | | 0.813 |
| **D2** | | | | | 0.751 |
| **D3** | | | | | 0.717 |
| **D4** | | | | | 0.641 |
| **D5** | | | | | 0.581 |
| **D6** | | | 0.824 | | |
| **D7** | | | 0.821 | | |
| **D8** | | | 0.765 | | |
| **D9** | | | 0.517 | | |
| **D10** | | | 0.837 | | |

**Table 4.5: Confirmatory factor analysis results (continued…)**

| Item | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | Factor 4 | Factor 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Scale D: Perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale** | | | | | |
| **D11** | | | | 0.705 | |
| **D12** | | | | 0.761 | |
| **D13** | | | | 0.658 | |
| **D14** | | | | 0.732 | |
| **D15** | | | | 0.602 | |
| **D16** | 0.736 | | | | |
| **D17** | 0.852 | | | | |
| **D18** | 0.898 | | | | |
| **D19** | 0.905 | | | | |
| **D20** | 0.859 | | | | |
| **Eigenvalues** | 7.101 | 5.220 | 2.058 | 1.869 | 1.568 |
| **% Variance** | 22.192 | 16.312 | 6.431 | 5.842 | 4.899 |
| **Cronbach alpha** | 0.782 | 0.859 | 0.873 | 0.826 | 0.925 |

As is evident from Table 4.5, the 12 items pertaining to the attitudes toward alcohol consumption loaded on Factor 2, the five items regarding the conformity motives for drinking loaded on Factor 1 and the five items regarding the coping motives for drinking loaded on Factor 3. The five items pertaining to the enhancement motives for drinking and the five items relating to social motives for drinking, loaded on Factors 4 and 5 respectively.

The succeeding section examines the internal-consistency reliability of the two scales along with these five factors used in the main survey.

## 4.7 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN SURVEY

The two scales as well as the five constructs in the measuring instrument of this study were examined to determine their reliability and validity, by employing Cronbach alpha and the average inter-item correlation. Table 4.6 summarises the final reliability and validity measures for the main study.

**Table 4.6: Reliability and validity of the scale**

| | Number of items | Cronbach alpha | Average inter-item correlation |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Scale C: Attitudes toward alcohol consumption scale** | 12 | 0.782 | 0.230 |
| **Scale D: Perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale** | 20 | 0.981 | 0.290 |
| Construct 1 – Social motives | 5 | 0.859 | 0.549 |
| Construct 2 – Coping motives | 5 | 0.873 | 0.576 |
| Construct 3 – Enhancement motives | 5 | 0.826 | 0.487 |
| Construct 4 – Conformity motives | 5 | 0.925 | 0.711 |

As shown in Table 4.6, the Cronbach alpha value for the attitudes toward alcohol consumption scale was recorded as 0.782. A Cronbach alpha value of 0.981 was calculated on the perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale and the Cronbach alphas for the individual constructs within the scale were 0.859, 0.873, 0.826 and 0.925 respectively. All of these values exceeded the acceptable level of 0.60 (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:249), thereby indicating satisfactory internal-consistency reliability.

Construct validity was determined by computing the average inter-item correlation. As shown in Table 4.6, an inter-item correlation value of 0.230 was computed for the attitude toward alcohol consumption scale, which falls within the recommended range of 0.15 to 0.50 (Clark & Watson, 1995:316). The average inter-item correlation value calculated for the perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale was 0.290, with an average inter-item correlation value ranging between 0.487 and 0.711 for the individual constructs in the scale. Despite the reality that three of the constructs fell outside the recommended inter-item range, two being within close range, it was decided to continue with statistical data analysis, since the constructs have proven its reliability and validity in previous studies (Cooper, 1994; Du Preez *et al.,* 2016).

Therefore, this section confirmed the research instruments' reliability and validity. The next section focuses on the descriptive statistics.

## 4.8 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics can purposefully summarise and describe the data obtained from a sample of participants (Hair *et al.,* 2008:234). Measures of location, variability and shape were computed across all the scaled items. The number of valid questionnaires completed in this study is represented by Valid N in the table below. Given that the six-point Likert scale used ranged from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly disagree, higher mean values are associated with more positive attitudes toward alcohol consumption as well as perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives amongst Generation Y students. It should be noted that negative items were reverse coded, as indicated in the table. Table 4.7 presents these descriptive statistics.

**Table 4.7: Descriptive statistics summary**

| Item | Valid N | Mean | Standard deviation | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Scale C: Attitudes toward alcohol consumption scale** | | | | | |
| **Scale C** | 415 | 4.024 | 0.813 | -0.406 | 0.338 |
| **C1** | 415 | 4.665 | 1.346 | -1.294 | 1.315 |
| **C2** | 415 | 4.043 | 1.401 | -0.543 | -0.309 |
| **C3** | 415 | 4.051 | 1.369 | -0.625 | -0.185 |
| **C4** | 415 | 4.166 | 1.317 | -0.565 | -0.141 |
| **C5** | 415 | 4.058 | 1.486 | -0.494 | -0.644 |
| **C6** | 415 | 3.831 | 1.612 | -0.318 | -0.988 |
| **C7** | 415 | 3.636 | 1.600 | -0.188 | -0.987 |
| **C8** | 415 | 3.590 | 1.657 | -0.304 | -1.178 |
| **C9** | 415 | 5.072 | 1.188 | -1.584 | 2.444 |
| **RC10** | 415 | 3.328 | 1.541 | 0.271 | -0.943 |
| **RC11** | 415 | 3.783 | 1.728 | -0.271 | -1.229 |
| **RC12** | 415 | 4.063 | 1.689 | -0.389 | -1.147 |
| **Scale D: Perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale** | | | | | |
| **Scale D** | 415 | 4.395 | 0.758 | -0.412 | 0.857 |
| **Construct 1: Social motives** | 415 | 4.781 | 0.957 | -0.952 | 1.078 |

**Table 4.7: Descriptive statistics summary (continued …)**

| Item | Valid N | Mean | Standard deviation | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **D1** | 415 | 4.831 | 1.238 | -1.335 | 1.592 |
| **D2** | 415 | 4.752 | 1.217 | -1.251 | 1.456 |
| **D3** | 415 | 4.947 | 1.141 | -1.475 | 2.382 |
| **D4** | 415 | 4.500 | 1.328 | -0.971 | 0.463 |
| **D5** | 415 | 4.875 | 1.058 | -1.174 | 1.708 |
| **Construct 2: Coping motives** | 415 | 4.259 | 1.118 | -0.467 | -0.029 |
| **D6** | 415 | 4.231 | 1.428 | -0.578 | -0.389 |
| **D7** | 415 | 4.130 | 1.417 | -0.529 | -0.426 |
| **D8** | 415 | 4.349 | 1.324 | -0.737 | 0.094 |
| **D9** | 415 | 4.369 | 1.292 | -0.657 | -0.058 |
| **D10** | 415 | 4.210 | 1.397 | -0.636 | -0.218 |
| **Construct 3: Enhancement motives** | 415 | 4.718 | 0.874 | -0.770 | 1.459 |
| **D11** | 415 | 4.631 | 1.194 | -0.839 | 0.443 |
| **D12** | 415 | 4.790 | 1.080 | -0.928 | 0.967 |
| **D13** | 415 | 4.733 | 1.231 | -0.939 | 0.498 |
| **D14** | 415 | 4.725 | 1.066 | -0.936 | 1.212 |
| **D15** | 415 | 4.708 | 1.135 | -0.952 | 0.972 |
| **Construct 4: Conformity motives** | 415 | 3.824 | 1.430 | -0.271 | -0.836 |
| **D16** | 415 | 3.793 | 1.594 | -0.207 | -0.984 |
| **D17** | 415 | 3.475 | 1.680 | -0.019 | -1.210 |
| **D18** | 415 | 3.964 | 1.597 | -0.430 | -0.883 |
| **D19** | 415 | 3.858 | 1.647 | -0.401 | -0.978 |
| **D20** | 415 | 4.031 | 1.636 | -0.542 | -0.831 |

As shown in Table 4.7, both the scales within the research instruments produced mean values above four, which proposes that Generation Y students have a positive attitude toward alcohol consumption (mean=4.024) and exhibit a positive perception of alcohol-consumption motives (mean=4.395). Means above three were calculated for all four constructs in the perception of alcohol-consumption motives scale. Perception of social motives (Construct 1) recorded the highest mean (mean= 4.781), which implies that Generation Y students perceive that the student cohort consumes alcohol primarily for social and celebratory reasons. The second highest mean recorded, was perception of enhancement motives (Construct 3) (mean= 4.718), which indicates that Generation Y students perceive that the student cohort consumes alcohol for the purpose of enhancement, as it produces positive emotions. Perception of coping motives (Construct 2) was ranked third with a mean value of 4.259, which suggests that Generation Y students perceive that the student cohort uses alcohol as a means to forget their problems and, therefore, to cope. The lowest of the recorded means was for the perception of conformity motives (Construct 4) with a value of (3.824), suggesting that Generation Y students do not perceive peer pressure as a strong motive for alcohol consumption, nor conforming to group norm.

The skewness and kurtosis was considered for the purpose of determining whether there are any reasons to believe that the normality assumptions are violated. As can be seen in Table 4.9, given that none of the skewness and kurtosis scores fall outside the -2.00 or +2.00 range, the distribution appears normal.

The following section, Section 4.9, discusses the hypotheses testing performed in this research study.

## 4.9 SIGNIFICANCE TESTS

In order to achieve the empirical objectives as well as test the hypotheses set out in Chapter 1, several significance tests were undertaken, including a one sample t-test, correlation analysis and regression analysis. For each of these tests, the significance level is set at the conventional 5 percent level; that is, $a = 0.05$ and the decision rule is as follows:

- If p-value $\geq \alpha$, conclude $H_o$
- If p-value $< \alpha$, conclude $H_a$

### 4.9.1 One sample t-test

The first five empirical objectives, formulated in Chapter 1, were addressed by conducting a one-tailed one sample t-test in order to determine whether Generation Y students have statistically significant positive attitudes toward alcohol-consumption and whether they exhibit significant positive social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives to consume alcohol.

The expected mean was set at X>3.5. The hypotheses were formulated as follows:

$H_o1$: Generation Y students do not have a positive attitude towards alcohol consumption.

$H_a1$: Generation Y students have a positive attitude towards alcohol consumption.

$H_o2$: Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive social motives to consume alcohol.

$H_a2$: Generation Y students exhibit significant positive social motives to consume alcohol.

$H_o3$: Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive coping motives to consume alcohol.

$H_a3$: Generation Y students exhibit significant positive coping motives to consume alcohol.

$H_o4$: Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive enhancement motives to consume alcohol.

$H_a4$: Generation Y students exhibit significant positive enhancement motives to consume alcohol.

$H_o5$: Generation Y students do not exhibit significant positive conformity motives to consume alcohol.

$H_a5$: Generation Y students exhibit significant positive conformity motives to consume alcohol.

**Table 4.8: Generation Y students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption and perceived alcohol-consumption motives**

| Construct | Mean | Standard deviation | Standard error | t-value | P-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Attitudes toward alcohol consumption | 4.02 | 0.81 | 0.04 | 13.131 | 0.000* |
| Social motives | 4.78 | 0.96 | 0.05 | 27.261 | 0.000* |
| Coping motives | 4.26 | 1.12 | 0.05 | 13.830 | 0.000* |
| Enhancement motives | 4.72 | 0.87 | 0.43 | 28.379 | 0.000* |
| Conformity motives | 3.82 | 1.43 | 0.07 | 4.616 | 0.000* |

*Significant at the 0.05 level (one-tailed)

As can be seen in Table 4.8, a p-value of $p<0.05$ was computed on attitudes toward alcohol consumption. As such, $H_o1$ is rejected and $H_a1$ concluded. Therefore, Generation Y students appear to have statistically significant positive attitudes toward alcohol consumption ($p=0.000<0.05$). Similarly, a p-value of $p<0.05$ was computed on all four perceived alcohol-consumption motives; social motives ($p=0.000<0.05$), coping motives ($p=0.000<0.05$), enhancement motives ($p=0.000<0.05$) and conformity motives ($p=0.000<0.05$). The highest mean recorded was for perceived social motives to consume alcohol (mean= 4.78), which indicates that Generation Y students perceive social motives as the strongest motive for alcohol use amongst students. The second highest mean was recorded for enhancement motives to consume alcohol (mean= 4.72) and the third highest mean for coping motives to consume alcohol (mean= 4.72). All three perceived motives (social-, coping- and enhancement) recorded mean values above four. The lowest recorded mean was for perceived conformity motives to consume alcohol (mean= 3.82). Although perceived conformity motives to consume alcohol was positive, it achieved a low score, which indicates that Generation Y students slightly agree that conformity motives play a role in alcohol-consumption behaviour amongst students. As such, $H_o2$, $H_o3$, $H_o4$ and $H_o5$ are rejected and, the alternative, $H_a2$, $H_a3$, $H_a4$ and $H_a5$ are concluded. It is apparent that Generation Y students exhibit statistically significant positive social motives, coping motives, enhancement motives as well as conformity motives to consume alcohol.

### 4.9.2 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis was carried out to address the sixth empirical objective, as formulated in Chapter 1. That is, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was computed for the purpose of determining whether there is a relationship between perceived social-, coping-, enhancement-, conformity motives and Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

The hypothesis was formulated as follows:

$H_o6$: There is no relationship between perceived social-, coping-, enhancement-, conformity motives and Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

$H_a6$: There is a relationship between perceived social-, coping-, enhancement-, conformity motives and Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

Table 4.9 reports on the result of the correlation analysis.

**Table 4.9: Correlation matrix**

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Social motives | 1 | | | | |
| Coping motives | 0.489** | 1 | | | |
| Enhancement motives | 0.519** | 0.455** | 1 | | |
| Conformity motives | 0.080 | 0.215** | 0.205** | 1 | |
| Attitudes toward alcohol consumption | 0.333** | 0.123* | 0.207** | -0.339** | 1 |

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

As can be seen in Table 4.9, there is a significant positive relationship between Generation Y students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption and perceived alcohol-consumption motives; social motives (r=0.333, p=0.000<0.01), coping motives (r=0.123, p=0.000<0.05) and enhancement motives (r=0.207, p=0.000<0.01). A significant negative relationship between attitudes of alcohol consumption and perception of conformity motives (r=-0.339, p=0.000<0.01) was recorded. Despite the polarity of the relationship between the two measurements, statistical significance was determined between attitudes of alcohol consumption and perception of alcohol-consumption motives. For that reason, the null hypothesis $H_o1$ is rejected and $H_a1$, the alternative, is concluded. The more positive attitude that Generation Y students have, the greater their perception of alcohol-consumption motives will be.

Since a relationship between perceived alcohol-consumption motives and attitudes of alcohol consumption was established, regression analysis was conducted in order to determine whether Generation Y students' perceived motives (social, coping, enhancement, conformity) to consume alcohol influence their attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

### 4.9.3 Regression analysis

Regression analysis was performed for the purpose of addressing the seventh empirical objective of this study, as formulated in Chapter 1 (refer to Section 1.3.3). Regression analysis was employed in this study for the purpose of determining whether Generation Y students' perceived motives (social, coping, enhancement, conformity) to consume alcohol influence their attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

For the purpose of this study, regression analysis was conducted to test the following formulated hypotheses:

$H_o7$: Generation Y students' perceived motives (social, coping, enhancement, conformity) to consume alcohol do not influence their attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

$H_a7$: Generation Y students' perceived motives (social, coping, enhancement, conformity) to consume alcohol do influence their attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

The results of the regression analysis are shown in Table 4.10.

**Table 4.10: Influence of perceived alcohol-consumption motives on attitudes toward alcohol consumption**

| | **Standardised Beta** | **t-value** | **Significance level** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Attitudes toward alcohol consumption | | | |
| Social motives | 0.248 | 5.524 | 0.000* |
| Coping motives | 0.002 | 0.067 | 0.947 |
| Enhancement motives | 0.124 | 2.557 | 0.011* |
| Conformity motives | -0.222 | -8.864 | 0.000* |

As Table 4.10 shows, Generation Y students' perceived social motives to consume alcohol has a significant positive influence on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption (ß=0.248, p=0.000<0.05), as in the case of perceived enhancement motives (ß=0.124, p=0.011<0.05). Furthermore, Generation Y students' perceived conformity motives to consume alcohol, has a significantly negative influence on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption (ß=-0.222, p=0.000<0.05). Generation Y students' perceived coping motives to consume alcohol, does not have significant influence on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption (ß=0.002, p=0.947<0.05). Perceived alcohol-consumption motives explained 25 percent of the total variance in attitudes toward alcohol consumption. Therefore, with regards to the influence of Generation Y students' perceived social-, enhancement- and conformity- motives to consume alcohol on their attitudes towards alcohol consumption, $H_o7$ is rejected and, the alternative, $H_a7$ concluded. However, the influence of Generation Y students' perceived coping motives to consume alcohol does not statistically influence their attitudes toward alcohol consumption, as such, there is not a sufficient amount of evidence to reject the null hypothesis ($H_o7$).

The results concluded from the regression analysis performed, is illustrated in Figure 4.19.

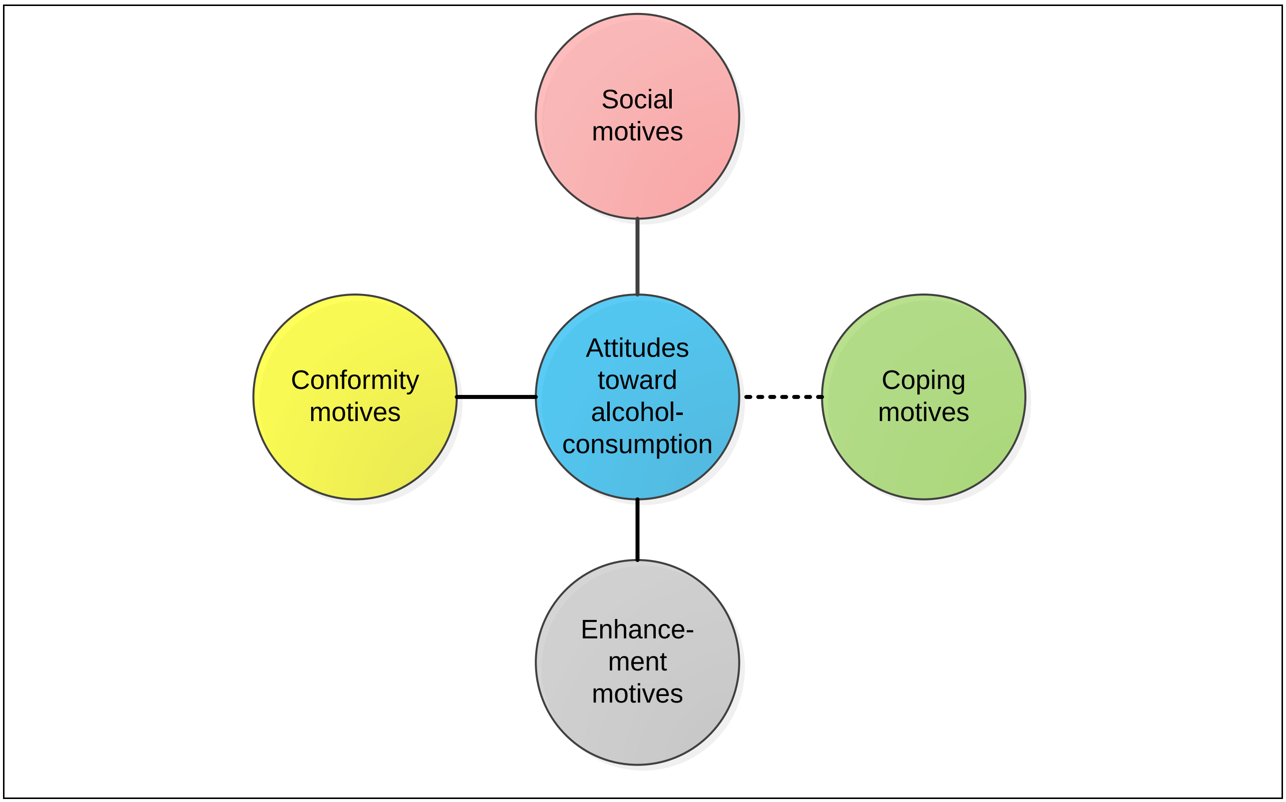



**Figure 4.19: Influence of perceived alcohol-consumption motives on attitudes toward alcohol consumption**

The results displayed in Figure 4.19 suggest that Generation Y students' perceived social-, enhancement- and conformity motives significantly influence their attitude towards alcohol consumption. However, no such relationship was established between Generation Y students' perceived coping motives and their attitudes toward alcohol consumption.

## 4.10 SYNOPSIS

The objective of this chapter was to report and interpret the empirical findings of the study. The results of the pilot testing were presented and interpreted in Section 4.2. Thereafter, in Section 4.3, a discussion ensued pertaining to the data gathering process. Section 4.4 followed, where the main study's preliminary data analysis process, including coding, tabulation and frequency distribution of the data, was discussed.

Section 4.5 provided the samples' demographic and alcohol-consumption behaviour background information. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed and reported on in Section 4.6 while the reliability and validity of the scale was investigated in Section 4.7.

Descriptive statistics, including the mean and standard deviation of each research instrument and item were reported on in Section 4.8.

Section 4.9 comprised a discussion with regard to the significance tests conducted. A one sample t-test was conducted to determine whether Generation Y students have statistically significant positive attitudes toward alcohol-consumption and whether they exhibit significant positive social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives to consume alcohol (Section 4.9.1). A correlation analysis was undertaken to determine whether there is a relationship between perceived social-, coping-, enhancement-, conformity motives and Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption (Section 4.9.2). Regression analysis was employed for the purpose of determining whether Generation Y students' perceived motives (social, coping, enhancement, conformity) to consume alcohol influence their attitudes towards alcohol consumption (Section 4.9.3). The results of these test provided the necessary evidence to support the hypothesis of the study.

The following and final chapter of the study, Chapter 5, provides an overview of the study. This chapter provides a discussion of the main findings of the study, recommendations, limitations, future research opportunities as well as the concluding remarks.

# CHAPTER 5
# CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Excessive alcohol consumption, especially binge drinking and hazardous drinking amongst young adults, has been the cause of major problems for these individuals, including the well-being of those who surround these consumers, leading to an increased burden on taxpayers of society, as well as affecting the entire country. However, this dilemma in not limited to South Africa, since many countries around the world are also affected by the consequences caused by excessive alcohol use by their citizens. In South Africa, the excessive use of alcohol and its consequences have been brought to the government's attention in the last decade, especially due to the growing associated costs, to not only the Department of Health, but also the Department of Correctional Services and the Department of Safety and Security.

Since Generation Y, specifically the student cohort, are the future of the economic sector of this country and the group most affected by excessive alcohol use, which leads to absenteeism and academic failure, amongst other negative outcomes (Section 1.1), serious demarketing strategies are necessary in order to ensure a prosperous economy. The South African government has attempted to address these complications by employing numerous strategies, which include increasing annual excise tax on alcohol, drinking and driving laws and prevention, compulsory health warning labels on beverages, as well as awareness programmes and the establishment and management of treatment centres (Section 1.1 and 2.1).

However, governments across the globe have successfully implemented demarketing strategies, which have led to reducing the consumption of alcohol affectively and an increase in healthier lifestyles amongst consumers of society. Among these demarketing strategies were successful campaigns targeting young individuals. Other suggested examples of demarketing efforts toward the discouragement of excessive alcohol use include substitute products, improved warning labels that are more effective, counter promotions, limiting the availability of alcohol, harsher punishments, where the most effective strategy is to ban the advertising and sponsorship of alcohol related products.

These strategies are aimed at ultimately decreasing the desirability and use of alcohol (Section 2.5.2).

This study explored Generation Y students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption along with their perception of alcohol-consumption motives in an attempt to uncover the underlying motives behind the excessive use of alcohol amongst students. This is in accordance with the primary objective formulated for this study, which was to analyse Generation Y students' perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives and consequent attitudes toward such consumption behaviour within the South African context.

It is believed that appropriate demarketing campaigns can follow once it is known why students drink in such an excessive manner. Hence, the primary objective was disassembled into six theoretical objectives (Section 1.3.2). Additionally, seven empirical objectives were constructed from the primary objective (Section 1.3.3).

This chapter, Chapter 5, embodies the conclusion of the study. First, an overview of the study (Section 5.2) is provided, and follows with an examination of the key findings gathered from the study (Section 5.3) on which specific recommendations (Section 5.4) are based. Section 5.5 comprises the details pertaining to the limitations and prospective research opportunities and Section 5.6 the closing remarks.

## 5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

In order to present the appropriate recommendations constructed from the findings gathered in this study, it is important to incorporate the insights obtained from the preceding four chapters.

The study is proposed in Section 1.1 of Chapter 1 and the problem statement stipulated in Section 1.2, which provides insights into why this study needed to be conducted and why Generation Y students were purposely used. The objectives for this study included one primary objective, six theoretical objectives as well as seven empirical objectives, as laid out within Section 1.3. Thereafter, specific hypotheses were formulated from the objectives, as laid out in Section 1.4. Moreover, the suggested research design and method utilised in this study was discussed in Section 1.5. Thereafter, the relevant ethical considerations were discussed in Section 1.6. Chapter 1 concluded with the chapter classification (Section 1.7).

Chapter 2 comprised the literature review, as directed from the formulated theoretical objectives. Section 2.2 comprises a discussion of the Generation Y cohort, on whom the conclusions drawn from this study will have application. The chapter included a discussion of consumer behaviour (Section 2.3), along with the decision-making process (Section 2.3.1). Subsequently, consumer motivation was discussed in Section 2.3.3, elaborating on motivation as a psychological drive (Section 2.3.3.1) as well as the dynamic nature of motivation (Section 2.3.3.2). Thereafter, the variables that influence alcohol-consumption behaviour were discussed (Section 2.4), where the patterns of alcohol use both globally and in South Africa were revealed (Section 2.4.1). This discussion was followed by the variables that shape alcohol-consumption behaviour (Section 2.4.2) where attitudes and motives form a critical part of uncovering the reasons behind Generation Y students' consumption habits.

A discussion of social marketing and the concept of demarketing was laid out in Section 2.5, where Section 2.5.1 provides information pertaining to the segmentation, targeting and positioning of the market on which the demarketing strategies (Section 2.5.2) are based. Due to the Generation Y student cohort being most susceptible to excessive alcohol use, various intervention strategies, in the form of demarketing campaigns need to be developed. This will be achieved based on the demarketing mix elements laid out in Chapter 2, where demarketing product strategies (Section 2.5.2.1), demarketing price strategies (Section 2.5.2.2), demarketing promotion strategies (Section 2.5.2.3), demarketing place strategies (Section 2.5.2.4) and penalties (Section 2.5.2.5) form the foundation of recommendations to be made in this study.

The research design and methodology used in this study was elaborated on in Chapter 3. This study used a descriptive research design (Section 3.2) and followed a quantitative research approach (Section 3.3). Within the sampling strategy (Section 3.4), the target population was defined as Generation Y full-time undergraduate students between the ages of 18 and 24 years, enrolled at registered public South African higher education institutions during 2016 (Section 3.4.1). The sampling frame (Section 2.4.2) consisted of the 26 South African HEIs, where, for the purpose of this study, a judgement sample of two universities in the Gauteng province was chosen; one a traditional university, the other, a university of technology. Thereafter, a single cross-sectional, non-probability, convenience sample of 500 full-time undergraduate Generation Y students was extracted from the target population (Section 3.4.3 and Section 3.4.4). A standardised self-administered questionnaire using the group self-administered questionnaire survey method was used for the purpose of gathering the required data for this study (Section 3.5). Before the administration of the main survey could commence (Section 3.7) the questionnaire had to be pre-tested (Section 3.6). The preliminary data analysis was reviewed in Section 3.8 whereas the statistical procedures conducted for this study was examined in Section 3.9.

Chapter 4 conveys the analysis and interpretation of the empirical portion of this study. The findings shown within Chapter 4 are in compliance with the empirical objectives devised for this study.

## 5.3 MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The main findings of this study are presented in order to meet the following empirical objectives:

- Determine Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived social motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived coping motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived enhancement motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine Generation Y students' perceived conformity motives for alcohol consumption.
- Determine the relationship between perceived social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives on Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.
- Determine the influence of perceived social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives on Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption.

The first empirical objective defined, was to determine Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption. The descriptive statistics indicate that Generation Y students have a positive attitude towards alcohol consumption, as indicated in Section 4.7, Table 4.7. A one-tailed one sample t-test, with the expected mean set at mean>3.5, was used to establish whether Generation Y students have positive attitudes toward alcohol consumption. As indicated in Table 4.8 Generation Y students seem to have a statistically significant positive attitude towards alcohol consumption ($p=0.000<0.05$).

These results are consistent with previous research of Malcic and Slijepcevic (2015) who found that a student sample showed a positive attitude towards alcohol use.

The purpose of the second, third, fourth and fifth empirical objectives, as formulated in Chapter 1, was to determine whether Generation Y students exhibit significant positive social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives to consume alcohol. The descriptive statistics indicate that Generation Y students display positive social motives, coping motives, enhancement motives as well as conformity motives to consume alcohol. A one-tailed one sample t-test, with the expected mean set at mean>3.5, was again employed to establish whether Generation Y students exhibit statistically significant positive social motives, coping motives, enhancement motives as well as conformity motives to consume alcohol. The highest mean recorded was for perceived social motives to consume alcohol (mean= 4.78), which indicates that Generation Y students perceive social motives as the strongest motive for alcohol use amongst students. This is consistent with the findings from the research of Tayob and Van der Heever (2014:370) who suggest that students drink mainly for social reasons. The second highest mean was recorded for enhancement motives to consume alcohol (mean= 4.72) and the third highest mean for coping motives to consume alcohol (mean= 4.72). All three perceived motives (social, coping and enhancement) recorded mean values above four. The lowest recorded mean was for perceived conformity motives to consume alcohol (mean= 3.82). Although perceived conformity motives to consume alcohol was positive, it achieved a low score, which indicates that Generation Y students slightly agree that conformity motives play a role in alcohol-consumption behaviour amongst students. These results are in keeping with the study of Du Preez *et al*. (2016:86-87) who found that there is no relationship between conformity motives and alcohol use. As such, $H_o2$, $H_o3$, $H_o4$ and $H_o5$ are rejected and the alternatives, $H_a2$, $H_a3$, $H_a4$ and $H_a5$, are concluded. Therefore, it is apparent that Generation Y students exhibit statistically significant positive social motives, coping motives, enhancement motives as well as conformity motives to consume alcohol.

The sixth empirical objective was to determine whether a relationship is present between Generation Y students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption and their perception of alcohol-consumption motives. As evident in Section 4.8 and Table 4.9, it was concluded, with performing correlation analysis using Pearson's Product-Moment coefficient that a statistically significant positive relationship exists between Generation Y students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption and their perception of alcohol-consumption motives. It is evident that the more positive an attitude that Generation Y students have, the greater their perception of alcohol-consumption motives will be.

The seventh empirical objective of the study was to determine the influence of perceived social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives on Generation Y students' attitudes towards alcohol consumption. A regression analysis was conducted since a relationship was confirmed between Generation Y students' attitudes toward alcohol consumption and their perceived social-, coping-, enhancement- and conformity motives for alcohol consumption. With regression analysis, it was concluded that Generation Y students' perceived social- and enhancement motives for alcohol consumption have a significantly positive influence on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption. A statistically significant negative influence was computed for Generation Y students' perceived conformity motives for alcohol consumption on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption. There is no statistically significant influence of Generation Y students' perceived coping motives for alcohol consumption on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption. Thus, in keeping with the outcomes drawn from this study, the model presented in Figure 5.1 illustrates the influence of Generation Y students' perceived alcohol-consumption motives on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption.

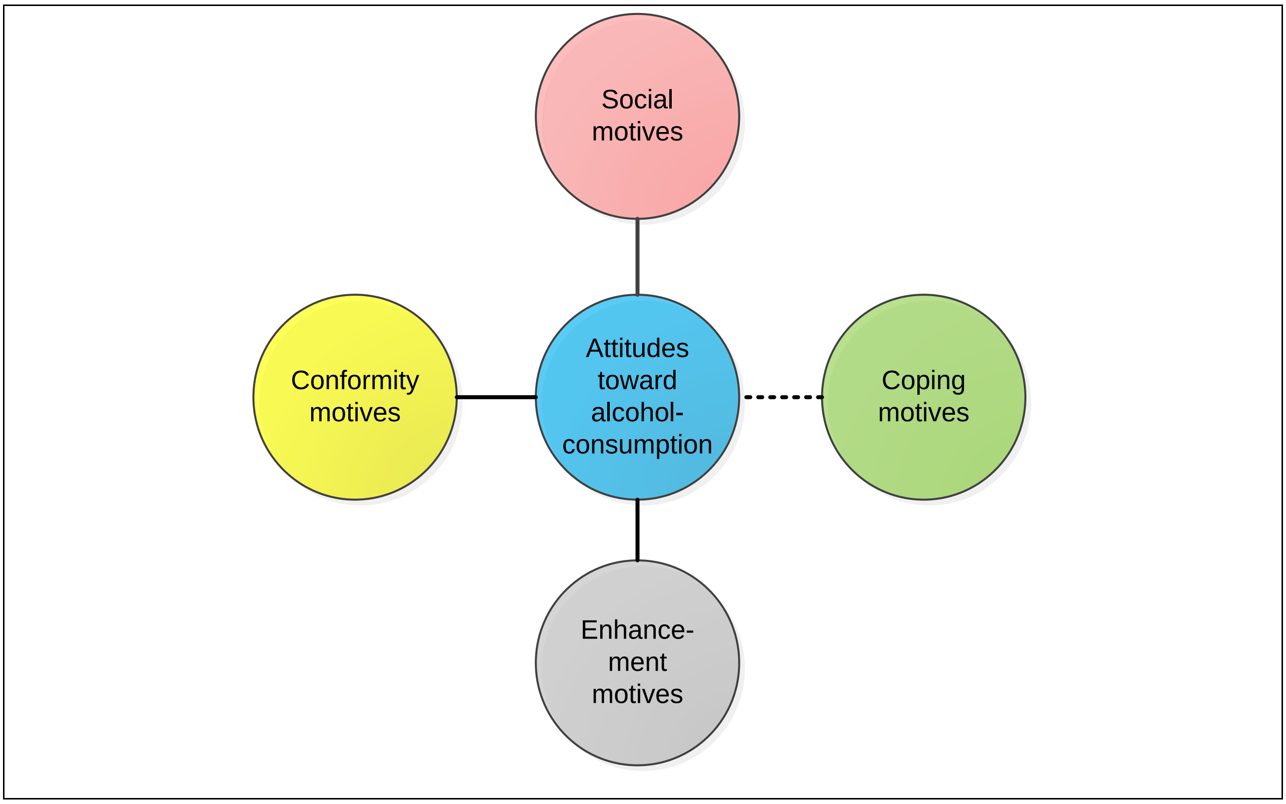



**Figure 5.1: Influence of Generation Y students' perceived alcohol-consumption motives on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption**

As can be seen from Figure 5.1, Generation Y students' perceived social-, enhancement- and conformity motives have a statistically significant influence on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption. However, Generation Y students' perceived coping motives do not have a statistically significant influence on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption. Therefore, coping as a motive for drinking alcohol does not influence Generation Y students' attitude, or their subsequent alcohol-consumption behaviour. These findings are in accordance with those of Du Preez *et al*. (2016:86-87), who found that there is no link between coping motives and drinking behaviour.

The following section comprises the recommendations, which were made based on the main findings of the study.

## 5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations are based on the literature review, alongside the empirical results from the South African Generation Y student sample pertaining to their attitudes toward alcohol consumption and perceived alcohol-consumption motives.

### 5.4.1 Change Generation Y consumers' attitudes to change their alcohol-consumption behaviour

The influence of attitudes on behaviour has been established through the ages. The outcomes gathered from this study suggest that Generation Y students exhibit positive attitudes toward alcohol consumption and as such, deem its use acceptable, even in a moderate capacity (Section 4.7 and Section 4.8.1).

Therefore, it is suggested that once Generation Y consumers' attitudes toward alcohol consumption can be altered to where they display a negative attitude towards the use of alcohol, their behaviour can subsequently be changed. Moreover, once Generation Y consumers display negative attitudes toward the use of alcohol, they will automatically reduce their own consumption.

Generation Y students had a strong, positive attitude pertaining to alcoholic beverages being enjoyable and making people feel good. Students should be made aware of alternative solutions to alcohol that has the same effects in the social environment. One example is non-alcoholic beer or plain carbonated soda that have the same ability of making social gatherings pleasurable. However, the attitude and view of students is that they need alcohol as a social "lubricant".

This change in attitudes can be achieved by properly and efficiently informing these individuals of the dangers and negative consequences (Section 1.1) inherent in excessive alcohol use. In order to target the Generation Y student cohort effectively, it is recommended that the HEIs become involved in the process, where an alcohol-use information session can be offered during the students' first week of orientation. They should attend workshops and information sessions that are presented by the institutions. Pamphlets, containing vital information about the dangers of excessive alcohol use, should also be distributed amongst students.

### 5.4.2 Use Generation Y consumers' perception of alcohol-consumption motives to change their alcohol-consumption behaviour

As suggested by Chartrand and Bargh (1999:893), Generation Y students fall under the "Chameleon Affect" where they believe students' behaviour in general, both passively and unintentionally change to match that of others in the immediate social environment. Since the influence of Generation Y students' perceived social- and enhancement motives on their attitudes toward alcohol consumption was established, it can be said that they drink for the purpose of enhancement, but mainly to be sociable.

Therefore, campaigns aimed at changing the stereotype that 'all students drink' and alcohol being a social "lubricant" (Section 2.4.2.2) should be developed. Once Generation Y students' perception that alcohol is necessary in order to be social is changed, their alcohol-consumption use is likely to decline.

Similarly, due to newly formed friendships when first entering university often involve alcohol and becomes many student's main priority (Section 2.4.2.2), campaigns should be developed based on the communication strategy proposed in Section 2.5.2.3.

First, a message should be formulated, aimed at the Generation Y student cohort, which states, for example, individualism defeats conformity. Thereafter, appropriate messengers such as the SRC should be appointed to deliver this message by means of a creative strategy. Lastly, the communication channels to be used will comprise mainly social media channels, namely YouTube, Facebook, Twitter and Instagram, and on campus.

### 5.4.3 Focus demarketing strategies toward the Generation Y cohort

The future of the economic sector of South Africa is in the hands of Generation Y consumers. The Generation Y students attending HEIs with the aim of acquiring a tertiary qualification are steering the country into a better future of economic growth. However, these individuals, aged between 18 and 24, were also indicated as the group of heaviest alcohol abusers (Section 2.4.1).

Targeting the Generation Y student cohort will not only assist marketers to persuade this specific segment of the market, but also the wider South African Generation Y population. These individuals can be reached through developing various anti-alcohol campaigns based on the findings of this study, where they will be reached using different methods, including social media networks (YouTube, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram), mobile advertising and through collaborating with participating HEIs.

Although the results of this study demonstrate that Generation Y students have positive attitudes toward alcohol consumption, the results of a recent study show that Black Generation Y students, who represent the majority of the student cohort in South Africa, have a positive attitude towards the demarketing of not only smoking, but alcohol consumption as well (Roets, 2013).

Therefore, the demarketing strategies laid out in Section 2.5.2 should be applied to this population.

### 5.4.4 Encourage Generation Y students to use healthier alternatives to alcohol

One of the managerial recommendations is that alternative products and solutions should be developed and made available, not only to consumers in general, but also specifically to Generation Y students. This forms part of the demarketing product strategy, as laid out in Section 2.5.2.1. Once these products are developed, the target market should be encouraged to use these alternatives.

One such alternative is non-alcoholic beer, which is similar in taste to regular alcoholic beverages, but without the alcohol content. However, these beverages are not as aggressively marketed to the public as commercial alcoholic beverages are. It is possible that many Generation Y consumers are not yet aware of such alternatives. Therefore, marketing practitioners and managerial entities have a responsibility to create the awareness of non-alcoholic beer and beverages in addition to the benefits inherent in the use of these products.

Another alternative is a recently developed experimental drug (ABT-436) that had promising results pertaining to treating problem drinking as well as smoking. The drug targets a chemical that aids in regulating brain circuits involved in emotion. This drug plays a vital role in reducing excessive and regular alcohol use with individuals that have high stress levels and/or experience withdrawal. Once the drug is established in the consumer market and available to the South African public, it should be presented as a treatment to students who experience withdrawal and/or stress.

Despite alternative products being made available to consumers, Generation Y students still prefer alcoholic beverages. Therefore, the packaging of the alcoholic products needs to be adapted accordingly.

Instead of placing warning labels on alcoholic beverages, such as “Alcohol abuse is dangerous to your health” and “Alcohol is addictive”, rather add statistical and informative labels that students understand. These labels should be devised in the form of “Did you know?” where an example would be “Did you know that 9 967 individuals were fatally wounded in alcohol-impaired driving crashes this year?” and “Did you know that excessive alcohol consumption led to in the region of 88 000 fatalities between 2006 and 2010?” with the addition of “Think before you drink.” An alternative to informative labels are health messages, including the outcomes of alcohol use. One example would be to state what the amount of calories are in a particular beverage (7kcal per gram of alcohol) and that excessive use is not only a causing factor of 200 diseases, but leads to weight gain as well.

In addition to corrective labelling, all alcoholic beverages must contain a helpline that students can dial if they want to quit drinking or need assistance to reduce or understand their drinking problem. This helpline or website information should be clearly visible and if not included on bottle labelling, should be provided by entities or individuals who sell alcohol to the public.

### 5.4.5 Encourage authoritative entities’ involvement to educate and influence Generation Y consumers

Certain authority figures play a vital role in shaping Generation Y students’ alcohol-consumption habits. These authority figures include the government, parents, and higher education institutions and relevant staff members. The role that celebrities and sport stars play in Generation Y decision making should not be underestimated. Generation Y consumers look up to these individuals for behavioural guidance and often mimic their behaviour. Therefore, these entities have a responsibility to reshape Generation Y students’ alcohol-consumption behaviour.

The government is testing public response after proposing that the legal drinking age in South Africa be raised from 18 to 21. This decision was made based on the consequences of alcohol abuse resulting in an annual cost to government of R37.9 billion. These costs are accrued as a result of patient hospitalisation, accidents and various social problems in addition to the potential harmful effect of alcohol on individuals of society and entire communities. However, the government can impose efforts that are more successful in reducing the damage caused by alcohol abuse. As stated in Section

2.5.2.3, a successful demarketing promotion strategy will be achieved once the government elects on banning the advertisement of alcohol in the country, as in the case with tobacco. Research indicates that such a decision will reduce exposure to alcohol, resulting in a reduced likelihood of early alcohol use and alcohol-related harm as well as an increase in healthier lifestyles. Therefore, the government should ban the advertisement and promotion of all alcoholic beverages from large-scale media. It is also suggested that the government restrict the amount of alcohol that can be sold to one individual as well as students, subsequently limiting the availability of alcohol. Further, the Department of Health should provide students with a sufficient amount of drinking facts, which will provide them with the necessary information about alcohol consumption.

Parents play a vital role in shaping their children's behaviour from an early age. It was shown that parents' attitudes toward alcohol significantly influenced their children's alcohol-consumption behaviour. Therefore, it is the parents' responsibility to educate their children properly, from an early age, about the dangers of excessive alcohol use as well as the correct way to use it. It is important that parents teach their children that it is acceptable to use alcohol, only if doing so in a responsible manner. It is important that parents provide their children, as well as growing adolescents with proper information about using alcohol and that alcohol is not necessary to form relationships.

Since it is Generation Y students who drink excessively, especially when attending higher education institutions, these institutions have a responsibility in educating their students and preventing the damages caused by alcohol abuse. As such, various strategies can be developed and implemented by these institutions. For instance, there should be an Alcohol and Other Drug (AOD) abuse prevention program in place, which is an on-campus resource for students with concerns about alcohol and other drug use in their own lives or in their community. This strategy should be initiated by relevant health educators, peer educators or academics and senior administrators at each of the 26 South African public higher education institutions. Another strategy to create awareness about alcohol consumption is to address alcohol abuse by encouraging students to craft their own alcohol education projects. This can be done during a class period, facilitated by academics, for extra credit. HEIs can launch a campaign adopted by the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism of the U.S. "Be Cool. Be You. Don't Drink. The Party is Over" which aims to reduce the serious and often fatal consequences of alcohol use in young adults. The campaign can be initiated by distributing posters on notice boards around the campus. A further attempt to reduce alcohol abuse amongst students is through the introduction of a Campus Community Alcohol Management Project (CCAMP), which is a prevention initiative designed to reduce high-risk drinking and related problems among young adults aged between 18 to 24. The purpose of this project is to prevent underage drinkers to have access to alcohol, reduce the number of students who supply alcohol to youth and more importantly, to reduce the number of students who experience alcohol-related problems such as alcohol poisoning, fights and sexual assault.

There are several celebrities and sport stars who endorse the use of alcohol, which can often be misleading to the uninformed individual who idolises these individuals. It creates the idea that celebrities consider alcohol acceptable and, therefore, it must be, without contemplating the dangers of excessive alcohol use. Celebrities and sports starts, who are well aware of their influence on young consumers, have the responsibility to advocate the safe use of alcohol; even endorsing non-alcoholic beverages. Once the message is clear that non-alcoholic beverages or beers are just “as cool” as drinking alcohol with friends, students will also adopt this belief.

### 5.4.6 Encourage community involvement

The community in which Generation Y students live plays an important role in their attitudes toward the use of alcohol as well as their drinking behaviour. Therefore, the community should become involved in the education and prevention of alcohol related damages.

A Community Alliance Network (CAN) can be established in every community. This network should be committed to create and implement prevention campaigns that demotivate the consumption of alcohol. This can be achieved by supplying community members with proper training, workshops and informative presentations, which should be scheduled to take place at regular intervals. In doing this, members of the community will receive technical assistance and education about alcohol.

The Youth to Youth campaign, a successful American-based campaign, is a community based drug prevention and youth leadership program that focuses on harnessing the powerful influence of peer pressure. The aim of the program is to encourage young people to live free of alcohol. If this campaign can be expanded to communities in South Africa, the influence that peer pressure has on excessive alcohol use can be reduced.

This will be a preventative measure to future generation students, who will be equipped with handling peer pressure as they enter university. This campaign makes use of conferences, training, workshops and a website from which information can be obtained.

The 100 percent control campaign, employed by the West Australian government, targeting children between 12 to 17 years of age, can be adapted in South African communities. This campaign raises awareness about the harms associated with alcohol. This strategy provides information on various platforms including the media, factsheets, distributing information cards, creating posters and billboards, as well as publications that academics can use to give their students accurate information. All of these components should be made available to members in the community. The posters and information cards can be positioned at various bus stops or related transport sites and shopping centres close to where residents live, especially near alcohol-distributing locations.

Another Australian initiative that can be adapted to the South African consumer market is their “Are You Responsible? Be Part of It Not Out of It” campaign. This initiative encourages the community to rethink their level of responsibility with regard to young people and alcohol. “Be Part of It Not Out of It” will be redesigned to stimulate students to think about the way they drink (frequent binge-drinking), how much they drink and how they might adopt a less risky approach to drinking. This campaign should be supported by media releases, advertisements on local television, radio, posters, print media, pamphlets and promotional material.

## 5.5 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

This study measured the perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives amongst Generation Y students. Similar to other studies, this study is subject to particular limitations and by itself, presents numerous prospective research opportunities.

The first limitation is that this study employed a non-probability convenience sampling method when the data was collected from the participants (Section 3.4.3). Therefore, it is advised that the analysis of the results be interpreted with caution. Moreover, a single cross-sectional research design was used (Section 3.2) and as a consequence, the findings derived from this study lack the accuracy of a longitudinal study.

Another limitation concerning this study was locality, which was limited to the Vaal Triangle and in only one South African province, namely Gauteng, where participants from only two HEIs were sampled (Section 3.4.2). Therefore, the opportunity exists to perform research on a wider scale, at HEIs across all nine provinces. In doing so, more insight into Generation Y students' perception of alcohol-consumption motives will be gained.

This study concentrated only on full-time undergraduate students attending HEIs, where all individuals aged between 18 and 24 are individuals who are at most risk for consuming excessive amounts of alcohol (Section 1.1). This affords an opportunity for research practitioners to conduct an investigation on the non-student segment of the South African Generation Y cohort. Research of this nature will determine whether there are any differences in the perception of alcohol-consumption motives between these two segments and, subsequently, if a gap exists in the market to appeal to non-students as well.

Further limitations include only focusing on the perception of alcohol-consumption motives amongst the selected sample, leaving an opportunity to conduct further research on actual motives for alcohol consumption, therefore, determining whether actual motives of alcohol use amongst the Generation Y cohort influence their alcohol-consumption behaviour. In doing so, future demarketing strategies can be accurately based on actual motives, instead of Generation Y students' perception thereof.

While the sample size (500 participants) for this research study was satisfactory (Section 3.4.4) it should be taken into consideration that for successful demarketing strategies to be devised, aimed at a country wide change in consumption habits, a larger scale study, involving more participants needs to be conducted.

## 5.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Whether the South African government decides to ban the advertising and promotion of alcohol across the country or not, various and valuable demarketing campaigns can be developed based on the findings of this study. Due to the increasing costs accrued to various government departments, as a direct result of alcohol abuse and the Generation Y cohort at the heart of the problem, drastic intervention efforts need to be initiated to target this segment successfully, especially to ensure a prosperous future for the country. As this study focused only on uncovering attitudes and perception of drinking motives, there is an opportunity for possible future research that may uncover the actual motives behind the South African Generation Y cohorts' excessive consumption. Research of this nature will enable marketers to develop demarketing strategies that are more accurate, which will subsequently reduce the negative impact that alcohol has on society, as well as the individual consumer.

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# ANNEXURE A

# QUESTIONNAIRE

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
VAAL TRIANGLE CAMPUS

## Perception of alcohol-consumption motives amongst Generation Y students

Dear participant

I am currently working towards my dissertation under the supervision of Dr. Anita Lennox and co-supervision of Prof. Natasha de Klerk as part of the requirements for completing my MCom in Marketing Management at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus).

The purpose of my research project is to determine the perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives amongst Generation Y students. Please assist me by completing the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire is user-friendly and should take approximately 10 minutes to complete on a voluntary basis only.

All responses are confidential and the results will only be used for research purposes, outlined in the form of statistical data.

Thank you most sincerely - your assistance and contribution is highly appreciated.

Chantel Muller
Mullerc042@gmail.com
Faculty of Economic Sciences & IT

**SECTION A: Demographical Information**

Please mark the appropriate box with a cross (X) or write down your answer.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| A1 | **Name of your institution:** | Traditional University | University of Technology |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| A2 | **Country of origin:** | South Africa | Other (Please specify): |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A3 | **Province of origin:** | Eastern Cape | Free State | Gauteng | KwaZulu-Natal |
| | Limpopo | Mpumalanga | Northern Cape | North West | Western Cape |
| | Other (please specify): | | | | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| A4 | **Registered:** | Full-time | Part-time |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A5 | **Current year of study:** | 1st year | 2nd year | 3rd year | 4th year | Post graduate |

| A6 | **Gender:** | Male | Female |
|---|---|---|---|

| A7 | **Ethnic group:** | Black/African | Coloured | Indian/Asian | White |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Other (please specify): | | | | |

| A8 | **Please indicate your mother tongue language:** | | | Afrikaans | English | IsiNdebele | IsiXhosa |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | IsiZulu | Sepedi | Sesotho | Setswana | SiSwati | Tshivenda | Xitsonga |
| | Other (please specify): | | | | | | |

| A9 | **Age at your last birthday:** | <18 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | >25 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

| A10 | **Monthly income/allowance:** | < R500 | R501 – R1000 | R1001 – R1500 | R1501 – R2000 | > R2001 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

| A11 | **Main source of monthly income:** | Bursary | Work | Loan | Parents | Relative |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Other (please specify): | | | | | |

| A12 | **Where do you live?** | Informal housing | Flat | Town house/ House | Hostel/ Student house/ Residence |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Other (please specify): | | | | |

| A13 | **How many people live with you?** | I live alone | 2 – 5 | 5 or more |
|---|---|---|---|---|

## SECTION B: Alcohol consumption behaviour

**A STANDARD DRINK IS ONE DRINK, SUCH AS ONE BOTTLE / CAN OF BEER / CIDER (330ML) / GLASS OF WINE (120ML) / SINGLE SHOT (25ML) OF DISTILLED LIQUOR**

Please mark the appropriate box with a cross (X) or write down your answer.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| B1 | **Do you consume alcohol?** | Yes | No |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| B1B | **IF NO, please specify why not by selecting ONE of the following reasons:** | | Alertness concerns | Availability concerns | Control concerns | Economic concerns |
| | Health concerns | Peer/family concerns | Religious/ Moral concerns | Safety concerns | Social image concerns | Taste concerns |
| | Other (please specify): | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| B2 | **IF YES, how often do you and your friends consume alcohol?** | Special occasions | Monthly | Weekly | Daily |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| B3 | **IF YES, how much do you and your friends spend (on average) per month on alcoholic beverages?** | Less than R300 | R301-R600 | R601-R1000 | More than R1000 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| B4 | **IF YES, how many drinks (on average) do you and your friends consume on one occasion?** | 1 – 2 | 3 – 6 | 7 or more |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| B5 | **IF YES, which alcoholic beverages do you and your friends drink the MOST of (Select ONE):** | Wine | Cider | Beer | Distilled liquor (whiskey, brandy, vodka) |
| Other (please specify): | | | | | |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| B6 | **IF YES, who are you MOST likely to drink alcohol with?** | Alone | Family/ relatives | Friends |

## SECTION C: Attitudes toward alcohol consumption

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

| | I feel that: | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Disagree Somewhat | Agree Somewhat | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| C1 | People have the right to drink alcohol. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C2 | Alcoholic beverages are enjoyable and make people feel good. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C3 | The use of alcoholic beverages is normal. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C4 | Drinking one standard alcoholic beverage is considered as drinking socially. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C5 | Drinking moderately is not harmful. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C6 | Alcohol, in small amounts, is beneficial. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C7 | Alcohol relieves daily tensions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C8 | I am favourable to drinking moderately. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C9 | There are people who know how to drink and know how to control themselves. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C10 | Drinking any amount of alcohol may cause alcohol dependence. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C11 | I am against using alcohol at any time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C12 | Small amounts of alcohol can cause alcohol addiction. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

## SECTION D: Perceptions of alcohol-consumption motives

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

| | I think students consume alcohol: | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Disagree Somewhat | Agree Somewhat | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| D1 | Because it helps them to enjoy a party. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D2 | To be sociable. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D3 | Because it makes social gatherings more fun for them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D4 | Because it improves parties and celebrations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D5 | To celebrate a special occasion with friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D6 | To forget about their worries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D7 | Because it helps them when feeling depressed or nervous. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D8 | To cheer them up when they are in a bad mood. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D9 | Because they feel more self-confident and sure of themselves. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D10 | To forget about their problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D11 | Because they like the feeling. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D12 | Because it is exciting to them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D13 | Because they want to get drunk. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D14 | Because it gives them a pleasant feeling. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D15 | Because it is fun. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D16 | Because their friends pressure them to drink. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D17 | So that others won't tease them about *not* drinking. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D18 | To fit in with a group they like. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D19 | To be liked. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| D20 | So that they won't feel left out. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |